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Perceived Roles of Vice President of Student Affairs in U.S. Colleges and Universities

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Perceived Roles of Vice President of Student Affairs in
U.S. Colleges and Universities

by

Gerald T. Russo-Stannard

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Presented to the Faculty of the
College of Education, Information, and Technology

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Long Island University
Post Campus

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Dedicated to my husband Edward L. Russo-Stannard,
who is, and always will be, my greatest supporter and motivator,
and
to my mom, Patricia R. Stannard, my dad, Gerald T. Stannard Sr.,
and my grandma Rose M. Stannard,
who passed before I completed this dissertation.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS..... iii

TABLE OF CONTENTSiv

LIST OF TABLES.....xi

LIST OF FIGURESxii

ABSTRACT xiii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION..... 1

Statement of Problem3

Purpose of the Study.....5

Research Questions..... 6

Procedures6

Limitations of Research.....7

Significance of the Study.....7

Organization of Study.....9

Definitions of Key Terms 11

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE..... 14

History of Higher Education and Vice President for Student Affairs 17

 1606 – 1776 18

 1776 – 1880 20

 1880 – 1914 23

 1915 – 1945 25

 1946 – 1969 33

 1970 – 1989 38

- 1990 – Present Day.....42
- Role and Structure of Student Affairs in Higher Education.....49
- Institutional Transformation and Change53
- Leadership in Higher Education.....56
- Leadership in Student Affairs.....59
- Roles of the Vice President for Student Affairs62
- Leadership and Supervisory Responsibilities.....64
 - Enrollment Management / Admissions66
 - Housing & Residence Life66
 - Career Services.....69
 - Counseling Services69
 - College Union / Student Life / Student Activities.....70
 - Student Conduct Programs70
 - Orientation.....71
 - Financial Management71
 - Legal Issues/Policy Development73
 - External Affairs74
 - Educator.....74
 - Fundraising.....75
- Navigating the Bureaucracy of the University75
- VPSA Qualifications and Characteristics.....77
 - Graduate Education and Degrees77
 - Characteristics78

Skills and Competencies for Student Affairs Professionals	78
Current competencies for student affairs professionals.....	79
Personal and ethical foundations	79
Values, philosophy, and history	80
Assessment, evaluation, and research.....	81
Law, policy, and governance.....	81
Organizational and human resources.....	82
Leadership	83
Social justice and inclusion	84
Student learning and development	84
Technology	85
Advising and supporting.....	86
Chapter Summary	88
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	90
Purpose of the Study and Research Questions	90
<i>Q</i> -methodology.....	90
Research Design and Implementation of <i>Q</i> -methodology	94
<i>Q</i> -Studies as Hypothesis Generating Research	94
<i>Q</i> -Statements Sample	95
Person Sample	100
Sample in <i>Q</i> -studies.....	101
Condition of Instruction.....	103
Participants	104

Age, Experience, Gender and Ethnicity	104
Institution Demographics	106
Data Collection	106
Transposed Data Matrix	107
<i>Q</i> -Mode Factor Analysis	108
Factor rotation.....	108
Factor Scores and <i>Q</i> -scores	109
<i>Q</i> -models	110
Reliability and external validity	111
Data Analysis.....	111
Procedures	112
Ethical Consideration	113
Methodological Limitations of the Study	113
Chapter Summary	113
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS.....	115
Results of <i>Q</i> -Factor Analysis.....	116
Research Question 1	118
Model 1: Administrative Oversight.....	120
Model 2: Policy Development.....	123
Model 3: Strategic Initiatives	126
Model 4: Institutional Leadership.....	131
Research Question 2	136
Relative Prevalence of <i>Q</i> -Models.....	137

Research Question 3 138

Chapter Summary 142

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH 146

Summary of the Study 146

 The Role of the VPSA 154

 Functional Area’s Reporting to the VPSA 155

 Skills & Competencies 158

Significant Findings..... 159

 Personal and ethical foundations 160

 Values, philosophy, and history 161

 Assessment, evaluation, and research..... 161

 Law, policy, and governance..... 161

 Organizational and human resources..... 161

 Leadership 161

 Social justice and inclusion 162

 Student learning and development 162

 Technology 162

 Advising and supporting..... 162

Discussion..... 166

Strengths and Limitations..... 170

Implications for Educational Policy, Leadership, and Practice..... 173

 Educational Policy and Leadership 173

Conclusion and Suggestions for Future Research 174

Research Question 1 175

Research Question 2 175

Research Question 3 176

REFERENCES 178

APPENDIX A. PERMISSION TO USE..... 197

APPENDIX B. IRB APPROVAL 198

APPENDIX C. STUDY INSTRUMENT.....200

APPENDIX D. SCREENSHOTS OF SURVEY 201

APPENDIX F. ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX.....221

LIST OF TABLES

Tables		Page
1	Ranking of the Importance of Competencies of Chief Student Affairs Officers by Surveyed College Presidents (Randall, 1992).....	40
2	<i>Q</i> -sample Theoretical Framework: Themes, <i>Q</i> -statements, and Sources	95
3	Total and Individual Variance Explained, and Eigen Values	117
3.1	Model 1: Administrative Oversight	119
3.2	Model 2: Performance Management	122
3.3	Model 3: Institutional Leadership	125
3.4	Model 4: Institutional Leadership	130

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Quasi-normal, fixed-distributional, on-line <i>Q</i> -sort template with 9-point scale and 48 statement slots.....	100
2	Scree plot of eigenvalues by factor number.....	116

ABSTRACT

Literature describing the role of the Vice President for Student Affairs (VPSA) is plentiful, but research studies describing the perceptions of those serving as VPSA with regard to the nature of the position and its changes have proven to be fewer in quantity. This study developed a deeper understanding of the perceived role of the VPSA by exploring how its role is construed by current, experienced VPSAs. *Q*-Methodology was employed to elicit personal constructs from VPSAs as a means of identifying a set of shared viewpoints about the VPSA role. Background information on the participants was collected and was associated with the model viewpoints, which serve to describe their individual conceptions of the VPSA role.

Keywords: dean of students, college, higher education, *Q*-Methodology, student affairs, university, vice president, VPSA.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

There are 4,140 colleges and universities in the United States. Of these, 3,800 institutions have the position of Vice President of Student Affairs (VPSA)¹, suggesting it to be an essential position.² At many colleges and universities, a VPSA is assumed to have a global perspective whereby he/she is very involved in long-term planning, holds an institutional view, and participates fully in the financial management of the college. One challenge of this work is that each institution has a different organizational structure to deliver student support services, based on the desires of the university president and needs of the campus community (Lunsford, 1984). As a result, there is not a consistent understanding of the responsibilities and roles of the VPSA across institutions of higher education. Although many colleges and universities share similar views regarding the positions, they all vary to some extent. Moreover, it is important to note that, as the educational landscape has changed over the years since this position was first introduced at colleges and universities, the position itself has also changed. In light of the varying educational landscape and the growing complexities in the field of higher education, there are certain questions that beg for response: what are the current responsibilities of the VPSA, how have these responsibilities been shaped by historical and current educational contexts, and the degree to which they vary across a myriad of organizational structures.

¹ The title of vice president for student affairs (VPSA) varies greatly from institution to institution. Researchers in recent issues of *The Chronicle of Higher Education* identified titles of chief student affairs officers (CSAO) to include the following: vice president for student affairs, vice chancellor for student affairs, vice president for student development, chief student affairs officer, dean of students, vice president for student learning, and vice provost for student affairs. For the purpose of this study, the title vice president for student affairs will be used to designate this position.

² For the purpose of this dissertation, “essential” will mean absolutely necessary; extremely important. The VPSA provides support and serves to enhance student growth and development. People who work within the division of student affairs field are known as student affairs practitioners or student affairs professionals. These student affairs practitioners work to provide services and support for students and drive student learning outside of the classroom at institutions of higher education.

Two postings outlining the descriptions for the position of VPSA are excerpted below.

What follows is a consideration of how each posting illustrates the differences in the roles of the administrators³ responsible for student affairs and how that affects overall perception of this role in higher education:

Position #1

“This University is a private research university located in the capital of the U.S., offering degree programs in seventy-one disciplines, enrolling on average of 11,000 undergraduate and 15,500 postgraduate students from more than 130 countries. Reporting to the Provost and Executive Vice President for Academic Affairs, the VPSA and the Division of Student Affairs supports the mission, by enhancing the student experience through programs and services that focus on Student Learning and Success; Student and Family Engagement; and Wellness, Education, and Prevention. In undertaking its work, the Division of Student Affairs is guided by the university’s core values of learning, communication, community, diversity, excellence, respect, service, sustainability, and teamwork, the Provost's Operating Principles, and these key principles. The Division of Student Affairs supports the strategic priorities of the University as articulated in A Strategic Plan of the University. The Division is especially focused on developing and maintaining programs and services that promote a unified student experience.”

Position #2

“This University is a private, nonsectarian, residential college located in Upstate, New York, offering degree programs in 50 concentrations, enrolling on average 2,000 undergraduate students from more than 45 countries. As a residential college, this university places emphasis on the total development of the student, both as a member of the College community and as a citizen in society. A residential setting creates opportunities for students to encounter and appreciate values and lifestyles different from their own, to clarify their personal values and to learn to express their own beliefs. As residents of the College community, students have the opportunity to make decisions that govern their actions, and they will be challenged to accept the consequences of those decisions, both in and outside of the classroom.”

Based on these descriptions, the role of the VPSA is similar in mission, vision, and overall scope of responsibilities at first glance. Responsibilities of the VPSA position entail coordinating support for students, fostering collaboration, addressing assessment, and keeping

³ For the purpose of the dissertation and consistency in language, this study refers to the institutional lead administrator as the VPSA.

abreast of legal requirements. However, due to institutional structure variations, the departments that are housed in the division of Student Affairs and report to the VPSA are different.

Differences between the institutions, such as the relative sizes and types of their student populations (graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) and their locations (rural/urban), may come with different responsibilities and necessitate different skill sets. As a rule, VPSAs have found it difficult to model this role as the institutional structure has become more diverse (i.e.; institutional reporting structure, institutional resources, institutional and world politics, etc.) (Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen, 2006). To address the extent to which institutional differences might affect the role of VSPA, this study analyzed the relationship between a number of key institutional factors and the role of the VPSA from the perspective of VPSAs themselves, as they are the individuals best positioned to see the role in the context of such institutional factors.

While differences in institutional characteristics may have an impact, the role of the VPSA is likely to be determined by many, often conflicting, expectations within an institution. These expectations can include the organizational structure of the institution as well as the institution's history and culture. Additionally, the external demands on higher education continuously alter the role of the VPSA. Multicultural issues, the Higher Education Act most recently amended in 1998, tuition and fees, Title IX, students with disabilities, enrollment, financial aid, and technology are some of the challenges facing higher education and the role of the VPSA. Considering these changes, it is clear the need for effective leaders is as important—perhaps more important—than any other time in history. This study addressed the extent to which VPSAs perceive these external demands to be prevalent in their everyday work.

Statement of Problem

Research on the VPSA helps to expand the existing body of knowledge on the VPSA (Apraku-Amankkwaatia, 2004; Blaine, 1997; Edwards, 2006; Geller, 2004; Martin, 2010; Roper, 1995, Sanders, 2009). The VPSA plays a crucial role in shaping the campus culture by tending to its most important constituents, the students. Recent studies have focused on the roles and responsibilities of the VPSA. Taylor (2001) stated:

The VPSA must juggle diverse roles and perform a wide range of tasks critical to the success of their college or university. As manager and supervisors, VPSAs are expected to deal with budgets, staff development, policy questions, external publics and problem solving...VPSAs are being asked to tackle such complex issues as increasing the quality and efficiency of campus programs and services to meet the demands of internal and external organizational stakeholders. (p.2)

The intent of this study is to address the gaps in the literature along with examining not only the size of the institution but also the institution variables, e.g. the relative sizes and types of their student populations (graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) and their locations (rural/urban). These differences may necessitate a different skill set and set of responsibilities for the appropriate person for the specific position.

The literature presents the complex and changing nature of the VPSA role, which necessitates the need to examine the VPSA position to ensure the long-term viability of the student affairs area and the development of future leadership and a corresponding pipeline. Blaine (1997) recommended that future studies work to continually update the demographic profile of the VPSA while also paying close attention to the differences in campus size. It is the intent of this research to address these gaps in the literature along with examining not only the

size of the institution but also the institution type (public, private and other colleges and universities). Franklin (1985) mapped the characteristics, career patterns, and professional preparations of VPSAs at private liberal arts colleges and called for an updated examination of the VPSA position that this study set to accomplish. Smith (2002) provided some additional insight into gaps in the literature by recommending an update of the demographical data because within her study there was an apparent lack of diversity. Smith (2002) stated, "Delving into the underlying causes of this lack of diversity might prove to be an enlightening study" (p. 71). Stimpson's (2009) qualitative study recommended that further research be done on the VPSAs career and life path employing quantitative research methods while also examining the "role race plays in the career paths of VPSAs," both of which this study addressed (p. 89). In a 1996 study of the nature and role of the VPSA in the Southeast, Scharre (1996) concluded that future studies ought to explore "demographic differences in VPSAs responses including institutional size and personal information about the VPSA". A review of the literature reveals that researchers have not taken his recommendation. This dissertation was the first to study the relationship between various aspects of colleges and universities, such as the relative sizes and types of their student populations (graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) and their locations (rural/urban), as well as the role of VPSAs from the perspective of VPSAs themselves. It is theorized that the patterns of role definition will be highly correlated with such demographic data. Such information could provide a rich ground for future research that could align professional development and training with the roles VPSAs truly assume.

Purpose of the Study

Studies of the nature and role of VPSAs have focused exclusively on the functions of the position, but none have considered the question relative to the perceptions of those who occupy it. One goal of this study is to fill a void in the higher education literature regarding the characteristics, functions, and role of the VPSA as perceived by VPSAs in colleges and universities in the United States. Additionally, the current study attempted to identify some of the key institutional factors that shape the role of the VPSA. In light of that goal, this dissertation (1) reviews the history of universities and of the VPSA position in order to examine possible changes in institutional needs and demands, addressing how these could have implications for definitions of the role, and (2) reviews different components of current organizational structures of universities in order to examine how various current pressures and needs affect the VPSA role as they perceive it.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to discover and measure models of the shared viewpoints of VPSAs in U.S. universities about their roles. The research was guided by the following research questions (RQ).

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of each of the identified shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

Answers to these questions can inform the research and theory about VPSAs, help to better define our understanding of the role of VPSAs, and can inform higher education policy, organization, and practice.

Procedures

The design of this research reflects a hypothesis-generating, exploratory study, whose purpose is to provide an empirical examination of shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. The study is grounded in the constructivist paradigm and focuses on discovering subjective viewpoints. Therefore, *Q*-methodology was selected as the principal element of the research design.

Limitations of Research

Limitations for this study were related to the methodological instruments and practices used by the researcher, indicated as follows:

1. While *Q*-methodology is considered pertinent to both qualitative and quantitative research (Brown, 1980), it involves subjective assessment. Individuals asked to rank order leadership behaviors and characteristics of VPSAs could, in their responses, have focused on the VPSA on their campus, rather than attributes desired for the position held by that person.
2. While one goal of a mixed design study is to better triangulate the data, the nature of the qualitative component lends itself to the fact that results are relevant to the type of data collected by the researcher (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Other researchers who have a different focus could make different conclusions. Qualitative reliability of the results for this study was linked to data applicable to VPSA leadership behavior and characteristic descriptors.

Significance of the Study

The proposed study focused on the perceptions of VPSAs today about their varied roles in U.S. universities. A review of the research literature on the role of VPSAs is limited, with little data on how VPSAs view their own role. This study is designed to discover the shared

conceptions of the role of the VPSA as revealed through Q Methodology, a research methodology developed for the scientific study of human subjectivity (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2012). It details the perceptions of VPSAs about their varied roles and provides insights that could come only from those reflecting on their own experience of the position. This study identifies the characteristics of the role of the VPSA in the context of the perception of VPSAs job responsibilities, reporting relationships and financial concerns; it also elaborates VPSA perceptions based upon a VPSA survey. Further, this study explores the extent to which outside regulations, student body, type of institution, organizational structure, and other varying criteria (urban/rural, graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) play a role in perceptions of the VPSA role. It is expected that such insights will offer meaningful guidance to future VPSAs in higher education institutions as they focus on how best to gain the requisite skills and knowledge not only to fill this role, but to embody a consistent leadership position in this role.

Studies of the nature and role of VPSAs have focused exclusively on the functions of the position, but none of those studies has considered the question relative to the perceptions of those who occupy it. The goal of this study is to fill a void in the higher education literature regarding the characteristics, functions, and role of the VPSA as perceived by VPSAs in colleges and universities in the United States. In order to understand the current role and functions of VPSAs, this study begins with a brief review of the evolution of the position since the student affairs profession first emerged in higher education in the United States. This historical framework provides a context to the current role of the position over time relative to larger, more global changes in higher education.

It is expected that such insights will offer meaningful guidance to future VPSAs in higher education institutions. The results of this study also contribute to higher education theory and the related research literature, and aim to be useful to educational researchers, policymakers, college presidents, trustees, faculty, current and prospective VPSAs, and those aspiring to work in student affairs.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is presented in five chapters. The first chapter provides an introduction and overview of the study, frames the topics under examination, and introduces the reader to the perceived role of VPSAs as used in this dissertation. It presents the general problem to be addressed in this study, describes the need for the study, and offers definitions of key terms used.

Chapter 2 provides a literature review in key areas related to the topic, focusing on the role of the VPSA through a historical lens. It begins with the history of higher education and the VPSA position and transitions through the role and structure of student affairs in higher education.

Chapter 3 presents the research design and methods employed in this study. It describes the use of Q-methodology and its use in identifying models of shared viewpoints about the perceived role of VPSAs in U.S. universities. The chapter begins with a restatement of the purpose of the study, with attention to the specific research questions that guided the research. The chapter also includes the rationale of the research paradigm as well as the methods used to select participants, data collection, the methods employed to analyze and interpret the data, and research design limitations.

Chapter 4 presents the study's findings, and the final chapter offers conclusions, implications, and recommendations for educational theory, research, practice, and policy with regards to the role of the VPSA.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms will be defined:

- a. Academic Affairs - the division of an institution of higher education with direct responsibility for implementing the core educational function of the institution (teaching, research).
- b. College - Any accredited degree-granting institution offering post-high school, undergraduate education. Colleges typically award either a Bachelor of Arts or a Bachelor of Science degree, but they may also offer different types of degrees. Some two-year colleges offer Associate's degrees. Some specialty colleges award training certifications. Colleges may be located on several acres of campus with a large staff and many buildings, or they may exist solely online.
- c. Community college - Offers two-year associate's degrees, perhaps some four-year bachelor's degrees and specialty training and certification programs.
- d. For-profit and proprietary colleges and universities - These institutions typically cater to students seeking specialized training as well as older student populations. The education and training received at a for-profit college may be equal to that of a nonprofit college. There are no restrictions or limitations on what courses or areas of study a proprietary school may offer. Often, proprietary colleges focus on non-traditional students—like adults returning to college—and specialized areas of education and training, such as video game design or culinary training. These colleges also seek to make money from their programs.
- e. Liberal Arts college - The modern liberal arts are literature, languages, philosophy, history, mathematics, science, and theology. Liberal arts colleges emphasize these areas

in their classes and degrees offered. Typically, these colleges do not offer technical makers, such as engineering or architecture.

- f. Nonprofit college - Most colleges are nonprofit organizations. This means that, public or private, the institution does not seek to make money in excess of their expenses.
- g. President - The senior executive officer at an institution of higher education, typically reporting to the governing board (Board of Trustees, Board of Visitors, Board of Overseers, Board of Regents).
- h. Private sector - for-profit businesses and organizations that are not an agency of the federal, state, or local government.
- i. Private college - Any college or university that is funded primarily through tuition, fees, and private donations; such institutions are not affiliated with a state governing system.
- j. Provost - the senior administrator at an institution of higher education with direct responsibility for the academic affairs of the institution. The provost is typically the senior administrator and chief operating officer at an institution, second only to the president.
- k. Public college - Any college or university that is funded by a government at any level. Students still must pay tuition, but because the college receives money from the state, tuition tends to be significantly lower compared to the tuition of private colleges—especially for in-state students.
- l. Role - a function or part performed with regard to a specific operation or process.
- m. Senior Student Affairs Officer (SSAO) - the organizational structure of an institution of higher education, typically classified as a Vice President, Vice Chancellor, Dean of Students, or Vice Provost.

- n. Student Affairs - organizational division at institutions of higher education whose primary responsibility is to provide out of the classroom services, guidance, and experiences for students. Organizational responsibilities in the division of student affairs can vary greatly from one institution to another.
- o. University - A degree-granting institution of higher education that also offers master's and doctoral degrees.
- p. Vice President for Student Affairs (VPSA) - provides leadership to enhance campus climate, delivery of programming, and diversity as well as definition and organization to the services and programs related to student services and student-centered learning at the College/University.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides a review of relevant research on the changing role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. Research on diverse theories and extensive literature surrounding leadership theory and associated concepts are introduced in an organizational framework. The literature review is not intended to summarize all available leadership research; it is meant to provide a context in which the current study may be understood.

The Vice President of Student Affairs (VPSA) is an essential university leader, yet insufficient research has been conducted to identify the varying roles of the VPSA. Researchers have found it difficult to identify roles and characteristics of VPSAs because each institution has a different organizational structure to deliver student support services, which are based on the desires of the university president and needs of the campus community (Holmes, 1992; Lunsford, 1984). The VPSA role grew out of necessity due to major organizational changes within higher education and student affairs. Although the advent of the roles Dean of Women and Dean of Men began in 1937—as is evidenced in the foundational document *The Student Personnel Point of View (1937)*—to date, there are no studies that explore the perceived role of the VPSA in U.S. higher education.

In the early 20th century, as college and university enrollment increased, the administrative organization of institutions became more diversified, with offices specifically designed for areas such as health services, admissions, vocational guidance, and registration (Sandeen, 1991). By the 1930s, there were growing concerns that these services had become disjointed and needed greater coordination and direction under a single office. At that time,

some services were in the portfolios of college or university⁴ administrators who reported to the president, some to the business officer, and others to the registrar or academic dean (Sandeen, 1991). Such inconsistency in organizational responsibilities for student affairs functions often resulted in confusion for the students and expensive duplication of services for the college⁵.

The first evidence of a professional role in student affairs was incorporated into faculty duties in the 1930s through the assumption of the responsibilities *in loco parentis*, a concept in which university staff or faculty act “in the place or role of a parent” (Conte, 2000). As faculty interests changed due to a variety of factors (i.e. the expectation for greater engagement in research and the requirement to publish work), circumstances required that universities staff new members other than faculty that would be assigned the responsibility for students. In response, the roles of Dean of Women and Dean of Men were created. Over time, these staff and their supervising administrators were given the responsibility of managing various campus programs and services, including academic and career counseling, financial aid, student employment, and student health (American Council on Education, 1937).

By the 1960s, a new institutional office known as “Student Affairs” had been established in many universities. This office was charged with the responsibility of coordinating and directing all the institutional services related to the out-of-classroom experiences of students. Over the last 60 years, the office of Student Affairs has developed from having a relatively simple focus on student welfare to a more complex focus that involves coordinating an array of services, which may include health services, counseling, student activities, admissions,

⁴ For the purpose of the dissertation, when university is mentioned it is meant to be inclusive of colleges and universities, I only use university for the purpose of brevity.

⁵ Common terms used in this area of research are defined in Appendix A.

vocational guidance, and registration (Sandeen & Barr, 2006). Over the past several decades, the organizational structure of Student Affairs has evolved, as has the role of the VPSA.

Programs and services were added under the Student Affairs organizational umbrella to accommodate the changing student population and to meet the unique needs of each university. Little attention was focused on how student services should be designed effectively and consistently to meet the institution's mission or students' needs (Kuk & Banning, 2009). As a result, there is no singular organizational structure model that is used by or fits all Student Affairs organizations (Ambler, 2000; Barr, 1993; Sandeen & Barr, 2006).

At the helm of Student Affairs is the Vice President for Student Affairs (VPSA), a senior executive position often found in institutions of higher education in the United States⁶. Higher education in America is now a sprawling enterprise of nearly 4,800 institutions, all of which have the role VPSA. The key role of the VPSA is to direct student affairs professionals and employees within the Division of Student Affairs (DSA) regarding the intricacies of student retention, the art of fiscal responsibility, strategic planning for the institution's future success, policymaking, and understanding the realities of a complex organization (Manning, Kinzie, & Schuh, 2006). The VPSA generally serves as an advocate for students, develops programs, and responds to frontline crises. In that role, the VPSA must compete for resources with academic affairs, business affairs, institutional development, other university stakeholders, and off-campus and community stakeholders⁷ (Sandeen, 1991).

⁶ The title of vice president for student affairs (VPSA) varies greatly from institution to institution. Researchers in recent issues of *The Chronicle of Higher Education* identified titles of chief student affairs officers (CSAO) to include: vice president for student affairs, vice chancellor for student affairs, vice president for student development, chief student affairs officer, dean of students, vice president for student learning, and vice provost for student affairs. For the purpose of this study, the title vice president for student affairs will be used to designate this position.

⁷ For example, prospective students, parents, Government and Regulatory Bodies, High Schools and Community Colleges, Alumni and Workforce needs/Local Community.

History of Higher Education and Vice President for Student Affairs

A historical profile of U.S. higher education is in large part a story of structure, not just bricks and mortar, but also the legal and administrative frameworks that were shaped by the pressures of U.S. social and political history. The formation of the colonial colleges, only available to a limited group of wealthy white men, aided in the development of student affairs by providing dormitories and dining halls (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962). Student affairs emerged at a time of growth and change in higher education. The VPSA position has evolved over time, juxtaposed with historical changes within higher education. James Garfield, later president of the United States, praised his own alma mater's president by proclaiming, "The ideal college is Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other" (Rudolph, 1962, p.243). His tribute reminds us that despite the proliferation of magnificent buildings and elaborate facilities in American colleges and universities, the history of colleges and universities in the U.S. is about teaching, learning, and research. Regardless of the century, the U.S. tradition in higher education has espoused a strong commitment to undergraduate education (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). Maintaining this tradition requires vigilance, and established and aspiring universities have emphasized advanced programs, research centers, and other activities from the bachelor's degree curriculum to demonstrate a dedication to such vigilance (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004).

The evolution and expansion of American universities played a pivotal role in today's university structure and in the development of the role of the VPSA. Although the role of the VPSA did not exist during the evolution and expansion of American universities, it was becoming apparent that the new role would be necessary soon at many higher education

institutions. As institutions of higher education evolved, so too did their focuses. Now, various aspects such as geographical setting and whether the students resided on campus, as well as the organizational structure within the institution, were areas of great interest and importance. Despite the general historical trends in these changes, not all institutions had the same history and evolution. From this early foundation, variability can be seen in these areas in today's institutions. This raises the question of whether institutional variability could have implications for the role of the VPSA today.

1606–1776

Throughout the history of American higher education, the student affairs role has contributed a special perspective about students, their experiences, and their campus environment. The purpose of student affairs is to encourage personal development, serve society, and to preserve, transmit, and create knowledge. The ideal of an intense undergraduate education by which young adults are prepared for leadership and service is rooted in the 16th and 17th century practices of the English universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The Oxbridge model departed from the patterns of academic life and instruction found in the urban universities of the late Middle Ages at Paris, Salerno, and Bologna, where scholars banded together for protection and to set standards for teaching, pay, and tuition, but it gave little attention to building a permanent campus or supervising student life (Haskins, 1923). In sharp contrast, by the 17th century, Oxford and Cambridge had developed a formal system of endowed colleges that combined living and learning within quadrangles. This model consisted of an architecturally distinct, landscaped site for an elaborate organizational culture and a pedagogy designed to build character rather than produce expert scholars. The college was an isolated, “total” institution

whose focal responsibilities were to guide both social and academic dimensions of undergraduate life (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004).

The American colonists-built colleges because they wished to transplant and perfect the English idea of an undergraduate education as a life experience that ensured the production of responsible leaders for both church and state. The importance of colleges to colonial life is suggested by their proliferation and protection—starting with Harvard in 1636 and followed by The College of William and Mary in 1693, Yale in 1701, and six more colleges by the start of the Revolutionary War (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). The novelty underscored the fundamental limits of the colonial colleges' scope and constituency. Enrollment in college courses was confined to white males, mostly from established, prosperous families. College attendance tended to ratify or confirm existing social standing rather than provide social mobility.

In addition, historians have looked beyond the formal course of study of these universities to their extracurricular activities (literary societies, debate clubs, and service groups, to name a few), noting both dramatic innovations and the foundations of lasting change emerging into the expanding role of the VPSA. The roots of today's comprehensive student affairs programs in American colleges and universities can be traced to the founding of the colonial colleges (Leonard, 1956). Dormitories and dining halls were an essential aspect of collegiate life in the colonial colleges, as Rudolph (1962) described when he wrote that the "notion that a curriculum, a library, a faculty, and student are not enough to make a college" (p.87). The dormitory made it possible for the faculty to exercise supervision and parental concern for the wellbeing of the students. Students were viewed as immature adolescents requiring counsel, supervision, vocational guidance, and remedial classes (Leonard, 1956). Colonial colleges were

empowered to act *in loco parentis* and were, therefore, free to develop and enforce rules and regulations as if they were the parents of their students.

Between 1606–1776, student demographics (i.e., in-state students vs. out-of-state students) and campus atmosphere (i.e., residential vs. commuter campus) further built the foundation for the need for the VPSA. Furthermore, expansion of out-of-classroom activities at universities addressed the holistic development whole student, therefore making the role of VPSA integral. Though the role of VPSA still did not exist, institutions were changing and evolving in a way that set the stage for the development of this role. Given that institutions place varying levels of importance on extracurricular experiences and that the perception of the importance of extracurricular experiences has been growing recently begs the question, is the extracurricular domain the most important role of today's VPSA?

1776–1880

In the colonial college era, a holistic, organic philosophy of education prevailed, which established the foundation of student affairs and the role of the VPSA. Faculty were concerned in equal measure with the intellectual, religious, and moral development of students. During the new national period after American independence in 1776 and extending into the mid-19th century, the small college persisted as the institutional norm, despite scattered attempts to create modern comprehensive universities (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Thelin, 2004). This suggests that the size of the institution plays a role in how VPSAs perceives their roles and how those roles vary based on the institution. On closer inspection, continual innovations and experimentation in American higher education existed, as indicated by the curriculum proposed by Thomas Jefferson at the new University of Virginia. A core tenet of the American belief system that existed well into the late nineteenth century said that going to college was not

necessary for “getting ahead” economically, although a college degree did confer some prestige (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Thelin, 2004). Colleges had to compete incessantly for the attention of both donors and paying students. Historians have also emphasized that colleges lacked qualified between 1800–1860, citing two primary factors for this condition. First, American education was top-heavy and overextended; there were literally hundreds of colleges, but most of them had inadequate operating funds and endowments. Second, the country lagged in providing secondary education, the obvious and necessary source for college applicants (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011). In a display of American ingenuity, however, colleges responded to this void by creating preparatory programs to serve the dual purpose of providing sources of operating income and students who could pass the college entrance examination.

Geiger (2000) noted four changes during this period, beginning with the profound transformation of student life during the century from regimentation in curriculum-dominated institutions to the rise of a student estate in which students controlled a pervasive extra curriculum. Transition from college to university, growth of coeducation, increased enrollment, emphasis upon faculty scholarship, increased attention to individual differences, and the expectation that colleges should monitor, if not control, student behavior were all major factors leading to the development of student affairs divisions as they are known today. Student activities such as sports, student government, and social groups became popular and were encouraged by the college as relatively constructive ways to fill students’ out-of-class time. The second change was seen in the sharp distinctions (access and availability) that separated colleges in the Northeast from those in the South and Middle West by the 1830s, and this persisted to the end of the century. The third shift was evident in the quarter century from 1850 to 1875 which

represents a distinct, transitional period in the history of higher education. Most of the innovations in this period were associated with the post-Civil War years—colleges for women, scientific schools, practical courses in agriculture and engineering. The fourth and final change was the emergence of the American university, not from foreign sources but from its indigenous collegiate roots and the challenge this new educational entity posed for the colleges.

Student rebellions in the late 1700s and early 1800s were usually the result of dissatisfaction with the prevailing methods of teaching, the intrusive forms of discipline imposed by the faculty, and, on occasion, dissatisfaction with the food (Cowley & Williams, 1991; Rudy, 1996). Jackson (2000) observed that student life at Harvard and elsewhere seemed to take on a less combative tone after the 1840s. Today's comprehensive student affairs programs in American colleges and universities originated from Harvard President Charles Eliot. In 1869, Eliot appointed history professor Ephraim Gurney as the Dean of the College but gave him no specific responsibilities (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Veysey, 1965). Some institutional personnel and faculty members did not approve of this new position because they viewed it as direct competition for resources and as merely another power structure in the institution (Sandeen, 1991; Veysey, 1965). This period witnessed many significant events in higher education, as there were problems that influenced the development of student affairs. Prior to 1900, the principal function of a college was to provide an education that emphasized mental discipline, religious piety, and compliance with strict rules governing student behavior (Bok, 1982). A countervailing view developed among educators after 1900.

The first appointment of designated personnel to focus primarily on student matters—which is the modern precursor of the role of the VPSA today—coincided with several

events. Growing demands on college presidents, changing faculty roles and expectations, and the increase in coeducational and women's colleges were among these events (Boyer, 1990b, Leonard, 1956; Veysey, 1965). By the mid-19th century, American higher education, once devoted primarily to the intellectual and moral development of students, was shifting from the shaping of young lives to the building of a nation (Boyer, 1990b). Increasingly, education was viewed as a means of obtaining social and economic mobility. As the idea of higher education for the common man developed, the country witnessed the introduction of women to academia (1860–1870s) and, in a few instances, African Americans to colleges and universities (1865–1910; Leonard, 1956). One of the most significant events was the creation of land-grant colleges with the passage of the Morrill Act of 1862. Ingrained in the land-grant ideal was the concept of a collegiate education for all at public expense—the beginning of the contemporary concept of equal access. The land grant movement led out of growing demands on college presidents, changing faculty roles and expectations, and the increase in coeducation and women's colleges (Boyer, 1990b; Leonard, 1956; Rudolph, 1962; Veysey, 1965).

During this period, as access increased, institutional classification took on a significant role (i.e., institution size). Small colleges persisted as the institutional norm, despite scattered attempts to create modern comprehensive universities. The varieties of institutions were becoming apparent, and there were—and continue to be—differences in terms of size and classification. Enrollment patterns were changing and evolving. The change was not identical at each institution, and it gave rise to institutional differences that continue to exist today in terms of size and enrollment patterns. Such institutional variability might have implications for how the role of VPSA is conceived.

1880–1914

As higher education became more popular, the emergence of the modern university in America began to dominate the landscape of higher education, allowing more aspects of student affairs work to emerge. The purpose of higher education during 1880 to 1914 was broadened to include education for responsible, enlightened citizens, as well as vocational training. This led to some university presidents responding to changes in faculty interests and values by appointing persons to be responsible for student matters. The Dean of Women or as the Dean of Men—titles often granted to these individuals—were charged with resolving student problems and administering campus discipline.

As more people pursued degrees in higher education, the modern university began to flourish along with the role of the VPSA. These modern universities followed the ideal of advanced, rigorous scholarship with the necessary resources of research libraries, laboratories, and Doctor of Philosophy programs as typified by the German universities. Emulating and transplanting the German model to the U.S. became the passion of the Johns Hopkins University, Clark University, and University of Chicago (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004; Veysey, 1965). At the same time, a commitment to applied research and utility gained a following at the emerging land grant institutions. Between 1870 and 1910, America witnessed a dynamic “university movement,” which created a hybrid institution undergirded by large-scale philanthropy and widespread construction of new campus building (Veysey, 1965). In contrast to higher education in the twenty-first century, American universities of 1910 remained relatively underdeveloped and small. Only a handful of institutions, such as the urban universities of Harvard, Columbia, and Pennsylvania, enrolled more than 5,000 students.

One of the more substantial achievements in academia occurred between 1880–1914 with the annexation of professional schools as medicine, law, business, theology, pharmacy, and engineering into the structure of the university (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Veysey, 1965). Equally important was the role played by American undergraduates, who displayed ingenuity and perseverance through the creation of a robust extracurricular world of athletics, fraternities, sororities, campus newspapers, and clubs, which vied successfully for attention with the official curriculum. The strength of the undergraduate culture gained support from a new entity: alumni associations, which created an alliance of old and new students who worked tirelessly to ensure that presidents and professors did not encroach upon the previous traditions of undergraduate life. This academic and social expansion of the university also brought with it the need for increased coordination between the university and its new schools, students, and citizens, further expanding the role of the VPSA.

Throughout the period 1880–1914, the expansion of higher education continued to play a pivotal role in the development of institutional classifications (i.e., institution size, degree programs and services), and access to higher education became increasingly available. As access to colleges and universities became more available, so too did university resources. Such institutional variability and access may have implications today for the conceptualization of the VPSA role.

1915–1945

Over the next three decades, the expansion of the student affairs role in U.S. colleges and universities prompted the American Council of Education to assess the growing field of student affairs. Historian Arthur Levine (1986) charted the rise of American colleges and the concomitant “culture of aspiration” in the decades between World War I and World War II. The

most salient feature of this period was the stratification of American higher education into institutional layers, indicating that distinctions were drawn between prestige and purpose in pursuing a college education. Many institutions regarded today as large state universities were still relatively limited in size and curricular offerings in the first half of the 20th century (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Levine, 1986; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011). As late as 1940, many state universities had a total enrollment of less than 5,000 and offered little in the way of advanced degrees. Additionally, they did not flourish in any sustained way until the emergence of government-sponsored projects during World War II, further evolving the profession of student affairs as shaped in the foundational document *The Student Personnel Point of View* (1937).

The greatest puzzle American higher education faced in the early 20th century was what may be termed the dilemma of diversity⁸. At the forefront of this issue has been the VPSA whose expanding role allowed those who held this office to be a voice for the needs and concerns of the minority students at the university. Individuals at the most heterogeneous institutions often encountered the most glaring conflicts, hostilities, and discriminations within campus life. Coeducation, for example, deserves to be hailed as a positive change in promoting equity and access for women. At the same time, however, such celebration needs to be tempered with careful historical analysis of how female students were treated after they had been admitted. Comparable patterns of discrimination occurred at universities that enrolled ethnic, racial, and religious minorities. More often than not, American higher education achieved diversity through a dedication to serve special constituencies, whether defined by race, gender, or religious

⁸ Diversity includes representation of diverse persons, the presence and practice of diversity-related initiatives, and the exchange of information and ideas of diverse kinds and between diverse individuals. Milem and Hakuta (2002) further identified a three-part definition of diversity of the college or university campus: presence of structural diversity, diversity-related initiatives, and diverse interactions.

affiliation.

In the 1920s, some colleges enjoyed the luxury of choice in the students they were admitting. For the first time, institutions of higher education boasted a greater number of applicants than openings for students. This allowed administrators to implement selective admission policies. They looked at the testing programs of the United States military as a model of inspiration. Ultimately, the Educational Testing Service was developed as an appendage to the College Entrance Examination Board. Unfortunately, these various admissions tools and practices were often used to exclude some students on the basis of race, ethnicity, gender, or other criteria unrelated to academic merit (Karabel, 2005). On balance, American higher education's capacity to provide access ran ahead of its ability to foster assimilation and parity within the campus becoming an integral part of the duty of some early deans of women and men. This disparity allowed for further expansion of the role of VSPAs in some institutions.

The early deans of women and men were the true pioneers of the profession of student affairs and the VPSA role. Rhatigan (2000) noted that without a prior history, definitive job descriptions, or set agendas, these men and women developed a strategy for their work with students. In contrast to professionals today, all they had were their own experiences, values, personal skills, leadership abilities, and education. Whether their focus was on standards, vocational development of students, or discipline, their professional activities clearly reflected both adherence to the concept of developing the whole person and supporting the unique mission of the institution where they served.

The work of these pioneering deans of women and men, and those who came immediately after them, was informed by a variety of theories (e.g., developmental theories of student change, psychosocial theories, cognitive-structural theories, typological models, and

organizational theories) and perspectives deriving from sociology, psychology, vocational guidance, assessment, and mental health (Levine, 1986; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Thelin, 2004). Often, the overarching framework that led the efforts of these pioneers was an acceptance of humanism⁹ as a guiding point of view (Levine, 1986; Rhatigan, 2000).

Strong foundations did not occur by accident. They were the result of hard work, careful planning, examination of strengths and weakness, and provision of needed reinforcement at critical times. Student affairs, as a profession, has been characterized by internal debate regarding the “true” foundation of the profession. For some, the roots of the profession are in counseling and counseling theories; for others, the foundation of the profession is student development theory and practice; and still for others, the appropriate foundation for student affairs is based on organizational theory, administration, and management.

The core values of the student affairs profession gained widespread recognition and acceptance in higher education with the publication of the *Student Personnel Point of View*, a landmark report issued in 1937 by The American Council on Education (ACE). This report emphasized the education of the whole student—intellect, spirit, and personality—and insisted that attention must be paid to the individual needs of each student. *The Student Personnel Point of View* document has been a critical part of the foundation for the student affairs function and the responsibilities of the VPSA. Although this document is neither “perfect” nor all-inclusive (a reflection of the time in which it was written), it successfully focused attention on the two elements identified by Nuss (2003): commitment to the development of the whole person and support of the mission of the institution. The ACE report stated in part that:

⁹ Humanism is any system or mode of thought or action in which human interests and values predominate. Philosophy: a variety of ethical theory and practice that emphasizes reason, scientific inquiry, and human fulfillment in the natural world (dictionary.com).

[P]ersonnel work is not new. Personnel officers have been appointed throughout the colleges and universities of this country to undertake a number of educational responsibilities which were once entirely assumed by teaching members of the faculty. They have also, because of the expansion of educational functions, developed a number of student personnel services which have but recently been stressed. The philosophy behind their work, however, is as old as education itself. (1937, p. 51)

The increasing diversity among college students was a theme in the foundational documents (*The Student Personnel Point of View, 1937; 1949*), some of which focused solely on the changing demographics among all students in higher education, while others considered access and retention of student populations historically underrepresented in college. As defined by ACE in the *Student Personnel Point of View (1937)*, higher education is that institutional structure devoted to the preservation, transmission, and enrichment of the important elements of culture: scholarship, research, creative imagination, and the human experience. It is the task of colleges and universities to invigorate educational modalities to assist students in actualizing their potentials and making their contributions to the betterment of their respective societies. This has come to mean that educational institutions have the obligation to consider the student holistically—intellectual capacity and achievement, emotional make up, physical condition, social relationships, vocational aptitudes and skills, moral and religious values, economic resources, and aesthetic appreciations. It puts emphasis upon the development of the student as a person rather than upon the student’s intellectual training alone (*The Student Personnel Point of View, 1937, p. 39*). These parts of *The Student Personnel Point of View (1937)* recognize the organizational role assumed by student affairs, the specialization required within student affairs, and the multiplicity of the theoretical constructs that inform the professional practices of student

affairs. It was this continued focus on students' needs that made the role of VPSA indispensable in modern universities.

A long and honorable history stands behind this point of view. Until the last three decades of the 19th century, interest in the "whole student" dominated the thinking of the great majority of the leaders and faculty members of American colleges. However, the impact of a number of social forces upon American society directed the interest of the colleges and universities away from the needs of the individual student and toward an emphasis, through scientific research, upon the extension of the boundaries of knowledge (*The Student Personnel Point of View*, 1937). Because of this change of emphasis, administrators recognized the need to appoint a new type of educational officer, who served as a full-time professional advisor, to take over the more intimate responsibilities that were originally included among the duties of faculty members. At the same time, several new educational functions arose as the result of the growing complexity of modern life, the development of scientific techniques, the expansion of the size of student bodies, and the extension of the range of educational objectives.

To review, many of the traditional functions of the student affairs professional emerged in the early part of the 1900s as deans of women and men. This evolution implies that in addition to instruction and business management adapted to the needs of the individual student, an effective educational program includes, in one form or another, the following services adapted to the specific aims and objectives of each college and university (*The Student Personnel Point of View*, 1937):

- a. Interpreting institutional objectives and opportunities to prospective students and their parents as well as to workers in secondary education;
- b. Selecting and admitting students, in cooperation with secondary schools;

- c. Orienting the student to his educational environment;
- d. Providing a diagnostic service to help the student discover his abilities, aptitudes, and objectives;
- e. Assisting the student throughout his college residence to determine upon his courses of instruction in light of his past achievements, vocational and personal interests, and diagnostic findings;
- f. Enlisting the active cooperation of the family of the student in the interest of his educational accomplishment;
- g. Assisting the student to reach his maximum effectiveness through clarification of his purposes, improvement of study methods, speech habits, personal appearance, manners, etc., and through progression in religious, emotional, social development, and other non-academic personal and group relationships;
- h. Assisting the student to clarify his occupational aims and his educational plans in relation to them;
- i. Determining the physical and mental health status of the student, providing appropriate remedial health measures, supervising the health of students, and controlling environmental health factors;
- j. Providing and supervising an adequate housing program for students;
- k. Providing and supervising an adequate food service for students;
- l. Supervising, evaluating, and developing the extra-curricular activities of students;
- m. Supervising, evaluating, and developing the social life and interests of students;
- n. Supervising, evaluating, and developing the religious life and interests of students;

- o. Assembling and making available information to be used in improvement of instruction and in making the curriculum more flexible;
- p. Coordinating the financial aid and part-time employment of students, and assisting the student who needs it to obtain such help;
- q. Keeping a cumulative record of information about the student and making it available to the proper persons;
- r. Administering student discipline to the end that the individual will be strengthened, and the welfare of the group preserved;
- s. Maintaining student group morale by evaluating, understanding, and developing student mores;
- t. Assisting the student to find appropriate employment when he leaves the institution;
- u. Articulating college and vocational experience;
- v. Keeping the student continuously and adequately informed of the educational opportunities and services available to him; and
- w. Carrying on studies designed to evaluate and improve these functions and services (pp. 41–42).

At first, deans of women and men—later emerging into the role of the personnel officers—were appointed in the 1930s to relieve administrators and faculty of responsibilities regarding student discipline outside the classroom. The responsibilities of these roles grew with considerable rapidity to include a vast number of additional duties, among which are the following: educational counseling, vocational counseling, the administrations of loans and scholarship funds, part-time employment, graduate placement, student health, extracurricular

activities, social programs, and a number of others (*The Student Personnel Point of View*, 1937 p. 39).¹⁰

VPSAs, who were formally known as personnel officers, have now been appointed throughout colleges and universities in America to undertake a number of educational responsibilities which were once entirely assumed by faculty or not assumed at all by any segment of higher education. They have also, because of expansion of educational functions, developed a number of student personnel services which have recently been stressed.

During this period, greater access to colleges and universities continued, leading to the expansion of enrollments, recourses and services changing the landscape of higher education and institutional demographics. This was a pivotal time for the foundation of student affairs. Much of this period saw the expansion of student access, based, in part, on the availability of resources for minority students and students returning from war. This led to a change in enrollment patterns. However, there was variability in this change in enrollment patterns across institutions—and such variability continues to this day. Some universities have a higher percentage of minority students, while others have a higher percentage of non-traditional students, and still others have a higher percentage of affluent students. This raises the question of whether student characteristics and backgrounds at an institution might relate to conceptualizations of the VPSA role today.

1946–1969

¹⁰ A number of terms are in general use in colleges and universities related to the philosophy of education. Illustrative of these terms are “guidance,” “counseling,” “advisory,” and “personnel.” The term “personnel” prefaced by “student” was the least objectionable. Rather than attempt a specific definition of “student personnel” as it is combined with such nouns as “work,” “service,” “administration,” “research,” etc., the term, “the student personnel point of view,” was used (*The Student Personnel Point of View*, 1937, p. 40).

The period 1946–1969 was one of expansion for the student affairs profession and the role of the VPSA. During this time, the student affairs function and leadership role were influenced by a combination of factors, including federal support, legal challenges, philosophical changes, the emergence of student development theory and research, and the implementation of professional standards. The pioneers in the profession of student affairs could hardly imagine the complex roles, responsibilities, functions, and services provided by most student affairs organizations.

After World War II, returning GIs and their children challenged educational institutions to provide education for an ever-widening array of careers and to open educational opportunities to all (Garland & Grace, 1993). In 1946, Congress enacted the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act, popularly known as the G.I. Bill. By making federal scholarships for postsecondary education readily available, the G.I. Bill was intended to be a short-term measure by which the federal government could mitigate the pressure of losing returning veterans to a saturated labor market. The G.I. Bill became more than a simple, short-term measure and ultimately had important, unexpected, long-term consequences. It set a precedent for making government student aid an entitlement, and it provided a policy tool for increasing the diversity of American universities (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011). The popularity of the G.I. Bill underscores the importance of higher education to the nation’s long-term adjustment to a new economy and postwar democracy.

In 1949, *The Student Personnel Point of View* was updated. This statement reaffirmed the commitment of student affairs to the development of the whole person:

The student personnel movement constitutes one of the most important efforts of American educators, to treat college and university students as individuals, rather than as

entities on an impersonal roster. The movement, at the same time, expresses awareness of the significance of student group life in its manifold expressions from student residence to student mores, from problems of admission to problems of job placement. It has developed as the division of college and university administration concerned with students individually and in groups. In a real sense, this part of modern higher education is an individualized application of the research and clinical findings of modern psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, and education to the task of aiding students to develop fully in the college environment. (p. 24)

Published by the American Council of Education, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (1949) expanded the philosophy of higher education to include an emphasis on preparing citizens for roles in public affairs. It addressed social problems in a democratic society and forecasted the need for increased emphasis in aiding students with information focused on international understanding and cooperation. During the subsequent hundred years, an industrializing society needed a wider variety of social, political, and business leaders. Institutions of higher education responded by educating students for a wider range of roles in society and sought to serve society more directly through pure and applied research.

This was higher education's "Golden Age," and it was marked by an academic revolution in which colleges and universities acquired unprecedented influence in American society (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). States with growing populations, such as California and New York, faced a problem: could they build sufficient classrooms to accommodate the influx of new students graduating from high school who were now expected to attend college? Some state policy decisions made during these years would have long-term consequences on student choice, learning, and retention.

In his landmark study “Four Critical Years,” Astin (1977) noted that, after 1950, most states tended to favor the construction of new commuter institutions such as community colleges and junior colleges. While this approach succeeded in accommodating growing enrollment, it made little provision for full-time residential education—a significant departure from the traditional notion of “the collegiate way.” Further, because the new commuter institutions often enrolled a larger percentage of first-generation college attendees, the consequence was that students most in need of academic support and immersion were less likely to receive it (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

All institutions, public and private, were cognizant of the growing federal presence of incentives and regulations, which worked to further impact student affairs. The emergence of the multi-campus university system also developed during this era of expanding enrollment. In place of one or two flagship universities, many states then joined numerous branches into a centrally administered network system. The 75 or so great research universities commanded the most attention in this era. Equally noteworthy were the growth and curricular changes in numerous regional campuses and teacher colleges. Over time, most of these institutions added masters’ courses and graduate professional programs to supplement their customary base of undergraduate and entry-level professional study courses (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011). This broadening of academic offerings and tiered structure of learning across several diverse campuses further expanded the role of the VPSA to help aid in the coordination and execution of these changes.

The relationship between students and colleges and universities changed significantly during the 1960s. Ironically, the prosperity of the 1960s created new problems for higher education and the role of the VPSA. Researchers suggested that American postsecondary

education demonstrated remarkable success in providing access to higher education, but they remained uncertain about perfecting the process and experience of a college education (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). The history of higher education is often the story of unexpected consequences leading to the evolving role of the professional student affairs and role of the VPSA. For college and university administrators of the 1960s, the boom in enrollment, coupled with construction at their respective universities, masked the problems and tensions among students from the public eye that would emerge between 1963 and 1968, and then violently erupt between 1968 and 1972. Two distinct, yet related, sources of undergraduate discontent existed. First, discontented students complained of large lecture classes, impersonal registration, crowded student housing, and the psychological distance between faculty and students. Second, students were concerned about external political and societal events (specifically, the Vietnam War), the draft, the counter-cultural movement, and the Civil Rights movement (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). This activism both preoccupied and strained the real and symbolic foundation of higher education; it also affected universities' internal and external conduct. By 1970, the national media portrayed the American campus less as a sanctuary and more as a battleground in a protracted generational war between college students and the established institutions associated with adult society. Outspoken student activists became symbols of a new popular culture and acquired high visibility in both television and newspaper coverage (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). The role of student participation in institutional governance also changed. Students began to play more influential roles in academic and student affairs committees, and many institutions appointed student representatives to their governing boards.

During this period, even more emphasis was placed on out-of-the-classroom activities than during 1915–1945. Although there was a general trend of this happening, there was variability in how much it happened at each institution. Institutional variability continues to exist today (and is likely even more pronounced), and this could have implications for the conceptualization of the role of the VPSA.

1970–1989

During this time, student affairs assumed a major role in encouraging and establishing open and humane methods of campus decision-making and the rational resolution of conflict. Student unrest contributed to several negative effects on American higher education during the previous educational era, 1946–1969. One negative effect was the declining confidence of state governments and other traditional sources of support. By 1972, the federal government exerted its presence within higher education by dictating an increased commitment to social justice and educational opportunity on university and college campuses. From 1972–1980, new federal legislation was enacted to prohibit discrimination in educational programs (Title IX) allowing women to gradually gain access to extracurricular activities (e.g., intercollegiate athletics) and academic fields such as business, law, medicine, and a host of other programs (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011).

Although academic affairs professionals wanted a measuring stick of best practices that would solidify the profession's place as an essential part of higher education (Mable, 1991; Miller, 1991), professional standards were not well established for the student affairs field until 1979. Mable (1991) noted that the conference of student affairs professional organizations in 1979 was to “consider the desirability and feasibility of establishing professional standards and accreditation programs in student affairs” (p. 11). This meeting of student affairs organizations

led to the formation of the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS).

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education changed the landscape of higher education and student affairs. The early 1980s witnessed a succession of commission reports, including *A Nation at Risk* (Gardner, 1983), criticizing American public education as uncertain and incoherent. Initially the focus revolved around primary and secondary schooling giving higher education a temporary reprieve. This changed in 1984 when the National Institute of Education released *Involvement in Learning, Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education* (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011). Its call for scrutiny and reform in higher education was reinforced by numerous reports on college curriculum, the college as a community, and reconsideration of scholarship. Consequently, by 1985, colleges and universities, especially public institutions, were increasingly expected by governors and state legislators to demonstrate efficiency and effectiveness. One state strategy was to tie a portion of state appropriations to performance measures as part of a larger assessment movement that caught on in numerous states, including Tennessee, Arizona, Kentucky, and New York. The problems were real, and the concerns were warranted, but the division of student affairs demonstrated a great deal of innovation and resiliency.

By the 1980s, attorneys, academicians, and even former coaches were employed in the role of VPSA due to institutional priorities and/or the applicants' popularity with students (Carpenter & Miller, 1980; Levine, 1993). Randall and Globetti (1992) sought to identify which personal and professional skills were most highly valued in the early 1980s. As shown in Table 1, they identified competency items representing four broad skills categories: (a) managerial

skills; (b) personal and interpersonal skills; (c) professional involvement/scholarly pursuits; and (d) institutional experience.

Table 1

Ranking of the Importance of Competencies of Chief Student Affairs Officers by Surveyed College Presidents¹¹

Competency ranking	Average importance*
1 Integrity	3.966
2 Commitment to institutional mission	3.879
3 Conflict resolution	3.846
4 Decisiveness	3.792
5 Motivation	3.772
5 Support of academic affairs	3.772
7 Staff supervision	3.736
8 Planning skills	3.725
9 Flexibility	3.711
10 Verbal communication skills	3.705
11 Multicultural awareness commitment	3.680
12 Vision	3.664
13 Loyalty to presidents' vision	3.592
14 Policy enforcement	3.548
15 Written communication skills	3.544
16 Student development philosophy	3.514
17 Budget planning	3.503
18 Time management	3.497
19 Student advising	3.295
20 Understanding institutional history	3.201
21 Five or more years' experience at comparable institution	3.000
22 Facility management	2.791
23 Research capabilities	2.289
24 Scholarly publications	1.932

Note. *Ranking from *unimportant* (1) to *very important* (4).

Presidents in both public and private institutions rank integrity to be the most important characteristic of the VPSA. Other personal qualities which rank highly included the ability to resolve conflict and the ability to motivate. Randall and Globetti (1992), revealed that college

¹¹ Randall, 1992 – permission granted by The College Student Affairs Journal, published by the Southern Association for College Student Affairs.

presidents are especially invested in VPSAs who are committed to their institution's mission and experience in supporting academic affairs. College presidents in both public and private institutions categorized the top 10 competences they desired in the VPSA position in the early 1980s as: (a) integrity, (b) commitment to the institutional mission, (c) conflict resolution, (d) decisiveness, (e) motivation and support of academic affairs (tied), (f) staff supervision, (g) planning skills, (h) flexibility, and (i) verbal communication skills (Randall & Globetti, 1992, n.p.).

During this period, the role of VPSA was formalized out of necessity. There was an increased emphasis on rules, regulations, and formalizing the regulatory process. With the control on institution reporting crime statistics to the federal government and access to federal funds, the role of the VPSA undertook greater institutional responsibilities. Because the regulatory processes are, to some degree, consistent across institutions, it is possible that there may be some degree of consistency across institutions in terms of the conceptualization of the VPSA role. However, it could be that institutional organization, size, and other factors change the extent to which this reporting is burdensome, and this may affect conceptualizations of how this impacts the role of VPSA.

1990–Present Day

The period between 1990 and 2008 was a time of austerity for colleges and universities, boasting a robust enrollment that erased the harsh memories of declining state appropriations and dismal endowments portfolios of the 1980s. This did not spare colleges—including their student affairs function—from ever-present concerns about how to rethink the college campus and the college experience to acknowledge the qualitative and quantitative change of recent past. Although parents and institutions enjoyed a general economic prosperity in the 1990s, concerns

about rising college costs persisted (Ehrenberg, 2000). VPSAs had to acknowledge that the services for which they were responsible accounted for a substantial portion of these increasing costs.

At this point in history, America is a very different place. The Cold War is over. In its place, we have a national agenda of troubling problems that can perhaps be summarized into two major challenges. The first is how to earn our national living in an increasingly interdependent, global economy. The second is nation building: how to renew our social, political, and cultural life in the face of unprecedented change and a growing accumulation of unsolved domestic problems, including family disintegration, loss of jobs, crime, and drugs (Edgerton, 1997).

The Baby Boomers, the Civil Rights Movement, and an otherwise consistent and egalitarian burgeoning economy have made their mark and taken their leave. In their place, representing new demands for higher learning, they have a "baby echo" (a second population bulge from the children of the baby boomers) and growing needs for adult education. But they also have a host of new conditions—rising concerns about costs, quality and accountability, new competitors for public resources, flagging commitments to civil rights, and public investments—that limit the capacity of higher education to respond to these demands. All in all, higher education in the 1990s confronts at least six new realities (Edgerton, 1997).

During the 1990s, five new concerns were at the top of VPSAs' agendas: (a) enrollment demands, (b) rising college costs, (c) competition for public funds, (d) concerns about quality of education, and (e) the overall view that higher education was failing to address the nation's most pressing problems. The emphasis both inside and outside the classroom moved toward service learning and experiential learning (Edgerton, 1997).

During this time, the student population became more diverse than at any other time in the history of American higher education, even though overall enrollment numbers did not change significantly (Altbach, 1993; Baxter-Magolda & Terenzini, 1999). Certain groups began to emerge more rapidly than others: women, non-traditional students, members of varying ethnic and cultural populations, and individuals of differing sexual orientations. Faculty and student affairs professionals had to adapt their practices to aid these students to ensure equal educational and the promise of success for all (Altbach, 1993). Of course, adaptation in the classroom also means adaptation for the administration, therefore changing the role of the VPSA yet again.

Along with the changing demographics of the student population, a shift in public policy affecting higher education also emerged. Due to the increased pressure to know more about what happens on campuses of higher learning, state and federal legislators began to enact laws to provide greater and equal access to information (Woodard, 2009). These laws required even greater transparency and required more detailed reporting from VPSAs.

Student affairs is expected to provide leadership in response to perplexing dilemmas facing society, among which are the following: excellence and access, stability and change, freedom and responsibility, individual interests, and the common good. The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, the 1990 Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act, and the Higher Education Amendments of 1992 represent just a few of these shifts in public policy (Blimling & Whitt, 1999). The federal legislation of these acts and amendments led to a decrease in the privacy and confidentiality of student discipline records, which could result in the reduction or elimination of financial assistance to a student who has violated a rule or committed a crime. These changes in public policy also affected how states viewed access to their public

institutions. Texas, California, and Florida, for example, all confronted affirmative action and its utility at their respective campuses (Kolling, 1998).

These shifts in public policy altered the relationship between students and their institutions, which, in turn, modified campus climates and further shaped the importance and nature of the role of the VPSA. At this point, certain universities began to allow students more freedom in relation to their conduct and social matters. While students enjoyed this freedom, public entities continued to debate the responsibility of college campuses for managing student conduct.

Although much of the attention about campus climate has focused on the undergraduate experience, student affairs administrators have also been given responsibility for the well-being of graduate and professional students. Student affairs programs, policies, and activities that concentrated on undergraduate and traditional students are not always easily applied to the issues facing graduate and professional students. The role of graduate assistants and whether they should be treated primarily as employees or students became a major concern. It is important for student affairs professionals remember that graduate and professional students have a right to improve their quality of life while at the institution; thus, overworking this population, while consequently underpaying it, is unacceptable (Baxter-Magolda & Terenzini, 1999).

Creating an enhanced educational experience at an institution with different divisions competing for resources can be challenging—and the student affairs function had become a major competitor with other college functions by the 1980s. Boyer (1987) cautioned that, “conflicting priorities and competing interests could diminish the intellectual and social quality of the undergraduate experience” (p. 2). In 1990, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching advocated for more research and provided recommendations about the student

experience regarding concerns about “an unhealthy separation between in-class and out-of-class activities” (p. 2). Kuh, Schuh and Whitt (1991) also focused on these two priorities, but were more optimistic when they observed that “institutional factors and conditions work together in different colleges and universities to promote learning and personal development through out-of-class learning experiences” (p. 4).

The student affairs portfolio has evolved to include a diverse and complicated set of responsibilities. As a partner in the educational enterprise, student affairs enhance and support the academic mission. In addition, student affairs professionals must advocate for the common good and champion the rights of the individual, encourage intelligent risk-taking and set limits on behavior, and encourage independent thought and teach interdependent behavior. By 2000, the certainty and coherence of the undergraduate campus experience had been diffused and diluted. The diversity of students in American higher education eventually influenced the shape and structure of institutions (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011). One intriguing doctoral dissertation charted the ways in which a public comprehensive university altered its student services and assumptions about who was attending the college—resulting in its designation as “the commuter’s Alma Mater” (Mason, 1993). However, for some higher education analysts, the effort to include all students at all institutions as part of the “collegiate experience” ceased to make good sense. During this time, women became a decisive majority of student enrollment at numerous institutions. At several colleges and universities—and, in particular, at Historical Black Colleges and Universities—women had become the majority of total undergraduates enrolled. Enhancing student advising and student support services also became an integral part of the student affairs profession during this time. Ultimately, the extent to which student affairs is successful in creating climates where goals can be discovered and

achieved, and personal obstacles overcome reflects on how well students are able to recognize and deal with such problems during and after college.

The Great Recession of 2008 heightened a growing conflict in the United States between expanding enrollment in post-secondary education and contracting public budget support. Just as non-credit programs began to stabilize, the Great Recession quickly drove down course enrollments in both credit and non-credit programs. Many out-of-work adults were forced to return to study at more affordable community colleges to meet the urgent need for additional career skills during that time (Mullin & Phillippe, 2009), forcing the student affairs profession to prioritize resources that better prepared and equipped students in that socio-economic moment.

As distance education technology (Kretovics, 2003) enables institutions of higher education to offer courses to students throughout the country, it is important for student affairs to offer opportunities for these students to connect with the institution. The relevant literature on distance education discusses differences between providing cyber-services and creating virtual communities for these students. Four areas for student affairs professionals to address are identified as the following: (a) the provision of services, (b) the creation of community, (c) the oversight of campus-wide distance education, and (d) graduate preparation program involvement. Recommendations are also made to assist student affairs professionals in framing this topic for their respective institutions (Kretovics, 2003).

Student affairs as a profession is committed to helping students and institutions successfully meet challenges beyond the narrow domain of academics. In an era of restricted resources, adding new responsibilities and services for student affairs professionals is a daunting prospect on many U.S. campuses. Contemporary issues and challenges, including, but not limited to, safety, crisis response, threat assessment, emergency preparedness and response, and

management of student mental health concerns, have contributed to the expansion of traditional student affairs responsibilities (e.g., housing, social and educational programming, diversity education). These issues have made student affairs work more complex, and, in turn, have necessitated additional leadership within the campus hierarchy by student affairs professionals (Keeling, 2006; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011). The role of student affairs has evolved to become a more integral part of college administration, and student affairs professionals have developed professional organizations, theoretical foundations, and professional standards to stay abreast to new strategies and implementations as well as to create a network of like-minded professionals who share a vision (Keeling, 2006; Sandeen & Barr, 2006).

The accountability of student affairs is a common theme in several of the foundational documents (*The Student Personnel Point of View, 1937; 1949*), but these documents are less clear about the outcomes for which the field should be held accountable. Many of them convey either the explicit or implicit expectation that student affairs be responsible for the learning and success of college students. Reports published over the past 20 years, such as *Learning Reconsidered* (2004, 2006), have increasingly focused on the need to demonstrate—through research and assessment—the ways and the extent to which student affairs programs and services achieve the desired higher education outcomes and contribute to institutional effectiveness.

At the close of the first decade of the 21st century, we faced another critical moment for higher education and for student affairs. Emerging societal changes pressed higher education to fulfill its role in securing social and economic justice, sustaining natural resources, and perpetuating democracy.

During this period, we saw greater access to technology and online learning, allowing adult learners greater access and flexibility in their pursuit of higher education. These changes

give rise to the possibility of changes in the role of the VPSA. While access to technology and online learning has increased in general during this period, institutions vary in their emphasis and implementation of online learning. This raises the question of whether the degree to which institutions focus on online learning and adult students might have implications for the role of the VPSA.

Role and Structure of Student Affairs in Higher Education

The contemporary role of student affairs in higher education has evolved over time to become quite complex. Historically, the student affairs profession emerged from the need to attend to issues of student conduct and the administrative functions of the college and university. Today, student affairs professionals work in a variety of functional areas throughout colleges and universities, ranging from admissions to academic advising, to housing and residential life. The role of student affairs professionals has changed from one focused on administration to one focused on education. As institutions have shifted away from acting *in loco parentis*, the purpose of student affairs has changed from a disciplinary role to an educational role (Long, 2012).

The core purposes of student affairs today are to create meaningful experiences that stimulate student development and to understand how students develop intellectually, psychosocially, and emotionally (Long, 2012). Core values such as caring, helping, equality, and social justice informs much of the structure that student affairs professionals strive to create as they help students to establish stable identities, values, conflict resolution skills, communication skills, ethical standards, and tolerance. Student affairs professionals help students prepare for career, leadership, and civic roles throughout their lifetimes (Long, 2012).

Sandeen and Barr (2006) have suggested that student personnel services (i.e., student affairs) should directly meet the needs of society. This suggests more than just educating citizens. It implies that education provided within the university should guide and mold students to be socially-responsible, democratic citizens. Student affairs leaders should understand that their role is to persuade the campus community and outside constituents, to advocate for students, and to produce results for their students and for their respective institutions (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

Over the last half-century, student affairs organizations have become complex, vital units within higher education institutions. The college and university's organizational culture is generally slow to adapt to change, but student affairs organizations operate within a much tighter timeframe in which policy decisions, technology, and organizational structures must evolve. Leadership in student affairs reflects the value of the profession by educating the students and promoting a sense of community and being accountable for the success of the organization to their students. The rapid growth of these units and the increased demands for diverse programs, services, and facilities have placed these units in the position of being a critical link to student success and the quality of the overall educational experience provided by higher educational institutions (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

The student affairs function within collegiate structures did not become complex, independent organizational units until the late 1960s (Ambler, 2000). As student numbers, demographics, and needs changed, new programs and services were added to the student affairs portfolios. In most cases, these new programs and services were simply added on to the array of existing programs and services with little attention focused on how these organizations might be designed to effectively meet the institution's mission and needs of the students, while also

determining the efficient use the resources that have been entrusted to it (Ambler, 2000; Manning, Kinzie, & Schuh, 2006).

Over time, it appeared that much of the concern about student affairs at the institutional level revolved around questions of organizational structure. For example: To which department or individual within the university's hierarchy did student affairs report? Even though these issues are important, there are other issues related to organizational design that are critical to ensuring organizational effectiveness. As the demands on higher education increase and change, gaining a more comprehensive and thorough understanding of these issues can be helpful in crafting successful organizations (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

Traditionally, institutions of higher education have come to serve four fundamental functions within society, changing the profession of student affairs and the role of the VPSA. The first of the functions is the conservation of existing knowledge. The universities have accumulated a vast wealth of knowledge concerning the universe in which we live (Sandeem & Barr, 2006). Society highly values this stored knowledge and insists that it be preserved. Second, the university is concerned with the horizontal extension of knowledge. This function may be described more clearly as enlargement of the circle of those who know, or the dissemination of knowledge. Third, the university strives to affect the vertical extension of knowledge or more simply said, to search for new knowledge. Finally, the fourth function is concerned with the application of knowledge to life situations has become a paramount function in American higher education. Some would argue the application of knowledge as a distinct function of the college and university.

The role of American higher education has taken on a new and more extensive perspective within the last two decades. The land grant institutions have demonstrated the

importance of this function for more than a hundred years. The character of American social structure calls for this kind of agent in society as a link between the basic research of institutions of higher education and the immediacy and application of this research (Sandeen & Barr, 2006). More recently, universities have come to be seen as regional economic engines, or places of innovation that partner with private enterprises and government to spur that economy—evanescent by the “start-up New York” initiative¹².

The traditional goals of student affairs—the development of the whole student, fostering involvement in the community, cultural pluralism, civic responsibility, and international understanding—are increasingly recognized as essential institutional goals. The potential for increased importance of student affairs continues to call for a revision of the role of student affairs professional including the VPSA (Garland & Grace, 1993). VPSAs find themselves being vital members within the institution, integrating students’ needs and traditional goals of student affairs on the one hand with the varied needs of institutions responding to changing conditions on the other.

VPSAs strive to instill in students a philosophy of life, based on tolerance of others and their value systems rather than on attempting to indoctrinate or project absolute values (Sandeen & Barr, 2006). In short, the primary aim of the VPSA is to educate students about their place in society to help alleviate ignorance, superstition, prejudice, and the need to use force in trying to solve societal issues. The VPSA offers an atmosphere in which students are free to develop their

¹² START-UP NY offers new and expanding businesses the opportunity to operate tax-free for 10 years on or near eligible university or college campuses in New York State. Partnering with these schools gives businesses direct access to advanced research laboratories, development resources and experts in key industries.

potential, both academically and socially. The goal is to develop the “whole student,” not just the “intellectual student” (Sandeen & Barr, 2006).

If the VPSA provides an effective program, students can have the ability to improve both themselves and society. Consequently, individual qualities such as independence of judgment, critical thinking, freedom from irrational prejudice, and self-development are often the focus of development opportunities. Finally, the ideas that are stimulated and the creativity engendered through academically integrated student personnel programs may be a basic ingredient for growth in our society.

Institutional Transformation and Change

The Student Affairs function and VPSA role have expanded dramatically during the past 40 years and have become a significant part of the administrative organization of most colleges and universities (Sandeen & Barr, 2006). Colleges and universities are almost always engaged in the process of downsizing, right-sizing, expanding, re-engineering, retrenching, or pursuing some bold new initiative. These changes may be initiated by factors external to the institution, or they may simply be the result of internal power shifts in which new leaders enforce new agendas of priority and change. For example, the arrival of a new president on campus is often an occasion for reassessing institutional priorities and reorganizing staffing structures and administrative processes.

Organizational restructuring can be threatening to student affairs leaders because it often involves a transfer of power and resources, as well as shifts in jobs and status. Student affairs leaders may feel the threat of reorganization more keenly than other institutional leaders because student affairs organizations typically have less status and power than other areas of college and university administration. One of the key roles of the VPSA that poses major challenges is

managing such reorganization initiatives. These challenges require loyalty, effective teamwork, a willingness to think in new and different ways, and the skills to engage in high-stakes decisions in order to emerge from the process with sufficient resources and power to accomplish the student affairs mission. The pressure that this process places upon the student affairs leader can be especially taxing (Sandeem & Barr, 2006). Student affairs professionals have a critical role in helping their institutions transform themselves in response to outside challenges. Some changes can completely reorient the nature of what student services do so that student affairs professionals are forced to think and act in radically new and different ways to adjust to fast-moving forces.

Student affairs practitioners have many capacities and insights to help transform their colleges and universities (Allen & Cherry, 2003). They have been actively influencing individuals, groups, and organizational culture for years. However, these influencing strategies often are limited, as they tend only to focus on students and not the institution. Allen and Cherry (2003) suggest that it is time for student affairs professionals to influence both the institution and the student in order to help facilitate the needed changes in higher education.

Most of the changes routinely encountered in the professional work of student affairs are not transformative in nature and can be anticipated with good planning and taking heed of emerging trends and innovations. Numerous organizational and management reforms have happened in higher education, many of which were imported from the corporate sector (Allen & Cherry, 2003). Facilitating changes that move organizations toward more effective operations and higher achievements is expected of most leaders, and they usually expect to have such roles. Effective leaders must be able to relish the tasks of change (operational or strategic factors) and lead the process with clarity of vision and personal energy. To learn to detect the long-term

transforming potential that is embedded in the ordinary changes and developments that come daily is challenging when managing change is critical for leaders in this role (Allen & Cherry, 2003). Higher education can and must make a difference in society, since students learn in part by watching what we do as individuals and institutions. Students will affect the work in greater proportion than their numbers. Higher education needs to fulfill its promise to students and society and prepare them to live and work in a challenging, interdependent world.

Dalton and Gardner (2002) found it difficult to categorize all the changes that one is likely to confront in professional work in student affairs because of the unpredictable nature of both the profession and the process of change itself. According to Dalton and Gardner (2002), the following 11 changes are some of the most important and challenging ones:

- Appointment of a new president;
- Institutional or divisional reorganization;
- Major new institution wide initiatives;
- New laws, regulations, policies from external sources; for example, legislature, boards of trustees, federal and state government (i.e., Title IV, G.I. Bill);
- Unanticipated economic changes; for example, loss or decline of resources, revenues, enrollment;
- Change of jobs and institutions;
- Catastrophic events; for example, fire, flood, student deaths, scandals;
- Emerging trends in students' college preferences, career interests, and personal values;
- New technology and technology infusion;
- Key personnel changes; and
- Personal factors; for example, retirement, health, aging, burnout, family issues. (p. 39)

Facilitating change that moves organizations toward more effective operations and achievement is expected of most leaders. It requires some special knowledge and skills in human psychology and behavior, research, strategic planning, communication, and political collaboration. It is an area of leadership that is challenging for the seasoned professional and often overwhelming for the inexperienced leader. Dalton and Gardner (2002) asserted that most student affairs leaders enjoy the process of change so long as they are the ones directing the enterprise toward achieving the goals and priorities of importance to them.

Leadership in Higher Education

Since the mid-1980s, American higher education has experienced considerable change, often the result of public scrutiny and subsequent critique. Bennis (1973) identified adaptive capacity as a must for effective leadership, since students, faculty members, administrators, and the general public are concerned about the ability of educational organizations to adapt in the face of new demands (Baldrige & Deal, 1977). Although he does not predict a third great transformation in higher education, Kerr (1994) was less than sanguine as he forecasted continuing change that will require educational leaders to be adaptable, savvy, and cooperative. In the near future, there will be even greater pressures on colleges and universities both to perform and to be accountable for performance. A necessary first condition is to have institutional leaders who understand these problems and are willing to make significant effort to deal constructively with them (Austin, 1993). That said, there is no better time than right now for increased leadership competence in the academy when considering the traditional needs for leadership in higher education as juxtaposed alongside the challenges of new forms of learning, new technologies for teaching, and new requirements for graduate competence. The future of an institution of higher education rests upon its ability to involve individuals who are flexible,

willing to look at alternatives, and capable of themselves developing leadership characteristics (Dressel, 1981).

Colleges and universities are different from most other types of complex organizations. Autonomy and self-determination of priorities are still important to academics. Ambitions for leadership, success in management and administration, and a commitment to more efficient business operations—valued qualities in most organizations other than universities, even among professional employees—tend still to be looked on with disfavor by many academics (Ramsden, 1998). The result is that few institutions provide opportunities for the leadership development of administrators. Cohen, March & Olsen (1972) described colleges and universities as “organized anarchies,” and, as such, the organizational characteristics of colleges and universities included goal ambiguity, professional dominance, and environmental vulnerability (Baldrige et al., 1978). Birnbaum (1988) stated that effective leadership in such an anarchical system includes spending time and focus on select issues, facilitating participation in decision-making, managing unobtrusively, interpreting history, and providing mechanisms for input. In institutions of higher education, power is more diffuse, lodged with professional experts and fragmented into many departments and subdivisions (Baldrige et al., 1978). Given the structure of higher education, administrators must be both effective leaders and efficient managers if they wish to accomplish the goals of the institution and build for the future.

Draughdill (1988) pointed out the essential elements of college or university leadership are a passion for the institution, a commitment to stewardship, a clear, but far-reaching vision, and the courage of one’s convictions. Leadership is not fundamentally about the attributes a leader has, but about what the leader does in the context of an academic department, research group, or course (Ramsden, 1998). Wilcox and Ebbs (1992) encouraged certain behaviors

(creating the vision, empowering others, modeling the way, and acting ethically) from leaders in higher education that appear to energize institutions. This type of leadership is challenging. Shapiro (1998) pointed out that a single day often requires contemporary college and university presidents' attention to traverse back and forth from alumni concerns to developments in Washington or a state capital, from public policy issues to student discipline, and from faculty appointments to curricular reform—all in an endless quest to help provide for the institution and to help secure the broadest acceptance of higher education's needs and responsibilities.

Bennis (2003) indicated that leadership in higher education is the capacity to infuse new values and goals into the organization and to provide perspective on events and environments that potentially can impose constraints on the institution should they go undetected. Leadership involves planning, auditing, communicating, relating to outside constituencies, insisting on the highest quality of performance and people, and keeping an eye out for forces that may lead to or disable important reforms (Bennis, 1973).

The connectedness of the college or university across departments and divisions of the institutions is essential to the leadership not only of the president, but of the VPSA and others on the leadership team. The ultimate success of a collegiate institution is predicated upon the abilities of its executive-level officers to develop staff teams that possess the capacities to initiate critical interrelationships that catalyze cooperative and collaborative educational activities that enrich the collegiate experience for all students (Stamatakos, 1991). The collective practice of team building is essential to the reconstruction of collegiate leadership (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993). Enhancing leadership ability among staff in higher education requires universities to practice the responsibilities of envisioning, enabling, developing, and learning at all levels.

Leadership in higher education, perhaps more than any other institution, is a collective practice. It is the network of key administrators who make most of the critical decisions (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, & Riley, 1978). Thus, shared ascendancy characterizes higher education. Although most of the attention goes to the role of the president as leader, an effective president realizes that a single leader is not effective in most higher education settings. Complex, team-centered leadership is likely to be more effective than one-person leadership because it demands shared responsibility for thinking as much as it requires shared responsibility for doing (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993). Birnbaum (1988), who called for integrated leadership, echoed the need for collaboration. Leaders of the future will successfully lead organizations when their beliefs are in harmony with the transformations occurring in our world, when they value change over stability, empowerment over control, collaboration over competition, relationship over things, and diversity over uniformity (Rost, 1993). For higher education organizations to thrive and grow in the future, the president and executive-level administrators must all contribute in synergistic ways to the leadership of the institution.

Leadership in Student Affairs

Boyer (1987) argued that leadership on the part of others (besides the president), specifically on the parts of students and academic affairs, will be important in maintaining and improving the quality of institutions. Today's higher education problems call for the dedication¹³, skills¹⁴, knowledge¹⁵, and leadership¹⁶ of the VPSA. Student affairs professionals are well equipped to grapple with the challenges currently facing higher education because their

¹³ Dedication, the quality of being dedicated or committed to a task or purpose.

¹⁴ Skills, the ability to do something well; expertise.

¹⁵ Knowledge, awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation.

¹⁶ Leadership, the action of leading a group of people or an organization.

perspectives, priorities, commitments, and experiences allow them to do so (Clement & Rickard, 1992).

The need to demonstrate the effectiveness of student affairs programs and services is not a revolutionary concept (Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). VPSAs must develop the necessary skills and abilities if they are to take their rightful place in the development of institutional strategies and higher education leadership. Clearly explaining how quality student affairs programming contributes to the academic success of students, as well as to the academic mission of the institution, is imperative (Brown, 1997).

Lovell and Kosten (2000) conducted a 30-year literature review, spanning the 1970s to 2000s. They found that to be successful as a student affairs administrator, well-developed administration, management, and human facilitation are key (Lovell & Kosten, 2000). Tillotson (1995) found that interpersonal relationship skills, organizational skills, and directive skills necessary for working with others were foundational skills for student affairs professionals. Across available and relevant research, leadership, personnel management, and communication prove to be the most important skills for student affairs professionals (Kane, 1982). Other researchers have ranked leadership, student contact, and communication as the most important (Gordan, Strode, & Mann, 1993). Additionally, developing effective partnerships between faculty and student affairs professionals is critical to maximizing the educational potential of colleges and universities (Streit, 1993, p. 40).

Garland (1985) challenged student affairs professionals to assume leadership in formulating and managing institutional responses to changing conditions. Education in broader issues beyond student affairs is necessary for leadership that encompasses the full extent of the institution and the educational enterprise (McDade, 1989). As members of decision-making

teams, VPSAs should be as knowledgeable of their entire institutions as they are about their own division.

As the new millennium approached (2000), student affairs professionals will be expected to exercise leadership to successfully initiate and implement change in institutions of higher education, and they will be expected to create and implement campus programs to empower students to develop such leadership as well (Rogers, 1996). With larger numbers of professionals, support, and student staff in the student affairs division, the VPSA must establish personnel practices that enable them to perform their duties, participate in the decision-making process, and have opportunities for professional advancement and growth (Sandeem, 1991).

The role of student affairs is evolving to one that is more central and critical to the achievement of other institutional goals, and one that is concerned about organizational development as a necessary complement to student development (Garland & Grance, 1993). VPSAs have the opportunity to exercise greater leadership and influence over institutions of higher education. The current higher education context is open to such leadership. It is imperative that VPSAs prepare themselves for such leadership by understanding their own leadership behaviors and developing plans for their own leadership development.

Consequently, there are eight roles believed to be the fabric of what makes a strong institutional leader. Stamatakos (1991) notes that VSPAs must assume the following roles in their position: articulator of a philosophy, advocate for students' needs and interests, transmitter of values, interpreter of institutional culture, institutional leader and policy-maker, champion of causes, institutional planner, and public relations spokesperson.

Roles of the Vice President for Student Affairs

The role of the VPSA has evolved over time (Brown, 1997; Sandeen, 1991, 2001). The influx of student with disabilities, minority student groups, and female, older, part-time, and international students has also encouraged evolution on the part of American higher education. This change has shifted social classes to a more heterogeneous community requiring exemplary teaching, advising, and interpersonal and leadership skills from not only faculty members but also from student affairs professionals (Brown, 1997). For example, because of shifting student demographics and technology, the responsibilities of the VPSA have expanded to include judicial duties as they now monitor academic integrity issues among students. Additionally, the function of the VPSA requires that services be supplied to accommodate the needs of various student demographics, such as the adult learner and the commuter student. According to Edwards (2006), VPSAs serve various roles and functions on college campuses, including leader, manager, fundraiser, and educator. Edwards (2006) went on to delineate and expand upon the responsibilities of the VPSA.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2006) developed forty-three sets of functional areas standards for higher education programs and services. The following list shows the current functional area standards. Also, some do not fall under the student affairs umbrella, and most draw on skills and experiences typical of student affairs practitioners.

CAS Functional Area Standards for Higher Education Programs and Services

- Academic advising programs
- Adult learner programs and services
- Alcohol and other drug programs

- Assessment services
- Auxiliary services
- Campus activities programs
- Campus information and visitor services
- Campus police and security programs
- Campus religious and spiritual programs
- Career services
- Civic engagement and service-learning programs
- Clinical health services
- College honor society programs
- College unions
- Commuter and off-campus living programs
- Conference and event programs
- Counseling services
- Dining service programs
- Disability resources and services
- Education abroad programs and services
- Financial aid programs
- Fraternity and sorority advising programs
- Graduate and professional student programs and services
- Health promotion services
- Housing and residential life programs
- International student programs and services

- Internship programs
- Learning assistance programs
- Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender programs and services
- Master's level student affairs professional preparation programs
- Multicultural student programs and services
- Orientation Programs
- Parent and family programs
- Recreational sports programs
- Registrar programs and services
- Sexual violence-related programs and services
- Student conduct programs
- Student leadership programs
- Transfer student programs and services
- TRIO and other educational opportunity programs (n.p.)

Detailed in a survey conducted by NASPA (2014), the five functional areas most commonly reported to student affairs were campus activities, student conduct, counseling, orientation, and student affairs assessment. However, organizational structures are not static; units may move in and out of the student affairs division. Veteran student services, student affairs assessment, and campus safety were the most common recent additions to student affairs divisions. Career services, financial aid, and intercollegiate athletics were the units most commonly removed from student affairs and placed elsewhere in the institution (NASPA, 2014).

Leadership and Supervisory Responsibilities

With their ability to be effective leaders, the VPSA's active involvement and visibility are paramount for institutions of higher education. Grund (2003) believes that student affairs professionals play an integral role as the heartbeat, eyes, and ears of an institution. Taylor (2001) noted that VPSAs make strides to collaborate with other institutional leaders, recognizing that such an association leads to building rapport and is important for them to be effective. While the development of students and student relation functions have been maintained, Lunsford (1984) noted that managerial functions have increased for VPSAs. Edwards (2006) further stated that the role of VPSAs has become significantly multifaceted and the individuals in these positions are expected to provide leadership in their institutions. The majority of American college and university campuses have VPSAs as part of the central management team (Brown, 1997). This is especially necessary since campus presidents and other senior officials depend on the VPSA to address student-related issues.

Recent literature suggests that the roles of VPSAs are both essential and multifaceted, as they include managing enrollment, institutional planning, and institutional advancement (Edwards, 2006). In accordance with Schuh (2002), leadership in student affairs is obliged to go beyond immediate services to students as well as to influence and impact the scope of larger issues of institutional concern. Edwards (2006) noted that VPSAs are also responsible for facilitating change in institutions of higher education as well as serving in an advisory capacity to the president. Due to the rapidly changing demographic profile of the student population, Brown (1997) declared that the role of VPSAs should continue to expand. He further implied that because of the high demands and added pressures of the position, more innovative holistic leadership skills will be required. The next section describes the functional areas typically housed in the division of student affairs that report to the VPSA.

Enrollment Management/Admissions

There is a vast misconception that enrollment management is not an institutional issue (Jantzen, 1991). To the contrary, Edwards (2006) asserted that enrollment management moved beyond recruiting perspective students toward retention of the student body. At many institutions, there is a designated person to lead this exceptionally important institutional initiative. In most cases, this person is the VPSA or reports to the VPSA. Very sensitive and collaborative in nature, the individual leading enrollment initiatives must be able to motivate a wide array of representatives from various areas including, but not limited to, academic affairs, student affairs, and institutional advancement to assist in stabilizing and/or increasing enrollment (Mabry, 1987). Jantzen (1991) affirmed that an enrollment manager is responsible for ensuring that recruitment and retention are cohesive and balanced and also cognizant of the global perspective. Dixon (1995) asserted that enrollment management is strategic, involves short- and long-term planning, and requires exceptional leadership skills.

Housing and Residential Life

Most four-year institutions offer on-campus housing for undergraduate students and many larger universities have housing for graduate students and families. Residence halls—typically staffed by undergraduate student resident advisors, graduate students, and full-time professional staff members—are primary sites for co-curricular and extracurricular programming intended to promote student engagement and development (Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016). On a growing number of campuses, academic affairs and student affairs collaborate through living-learning communities to enhance the student experience. Housing and residence life may report through student affairs, business affairs, or both. Some campuses have public-private partnerships in which private companies own or operate campus residence halls or

manage functions such as dining or maintenance—influenced and directed by the mission and vision of the VPSA.

Higher education institutions must enhance their competitiveness via some type of unique niche to attract students (Doss, et al., 2015). Although many argue that academic programs and reputations, geographic locations, and social opportunities are competitive resources, student housing is often a resource for enhancing competitiveness (Doss, et al., 2015). From the earliest days of education to modern times, all students have shared the need for a place to sleep, eat, bathe, socialize, and study. Thus, student housing is a primary concern of all traditional academic institutions and future generations will share similar challenges.

Student housing is a concern of academic institutions for a variety of reasons ranging from institutional competitiveness to ensuring the safety of the study body. In any case, most traditional academic institutions possess some type of residences for housing students. Over the years, much change has occurred regarding the types of housing available to students. The Colonial period commenced with Spartan housing, which eventually evolved toward more modern, apartment-style residences that exist within contemporary higher education environments. As times changed, so did the influences that affected student housing. The English and German education systems influenced the maturing of American housing among higher education settings. Government legislation also impacted the quality and availability of housing, such as the G.I. Bill and the 1964 Housing Act. Essentially, the history of campus housing reflects changes of societal and governmental attitudes regarding the accommodation of students.

The history of campus housing has been permeated by change. Certainly, future generations of college students will share the needs of their predecessors regarding housing.

During modern times, students live in relative comfort and safety. However, academic institutions must consider the future of campus housing. New technologies, housing codes, construction materials, campus safety, social constructs, and academics are examples of issues that will affect future housing designs and erections. The reality of violence and crime must be addressed, given the combination of students from different nations that exist among American universities, the effects of surrounding communities, and the volatility of campuses. Foreign and domestic groups exist that may endanger lives, ranging from terrorists to criminal organizations (McElreath, et al., 2013; McElreath, et al., 2014a; McElreath et al., 2014b; Wigginton, et al., 2015). Future housing must accommodate social expectations, facilitate communication, exhibit some reasonable amount of security, incorporate concerns for possible endangerments, contribute toward the academic success of students, exhibit some types of amenities, and foster a sense of community.

A central theme of economics involves the basic question of how to allocate scarce resources to satisfy the unlimited wants and needs of humans (Doss, Sumrall, McElreath, & Jones, 2013; Doss, Sumrall, & Jones, 2012). Future campus housing is susceptible to this economic tenet, given the impossibility of completely satisfying the needs and wants of *all* students, especially as times and technologies change in conjunction with aging building construction. Administrators will continuously evaluate capital projects via some form of capital budgeting, such as the internal rate of return, cost-benefit analysis, or net present value methods (Doss, Troxel, & Sumrall, 2010; Lasher, 2005).

Campus housing is now an expected aspect of the American educational experience among traditional institutions of higher education. The existence of modern campus housing exhibits a rich history of change that commenced with the most basic of accommodations and

culminated in contemporary apartment-style residences. Modern students experience the comforts of home while studying and living away from home. Given the expectations of society, institutions, and students, housing will continue to undergo change to satisfy the dynamics of future generations. Through time, the unceasing evolution of campus housing will affect future generations just as it did for preceding generations.

Career Services

In addition to aiding students and alumni in their job searches, career services professionals develop relationships with employers to secure job, internship, and co-op placements for students. They offer an array of programs and services including resume workshops, career advising, networking opportunities, and career fairs. The office may be part of student or academic affairs, or perhaps even a unit of enrollment management (Dorn, 1989; Nutter & Johnson, 1995; Roth, 1994; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016). Career Services may be centralized operations or decentralized operations that are run by individual schools or colleges within a university, each of which is directly influenced by the university and/or VPSAs mission and vision.

Counseling Services

Many students on campus face substantial mental health concerns; 34.5 percent reported feeling depressed to the point that they could not function at least once in the previous twelve months (America College Health Association, 2015). A key source of support for students' personal development and psychological health comes from the counseling center. Counselors typically have graduate degrees in counseling psychology, clinical psychology, mental health, counselor education, and related fields. Many are licensed or certified. Counselors see students in individual and group therapy, do outreach programming, provide consultation to the

community, work with students in crisis, and consult with staff members on risk assessment and intervention strategies. Counseling services may be a unit within student affairs, affiliated with the health center, or (less commonly) be contracted with local service providers and often integrated with academic affairs (Kranz & Harris, 1991; Lancaster, 2012; Nicholson, Shelley & Townsend, 1991; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016).

College Union, Student Life, and Student Activities

The college (or student) union acts as the central gathering place for students, faculty, staff, and community members. Unions offer cultural, educational, social, and recreational programming in addition to for-profit services such as a bookstore, bank, full-service and fast food restaurants, and game rooms. Campus activities professionals, often operating within the college union, strive to promote student learning by helping them engage actively in campus life. Many campuses also offer training programs dedicated to developing student leaders for this division (Schuh, Jones, & Torres, 2016; Siemering, 1968; Siggelkow, 1969; Stringer, Steckler & Johnson, 1988; Wise, 1978).

Student Conduct Programs

Often situated in the VPSAs office, student conduct programs exist to enforce the rules and regulations detailed in the student handbook, contribute to a positive ethical climate, and maintain academic integrity in the campus community. Most systems are designed to be educational rather than punitive, although serious incidents may result in suspension or expulsion. Conduct professionals¹⁷ are vigilant in protecting the rights of students and maintaining the health and safety of the community. Higher education administrators work

¹⁷ Professional conduct is the field of regulation of members of professional bodies, either acting under statutory or contractual powers.

closely with residence life, campus police, faculty members, community leaders, and local courts. The student conduct office is also extremely involved in handling allegations of sexual assaults. Mishandling complaints may lead to a violation of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits gender discrimination at schools receiving federal support (Nadler & Miller, 1997, Schuh, Jones, & Torres, 2016).

Orientation

Orientation programs should introduce the academic life of the campus as well as support services and campus life to incoming students. There are many models for orientation including one-day sessions, programs lasting several days to a week, and off-campus immersion programs. Orientation must also attend to the specific needs of new students and transfer students. Orientation may also include first-year experience programs—such as semester-long seminars—to help students acclimate to college and build the skills necessary for success. Orientation may be a unit of student affairs, enrollment management, or academic affairs (Higginson, Moore & White, 1981; Moore, Pappas & Vinton, 1979; Nadler & Miller, 1997; Posner & Rosenberger, 1997; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016). Regardless of structure, faculty and staff members must collaborate to achieve critical goals of orientation, as aligned with the mission and vision of the VPSA.

Financial Management

The financial resources available for student affairs reflect the educational priorities of their respective colleges and universities. Similarly, the allocation of those resources must reflect the priorities within student affairs. In each institution, the discovery of student affairs initiatives and responsibilities requires a strategic and operational assessment of competing interests. That integration function, in turn, requires an understanding of cost efficiencies,

effective practices, student needs, institutional initiatives, legal and code requirements, and numerous other factors within a cohesive and systematic mission for student affairs as a whole.

While VPSAs need not possess expertise in all these areas or each of the functional offices in student affairs themselves, they must be able to lead student affairs personnel in the generation of goals and priorities within a budgetary context. Institutions have budgets for several reasons. Budgets provide a guide to unit leaders so that they can track their revenues and expenditures over the course of a fiscal year (commonly, but not always, from July 1 through June 30). With real-time budgeting, unit managers can access information at any time to determine the relative status of the revenues and expenditures for which they are responsible and adjust accordingly. Budgets also serve as planning documents. Over the course of several years, unit managers can provide additional funds to support initiatives that are aligned with the unit's strategic plan. For example, if the housing department has set a goal of expanding learning communities, the department's budget officer can dedicate additional funds to the learning community program over time. In times of fiscal stress, the budget may be reduced in ways that are consistent with the strategic plan. Finally, budgets also provide departmental leaders with a transparent tool for describing the priorities of the department, for the reasons described above. A useful way to determine a unit's priorities is to review budgets over time. By reviewing budgetary priorities over periods of time, the VPSA can learn the division's priorities based on previous allocations of resources. The VPSA budget can be broke down into the following sections; line item, incremental, program, responsibility center, and capital. At times the VPSA may need to take the following steps when preparing the division: budget, downsizing or reallocation, outsourcing of services and programs, develop grants and contracts, and develop fundraising efforts to strengthen the divisions budget.

Legal Issues and Policy Development

Gehring (2000) observed, “The law has definitely arrived on campus. It permeates every program, policy, and practice of the institution.” (p.371). Kaplin and Lee (2009) noted that the relationship between the courts and colleges and universities has changed significantly over the past half-century, as the courts abandoned their deferential attitude toward higher education. During the same period, the government became more actively involved in the regulation of higher education.

In responding to the legal issues that arise on campus, VPSAs cannot work in isolation. Instead, when appropriate, VSPAs should consult with the campus general counsel or attorney. This consultation can take both a reactive form when litigation is anticipated or imminent and a proactive form as policies and practices are developed. Because of their training to be risk-averse, attorneys often advise clients to avoid potentially litigious choices. As such, direct questions are often answered with a firm “no” (Lake, 2011).

When considering the legal issues and risk management issues that shape the student affairs professional practice in the United States, one must consider the various sources of law, which include federal and state constitutions, federal and state regulations, contracts, and negligence and tort liability. These include both external sources of the law such as constitutions and regulations, as well as internal sources of the law including contracts, and custom and usage. An understanding of this framework for higher education law will offer VPSAs an introduction to the legal landscape in which their work must be understood and practiced. Since VPSAs have a considerable amount of responsibility for students outside of the classroom, they must also maintain an understanding of the carried needs, regulations, and laws that pertain to all student-related matters.

External Affairs

Typically characterized as focusing their attention on the institution's internal campus life, college and university VPSAs must be careful to remain linked to external affairs (Bornstein, 2003, Snyder, 2003). External Affairs provides communication and outreach to legislative partners, businesses and industries, community leaders, local media, and other key constituents relative to the fulfillment of the institutional mission (Bornstein, 2003). VPSAs may also facilitate the work of community leadership groups or college councils to further develop their involvement in external affairs.

The involvement of VPSA engagement in external affairs can build or diminish the legitimacy of a college or university VPSA and the institution they serve (Bornstein, 2003; Snyder, 2003). According to Nelson (2002), American colleges and universities have a long legacy of championing civic moralities and goodness. Nelson (2002), further explained that college and university VPSAs uphold this legacy by affirming the relationship of education to basic civic virtues and values of democracy. Schneider (2002) argued that American college and university VPSAs no longer engage in civic responsibilities.

Educator

It is not uncommon for faculty to assume some advising responsibility in addition to classroom education; however, research shows that student learning and the education process should be a shared responsibility between faculty and student affairs professionals (ACPA, 2009; Kuh & Banta, 2000; NASPA, 2009). Consistent with this view, scholars affirm that classroom instruction and student learning are enhanced by the out-of-class experiences in which students are engaged (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). With the support of such professional organizations like ACPA and NASPA, Edwards (2006) asserted that student affairs professionals are educators

who share the duty of educating and promoting personal development of students while also contributing to their learning process.

Fundraising

In an age of shrinking financial resources, institutional fundraising has become more of a priority as a means of maintaining and supplementing fiscally declining programs (Edwards, 2006). Gold, Golden, and Quatroche (1993) assert that, historically, student affairs professionals have played an insignificant role in institutional fundraising. In contrast, Cockriel and Kellogg (1994) observed that student affairs professionals are ideal candidates, suited for involvement with fundraising—mostly due to their ranging breadths and skill sets. Grund's (2003) takes a similar position in his argument that because VPSAs are exploring new ways to generate revenue, they are seriously committed to fundraising efforts and initiatives. Additionally, to access new sources of funding, grant writing has become a necessity within student affairs (Grund, 2003).

Navigating the Bureaucracy of the University

Leaders in higher education have several sources of authority available to them. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) highlighted the following as four broad sources of authority: bureaucratic, personal, professional, and moral. Bureaucratic authority is generally available to supervisors. It consists of the perquisites shared by those in bureaucracies, including job descriptions, rules, regulations, and the expectation of evaluation. Bureaucratic authority is more strongly associated with the administration than with the faculty. This type of authority places a heavy emphasis on external accountability (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). The Center for Creative Leadership invited thirty-six American college presidents to participate in a forum on leadership in American universities. Participants noted that the exercise of hierarchical power

was less effective in a university than it might be in the corporate world (Ponder and McCauley, 2006). Personal authority varies based on individuals and includes their personal leadership qualities and personality characteristics. Embedded in this type of authority is the assumption that what gets rewarded gets done. Core technologies of this type of authority are the supervisors' leadership styles and motivational techniques (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Professional authority combines the experience, education, and expertise of the individual. This type of authority is not externally derived, instead, is formed by "professional socialization and internalized knowledge and values" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Sorber & Humphrey, 2011, p. 32). Administrators who boast this type of authority as their core source may believe that their authority as a professional supersedes the knowledge base of the student affairs profession. Finally, moral authority derives from the values, ideals, and ideas shared by those within the institutional and larger communities. This type of authority is well suited to learning communities that are characterized by agreed-upon commitments. The norms and values of the organization are substituted for direct supervision as administrators become increasingly self-managing.

As a result of highly complex and multiple departmental units, service areas, and employees, Bloland (1979) suggested that VPSAs are managers dealing with budgets, staff development and supervision. In this role, they are also responsible for setting policies, problem solving, and a myriad of essential functions that affect the institution. Hamrick, Evans, and Schuh (2002) further proclaimed that VPSAs ranked the three most significant areas of their knowledge and expertise as staff supervision, budget administration, and problem-solving.

Edwards (2006) suggested that VPSAs function more in a management role than in an advocacy role for students. According to Hemphill and Holmes (2005), VPSAs reported a harsh

contrast between theoretical discussions and the actuality of decisions that fundamentally rest on their shoulders. Edwards (2006) proclaimed that the knowledge and skills of VPSAs in operations management and organizational behavior are employed more than their knowledge and skills in student development. Although VPSAs devote increasing amounts of time to management of personnel, including decisions about positions and professional development of staff (Risacher, 2004), they are equally concerned about operating expenses for their services (Edwards, 2006). Scholars indicate that student affairs units are particularly vulnerable to funding cuts, especially in an age of budget reduction (Cockriel & Kellogg, 1994; Edwards, 2006; Gold, Golden, & Quatroche, 1993). As a result, valiant efforts are made by VPSAs to engage in fundraising efforts to supplement budgets and maintain programs and services. Therefore, fundraising has become essential to the work of VPSAs (Edwards, 2006).

VPSA Qualifications and Characteristics

The literature reveals that VPSAs must possess many skills and talents to be effective in their positions (Bloland, 1979; Ebbers & Kruempel, 1992; Moneta, 2003). These may include but are not limited to, the following: graduate education and degrees, a multitude of various skills, and a full range of needed competencies. The qualifications, skills, and characteristics of the VPSA are of critical importance because they essentially lead and guide the direction of the division of student affairs. One must be well versed within the landscape of higher education, the mission, vision, and direction of student affairs, and the impact it has on the college/university environment.

Graduate Education and Degrees

Smith, Cox, Hudson, and Smith (1990) noticed the trend of hiring VPSAs who hold a doctorate. They discussed that in order to be competitive for future VPSA positions, the less

experienced, aspiring professional will undoubtedly need to obtain a terminal degree. Graduate training and a terminal-degree are deemed essential credentials for those aspiring to be a VPSA. Saunders and Cooper (1988) also argued that the doctorate-wielding VPSA candidate has a more competitive chance of landing the position. They purported that student affairs practitioners feel obligated to attain a doctorate in order to hold their current position or to advance in their chosen field. Hemphill and Holmes (2005) suggested that a doctoral degree could offer more credibility with academic affairs counterparts as well as provide greater opportunity for upward mobility.

Characteristics

Studies have been conducted by researchers covering the full spectrum of characteristics and competencies associated with the VPSA position (Brodzinski, 1980; Lunsford, 1984). Harper (2004) noted the characteristics most commonly associated with competency in the position are relational and managerial. He further stated that the VPSA's rapport with the president, governing boards, and campus community are especially significant. The ability to manage programs, services, facilities, personnel, and activities are also of significance. According to Harper (2004), presidents rated qualities such as integrity, commitment to institutional mission, support of the academic affairs, and effective verbal communication as essential elements for VPSAs. Harper concluded by proclaiming that for presidents, VPSAs with an institutional perspective were the most desirable and effective leaders.

Skills and Competencies for Student Affairs Professionals

It is recommended that VPSAs possess the selected skills in order to be effective leaders of the internal and external constituencies of institutions they serve. The following skills are needed for those aspiring to be VPSAs:

(1) educational leadership skills are required to analyze and interpret institutional policy on behalf of students and to participate in the policy-making process; (2) management and supervisory skills needed in writing budgets, selecting and training personnel, and determining goals and objectives; (3) articulation skills required to assure a flow of information among students, college staff, and the community; (4) program development skills required in assessing student needs, securing adequate human and financial resources, and evaluating programs; and (5) skills required for participation in community and professional activities outside of the college. (*Suggested Performance Competencies*, 1981, p. 1)

Current competencies for student affairs professionals.

Each of the updated competencies is accompanied by a set of foundational, intermediate, and advanced outcomes or proficiencies (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Weiner, Bresciani, Oyler, & Felix, 2011). These are suggested results at different stages of one's career and are related directly to a person's individual abilities, coupled with consideration of philosophies or progressions/ priorities (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Weiner, Bresciani, Oyler, & Felix, 2011).

Personal and ethical foundations.

Involves the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to develop and maintain integrity in one's life and work; this includes thoughtful development, critique, and adherence to a holistic and comprehensive standard of ethics and commitment to one's own wellness and growth (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Sriram, 2014).

Integrity has an internal focus and is informed through both a personal and ethical foundation as well as an inner voice in conjunction with lived experiences. Integrity is developed through a practice of inquisitiveness, contemplation, and personal authorship (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Sriram, 2014). At the foundational level, this skill set involves understanding and knowing one's own ethical standards, acknowledging

strengths and weaknesses as they pertain to student affairs work, and possessing the ability to balance work and life. At the intermediate level, the skill set includes acknowledging alignment of personal and professional ethical standards, enhancing one's ability to engage in stress-reducing activities, and defining excellence for oneself all while considering how these actions can be interpreted by others. At the advanced level, skills are primarily measured and reflected in behavior. These include engagement with others regarding ethical standards and behavior, serving as a role model for others, and displaying awareness of the role of wellness all while considering how others in the organization perceive and practice it (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Sriram, 2014).

Values, philosophy, and history.

This competency involves knowledge, skills, and dispositions that connect the history, philosophy, and values of the student affairs profession to one's current professional practice. This competency area embodies the foundations of the profession from which current and future research, scholarship, and practice will change and grow. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12)

Displaying this ability confirms a professional's cognizant perception of the profession's history, philosophy, and values (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). In a new professional, this competency is displayed as the ability to perform the following functions: communicate campus types and functional areas within student affairs; convey the value of inclusion and exclusion of persons with multiple identities on college and university campuses; possess the capability of modeling the values of student affairs; and, possess a similar expectation from peers and staff to model the principles of the profession (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the intermediate level, this competency is displayed as the ability to impart the beliefs of the profession to staff while integrating the values of equity and inclusion (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Integration and investigation of philosophies of practice are vital at this level; connecting with faculty for

learning and research in this area are important at the advanced stage (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced stage, the ability to be a role model who advances and advocates these values while contributing to the knowledge of the profession are indispensable for this competency (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Assessment, evaluation, and research (AER).

Focuses on the ability to design, conduct, critique, and use various AER methodologies and the results obtained from them, to utilize AER processes and their results to inform practice, and to shape the political and ethical climate surrounding AER processes and uses in higher education. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12)

At the foundational level, this competency can be viewed as the ability to understand the differences between the diverse manners in which evaluation and assessment can be utilized, enable suitable assessment and evaluation efforts, and accurately, responsibly, and effectively share the results of such practices within the organization (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the intermediate level, this competency involves the ability to inform constituencies at all levels of the institution about the value of this work in the organization. This level of competency also requires that the professional convey findings in “culturally appropriate” terms and language while contributing to the ethos of assessment and evaluation in the daily functions of the organization (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced level, this competency reflects the ability to utilize the data resulting from assessment and evaluation to inform the development and implementation of strategies, programs, resource allocation, and practices within the organization while managing and procuring appropriate resources to allow assessment, evaluation, and research to be central to the daily operations of the organization (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Law, policy, and governance.

Includes the knowledge, skills, and dispositions relating to policy development processes used in various contexts, the application of legal constructs, compliance/policy issues, and the understanding of governance structures and their impact on one's professional practice (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 13).

At the foundational level, this competency involves understanding the varied types of institutions and their differences, communicating current trends and issues that could impact the organization, and recognizing when it is appropriate to notify others of issues or concerns (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the intermediate level, this competency involves the employment of institutional, local, state, and federal policies as well as the ability to investigate the use of policies for fairness and equity on campus to ensure the best practices are being implemented for the profession (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced level, this competency incorporates the ability to deliver effective information to community leadership, partake in shared governance on campus, be influential in the realm of policy making where appropriate at the campus, local, state/province, and national levels, and question laws and policies to ensure equity among them and their use on campus (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Organizational and human resources.

Includes knowledge, skills, and dispositions used in the management of institutional human capital, financial, and physical resources. This competency area recognizes that student affairs professionals bring personal strengths and grow as managers through challenging themselves to build new skills in the selection, supervision, motivation, and formal evaluation of staff; resolution of conflict; management of the politics of organizational discourse; and the effective application of strategies and techniques associated with financial resources, facilities management, fundraising, technology, crisis management, risk management and sustainable resources (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 13).

At the foundational level, this competency is demonstrated by the efficient management and utilization of the varied resources available to new student affairs professionals. New professionals should possess the ability to engage in response to incidents and crises as well as demonstrate an understanding of sustainability practices within the organization (ACPA &

NASPA, 2015). At the intermediate level, the ability to engage in the creation of policies and procedures, and incorporate decision-making strategies that abide by such policies while minimizing risk to constituencies, is at the core of this competency (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Employing good practice and policies regarding recruitment, hiring, and training of staff that meets campus policy and institutional goals while reviewing staffing structures, roles, and work flow are equally important (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced level, this competency includes the ability to assess risk at all levels of programs and services while ensuring the staff reflects the population of students in diverse ways. The creation of long-term resource allocations and divisional priorities is also vital to this competency (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Leadership (LEAD).

Addresses the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required of a leader, with or without positional authority. Leadership involves both the individual role of a leader and the leadership process of individuals working together to envision, plan, and affect change in organizations and respond to broad-based constituencies and issues. This can include working with students, student affairs colleagues, faculty, and community members. (p. 13)

At the foundational level, this competency includes the ability to recognize personal strengths and challenges and to pursue leadership development (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Being able to articulate the values and practices that lead to campus improvement as well as creating relationships that are supportive and span across differences is important at this phase of development (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the intermediate level, the ability to juxtapose leadership models for the goal of improving the organization coupled with the creation of environments that encourage others within the organization to be engaged civically and in their communities is an important characteristic (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced level, this competency entails establishing an environment that promotes engagement in committees, task forces, and cross-functional teams (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). The creation of an

environment conducive to this engagement involves enabling “reflective learning and relationship building across campus, the community, and the profession” (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 13). Leaders at this level also employ strategies that consider cultural, political, global, technological, and sustainability issues (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Social justice and inclusion (SJI).

It is defined here as both a process and a goal which includes the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to create learning environments that foster equitable participation of all groups while seeking to address and acknowledge issues of oppression, privilege, and power. This competency involves student affairs educators who have a sense of their own agency and social responsibility that includes others, their community, and the larger global context. (p. 14)

Understanding systems of oppression, privilege, and power while engaging in analytical reflection about oneself and one’s own biases are key elements at the new professional level (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). New professionals must possess a basic understanding of social justice and inclusion with the context of higher education (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 2007). At the intermediate level, it is expected professionals can create programs and events that promote social justice, inclusivity, and social consciousness. Professionals should also be able to challenge current systems of oppression while creating opportunities for self-reflection and self- evaluation regarding oppression, power, and privilege (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 2007; ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Lovell & Kosten, 2000). At the advanced level, professionals are expected to command a central role in the construction of a campus culture that understands its place as it pertains to bias and oppression, while promoting strategic opportunities that enhance the “inclusive initiatives and practices throughout the institution” (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 2007; Weiner et al., 2011; ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 14).

Student learning and development (SLD)

Addresses the concepts and principles of student development and learning theory. This includes the ability to apply theory to improve and inform student affairs and teaching practice (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 14).

Entry level professionals should be able to convey paradigms and concepts that detail the learning and growth of college students and their holistic experiences while also seeing the challenges and opportunities in utilizing current models and theories to diverse student groups. They should be able to communicate how identities can impact development at this stage of a person's life (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Bell, 2013). At the intermediate level, professionals should be able to develop and evaluate learning outcomes that assess the purpose of their respective unit, division, and campus while they educate those around them to enlighten future initiatives (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). At the advanced level, professionals should possess the ability to interpret these concepts to multiple stakeholders within the organization—such as peers, faculty members, students, and parents—while efficiently improving knowledge regarding the work of student affairs (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Bell, 2013). Assessment and evaluation of the value of the knowledge growth opportunities are vital to this level of expertise as professionals at this level are responsible for the creation and maintenance of campus environments that are “inclusive, socially-just, and welcoming while promoting deep learning which fosters student success” (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 14).

Technology (TECH).

Focuses on the use of digital tools, resources, and technologies for the advancement of student learning, development, and success as well as the improved performance of student affairs professionals. Included within this area are knowledge, skills, and dispositions that lead to the generation of digital literacy and digital citizenship within communities of students, student affairs professionals, faculty members, and colleges and universities as a whole (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 15; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015).

The use and understanding of technology in institutions is vital to their success in a variety of ways. Entry-level student affairs professionals must be able to understand basic technical functions and utilize staff in information technology in order to be successful (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). They must be able to turn to research, current trends, and the nature of their environment to understand the needs of their community and constituents (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015). Practitioners must be able to employ a variety of approaches, methods, and evaluation techniques to understand the information that is available to them and how they can best share it with others to impact the mission of the institution and goals of the department/division (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015). Intermediate professionals must demonstrate the ability to educate and enable those in the organization with regard to best practices, ethics, and standards as well as policies and laws associated with the use of technology (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015). At the advanced level, professionals must be able to lead the organization in creating, utilizing, and assessing the tools and spaces available to students. Advanced level professionals must be able to lead the way in procuring resources for technology and its availability and use as it enhances the experience of the student in a holistic way (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015; Valliere, Endersby & Brinton, 2013).

Advising and supporting (A/S).

Addresses the knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to providing advising and support to individuals and groups through direction, feedback, critique, referral, and guidance. Through developing advising and supporting strategies that take into account self-knowledge and the needs of others, we play critical roles in advancing the holistic wellness of ourselves, our students, and our colleagues. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 15).

Student affairs professionals at all levels are charged with being advisors and supporters to students and colleagues within their respective institutions (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Hoffman & Bresciani, 2012). For new professionals, it is vital to learn the skills necessary to create relationships with those on campus—most importantly, the students (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Establishing and fostering such relationships helps to create opportunities for the presence of individual and collective support, enhance the process of individual and collective decision making and goal setting, and provide appropriate challenge and support (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Hoffman & Bresciani, 2012). At the intermediate level, professionals should be able to evaluate the needs of students relative to their development; professionals at this level should also be aware of the needs of student groups and organizations, while engaging with students in ways that help to model, shape, and establish standards of behavior (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Cho & Sriram, in press; Sriram, 2014). This is the stage of one’s career where mentoring students and staff becomes part of the professional’s core role on a campus (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Hoffman & Bresciani, 2012). At the advanced level, professionals are expected to contribute to, participate in, and lead in the areas of research about students and their wellness. Similarly, they are expected to evaluate programs and initiatives related to advising and supporting, as well as coordinating and lead campus crisis interventions (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Collaboration across campus and networking with community agencies are critical to success in this area with regard to tackling issues of health, wellness, and success in a holistic and collaborative way (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Hoffman & Bresciani, 2012).

While these competencies are suggested at all levels for those in student affairs, they are particularly helpful for those in VPSA positions because they serve as a model upon which to model their own growth and development as successful, energetic, and compassionate leaders. Many of the competencies suggest the need for a variety of skills, knowledge, and talent, all of which relate to change and readiness for leading change. The previous sections discussed the role of VPSA and the knowledge necessary for creating, leading, and implementing change within their organizations.

Chapter Summary

The intent of this chapter was to provide a brief review of some key concepts of higher education, the status of student affairs, and the role of the VPSA. The proposed study focused on the perceptions of VPSAs and their varied roles in American universities. The leadership grounded literature provides context of the VPSAs role through the use of sociological and psychological constructs and methods to reveal insights into the changing role of the VPSA, previously unavailable through other research models. The perceptions of the varied roles VPSAs experienced in their own careers were detailed in order to provide possible insights that can come only from those reflecting on their own experience of the position. As a formal institutional entity, student affairs has only been part of higher education for about a hundred years. During this time, it has evolved into a vital component of virtually all U.S. colleges and universities. The work of student affairs has expanded to include work with individual students, student groups, and the management of complex enterprises. As such, student affairs administrators adopt various leadership roles on their campuses in confronting complex, emotionally charged, and difficult issues. Colleges and universities today are confronted with a

variety of changing conditions that demand both attention and the formulation of appropriate and effective responses to the ever-changing landscape of the VPSA's role.

The contemporary role of the VPSA is to serve as the senior Student Affairs officer for a College/University. In most situations, the VPSA reports directly to the President. The VPSA serves as primary advisor to the President on issues relating to student affairs and is the primary liaison and advocate for student interests, needs, and concerns with parents, faculty, staff, administrators, and community members. Student Affairs provides a wide variety of programs, services, facilities, and activities to the campus community that promotes the safety and holistic development of students. The VPSA is a trusted member of the senior administration and plays a key role in further integrating student and academic life, enhancing efforts to build a diverse, inclusive, and equitable community and developing innovative and impactful programming. The next chapter presents the methodology and research design to be employed in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the exploratory methods of this study as they were implemented to identify models of shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. It begins with an introduction, establishes the purpose of this study and the research questions that guide the research, and provides a primer on the study's principal research method, *Q*-methodology. It then discusses the research paradigm on which the study's perspectives are based. Finally, it provides a detailed description of how *Q*-methodology is implemented in the study, including the participants and *Q*-statement samples, online data collection, the methods employed in analyzing the data, an interpretation of the results, and a summary.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to discover and measure models of the shared viewpoints of VPSAs in U.S. universities about their perceived roles. The research was guided by the following Research Questions (RQ).

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence with the study sample of each of the identified shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

Answers to these research questions can inform the research and theory about VPSAs, help to better define our understanding of the role of VPSAs, and can inform higher education policy, organization, and practice.

***Q*-methodology**

Q-methodology was first introduced by William Stephenson in 1935, but recently it has

gained more attention in educational research because of its ability to combine qualities of quantitative and qualitative research traditions into a single methodological approach. As such, Watts and Stenner (2012) have labeled *Q*-methodology a “qualiquantological” method, as it offers researchers a valuable tool for studying qualitative data through conventional quantitative means. *Q* method’s approach is interested in the following questions: who is similar, under what conditions difference is expressed, and why. This succinct definition of *Q*-methodology captures its core feature as one that groups like-minded individuals who share similar viewpoints, perspectives, ideas, or beliefs. This current study used *Q*-methodology to understand the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities based on the shared viewpoints of those who hold or have held that position.

Q-methodology provides a set of data collection and associated analytic techniques for exploring the deeply personal subjective views and cognitive models that are essential to understanding human thought and behavior. *Q*-methodology is distinguished by a unique exploratory approach and a set of statistical procedures and techniques. It applies multivariate statistical techniques, primarily in the form of by-person, or *Q*-mode, factor analysis to identify clusters of persons with shared subjectivities (e.g., viewpoint, opinions, and beliefs). Those *Q*-models are subsequently interpreted qualitatively and used to study the subjectivity of individuals (Brown, 1980). Subjectivity is systematically investigated in *Q*-methodology through analysis of *Q*-sort patterns (i.e., sorted arrangements of *Q*-statements shared by participants). The patterns found in a set of *Q*-sorts represent distinct models of shared subjectivity about a focal topic. Subjectivity, for the purposes of *Q*-methodology, is merely the communication of an individual’s point-of-view. The underlying principle for all applications of *Q*-methodology is that an individual’s subjectivity for any given concept can be grouped together

with other perspectives that are similar. In this sense, an individual's subjectivity is self-referent. In other words, the concept being studied only has meaning in relation to that individual.

Another important principle for *Q*-methodology and for this study is that a limited range of viewpoints exists on any given topic or concept. *Q*-methodology provides the researcher with the opportunity to gather and examine the range of possible perspectives—and the individuals who represent them—on a given topic.

Q-methodology is pointedly at odds with more traditional *R*-methodology in how attitudes, beliefs, and values are measured. For the purpose of this study, *R*-methodology was used to describe studies where factor analysis produces a matrix with people in columns and items in rows. *Q*-methodology has been labeled a statistical “inversion” of conventional factor analysis, although that label is somewhat of a misnomer. Although the inversion of *R*-methodological processes allows the researcher to group individuals who have similar perspectives on a concept, *Q*-methodology is distinct in its methods and approach to research questions, rather than being a simple adaptation of other methods (McKeown & Thomas, 2013).

Q-methodology, using cluster analysis, is a way to see the various perspectives and perceptions for a singular individual and among groups of individuals (Watts & Stenner, 2012). One must acknowledge the strengths and limitations embedded within this approach. This methodology and the *Q*-sort process can be a way to sort out how individuals and groups cluster around different perspectives. Its founders rejected the restrictions of hypothetical-deductive reasoning, and, as such, *Q*-methodology does not employ specific hypotheses. In keeping with its rejection of deductive logic, *Q*-methodology should be used to *explore* rather than to *prove* (Watts & Stenner, 2012). This is not to say that research questions should be avoided entirely, but, instead, that they should be phrased in such a way that aims to explore integrity, as aligned

the research question for the current study. *Q*-methodology is a very powerful research tool perhaps because it is not bound by hypothetical-deductive restraints and can explore the nuances of individual subjectivity. The cluster analyses component of *Q*-methodology is best suited for exploring the various tastes, perceptions, sentiments, motives, and perspectives of individuals. Essentially, the method simply uncovers participants' perceptions in any given context. That said, *Q*-methodology should not be limited to uncovering these areas, but rather to explore the impact these perspectives have on the problem.

The internal orientation of *Q*-methodology is important when developing the *Q*-sample. The *Q*-sample is a set of statements that individuals sort according to their own perspective. The *Q*-sample is drawn from the concourse. Stephen Brown (1980) stated,

The concourse is the flow of communicability surrounding any topic. Concourse is the very stuff of life, from the playful banter of lovers or chums to the heady discussions of philosophers and scientists to the private thoughts found in dreams and diaries. From concourse, new meanings arise, bright ideas are hatched, and discoveries are made: it is the wellspring of creativity and identity formation in individuals...and it is *Q*-methodology's task to reveal the inherent structure of a concourse. (p. 95)

The concourse is the population of subjective statements contained within an opinion domain. The *Q*-sample is a smaller sample of the concourse and should be broadly representative of the concourse (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

Each statement in the *Q*-sample is printed on a card, and the entire set of cards is given to an individual within the *P*-set (the person sample or individuals being studied) with a condition of instruction. The condition of instruction is simply the directions for the individual as they complete the sorting process, but the research question is often embedded within the condition of

instruction (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The unique process of *Q*-methodology is *Q*-sorting, which entails individuals sorting the *Q*-sample cards into a quasi-normal distribution according to the condition of instruction.

The final major distinction of *Q*-methodology is its use of factor analysis and cluster analysis. The use of such analyses is, by itself, not unique, as many studies use factor and cluster analyses. *Q*-methodology inverts the traditional approach to those analyses and conducts a by-person, rather than a by-variable, analysis. In *Q*-methodology, the variables are the individuals performing the *Q*-sort, not the *Q*-sample statements themselves. This distinction allows the researcher to discover clusters of individuals who represent a certain perspective and marks a major theoretical departure from *R*-methodology. The inversion of *R*-factor analysis underscores *Q*-methodology's reliance on the individual's frame of reference, rather than the researcher's frame of reference. Beyond the inversion, the analytical procedures employed are not dissimilar from traditional methods.

Research Design and Implementation of *Q*-methodology

The design of this research reflects a hypothesis-generating, exploratory study, whose purpose is to provide an empirical examination of shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. Because the study is grounded in the constructivist paradigm and focuses on discovering subjective viewpoints, *Q*-methodology was selected as the principal element of the research design. This section describes how *Q*-methodology was implemented in this study.

***Q*-Studies as Hypothesis Generating Research**

Q-studies are limited in terms of the potential to produce results generalizable to populations of persons, but they can provide a valuable approach for generating empirically grounded hypotheses in the tradition of hypothesis-generating studies. Stephenson (1953)

argued that the field of psychology was neglecting the study of subjectivity. In advocating for the use of *Q*-methodology, he asserted that *Q*-studies belong to the genre of hypothesis-generating studies:

The hallmark of sound scientific procedure nowadays, it seems, is to assert hypotheses and to confirm predictions.... There is need, however, for care and discernment in these matters.... Psychology has by no means achieved a sophisticated theoretical status, with ideal constructs such as physics has fashioned for itself. The situations in psychology, therefore, call for an attitude of curiosity, as well as one of hypothetic-deductive logic.... We should be making discoveries rather than testing our reasoning. (Stephenson, 1953, p. 151)

Q-studies support the value of curiosity and “promote discovery and understanding in preference to the logic of testing” often employed in traditional research (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Stephenson’s (1953) inverted technique not only allows for the discovery of unobservable entities, it allows for the pursuit of “empirical discoveries of the qualitative kind” (Stephenson, 1936). The command of *Q* is its ability to bring a sense of coherence to research questions that may have a myriad of complex and contested answers (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Hypothesis-generating research provides the foundation for future study while relying on external conditions to provide tentative answers to existing questions.

***Q*-Statements Sample**

For this study, a *Q*-set of 48 statements was developed from themes that emerged from the review of the literature. The *Q*-sample that was employed in the study is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Q-sample Theoretical Framework: Themes, Q-statements, and Sources

<i>Q-statement by theme</i>	<i>Source or inspiration</i>
<i>Administration</i>	
1. Formulate, implement and evaluate policies, procedures, programs, processes and systems	Brodzinski, 1997; Brown, 1981; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
2. Develop Student Affairs budget, including forecasting, planning, and monitoring of expenditures	Brodzinski, 1997; Lunsford, 1984; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
3. Administer all matters related to student behavior and discipline	Lunsford, 1984; Sandeen, 1991; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
4. Develop core outcomes for division; measure and track annual performance against objectives	Brodzinski, 1997; Lunsford, 1984; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006
5. Develop an administrative model to effectively represent the university's mission, vision and value	Author
6. Manage compliance pertaining to students in regards to Title IX and ADA/Section 504	Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
7. Serve as a member of the President's Executive Council, Management Team, and other committees	Author
8. Handle highly sensitive and/or confidential information	Author
9. Interact effectively with the administration, faculty, and staff	Miller & Nadler, 1996; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016

- | | |
|---|---|
| 10. Analyze the potential impact of policy issues upon programs and personnel resources | Lunsford, 1984; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006 |
| 11. Influence college policy decisions that impact student, personnel, and resources | Author |
| 12. Design and implement enrollment management strategies and programs | Lovell & Kosten, 2000 |

Supervision & Staff Development

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Provide leadership for all programs affecting student development | Brodzinski, 1997; Brown, 1981; Gordon, Strode & Mann, 1993; McDade, 1989; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 2. Establish, manage and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs' areas | Brodzinski, 1997; Brown, 1981; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 3. Establish, monitor, and assess enrollment management goals | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 4. Participate in professional organizations related to Student Affairs in higher education | McDade, 1989; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 5. Manage all direct reports including day to day performance and yearly performance evaluations | Lovell & Kosten, 2000 |
| 6. Responsible to hire, fire, discipline, and promote full and part-time employees | Author |
| 7. Develop a student life team committed to student advocacy | McDade, 1989; Miller & Nadler, 1996 |
| 8. Communicate the mission, vision and goals of the division and institution | Brodzinski, 1997; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Lunsford, 1984; Randall & Globetti, 1992 |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 9. Demonstrate planning, implementation, evaluation, and advocate for a wide range of student-orientation programs with a student-centered approach | Brodzinski, 1997; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Lunsford, 1984; McDade, 1989; Randall & Globetti, 1992 |
| 10. Responsible for advancement and development | Brodzinski, 1997; Brown, 1981; Gordon, Strode & Mann, 1993; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; McDade, 1989 |
| 11. Responsible for a comprehensive university; both residential and virtual college students | Lovell & Kosten, 2000 |
| 12. Responsible for student development theories and practices | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Lunsford, 1984; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006 |

Academic Programs, Services & Outreach

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Promote a culture of student learning and development and cultivate creative approaches to providing student services, programs and initiatives. | Brown, 1981; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 2. Coordinate the advisement program | Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 3. Initiate cooperative relationships with appropriate school and community constituencies | Brodzinski, 1997; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 4. Prepare annual assessment reports to the President and VP of Institutional effectiveness, in collaboration with College's outcomes and assessments | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 5. Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention and graduation of students | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 6. Responsible for staying apprised of current higher education issues, trends and future conversations | Miller & Nadler, 1996; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 7. Responsible for support and enforcement of higher education risk management issues | Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 8. Responsible for support of instructional pedagogies, learning styles, and current research | Brown, 1981; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 9. Responsible for support of student learning and the advancement of teaching | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; |
| 10. Commitment to institutional, state, and national research regarding student success | Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 11. Responsible for articulating demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education | Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 12. Responsible for support services for traditionally underserved and at-risk student populations | Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| Operations, Communication & Assessment | |
| 1. Articulate and advocate students' needs and concerns to the college community | Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 2. Act as liaison to the academic division regarding student issues | Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |
| 3. Ensure consistency of student support services and programming at all college locations | Brown, 1981; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006 |
| 4. Oversee management and performance of grants assigned to student support services areas | Lunsford, 1984 |
| 5. Counsel with students, parents and university personnel to provide conflict resolution | Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016 |

6. Develop and implement policies and procedures pertaining to student behavior and discipline	Miller & Nadler, 1996; Randall & Globetti, 1992; Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
7. Motivate and influence others to deliver excellent customer service	Author
8. Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity	Author
9. Formulate and implement retention strategies to achieve the University's vision	Lovell & Kosten, 2000
10. Responsible to provide support services for systems situations, pressures and culture to identify potential problems and opportunities	Schuh, Jones & Torres, 2016
11. Responsible for cultivating, valuing, fostering and maintaining effective working relationships	Lovell & Kosten, 2000
12. Demonstrate commitment to ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse populations	Randall & Globetti, 1992; Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen & Barr, 2006

The *Q*-sort template presented below in Figure 1 takes the form of a forced-choice, quasi-normal distribution with a 9-point sorting scale and 48 statement slots to accommodate the statements in the *Q*-sample. This template design is incorporated into a graphical, on-line *Q*-sort program HTMLQ, which enables participants to perform their individual *Q*-sorts online by dragging and dropping virtual cards into slots in the online template.

Person Sample

For this study, a person sample of 100 representative VPSAs in U.S. universities is sufficient to satisfy the assumptions and approach in *Q*-studies. Participants completed an anonymous online survey prompted by theoretical concerns meant to guide the selections to be based on their relevance to the specific aims of the research (McKeown & Tenner, 2013).

Therefore, the *P*-set invited to participate in this study was specifically targeted via the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and the American College Personnel Association (ACPA).

Least Important									Most Important	
-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4		

Figure 1. Quasi-normal, fixed-distributional, on-line *Q*-sort template with 9-point scale and 48 statement slots.

This voluntary sample of participants included individuals with varying levels of education, years of experience, and years served in the position. Detailed demographic information was collected about each participant so that additional analyses could be done to determine whether the sorts vary according to the different types of experience that VPSAs have, or to the different functions that these VPSAs perform. To address how institutional characteristics, predict views of the role of VSPA, the current study analyzed the relationship between several key institutional factors and the role of the VPSA from the perspective of VPSAs themselves, as they are the individuals best positioned to see the role in the context of such institutional factors.

Samples in *Q*-studies

In *Q*-methodology, there are two relevant types of samples, a sample of persons (called a

P-set) and a sample of *Q*-statements (called a *Q*-set). Unlike traditional approaches, the statistical importance for the assumptions of factor analysis for *Q*-studies rely solely upon the *Q*-statement sample rather than the person sample. Subsequently the data matrix is transposed such that *Q*-statements are treated as cases and people (i.e., cases) are treated as variables. As a result, in *Q*-methodology the person sample is less relevant than the sample of *Q*-statements, from a statistical point of view.

The *P*-set (or person sample) in *Q*-studies is similar in purpose and design to the traditional samples of human participants employed in qualitative (vs. quantitative) research wherein the goal is less focused on generalizing a population of people and more invested in focusing on rich description and meaning. *Q*-studies that reflect relatively small sample sizes are often appropriate for a mixed-methods approach and combine both quantitative and qualitative measurement (Brown, 1980). Brown (1980) has explained that, in traditional *R*-methodological studies, larger sample sizes are needed to power the studies and demonstrate the effect of a treatment. Conversely, *Q*-studies require fewer subjects, but a larger *Q*-set. In *Q*-studies, the statistical analyses and results are derived from *Q*-statements rather than from persons. Therefore, the statistical analyses are based on numbers and statements (i.e., the *Q*-set sample size) rather than number of persons (i.e., the *P*-set sample size).

The *Q*-set is the collection of “heterogeneous items” that participants are asked to sort in the way most organic to their own instincts, preferences, and beliefs (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The importance of the *Q*-statements in *Q*-studies is as relevant as randomized, larger samples in *R*-methodological studies. Whereas traditional, trait-based *R*-methodological studies emphasize statistical generalization to larger populations, *Q*-studies investigate an inverted relationship in that only a few subjects are required for the study and generalizations are made about the topic

domain rather than a population of persons.

The *Q*-statements sample can be elicited from a concourse developed from multiple sources, such as an extensive review of the research and scholarly literature, formal interviews, informal discussions, and (often) via pilot studies. Watts and Stenner (2012) have explained that a well-constructed *Q*-set must represent all expected relevant views in an opinion domain broadly (i.e., the concourse). The size and nature of a *Q*-set is dictated, therefore, by the complexity of the subject or domain of interest to a great extent. Watts and Stenner (2012) have explained that, typically, a *Q*-set of 40 to 80 statements is considered satisfactory. To reiterate, the true “power” of *Q*-methodology is derived from the *Q*-set and not from the person sample.

It should be noted further that the hypothesis-generating nature of most *Q*-methodology studies, which generally do not purport to produce results generalizable to larger populations of persons, renders the size of the person sample in a *Q*-study less important than its purposive quality, as is generally the case of purposive samples in qualitative research.

Condition of Instruction

A single condition of instruction was given to the subjects for this study’s survey: “Based on your professional insight and experience as a VPSA, please sort these statements in the way that best describes your views about the role and responsibilities of the VPSA.” Participants were further instructed to read and rank-order the *Q*-statements about VPSA on a template scale ranging from *least important* (-4) to *most important* (+4).

The sorting operation used in *Q* allows participants to model self-referential statements by sorting *Q*-statements into a template according to a *condition of instruction* (COI). The COI is a guiding statement that indicates the purpose of the *Q*-sort and specifies the basis on which sorting judgments are to be made.

Watts and Stenner (2012) have emphasized the importance of simplicity in *Q* design, noting that, “A participant must be able to respond effectively to the question—in line with an appropriate condition of instruction—by sorting a set of provided items along a single, face-valid dimension” (p. 53).

Participants

Participants were recruited from the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and the American College Personnel Association (ACPA). Data were collected from 265 VPSAs across the United States. It was important to the researcher to review each participant before analyzing the data to ensure a clean data set. The researcher began by reviewing Survey IDentifiers (SIDs) (ids that were auto-generated upon each submission of data) and, during this process, identified five participants who completed the survey twice. Duplicate data for these participants were eliminated from the dataset. There were an additional eight cases in which SID numbers were duplicated. A close review of each of these cases clarified that they were not duplicated data for the same participants, as in the previously mentioned instances. Instead, the program used seemed to duplicate the SID numbers, perhaps because the participants were completing the dataset at similar times. Regardless, differences in data entered relative to gender, years of experience, salary, and age across these cases made it clear that they were not the same participant. Thus, they were not eliminated from the dataset.

Although no additional cases needed to be eliminated from the dataset, further review of the dataset necessitated changing or eliminating open-ended responses from participants. This section provides a summary of the changes made to the dataset for this purpose. The first variable examined age. For example, in one case, when answering questions about age, a participant likely mistyped the response, entering “),” while another entered “60+” and another

wrote out “I’ll be 49 in 3 weeks.” To be able to properly describe the demographics of the participants, the researcher removed the data for the person who typed “) & “60+” (not knowing this person’s age), and entered 48 for the other participant. Throughout the dataset, there were similar issues related to many of the fields requiring open-ended responses (i.e., responses that were not answered with a radio button or pull-down menu). When the information the participant wanted to provide was unclear or it seemed that the question was misunderstood, the fields were cleared so that they would not make the analysis of the demographic information impossible. However, in other cases, the responses were obvious (for example, a number of participants entered data into the salary field that indicated something such as “121” rather than 121,000. For these data, the researcher simply added the remaining 0s to make the data match with the data entered by the other participants).

After removing the five duplicate cases and screening the remaining data, there were 260 unique participants in this study. The participants are described below.

Age, experience, gender and ethnicity.

Participants’ ages ranged from 23-78 ($M=50.44$, $SD=9.11$). Regarding gender, there were 140 male participants (53.8%), 119 female participants (45.8%), and one participant who identified as non-gender (0.4%). Participants were from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. One hundred and ninety-six participants identified as White (75.8%), thirty-two identified as Black (12.3%), sixteen as Hispanic (6.2%), nine as two or more races (3.5%), three as Asian (1.2%), two as American Indian or Alaska Native (.8%), and one as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (.4%).

With respect to years of experience as a VPSA, participants reported a range of 1-41.5 ($M=8.37$, $SD=7.49$). Within this sample, VPSAs have strong academic credentials, with 179

(68.8%) holding doctorate degrees, 79 (30.4%) holding master's degrees, and two (0.8%) holding a bachelor's degree.

Institution demographics

Participants were also asked a series of questions about institutional demographics. With respect to institution type, 84 participants indicated their institution type as "Associates Degree Enrollment" (32.3%); 49 participants identified as "Baccalaureate Degree Enrollment" (18.8%); 54 identified their institution as "Master's Degree Enrollment" (20.8%); and 73 identified their institution as "Doctoral Degree Enrollment" (28.1%). In terms geographical region, 92 participants indicated their institution was in the South (35.4%); 77 in the Midwest (29.6%); 52 in the Northeast (20%); and 39 from the West Coast (15%). Finally, 92 participants described their institutions as urban (35.4%); 91 as suburban (35%); and 77 as rural (29.6%).

Data Collection

The data used in this research is derived from the results of the *Q*-sort and related survey questions that participants completed on-line. Participants were asked to share non-personally identifying demographic information utilizing an online anonymous survey programmed using HTML*Q*, an on-line *Q*-sort program that has been placed in the public domain (aproxima, 2015). Each participant was provided with a web link to the anonymous online *Q*-sort survey and then asked to complete the sorting task independently online. *Q*-statements were to be sorted into the template shown in Figure 1 and were arranged according to the pattern shown in that figure.

Following that, the participants were instructed to read *all* the cards in the *most important* pile again. Each participant was to select the two statements that they most agreed with (*most important*) and place those items in each of the "+4" boxes, followed by the two statements they least agreed with (*least important*) and then place each one of those items in either of the "-4"

boxes. Participants were then directed to choose the next three statements they felt were almost as important as the previous 2 statement (*most important*) and three statements they felt were slightly less important (*least important*) and place them in the boxes under “+3” and “-3,” respectively. The participants were then asked to repeat this process until all the boxes under the *most important* and *least important* columns contained statements.

Participants were then offered the opportunity to review their sorting decisions and rearrange the placement of any statement cards they wished. The final section of the survey included questions related to demographic information, experience, years of experience as VPSA, gender, and year of first baccalaureate degree. In order to address RQ 3, data on several characteristics of the institution were collected. These included characteristics such as size of institution, location, degrees offered, type, and student diversity. Although participants in the survey remained anonymous and the survey qualifies for exempt status by the Long Island University IRB, the survey did extend a courtesy to participants by formally requesting permission to include their responses in publishing the study’s findings.

Transposed Data Matrix

Stephenson (1935, 1953, 1987) introduced *Q*-methodology as an innovative by-person adaptation of the traditional multivariate technique of by-variable factor analysis (or principal components). In traditional *R*-methodology, exploratory factor analysis (included principle component analysis) is concerned with a selected population of an individuals, each of whom has been measured in multiple tests. Stephenson (1953, 1987), however, applied what he labeled *Q*-mode, or by-person factor analysis (in the form of principle component analysis), to a transposed or inverted data matrix. In the inverted data matrix, different tests or variables (i.e., *Q* statements) become cases and individual participants become variables (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

Q-Mode Factor Analysis

Q-mode factor analysis is a form of traditional, exploratory factor analysis or principal components analysis conducted on a transposed data matrix as described above. Factor Analysis is a matrix-based method of data analysis developed by experimental psychologists in the 1930s and is based on the manipulation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a data matrix. More specifically, *Q*-mode factor analysis is a sample-based factor analysis or inverse factor analysis in some social sciences. The objective of *Q*-mode factor analysis is to simplify a large matrix of variables measured on many samples. As mentioned previously (Stephenson, 1987), the *Q*-mode method seeks to preserve the "information" within the samples of the original data set and is less focused on the variance within the variables. Once the factor scores are determined, each sample in the data set can be expressed as a combination of those factors. As noted by Stephenson (1953, 1987) and Brown (1980), this allows the researcher to express each sample as a linear measure of contributions from the various factors that are determined from the data. In *Q*-methodology studies, researchers must often employ either centroid factor analysis (viz., Stephenson's original approach) or principal component analysis, both of which attempt to explain the total variance within the *Q*-sort data—including non-shared variance and random error. Those researchers are more likely to employ *Q*-technique rather than full *Q*-methodology. Researchers who take an *R* perspective are more likely to employ common factor analysis, which attempts to explain only the shared variances within the *Q*-sort data to reduce measurement of random error—excluding non-shared variance and random error. Both modes of analysis influenced the methodology used in this study to answer the research questions posed.

Factor rotation. In conducting *Q*-factor, the researcher must determine how many underlying latent factors to extract for rotation and further analysis. The decision about the

number of factors to extract for analysis in *Q*-studies may be based on statistical criteria such as eigenvalues, proportion of variance explained, or parallel analysis. Alternatively, in more traditional *Q*-methodology studies, the decision about the number of factors to retain may be based on the researcher's judgment in identifying a set factor deemed to be sufficiently informative on theoretical grounds by the researcher. Regardless of the way they were selected, the extracted factors are usually subjected to some type of factor rotation to enhance their interpretability as well as to ensure that they are orthogonal (i.e., uncorrelated) in order to provide the clearest measures of distinct, theoretical viewpoints. *R*-leaning researchers are most likely to employ variance-maximizing, statistical rotation procedures such as Varimax rotation for orthogonal solutions, or Promax or Oblimin rotation for oblique solutions. By contrast, traditional *Q*-methodology researchers in the line of Stephenson (1953, 1987) and Brown (1980) more often choose to perform judgmental rotation or theoretical rotation, manually rotating the factors until the results suggest a meaningful, theoretical interpretation. Solutions created using statistical approaches to factor rotation provide reproducible and replicable results; those created using the non-statistical approach to factor rotation produce results that cannot be replicated without knowledge of the original researcher's judgment and theoretical perspectives. Subjects reflecting factor loadings about a researcher-determined cut-off value (typically, $\lambda = |.40|$) on a given, rotated factor are judged to hold similar views and have a shared viewpoint.

Factor scores and *Q*-scores. In *Q*-factor analysis, the factor scores cannot be directly interpreted or labeled in terms of the viewpoints the factor clusters hold. Therefore, to understand the viewpoints represented by factor clusters, *Q*-factor scores must be transformed into *Q*-scores through the conversion of standardized *Q*-factor scores (*Z*) into *Q*-scores. The factor scores (*Z*) are transformed into the scale of the original sorting template, either by simple

rank ordering or algebraically using the standard deviation of the template.

***Q*-models.** *Q*-factors identify clusters of persons who share common subjectivities or viewpoints, but they do not directly identify the content or substance of these viewpoints. Therefore, after the derivation from standardized factor scores (*Z*), *Q*-factors are converted into *Q*-models. These prove to be essential in the interpretation and understanding of the content of the shared subjectivities that connect the clusters of persons with substantial factor loading on specific factors.

Q-models are hypothetical *Q*-sorts that reflect how persons whose viewpoints are related to a specific *Q*-factor would likely sort the *Q*-statements. The *Q*-models will produce shared viewpoints on a specific issue or topic of study. In interpreting a *Q*-model, researchers focus on “salient” (i.e., the most important and defining) positive and negative statements. Positive consensus is indicated when the signs of a given statement are positive and its salient across all *Q*-models, and negative consensus is indicated when the signs of a given statement are negative and its salient across all models. Non-salient statements are those that are sorted near the middle of the template distribution on all *Q*-models and are typically considered less important or irrelevant to the participants. These non-salient statements provide important information for interpreting data in *Q*-studies, since such statements are also useful in understanding what is not important to subjects.

It is important to note that *Q*-models do not necessarily provide exact descriptions of any individual subject’s specific viewpoints. Rather, they are intended to serve as “ideal type” models that generally describe a broad viewpoint. For example, one might develop *Q*-model representing the “ideal” or theoretical views of the member of a given political party. However, such a model is not likely to be accepted as a complete and precise description of all the views of

any given member. It would, however, be useful as a general model of the hypothetical “perfect” member of that party in terms of representing the party’s ideology.

Reliability and external validity. *Q*-studies focus on self-referent subjectivities and are designed to employ empirical evidence (i.e., factor *Z* score derived from *Q*-sorts) as a systematic approach to discovering *Q*-models of shared consensus or subjectivity in clusters of two or more persons (or the statistical equivalent of two or more persons).

Q-studies produce reliable results. The internal consistency of *Q*-scores has been demonstrated via test-retest reliability analyses of *Q*-sort in ranges from .80 upward (Brown, 1980). If reliability is ever in question, the essence of reliability for *Q*-methodology is in the reliability of subjects’ *Q*-sorts. Brown (1980) has reported that a subject’s *Q*-sort can be replicated with approximately 85% consistency up to a year later. This substantially exceeds the conventional criterion of a $\geq .71$ for reliability of measures employed in traditional *R*-based research.

Q-methodology produces results that reflect subjectivity in the form of “self-referent,” shared viewpoints, so that *R*-based concepts of external validity are not relevant in *Q*-studies. Brown (1980) explained that, since there is no external criterion for any person’s point of view, the issue of validity of *Q*-sort does not apply. Simply put, as the nature of subjectivity is grounded in self-referent phenomena, the concept of “validity” is not relevant in *Q*-methodology.

Data Analysis

The *Q*-sort data was analyzed with factor analysis and Varimax rotation, with Kaiser normalization using SPSS version 22. The factors were extracted based on a visual inspection of the scree plot produced by the factor analysis as well as the latent root (i.e., eigenvalue) criterion and a parallel analysis. Factors with eigenvalues greater than 2.0 were extracted as they reveal

factors shared by the equivalent of at least two participants. The factors extracted were then used to identify clusters of VPSAs who hold similar viewpoints. Again, clusters/factors indicate that groups of subjects hold a shared viewpoint in common.

The models were then labeled, reported, and interpreted in terms of their substantive content. The pattern of highest and lowest *Q*-scores on the sorted statements indicate the specific viewpoint of those subjects who load on that specific factor.

Procedures

Data collection occurred during the Fall of 2017. The survey was conducted immediately after human subject's research exemption was received from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the Long Island University Post Campus. To review, the *Q*-statements used in this *Q*-methodological study were developed from the emerging themes found in the review of literature. Participants in the study were VPSAs who are members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and the American College Personnel Association (ACPA).

An IRB exemption application was submitted to, and later approved by, the Institutional Review Board at Long Island University. Following that approval, the link to the anonymous online survey was sent via email to VPSAs located in the United States. The questions posed to the participants addressed the size and focus of the institution (through reporting number of students and classification) as well as aspects of the student body (through addressing first generation status of students, residential status of students, and other student characteristics).

Data was collected beginning October 16, 2017. The survey closed on November 16, 2017. Initial data analysis was conducted in November 2017, with additional analyses and reporting in early Spring 2018. The completed dissertation was reviewed by a three-person

dissertation committee in Spring 2019. As previously noted, data was analyzed using SPSS version 22 and Microsoft Excel for Mac 2011 (for the development and formatting of some graphs and tables).

Ethical Considerations

Efforts were made to control researcher bias, to ensure anonymity, and to protect the best interests of human subjects throughout the study. Participants were informed of the purpose of the study, the nature of the data collection techniques, and the procedures for human subject protections. Participation was stated as being completely voluntary, and it was noted that no compensation was provided to any participant.

Methodological Limitations of the Study

Although *Q*-methodology provides an opportunity to extend and supplement research on VPSAs, there are certainly limitations to such a unique study—especially one that is the first of its kind to be conducted with this population and for the role of VPSA. These limitations include the purposive nature of person samples in *Q*-studies, the ultimate qualitative interpretation of the findings, and the non-traditional form of generalizability of the results. These methodological characteristics and constraints are inherent in all forms of qualitative research, including the qualitative component of mixed-methods research. The potential of *Q*-methodology is to produce deeper understanding and rich texture in findings, identify key conceptual variables that may be overlooked by typical methods and measures, and generate empirically-derived testable hypotheses for future research that can later be conducted in more traditional, randomized, large-sample, quantitative research.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has identified the thought process behind the research questions posed,

which guide the focus of this study. It has also discussed the use of *Q*-methodology and related analysis techniques as the primary research method to answer the research questions. *Q*-methodology along with clustering (exploratory factor analyses) were chosen because they offer the ability to factor analyze participants' viewpoints and provide a means to identify clusters of those viewpoints.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the study's findings based on data obtained from the survey described in Chapter 3. The first section of this chapter identifies the statistical findings of the initial factor analysis. The second section describes and discusses the models of shared role conceptions held by VPSAs who participated in this study; this section also presents the key differences and similarities between the model viewpoints. Additionally, the second section describes the relative prevalence of each of the identified shared model viewpoints. The third section describes the extent to which specific demographic factors are associated with the shared roles presented in the conceptual models identified in this study; analyses follow the data.

The purpose of this study is to discover and measure models of the shared viewpoints of VPSAs in U.S. universities with regard to their roles. The research is guided by the following research questions (RQ):

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their respective roles?

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the VPSA shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

It is expected that the answers to the questions above will yield data that can help guide future research and theory development focused on how VPSAs view their work and how they pursue their responsibilities on a daily basis. The questions are designed to provide a conceptual framework that expands upon those used in previous research to address the role, behaviors, and viewpoints of those who hold this position in higher education. The items in the initial *Q*-sort were chosen to provide an efficient and analytical tool to define and assess the perceived role of

VPSAs relative to their positions. The insights gained about the roles themselves and the viewpoints held through the data collected have the potential to be applied in domains such as higher education policy, organization, practice, and future research. The data provided offers clarity about the broad viewpoints held by VPSAs, how their perceptions vary from one academic setting to another, and the patterns of impact as the result of various institutional factors.

Results of the Q-Factor Analysis

A “by-person” classification using factor analysis was conducted to identify groups of participants with shared viewpoints about the role of the participating VPSAs as reflected in their Q-sorts. The factors extracted identified distinct clusters of participants with similar views and served as the core elements in the development of the model discussed below.

Using the selection criteria described in the previous chapter, four *Q*-factors were identified, extracted, and rotated orthogonally using the Varimax technique with Kaiser normalization to create a set of uncorrelated, common factors of shared viewpoints of the VPSA role. Determining an appropriate cutoff in the number of factors required utilizing multiple statistics (i.e., scree plot, eigenvalues, and variance). Figure 2 shows the scree plot of the eigenvalues to visually inspect the number of factors to be extracted. Based on the visual inspection of the scree plot and the results of the parallel analysis, four factors with eigenvalues greater than 2.0 ($EV \geq 2.0$) were extracted. This scree plot was, in part, used to determine the number of factors to be extracted and retained for further analysis, which could suggest a 3, 4, 5 or 6-factor solution. As a result, utilizing the scree plot for a determination of factors was insufficient. Additionally, there were 33 factors with an eigenvalue above 2. Consequently, making a decision based on eigenvalues was not sufficient.

The determination for the total number of factors to extract was based on the variance explained using the four-factor solution identified on the scree plot. A principal components (PCA) factor analysis with a four-factor solution explains 46.4% of the variance (See Table 3). Adding an additional fourth factor contributes 2.8% more variance. Addition of a fifth factor would add 2.9% of the variance, which brings the variance explained to 46.4% and 49.4%, respectively. A decision could be made to add more factors as each additional factor adds between 2–4% of the variance. Because of these relatively nominal increases, the most acute model utilizing four factors was determined to be optimal. As explained in the previous chapter, these factors reveal viewpoints shared by the equivalent of at least two participants (EV 2.0).

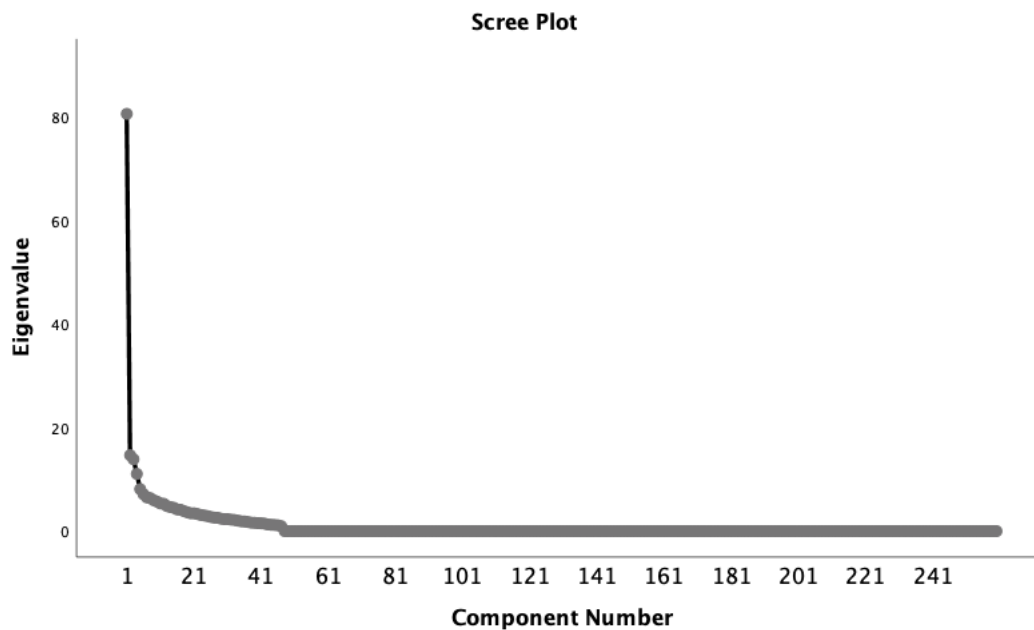


Figure 2. Scree plot of eigenvalues by factor number.

The four-factor solution is shown in Table 3, complete with eigenvalues, percentages of variance explained, and the uniqueness (U) of each of participating VPSAs viewpoint (i.e., that portion of a participant's views which are not explained by the two-factor solution). As

described in Chapter 3, the conventional cut-off criterion for substantial factor loadings equal to or greater than 0.40 was employed in interpreting the factors.

Table 3

Total and Individual Variance Explained, and Eigen Values

Factors	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
	Total	Loadings		Total	Loadings		Total	Loadings	
		% of Variance	Cumulative %		% of Variance	Cumulative %		% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	80.5	30.9	30.9	80.5	30.9	30.9	41.9	16.1	16.1
2	14.6	5.6	36.6	14.6	5.6	36.6	28.5	10.9	27.1
3	13.8	5.3	41.9	13.8	5.3	41.9	25.0	9.6	36.7
4	11.0	4.2	46.1	11.0	4.2	46.1	24.5	9.4	46.1
5	8.1	3.1	49.4						
6	7.1	2.7	52.0						

Research Question 1

The primary research question in this study is as follows: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role? Utilizing the q-sort data and factor analysis techniques, the researcher identified four common factors.

Following the selection of four optimal factors for the model, individual z-scores were examined to determine the participant's agreement with the statements. These z-scores were used to determine with which statements participants agreed as a way to begin to understand what the factors were. The highest z-scores, regardless of being positive or negative, were

assigned to a factor. These uncorrelated, rotated factors represent theoretically "pure" or ideal-type shared viewpoints and were subsequently used to create the *Q*-models of shared subjectivity. As theoretical viewpoints, neither of these factors represents the unique or complete view of any single participating VPSA in the study. Rather, each presents a theoretically pure view to which each participant's individual viewpoint may be compared.

Utilizing the factor loadings produced through the analyses, in conjunction with the scree plot and eigenvalue data, all *Q*-statements were grouped into three factors so they could be analyzed qualitatively by the researcher. Statements that do not have a factor loading of greater than 0.40 may indicate that these statements are non-essential in the final model for VPSA. The main goal of a factor analysis is a data reduction technique to eliminate statements that are not relevant to the four main factors.

Cumulatively, the four factors explain more than 46.4% of the variance in the sorting patterns of the *Q*-statements. Two hundred and sixty participants load uniquely on a single factor, and all of them have unique positive loadings at or above the criterion (there were no negative loadings that satisfied the criterion). *Q*-factors (and the model viewpoints derived from them) with uniquely loading cases represent the single-best reflections of individuals' shared views about their role as a VPSA.

The factor z-scores of each of the four factors were converted to *Q*-scores based on the standard deviations of the sorting template. These *Q*-scores were then used in the development of the *Q*-models of shared viewpoints derived from the three factors. The *Q*-models and the statistical properties of the by-person factors from which they were derived provide the primary empirical evidence for responding to the research questions that guide this study.

Regarding the role of the VPSA, four models were identified: “Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership”. The interpretation of the VPSA responses establish the model for both the content and statistical characteristics relative to the first research question herein. Each of these shared viewpoints is discussed in turn below in terms of the four *Q*-models.

Model 1: Administrative Oversight

Table 3.1

Model 1 Statement Loadings

Least Important		Most Important	
Statement 12	Design and implement enrollment management strategies and programs	Statement 08	Handle highly sensitive and/or confidential information
Statement 15	Establish, monitor, and assess enrollment management goals	Statement 17	Manage all direct reports including day to day performance and yearly performance evaluations
Statement 29	Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students	Statement 18	Responsible to hire, fire, discipline and promote full and part-time employees

Statement 33	Responsible for support of student learning and the advancement of teaching	Statement 19	Develop a student life team committed to student advocacy
Statement 35	Responsible for articulating demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education	Statement 41	Counsel with students, parents and university personnel to provide conflict resolution

When examining the factor analysis, each of the factor loadings are analyzed to determine which statement loads on which factor. Ideally, factor loadings would load highly (greater than 0.500) on only one factor. Due to the overlap between domains and the desire for a more acute 4-factor model, the correlation between some statements may be related to multiple factors. For the purpose of this dissertation, "administrative oversight" is defined as that category of respondents who perceived their most important responsibilities as relating to the development and management of an administrative team. The rationale for adding the section above is to tie the narrative directly back to the statements and to remind the reader that the statements reflect the self-perception of the respondents. It is also understood that administrative oversight requires the development and implementation of procedural guidelines for checking the effectiveness, efficiency, and communication that improve the overall performance of the division of student affairs. To support these statements, each of the factor loadings were assessed for statements that have a z score above 0.500, as shown above.

Based on Table 3.1, the list of statements that are most important for administrative oversight reflects the following patterns: handling sensitive/ confidential information, performance management of direct reports, and advocating for students. The VPSA whose

views are reflected in *Q*-Model 1 conceive of their role as providing social and emotional support to the department directors with whom they work. VPSAs evaluate performance, provide direct supervision, and take appropriate action(s) needed to ensure the staff is appropriately trained to meet their responsibilities. Examples of positively scored statements are the following: “Handle highly sensitive and/or confidential information,” “Manage all direct reports including day to day performance and yearly performance evaluations,” “Responsible to hire, fire, discipline and promote full and part-time employees,” “Develop a student life team committed to student advocacy,” and “Counsel with students, parents and university personnel to provide conflict resolution.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who assume a hands-on role in personnel management of division employees, as they take the time to shape and develop a team that advocates for students. VPSAs personally hire, fire, discipline, and promote full and part-time employees and handle performance evaluations for division employees. In this model, VPSAs find it important to prioritize supervision and staff development as a primary function of their role.

The list of statements in Table 3.1 that are least important for administrative oversight are the following: design and implement strategies and programs, establish, monitor, and assess goals, support student learning, and articulate demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education. Examples of negatively scored statement in *Q*-Model 1 are the following: “Design and implement enrollment management strategies and programs,” “Establish, monitor, and assess enrollment management goals,” “Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention and graduation of student,” “Responsible for support of student learning and the advancement of teaching,” and “Responsible for articulating demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education.” These statements

collectively depict VPSAs who assume an operational approach to student learning support for the division of student affairs. They also feel it is least important to stay informed of demographic challenges affecting students and higher education. Further, VPSAs feel it is not important to set goals affecting supervision and staff development.

An analysis of the statement sorting pattern in *Q*-Model 1 provides empirical evidence of a shared concept that emphasizes the role of the VPSA as a hands-on role in personnel management of division employees. The narrative data collected for respondents whose role is represented by this model suggest a collaboration with administrative oversight. The findings suggest that VPSAs represented in *Q*-Model 1 view collaboration as shared responsibility for managing the division of student affairs, as discussed in Chapter 2. VPSAs strongly advocate for internal upward mobility and the organization employs a variety of techniques to promote this culture. As discussed in Chapter 2, all VPSAs are expected to attend the same curriculum, policy, and program training.

Model 2: Policy Development

Table 3.2

<i>Model 2 Statement Loadings</i>	
Least Important	Most Important
Develop a student life team Statement 19 committed to student advocacy	Analyze the potential impact of policy issues upon programs Statement 10 and personnel resources

Statement 24	Responsible for student development theories and practices	Statement 12	Design and implement enrollment management strategies and programs
Statement 30	Responsible for staying apprised of current higher education issues, trends, and future conversations	Statement 15	Establish, monitor, and assess enrollment management goals
Statement 37	Articulate and advocate students' needs and concerns to the college community	Statement 26	Coordinate the advisement program
Statement 44	Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity	Statement 29	Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students
Statement 48	Demonstrate commitment to ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse populations		

When examining the factor analysis for *Q*-Model 2, each of the factor loadings are analyzed to determine which statement loads on which factor. Ideally, factor loadings would load highly (>0.500) on only one factor. Due to the overlap between domains and the desire for a more acute 4-factor model, the correlation between some statements may be related to multiple factors. For the purpose of this dissertation, "policy development" refers to the design and implementation of formal procedures and standards of judgment relating to the management of

the institutional functions under the purview of the VPSA. The rationale for adding the section above is to tie the narrative directly back to the statements and to remind the reader that the statements reflect the self-perception of the respondents. Policy development requires an expansive skillset for the evolution of the VPSA position.

As shown in table 3.2, participants in *Q*-Model 2 can be viewed as policy-driven VPSAs. VPSAs often spent much of their time focusing on student recruitment, student retention, and the broader areas of enrollment management. Based on Table 3.2, the list of statements that are most important for policy development reflect the following patterns: analyzing policy relative to programs and personnel and establishing operational procedures and student retention. Those whose views are best represented in *Q*-Model 2 establish, monitor, and assess policy. This model suggests there is an understanding that developing and implementing campus-wide policy initiatives positively affects student affairs and the university's campus life because it drives student recruitment, student retention, and enrollment. Positively scored statements such as, "Design and implement enrollment management strategies and programs," "Establish, monitor, and assess enrollment management goals," "Coordinate the advisement program," and "Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students" analyze the potential impact of policy issues upon programs and personnel resources. These statements collectively depict VPSAs who assume the responsibilities of policy development, since they analyze the impact of policy relative to their campus. In this model, VPSAs find it important to prioritize the assessment, analysis, and creation of policy relative to division programs, recruitment, and retention as a primary function of their role.

The list of statements in Table 3.2 that are least important for Policy Development reflect the following pattern: advocating for students, the development of professional staff, and identify

issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity. Examples of negatively scored statements in *Q*-Model 2 are the following: “Develop a student life team committed to advocacy,” “Responsible for student development theories and practices,” “Responsible for staying apprised of current higher education issues, trends and future conversations,” “Articulate and advocate students’ needs and concerns to the college community,” “Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity,” and “Demonstrate commitment to ethically, culturally, and socially diverse populations.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who assume a role focused on student learning, advisement, and development. They also indicate characteristics of a VPSA whose primary focus is related to student enrollment, matriculation, and advising the student through to graduation. VPSAs represented in *Q*-Model 2 feel it is not important to stay current on higher education issues and trends affecting students today.

VPSAs whose role is represented by *Q*-Model 2 share a viewpoint that policy and procedure are inherent to the role. Those whose views are best represented by *Q*-Model 2 do not view administrative oversight, strategic initiatives or institutional leadership as important to the role, but rather policy development as imperative to the role. This model is consistent with the literature in Chapter 2.

Model 3: Strategic Initiatives

Table 3.3

Model 3 Statement Loadings

Least Important	Most Important
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Statement 03	Administer all matters related to student behavior and discipline	Statement 05	Develop an effective administrative model to effectively represent the university's mission, vision, and value
Statement 06	Manage compliance pertaining to students in regards to Title IX and ADA/Section 504	Statement 16	Participate in professional organizations related to Student Affairs in higher education
Statement 18	Responsible to hire, fire, discipline and promote full and part-time employees	Statement 20	Communicate the mission, vision, and goals of the division and institution
Statement 21	Demonstrate planning, implementation, evaluation, and advocate for a wide range of student-orientation programs with a student-centered approach	Statement 22	Responsible for advancement and development
Statement 29	Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students	Statement 23	Responsible for a comprehensive university; both residential and virtual college students

Statement 39 Ensure consistency of student support services and programming at all college locations

Statement 41 Counsel with students, parents and university personnel to provide conflict resolution

Statement 42 Develop and implement policies and procedures pertaining to student behavior and discipline

Statement 25 Promote a culture of student learning and development and cultivate creative approaches to providing student services, programs, and initiatives

Statement 27 Initiate cooperative relationships with appropriate school and community constituencies

Statement 30 Responsible for staying apprised of current higher education issues, trends, and future conversations

Statement 34 Commitment to institutional, state, and national research regarding student success

Statement 35 Responsible for articulating demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education

Statement 44 Identify and understand issues, problems, and

Statement 48	opportunities surrounding diversity Demonstrate commitment to ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse populations
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When examining the factor analysis for *Q*-Model 3, each of the factor loadings are analyzed to determine which statement loads on which factor. Ideally, factor loadings would load highly (<0.500) on only one factor. Due to the overlap between domains and the desire for a more acute 4-factor model, the correlation between some statements may be related to multiple factors. For the purpose of this dissertation, "strategic initiatives" are referred to as a finite duration of discretionary projects and programs outside of the organization's day-to-day operational activities that are designed to help the division of Student Affairs achieve its targeted performance goals. Given that institutions are ever-changing, strategic initiatives are critical to ensuring the ongoing success of Student Affairs and its employees.

As shown in table 3.3, participants in *Q*-Model 3 can be viewed as "do-it-yourself" VPSAs. This demographic of VPSAs take great pride in developing and implementing campus-wide initiatives that drive the success of student affairs and the university's campus life. Based on Table 3.3, the list of statements that are most important for strategic initiatives reflect the following patterns: strategic communication (project/ program driven), advancement and development, and understanding/ identifying issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding students and advocating for students. The VPSAs whose views are reflected in *Q*-Model 3 conceive of their role as one that advances and develops the mission, vision, and value of the university through the development of discretionary projects and programs. Positively scored

statements such as promoting a culture of diversity, communication/development of the universities mission, vision and value are reflected in the following samples: “Develop and effective administrative model to effectively represent the university’s mission, vision, and value,” “Participate in professional organizations related to Student Affairs in higher education,” “Communicate the mission, vision, and goals of the division and institution,” “Responsible for advancement and development,” “Responsible for a comprehensive university; both residential and virtual college students,” “Promote a culture of student learning and development and cultivate creative approaches to providing student services, programs and initiatives,” “Initiate cooperative relationship with appropriate school and community constituencies,” “Responsible for staying apprised of current higher education issues, trends, and future conversations,” “Commitment to institutional, state, and national research regarding student success,” “Responsible for articulating demographic challenges and opportunities affecting higher education,” “Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity,” and “Demonstrate commitment to ethically, culturally, and socially diverse populations.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who identify fundamental needs for student affairs and develop and implement strategic initiatives to address those needs. A commitment to ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse populations is also demonstrated in this population of VPSAs because they take a student-centered approach to focusing on issues and trends affecting higher education today. In this model, VPSAs find it important to understand a comprehensive university as one that meets the needs of both residential and commuter students. They assess and implement projects and programs that meet the university’s mission, vision, and values.

The list of statements in Table 3.3 that are least important for strategic initiatives reflect the following patterns: manage student conduct, manage compliance regulations, train and

measure performance of division staff, and provide direct supervision. Examples of negatively scored statements in *Q*-Model 3 are the following: “Administer all matters related to student behavior and discipline,” “Manage compliance pertaining to students in regards to Title IX and ADA/Section 504,” “Responsible to hire, fire, discipline and promote full and part-time employees,” “Demonstrate planning, implementation, evaluation, and advocate for a wide range of student-orientation programs with a student-centered approach,” “Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention and graduation of students,” “Ensure consistency of student support services and programming at all college locations,” “Counsel with students, parents and university personnel to provide conflict resolutions,” and “Develop and implement policies and procedures pertaining to student behavior and discipline.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who assume an administrative role on student conduct, matters of conduct, and compliance regulations. They also feel it is least important to evaluate performance, provide direct supervision, and take actions such as ensuring staff are appropriately trained to meet their responsibilities. VPSAs who fall into this category find focusing on the day-to-day activities of student affairs to be least important, which is the opposite of strategic initiative.

VPSAs whose role is represented by *Q*-Model 3 share a viewpoint that design and implementation are inherent to their role, and these VPSAs assume responsibilities that serve primarily to assist the VPSA. Those whose views are best represented by *Q*-Model 3 establish, monitor, and assess goals.

Model 4: Institutional Leadership

Table 3.4

Model 4 Statement Loadings

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Least Important		Most Important	
Statement 02	Develop Student Affairs budget, including forecasting, planning, and monitoring of expenditures	Statement 21	Demonstrate planning, implementation, evaluation, and advocate for a wide range of student-orientation programs with a student-centered approach
Statement 04	Develop core outcomes for division; measure and track annual performance against objectives	Statement 29	Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students
Statement 05	Develop an effective administrative model to effectively represent the university's mission, vision, and value	Statement 33	Responsible for support of student learning and the advancement of teaching
Statement 07	Serve as a member of the President's Executive Council, Management Team and other committees	Statement 36	Responsible for support services for traditionally underserved and at-risk student populations

Statement 10	Analyze the potential impact of policy issues upon programs and personnel resources	Statement 37	Articulate and advocate students' needs and concerns to the college community
Statement 11	Influence college policy decisions which impact, student, personnel, and resources	Statement 38	Act as a liaison to the academic division regarding student issues
Statement 14	Establish, manage and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs' areas	Statement 39	Ensure consistency of student support services and programming at all college locations
Statement 16	Participate in professional organizations related to Student Affairs in higher education	Statement 44	Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity
Statement 20	Communicate the mission, vision, and goals of the division and institution	Statement 45	Formulate and implement retention strategies to achieve the University's vision
Statement 23	Responsible for a comprehensive university; both residential and virtual college students	Statement 46	Responsible to provide support services for systems situations, pressures and culture to identify potential problems and opportunities

Statement 47	Responsible for cultivating, valuing, fostering and maintaining effective working relationships
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When examining the factor analysis for *Q*-Model 4, each of the factor loadings are analyzed to determine which statement loads on which factor. Ideally, factor loadings would load highly (<0.500) on only one factor. Due to the overlap between domains and the desire for a more acute 4-factor model, the correlation between some statements may be related to multiple factors. For the purpose of this dissertation, "institutional leadership" is defined as the set of factors relating to change in student affairs through practice and structure with an emphasis on integration of implementation of support programs, evaluation of those support programs, and services related to support programs. Institutional leadership requires an expansive skillset (identifying issues, understanding problems and opportunities in higher education, and introducing programs and services) for the evolution of the VPSA position. Institutional leadership is the values, expectations, and responsibilities involved with maintaining coherence for the organization. Such factors are manifested in the vision of the organization and serve to lead and coordinate the various programs and sectors toward a comprehensive agenda/ strategy as well as ensure the sustainability of the Student Affairs program.

Based on Table 3.4, the list of statements that are most important for institutional leadership reflect the following patterns: formulation and implementation of retention strategies, identification and understanding of issues, identify and understand problems and opportunities surrounding diversity, responsibility for cultivating, valuing, fostering, and maintaining effective working relationships, and advocating for students. The VPSA whose views are reflective in *Q*-

Model 4 conceive of their role as providing support and direction to the division employees. VPSAs often spent much of their time ensuring the safety and well-being of students by developing policies that protect the students and the university. Positively scored statements that focus on supporting students and developing programs that support university objectives are demonstrated in the following statements: “Demonstrate planning, implementation, evaluation, and advocate for a wide range of student-orientation programs with a student-centered,” “Establish operating procedures to facilitate recruitment, matriculation, retention, and graduation of students,” “Responsible for support of student learning and the advancement of teaching,” “Responsible for support services for traditionally under-served and at-risk student populations,” “Articulate and advocate students’ needs and concerns to the college community,” “Act as a liaison to the academic division regarding student issues,” “Ensure consistency of student support services and programming at all college locations,” “Identify and understand issues, problems, and opportunities surrounding diversity,” “Formulate and implement retention strategies to achieve the University’s vision,” “Responsible to provide support services for systems situations, pressures and culture to identify potential problems and opportunities,” and “Responsible for cultivating, valuing, fostering and maintaining effective working relationships.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who assume a role of student advocacy and support the academic needs of today’s students.

The list of statements in Table 3.4 that are least important for institutional leadership reflect the following patterns: finance management, policy analysis, and division goal setting. Negatively scored statements in *Q*-Model 4 regarding administrative functions, division goals, and the university’s mission, vision, and values are demonstrated in the following statements: “Develop Student Affairs budget, including forecasting, planning and monitoring of

expenditures,” “Develop care outcomes for division: measure and track annual performance against objectives,” “Develop an effective administrative model to effectively represent the university’s mission, vision and value,” “Serve as a member of the President’s Executive Council,” “Analyze the potential impact of policy issues upon programs and personnel resources,” “Influence college policy decisions which impact, student, personnel, and resources,” “Establish, manage and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs’ areas,” “Participants in professional organizations related to Student Affairs in higher education,” “Communicate the mission, vision and goals of the division and institution,” and “Responsible for a comprehensive university: both residential and virtual college students.” These statements collectively depict VPSAs who do not place their primary emphasis on the administrative roles of budgeting, forecasting, planning, or monitoring division expenditures. VPSAs in this *Q*-Model do not perceive a responsibility to establish, manage, and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs as significant to their roles.

VPSAs whose role is represented by *Q*-Model 4 share a viewpoint that policy and procedure are inherent to the role, yet these VPSAs assume responsibilities that primarily serve the VPSA’s role. Those whose views are best represented by *Q*-Model 4 do not view administrative oversight or performance management as important to the role, but rather conceive of institutional leadership as imperative to the role. This model is consistent with the literature on Leadership in Higher Education and Leadership in Student Affairs in Chapter 2.

Research Question 2

Next, we turn our analyses to RQ2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA? The extracted factors were rotated using the Varimax rotation to produce a set of relatively correlated *Q* factors. Varimax rotation

maximizes the sum of the variances of the squared loadings, where loadings mean correlations between variables and factors. This results in high factor loadings for a small number of variables. The research categorized participants based on factor loadings that were greater than or equal to $|\cdot40|$. The rationale for this decision threshold is based on the work of Stephenson (1953, 1987) and Brown (1980) who posit that people with factor loadings above a cut-off value (typically, $|\cdot40|$) on a given, rotated factor are judged to hold similar views and have a shared viewpoint. On the other hand, people with factor loadings that do not meet the criterion are judged not to hold similar views and not to have a shared viewpoint: “The cutoff value is arbitrarily selected depending on the field of study, but ± 0.4 seems to be preferred by many researchers” (Yang, 2012, p. 5; Loper, 2012; Lawlor, Ebrahim, May, & Smith, 2004). Using this criterion, participants in the current study fell into one of the following three groups: 1) respondents who did not load at or above the cut-off on any factor (greater than or equal to $|\cdot40|$), 2) respondents who were at or above the cut-off (greater than or equal to $|\cdot40|$) on two or more factors, and 3) respondents who loaded at or above the same criterion on just one of the factors. Thirty-six participants were in the first group. Fifty-three participants were in the second group. One hundred and seventy-one participants were in the third group.

It must be emphasized that the relative prevalence reported below must be interpreted with the understanding that these figures only apply to the study’s sample of participating VPSAs. Because the study sample is a relatively small, non-random, non-probability sample, the relative prevalence of each model within the sample may not translate to the larger population of VPSAs.

Relative Prevalence of *Q* Models

With respect to those participants who met the cut-off criterion and loaded on one of the four factors, one hundred and seventy-one participants loaded on one of the four *Q*-Models (“Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership”). *Q*-Model 1, *Administrative Oversight*, is shared by 61 of the respondents. *Q*-Model 2, *Policy Development*, is shared by 49 of the respondents. *Q*-Model 3, *Strategic Initiatives*, is shared by 25 of the respondents. *Q* Model-4, *Policy Development*, is shared by 36 of the respondents.

As stated above, four major, shared role conceptions by VPSAs were revealed in this study. Using the *Q*-factor, the researcher developed four statistically uncorrelated *Q*-Models regarding the role conceptions of VPSAs.

Research Question 3

After investigating the first two research questions, attention was then turned to RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA? The role of the VPSA is, of course, socially constructed. It has evolved historically and relatively to the changing nature of colleges and universities. The evolution of higher education has led to a complex system with many different types of institutional missions and functional characteristics. The question now arises as to the impact, if any, of the most salient characteristics identified in the historical evolution of the position. Several variables related to all institutions were of interest to the researcher, and, as such, they were analyzed. To begin this analysis, participants were asked about forty-two institutional factors associated with their role. The researcher then narrowed down the instructional factors that fit best with the four *Q*-Models identified in RQ1 (“Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership”) and analyzed 14 institutional categories. The research initially asked demographic

questions about factors such as cost of tuition, percentage of in-state students/ out-of-state students, minority students, students receiving loans or other financial aid/ scholarships, and non-traditional students. The 4 Q-Models were developed using the data that addressed division personnel management, policy development, strategic initiatives, and student support; therefore, the research focused on time spent performing tasks, institutional setting(s), and pressing issues facing college campuses today. The fourteen institutional categories analyzed were the following: “As VPSA, to whom do you report?,” “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Crisis Management, Direct Interaction with Students, Finance, Personnel Management, Public Relations, and Strategic Planning), “Demographic Location” (area of the United States), “Institution Location” (city type: rural, suburban, urban), “Institution Type” (degree, private/public, for-profit, non-profit, etc.), “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Residential Campus, Commuter Campus), “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation), and “What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?” (Health, Wellness, and Safety, Administrative, Campus Culture, or Student Learning and Success). Either chi-square or ANOVA was used based on the nature of the institutional characteristic being examined in each case.

First, the geographic characteristics of the institutions were examined. This was done in two different ways: 1) by the demographic location in which the VPSA holds their role, and 2) by institution location. The demographic locations within the U.S. (i.e. Northeast, Midwest, South, and West) were examined. Based on the results, demographic location and the perception of the VPSAs role were found to be independent of each other when analyzing this characteristic. The chi-square ($\chi^2(9, N=171) = 12.31, p=.20$) analysis shows that a strong relationship is not

present between demographic location and the shared viewpoints among the VPSAs and their role in the present study.

Next, attention was turned to the geographic attribute of Institution Location (i.e. urban, suburban, and rural). As with Demographic Location, the chi-square ($\chi^2(6, N=171) = 6.48, p=.37$) demonstrated a non-significant relationship between institution location and the shared viewpoints among the VPSAs in the present study.

After these initial analyses, attention was turned to characteristics of the institutions. When looking at the data, there were not enough participants representing each of the available institution types. While chi-square is used to determine differences in proportions amongst groups, it only works well when datasets are large enough. When sample sizes are small and more than 20% of the cells have n-sizes less than 5—which is true of the present study—this test cannot be conducted. The crosstab analysis of Institution Type (e.g. private/ public, for-profit, non-profit) violated the assumption of having expected counts greater than five, so a chi-square could not be calculated.

Analyzing “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Residential Campus ($F(3,167) = 5.81, p=.00$), Commuter Campus ($F(3,166) = .515, p=.67$) against the VPSA clusters yielded a difference with residential campuses, but not with commuter campuses. An ANOVA was calculated and indicated there was a relationship present only at residential campuses with regards to the shared viewpoints (clusters) among the VPSAs in the present study. Simply put, there is correlation between viewpoints for VPSAs and the residential campus setting within which they work. With regards to VPSAs on residential campuses, the results of an additional Tukey post hoc test highlighted a significant difference for VPSAs in Administrative Oversight ($M = 55.13, SD = 88.107$) when compared to their colleagues in Policy Development ($M = 10,$

SD = 16.722). Those VPSAs who are focused on Administrative Oversight are very likely to be in residential settings when compared to their colleagues who were in the other *Q*-Models.

The researcher then analyzed the “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation) in relation to shared viewpoints of VPSAs. The ANOVA provided there is no strong relationship present between “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation) and the shared VPSA viewpoints on their role ($F(3,164) = 1.41, p = .24$).

When analyzing “What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?” (Health, Wellness and Safety, Administrative, Campus Culture, or Student Learning and Success), the chi-square ($\chi^2(9, N=171) = 8.88, p = .45$) analysis shows there is no strong relationship between these campus issues and the shared viewpoints among the VPSAs in the present study.

Lastly, attention was turned to Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks. Participants were asked to self-report the amount of time (in a percentage) that they devoted to other tasks that fell within the purview of their role. Individual ANOVAs were conducted to include each of the six tasks in relation to the models of shared viewpoints among VPSAs. The following are the results: Crisis Management “ $F(3,167) = 1.10, p = .35$,” Direct Interaction with Students “ $F(3,167) = 3.97, p = .01$,” Finance “ $F(3,167) = 1.70, p = .17$,” Personnel Management “ $F(3,167) = .40, p = .76$,” Public Relations “ $F(3,167) = 3.73, p < 0.01$,” and Strategic Planning “ $F(3,167) = 2.69, p < .05$ ”). The researcher found no significant difference with time spent performing executive tasks or crisis, finance, and personnel management. However, as indicated in the results provided above, the researcher did find a significant difference with time spent performing executive tasks such as direct interaction with students, public relations, and strategic planning. Since the ANOVA yielded significant results for several of the tasks, additional Tukey tests were performed post hoc. For direct interactions with

students, the Tukey post hoc test was significant at $p < .05$ between 'Policy Development' ($M = 9.92$, $SD = 6.68$) and 4 'Institutional Leadership' ($M = 17$, $SD = 2.523$), indicating that the mean score for Institutional Leadership was significantly higher than Policy Development. For public relations, the Tukey post hoc test was significant at $p < .05$ for Administrative Oversight ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 3.46$) and Policy Development ($M = 7.04$, $SD = 6.755$), which highlights the statistically significant difference in scores, with Policy Development being higher than Administrative Oversight. When looking at strategic planning, the Tukey post hoc test was significant at $p < .05$ for Policy Development ($M = 12.9$, $SD = 8.1$) and Institutional Leadership ($M = 8.72$, $SD = 7.1$); a higher average for Policy Development was evident when compared to Institutional Leadership. Essentially, the researcher found that VPSAs in the four different models ("Administrative Oversight," "Policy Development," "Strategic Initiatives," and "Institutional Leadership") appear to spend different amounts of time on student interaction, public relations, and strategic planning. When analyzing the question, "As VPSA, to whom do you report?" all 260 participants reported that they report to the University President.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the analysis of the data from a sample of 260 VPSAs across the United States regarding their perceived roles. The study employed *Q*-methodology and employed the empirical examination of institutional demographics. Results included analysis of the data, the correlation of the individual *Q*-sort, factor analysis, factor extraction through cluster creation, and crosstabulation of institutional demographics with the factors produced. Utilizing Principal Component Analysis (as the exploratory factor analysis) with Varimax rotation, four *Q*-factors were identified.

The purpose of this study is to fill a void in the higher education literature regarding the characteristics, functions, and role of the VPSA as perceived by VPSAs in colleges and universities across the United States. Additionally, the current study attempted to identify some of the key institutional factors that shape the role of the VPSA. In light of that goal, this dissertation (1) reviews the history of universities and of the VPSA position in order to examine possible changes in institutional needs and demands, addressing how these could have implications for definitions of the role, and (2) reviews different components of current organizational structures of universities in order to examine how various current pressures and needs affect the VPSA role. The design of the research reflects a hypothesis-generating, exploratory study, whose purpose is to provide an empirical examination of shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. The study is grounded in the constructivist paradigm and focuses on discovering subjective viewpoints. For these reasons, *Q*-methodology was selected as the principal element of the research design.

In RQ1, (“What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?”), the resultant four *Q*-factors were used to develop *Q*-Models based on the content of those shared viewpoints and opinions. The developed *Q*-models were interpreted, described, and named by the researcher in the following terms: “Administrative Oversight”, “Policy Development”, “Strategic Initiatives”, and “Institutional Leadership”. Following that work, a “quick cluster” of the larger factors was done to identify, and denote as a variable, the specific cases (which were the same) chosen by the researcher that make up the four *Q*-Models.

In RQ2, (“What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of each of the identified shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?”), criterion was used as a way to categorize participants; based on the criterion, participants in the current study fell into one of the

following three groups: 1) respondents who did not load at or above the cut-off on any factor (greater than or equal to $|\lambda| \geq .40$), 2) respondents who were at or above the cut-off (greater than or equal to $|\lambda| \geq .40$) on two or more factors, and 3) respondents who loaded at or above the same criterion on just one of the factors. Thirty-six participants were in the first group. Fifty-three participants were in the second group. One hundred and seventy-one participants were in the third group.

In RQ3, (“What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?”), the researcher further analyzed the potential relationship between the demographic characteristics and the highest *Q*-Model (or factor) loadings. A series of separate cross tabulations with chi-square and ANOVA analyses were also conducted, which indicated a relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Crisis Management, Finance and Personnel Management), “Institution Location” (city type: rural, suburban, urban), “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Commuter Campus), “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation), and “What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?” (Health, Wellness, and Safety, Administrative, Campus Culture, or Student Learning and Success). It also demonstrated a statistically significant relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Direct Interaction with Students, Public Relations, and Strategic Planning), “Institution Type” (degree, private/public, for-profit, non-profit, etc.), and “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Residential Campus) in the *Q*-models and the respective demographic. It should also be noted that no significant relationship was found with regards to “Demographic Location” (area of the United States) and shared viewpoints of the VPSAs. The next chapter discusses the implications of the *Q*-models

and other findings from this study and establishes a rationale for the needs for future research in this area.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

This study was designed to explore the shared role conceptions of VPSAs relative to their positions. The primary focus of this study was to provide an understanding of the role concepts of VPSAs working in complex organizations and to offer a better understanding of the shared viewpoints held by VPSAs. The findings of this study can begin to inform policy and practice in higher education. It is expected that such insights will offer meaningful guidance to future VPSAs in higher education institutions. The results of this study also contribute to higher education theory and the related research literature; results also aim to be useful to educational researchers, policymakers, college presidents, trustees, faculty, current and prospective VPSAs, and those aspiring to work in student affairs.

Summary of the Study

In order to understand the current role and functions of VPSAs, this study begins with a brief review of the evolution of the VPSA position in the United States. This historical framework provides a context to the current role of the position over time relative to larger, more global changes in higher education. Responsibilities of the VPSA position entail coordinating support for students, fostering collaboration, addressing assessment, and keeping abreast of legal requirements. However, due to institutional structure variations, the departments that are housed in the division of Student Affairs and report to the VPSA are different. Differences between the institutions, such as the relative sizes and types of their student populations (graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) and their locations (rural/urban), may come with different responsibilities that call for different skill sets. Historically, VPSAs have found it difficult to

model this role because the institutional structure has become more diverse (i.e.; institutional reporting structure, institutional resources, institutional and world politics, etc.) (Sandeen, 1991; Sandeen, 2006). Thus, effective leadership from university administrators is important for success in such a demanding environment (Birnbaum, 1988).

The VPSA on a college campus is usually a member of the institution's leadership team. At many colleges and universities, a VPSA is assumed to have a global perspective insofar as he/she is closely involved in long-term planning, holds an institutional view, and participates fully in the financial management of the college. A significant challenge of this work has to do with the different organizational structures of each institution, since the delivery of student support services is contingent upon the desires of the university president and needs of the campus community (Lunsford, 1984). As a result, there is not a consistent understanding of the responsibilities and roles of the VPSA across institutions of higher education. Although many colleges and universities share similar views regarding the positions, they all vary to some extent. Moreover, it is important to note that, as the educational landscape has changed over the years since this position was first introduced at colleges and universities, the position itself has also changed. In light of the varying educational landscape and the growing complexities in the field of higher education, there are certain questions that beg response: what are the current responsibilities of the VPSA, how have these responsibilities been shaped by historical and current educational contexts, and how do these context vary across a myriad of organizational structures?

The purpose of this study is to discover and measure models of the shared viewpoints of VPSAs in U.S. universities with regard to their roles. The research is guided by the following research questions (RQ):

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the VPSA shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

Studies of the nature and role of VPSAs have focused exclusively on the functions of the position, but none have considered the perceptions those who occupy the position hold regarding their role. One goal of this study is to fill the void that presently exists in higher education literature regarding the characteristics, functions, and role of the VPSA as perceived by VPSAs in colleges and universities in the United States. Additionally, the current study attempts to identify some of the key institutional factors that shape the role of the VPSA. In light of that goal, this dissertation (1) reviews the history of universities and of the VPSA position in order to examine possible changes in institutional needs and demands, addressing how these could have implications for definitions of the role, and (2) reviews different components of current organizational structures of universities in order to examine how current pressures and requirements affect the VPSA role.

The design of this research reflects a hypothesis-generating, exploratory study whose purpose is to provide an empirical examination of shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA in U.S. universities. The study is grounded in a constructivist paradigm and focuses on discovering subjective viewpoints. Therefore, *Q*-methodology was selected as the principal element of the research design.

The role of the VPSA is likely to be determined by various and often conflicting expectations within an institution. These expectations could include the physical characteristics of the institution, organizational structure of the institution, and even the institution's history and

culture. This study addresses the extent to which VPSAs may be influenced by these external demands in their everyday work.

Previous research studies were reviewed in Chapter 3 of this study. Commonalities and differences were identified in the areas of the VPSAs role, functional areas, and skills and competencies. A review of the literature presented opportunities to build upon data collection, which was used for conducting research and reporting the findings of this study. The studies most relevant to this research are presented below.

The intent of the literature review was to provide a synopsis of some key concepts of higher education, the status of student affairs, and the role of the VPSA. The study focused on the perceptions of VPSAs and their varied roles in U.S. universities. The leadership grounded literature provides context of the VPSA's role through the use of sociological and psychological constructs and methods to reveal insights into the changing role of the VPSA, data for which had been previously unavailable through other research models. Colleges and universities today are faced with a variety of changing conditions that demand both attention and the formulation of appropriate and effective responses to the ever-changing landscape of the VPSA's role. The perceptions of the varied roles VPSAs experienced in their own careers were detailed in order to provide possible insights that can come only from those reflecting on their own experience in the position. As a formal institutional entity, Student Affairs has only been part of higher education for about a hundred years. Over time, it has evolved into a vital component of virtually all U.S. colleges and universities. The work of Student Affairs has expanded to include work with individual students, student groups, and the management of complex enterprises. Considering its integral institutional role, Student Affairs administrators adopt various leadership roles on their

campuses that deal primarily with confronting complex, emotionally charged, and difficult issues.

In most basic terms, the role of the VPSA is to serve as the senior Student Affairs officer for a College/University. In most situations, the VPSA reports directly to the President. The VPSA serves as primary advisor to the President on issues relating to student affairs. The VPSA is also the primary liaison and advocate for student interests, needs, and concerns regarding their relationships/ interactions with parents, faculty, staff, administrators, and community members. Student Affairs provides a wide variety of programs, services, facilities, and activities to the campus community that promotes the safety and holistic development of students. The VPSA is a trusted member of senior administration who plays a key role in developing innovative and impactful programming, enhancing efforts to build a diverse, inclusive, and equitable community, and further integrating student and academic life.

As college and university enrollment increased in the early 20th century, the administrative organization of institutions became more diversified and designed offices specifically focused on health services, admissions, vocational guidance, and registration (Sandeen, 1991). By the 1930s, there were growing concerns that these services had become disjointed and needed greater coordination and direction under a single office. At that time, some services were in the portfolios of college or university administrators who reported to the president, some to the business officer, and others to the registrar or academic dean (Sandeen, 1991). Such inconsistency in organizational responsibilities for student affairs functions often resulted in confusion for the students and expensive duplication of services for the college.

The first evidence of a professional role in student affairs was incorporated into faculty duties in the 1930s through the assumption of the responsibilities *in loco parentis*, a concept in

which university staff or faculty act “in the place or role of a parent” (Conte, 2000). As faculty became expected to have greater engagement in research and publication, universities began to hire new staff solely responsible for students’ day-to-day needs, issues, and involvement. In response, the roles of Dean of Women and Dean of Men were created. Over time, these staff and their supervising administrators were given the responsibility of managing various campus programs and services, including academic and career counseling, financial aid, student employment, and student health (American Council on Education, 1937).

By the 1960s, a new institutional office known as “Student Affairs” had been established in many universities. This office was charged with the coordinating and directing all the institutional services related to the out-of-classroom experiences of students. Over the last 60 years, the office of Student Affairs has undergone a great deal of change. What was once a department with a relatively simple focus on student welfare evolved into a more complex department whose focus involves coordinating an array of services like counseling, vocational guidance, and registration (Sandeem & Barr, 2006). Programs and services were added under the Student Affairs organizational umbrella to accommodate the changing student population and to meet the unique needs of each university. Little attention was focused on how student services should be designed effectively and consistently to meet the institution’s mission or students’ needs (Kuk & Banning, 2009). As a result, there is no unvarying organizational structure model that fits all Student Affairs organizations (Ambler, 2000; Barr, 1993; Sandeem & Barr, 2006). In the same way the organizational structure of Student Affairs has evolved over the past several decades, so too has the role of the VPSA.

At the helm of Student Affairs is the Vice President for Student Affairs (VPSA), a senior executive position often found in institutions of higher education in the United States. Higher

education in America is now a sprawling enterprise of nearly 4,800 institutions, all of which have the role VPSA. The key role of the VPSA is to direct Student Affairs professionals and employees within the Division of Student Affairs (DSA) regarding the intricacies of student retention, policymaking, understanding the realities of a complex organization, the art of fiscal responsibility, and the importance of strategic planning for the institution's future success (Manning, Kinzie, & Schuh, 2006). The VPSA generally serves as an advocate for students, develops programs, and responds to frontline crises. In that role, the VPSA must compete for resources with academic affairs, business affairs, institutional development, other university stakeholders, and off-campus and community stakeholders (Sandeem, 1991).

A historical profile of U.S. higher education is in large part a story of structure concerned with the legal and administrative frameworks that were shaped by the pressures of U.S. social and political history. The formation of the colonial colleges, only available to a limited group of wealthy white men, aided in the development of student affairs by providing dormitories and dining halls (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962). Student Affairs emerged at a time of growth and change in higher education. The VPSA position has evolved over time to meet the historical changes that were occurring within higher education. James Garfield, a former president of the United States, praised his own alma mater's president by proclaiming, "The ideal college is Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other" (Rudolph, 1962). His tribute reminds us that despite the proliferation of magnificent buildings and elaborate facilities in U.S. colleges and universities, the history of colleges and universities in the U.S. is about teaching, learning, and research. Regardless of the century, the U.S. tradition in higher education has espoused a strong commitment to undergraduate education (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004). Maintaining this tradition requires

vigilance. In response, established and aspiring universities have emphasized advanced programs, research centers, and other activities for the bachelor's degree curriculum to demonstrate a dedication to such vigilance (Komives & Woodward, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Schuh, Jones & Harper, 2011; Thelin, 2004).

The evolution and expansion of U.S. universities played a vital role in today's university structure and in the development of the role of the VPSA. Although the role of the VPSA did not exist during this period, it was becoming apparent that the new role would be necessary soon at many higher education institutions. As institutions of higher education evolved, so too did their focuses. Now, various aspects such as geographical setting and the option to dorm on campus, coupled with the organizational structure within the institution, were areas of great interest and importance. Despite the general historical trends in these changes, not all institutions had the same history and evolution. From this early foundation, variability can be seen in these areas in today's institutions. This raises the question of whether institutional variability could have implications for the role of the VPSA today.

The Student Affairs function within collegiate structures did not become complex, independent organizational units until the late 1960s (Ambler, 2000). As student numbers, demographics, and needs changed, new programs and services were added to the Student Affairs portfolios. In most cases, these new programs and services were simply added on to the array of existing programs and services with little attention focused on how these organizations might be designed to effectively meet the institution's mission and needs of the students, while also determining the efficient use the resources that have been entrusted to it (Ambler, 2000; Manning, Kinzie, & Schuh, 2006).

Over time, it appeared that much of the concern about Student Affairs at the institutional level revolved around questions of organizational structure. For example: To which department or individual within the university's hierarchy did Student Affairs report? Although issues like these are important, there are other issues related to organizational design that are critical to ensuring organizational effectiveness. As the demands on higher education increase and change, gaining a more comprehensive and thorough understanding of these issues can be helpful in crafting successful organizations (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

The Role of the VPSA

This study found that the VPSA plays a critical role in the university setting, as the person in this role assists with shaping and instituting the university's mission, vision, and value. The study also found that institutional setting plays a role in how the VPSA guides the direction of the division of Student Affairs. Researchers have found it difficult to identify roles and characteristics of VPSAs because each institution has a different organizational structure to deliver the student support services unique to the needs of each campus community as underscored by the desires of the university president (Holmes, 1992; Lunsford, 1984). The VPSA role grew out of necessity due to major organizational changes within higher education and Student Affairs. The advent of the roles Dean of Women and Dean of Men occurred in 1937, as evidenced in the foundational document, *The Student Personnel Point of View (1937)*.

The contemporary role of Student Affairs in higher education has evolved over time to become quite complex. Historically, the Student Affairs profession emerged from the need to attend to issues of student conduct and the administrative functions of the college and university. Today, Student Affairs professionals work in a variety of functional areas throughout colleges and universities, ranging from admissions to academic advising to housing and residential life.

Over time, the role of Student Affairs professionals has changed from one focused on administration to one focused on education.

The core purposes of Student Affairs today are to understand how students develop intellectually, psychosocially, and emotionally while creating meaningful experiences that stimulate student development (Long, 2012). Core values such as caring, helping, equality, and social justice inform much of the structure that Student Affairs professionals strive to create as they help students to establish stable identities, values, conflict resolution skills, communication skills, ethical standards, and tolerance. Student Affairs professionals help students prepare for career, leadership, and civic roles throughout their lifetimes (Long, 2012).

The findings of this study provided evidence that VPSAs do not fit within one mold. As demonstrated in the forty-eight statements, the VPSA's role can be contextualized or interpreted differently. In fact, many of the forty-eight statement would not have applied before the 1960s, as evidenced in the literature. As society evolves, the needs of the public evolve with it. Thus, it makes sense that the role of VPSA will also evolve with the division of Student Affairs. This is demonstrated with the removal of career services, financial aid, and intercollegiate athletics departments and the addition of the department of Veteran Affairs, Student Affairs assessment, and Campus Safety (NASPA, 2014).

Functional Area's Reporting to the VPSA

It has been established that the role of the VPSA has evolved over time (Brown, 1997; Sandeen, 1991, 2001). The influx of student with disabilities, minority student groups, and female, older, part-time, and international students has also encouraged evolution on the part of American higher education. This change has shifted social classes to a more heterogeneous community, requiring exemplary teaching, advising, and interpersonal and leadership skills from

both faculty members and Student Affairs professionals (Brown, 1997). For example, because of shifting student demographics and technology, the responsibilities of the VPSA have expanded to include judicial duties because they now monitor academic integrity issues among students. Additionally, the function of the VPSA requires that services be supplied to accommodate the needs of various student demographics, such as adult learners and commuter students.

According to Edwards (2006), VPSAs serve various roles and functions on college campuses, including leader, manager, fundraiser, and educator. Edwards (2006) went on to delineate and expand upon the responsibilities of the VPSA.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2006) developed forty-three sets of functional areas standards for higher education programs and services. The following is a list of the current functional area standards. Also, some do not fall under the Student Affairs umbrella; most draw on skills and experiences typical of Student Affairs practitioners.

CAS Functional Area Standards for Higher Education Programs and Services

- Academic advising programs
- Adult learner programs and services
- Alcohol and other drug programs
- Assessment services
- Auxiliary services
- Campus activities programs
- Campus information and visitor services
- Campus police and security programs
- Campus religious and spiritual programs

- Career services
- Civic engagement and service-learning programs
- Clinical health services
- College honor society programs
- College unions
- Commuter and off-campus living programs
- Conference and event programs
- Counseling services
- Dining service programs
- Disability resources and services
- Education abroad programs and services
- Financial aid programs
- Fraternity and sorority advising programs
- Graduate and professional student programs and services
- Health promotion services
- Housing and residential life programs
- International student programs and services
- Internship programs
- Learning assistance programs
- Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender programs and services
- Master's level student affairs professional preparation programs
- Multicultural student programs and services
- Orientation Programs

- Parent and family programs
- Recreational sports programs
- Registrar programs and services
- Sexual violence-related programs and services
- Student conduct programs
- Student leadership programs
- Transfer student programs and services
- TRIO and other educational opportunity programs

Consistent with the findings of this study, the responsibilities of the VPSA have expanded to include departments that monitor the academic integrity among students today because of the shifting student demographics. According to Edwards (2006), VPSAs serve various roles and functions on college campuses, including leader, manager, fundraiser, and educator. Detailed in a survey conducted by NASPA (2014), the five functional areas most commonly reported to Student Affairs were campus activities, student conduct, counseling, orientation, and Student Affairs assessment. However, organizational structures are not static; units may move in and out of the Student Affairs division. Veteran student services, Student Affairs assessment, and Campus Safety were the most common recent additions to Student Affairs divisions. Career services, financial aid, and intercollegiate athletics were the units most commonly removed from student affairs and integrated elsewhere in the institution (NASPA, 2014).

Skills & Competencies

The competencies required for a specific job vary, especially when considering a complex position like the VPSA. As Mintzberg (1990) suggested with managers in a business

setting, it is impossible to boil down the specific competencies a VPSA requires in order to respond to the needs of an organization or a specific student population. The ACPA and NASPA joint competency document itself promotes flexibility, encouraging professionals to select the competencies that best support different roles with different student types on different campus environments (ACPA & NASPA, 2010). The professional development framework provided by the ACPA and NASPA joint competencies can provide guidance for standardization, but little evidence exists that substantiates a causal relationship between competence and performance, especially in a highly complex managerial position (Gzeda, 2005; Winterton & Winterton, 1997). Despite the lack of clear trends based on statistical analysis, several of the findings demonstrate practical significance.

Significant Findings

The findings reported here will be organized under each of the three research questions included in this study. This study was designed to discover the shared conceptions of the role of the VPSA as revealed through *Q*-Methodology, a research methodology developed for the scientific study of human subjectivity (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2012). It details the perceptions of VPSAs about their varied roles and provides insights that come-only from those reflecting on their personal experiences in the position. The study identified the characteristics of the role of the VPSA in the context of the perception of VPSAs job responsibilities in the following terms: “Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership.” Further, this study explored the extent to which outside regulations, student body, type of institution, organizational structure, and other varying criteria (urban/rural, graduate/undergraduate, exclusively full-time and residential, a mix of full and part-time residential and commuter students) play a role in

perceptions of the VPSA role. It is expected that such insights will offer meaningful guidance to future VPSAs in higher education institutions as they focus on how best to gain the requisite skills and knowledge both to fill this role and to adopt leadership position in this role.

The research findings reported will be organized under each of the three research questions included in this study. Researchers have found it difficult to identify roles and characteristics of VPSAs because each institution has a different organizational structure to deliver student support services, which are based on the desires of the university president and needs of the campus community (Holmes, 1992; Lunsford, 1984). The VPSA role grew out of necessity due to major organizational changes within higher education and student affairs. Although the advent of the roles Dean of Women and Dean of Men began in 1937—as is evidenced in the foundational document *The Student Personnel Point of View (1937)*—to date, there are no studies that explore the perceived role of the VPSA in U.S. higher education.

For this study, a *Q*-set of 48 statements was developed from themes that emerged from the review of the literature. Consistent with the literature, VPSA utilize the *ACPA and NASPA Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Practitioner (2010)* to guide or shape the direction of their role and/or the division of Student Affairs. Each of the updated competencies is accompanied by a set of foundational, intermediate, and advanced outcomes or proficiencies (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Weiner, Bresciani, Oyler, & Felix, 2011). These are suggested results at different stages of one's career and are related directly to a person's individual abilities; they also consider philosophies or progressions/ priorities (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Weiner, Bresciani, Oyler, & Felix, 2011).

Personal and ethical foundations.

Involves the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to develop and maintain integrity in one's life and work; this includes thoughtful development, critique, and adherence to a

holistic and comprehensive standard of ethics and commitment to one's own wellness and growth (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12; Hickmott & Bresciani, 2010; Sriram, 2014).

Values, philosophy, and history.

This competency involves knowledge, skills, and dispositions that connect the history, philosophy, and values of the student affairs profession to one's current professional practice. This competency area embodies the foundations of the profession from which current and future research, scholarship, and practice will change and grow. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12)

Assessment, evaluation, and research (AER).

Focuses on the ability to design, conduct, critique, and use various AER methodologies and the results obtained from them, to utilize AER processes and their results to inform practice, and to shape the political and ethical climate surrounding AER processes and uses in higher education. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 12)

Law, policy, and governance.

Includes the knowledge, skills, and dispositions relating to policy development processes used in various contexts, the application of legal constructs, compliance/policy issues, and the understanding of governance structures and their impact on one's professional practice (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 13).

Organizational and human resources.

Includes knowledge, skills, and dispositions used in the management of institutional human capital, financial, and physical resources. This competency area recognizes that student affairs professionals bring personal strengths and grow as managers through challenging themselves to build new skills in the selection, supervision, motivation, and formal evaluation of staff; resolution of conflict; management of the politics of organizational discourse; and the effective application of strategies and techniques associated with financial resources, facilities management, fundraising, technology, crisis management, risk management and sustainable resources (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 13).

Leadership (LEAD).

Addresses the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required of a leader, with or without positional authority. Leadership involves both the individual role of a leader and the leadership process of individuals working together to envision, plan, and affect change in organizations and respond to broad-based constituencies and issues. This can include working with students, student affairs colleagues, faculty, and community members. (p. 13)

Social justice and inclusion (SJI).

It is defined here as both a process and a goal which includes the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to create learning environments that foster equitable participation of all groups while seeking to address and acknowledge issues of oppression, privilege, and power. This competency involves student affairs educators who have a sense of their own agency and social responsibility that includes others, their community, and the larger global context. (p. 14)

Student learning and development (SLD)

Addresses the concepts and principles of student development and learning theory. This includes the ability to apply theory to improve and inform student affairs and teaching practice (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 14).

Technology (TECH).

Focuses on the use of digital tools, resources, and technologies for the advancement of student learning, development, and success as well as the improved performance of student affairs professionals. Included within this area are knowledge, skills, and dispositions that lead to the generation of digital literacy and digital citizenship within communities of students, student affairs professionals, faculty members, and colleges and universities as a whole (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 15; Ahlquist, 2014; Brown, 2013; Junco, 2015, Sabado, 2015).

Advising and supporting (A/S).

Addresses the knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to providing advising and support to individuals and groups through direction, feedback, critique, referral, and guidance. Through developing advising and supporting strategies that take into account self-knowledge and the needs of others, we play critical roles in advancing the holistic wellness of ourselves, our students, and our colleagues. (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 15).

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?

Utilizing the *Q*-sort data and factor analysis techniques, the researcher identified four common models. The following four models were identified in relation to the role of VPSA: “Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership.” The interpretation of the VPSA role model’s content and statistical characteristics provided the basis for response to the first research question. VPSAs in Administrative Oversight collectively depict VPSAs who assume a hands-on role in personnel management of

division employees. They take the time to shape and develop a team that advocates for students. VPSAs personally hire, fire, discipline, and promote full and part-time employees and handle performance evaluations for division employees. VPSAs in this model believe it important to prioritize supervision and staff development as a primary function of their role.

VPSAs representing Policy Development collectively depict VPSAs who assume the responsibilities of policy development because they analyze the impact of policy relative to their campus. VPSAs in this model feel it important to prioritize the assessment, analysis, and creation of policy relative to division programs, recruitment, and retention as a primary function of their role. VPSAs in Strategic Initiative collectively depict VPSAs who identify fundamental needs for Student Affairs and who develop and implement strategic initiatives for the priorities they identify. VPSAs in this category demonstrate a commitment to ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse populations, as they take a student-centered approach to focusing on issues and trends affecting higher education today. VPSAs in this model view it important to understand a comprehensive university as one that meets the needs of both residential and commuter students. Additionally, they assess and implement projects and programs that meet their respective university's mission, vision, and values. VPSAs in Institutional Leadership collectively depict VPSAs who do not place their primary emphasis on the administrative roles of budgeting, forecasting, planning, or monitoring division expenditures. VPSAs in this *Q*-Model do not perceive the responsibility to establish, manage, and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs as being significant in their roles.

As illustrated in the four models derived from this study, VPSAs in Administrative Oversight collectively depict VPSAs who assume a hands-on role in personnel management of division employees, as they take the time to shape and develop a team that advocates for

students. VPSAs representing Policy Development collectively depict VPSAs who assume the responsibilities of analyzing the impact of policy relative to their campus.

VPSAs in Strategic Initiative collectively depict VPSAs who identify fundamental needs for Student Affairs. Their priority is to develop and implement strategic initiatives as they remain committed to maintaining an ethnically, culturally, and socially diverse population on campus and take a student-centered approach in their role. VPSAs in this model view assess and implement projects and programs that meet their respective university's mission, vision, and values as part of a comprehensive university model that meets the needs of both residential and commuter students. VPSAs in Institutional Leadership depict VPSAs who do not place their primary emphasis on the administrative roles of budgeting, forecasting, planning, and monitoring division expenditures. VPSAs in this *Q*-Model do not perceive as significant in their roles a responsibility to establish, manage, and assess the goals and outcomes for Student Affairs.

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the VPSA shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

Using this criterion for the current study, participants fell into one of three groups: 1) respondents who did not load at or above the cut-off on any factor (greater than or equal to $|.40|$), 2) respondents who were at or above the cut-off (greater than or equal to $|.40|$) on two or more factors, and 3) respondents who loaded at or above the same criterion on just one of the factors. Thirty-six participants were in the first group. Fifty-three participants were in the second group. One hundred and seventy-one participants were in the third group.

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

Given the idea of institutional perspective, the researcher in this study wanted to determine whether the characteristics of the institution were related to the viewpoints of

incumbents in the VPSA role, or if their viewpoints were correlated to the attributes of the institution. Several variables related to all institutions were of interest to the researcher and were analyzed. To begin this analysis, participants were asked forty-two institutional factors associated with their role. The researcher then narrowed the instructional factors that best fit with the four *Q*-Models identified in RQ1 (“Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership”) and analyzed 14 institutional factors.

In order to further analyze the potential relationship between the demographic characteristics and the highest *Q*-Model (or factor) loadings, a series of separate cross tabulations with chi-square and ANOVA analyses were conducted, which indicated a relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Crisis Management, Finance and Personnel Management), “Institution Location” (city type: rural, suburban, urban), “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Commuter Campus), “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation), and “What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?” (Health, Wellness, and Safety, Administrative, Campus Culture, or Student Learning and Success). It also discovered a statistically significant relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Direct Interaction with Students, Public Relations, and Strategic Planning), “Institution Type” (degree, private/public, for-profit, non-profit, etc.), and “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Residential Campus) demographics the *Q*-models and the respective demographic. It should also be noted that no significant relationship was found with regards to “Demographic Location” (area of the United States) and shared viewpoints of the VPSAs. Prior research (Randall & Globetti, 1992) supports that position that the VPSA should focus on institutional demographics and the role it plays in establishing and carrying out the mission, vision, and value of the respective institution.

Discussion

The researcher set out to understand how the VPSAs perceive their role. Though important discoveries were made, further research is needed in this area. Since the mid-1980s, American higher education has experienced considerable change, which was often the result of public scrutiny and subsequent critique. Traditional needs for leadership in higher education have shifted over the years, especially with the advancement of new technologies and new requirements for graduate competence; thus, it is clear there is no better time than right now for increased leadership competence in universities. The future of an institution of higher education rests upon its ability to involve individuals who are flexible, open to alternatives, and capable of developing leadership characteristics (Dressel, 1981).

RQ 1: What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role?

Draughdill (1988) pointed out the essential elements of college or university leadership are a passion for the institution, a commitment to stewardship, a clear, but far-reaching vision, and the courage of one's convictions. Leadership is not fundamentally about the attributes a leader has, but about what the leader does in the context of an academic department, research group, or course (Ramsden, 1998). Wilcox and Ebbs (1992) encouraged certain behaviors (creating the vision, empowering others, modeling the way, and acting ethically) from leaders in higher education that appear to energize institutions. This type of leadership is challenging. In fact, Shapiro (1998) pointed out that college and university presidents often traverse extremely diverse terrain on any given day. It is plausible, per Shapiro (1998), that a college or university president might, in the same day, tackle alumni concerns, public policy issues, student discipline issues, faculty appointments, and curriculum reform. Of course, this is all done in an endless

quest to keep the institution valid, funded, and attuned to the ever-changing needs of the modern student.

The researcher believes that the *Q*-Models demonstrated in this study may vary depending on participation, understanding of the VPSA's role, time spent in the VPSA role, and evolution of each university's mission, vision, and values, among other things. The *Q*-Models may vary depending on sample size, as the study may yield a larger participation rate resulting in more than 4 *Q*-Models. *Q*-Models may vary depending on responses to the *Q*-Statements identified in Chapter 3. Lastly, the *Q*-Statements may change as the role of the VPSA evolves, as history has demonstrated that the role of the VPSA has evolved overtime. This study demonstrates the significance of the VPSA's role on university campuses today.

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the VPSA shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA?

The researcher was surprised to find a great deal of the overlapping of commonalities across the 4 *Q*-Models and the perceived role of the VPSA. This study discovered the commonalities of the role are based on the participants of the study and may vary should more participants or different participants be introduced.

RQ 3: What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA?

The role of the VPSA has evolved over time to include dimensions that involve leadership, management, and educational guidance (Brown, 1997; Sandeen, 1991, 2001; Edwards, 2006). The influx of a diverse student body has also encouraged evolution on the part of American higher education, as this change has shifted social classes to a more heterogeneous community. Such a community requires exemplary teaching, advising, and interpersonal and leadership skills from faculty members and Student Affairs professionals alike (Brown, 1997).

For example, because of shifting student demographics and technology, the responsibilities of the VPSA have expanded to include judicial duties as they now monitor academic integrity issues among students. It is also expected that the VPSA establish programs and support services that accommodate the needs of various student demographics, such as continuing education students and commuter students.

When developing the study, the researcher expected a correlation between demographic characteristics and the role of the VPSA. For example, the researcher thought the role of the VPSA varied on a “residential campus” vs. a “commuter campus”; however, the results of this study found no correlation for “residential campus.” Another surprising factor was the discovery that there was no correlation between the VPSAs role and the institution’s location or size. Prior to the study, the researcher thought that demographic characteristics played a more important role in the role of the VPSA.

Weaknesses of the study are my biases as a researcher and as a Student Affairs professional. While no researcher can be completely objective, I have a specific interest in my topic because of my professional and educational background. My awareness of the issues and challenges faced by VPSAs prompted me to look for evidence of specific competencies and models of shared subjectivity. However, it was the participants themselves who revealed their cognitive processes through the research. While it was certainly possible that some of the respondents might have given socially desirable responses to portray themselves in a positive fashion or to render what they believed was the intended response, the respondents were aware and had consented to serve as research subjects, were informed of the purpose of the study, were provided with clear plain language in familiar terms, and were cognizant that their responses

were anonymous. However, some of the respondents may have tried to anticipate the outcome of the study and adjusted their responses accordingly.

As evident in the literature, history has played a factor in the changes in higher education. Through-out history institution have changes and so has the student body population and their needs. With these changes comes a unique set of demands that change the landscape of universities (i.e. LGBT, multicultural affairs, technology, financial concerns etc.).

The previous chapter reported the empirical results and analysis of the evidence found using the mixed-methods approach of *Q*-technique, followed by descriptive statistical methods to show how background characteristics of participants are associated with their shared role concepts. In Chapter 4, the results of the statistical and qualitative data analyses were presented as objective, empirical evidence, and great care was taken by the researcher not to offer any subjective interpretations or implications that would reach beyond the empirical findings of those analyses or that would involve any personal or professional judgments about their implications. This chapter provides interpretations and implications of those empirical findings for research, theory, policy, and practice based on the evidence presented in Chapter 4 and the literature review in Chapter 2. The interpretations and implications provided in this final chapter reflect the personal experiences of the researcher as an administrative educator and reflect those personal views of what the empirical evidence means for theory, research, policy, and practice. Other scholars may, of course, disagree with these conclusions about what the findings of this study mean, but there has been a strong attempt to ground the subjective views offered in this chapter with objective evidence. Thus, while alternative and additional implications may be offered by others, this researcher believes the subjective views and interpretations presented in this chapter are fully consistent with the empirical evidence of this study.

This chapter began with a synthesis of the views discovered in the *Q*-models presented in Chapter 4. The models discovered in this study were not completely unanticipated. It is likely that one could have hypothesized those shared viewpoints abductively, deduced them on pure logical grounds, or derived them from practical observations.

Strengths and Limitations

Limitations emerged during the analysis of the data that may have impacted the results of the study. One limitation that emerged for this study was the possibility of self-selective bias among the respondents. For this study, a person sample of 100 representative VPSAs in U.S. universities is sufficient to satisfy the assumptions and approach in *Q*-studies. Participants completed an anonymous online survey where they were prompted by theoretical concerns meant to guide the selections to be based on their relevance to the specific aims of the research (McKeown & Tenner, 2013). Therefore, the *P*-set invited to participate in this study was specifically targeted via the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and the American College Personnel Association (ACPA). Self-selective bias could be VPSAs who were newly appointed, VPSAs who had more time than others, or VPSAs who did not understand the value of the study. Although the study was sent to the entire population of VPSAs in U.S. institutions, participants in the study were chosen based on self-selection. Despite the self-selective nature of the study, the demographic characteristics of the participants were reasonably diverse. The study drew 265 participants (with 260 completing all items properly) from across the United States and included a wide spectrum of responses from VPSAs with various sizes and geographic types (i.e., urban, suburban, rural) as well as responses from public and private colleges and universities. Additional shared viewpoints might have emerged had a different population of VPSAs participated.

Another possible contribution factor to the results of this study was the computer-based tools used to collect *Q*-sort data. As discussed in Chapter 3, an online *Q*-sort survey technically represented a “contrived” research setting, and the participants were asked to provide their views about statements expressed in familiar terms from office or home computers. In that regard, the research setting closely modeled a natural context. The requirement to conduct the *Q*-sort using an internet-connected computer could potentially bias participation in the study toward those VPSAs who were more comfortable with using online technology, even though such technology is now pervasive in the VPSAs role. The online nature of the *Q*-sort survey was not, therefore, expected to have a material effect on how the research setting was perceived by the participants. Thus, the research setting for this study might be considered to possess most of the qualities of an uncontrived setting. However, the results of the study and the representative views of the 265 initial participants, might have varied had another data collection method been used.

Methodological limitations, Q-methods was founded on the principals that a focus group would be formed and from that focus group, would determine the *q*-statements. The shared viewpoints would then be the *q*-statement participants would be ranking. With this study, the researcher determined *q*-statements by the emerging themes in the literature.

A final methodological concern was the possible reactivity of the respondents. Knowing that they were serving as subjects in a study, respondents might have given socially desirable responses so that they might portray themselves in a positive fashion or to render what they believed was the intended response. In this study, VPSAs were asked to rate their essential role, ranking them in order of importance. The respondents were aware and had consented to serve as research subjects, were informed of the purpose of the study, were provided with clear plain language in familiar terms, and were cognizant that their responses were anonymous. However,

some of the respondents may have tried to anticipate the outcome of the study and adjusted their responses accordingly.

With consideration for the findings related to the third research question, it is likely that the sample needs to be larger to further explore the data to address RQ 3. While there is a likelihood that institution and role-related demographics would influence the role (and individual tasks/behaviors/requirements) of VPSAs, the current study did not generate that all results support all institutional demographic questions. The researcher hypothesized a closer relationship below all institutional demographic questions and the perceived role of the VPSA. A cursory look at all the demographics reveals how a final sample of 260 is not enough to equally represent characteristics of individuals such as ethnicity, or even institutional characteristics such as institution type (combination of length of terminal degrees, public/private/religious).

Lastly, while there were several open-end response items administered to the initial group of respondents, the number of responses were quite low. It was the researcher's hope that more insight would have evolved in the role of the VPSA from the open-response questions. Participants were asked about the following: "Functional Areas added within the past 5 years," "Functional Areas removed within the past 5 years," and "Other insight about the role of the VPSA." Less than half of the participants answered these open-ended questions. Although consistent with the literature, Veteran Student services, Student Affairs assessment, and Campus Safety were the most common recent additions to the Student Affairs division; career services, financial aid, and intercollegiate athletics were the units most commonly removed from Student Affairs and placed elsewhere in the institution (NASPA, 2014). It would have been interesting to attain information from VPSAs about the following areas of their role: "How has the

history/evolution of Student Affairs shaped the strategic vision & mission of the division?"; "To what extent has the Student Affairs budget been impacted at your university?"; "Have you increased fundraising or secured external funding to offset any impact to the budget?"; and, "How have external relations/affairs impacted your responsibilities?" Again, with the final sample of 260 participants, responses to these items were typically very short and infrequent, yielding a very small text corpus when pulled out from the larger data set. Perhaps in the future, the researcher could make these items mandatory to obtain additional responses (perhaps with compensation for participants) or even conduct one-on-one interviews with participants to attain this information. Certainly, the richness of findings from text analyses could help researchers gain additional insight into the role of VPSA, determine new *Q*-sort items to be added, or even influence the research methodology and design of future studies.

Implications for Educational Policy, Leadership, and Practice

Beyond the implications for theory and research methods, there are important implications for practice in higher education that emerged from the findings of this study. Those implications have specific potential for improving higher education policy, leadership, and practice.

Educational Policy and Leadership

My interpretations of the findings of this study challenge many of the existing perceptions regarding the VPSA role and policies and leadership practices related to that role. Recent higher educational policy has been based on the assumption of role consensus through the VPSAs views. With the realization that VPSAs exhibit different perceived role characteristics, it can be postulated that other stakeholders who are responsible for policy development also have inconsistent views of the VPSA. Based on these findings, I believe it is imperative that

educational policy makers and higher education leaders work collaboratively with VPSAs to clarify expectations. This first step of achieving VPSAs role consensus will allow for greater clarity in future educational policies affecting VPSAs role in the university setting.

Educational policy and leadership are intended to support higher education. The VPSA's role has been important to the historical development and success of the U.S. higher education system. Overall, this study emphasizes the need for policy and practices that support the development of VPSAs role through clear, collaboratively identified expectations. Among the most important methods to achieve role consensus are VPSA education and professional development.

Conclusion and Suggestions for Future Research

When this research began, the initial assumptions of the researcher were that there would be some variation in the conception of the role of the VPSA. It is certain that there are several broad factors for which different VPSAs have different viewpoints and opinions (and possibly many more, depending on how many factors a researcher wants to extract from the data). This study supports the position that the role is conceived differently by subgroups of VPSAs. With consideration for the third research question, the assumption that demographic variables would significantly factor into the role of the VPSA was not unfounded based on past research and logical and deductive (though subjective) reasoning from the researcher. While the analyses in this study demonstrated that some demographic characteristics impact the role of the VPSA, further research is needed.

The current research study was exploratory in nature. While some findings are broad and others support the null hypothesis, that does not mean that they are not useful for educational policy going forward. Broad findings of pioneering and novel research serve a great purpose in

formulating future research design, thus confirming the null hypothesis provides valuable information for those willing to consider its implications. While it was the researcher's belief that demographic variables would be heavily related to the role of VPSA—and it is not unreasonable to believe that institutional factors influence the requirements and behaviors of those in the role—the lack of support still provides a great deal of insight on the role of VPSAs in the context of this study. Given the data and analyses, the researcher can make a compelling argument that the tasks and behaviors exhibited in VPSA roles are consistent across every type of higher learning institution in the United States. As discussed earlier, future research could focus on gathering a larger sample of VPSAs, and, perhaps, researchers will find relationships between various institutional characteristics and the specifics of the VPSA role. While it is likely that relationships exist and will be uncovered, the current research study provides concrete information that is important when a follow-up study is conducted (perhaps by the current researcher). Simply put, given the data collected in this study, and the subsequent crosstab analyses, no relationship was apparent. Limitations of the sample itself and the actual data collected may be limiting factors and should be improved upon in all future work on the topic.

Research Question 1

What are the major shared viewpoints held by VPSAs about their role? Utilizing the *Q*-sort data and factor analysis techniques, the researcher identified four common factors, and after additional inspection and coding, labeled them in the following terms: “Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership.”

Research Question 2

What is the relative prevalence within the study sample of the VPSA shared viewpoints about the role of the VPSA? With consideration for the above analyses and findings, it is

certainly apparent that individuals in the role VPSA do “cluster together” strongly. Again, this is based on their responses to the *Q*-sort items in this study with regards to the theoretical clusters established by the researcher (“Administrative Oversight,” “Policy Development,” “Strategic Initiatives,” and “Institutional Leadership.”) Simply put, a strong case can be made that regardless of the many different tasks that VPSAs oversee and integrate, there are only four main factors that drive the role of VPSAs (as determined through the items presented to participants) and that individuals across different types of institutions respond in similar ways.

Research Question 3

What institutional factors are associated with the role of the VPSA? The output from the statistical analyses of the collected data investigating the third research question provide significant support that indicated a relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Crisis Management, Finance and Personnel Management), “Institution Location” (city type: rural, suburban, urban), “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Commuter Campus), “Student Demographics by Percentage” (First Generation), and “What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?” (Health, Wellness, and Safety, Administrative, Campus Culture, or Student Learning and Success). It also discovered a statistically significant relationship between “Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks” (Direct Interaction with Students, Public Relations, and Strategic Planning), “Institution Type” (degree, private/public, for-profit, non-profit, etc.), and “Institution Setting by Percentage” (Residential Campus) demographics from the *Q*-models and the respective demographic. It should also be noted that no significant relationship was found with regards to “Demographic Location” (area of the United States) and shared viewpoints of the VPSAs.

Along with the changing demographics of the student population, a shift in public policy affecting higher education also emerged. Due to the increased pressure to know more about what happens on campuses of higher learning, state and federal legislators began to enact laws to provide greater and equal access to information (Woodard, 2009). These laws required even greater transparency and more detailed reporting from VPSAs. Shifts in public policy altered the relationship between students and their institutions, which, in turn, modified campus climates and further shaped the importance and nature of the role of the VPSA. At this point, certain universities began to allow students more freedom in relation to their conduct and social matters. While students enjoyed this freedom, public entities continued to debate the responsibility of college campuses for managing student conduct. This is consistent with the findings of this study.

However, there is more work to be done. As noted previously, future research would need to consider the limitations noted above, seek out an even larger sample group, and possibly edit the list of *Q*-sort statements to increase their utility for analysis. Those analyses could then be used to guide the statistical techniques of that future work. While none of these proposed changes are unique to this study, they represent logical and necessary steps for any researcher to take in response to an initial published investigation of research questions or hypotheses. It might also be of interest for future studies to focus on qualitative analyses of open response items, which could further inform the modification of the current *Q*-statement items or guide creation of completely new ones. Not only are such text-based analyses becoming very popular, but the wealth of information that is collected from them can be looked at and presented in ways that are simply not possible with quantitative data and data similar to that utilized in the current study.

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APPENDIX A

Permission to Use

Randall, K., & Globetti, E. (1992). Desired competencies of the chief student affairs officer as perceived by college presidents. *The College Student Affairs Journal*, 11(3), 54-61.

Permission to use Randall and Globetti article  Ed.D/Ed.D Dissertation x  

 **Brian Bourke** <bbourke@murraystate.edu> 11/21/16   

to me 

Gerald,

I was forwarded a request for permission to use the following article:

Randall, K., & Globetti, E. (1992). Desired competencies of the chief student affairs officer as perceived by college presidents. *The College Student Affairs Journal*, 11(3), 54-61.

This email serves as notification that you have been granted to use the above mentioned article for the purpose of your doctoral dissertation. The permission for use of this article is limited to the doctoral dissertation. Any subsequent publications that might come from the dissertation will require new permissions, likely sought by a publisher. When noting the permission for use, please include *The College Student Affairs Journal*, published by the Southern Association for College Student Affairs.

If you have any questions, please let me know. Best of luck on the completion of your dissertation.

Brian Bourke, Ph.D.
Editor, *College Student Affairs Journal*
Assistant Professor, Postsecondary Education
Educational Studies, Leadership & Counseling
College of Education & Human Services
Murray State University
bbourke@murraystate.edu
(270)809-3588

APPENDIX B

Institutional Review Board Approval

LONG ISLAND UNIVERSITY
UNIVERSITY OFFICE OF SPONSORED RESEARCH
BUSH-BROWN HALL, UNIVERSITY CENTER

NOTICE TO ALL RESEARCHERS:

Please be aware that a protocol violation (e.g., failure to submit a modification for any change) of an IRB approved protocol may result in mandatory remedial education, additional audits, re-consenting subjects, researcher probation, suspension of any research protocol at issue, suspension of additional existing research protocols, invalidation of all research conducted under the research protocol at issue, and further appropriate consequences as determined by the IRB and the Institutional Officer.

TO: Dr. Jeffrey Kane, Vice President for Academic Affairs
Mr. Gerald T. Stannard, Jr., Interdisciplinary Educational Studies

FROM: Patricia Harvey, University IRB Administrator
LIU Post Institutional Review Board



DATE: October 10, 2017

PROTOCOL TITLE: Perceived roles of Vice President of Student Affairs in US Universities

PROJECT ID NO: 17/09-137P

ACTION: IRB Exempt Determination/Approval

Your project submitted has been determined to be an EXEMPT educational methodology or approach as defined in 45 CFR 46.101.b.2:

Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior unless:

- The information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, either directly (e.g. name) or through identifiers linked to the subject (i.e., through ANY code used with the intent of being traced back to the subject.)

AND

- Any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Your approval expires on **October 9, 2018**, unless you submit an appropriate continuation application.

Please note: Revisions and amendments to the research activity must be promptly reported to the IRB for review and approval prior to the commencement of the revised protocol.

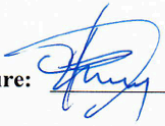


**Verification of Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exempt Determination/
Category Approval**

LIU IRB ID: 17/09-137P

Project Title: Perceived roles of Vice President of Student Affairs in US
Universities

Expiration Date: October 9, 2018

Signature:  _____

Name/Title: Patricia Harvey, University IRB Administrator

Phone: (516) 299-3591
Fax (516) 299-3101
Email Patricia.Harvey@liu.edu

APPENDIX C

Study Instrument

VICE PRESIDENT OF STUDENT AFFAIRS PERCIEVED ROLES SURVEY

Preamble

Dear Colleague:

I am conducting this study as a part of my doctoral dissertation research to better understand your views and those of your fellow Vice President for Student Affairs about the role of the VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities. Your voluntary, anonymous participation in this survey will not only be helpful for my research but also offers you the opportunity to share your views and ideas about your role as VPSA.

In order to respect your privacy, this survey is completely anonymous and voluntary. I cannot and will not attempt to identify you or your institution in my study.

If you choose to participate, my survey should take about 30 minutes to complete. In addition to questions about your role, it also asks you for some general background information. I will only use this background information to compare the views of participants with similar backgrounds and will not share anything about you individually. You will also be asked to give me permission to use your anonymous responses in my dissertation and other publications.

Thank you for taking time to complete the survey. For more information about this survey or my study, you may contact me at gstannardjr@gmail.com or my dissertation chair, Dr. Jeffrey Kane, at jeff.kane@liu.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a subject, you may contact the Executive Secretary of the Institutional Review Board at (516) 299-3591.

Gerald Stannard Jr.
Doctoral Candidate and Study Director
Long Island University

APPENDIX D

SCREENSHOTS OF SURVEY



Long Island University
College of Education, Information, & Technology
720 Northern Blvd, Brookville, NY 11548

Dear Colleague:

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Thank you for taking time to complete the survey. For more information about this survey or my study, you may contact me at gstannardjr@gmail.com or my dissertation chair, Dr. Jeffrey Kane, at jeff.kane@liu.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a subject, you may contact the Executive Secretary of the Institutional Review Board at (516) 299-3591.

Gerald Russo-Stannard, M.S., A.B.D.
Doctoral Candidate and Study Director
Long Island University

▶ **START SURVEY NOW**

LIU Post

Welcome to the Perceived Roles of Vice President of Student Affairs in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey.

The intent of this study is to develop a deeper understanding of the perception of the VPSA role by exploring how its role is construed by current, experienced VPSAs. The VPSA is the senior student affairs administrator in the organizational structure of an institution of higher education, typically classified as the Vice President, Vice Chancellor, Dean of Students, or Vice Provost.

Please click on the continue-button.

Continue...

Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

LIU Post

Introduction

Please maximize your browser for using this application.

Continue...

Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

LIU Post

Step 1 of 5

What follows is a series of brief statements regarding the role of the VPSA. They refer to the responsibilities you assume directly and not to student affairs more generally.

Please read each statement and place it into the pile most consistent with your opinion on the next screen, based on whether you agree with it LESS than other statements, MORE than other statements, or have NO PARTICULAR OPINION about it.

You can just click, drag, and drop the statements into the piles or use the keyboard and press 1,2,3 to move each statement to it's corresponding pile. You can also move them between piles if you want.

THIS IS ALOT EASIER THAN IT SOUNDS, PLEASE GIVE IT A TRY!

Changes can be made later.

If you want to read this instruction a second time, press the Instructions button at the bottom right corner.

Continue...

Least Important (#1) Most Important (#3)

Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

LIU Post

Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

Step 2 of 5

Based on your experience as a VPSA, please sort these statements into the template in the way that best describes what you believe about your role as a VPSA.

Scroll through the MOST IMPORTANT pile, select the TWO statements which you feel are MOST IMPORTANT, and place them in the "+4" boxes. Then scroll through the LEAST IMPORTANT pile, select the TWO statements which you feel are LEAST IMPORTANT, and place them in the "-4" boxes.

Please move the remaining statements into the unused boxes based on your views.

Only part of the statement text will be visible after you move a statement into the template, but you can see the full text statements by hovering the mouse over them. Please make sure all boxes are secured into a pile within the pyramid to move forward within the survey.

The order of the boxes in any of the columns does not matter. You can move cards into any of the columns regardless of their original pile or color.

[Continue...](#)

Least Important	Neutral	Most Important
(1) Formulate, implement and evaluate policies, procedures, programs, processes and systems	(2) Develop Student Affairs budget, including forecasting, planning, and monitoring of expenditures	(3) Administer all matters related to student behavior and discipline




Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

(4) Develop core outcomes for division; measure and track annual performance against objectives

4/48

Least Important (#1)	Neutral (#2)	Most Important (#3)
<p>(1) Formulate, implement and evaluate policies, procedures, programs, processes and systems</p>	<p>(2) Develop Student Affairs budget, including forecasting, planning, and monitoring of expenditures</p>	<p>(3) Administer all matters related to student behavior and discipline</p>




Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

Step 4 of 5

To help better understand your views about your role as a VPSA, please briefly explain why you placed the following statements in the MOST IMPORATANT boxes and LEAST IMPORTANT BOXES.

[Continue...](#)

Most Important (+4)	
0	
0	
Least Important (-4)	
0	
0	



Perceived Roles of VPSA in U.S. Colleges and Universities Survey

Most Important (+4)	
0	
0	
Least Important (-4)	
0	
0	

LIU
Post

Step 5 of 5

You're almost done, but I would like to ask you just a few more simple questions, so I can look for views that shared by VPAS's with similar backgrounds.

Keep in mind that this is an anonymous survey and neither you nor your site can or will be identified.

[Continue...](#)

- Male
- Female
- Transsexual
- Genderqueer
- Genderfluid
- Non-gendered
- Agender
- Genderless
- Non-binary
- Trans Man
- Trans Woman

ved Roles of VPSA in
U.S. Colleges and
Universities Survey



Perceived Roles of VPSA in
U.S. Colleges and
Universities Survey

Gender*	
<input type="radio"/>	Male
<input type="radio"/>	Female
<input type="radio"/>	Transsexual
<input type="radio"/>	Genderqueer
<input type="radio"/>	Genderfluid
<input type="radio"/>	Non-gendered
<input type="radio"/>	Agender
<input type="radio"/>	Genderless
<input type="radio"/>	Non-binary
<input type="radio"/>	Trans Man
<input type="radio"/>	Trans Woman

<input type="radio"/> Third Gender
<input type="radio"/> Two-Spirit
<input type="radio"/> Bi-Gender
<input type="radio"/> Transvestite
Age*
How old (in whole years) were you on your most recent birthday?
<input type="text"/>

Race/Ethnicity*
<input type="radio"/> American Indian or Alaska Native
<input type="radio"/> Asian
<input type="radio"/> Black
<input type="radio"/> Hispanic
<input type="radio"/> Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
<input type="radio"/> White
<input type="radio"/> Two or More Races

Your Educational Background*	
Which of the following represents your highest level of education?	
<input type="radio"/>	Doctorate
<input type="radio"/>	Masters Degree
<input type="radio"/>	4-Year college degree in education
<input type="radio"/>	4-Year college degree but not in education
<input type="radio"/>	2-Year college
Your Experience as a VPSA*	
How many years (in whole year) have you worked in as a VPSA?	
<input type="text"/>	
Your current salary as a VPSA?*	
<input type="text"/>	

As VPSA, to whom do you report?*	
<input type="radio"/>	University President
<input type="radio"/>	Chancellor
<input type="radio"/>	Provost/Chief Academic Officer
<input type="radio"/>	Executive or Senior Vice President

Do you hold a tenured faculty position at this time?*	
<input type="radio"/>	Yes
<input type="radio"/>	No

Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Various Executive Tasks*	
Administration	<input type="text"/>
Crisis Management	<input type="text"/>
Direct interaction with Students	<input type="text"/>
Finance	<input type="text"/>
Fundraising	<input type="text"/>
Personnel management	<input type="text"/>
Public Relations	<input type="text"/>

Strategic Planning

Your Previous Work Experience*

Which of the following describes your previous work experience? (Please select all that apply)

- Associate VPSA
- Assistant VPSA
- Dean of Students
- Provost
- Executive/Senior Director
- Director
- Private Sector Executive
- Public Sector Executive
- Professor

University Carnegie Classification*

- Doctoral Universities: Highest Research Activity
- Doctoral Universities: Higher Research Activity
- Doctoral Universities: Moderate Research Activity
- Master's Colleges and Universities: Larger Programs
- Master's Colleges and Universities: Medium Programs
- Master's Colleges and Universities: Small Programs
- Baccalaureate Colleges: Arts and Sciences Focus
- Baccalaureate Colleges: Diverse Fields
- Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges: Mixed Baccalaureate/Associate's
- Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges: Associate's Dominant
- Associate's Colleges: High Transfer-High Traditional
- Associate's Colleges: High Transfer-Mixed Traditional/Nontraditional
- Associate's Colleges: High Transfer-High Nontraditional
- Associate's Colleges: Mixed Transfer/Career and Technical-High Traditional

- Associate's Colleges: Mixed Transfer/Career and Technical-Mixed Traditional/Nontraditional
- Associate's Colleges: Mixed Transfer/Career and Technical-High Nontraditional
- Associate's Colleges: High Career and Technical-High Traditional
- Associate's Colleges: High Career and Technical-Mixed Traditional/Nontraditional
- Associate's Colleges: High Career and Technical-High Nontraditional
- Special Focus Two Year: Health Professions
- Special Focus Two-Year: Technical Professions
- Special Focus Two-Year: Arts and Design
- Special Focus Two-Year: Other Fields
- Special Focus Four-Year: Faith-Related Institutions
- Special Focus Four-Year: Medical Schools and Centers
- Special Focus Four-Year: Other Health Professions Schools
- Special Focus Four-Year: Engineering Schools
- Special Focus Four-Year: Other Technology-Related Schools
- Special Focus Four-Year: Business and Management Schools

- Special Focus Four-Year: Arts, Music and Design Schools
- Special Focus Four-Year: Law Schools
- Special Focus Four-Year: Other Special Focus Institutions
- Tribal Colleges

Demographic Location*	
<input type="radio"/>	Northeast (NY,PA,NJ,CT,RI,MA,VT,NH,ME)
<input type="radio"/>	Midwest (ND,SD,NE,KS,MN,IA,MO,WI,IL,MI,IN,OH)
<input type="radio"/>	South (DE,MD,DC,WV,VA,NC,SC,GA,FL,KY,TN,MS,AL,LA,AR,OK,TX)
<input type="radio"/>	West (WA,OR,CA,AK,MT,ID,WY,NV,UT,CO,AZ,NM,HI)
Institution Location*	
<input type="radio"/>	Urban
<input type="radio"/>	Suburban
<input type="radio"/>	Rural

Institution Type*	
<input type="radio"/>	4 Year, Public
<input type="radio"/>	4 Year, Private for-profit
<input type="radio"/>	4 Year, Private not-for-profit
<input type="radio"/>	4 Year, Religious
<input type="radio"/>	2 Year, Public
<input type="radio"/>	2 Year, Public for-profit
<input type="radio"/>	2 Year, Public not-for-profit
<input type="radio"/>	2 Year, Religious
Institution Size*	
<input type="radio"/>	Associates Degree Enrollment
<input type="radio"/>	Baccalaureate Degree Enrollment
<input type="radio"/>	Master Degree Enrollment
<input type="radio"/>	Doctoral Degree Enrollment

Cost of Tuition*	
<input type="text"/>	
Institution Setting by Percentage*	
Residential Campus	
<input type="text"/>	
Commuter Campus	
<input type="text"/>	

Student Demographics by Percentage*	
In-State Student	<input type="text"/>
Out-of-State Students	<input type="text"/>
First Generation	<input type="text"/>
Minority Students	<input type="text"/>
Students receiving loans or other financial aid/scholarships	<input type="text"/>
Student Pell Eligible	<input type="text"/>

Non-traditional Students	<input type="text"/>
Undergraduate International Students	<input type="text"/>
Graduate International Students	<input type="text"/>
Students who work full-time	<input type="text"/>
Students who work part-time	<input type="text"/>

What is the most pressing issue facing your campus today?*
<input type="radio"/> Health, Wellness, and Safety Issues...
<input type="radio"/> Administrative Issues...
<input type="radio"/> Campus Culture Issues...
<input type="radio"/> Student Learning and Success...
Functional Areas at Institution that are Housed in the Student Affairs Division*
Please report which functional areas at your current institution and housed in Student Affairs.
<input type="checkbox"/> Campus activities
<input type="checkbox"/> Student conduct/Case management (behavioral)
<input type="checkbox"/> Counseling services
<input type="checkbox"/> Orientation
<input type="checkbox"/> Student affairs assessment
<input type="checkbox"/> Career services
<input type="checkbox"/> Student conduct/Academic integrity

<input type="checkbox"/> Wellness programs
<input type="checkbox"/> Disability support services
<input type="checkbox"/> On-campus housing
<input type="checkbox"/> Recreational sports
<input type="checkbox"/> Multicultural services
<input type="checkbox"/> Community service/Service-learning
<input type="checkbox"/> Clinical health programs
<input type="checkbox"/> Commuter student services
<input type="checkbox"/> College unions
<input type="checkbox"/> LGBTQ student services
<input type="checkbox"/> Veterans' services
<input type="checkbox"/> Student affairs research and evaluation
<input type="checkbox"/> International student services
<input type="checkbox"/> Nontraditional-student services
<input type="checkbox"/> Spirituality, spiritual life, campus ministry

<input type="checkbox"/> Student Media
<input type="checkbox"/> Greek affairs
<input type="checkbox"/> Civic learning and democratic engagement
<input type="checkbox"/> Enrollment management
<input type="checkbox"/> Admissions
<input type="checkbox"/> On-campus dining
<input type="checkbox"/> Financial aid
<input type="checkbox"/> Academic advising
<input type="checkbox"/> Campus safety
<input type="checkbox"/> Registrar
<input type="checkbox"/> Intercollegiate athletics
<input type="checkbox"/> Learning assistance/Academic support services
<input type="checkbox"/> TRIO/Educational opportunity
<input type="checkbox"/> Student affairs fundraising and development
<input type="checkbox"/> Women's center

<input type="checkbox"/> Graduate and professional student services
<input type="checkbox"/> Alumni programs
Functional Areas added within the past 5 years?*
<div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 50px;"></div>
Functional Areas removed within the past 5 years?*
<div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 50px;"></div>

What is the percentage of change in Student Affairs Division Expenditures this fiscal year?*

- Increased more than 15%
- Increased 5-15%
- Increased 0-5%
- No Change
- Decreased 0-5%
- Decreased 5-15%
- Decreased more than 15%

Your Other insights about the Role of the VPSA

In the space below, please add any other comments or insights you'd like to share about the role of the VPSA. Your views are important, and I want to make sure you have had the opportunity to express them.

All fields marked with an * are mandatory.

[Continue...](#)



Perceived Roles of VPSA in
U.S. Colleges and
Universities Survey

Submit Data

You've finished the survey. Please submit your data now.

[Submit data](#)

APPENDIX F

Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Participant 1	0.69	0.198	0.276	-0.081
Participant 2	0.579	0.09	0.031	0.348
Participant 3	0.244	0.36	0.141	0.434
Participant 4	0.341	0.057	0.156	0.447
Participant 5	0.405	0.121	0.594	-0.103
Participant 6	0.096	0.048	-0.037	0.311
Participant 7	0.597	0.05	0.4	0.04
Participant 8	0.363	-0.022	-0.036	0.551
Participant 9	0.338	0.223	0.093	0.516
Participant 10	0.35	0.34	0.089	0.247
Participant 11	-0.002	-0.139	0.198	0.57
Participant 12	0.316	0.439	0.158	0.384
Participant 13	0.041	-0.061	0.269	0.723
Participant 14	0.086	0.183	0.041	0.47
Participant 15	0.5	0.257	-0.215	0.298
Participant 16	0.667	0.16	-0.076	0.422
Participant 17	0.08	-0.054	0.595	-0.134
Participant 18	0.672	0.391	-0.166	0.282
Participant 19	0.357	0.112	0.218	0.349
Participant 20	0.053	0.257	0.26	0.444
Participant 21	0.29	-0.097	0.08	0.494
Participant 22	0.007	0.525	-0.118	-0.026
Participant 23	0.403	0.081	-0.194	0.224
Participant 24	0.685	0.199	0.194	0.017
Participant 25	0.371	0.149	0.288	0.148
Participant 26	0.128	0.189	0.218	0.6
Participant 27	0.278	0.338	0.264	0
Participant 28	0.471	-0.056	0.063	0.499
Participant 29	0.771	0.098	0.166	0.04
Participant 30	0.38	0.223	0.068	0.528
Participant 31	0.559	0.437	-0.046	0.164

Participant 32	0.502	0.349	0.213	0.32
Participant 33	-0.114	0.136	0.68	0.1
Participant 34	-0.096	0.294	-0.155	0.502
Participant 35	0.202	0.278	-0.135	0.584
Participant 36	0.215	0.436	0.319	0.115
Participant 37	-0.077	0.568	0.398	0.046
Participant 38	0.493	0.163	-0.14	0.444
Participant 39	0.125	0.124	-0.217	0.354
Participant 40	0.644	0.056	0.245	0.272
Participant 41	0.569	0.059	0.166	0.065
Participant 42	0.436	0.159	0.033	0.128
Participant 43	0.246	0.475	0.046	-0.028
Participant 44	0.502	0.033	0.31	0.419
Participant 45	0.484	0.561	0.356	-0.126
Participant 46	0.694	0.303	0.009	-0.021
Participant 47	0.546	-0.089	0.185	0.318
Participant 48	0.342	0.213	0.333	0.559
Participant 49	0.055	0.073	0.128	0.597
Participant 50	0.139	0.528	0.147	0.376
Participant 51	0.156	0.223	0.171	0.457
Participant 52	0.582	0.253	0.122	0.11
Participant 53	0.221	0.59	0.395	-0.215
Participant 54	0.507	0.009	-0.075	0.505
Participant 55	-0.061	0.348	0.271	0.516
Participant 56	-0.123	0.395	0.325	0.019
Participant 57	0.277	0.314	-0.015	0.141
Participant 58	0.356	0.684	-0.037	0.159
Participant 59	0.163	0.483	-0.102	0.361
Participant 60	0.218	0.475	0.175	0.073
Participant 61	0.712	0.098	0.248	0.083
Participant 62	0.296	0.362	0.264	0.28
Participant 63	0.704	0.223	0.127	0.203
Participant 64	0.422	0.158	0.221	0.385
Participant 65	0.545	0.272	0.392	0.337
Participant 66	0.533	-0.198	0.163	0.52
Participant 67	0.198	0.639	0.15	0.235
Participant 68	0.575	0.195	0.358	0.221
Participant 69	0.009	0.393	0.389	0.304
Participant 70	0.121	-0.183	0.46	0.467
Participant 71	0.248	0.114	0.698	0.055

Participant 72	0.357	0.121	-0.019	0.554
Participant 73	-0.009	0.229	-0.063	0.497
Participant 74	0.247	0.335	-0.174	0.04
Participant 75	0.331	0.385	-0.058	0.535
Participant 76	0.133	0.302	0.114	0.611
Participant 77	0.553	0.202	0.014	-0.083
Participant 78	0.129	0.084	0.398	0.112
Participant 79	0.097	0.527	0.171	0.116
Participant 80	0.33	0.603	-0.259	-0.124
Participant 81	0.43	0.16	0.202	0.434
Participant 82	0.433	0.318	-0.092	0.366
Participant 83	0.364	0.259	-0.084	0.531
Participant 84	0.2	0.58	-0.142	-0.062
Participant 85	0.066	0.662	0.06	0.204
Participant 86	0.089	0.507	0.048	0.42
Participant 87	0.548	0.373	0.351	0.316
Participant 88	-0.262	-0.027	-0.02	0.511
Participant 89	0.31	0.495	-0.184	0.37
Participant 90	0.206	0.428	0.143	0.304
Participant 91	0.421	0.17	0.097	0.242
Participant 92	0.333	0.526	0.372	0.308
Participant 93	0.63	0.088	0.201	0.259
Participant 94	0.124	0.107	0.251	0.483
Participant 95	0.459	0.531	0.32	-0.06
Participant 96	0.354	0.389	0.492	0.017
Participant 97	0.139	0.16	-0.068	0.347
Participant 98	0.2	0.502	0.172	0.236
Participant 99	0.28	0.396	0.387	0.186
Participant 100	0.753	0.133	0.176	0.027
Participant 101	0.526	0.16	0.341	0.402
Participant 102	0.121	0.403	0.105	0.319
Participant 103	0.427	0.081	0.035	0.462
Participant 104	0.517	0.284	0.354	0.21
Participant 105	0.095	0.584	0.231	-0.004
Participant 106	0.211	0.612	0.138	0.197
Participant 107	-0.028	0.144	0.198	0.685
Participant 108	0.698	0.143	0.323	0.257
Participant 109	0.691	0.222	0.046	0.032
Participant 110	0.658	0.245	0.306	0.128
Participant 111	0.519	0.15	0.427	0.338

Participant 112	0.245	0.187	0.254	0.269
Participant 113	0.387	0.262	-0.027	0.56
Participant 114	0.421	-0.159	-0.037	0.546
Participant 115	0.077	0.655	0.097	0.314
Participant 116	0.111	0.576	0.025	0.13
Participant 117	0.577	0.281	0.023	0.293
Participant 118	0.162	0.302	0.712	-0.131
Participant 119	0.435	0.336	0.012	0.214
Participant 120	0.676	0.315	-0.094	0.154
Participant 121	0.368	0.317	0.513	0.007
Participant 122	0.257	0.47	-0.211	0.219
Participant 123	0.123	0.484	0.181	-0.272
Participant 124	0.528	0.223	0.251	0.193
Participant 125	0.267	0.532	0.091	0.316
Participant 126	0.193	0.413	0.123	0.333
Participant 127	0.391	0.443	0.318	0.042
Participant 128	0.247	0.677	0.097	0.077
Participant 129	0.18	0.333	0.311	0.347
Participant 130	-0.032	0.379	-0.024	0.259
Participant 131	0.464	0.367	0.395	0.225
Participant 132	0.284	0.214	0.572	0.13
Participant 133	0.529	0.442	0.318	0.007
Participant 134	0.306	0.163	0.172	0.485
Participant 135	0.14	0.559	0.235	0.336
Participant 136	0.41	0.223	0.061	0.386
Participant 137	0.644	0.032	0.058	0.332
Participant 138	0.589	0.201	0.069	0.304
Participant 139	0.373	0.478	0.347	0.351
Participant 140	0.207	0.507	0.424	0.324
Participant 141	0.201	0.284	0.51	0.242
Participant 142	0.273	0.347	0.396	0.113
Participant 143	0.363	-0.036	-0.176	0.267
Participant 144	0.425	0.067	0.177	0.323
Participant 145	0.109	0.183	0.237	0.607
Participant 146	0.235	0.647	0.093	-0.08
Participant 147	-0.3	0.359	0.258	0.38
Participant 148	0.062	0.365	0.257	0.474
Participant 149	0.313	0.106	0.058	0.272
Participant 150	0.189	0.204	0.171	0.415
Participant 151	0.174	0.367	0.39	0.415

Participant 152	0.187	0.245	0.217	0.468
Participant 153	0.506	0.348	0.221	0.222
Participant 154	0.179	0.429	0.229	0.168
Participant 155	0.536	0.177	0.567	0.291
Participant 156	0.466	0.289	0.141	0.166
Participant 157	0.587	0.114	0.312	0.044
Participant 158	0.244	0.049	0.721	-0.033
Participant 159	0.426	-0.004	0.421	0.53
Participant 160	0.634	0.275	0.387	0.071
Participant 161	0.789	0.24	0.192	-0.157
Participant 162	-0.112	0.539	0.112	0.01
Participant 163	0.274	0.187	0.284	0.197
Participant 164	0.245	0.23	0.19	0.222
Participant 165	0.424	-0.004	0.611	0.101
Participant 166	0.126	0.491	-0.314	0.38
Participant 167	0.147	0.482	-0.008	-0.042
Participant 168	0.59	0.406	-0.09	0.067
Participant 169	0.065	0.408	0.133	0.285
Participant 170	0.466	0.626	0.15	-0.022
Participant 171	0.157	0.542	0.434	0.239
Participant 172	0.475	0.396	0.458	-0.184
Participant 173	0.687	0.188	0.22	0.071
Participant 174	0.55	0.072	0.214	0.484
Participant 175	-0.065	0.553	0.059	0.302
Participant 176	0.129	0.334	0.397	0.059
Participant 177	0.463	0.172	0.478	0.41
Participant 178	0.384	0.083	0.374	0.402
Participant 179	0.662	0.051	-0.028	0.421
Participant 180	0.201	0.576	0.445	0.118
Participant 181	0.247	-0.159	0.34	0.499
Participant 182	0.227	0.393	0.529	0.139
Participant 183	0.211	0.679	0.18	0.201
Participant 184	0.383	0.307	0.596	0.191
Participant 185	0.307	0.367	0.419	0.186
Participant 186	0.275	-0.05	0.234	0.567
Participant 187	0.203	0.254	0.173	0.387
Participant 188	0.282	0.165	0.49	0.319
Participant 189	0.51	0.078	0.343	0.436
Participant 190	0.624	0.066	0.503	0.264
Participant 191	0.158	0.335	0.023	0.263

Participant 192	0.01	0.587	0.172	0.415
Participant 193	0.298	0.476	0.368	-0.017
Participant 194	0.375	0.498	0.332	-0.127
Participant 195	0.384	0.304	0.457	0.266
Participant 196	0.065	0.513	0.186	0.076
Participant 197	0.587	0.103	0.407	0.317
Participant 198	-0.075	0.439	0.366	0.051
Participant 199	0.139	0.179	0.357	0.614
Participant 200	0.171	0.33	0.285	0.346
Participant 201	0.028	0.179	0.384	0.085
Participant 202	0.713	0.054	0.307	0.078
Participant 203	0.482	0.214	0.571	0.206
Participant 204	0.022	0.482	0.269	0.307
Participant 205	-0.073	0.582	0.339	0.125
Participant 206	0.506	0.069	0.562	0.159
Participant 207	0.053	0.398	0.473	0.255
Participant 208	0.087	0.264	0.579	0.229
Participant 209	0.55	0.502	0.319	0.098
Participant 210	0.747	0.278	0.196	-0.284
Participant 211	0.484	0.144	0.224	0.241
Participant 212	0.458	0.384	0.162	0.249
Participant 213	0.406	0.144	0.326	0.269
Participant 214	0.424	-0.106	0.165	0.436
Participant 215	0.341	0.576	0.296	-0.25
Participant 216	0.205	0.068	0.56	0.343
Participant 217	0.649	0.099	0.4	0.304
Participant 218	0.602	0.064	0.416	0.417
Participant 219	0.465	0.4	0.277	0.289
Participant 220	0.309	-0.037	0.73	0.066
Participant 221	0.491	0.371	0.387	0.013
Participant 222	0.554	-0.003	0.433	0.128
Participant 223	0.04	-0.042	0.492	0.133
Participant 224	0.585	0.086	0.416	0.332
Participant 225	0.506	0.425	0.352	0.21
Participant 226	0.277	0.481	0.529	-0.175
Participant 227	-0.12	0.537	0.156	0.193
Participant 228	0.085	0.498	0.403	0.25
Participant 229	0.307	0.622	-0.014	0.134
Participant 230	0.334	0.324	0.214	0.034
Participant 231	0.688	0.106	0.38	0.001

Participant 232	0.386	0.13	0.432	0.042
Participant 233	0.333	0.051	0.219	0.152
Participant 234	0.603	0.207	0.104	0.169
Participant 235	0.638	0.211	0.318	0.113
Participant 236	0.224	0.355	0.343	0.204
Participant 237	0.386	0.314	0.203	-0.397
Participant 238	0.035	0.433	0.13	0.413
Participant 239	0.584	0.193	0.087	0.371
Participant 240	0.675	0.317	0.304	0.133
Participant 241	0.31	0.014	0.698	0.254
Participant 242	0.603	0.064	0.519	0.254
Participant 243	0.571	0.169	0.301	0.277
Participant 244	0.637	0.208	0.474	0.185
Participant 245	0.493	-0.001	0.47	0.078
Participant 246	0.489	0.356	0.25	0.227
Participant 247	0.383	-0.242	-0.047	0.144
Participant 248	0.206	0.37	0.301	0.283
Participant 249	0.041	0.14	0.551	0.305
Participant 250	0.401	0.347	-0.008	0.358
Participant 251	0.019	0.097	0.531	-0.021
Participant 252	0.656	0.001	0.088	0.184
Participant 253	0.355	0.297	0.343	0.244
Participant 254	0.38	-0.198	0.455	0.247
Participant 255	0.655	0.229	0.434	0.061
Participant 256	0.176	0.423	0.58	-0.008
Participant 257	0.388	0.257	0.411	-0.231
Participant 258	0.594	-0.006	0.366	0.19
Participant 259	0.44	0.252	0.336	0.287
Participant 260	0.565	0.13	0.413	0.136

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser
Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 13 iterations.