

FACTORS THAT IMPACT CAREER AND EMPLOYMENT PREFERENCES IN
GRADUATE STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A STUDENT AFFAIRS PROGRAM

By

THOMAS A. ROBERTSON

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In memory of my parents, Bob and Mona Robertson

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“Show me your ways, O’ Lord, teach me your paths; guide me in your truth and teach me, for you are God my Savior, and my hope is in you all day long.”

Psalms 25:4-5

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LIST OF OBJECTS

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following are the definitions of the key terms used throughout this study:

BACCALAUREATE COLLEGES	Defined as those institutions where the majority of degrees conferred are at the baccalaureate level. Teaching is the primary focus in these institutions. Also includes private liberal arts colleges. Examples include Rollins College, University of Tampa, and Palm Beach Atlantic University.
COMMUNITY COLLEGES	Defined as those institutions that primarily offer two-year degrees (i.e. AA, AS) in addition to vocational certificates. Career preparation and university transfer is the primary mission of community colleges. Also includes those colleges named a “state college” (i.e. Florida State College at Jacksonville, Daytona State College, and Palm Beach State College) and offer limited bachelor degrees, typically in high demand fields like nursing and technology.
DOCTORAL GRADUATING UNIVERSITIES	Defined as those institutions where research and graduate education are the primary focus, though a very extensive undergraduate system is also offered. Typically larger of all other schools due to graduate enrollments. Organizationally, these universities are routinely made up of individual schools or colleges within the university structure. Most land-grant universities would fall in this category. Examples include University of Florida and University of Georgia.
FOR PROFIT COLLEGES/UNIVERSITIES	These institutions offer a variety of degrees, including associate through doctoral level. Unlike their non-profit counterparts, these institutions are typically managed or operated by a larger conglomerate with shareholders, and as their name implies, are focused on a return of investment. One of the fastest growing segments of higher education, examples include University of Phoenix and South University.

INSTITUTION TYPE	<p>The classification of American universities and colleges into five categories according to their mission, size, and degree offering. The “basic” 2005 Carnegie Classification was used for the purpose of limiting the number of categories. The five institutional types used for this study include community colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master’s/ bachelor’s colleges and universities, and doctoral graduating universities (Ace, 2008) A fifth category was added by the author to reflect the rapid growth and emergence of for-profit colleges and universities.</p>
MASTER’S / BACHELOR’S COLLEGES / UNIVERSITIES	<p>Typically larger in size and scope than baccalaureate colleges, these institutions are defined as those schools who offer numerous graduate programs primarily at the master’s level in addition to bachelor’s degrees. Limited research is conducted but teaching and service is still the primary focus. Examples include University of North Florida, University of West Florida, Florida International University.</p>
STUDENT AFFAIRS	<p>A profession in higher education that is committed to the development of the whole person by leading, serving, advising, counseling, and educating students. Administrative and functional areas often include but are not limited to academic advising, residential life, leadership programs, new student and family orientation, minority affairs, judicial affairs, career development, student clubs and organizations, student activities, Greek life, and the office of dean of students. Similar terms include student services, student development, and student personnel.</p>

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By

Thomas A. Robertson

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Higher education in the United States is facing a potential leadership crisis. With the average age of campus presidents now surpassing 60 years, many senior level administrators will be expected to retire in the near future, creating a large wave of vacancies (Stripling, 2011). University and college boards are faced with the dilemma of fewer qualified replacements. Even with the current economic conditions postponing many senior administrators' retirement plans, this will only provide a temporary respite from the impending leadership shortage (Mead-Fox, 2009).

To help address this shortage of qualified leaders, colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains. Historically, current presidents have come from the traditional pipeline (i.e. faculty, department chair, and provost), but some Boards are recognizing the benefits of seeking those with experience in student affairs, namely vice presidents of student affairs (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008).

As college enrollment patterns continue to shift, non-traditional institutional types are predicted to continue to grow and expand, requiring additional leaders with

academic experience and skills unique to higher education. This research focused on those factors that might relate to the employment decisions for graduate students in student affairs programs.

The research indicates that the career preference for graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs regarding institution type were baccalaureate colleges and doctoral granting universities. The least selected institutional types were community colleges, the option of “other” which included for-profit schools, and other organizations outside of education (i.e. government, non-profits, and business). Over two thirds of those selecting doctoral granting institutions as their preferred place of employment currently attend a graduate program of a similar type.

Sense of community with the institution, supervisor and colleagues, and salary and benefits were reported to be the most important factors in selecting future employment. Graduate students rated First Year Experience (FYE), leadership development, student activities, orientation programs, and academic advising as the areas of employment they are most interested in pursuing. The position level of director/coordinator level received the highest percentage of responses when asked about what level of position students most like to aspire to.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 will introduce the key points of this research including, but not limited to, the career and employment goals and aspirations of students enrolled in graduate degree programs in higher education and student affairs administration. This research attempts to address how these career and employment findings compare with the changing landscape of American higher education, namely the leadership needs of different institutional types due to current student enrollment patterns. The primary research problem will also be presented along with the purpose of the study, research questions and hypothesis, limitations, definitions, and significance of this study.

Background

The United States has maintained a uniqueness from most other nations by the fact that it has believed that all citizens should have the opportunity to rise to their fullest potential (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). This founding precept has been instrumental in the development and evolution of American higher education. From its beginnings more than 350 years ago to the post-WWII preeminence as a world leader it is today, American higher education distinguishes itself with its wide array of educational offerings for all who choose to further their learning (Eckel & King, 2004). Higher education in the U.S. is as diverse as the students it serves, offering world-class graduate and professional programs from leading research universities, workforce and career development training from colleges, and a plethora of undergraduate programs using a multitude of formats and settings. American research universities have served as a catalyst for innovation, discovery, and knowledge for the world (Cole, 2011).

According to a report by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, one of the greatest strengths of the higher education system in the United States is its diversity of institutions (Komives, Woodward, 2003). This diversity of institutions mirrors the uniqueness and individuality of the students who enroll. The Council for Higher Education (2008) lists over 7,000 accredited colleges and universities in the United States (Betts, Urias, Betts, 2009). Of this total, approximately 4,600 offer degrees at the associate level and above (Almanac of Higher Education, 2011). The 2011 Almanac of Higher Education reports that 74% of those degree granting institutions are classified as non-profit status with approximately 1,200 listed as for-profit. One report projects that by 2015, 10% of all college students will be enrolled in a private for-profit institution (Keener & Campbell, 2009). Supporting this is the fact that the top two institutions in terms of enrollment, according to a 2009 report by the U.S. Department of Education (2011), are University of Phoenix and Kaplan University, both for-profit institutions.

The U.S. Department of Education states that enrollment for all students in 2009, the most recent year of enrollment data, exceeded 20 million students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). In contrast, there were approximately 12 million students enrolled in 1980. In 2009, undergraduates accounted for 17.6 million, according to the report "Condition of Education 2011 (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Projected enrollment for undergraduates is expected to exceed 19 million by 2020. A growing trend that has many implications for institutions is that 35% of all students attend part-time (Almanac, 2011).

Led by the renowned educational reformer and leader, Clark Kerr, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching commissioned in 1967 the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education to tackle the leading issues and challenges facing higher education at the time. What resulted was the awareness of a lack of a system to help further clarify and define the vast number of colleges and universities. In 1970, a system which would become known as the Carnegie Classification was developed and later would be instrumental in institutional research, policy development, and program comparisons (Carnegie Foundation, 2011). The Carnegie Classification functioned with relatively few changes over the next 35 years, until 2005, when the basic system was revised dramatically, reflecting the vastly changing landscape of American higher education (McCormich, Zhao, 2005).

The development of institutional types parallels the changing diversity of the student body, along with new public policy (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Technological developments enabled campuses to utilize and offer new delivery modes of instruction, which afforded more access to higher education for the changing citizenry.

Higher education is faced with numerous challenges in the 21st century. Some of the challenges include changing demographics of both students and faculty, increased pressure for accountability (i.e. evidence of learning, graduation rates), and financial constraints as leaders attempt to balance diminished external funding and double-digit tuition increases (Skinner, 2010). Public support and perception is lukewarm at best. On the international stage, the U.S. once reigned supreme in the percentage of adults with a college degree, but that was a quarter century ago, and one recent report by the

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development shows the U.S. has dropped from 12th to 16th in the world in the percent of young adults age 25-34 having earned a college degree (Washington Post, 2011). This latest report comes two years after President Obama announced his goal of adding an additional eight million new college graduates by 2020 (College Board, 2011).

Another issue that has garnered much attention the past decade is the perfect storm of an aging of current presidents paired with the impending shortage of qualified leaders (Mead-Fox, 2009).

Leadership Shortage

78.2 million Americans comprise what is known as the baby boomer generation, those individuals born between 1946 and 1964 (Leubsdorf, 2006). The impending wave of retirement from the largest generation of the century has alarmed many segments in the American workforce (Schaefer, 2006). Although the current economic downturn has temporarily delayed this expected retirement surge, many organizations representing health care, business, industry, government, non-profit, and education have been diligently strategizing how to prepare for this labor shortfall (Hassan, Dellow & Jackson, 2010). The Bridgespan Group conducted an extensive study of leadership requirements of non-profit organizations with annual revenues greater than \$250,000. They found that by 2016, non-profit groups will need approximately 80,000 additional senior managers and leaders to lead their organizations (Tierney, 2006). This inevitable workforce shortage impacts not only the supply of entry and mid-level workers but also the senior leadership of these organizations who are at risk due to the projected loss of personnel as a result of this mass retirement.

This leadership dilemma has also caught the attention of those in institutions of higher education, as senior level search committees see fewer qualified candidates apply for the presidency of their colleges or universities (Mead-Fox, 2009). In its 20th anniversary report on the college president, The American Council on Education reported that one of their major findings is that due to an aging cohort of presidents, colleges and universities will experience a unprecedented rate of turnover in their senior leadership (2007).

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, there will be an estimated 6,000 administrative positions to be filled annually between 2004 and 2014 in colleges and universities across the United States (Leubsdorf, 2006). The American Council on Education reported in 2008 that a survey of chief academic officers showed that only 30% aspired to be a college or university president (Jaschik, 2009). This is an alarming finding, as a vast majority of first-time presidents served previously as a provost or chief academic officer of a college or university. One executive search firm consultant estimates that at minimum, there will be a 50% turnover among senior administrators, though recent economic changes have postponed the retirement plans of many senior leaders. (Hassan, Dellow, Jackson, 2010; Leubsdorf, 2006).

In addition to the challenge of the impending wave of retirement among senior leadership is the expectation of large faculty retirements as well, many who were hired in the 1960s and 1970s when there was much expansion on campuses. For those who remain and would be viable candidates, many are unwilling to assume the rigor and challenges of leading a campus in today's setting. One survey by the Council of Independent Colleges found that one-third of the chief academic officers did not want to

become president, largely due to the nature of a 24/7 high profile position (Stripling, 2011).

This concern cuts across all institutional types, including community colleges. This issue of an emerging leadership gap has been near or at the top of critical concerns for the past ten years (Shults, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Boggs, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002 and 2006; Duree, 2008.). A larger than normal percentage of the current senior leaders of community colleges will be and are beginning to retire in greater numbers than there are capable replacements ready to succeed them. Many of the 1,200 plus community colleges were established in the mid to late 1960s (Lucas, 1993; AACC, 2008) and now 40 years later, many of the original faculty and administrators who helped establish these colleges are now retiring with fewer replacements available to assume these vacancies. With up to 84% of the current senior level community college administrators planning to retire by 2016, a large percentage of community college search committees will be facing a great void of qualified replacements (Weisman & Vaughn, 2007; Duree, 2008). In addition, a study conducted by Iowa State also showed a decline of 78% of graduates from 1983 – 1997 in community college leadership programs (Nealy, 2008). As the demand for community college leaders will far outweigh the projected supply, many community colleges will look outside the traditional leadership pipeline to hire future leaders for their campuses (Vaughn, 2004; Kelly, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002).

For more than a century, higher education in the United States has been internationally recognized for being a model leader in providing education for all whom so desire (Wingspread Group, 1993). Although the current American university system

evolved from Western European influences, primarily the German Research University and residential colleges like Oxford and Cambridge, one unique aspect of American higher education is the creation and development of the community college (Eckel & King, 2004; Lucas, 2004).

In addition to increasing the potential candidate pool and narrowing the leadership gap, there are numerous benefits of going outside the traditional academic pipeline. One distinctive advantage to this strategy of recruiting outside the academy is to bring in fresh new perspectives to how institutions of higher education are led (Eckel & Hartley, 2011).

Additionally, by looking externally, this approach could potentially help increase the diversity of the current senior leadership profile at American colleges and universities, both in terms of demographics in addition to new approaches to organizational leadership not typically practiced within the academy. Many four-year colleges, in particularly public state universities, have taken this approach over the past 5-10 years by hiring their presidents from the fields of banking, commerce, and government. Broadening the skills and experiences within the senior ranks would be widely applauded, primarily due to the fact that the demographics of the campus student body are becoming more widely diverse. In 2008, the American Council on Education coordinated a group of the leading associations in higher education to address this wave of college presidents retiring, with the specific goal of broadening and diversifying the executive leadership talent in higher education (ACE, 2008). Called the "Spectrum Initiative: Advancing Diversity in the College Presidency," their aim is to promote on-campus leadership development, mentoring opportunities, and successions planning.

As the demand for qualified campus leaders will far outweigh the projected supply, many Boards are developing succession plans for their perspective campuses (Stripling, 2011). One strategy that has recently gained momentum is to search outside the traditional candidate pool to hire future leaders for their campuses. Although studies have shown that most current presidents of colleges and universities have come from the traditional academic supply (i.e. faculty, department chair, provost, etc.), some Boards are recognizing the benefits of seeking those from the student service arena, namely vice presidents of student affairs and deans of students. Senior administrators in student affairs are a potential resource for providing qualified potential replacements (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008, de la Teja, Dalpes, Swett, Shenk, 2010).

Student Affairs

As of 2009, there were almost 3.8 million administrators, staff, and faculty serving almost 18 million students (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Supporting the academic mission of the academy are those administrators and staff who work in the field of student services or student affairs. These professionals, many with advanced and graduate degrees in the field of higher education administration or student affairs, enhance the learning goals and objectives of their respective schools by assisting students in and outside the classroom. Student affairs personnel represent many areas of responsibility and include, but are not limited to, admissions, academic advising, counseling, disability services, intramurals, career development, residential life, orientation programs, leadership development, health services, international students, student clubs, organizations, student government, and Greek life. Like many other professions who in their infancy were generalists, managing multiple roles and tasks,

student affairs has fragmented and divided over the past half century into many specialty sub-fields. In recent years, in part due to the shrinking availability of qualified replacements, senior level administrators of student affairs, vice presidents and deans, have been selected to assume presidencies. Though historically the majority of college presidents come from the traditional pipeline of faculty member, department chair, academic dean, provost, and then president, more Boards are looking outside of this traditional pathway and selecting student affairs leaders.

Chapter 2 will go into more depth on the history and development of the student affairs profession, along with its current role and issues.

Statement of the Problem

Higher education in the United States is facing a potential leadership crisis. As the average age of a campus leader is now surpassing 60 years, many presidents and other senior level administrators are preparing to retire. University and college boards are faced with the dilemma of fewer available and qualified replacements (Stripling, 2011, Skinner, 2010, Campbell 2002, Boggs 2002, Shults 2001). In addition to the dearth of senior level administrators, there are also fewer faculty available to step in with the necessary skill sets and qualifications for administrative roles, as they are also selecting retirement (King, 2008). In addition, those faculty who are qualified and remain, realize the rigors and challenges facing today's president are not worth the stress and turmoil.

To help address this shortage of qualified leaders, colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains. Senior administrators in student affairs are a potential resource for providing qualified potential replacements (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008). Many senior level student affairs

administrators obtain their formal education and training in graduate programs in student development, student affairs, higher education, or similar. As college enrollment patterns continue to shift, non-traditional institutional types are predicted to continue to grow and expand, thus requiring leaders with academic experience and skills in higher education. This research will focus on factors that might relate to the employment decisions for graduate students in student affairs programs, in particular as it relates to institutional type and choice of field.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to determine the employment trends and plans of current graduate students pursuing a career in higher education and/or student affairs. The results of this study may provide further insight into how future employment choice is supportive of the changing demographics of higher education, particularly institutional types.

Research Questions

1. Which institutional type is most preferred by student affairs graduate students for employment?
2. Does the institutional type where graduate students enroll impact the type of institution where students prefer to work?
3. What factors might be related to institutional type for future employment for graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs?
4. What career fields within higher education are graduate students in student affairs programs most interested in pursuing?
5. What position levels do student affairs graduate students aspire to?
6. Which experiences are most important for student affairs graduate students when considering future employment in higher education? What experiences were least important?

Research Hypothesis

- H1: There is no difference in employment preference by institutional type for student affairs graduate students.
- H2: There is no difference in the type of institution one attends graduate school and the preferred institution type for employment.
- H3: There is no difference found in select factors impacting employment preference by graduate students.
- H4: There is no difference in career fields preferred by student affairs graduate students regarding their future employment.
- H5: There is no difference in position levels that graduate students aspire to.
- H6: There is no difference in the importance of experiences / influences for student affairs graduate students when considering institution type for future employment.

Significance of Study

With much attention and resources given to the impending leadership shortage in higher education, the results of this study may provide an insight into where future leaders in higher education are aspiring to serve as it relates to institution type and specialty area. Depending on the results of this study, greater awareness and exposure to other opportunities within higher education for current graduate students may be beneficial in helping address the leadership gap issue.

The review of the literature revealed numerous studies and research targeting the predicted leadership gap. Some also highlighted different strategies being implemented to address this issue, from the development of in-house leadership programs and succession planning, to seeking applicants from non-traditional backgrounds like business, industry, and government (Eckel & Hartley, 2011). The literature, however, did not show much in terms of career and employment plans for graduate students enrolled in student affairs related programs or similar. This study,

although regional in scope, sought to determine factors that might be related to one's employment goals in higher education.

Limitations

Creswell (2005) describes limitations as potential concerns or weaknesses with the design, implementation, and analysis of a research study. These limitations can threaten the internal validity and skew the results of the research. One primary limitation is the survey instrument developed and administered for this study. To obtain further clarity and reduce ambiguity of the instrument, numerous revisions of the survey instrument were completed using expert reviews, focus groups, and the administering of a preliminary pilot study. Consequently, the lack of establishing a valid and reliable instrument is still present. Due to the method in which the instrument was administered, there is potential for inconsistency of the results due to variability in how the survey was administered and interpreted. Chapter 3 describes in further detail the methodology used in this study.

Delimitations

One of the delimitations of this study involves external validity. External validity is the extent to which the findings of a particular study can be generalized to a group of people other than those observed in the study (Shavelson, 1995). The sample size (N = 347) was taken from a 15 state region of the southern United States.

Conclusion

This paper is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the issues and problem to be researched, along with the research questions and hypothesis. Chapter 2 takes an in-depth review of the pertinent literature that addresses the research problem and provides a framework and understanding of the

major issues and sub issues involved. Chapter 3 provides a clear outline of the methodology used to carry out this research, along with a description of the population and sample. A history of the development of the survey instrument is also explained in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 shares the data and research results, in addition to analysis of the data obtained and any themes. Each of the research questions and hypothesis are also discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 summarizes the findings and implications and suggests opportunities for further research in this area.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

In Chapter 1 it was stated that one of the distinctions of American culture and our society is the long-standing belief and value that everyone has a right to grow to his or her fullest potential. This is reflected in the American higher education system, where everyone is provided the opportunity to pursue his or her education and training beyond high school. This is largely due to the creation and development of multiple institutional types that reflect the wide diversity and needs of students. For much of the twentieth century, American higher education was the global benchmark for quality, access, attainment, and graduate research. In what seems like overnight, this is no longer the case, and American higher education is faced with numerous challenges, including declining funding, accountability, graduation rates, and a potential leadership shortage. The 2011 Almanac of Higher Education reported in a survey that 70% of current presidents rated higher education in the U.S. as either “one of the best” or “the best” when compared to the rest of the world. When the same group of presidents was asked to make the same comparison in ten years that percentage drops to 53% (2011). According to the U.S. Department of Education, more than 20 million students are currently enrolled in one of the approximate 4,600 colleges and universities. Serving these students are almost 3.8 million staff, faculty, and administrators (IES, 2009). Thousands of these employees are student affairs professionals, whose aim and mission is to help students successfully navigate through the often overwhelming maze of higher education as they reach their educational, personal, and career goals. This chapter will provide an overview of the current literature as it relates to the career and employment preferences of graduate students enrolled in student affairs or higher

education programs and how this might impact the projected leadership shortages in American higher education. Chapter 2 is divided into the following four general headings: (a) statement of the problem (b) history of student affairs (c) classification of higher education and (d) leadership shortage. To illustrate a research rationale for this proposed study, a summary will conclude at the end of Chapter 2.

Statement of the Problem

A potential leadership crisis is facing Higher education in the United States. One part of the problem is the aging of current senior leaders. A vast majority of campus presidents along with other senior level administrators are preparing to retire as the average age of a campus president is approximately 60 years. This wave of retirement of senior leadership is presenting university and college boards with the dilemma of fewer available and qualified replacements (Association of Governing Boards, 2011, Stripling, 2011). In addition to this projected shortage of senior level administrators, there is also a forecast of fewer faculty who are available to step in with the necessary skill sets and qualifications for administrative roles (King, 2008). Colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains to help address this shortage of qualified leaders, (Eckel & Hartley, 2011). One potential resource for providing qualified potential replacements can be found in senior administrators in student affairs (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008, de La Teja, Dalpes, Swett & Swenk, 2010). Many senior level student affairs administrators obtain their formal education and training in graduate programs in student development, student affairs, higher education, or similar. Non-traditional institutional types are predicted to grow and expand as college enrollment patterns continue to shift. This rapid growth amongst these institutional types will require additional senior leadership and offer emerging

leaders with academic experience and skills in higher education new opportunities. This research will focus on factors that might relate to the employment decisions for graduate students in student affairs programs, in particular as it relates to institutional type and choice of field.

History of Student Affairs

The profession of student affairs consists of those individuals who work in a college or university setting, traditionally in areas that involve the development and education of students outside the classroom and curriculum. One of the leading professional organizations for those who work in student affairs, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), states in their *Standards of Professional Practice*, that “student affairs is a profession which requires personal integrity, belief in the dignity and worth of individuals, respect for individual differences and diversity, a commitment to service, and dedication to the development of individuals and the college community through education” (NASPA, 2011). Two primary assumptions underlying the key values and mission within the field of student affairs include the “commitment to the development of the whole person” and “support the academic mission of the college.” (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

To help gain a better understanding of the scope and role into this 200-year-old profession, it is helpful to first highlight the history and beginnings of our American higher education system, as the two run parallel in their development.

Heavily influenced by both the British undergraduate and German research university model, higher education is relatively young compared to other systems around the world, having begun 375 years ago with the founding of Harvard University in 1636 (Rudolph, 1990, Eckel and King, 2004). The College of William & Mary and the

Collegiate School of New Haven, later renamed Yale, both followed in 1693 and 1701 respectively. Their primary purpose was to educate civic leaders and prepare a learned clergy (Lucas, 2006). The early colleges were referred to as colonial colleges, due to the time period in which they were founded, as well as the heavy influence of the English universities of Oxford and Cambridge (Komives & Woodward, 2003). It is interesting to note that higher education during the colonial years was quite different from how we know it today. One primary difference was the fact that very few actually attended college. From 1700 to 1900, fewer than 5% of all males in the U.S. between the ages of 18 to 22 attended college (Komives & Woodward, 2003). According to the National Center for Education Statistics, in 2009, that percentage had increased to over 40% for both male and females ages 18 to 25 (U.S. Department of Education 2010). This also does not take into account that of the approximate 20 million students enrolled in an American college or university, eight million, or 40%, are adults 25 years of age and older, according to the U.S. Department of Education (2010).

During the colonial college period (1636 – 1750), faculty were responsible for not only the instruction and learning of the students but also maintaining order and discipline outside the classroom. Heavily influenced by the residential model used at both Oxford and Cambridge in England, these early schools were designed for students, faculty, and administrators to live and learn together (Lucas, 2006). The aim of the residential college was to “foster among all students a common social, moral, and intellectual life” (Lucas, 2006). The primary role assumed by the faculty and leaders of the day was “in loco parentis” where the early colleges would serve in place of a parent

in terms of enforcing strict discipline of rules to help develop not only the intellect but the character of the individual as well.

By the late 1700s to mid 1800s, referred to as the antebellum period, extracurricular programs were forming as student activities such as literary societies, debate teams, and campus publications were emerging on campus (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Many equaled the same loyalty and rivalry of intercollegiate athletics (Lucas, 2006). Fraternities and Greek societies followed soon after, much to the opposition of the leaders of the schools.

By the mid latter part of the nineteenth century, a college education was no longer viewed as a way of obtaining social and economic stability for the wealthy and elite (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Access to college was more acceptable for the common man, as women and minorities were gaining admission and creating their own institutions for higher learning. The advent of land-grant schools, due in large part to the passing of the Morrill Act of 1862 and the changing of the curriculum from the classics to a vocation orientation, opened the door to a broader segment of the general population.

Another event serving as a catalyst in the academic landscape was the German university movement, which shifted the focus solely on student learning and had little regard for what transpired outside the classroom (Komives & Woodward, 2003). This influence was also instrumental in the evolution and development of what is now the graduate research university, for which the U.S. is well known. This time period also gave rise to our current collegiate athletics, and related events were also emerging during this time period, with a new interest on health, physical well-being, and life skills.

With the face of the college campus changing rapidly and heading into the twentieth century, a need for new specialists to address the student concerns and needs of this era was apparent. Faculty and presidents no longer wanted or had the time to assume both the curricular duties of the time, along with the added dimension of extracurricular responsibilities. Harvard appointed its first dean in 1870, who besides teaching, was to oversee all student discipline matters and would later include student counseling (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

Another dramatic change in American higher education that helped serve as a catalyst for student affairs was the introduction of the “elective course curriculum,” led by then Harvard president, Charles Eliot. This was in stark contrast to the one size fits all classical course of study that was prescribed to all students. This new approach to scheduling gave rise to the need for academic advising and one of the first duties of the student affairs profession (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

The 1900s saw the birth of a new profession in higher education, as the first dean of men was appointed at the University of Illinois. As faculty were growing more reluctant in overseeing students outside the classroom, students became more self-reliant and were more involved in governance. This transition gave way to the creation of student government and student councils on campuses.

After World War I, many new services were started, such as health services, vocational guidance, testing, counseling, and the office of the registrar. The offering of services for mental health and psychological services soon followed (Komives & Woodward, 2003). The structure and titles given to those in student affairs was as diverse and unique as the schools and mission they worked for. Some common

position titles used included dean of students, director of personnel, social director, and vocational counselor (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

In the 1930s, the American Council on Education appointed a taskforce whose charge was to develop a report on the practices of those in student personnel related activities on college campuses. The landmark report, titled the Student Personnel Point of View (SPPV), was released in 1937 and helped define and shape the profession for many years (Komives & Woodward, 2003). The report highlighted the importance of recognizing and serving the individual differences in each student. It also provided guidance as to how student affairs should be organized and structured on campuses but honoring and supporting the unique missions of each school. The SPPV also provided 23 specific functions that should be provided in each comprehensive program (Komives & Woodward, 2003). In 1949, the SPPV was revised and to this day is instrumental in the development of the philosophical foundation and values of the student affairs profession.

With the rapid growth and specialization of student affairs, numerous professional organizations began to appear. Early in the development of the profession, roles and titles were often divided by gender and race. It was common for campuses to have both a dean for men and a dean for women. Often the dean for women was the highest ranking female on campus. One of the earliest professional organizations for students affairs was the formation of the National Association for Deans of Women, founded in 1916 (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Later, in 1956, this organization became the National Association for Women Deans and Counselors.

Another group, called the conference of Deans and Advisors, organized their first meeting in 1919. This group later evolved into what is now one of the leading national organizations in student affairs, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). Women began joining NASPA in 1926.

Another organization affiliated with student affairs emerged on the scene in the early 1900s. What is now known as The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) began in 1924. This group was initially named the National Association of Appointment Secretaries and later broadened its scope to be renamed the National Association of Placement and Personnel Officers (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Today, the two largest student affairs organizations, ACPA and NASPA, have been holding ongoing discussions that would merge the two leading professional groups into one student affairs organization (NASPA, 2011).

As the student affairs profession began to fragment in both responsibilities and populations served, other organizations began to emerge, recognizing these specializations. New organizations like the Association of College Unions International, National Orientation Directors Associations, and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers were started and are still active today (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Today there are more than 50 organizations associated with the profession of student affairs.

During the time after World War II and through the 1980s, American higher education experienced its greatest rate of growth to date. This rapid expansion of both student enrollment and campus facilities was due in large part to an increase in government funding, primarily in the form of student aid. One of the most influential

legislative acts ever passed affecting higher education was the 1944 Serviceman's Readjustment Act, more commonly referred to as the G.I. Bill. This served as a major catalyst for college enrollments and had a dramatic impact on the rapid growth of the student affairs profession (Komives & Woodward, 2003). Many campuses more than doubled in size due to the return of men and women who had served in the military, as they took advantage of the opportunity to earn a college diploma. With this rapid growth of students, college campuses needed additional faculty, as well as student services staff, to help support the mission of the college and the students that matriculated.

Later, in 1947, the Truman Commission Report was released and called for expanded access for all to higher education and provided additional financial aid, broader curriculums, and most importantly, stimulated the expansion of our community college system (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

Another influential form of legislation, but lesser known than the previous two, was the passage of Title IV of the Housing Act of 1950. With the rapid increase in campus enrollments, literally overnight, the need for food and housing services was immediate. This legislation provided much needed financial resources to build and provide residential halls and dining services, many of which are still in use (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

As the face of the student body at American college campuses was rapidly diversifying, this also impacted student affairs. More personnel were needed and justified to serve the growing student populations and provide new services. In addition, college campuses no longer served *in loco parentis*, also altering the scope and role of those in student affairs.

Most recently, student affairs and higher education have been impacted by more emphasis on accountability, student learning, increases in older, part-time, and international students, technology, and a specialized curriculum with an emphasis on career satisfaction (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

As campus enrollments expanded, a growing diverse student body required a larger variety of services and programs. The addition of new and expanding student services led to a growing need for additional qualified and trained staff. Student affairs has been referred to as the “hidden profession,” due to the fact that there is no specific undergraduate major leading directly to a graduate program and very few who work in the field were aware of this option when beginning their college education (Taub & McEwen, 2006). For the many who work in student affairs, it was not the result of a self-directed career plan but more likely the result of a suggestion by a mentor or a critical incident or experience in college that set the course (Taub & McEwen, 2006).

A majority of practitioners who work in administrative levels of student affairs on a college campus most likely have a graduate degree in the field or similar. Historically, these programs were first developed as a response to the need for specialists in the field of student services and counseling. The first program of study was developed by Columbia University’s Teachers College at the turn of the nineteenth century, and the first Master of Arts degree was awarded in 1914 (Komizes and Woodward, 2003). Today the American College Personnel Association lists over 150 graduate programs, including both master’s and doctoral programs, in college student personnel on their web site (ACPA, 2010). ACPA provides program recognition to those programs that

meet the four criteria as established by the Commission for Professional Preparation (ACPA 2011). The four program criteria include:

1. Program has at least one full-time faculty member.
2. Program has at least four content courses about student services, student affairs, or student development and the college student/environment.
3. Program has at least two academic years of duration.
4. Program has at least one student personnel practicum opportunity (internship) for students.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS) also has a set of criteria for graduate programs in student affairs (Barratt, 2011). CAS's membership is composed of representatives from other professional organizations in student affairs and higher education and its primary function is to develop and assess criteria and standards for areas within these fields. CAS also has established criteria for graduate programs, offering degrees in student affairs or similar areas of study. CAS standards require two years of full-time study and state that each program must contain the following courses: foundational studies, professional studies, and a supervised professional practice experience. Included in these criteria are courses on student development theory, history of higher education, philosophical foundations of student affairs, leadership development, assessment, and research (ACPA, 2011).

Both NASPA and ACPA offer numerous resources to help market the field of student affairs and inform future practitioners. Both associations offer job placement services at their respective national conferences. Hundreds of entry and middle level positions are listed, in which candidates can interview on site with the hiring college or university. Other services offered to help attract potential candidates in the profession include mentoring programs, internship opportunities, and graduate school program

guides and directory information. October is designated “Careers in Student Affairs Month” in an effort to increase awareness and appreciation for the profession (NASPA, 2011). ACPA recently developed a national conference, Next Generation, targeting undergraduates to educate and inform them about the many opportunities in student affairs. Attendees will get an opportunity to meet with current graduate students, faculty in these programs, and current practitioners in the field (ACPA, 2011).

A majority of the research on career paths of those in student affairs has focused on senior level administrators, primarily vice presidents of student affairs or deans. In one study, it was reported that within seven years, 40% to 70% of those who entered the field of student affairs will exit higher education (Ward, 1995). Several factors contribute to this high turnover, including burnout from the stress of long hours, low wages, and limited opportunities for advancement, particularly at smaller institutions. Currently, it is estimated that there are more than 3,500 graduate students enrolled in student affairs or similar programs across the U.S. Many of these students will pursue careers in areas such as: academic advising, admissions and enrollment management, financial aid, career development, student unions, community service or service learning programs, commuter services and off-campus housing, dean of students, food services, disability support services, judicial affairs, Greek life, multicultural services, international students, campus ministry, registrar, residential life, counseling, campus recreation, student government, clubs and organizations, student activities, and women’s centers (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

As the needs and demands of students continue to change, higher education will need to adapt, evolve, and implement new services, methods of delivery, and support programs in order to survive in this more complex market (Komives, and Woodward, 2003). The development of new technologies, growth of on-line and other alternative learning processes, the influx of for-profit institutions, and the growing trend of students as consumers, all play a vital role in impacting the leaders of tomorrow's campuses. With the many changes facing higher education, particularly those colleges and universities experiencing rapid growth, individuals pursuing a career in student affairs and their related services will be in great demand. The next section looks at how the American higher education system has evolved and become more specialized with the many institutional types.

Classification of Higher Education

As described earlier in Chapter 2, up until the early twentieth century, American higher education was very much an elitist institution limiting access based on gender, race, religion, and social class (Eckel, King, 2004). In response to changes in social and public policy, Americans saw higher education as the bridge to living the American dream. Due in large part to the proliferation of community colleges, the G.I. Bill of 1944, and availability of federal financial aid, American higher education began to distinguish itself as it broadened access to all (Eckel, King, 2004).

As more students enrolled and sought a college education, additional programs and colleges began to emerge to meet these diverse needs in the educational market place. Much like the undergraduate programs that have proliferated and fragmented into hundreds of sub-specialties for students to concentrate their undergraduate studies, American colleges and universities have also evolved into many types. These schools

have become specialists in providing students with the area of academic studies as well as academic delivery systems that cater to their wants and needs.

With almost 20 million students enrolled in some form of higher education program, colleges and universities have become as diverse as their students. As U.S. colleges and universities grew more diverse and complex, it became increasingly difficult to govern, conduct research, and develop policy.

The Council for Higher Education Accreditation states that there are over 7,000 postsecondary institutions, including almost 4,500 degree granting colleges and universities (2011). These colleges and universities have typically been grouped in four major categories consisting of community colleges, public four-year colleges and universities, private four-year (non-profit), and the most recent type, the for-profit college. Even within the four groups, there is a great deal of diversification in each category (Eckel, King, 2004). Of the 7,000 plus institutions, 53% are listed as non-profit and 47% as for-profit. Private schools make up 60% and there are approximately 1,200 are community colleges, 105 Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU), 268 Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI)Colleges, and 34 Tribal Colleges and Universities (TCU) (CHEA, 2008).

In 1967 the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, an independent policy and research center, created the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education to assess and study the issues of the day facing higher education (McCormick, Zhao, 2005). It was soon discovered that at the time there was no definitive system to classify the thousands of schools so comparisons and further research could be conducted. By 1970, the Carnegie Commission, led by Clark Kerr,

the former President of the University of California system and developer of the California Master Plan for Higher Education, developed the now famous Carnegie Classification system and in 1973 it was published (Hardy, Katsinas, Bush, 2007, McCormick, Zhao, 2005).

The primary purpose of the new classification system was to allow for fundamental research to be able to compare and contrast universities and colleges using meaningful, analytical, and manageable categories (McCormick, Zhao, 2005, Carnegie Foundation, 2011). The Carnegie Classifications are not rankings and they do not imply quality differences among the various categories (Carnegie Foundation, 2011). Since its conception in 1970, updates have occurred in 1976, 1987, 1994, 2000, 2005, and most recently 2010 to keep current with the changing institutional types. The original Carnegie Classification was not intended to be the definitive institutional classification system, but it was quickly adopted as the default method by higher education researchers as they studied and described differences among American colleges and universities (McCormick and Zhao, 2006). There were other classification models of higher education, but the Carnegie model was the primary system used by researchers, foundations, state systems, organizations, and news media.

The popular U.S. News Rankings have used the Carnegie Classifications since 1983, the first year of the rankings and will for the first time include on-line colleges and programs due to their impending growth and popularity (Wiseman & Young, 2011). Although the system attempted to identify and embrace the diversification of colleges and universities, it had a reverse effect on the diversity of campuses, as many would use the classification system to advance or “move up” the classification ladder to

become one of the doctoral granting research institutions. It was quite common to hear presidents and other academic leaders of regional, liberal arts, or other institutions describe their new mission to become the next premier research school in their region.

In 2005, the Classifications introduced a new multiple-classification model designed to provide more flexibility and accurate measures for research and comparisons among U.S. colleges and universities. The 2010 update had minimal changes to the 2005 classification system, other than updated data. The Classifications uses data from the following resources: U.S. Office of Postsecondary Education, the National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data system (IPEDS), the National Science Foundation, and The College Board (Carnegie Foundation, 2011).

The Carnegie Classification system currently categorizes more than 4,600 higher institutions. The Foundation shows in the 21st century that most of the growth in newly classified institutions has occurred within the private for-profit sector (Carlson, 2011). Compared to 2005, 77% of the almost 500 newly classified schools were private for-profit institutions. Private non-profit colleges accounted for 19% and public schools made up 4% of the recently classified schools (Carnegie Foundation, 2011). Chun-Mei Zhao, who directs the Carnegie Classification system, states “This suggests that the higher education landscape is shifting further away from the traditional method of the liberal arts college.” Further reflecting the changing climate in higher education is the fact that U. S. News & World Report will soon include on-line programs in their annual rankings. Many schools who provide on-line programs are private for-profit (Wiseman,

Young, 2011). This will be the first time in the magazine's history that on-line programs will be ranked extensively.

The 2010 classification update maintains the six parallel classifications that were first introduced in the 2005 update. These sections include: Basic Classification (the traditional Carnegie Classification Framework), Undergraduate and Graduate Instructional Program classifications, Enrollment Profile, Undergraduate Profile classifications, and Size and Setting classification (Carnegie foundation, 2011). The intent of these classifications is to provide different vantage points for comparisons for researchers who require greater flexibility and analytical options.

In the period from 1999 to 2009, campus growth has impacted all types of institutions but none more than the for-profit sector. This new wave of colleges built on the model of serving investors has experienced triple-digit growth during this time period, with a staggering 539% increase in undergraduate enrollment (Almanac 2011). Public colleges and universities grew by 32%, followed by privates (non-profit) at 21%.

Community colleges, both public and private, experienced a 33% increase in undergraduate enrollment. This data indicates the great need for additional faculty, staff, and administrators in all segments of higher education, but none more glaring than the for-profit environment. It can be argued that community colleges are one of the most important developments in American higher education in the past one hundred years (Sandeem, 2006).

Since the development of the very first community college in 1901, founded in Joliet, Illinois, no other segment in American higher education has responded greater to the educational and training needs of the local community and the nation's workforce

(AACC, 2008). Originally, the primary purpose of community colleges, or junior colleges as they were formerly recognized, was to serve as a “feeder” school to the elite and more established four-year colleges and universities (Lucas, 1994), though many community colleges in the beginning were merely extensions of the secondary school system (Cohen & Brawer, 2003).

Some leaders of higher education at the time opposed the new community college concept; particularly those affiliated with four-year liberal arts colleges, as they felt these new community colleges would siphon off some of their prospective students. Other influential leaders of higher education, like Harvard’s president, James Bryant Conant, were supportive of the development of community colleges, as they saw this as an effective way to keep those individuals with “lesser means and ability” out of their public universities (Lucas, 1994). Others believed that in order for their institutions to fully become “true research and professional development centers,” they needed to rid themselves of the responsibility of providing lower division (freshman and sophomore) classes (Cohen & Brawer, 2003).

One prominent and highly vocal supporter of the development of the community college system was William Rainey Harper, the first president of the University of Chicago. More than half a century later, Harper College, a public two-year college in Illinois, was founded with his namesake in honor and tribute for his support of two-year colleges. Regardless of any resentment and opposition, community colleges continued to flourish, even through the Great Depression, while other four-year schools struggled due to lack of public funding (Lucas, 1994).

Soon after World War II in 1948, the Truman Commission served as a catalyst for the further development of America's community colleges by calling for a nation-wide network to serve all people (AACC, 2008). Later in the 1960s, the growth of community colleges rapidly exploded with the addition of over 450 new campus sites serving the educational needs of the baby boomer generation. Many of today's community college campuses were created during this period, providing access to higher education to countless students and employees, many of whom would never have had an opportunity to attend college (Phillipe & Patton, 2000). Today, a community college or an affiliated branch is within proximity to virtually every resident of the United States (Cohen & Brawer, 2003).

More than any other accomplishment, community colleges have been most instrumental in opening the doors of education to those segments of society who traditionally would never have had the opportunity to further their education (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). Currently numbering more than 1200 in the United States, community colleges have evolved into a very vital component of the American higher education landscape, as they provide education to almost half of all students who are currently enrolled in an American college or university (AACC, 2008). Having served more than 100 million students since their beginning, community colleges have distinguished themselves with a unique purpose and mission that focuses on accessibility, affordability, and adaptability to the community of learners they serve. Their doors are open to all, providing access to more than 12 million students and workforce employees (AACC, 2008). In a critical time of reduced state and federal funding combined with

growing enrollments, community colleges are committed to offering quality education at an affordable cost to the American public.

Besides their unmatched commitment to access, community colleges distinguish themselves from their four-year counterparts in other ways as well. The American Association of Community Colleges (2008) reports that more than half of all students who currently attend a four-year university have previously attended a community college. Community colleges are also one of the largest providers of education to the United States military. More than half of all nurses and other first-time health care workers are educated by community colleges (AACC, 2008).

In addition to providing college credit programs and degrees, community colleges have long been recognized for their workforce training programs and their relationship with business and industry. Business and industry continue to utilize the quick response and flexibility of the customized workforce development programs provided by community colleges to train and educate more than five million of their employees. As employee development and life-long learning are essential to the success of most organizations, community colleges have long been the leading provider in workforce training for corporate America (AACC, 2008).

Currently, most community colleges continue to flourish, though they face numerous challenges, including dwindling state and federal resources, soaring enrollments, intense competition from the private sector, and increased scrutiny for more accountability (Phillippe & Mullin, 2011). In addition to these mounting issues, an even more insurmountable challenge looms on the horizon for community colleges - a leadership shortage.

The Leadership Shortage

“Succession is one of the key responsibilities of leadership.”
Max Dupree (1987) (Leadership is an Art).

Between the years 1946 and 1964, there were 76 million people born in the United States. This generation is often referred to as the Baby Boomers (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Another 46 million, labeled Generation X, were born between 1961 and 1981. In 2010, Boomers accounted for more than a third of the nation’s labor force, with an estimated 30 million skilled workers over the age of 55 and eligible for retirement. (Gallagher, 2005; Tutor, 2008). With many Baby Boomers projected to enter retirement between 2008 and 2020, millions of educated and highly trained individuals will leave the work force, causing a tremendous labor shortage, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010). The impending wave of the Baby Boomer retirement has alarmed many segments in the American workforce this past decade. Although the current economic downturn has temporarily delayed this expected retirement surge, many organizations representing health care, business, industry, government, non-profit, and education have been diligently strategizing how to prepare for this labor shortfall (Hassan, Dellow & Jackson, 2010; Karoly & Panis, 2004). This inevitable workforce shortage impacts not only the supply of entry and mid-level workers but also the senior leadership of these organizations who are at risk due to the projected loss of personnel as a result of this mass retirement.

American employers have been preparing for this anticipated shortfall of a skilled workforce due to the impending retirement of the highly trained baby boomer generation (Zeiss, 2004; Gallagher, 2005; U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). One estimate reports that America’s shortage of a trained workforce, those workers with some college

level skills, could increase to more than 14 million by 2020 (Carnevale & Desrochers, 2004). To further complicate the issue, the problem is not only replacing numbers of workers, but also a replacing a loss of knowledge, experience, and leadership (Gallagher, 2005). Another study reports that 50% of all senior level management personnel employed with a Fortune 500 company plan to retire over the next five years (Gregoire, 2006).

However, another viewpoint thinks the impending labor shortage is nothing more than another Y2K scare that will never materialize. This viewpoint argues that other variables not accounted for will offset the predicted work-force shortage, including the fact that Baby Boomers will work longer than previously expected or even some will re-retire. Recently one report indicated that due to economic volatility, 25% of baby boomers plan to never retire (Fram, 2011). This change in work habits is due primarily to the unexpected economic downturn, along with the desire for Boomers to continue to stay active and productive (Maestas, 2004).

Other factors that might counter-balance the labor shortage include legislative changes affecting the Social Security retirement system, age discrimination law, and amendments to the immigration law (Levine, 2008). In addition, although the 76 million workers born between 1946 – 1964 cannot work forever and the group that follows, Generation X, only accounts for approximately 60% of the number of Boomers, the so-called “echo-boomers” the group that follows Generation X, will number 72 million and many are already beginning to enter the workforce (Levine, 2008).

The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that workers over the age of 55 account for 19% of the labor force by 2012 and this same age group will continue to grow at four

times the rate of growth of the overall population (Toosi, 2004). In the United States, 57% of men in the early 1960s plan to still be working for pay, as compared to 71% in Japan, 33% in Germany, and 15% in France (Maestas, 2004).

This shortage of a skilled workforce has also caught the attention of those in institutions of higher education who seek to fill key senior level leadership positions on their campuses (Cowen, 2008). The Bureau of Labor Statistics listed college and university administrators as one of the ten occupations most likely affected by the anticipated Baby Boomer retirement (Schaefer, 2006). It is estimated by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics that over 6,000 jobs will need to be filled in higher education administration by 2014, including at least 50% of senior leadership who will need to be replaced (Leubsdorf, 2006). This pattern is even more significant at the community college level, with projections showing 79% of college presidents will retire in 2012 and 84% by 2016 (Betts, 2009). This is evident as senior level search committees are experiencing the impact of this labor shortage, as fewer qualified candidates apply for the presidency or other senior level posts at their college or university (Mead-Fox, 2009; June 2007). In addition to the impact of a retiring workforce, the American Council on Education reported in 2008 that a survey of chief academic officers showed that only 30% aspired to be a college or university president (Jaschik, 2009). This is an alarming finding, as 40% of currently sitting campus presidents had served previously as a provost or chief academic officer of a college or university (ACE 2008).

In the latest edition of the series on the "American College President," the American Council on Education reported that the 49% of all current presidents were 61 years of age or older, suggesting a large number of upcoming retirements (2010). One

interesting trend found in the report was that the average number of years served as president, 8.6 years, had increased over 25% from the 1986 report, which reported the average tenure of a college president at 6.3 years (ACE 2010). Even with the current economic conditions postponing many senior administrators' retirement plans, the data suggests this will only provide a temporary respite from the impending leadership shortage (Mead-Fox, 2009).

There are other factors besides a shrinking labor pool that are impacting the ability of search committees to fill their senior level positions. One is a shift in society's desire to balance career with personal as individuals now place more value on families, health, and their overall personal well-being. Many who are in line to assume senior level appointments would rather just stay in their current role than assume the rigors and immense challenges provosts and presidents endure on a daily basis (Mead-Fox, 2009, McNair, Duree, Ebbers, 2011).

Another factor that is affecting the ability to fill these leadership positions is the changing duties and scope of many senior level positions (Strom, Sanchez, Downey-Schilling, 2011). The role of the president has changed drastically over the past decade, focusing on external issues of the academy, like fundraising and legislative issues, and less on education and leading a campus (ACE, 2010). The aging of current presidents, similar retirement trends for provosts and other senior chief academic officers, along with the increase in competition for top qualified candidates provide the rationale why college and university boards need to develop succession plans for their respective campuses (AGB, 2011).

Because of the projected mass exodus of the Boomer generation, many of these hard to fill positions will be in key mid-level and senior-level management positions, as well as seasoned faculty at their respective institutions (Campbell, 2006). This is critical, as these positions typically serve as training grounds for future presidents and other senior leaders in academia. Community colleges appear to be even more susceptible to this issue as it relates to their senior level administration. It has been well documented (Evelyn, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Boggs, 2002; Shults, 2001; AACC, 2002; O'Banion & Kaplan, 2003; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007, de la Teja, Dalpes, Swett, & Shenk, 2010) that community colleges are facing a leadership shortage at the executive level, as up to 80% or more of current presidents and other senior administrators prepare to retire by 2012. Although this would appear normal in the natural cycle in the turnover process within any organization, the problem lies in the fact that there are insufficient numbers of qualified replacements waiting in the wings. More than 75% of all current community college presidents have either served previously as a president of another two-year college or had been a senior administrator at a community college (AACC, 2001; Ross & Green, 2000; ACE, 2007). The leadership pipeline that provided the vast majority of community college presidents and senior administrators is no longer as abundant as it once was.

For community colleges, the issue of an emerging leadership gap has been near or at the top of critical concerns for the past ten years (Shults, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Boggs, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002 and 2007, Jun 2007; Perrakis, Campbell, & Antonoros, 2009). Numbering over 1,100 and representing

almost 25% of all American colleges and universities, community colleges are facing leadership shortages of monumental proportions.

The first warning that an impending shortage in the community college leadership pipeline came in 1998 when the Accrediting Commission of Community and Junior Colleges in the Western Region created the Community College Leadership Development Initiatives (CCLDI) in California (Romero, 2004). In 2001, the American Association of Community Colleges conducted the seminal study that reported a large percentage of current presidents and senior leaders would be retiring within the next five years (Shultz, 2001). The report stated, "Community colleges are facing an impending crisis in leadership" (O'Banion, 2007). Shultz and the AACCC (2001) found that almost half of all community college presidents indicated they plan to retire within the next six years. In addition, this report also found that one third of all senior leadership (i.e. vice presidents, provosts, deans) plan to retire as well within the same period of time. This is of particular concern, as one study found that 77% of all current presidents had previously served in as a senior administrator at a community college prior to becoming a president (Amey & VanderLinden, 2002).

An Iowa State University study reported that by 2012, 79% of current president's plan to retire, and this percentage increases to 84% when the timeline is extended to 2016 (Duree 2008). In addition to this report, other senior level administrators also report higher than normal rates of retirement. With more than 75% of community college presidents having served previously as either a provost, president at another community college, or senior academic affairs officer, this scenario sets up a perfect

storm (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). Other projections have placed this rate as high as 84% over the next five years (Weisman & Vaughn , 2007; Duree, 2008).

Community colleges appear to be even more susceptible to this issue as it relates to their senior level administration. In 2011, President Obama announced his plan to award degrees, certificates, and other related credentials to an additional 5 million students by the year 2020 (AACC, 2011). Community colleges are targeted to be the primary resource for these additional students, utilizing their expertise for providing access and quickly adapting new programs. This is most likely in response to the United States ranking 16th in the world, and dropping, for the percent of adults, ages 25 to 34 years, with earned college degrees (deVise, 2011). Combined with this new directive from the President, community colleges have experienced unprecedented enrollment gains over the past eight of ten years. Community colleges have had increases during this time ranging from a low of 3% percent to as high as 17% in annual growth. Student enrollment gains are projected to continue at many community colleges as a result of a number of factors (Boggs, 2004, de la Teja, Dalpes, Swett, & Swenk, 2010). One factor is the increase in the percentage of high school students who plan to attend college, projected at 70% to 80% after completing high school or some equivalent (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, 2005; Lingenfelter, 2007). This trend could increase student enrollments at community colleges by as much as 46% by 2015 (Martinez, 2004).

Unfortunately, huge enrollment increases often parallel diminished state funding (Phillippe and Mullin, 2011). In fact, 32% of surveyed colleges indicated they were unable to enroll all students who had applied, contradicting a landmark value of

community colleges, which is to provide access to all. The California community college system, with more than 70% of all college level students and the nation's largest with over 2.6 million enrolled students, has had to resort to the painful decision to turn away students (Douglass, 2011). In the 2009-2010 year, 140,000 students were not allowed to enroll, and it is estimated that this number will exceed 200,000 as state funding is depleted (Fain, 2012). No doubt this lofty challenge will be a primary issue for the future leadership of community colleges. As a result of this diminished candidate pool, another trend that is gaining momentum is an increasing number of new community college presidents rising from the ranks of senior or chief student affairs officers, typically holding the title of vice president of student affairs (Bullard, 2008; Weltsch, 2009).

With up to 84% of the current senior level community college administrators planning to retire by 2016, a large percentage of community college search committees will be facing a great void of qualified replacements (Weisman & Vaughn, 2007; Duree, 2008). As the demand for community college leaders will far outweigh the projected supply, many community colleges will look outside the traditional leadership pipeline to hire future leaders for their campuses (Vaughn, 2004; Kelly, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002, Perrakis, Campbell, Antonaros, 2009). As a result of this diminished candidate pool, another trend that is gaining momentum is an increasing number of new community college presidents rising from the ranks of senior or chief student affairs officers, typically holding the title of vice president of student affairs (Bullard, 2008; Weltsch, 2009).

From their beginning over 100 years ago, community colleges have dedicated themselves to providing educational and career training for all individuals. This core value on accessibility, along with a focus on responsiveness and affordability, has long been the stalwart trademarks for the American community college mission (Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Lucas, 1994). As more people desire and see the benefit of continuing their education, community colleges have, in their relatively brief history, made a significant impact on the landscape of American higher education. Today, community colleges enroll over 11.5 million students for both credit and non-credit programs (AACC, 2008). This represents almost half of all students who attend a college or university in the United States (Boggs, 2004; AACC, 2008).

To illustrate the importance and uniqueness of community colleges in American higher education, consider that almost 60% of all students enrolled at a community college are part-time, the average age is 29 years, and 39% are first-generation college students (AACC, 2008). The AACC also reports that of all U.S. undergraduates, community colleges enroll 41% of all entering freshmen, 55% of Native Americans, 46% of African American, and 55% Hispanic students. Almost half of all community students receive some form of financial aid, and over one quarter work full-time while attending school full-time (Tirrell-Wysocki, 2009). The average annual tuition for attending a community college is less than one half of the average cost of attending a public four-year university and one-tenth of a private four-year university (Provasnik & Planty, 2008). With an emphasis on access, affordability, and responsiveness, community colleges enroll a very diverse student population, reflective of the communities they strive to serve (Gonzalez, 2012). President Obama charged community colleges with

the goal of educating an additional 5 million students by 2020, furthering the need for additional and effective leadership (AACCC, 2011).

Another factor that impacts this leadership shortage is the fact that only 15% of all full-time faculty at four-year colleges and universities and 15% of community college faculty are under the age of 45 years (Eckel & Hartley, 2011). This is of significance as many faculty enter the senior leadership later in their career. Also contributing to the fewer number of faculty is the current trend of schools hiring more part-time and non-tenured track faculty (Schuster & Finklestein, 2006). This shortage of faculty, due to growing numbers of retirements and part-time or non-tenured track, is critical, as faculty often become deans, provosts, and other academic senior executives that feed the presidential talent pool. The mere fact that 90% of presidents were employed at a community college before becoming a president further emphasizes the concern with losing faculty and other senior administrative staff that previously had supplied the leadership pipeline (Vaughan, 2004). Kubala and Bailey (2001) report the contrary, as their research on community college presidents during the latter 1990s showed the percentage of presidents coming from the academic ranks had decreased from 72% to 56%. Part of this decrease is due to the fact that the role of the community college president is changing and more presidents are coming from outside faculty ranks in areas like development, business affairs, and student services (Strom, Sanchez, Downey-Schilling, 2011).

The major dilemma facing the governing boards of community colleges is that with this large number of leadership turnover, there are limited numbers of qualified replacements that are available (Romero, 2004). This shortfall of qualified and

experienced replacements for senior administrators was referred to as the “leadership gap” (Campbell, 2006). Campbell (2006) also found that this pipeline shortage was not limited to only senior level administrators. Campbell (2006) reported that a similar shortage is occurring, involving many of the entry and mid-level administrative and professional positions that community colleges depend on to provide student services, business functions, and academic support. Many of these administrative and professional positions employ personnel who possess advanced degrees and training, work in highly specialized areas of higher education, and have many years of experience in working in community colleges. Community college presidents reported that they would experience a large loss in current professional staff in the areas of academic, business, and student affairs (Campbell, 2006).

To further compound the leadership shortage facing community colleges is the misleading fact that there are approximately 1,100 community colleges in the U.S. In a “white paper” for the National Council of Instructional Administrators, Steve Katsinas and Ken Kempner (2005) imply that this often reported count of 1,100 community colleges severely underestimates the true nature of the needs of two-year campuses. Their assertion is that many of the nation’s 1,100 community colleges are multi-campus institutions where each campus site has a campus president or provost as the senior administrator. In addition, other specialty two-year institutions, like tribal colleges and for-profit schools, are not typically included in this estimate. They estimate that between 1,800 and 2,400 stand-alone campuses are in need of future leadership (Katsinas & Kempner, 2005). This represents a 50% to 100% increase in the original estimate of the leadership needs for community colleges.

Community college boards are thus faced with a most pressing need for finding qualified leadership and personnel to fill these soon to be vacated senior level positions on their campuses. Ironically, as business and industry leaders have been planning for the anticipated wave of retirement by the baby boomer generation by partnering with workforce development programs provided by community colleges, many of the same community colleges have done little to prepare for their own impending workforce needs. As Tony Zeiss (2004), president of Central Piedmont Community College in Charlotte, North Carolina, stated, “Our community colleges must first address our labor issues before we can expect to assist other employers with their labor problems.”

In response to this leadership crisis, professional associations, community college boards, and other senior leaders have initiated multiple solutions in the past five years (Robinson, Sugar, & Miller, 2010). Some of these include in-house leadership development programs, seminars and workshops sponsored by professional associations, and an increased emphasis on graduate preparation programs with a focus on community college leadership (O’Banion, 2007, Friedel, 2010, Reille, Kezar, 2010).

Soon after the initial report in 2001 by the American Association of Community Colleges, the AACC implemented the first Leadership Summit, with the primary goal of ensuring quality and stability for future community college leaders (Elsner, 2001). In addition, the AACC also generated a national database of all graduate programs in community college leadership, established a Futures Leadership Institute, and developed the Leading Forward Project (Campbell, 2006). The Leading Forward Project, funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, provided community colleges with

exemplary practices on how to develop their own future leaders, based on existing model programs at 16 other community colleges (O'Banion, 2007).

Other short-term leadership development programs include the League for Innovation's Executive Leadership Institute (2006), the American Council on Education's Fellows Program (2006), and the American Association of Community College's Future Leaders Institute (Ashford, 2011). These programs and other similar initiatives are designed to identify, develop, and prepare future community college administrators to lead their campuses. Not only are community colleges having to attract or develop competent replacements, they are also facing the reality of losing irreplaceable years of history, knowledge, and expertise along with the individual (Shults, 2001; McClenney, 2001). Like their business and industry counterparts, having a leadership succession plan is vital to the future success of our community colleges.

Like their counterparts in higher education, business leaders are also faced with the impending dilemma of a shortage of qualified senior leadership to manage their organizations. The average tenure of CEO's at public corporations in the United States is approximately five years (Larker & Tayan, 2011). The turnover rate of corporate CEO's is approximately at 14% per year, much higher than the rate of ten years ago. Unlike their higher education contemporaries, their primary purpose and objective is to make their business profitable for the shareholder and sustainable (Larker & Tayan, 2011). One successful strategy that corporate America has embraced is the development and implementation of a succession plan. Defined as the systematic process of identifying long-term goals, needs of the organization, and integral leadership roles, this formal approach identifies, recruits, and prepares individuals to

assume the future leadership roles within the organization (Fulmer & Conger, 2004).

Rothwell (2005) identifies three key principles in shaping and guiding a succession plan within the corporate environment. They include understanding the organization's long-term goals, identifying workforce needs and trends, and forecasting according to they type of organization.

David Larker, professor in the Graduate school of Business at Stanford University proposes four models to succession planning for a CEO (2011). The four models include:

1. External candidate
2. President and/or Chief Operating Officer (COO)
3. Horse race
4. Inside-outside model

The external approach recruits and hires someone outside the organization. The positives are this individual often comes with proven senior level experience and may already have served as a CEO or president. The downside is they are new to the corporate culture and systems of their new employer.

The second approach simply identifies an internal candidate who is already experienced within the organization and is well known by their colleagues and most importantly the Board of directors. One report shows that 80% of all new CEO's were internal candidates (Parrino, 1997).

The "horse race" model also involves internal candidates but in this approach, two or more candidates are promoted within the organization to senior level roles and then they compete to see who is selected as the new CEO.

The last approach to succession planning in a business setting combines the first two models where the company looks at both internal and external talent and simultaneously evaluates the candidates (Larker & Tayan, 2011). As in most organizational processes, the barriers to effectively implementing a successful succession plan is lack of communication, little or no support from the top of the corporate hierarchy, and little or no involvement from employees (Luna, 2012).

Similar to the business models described above, McMahan and Masias (2009) offer four options for leaders in higher education regarding successful succession planning. They include:

1. Use of a head-hunter or other third-party agency to recruit outside the academy.
2. Recruit others to step in to mid-level positions with the goal of developing them into senior leaders.
3. Identify and develop existing personnel within the organization.
4. Use of interim leaders as a temporary solution.

In addition to the short-term leadership and professional development programs, graduate preparation programs that educate future administrators have been a popular strategy for the past three decades (Watts & Hammonds, 2002). The number of graduate degrees in community college leadership declined 78% between 1983 and 1997 (Shults, 2001; Kelly, 2002). Graduate programs that prepare future community college leaders fall into three categories, according to O'Banion (2007). The first groups of programs are best described as traditional community college leadership programs and include the University of Texas at Austin, Michigan State University, University of Florida, Morgan State University, and North Carolina State University. Unfortunately, this group of schools can only admit so many candidates in their programs and fall far

short of the current need. Worth noting is the fact that at one time, the University of California at Los Angeles boasted one of the premier community college leadership programs in the country. No graduate program focusing on community college leadership exists in the state of California today (Romero, 2004).

The second group is the most prevalent and includes those graduate programs that offer graduate degrees in higher education administration or similar and include one or two courses focusing on community colleges (O'Banion, 2007). Although these programs currently graduate by far the most candidates, they are most likely the least prepared for the uniqueness and challenges of community colleges.

The third category and the fastest growing include those programs that are completely on-line. Some examples of these programs include Nova Southeastern, Walden University, and Capella University (O'Banion, 2007). Although no specific data is available regarding the current number of degrees these graduate programs confer each year, there is no doubt that these programs that prepare future leaders have been unable to keep pace with the current demand (Romero, 2004).

Although graduate preparation programs are readily available, a common complaint expressed is the quality of these programs, as well as whether they serve the needs of the students or are more reflective of the institutions and faculty desires. McClenney (2001) voiced this concern as many of these programs until recently did not accommodate those individuals, usually non-traditional graduate students, who worked full-time and needed flexibility with their schedules. Watts and Hammons (2002) also recommended changes in residency requirements, as well as pedagogical methods currently used. Unlike other graduate programs housed in colleges that benefit from

external funding, these programs for community college leaders are often housed in the schools of education, where funding is sorely lacking (Katsinas & Kempner, 2005). Romero (2004) reported that many universities who at one time offered programs in community college leadership saw the pipeline stabilize and demand wane, so they gradually dropped these programs.

One other strategy that many community colleges is implementing to address the leadership gap is the development of in-house leadership programs or “grow-your-own” (Watts & Hammons, 2002). Tony Zeiss (2004), president at Central Piedmont Community College, refers to this strategy as “attracting, developing, and retaining peak performers.” These customized programs typically target potential campus leaders who are selected, trained, and groomed for leadership positions and can include workshops, mentoring, and internship opportunities.

The University of Florida has conducted research on another leadership development approach which advocates the use of customized instruction based on the individual’s work-style profiling and personal attributes (Campbell, Syed, Morris, 2010). Leadership strategies and skills, along with management techniques, are often the focus of these staff development programs (O’Banion, 2007). The League for Innovation in the Community College offers a model program for leadership development for community colleges to adopt (Watts & Hammons, 2002).

This emphasis on professional and leadership development is not new to community colleges, as some were created as a response to the rapid growth in the 1960s and 1970s of community colleges (Watts & Hammons, 2002). Katsinas and Kempner (2005) identify leadership development in the context of community colleges

as personal and professional growth, expanding the capacity to sustain, grow, and transform organizations dedicated to teaching, learning, and community development.

Some of the factors faced by community colleges that served as a catalyst for the development of these programs included technology advances, increased competition for state funding, and the public demand for accountability (Watts & Hammons, 2002).

Some schools that have gained recognition from their own leadership development programs include Daytona State College, Central Piedmont Community College, College of the Desert in Palm Desert, and Parkland Community College (Watts & Hammons, 2002; Zeiss, 2004).

Another more controversial and less utilized strategy, although implemented by many four-year universities, involves looking outside the traditional hiring strategies and considering leaders from business, K-12 education, and government arenas (Vaughn, 2004; Kelly, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002, Appadurai, 2009; Perrakis, Campbell, Antonaros, 2009). Ironically, this method was quite commonly used by the governing boards of community colleges when they were first developed and is currently used by many four-year colleges and universities (Vaughn, 2004). A majority of community college presidents and other senior leaders were selected from the ranks of public school administrators prior to the 1950s (Schultz, 1965). During most of the 1960s and 1970s, as the number of community colleges more than doubled, a large majority of the newly appointed senior leadership had no prior experience working at a community college (Schultz, 1965). This trend is also not uncommon with four-year institutions, as the American Council on Education reports that 15% of all current university presidents

held a position outside of higher education immediately prior to taking the office of the president (Corrigan, 2002).

In 2000, Amey and VanDerLinden (2007) found that 25% of all community college presidents had at one time worked in public schools (K-12) or the private sector, with the majority coming from public schools. This approach will not only open up alternatives to fill the leadership gap facing community colleges, it also will increase the diversity of applicants and bring a broader set of skills and ideas that have been lacking in the traditional pipeline (Vaughan, 2004; Campbell & Associates, 2002). Although community colleges constitute the most diverse student population, its leadership remains very much a homogenous group, with less than 20% being minority presidents (Weisman & Vaughan, 2007, Perrakis, Campbell & Antonaros, 2009). Regarding gender, women currently represent less than 30% of all community college presidents, according to the American Council on Education (2007). By looking outside the traditional leadership supply chain for qualified replacements, a more diverse candidate pool will be available. Vaughn states, "If we're serious about looking for more minorities, we need to be looking outside the traditional pipeline."

Schein (1992), a noted organizational researcher, suggests that leadership is the fundamental process in which organizations are changed. Some would suggest that the traditional models of leadership are unprepared and insufficient for the types of challenges that organizations will face in the 21st century (Campbell, 2002). Yet many organizations, including community colleges, seem to reuse the same leadership methods and approaches. Vaughan (1989) reported that as many as one third of all current community college presidents were recycled, meaning they served as a

president at another community college previous to their current appointment. Corrigan (2002) later found this percentage to have decreased to 25%, but the fact still remains with many of these current presidents retiring, there will be fewer replacements in the leadership supply chain.

Another factor that will influence the leadership funnel is the need for candidates to possess a broader scope of skills and abilities if they are to successfully lead our two-year institutions into the next century (Kelly, 2002). Lueddke (1999) reported that as community college leaders engage in the next century, new issues and challenges will be on the forefront, including: competition for funding, student population demographics, technology, flexibility in teaching and delivery methods, and global networks for local institutions. Other external factors that will help shape the future community college leader is increased competition from private institutions, external regulation agencies, learning assessment, and faculty resources (Sullivan, 2001). Leadership is critical at all levels of the college to effectively communicate with all members of the organization to create a better learning environment (Shults, 2001). While there are many skills and attributes that senior level leaders of a community college need, there are specific ones that most will agree are essential for a president to be effective in leading their organization. Vaughan and Weisman (1998) state that the essential characteristics of an effective community college leader for the 21st century should include the ability to mediate, possess technological awareness, have a high tolerance for ambiguity, understand and appreciate multiculturalism, and have the ability to forge strong relations. Shults (2001) identified similar essential traits for the senior community college administrator as being able to maintain a unified governing process, being an

effective mediator, being technologically competent, and possessing the ability to solidify community partnerships and relationships.

The American Association for Community Colleges (2001) found in their survey of current community college presidents that those essential skills for future leaders include a spirit of entrepreneurialism, a greater command of technology, and the ability to be more adaptive in today's fast changing educational, political, and economic environment.

Although many new presidents have experienced countless hours of both formal and informal leadership training before accepting their new position, they have expressed a desire to be better trained in the areas of fundraising, budgeting, and working with governing boards (Ross & Green, 2000, Stripling, 2011). Other skills mentioned that future community college leaders need include being cognizant of a growing and diverse student population, being more creative with financial resources in the face of declining state and federal funding, and being adept at collaboration and partnership building (Kelly, 2002; Corrigan, 2002; Ashford, 2011). Besides the emphasis on fundraising and entrepreneurs, a strong foundation and commitment to the community college ideals are important, according to some. This is particularly critical when presidents are lobbying with state and local legislatures or potential donors and business partners (Kelly, 2002). George Boggs, former president of the American Association for Community Colleges, asserts that the new generation of community college leaders needs to be able to defend the core mission, beliefs, and values of community colleges (Kelly, 2002). This can be difficult to understand for those coming outside of higher education, particularly business and industry leaders who may not

share the same belief of open admissions for everyone and a shared-governance model.

The Leadership Summit, created in 2001 as response to the leadership crisis by the American Association for Community Colleges, developed a number of outcomes and strategies to address the leadership shortage for senior community college administrators. These included:

1. Identifying and enticing middle-level managers to become senior-level administrators and presidents.
2. Recruiting new faculty to the field of community colleges
3. Creating a web-based clearinghouse and career center describing open positions and individuals prepared for those positions.
4. Design and implementation of a leadership development database to be hosted on the AACC website. This would include information on the graduate programs offered on community college leadership.
5. Creation of a list of characteristics needed by community college leaders.
6. Identification of essential program content for effective leadership programs (AACC, 2001).

During the 2001 Leadership Summit, sponsored by the American Association of Community Colleges, the taskforce identified a list of specific skills and characteristics that future community college leaders would need to successfully address these and other challenges in the coming years (McClenney, 2001). These skills included a thorough understanding of the community college mission, community and economic development, civic engagement, and a propensity for building coalitions and partnerships with other community leaders. Some of the characteristics the taskforce developed were: promoting vision, values, and mission, strong personal ethics, confidence, flexibility, and an excellent communicator (AACC, 2001).

As community colleges look to other sources for qualified candidates to fill their leadership positions, some suggest that key leaders in student affairs are admirably suited to fill these roles (Bullard, 2008; Weltsch, 2009).

Summary

Looking to the future, college and university leaders will no doubt need to be structured to meet and adapt to a new and continually changing environment (Rowley, 2001; Vaughan, 2000; AGB, 2011). Colleges will need to continue to develop new programs of study or adapt existing ones to meet the needs of the knowledge based economy in which our students will work. This also translates into adapting to new and flexible delivery methods of instruction and learning as demanded by current and future students. A greater emphasis on accountability and assessment is mounting from state and federal legislatures, governing boards, and tax paying citizens. Recent emphasis has been placed on graduation and retention rates along with employment and placement data.

Competition will continue to increase from both the non-profit and for-profit organizations that will offer similar programs in new delivery formats. In addition, they must also look at reaching out beyond their traditional boundaries and addressing the impact of globalization in education (Levin, 2001). Besides the ever-present issues of adequate funding, enrollment patterns, accountability, increased competition, and technology, colleges must also address the challenges of a potential shortage of qualified personnel both at the mid and senior levels.

Further studies show that faculty and other mid-level managers are also retiring at greater than normal rates, thus limiting the supply of potential leaders that has

traditionally provided qualified candidates for these senior level vacancies (Bullard, 2008; Weltsch, 2009).

Some of these new initiatives include leadership development programs and institutes, typically sponsored by professional associations, and in-house programs, where individual community colleges identify, select, and cultivate future leaders.

Some colleges have found new leaders from business, K-12 education, and government agencies. Vaughan and others state that by looking outside the academy, community colleges bring not only a new leadership skill set and vision for our campuses, but also help diversify the presidency that has routinely been dominated by older white males (2006).

Others suggest the potential supply of new replacements is in-house, serving in leadership roles in non-academic departments. Senior student affairs officers, many who are deans or vice presidents, are a capable replacement for future campus leaders (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2010; Sanders, 2011).

This research will attempt to look at specific employment patterns for current students enrolled in graduate student affairs or similar programs. Special interest will focus on which institutional type students plan to work for, in addition to what areas within student affairs. The analysis of the results, explained in further detail in Chapter 3, will also look at what factors are most important, as well as least, in selecting future employment in higher education.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The impending wave of the baby boomer retirement has braced many segments in the American workforce this past decade. Although the current economic downturn has temporarily delayed this expected retirement surge, many organizations representing health care, business, industry, government, non-profit, and education have been diligently strategizing how to prepare for this labor shortfall (Hassan, Dellow & Jackson, 2010; Karoly & Panis, 2004). One estimate reports that America's shortage of a trained workforce, those workers with some college level skills, could increase to more than 14 million by 2020 (Carnevale & Desrochers, 2004). To further complicate the issue, the problem is not only replacing numbers of workers, but also replacing a loss of knowledge, experience, and leadership (Gallagher, 2005). Another study reports that 50% of all senior level management personnel employed with a Fortune 500 company plan to retire over the next five years (Gregoire, 2006). This inevitable workforce shortage impacts not only the supply of entry and mid-level workers but also the senior leadership of these organizations who are at risk due to the projected loss of personnel as a result of this mass retirement.

Purpose

This leadership dilemma has also caught the attention of those in institutions of higher education, as senior level search committees see fewer qualified candidates apply for the presidency of their colleges or universities (Mead-Fox, 2009). The American Council on Education reported in 2008 that a survey of chief academic officers showed that only 30% aspired to be a college or university president (Jaschik, 2009). This is an alarming finding, as 40% of first-time presidents served previously as

a provost or chief academic officer of a college or university (Ace 2008). For community colleges, the issue of an emerging leadership gap has been near or at the top of critical concerns for the past ten years (Shults, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Boggs, 2002; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002 and 2006, Duree, 2008). With up to 84% of the current senior level community college administrators planning to retire by 2016, a large percentage of community college search committees will be facing a great void of qualified replacements (Weisman & Vaughn, 2007; Duree, 2008). Governing boards and other leaders have implemented numerous strategies to combat this impending shortage of qualified leadership for their campuses. Some have developed succession plans with in-house senior leadership mentoring and development programs targeting their own personnel to be future leaders of their college or university. Many of the professional associations like the American Association of Community Colleges and the American Council on Education have established senior leadership training seminars and workshops designed to help foster new senior leadership. The School of Education at Harvard University has long offered a seminar for newly appointed campus presidents to prepare them for what lies ahead in their new and challenging role. Some institutions have explored beyond the academy in business, government, and non-profits for capable replacements in senior leadership.

Another strategy as a result of this diminished candidate pool that is gaining momentum is an increasing number of new college and university presidents rising from the ranks of senior or chief student affairs officers, typically holding the title of vice president of student affairs (Bullard, 2008; Weltsch, 2009).

An additional contributing force behind the predicted shortage of personnel facing search committees and human resource departments is related to the changing enrollment patterns experienced by campuses in the past ten years. Most institutions have experienced growth in their undergraduate enrollments with the for-profit sector leading the way, considerably above all other types, with an over 350% increase during this time period. Are there sufficient student affairs personnel to help support the growing academic mission on our college and university campuses? This research tried to address the above scenarios facing higher education by surveying current students enrolled in student affairs graduate programs to examine their preferences regarding career choice and institutional type as it relates to future employment.

Research Problem

Higher education in the United States is facing a potential leadership crisis. As the average age of a campus leader is exceeding 60 years, many presidents and other senior level administrators are preparing to retire, thus university and college boards are faced with the dilemma of fewer available and qualified replacements (Association of Governing Boards, 2011, Stripling, 2011). In addition to the dearth of senior level administrators, there is also a similar trend of fewer available faculty who are able and willing to step in with the necessary skill sets and qualifications for these senior level administrative roles (King, 2008). To help address this shortage of qualified leaders, colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains. Senior administrators in student affairs are a potential resource for providing qualified potential replacements (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008). Many senior level student affairs administrators obtain their formal education and training in graduate programs in student development, student affairs, higher education, or similar.

As college enrollment patterns continue to shift, non-traditional institutional types are predicted to continue to grow and expand, thus requiring additional leaders with academic experience and skills in higher education to meet the needs of a growing student body.

This research focused on those factors that might relate to the employment decisions for graduate students in student affairs programs, particularly as it relates to institutional type and choice of field. With this in mind, the following research questions were explored for this study.

Research Questions

1. Which institutional type is most preferred by student affairs graduate students for employment?
2. Does the institutional type where graduate students enroll impact the type of institution where students prefer to work?
3. What factors might be related to institutional type for future employment for graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs?
4. What career fields within higher education are graduate students in student affairs programs most interested in pursuing?
5. What position levels do student affairs graduate students aspire to?
6. What factors are most important for student affairs graduate students when considering future employment in higher education? Least important?

Research Hypothesis

- H1: There is no difference in employment preference by institutional type for student affairs graduate students.
- H2: There is no difference in the type of institution one attends for graduate school and the preferred institution type for employment.
- H3: There is no difference found in factors impacting employment preference by institutional type.

- H4: There is no difference in career fields preferred by student affairs graduate students regarding their future employment.
- H5: There is no difference in factors towards making future career decision.
- H6: There is no difference in the importance of factors for student affairs graduate students when considering future employment.

Research Design & Data Collection

Representing 15 states from the southern half of the United States, 55 graduate programs offering a master's level degree in the field of student affairs, college student personnel, or similar, were identified using a database provided by the Southern Association for College Student Affairs (SACSA). The name of the program director or coordinator, along with their e-mail and phone, was recorded. The survey was distributed to 55 graduate programs in the southeastern region of the United States (Appendix B). It was decided to conduct a census of the target population; hence no sampling will be used in this study.

An initial e-mail was sent in October 2010 to each graduate program's coordinator or contact person, introducing the study and its purpose, along with a request to forward the email with the link to the survey to each of their currently enrolled graduate students. One additional follow up e-mail was sent within ten days asking for their cooperation in this study and to increase the response rate. By November 2010, all responses had been received. A total of 352 students, representing 26 schools (47% of the targeted schools), completed the on-line survey, of which 347 were usable for this study. The survey was hosted on Survey Monkey. Because the exact number of the population surveyed is unknown, a response rate is not available.

Research Instrument

A web-based survey, “The Student Affairs Graduate Survey,” was developed by the researcher for this study (Appendix A). After an initial search of both the literature and the Buros Institute of Mental Measurements at the University of Nebraska – Lincoln, for an instrument that assessed career and employment plans and related factors for graduate students, it was decided to develop an instrument for this research. The 18-item instrument was created after multiple changes and updates from a pilot study, conducted in 2006. Face validity was met due to the personal experience and review by the researcher in addition to reviews by other experts in survey development and research. Three faculty members of the School of Education at the University of Florida; Dr. Dale Campbell, Dr. Walter Leite, and Dr. David Miller were asked to review the survey for further refinement. Lastly, a focus group consisting of three currently enrolled graduate students in student affairs from three different institutions was asked to provide feedback on the clarity and ease of use of the survey after first completing it.

The questions used in the survey were developed to address the primary research questions. Due to the changing climate of student enrollment patterns and the growth of non-traditional institutional types, gathering data on student’s interest in institutional types as it relates to their career and employment plans was important. These data were pertinent to research questions one and two. Additional survey questions that focused on factors that potentially impact employment decisions were also included. These factors were developed from responses from the earlier pilot study.

The survey also sought to explore the potential impact of specific experiences graduate students may have encountered on their career and employment decisions.

As a result of the pilot study, the following experiences have shown to have a potential impact; faculty advisors, course electives, previous and current work experiences, internships, were included in the survey.

Of primary interest was the question pertaining to what specific areas of higher education did graduate students appear attracted to as it relates to their employment. The 29 fields selected represented many areas within student affairs or student services (Komives & Woodward, 2003).

Several questions on the survey were directed towards gathering demographic data including gender, ethnicity, and age. Other areas of interest included; estimated years of service planned in higher education, level of aspiration, and plans to relocate out of state after completion of their graduate program.

Pilot Study

A pilot survey, *Community Colleges and Student Affairs*, was developed and administered in 2006 involving 37 universities representing 15 states from the same geographic region of the United States with 270 completing the survey (Appendix C). Twenty universities participated in the pilot study for a response rate of 54%. None of the individuals in the previous pilot study participated in the current research. Although the initial pilot study had a different focus, this pilot study assisted in the validation and refinement of the current survey used for this research. A summary of the demographics of the population used in the pilot study is at the end of Chapter 3 (Table 3-1).

Population:

The targeted population consists of approximately 1,500 graduate students who are currently enrolled in one of the 55 graduate programs in student affairs that are

located in the southern region of the United States. This particular region was selected due to the both the size and access to the prospective programs. The 2010 Southern Association for College Student Affairs (SACSA) graduate preparation program directory was used to identify these programs. SACSA is an independent, regional professional association with a membership of practitioners, students, and faculty who are engaged in the student affairs profession. Encompassing 15 states in the southeastern section of the U.S., (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia) SACSA was founded in 1950 by a graduate student from the University of Auburn as an off shoot from ACPA (McClellan, 2010)

Data Analysis

The majority of the data collected was categorical data or nominal as the data is grouped by differences only as there is no value or ranking differences between the groups. The Mann-Whitney U test was not applicable due to the data not being ranked. Because of the type of data collected, chi-square, a non-parametric statistical technique, was used for the data analysis. The advantage of a non-parametric technique like the chi-square, is that they are safe to use when the assumptions of using parametric techniques cannot be satisfied. The chi-square technique is predicated on the comparison between the expected frequencies and observed frequencies.

When using the chi-square test, one important assumption is that each cell has an expected frequency of five or more. If the chi-square analysis reports that 20% or more of cells has an expected frequency of five or less, the statistical results are

severely compromised. In some cases where this condition is present, the Fisher's Exact Test may be used since this technique has no such assumption and can be used regardless of how small the expected frequency is. The only limitation with using the Fisher's Exact test is that it can only be used on 2x2 tables. For this reason the Fisher's Exact Test was not practical for use in this study. For this analysis, where appropriate, data was collapsed into one category. For example in the category titled ethnicity, there were seven individual choices available for respondents to select which one best identifies their race. Since there were fewer than five respondents who selected three of the choices (i.e. Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American, and Multiracial), these were collapsed into one category and labeled "other."

In addition, contingency tables were also used to indicate frequencies among the different variables. Results from the original pilot study are reported in Chapter 3 although caution should be made with any comparisons or inferences made between the two studies as the survey instrument was altered both in content and focus over the time of development. The survey instrument used for this study is different in both scope and questions from the original pilot study. The data analysis was conducted using SPSS 19.0.

The data analyzed were to determine career and employment plans of graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs. In addition to preferred institution types for employment and career fields within student affairs, other factors were also compared.

Table 3-1. Demographics for 2006 Pilot Study (N=271)

Gender:	Frequency	Percent
Female	190	70.5
Male	79	29.5
Total:	269	100.0
Ethnicity:		
Caucasian	212	78.8
African American	27	10.0
Hispanic / Latino	16	5.9
Asian / Pacific Islander	8	3.0
Multiracial	4	1.5
Other	2	0.7
Total:	269	100.0
Age:		
18-25 years	126	46.5
26-30	51	18.8
31-39	52	19.2
40-49	38	14.0
50 and above	4	1.5

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to survey students enrolled in student affairs graduate programs and to examine their preferences regarding career choice and institutional type as it relates to future employment. Chapter 4 reports on the statistical results of the data obtained from the 347 participants who completed the survey. Research questions were designed to determine the potential relationship between numerous factors and career choice and institutional type as it relates to future employment.

Demographics

There were 347 completed usable surveys out of 352 responses. Women represented 74.4% of the population and males 25.6%. Regarding ethnicity, 80.2% were Caucasian, 10.3% were African American, 3.2% were Hispanic or Latino, 2.9% indicated Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2.3% were Multiracial. Less than 1% indicated they were Native American or other.

Regarding the age of the participants, 65.2% reported their age between 18 and 25 years, 21% were 26 to 30 years, 7.5% were 31-39 years, 3.2% were 40-49 years, and 3.2% indicated they were 50 years of age or older.

Participants were asked about their plans to relocate to another state after completing their graduate program. 65.8% indicated they were planning to relocate, while 34.2% were planning to remain (Table 4-1).

Students were also asked to indicate the degree program in which they were currently enrolled. 94% were in a master's program, 3.1% in a Ph.D. program, 2.3% in a Ed.D. program, and 0.3% were in a specialist or other program.

Regarding the focus of the graduate programs participants were enrolled in, 72.9% classified their program as a student affairs / college student personnel program, 21.9% higher education administration, 4.8% were other, and 0.3% community college leadership.

Doctoral graduating universities accounted for 50.1% of the participants while 49.9% indicated they were currently enrolled at a master's/bachelor's college or university.

Of the students completing the survey, 43.3% attended a doctoral graduating university for their undergraduate degree, 33.6% classified their undergraduate degree as coming from a baccalaureate college, 20.8% from a master's / bachelor's college or university, 1.1% from a community college, and 1.1% from a for-profit college or university (Table 4-2).

Research Questions

Six research questions were developed for this research, with the primary purpose to describe the career and employment preferences for graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs.

Research Question 1

As discussed previously in Chapter 2, changing enrollment patterns on college campuses is impacting the need for additional leadership on non-traditional institutional types. This question asked what type of institution graduate students planned to work for after the completion of their graduate program.

Which institutional type is most preferred by student affairs graduate students for employment?

H₀: There is no difference in employment preference by institutional type for student affairs graduate students.

A total of 347 students completed this question related to institutional type.

Baccalaureate colleges had 118 (33.7%) responses, while 114 (32.6%) students selected doctoral granting universities as their preference. Those institutions classified as a master's / bachelor's college or university were selected by 67 students (19.7%), community colleges had 26 (7.4%) responses and 23 (6.6%) students selected the option of "other," which included for-profit schools and other organizations outside of education (i.e. government, non-profits, and business). A significant difference between the institutional types regarding employment preference was found in graduate students ($X^2 = 121.229$, $p < .001$). The null was rejected. This finding would indicate that students overwhelmingly prefer baccalaureate colleges and doctoral granting universities over all other institutional types including community colleges and for-profits.

This research question also looked at other demographic variables to examine if there were any significant differences on the type of institution graduate students preferred for their future employment. Gender, ethnicity, and age were considered. Gender ($x^2 = 3.189$, $p = .527$) and ethnicity ($x^2 = 9.071$, $p = .336$) both showed no significant differences when related to institutional type for career preference.

Preference to work for a specific institutional type was also compared with the participant's age. In this comparison, the null was rejected, as the analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the age groups of 18 to 25 years and those 26 years of age and older ($x^2 = 9.837$, $p = .043$). The 18 to 25 year old group selected baccalaureate colleges as their number one preference for employment while the 26

and above group gave preference to doctoral granting institutions. The least preferred institutional type for the 18 to 25 year old group was community colleges and the 26 and above cohort indicated that “other” was their least preferred (Table 4-3).

The results would indicate that age of graduate students does have a possible relationship to the type of institution that students prefer to work for. It is possible that the older age group preferred larger doctoral granting universities because they currently are employed at a similar institution and secondly because they may also be enrolled in a doctoral granting institution. Chapter 5 will discuss in more detail these findings.

Research Question 2

Question two examines the possibility of a relationship between the type of institution students currently attend and their preference for employment.

Does the institutional type where graduate students enroll impact the type of institution where students prefer to work?

H₀: There is no difference in the type of institution one attends for graduate school and the preferred institution type for employment.

Baccalaureate colleges were selected by 118 (34.2%) students compared with 112 (32.5%) who selected doctoral granting universities. Doctoral granting institutions were the most preferred institutional type for employment for those students who currently attended a graduate program at a doctoral granting institution with 72 (41.6%) selecting this type.

For students attending a master’s / bachelor’s granting college or university, 69 (40.1%) indicated their preferred type of institution for future employment were

baccalaureate colleges versus 40 (23.3%) who selected doctoral degree granting universities.

Of those students selecting community colleges as their preferred choice for employment, 18 (5.2%) currently attend a master's / bachelor's level institution, compared with eight (2.3%) who attend a doctoral granting university. The analysis of preferred institutional type for future employment and the current institutional type in which the student is enrolled showed a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 19.476$, $p = .001$). The null was rejected (Table 4-4).

The results for question two would indicate that there is a relationship between where a student currently attends graduate school in terms of institutional type and the type of institution one plans to work for. Familiarity with a particular institutional type appears to have an impact on the preference of employment with the same institution type. Chapter 5 will discuss these results further.

Research Question 3

Twelve factors that potentially impact the choice of future employment were identified. These factors include: institution's reputation, familiarity with school or institutional type, campus facilities, institution's mission and purpose, geographical location, opportunity to continue in a doctoral program, student body, supervisor and colleagues, professional development, promotional opportunities, salary and benefits, and sense of community with the institution. Students were asked to rate the importance of each factor as it relates to selecting their next place of employment.

What factors are important regarding future employment for graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs?

H₀: There is no difference found in select factors impacting employment preference by graduate students.

The top three factors identified as those items receiving the greatest percentage of students who indicated they were “very important” or “somewhat important” in selecting their next position were sense of community with the institution, 354 responses (97.7%), supervisor and colleagues, 337 responses (96.8%), and salary and benefits with 334 responses (95.2%). Those factors that were rated as least important included opportunity to continue in a doctoral program, 198 responses (56.6%), familiarity with the institution type, 240 responses (68.8%), and campus facilities with 285 responses (81.4%) (Table 4-5).

When gender and ethnicity were accounted for, none of the twelve factors were found to be significantly different regarding employment choice. When age was integrated in to this analysis regarding factors impacting employment, the only factor that was significant was the person’s familiarity with the school type ($x^2 = 7.515$, $p = .006$). Almost two-thirds (64.0%) of the 18 to 25 year old cohort indicated that this fact was very important compared to 78.3% of the 26 and up age group. This appears to show that age combined with familiarity of the type of school is important in selecting a position (Table 4-6). Older students may be more inclined to prefer the type of institution they have experience with as opposed to the younger age group.

Research Question 4

In response to the diversification of the students they serve, the field of student affairs has splintered into dozens of specialty sub-fields within the profession. This question attempted to identify 29 specialty areas within student affairs and higher education and measure the level of interest of current graduate students.

What career fields within higher education are graduate students in student affairs programs most interested in pursuing?

H₀: There is no difference in career fields preferred by student affairs graduate students regarding their future employment.

Students were asked to rate, according to their level of interest, 29 areas of career fields in student affairs and higher education. Participants were to select one of the following three options; “interested”, “neutral”, or “not interested.” The career field listed as First Year Experience (FYE) ranked the highest with 267 (76.3%) of the students indicating interest in this career option. The other leading areas, ranked in order, include leadership development at 252 (72.6%), student activities with, 237 (67.9%), orientation programs 227 (65.0%), and academic advising, with 204 (58.5%) indicating an interest in this career field.

The fields with the least amount of interest included financial aid, with 214 (61.7%), campus ministry 200 (57.6%), registrar at 191 (54.7%), commuter services 169 (48.8%), adult learner services 162 (46.6%), and disability services and student accommodations at 155 (44.3%) (Table 4-7).

When gender is accounted for, the following career fields showed significant differences; assessment and research ($x^2 = 6.746$, $p = .034$), career services ($x^2 = 11.662$, $p = .003$), adult learner services ($x^2 = 9.161$, $p = .010$), judicial affairs / student accountability ($x^2 = 14.010$, $p = .001$), teaching faculty ($x^2 = 7.400$, $p = .025$), intramurals and campus recreation ($x^2 = 33.242$, $p < .001$), residence life / housing ($x^2 = 11.138$, $p = .004$), student activities ($x^2 = 10.502$, $p = .005$), women’s resources ($x^2 = 38.949$, $p < .001$).

Ethnicity (African American, Caucasian, and other) when combined with interest in career fields, showed significant differences in two areas, international student programs ($x^2 = 18.202$, $p = .001$) and multicultural affairs ($x^2 = 44.271$, $p < .001$).

When controlled for age (18 to 25 and 26 and above), the following career fields showed a significant difference; financial aid ($x^2 = 6.095$, $p = .047$), assessment / research ($x^2 = 8.076$, $p = .018$), student unions ($x^2 = 24.817$, $p < .001$), counseling services ($x^2 = 6.307$, $p = .043$), registrar ($x^2 = 17.998$, $p < .001$), disability services ($x^2 = 8.675$, $p = .013$), orientation programs ($x^2 = 9.024$, $p = .011$), teaching faculty ($x^2 = 9.170$, $p = .010$), residence life / housing ($x^2 = 6.655$, $p = .036$), and student activities ($x^2 = 9.571$, $p = .008$).

Results for gender could be explained due to the fact that some of the above areas have historically been associated with a particular gender. For example males have traditionally filled the roles on a majority of campuses in judicial affairs, intramurals/campus recreation, and career services. Females have traditionally been attracted to such fields with student affairs as women's resources, student activities, and most recently, residence life and career services.

Regarding ethnicity, minority students selected at a higher than normal rate of Caucasian students, those services that typically serve students of color, for example multicultural affairs and international student programs.

Some fields were preferred at a higher rate than others, due to age of the graduate student. Some fields, like student activities, residence life, and orientation programs, due to the nature of their non-traditional work and hours, appear to be more appealing to the 18 to 25 year old cohort. Older students tend to have more preference

to those traditional student services like counseling, registrar, and financial aid. Additional discussion of these results will be addressed in Chapter 5.

Research Question 5

This question examined the position level within an organization students most likely see themselves reaching as it relates to their career.

What position levels do student affairs graduate students aspire to?

H₀: There is no difference in position levels that graduate students aspire to.

Students were asked to indicate which position level they most likely aspired to achieve in their career in higher education. The options included president, vice president, dean, director / coordinator, staff, and faculty. Of the 345 responses, the position level of director/coordinator level received the highest number of responses with 124 (35.7%). The next highest level of aspiration was the position of dean with 99 responses (28.5%), followed by vice president with 61 (17.6%). The position level of staff was the lowest with nine responses (2.6%). The level of president was selected by 28 students (8.1%) and faculty by 16 (4.6%) (Table 4-8).

When level of aspiration is factored in with gender, ethnicity, and age, only gender showed a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 17.385$, $p = .008$) (Table 4-9). Males had a higher level of preference for aspiring to senior level positions, president and vice-president) as compared to females. Females showed a higher degree of preference for the director and coordinator levels. This difference in preferences by gender could be explained by the desire of many professional women to prefer those positions which are less demanding and offer more balance with life and work roles.

Research Question 6

This question attempted to examine specific experiences that may have an impact on the individual's career choice as it relates to institutional type.

Which experiences are most important when deciding the type of institution for future employment? Which experiences were least important?

H₀: There is no difference in the importance of experiences / influences for student affairs graduate students when considering institution type for future employment.

Overall, 267 of the respondents (76.5%) indicated their undergraduate experience was most impactful in deciding on the type of institution they plan to work for upon completion of their graduate program. The next two experiences selected in importance was the category of current job with 265 (75.7%) responses and internships/practicums with 245 (70.0%) (Table 4-10).

When age was factored in, current job ($x^2 = 9.273$, $p = .010$), undergraduate experience ($x^2 = 9.977$, $p = .007$), and internships / practicums ($x^2 = 12.444$, $p = .002$) showed to be significant. Current job was significant ($x^2 = 9.602$, $p = .048$), when controlled for ethnicity. Gender did not indicate any significant difference when compared with factors that impact institutional preference for employment.

Both internships and undergraduate experiences appear to be most important for the 18 to 25 year old cohort in selecting future employment. This could be explained due to the lack of full-time professional experience for this age group, in addition to the timeliness of these experiences, since they are relatively recent in their professional lives. Older students, 26 years and above, would give a higher importance to their current job experience than their younger counterparts.

Summary of Chapter 4

Chapter 4 reports the findings from the survey research conducted focusing on graduate students in student affairs programs and their preferences regarding career choice and institutional type. The appropriate data is reported in tables at the end of Chapter 4.

Question one asked what type of institution graduate students planned to work for after the completion of their graduate program. A significant difference between the institutional types regarding employment preference was found in graduate students and the null was rejected. Students prefer baccalaureate colleges and doctoral granting universities over all other institutional types, including community colleges and for-profits. In addition, the data would indicate that age of graduate students does have a possible relationship in the type of institution in which students prefer to work.

Question two examines the possibility of a relationship between the type of institution students currently attend and their preference for employment. The data show there is a possible relationship between where a student currently attends graduate school in terms of institutional type and the type of institution one plans to work for. Familiarity with a particular institutional type appears to have an impact on the preference of employment with the same institution type.

Question three asked students to rate the importance of twelve separate factors as it relates to selecting their next place of employment. The top three factors selected were a sense of community with the institution, supervisor and colleagues, and salary and benefits. When age is accounted for, familiarity of the type of school indicated a significant difference important in selecting a position. Older students may be more

inclined to prefer the type of institution they have experience with, as opposed to the younger age group.

Question four examined 29 specialty areas within student affairs and higher education and assessed the level of interest of current graduate students. The following fields that received the most interest were First Year Experience (FYE), leadership development, student activities, orientation programs, and academic advising. Gender, ethnicity, and age all showed a significant difference as it relates to level of interest in career fields.

Question five examined the position level within an organization students most likely see themselves reaching as it relates to their career. The following levels received the most responses: director/coordinator level, dean, followed by vice president level. Gender did appear to impact the level of aspiration, as males had a higher level of preference for aspiring to the senior level positions of president and vice-president than female students.

Question six looked at specific experiences that may have an impact on the individual's career choice as it relates to institutional type. Undergraduate experience was most impactful in deciding on the type of institution they plan to work for, followed by current job and internships/practicums. Age and ethnicity were found to show a significant difference when compared to experiences and their impact on employment preference and institutional type. Further discussion of the results, trends, and potential application are addressed in Chapter 5.

Table 4-1. Demographics

Gender:	Frequency	Percent
Female	258	74.4
Male	89	25.6
Total:	347	100.0
Ethnicity:		
Caucasian	279	80.2
African American	36	10.3
Hispanic / Latino	11	3.2
Asian / Pacific Islander	10	2.9
Multiracial	8	2.3
Native American	1	0.3
Other	3	0.9
Total:	352	100.0
Age:		
18-25 years	227	65.2
26-30	73	21.0
31-39	26	7.5
40-49	11	3.2
50 and above	11	3.2
Total:	348	100.0
Relocation Out of State:		
Yes	227	65.8
No	118	34.2

Table 4-2. Current Degree Level, Program Focus, Undergraduate Institution Type, and Current Degree Institution Type

Degree Level:	Frequency	Percent
Master's	329	94.0
Ph.D.	11	3.1
Ed.D.	8	2.3
Specialist	1	0.3
Other	1	0.3
Total:	350	100.0
Program Focus:		
Student Affairs / CSP	256	72.9
Higher Ed Leadership	77	21.9
Community College Leadership	1	0.3
Other	17	4.8
Total:	351	100.0
Undergraduate Degree - Institution Type:		
Doctoral Granting University	152	43.3
Baccalaureate College	118	33.6
Master's/Bachelor's College/University	73	20.8
Community College	4	1.1
For Profit College / University	4	1.1
Total:	351	100.0
Current Degree - Institution Type:		
Doctoral Granting University	174	50.1
Master's / Bachelor's College/University	173	49.9
Total:	347	100.0

Table 4-3. Preferred Institutional Type for Future Employment

Institution Type	Age				Total	
	18-25		26 - Above		Count	Percent
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent		
Doctoral Granting University	69	30.5	44	36.7	114	32.6
Master's / Bachelor's College / University	47	20.8	20	16.7	67	19.7
Baccalaureate College	84	37.2	33	27.5	117	33.7
Community College / State College	11	4.9	15	12.5	26	7.4
Other	15	6.6	8	6.7	23	6.6
Chi-Square	x ² =121.229		df=4		p=.000	
Chi-Square (Age)	x ² =9.837		df=4		p=.043	

Table 4-4. Current Institution Type and Employment Preference

			Institution type currently enrolled.		
			Doctoral Graduating University	Master's/Bachelor's College & University	Total
Please select the institution type you plan to work for after completing your graduate program.	Other (please specify)	Count	15	8	23
		Percent	4.3%	2.3%	6.7%
	Doctoral	Count	72	40	112
	Graduating Universities	Percent	20.9%	11.6%	32.5%
	Master's / Bachelor's	Count	29	37	66
	Colleges and Universities	Percent	8.4%	10.7%	19.1%
	Baccalaureate	Count	49	69	118
	Colleges	Percent	14.2%	20.0%	34.2%
	Community Colleges or State Colleges	Count	8	18	26
		Percent	2.3%	5.2%	7.5%
Total	Count	173	172	345	
	Percent	50.1%	49.9%	100.0%	
Chi-square			19.476 ^a	df=4	p =.001

Table 4-5. Importance of Factors in Selecting Employment

Campus Facilities	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Very Important	94	26.9	26.9
Somewhat Important	191	54.6	81.4
Neutral	47	13.4	94.9
Less Important	15	4.3	99.1
Not at all Important	3	.9	100.0
Total	350	100.0	
Familiarity with School or Institution Type			
Very Important	85	24.4	24.4
Somewhat Important	155	44.4	68.8
Neutral	64	18.3	87.1
Less Important	39	11.2	98.3
Not at all Important	6	1.7	100.0
Total	349	100.0	
Geographical Location			
Very Important	219	62.9	62.9
Somewhat Important	99	28.4	91.4
Neutral	15	4.3	95.7
Less Important	11	3.2	98.9
Not at all Important	4	1.1	100.0
Total	348	100.0	
Institution's Reputation			
Very Important	127	36.4	36.4
Somewhat Important	180	51.6	88.0
Neutral	33	9.5	97.4
Less Important	8	2.3	99.7
Not at all Important	1	.3	100.0
Total	349	100.0	
Institution's Mission & Purpose			
Very Important	169	48.6	48.6
Somewhat Important	146	42.0	90.5
Neutral	23	6.6	97.1
Less Important	8	2.3	99.4
Not at all Important	2	.6	100.0
Total	348	100.0	
Opportunity to Continue in a Doctoral Program			
Very Important	77	22.0	22.0
Somewhat Important	121	34.6	56.6
Neutral	58	16.6	73.1
Less Important	57	16.3	89.4
Not at all Important	37	10.6	100.0
Total	350	100.0	
Professional Development			
Very Important	200	57.1	57.1
Somewhat Important	130	37.1	94.3
Neutral	18	5.1	99.4
Less Important	2	.6	100.0
Total	350	100.0	

Table 4-5. Continued

Promotion Opportunities			
Very Important	173	49.6	49.6
Somewhat Important	145	41.5	91.1
Neutral	20	5.7	96.8
Less Important	8	2.3	99.1
Not at all Important	3	.9	100.0
Total	349	100.0	
Salary and Benefits			
Very Important	184	52.4	52.4
Somewhat Important	150	42.7	95.2
Neutral	13	3.7	98.9
Less Important	4	1.1	100.0
Total	351	100.0	
Sense of Community with the Institution			
1 Very Important	243	69.0	69.0
2 Somewhat Important	101	28.7	97.7
3 Neutral	7	2.0	99.7
4 Less Important	1	.3	100.0
Total	352	100.0	
Student Body			
Very Important	166	47.6	47.6
Somewhat Important	150	43.0	90.5
Neutral	27	7.7	98.3
Less Important	5	1.4	99.7
Not at all Important	1	.3	100.0
Total	349	100.0	
Supervisor and Colleagues			
Very Important	251	72.1	72.1
Somewhat Important	86	24.7	96.8
Neutral	8	2.3	99.1
Less Important	3	.9	100.0
Total	348	100.0	

Table 4-6. Factors related to selecting next position and age

Familiarity with School or Institution Type	Current Age:		Total
	18-25 years	26 and above	
1 Very Important	144	94	238
5 Not at all Important	81	26	107
Total	225	120	345
Chi-Square	7.515 ^a	df=1	p=.006

Table 4-7. Career Interest in Fields Related to Student Affairs

Career Field	Frequency (Interest)	Percent
First Year Experience	267	76.3
Leadership Development	252	72.6
Student Activities	237	67.9
Orientation Programs	227	65.0
Academic Advising	204	58.5
Enrollment Management	174	49.9
Service Learning & Volunteer Programs	160	45.7
Student Union	155	44.5
Multicultural Affairs	150	42.9
Career Services	141	40.4
Residence Life & Housing	139	39.9
Judicial Affairs / Student Accountability	139	39.8
Counseling Services	122	34.9
Alumni Affairs & Development	121	34.7
International Students & Programs	120	34.3
Teaching Faculty	106	30.5
Women's Resources	106	30.5
Greek Affairs	103	29.6
Athletics	102	29.4
LGBT Services	93	26.6
Assessment / Research	90	25.7
Intramurals / Campus Recreation	87	24.9
Health, Drug, & Alcohol Programs	84	24.1
Disability Services & Student Accommodations	62	17.7
Campus Ministry	59	17.0
Adult Learner Services	57	16.4
Registrar	55	15.8
Commuter Services	50	14.5
Financial Aid	48	13.8

Table 4-8. Position Level Graduate Students Aspire To

Position Level	Frequency	Percent
Other	10	2.9
President	28	8.1
Vice President	61	17.6
Dean	99	28.5
Director / Coordinator	124	35.7
Faculty	16	4.6
Staff	9	2.6

Table 4-9. Position Level Graduate Students Aspire To and Gender

		Gender:		
		Male	Female	Total
Other (please specify)	Count	2	7	9
	% within Gender:	2.2%	2.8%	2.6%
	% of Total	.6%	2.0%	2.6%
President	Count	13	15	28
	% within Gender:	14.6%	5.9%	8.2%
	% of Total	3.8%	4.4%	8.2%
Vice President	Count	20	41	61
	% within Gender:	22.5%	16.1%	17.8%
	% of Total	5.8%	12.0%	17.8%
Dean	Count	24	74	98
	% within Gender:	27.0%	29.1%	28.6%
	% of Total	7.0%	21.6%	28.6%
Director / Coordinator	Count	20	103	123
	% within Gender:	22.5%	40.6%	35.9%
	% of Total	5.8%	30.0%	35.9%
Faculty	Count	7	8	15
	% within Gender:	7.9%	3.1%	4.4%
	% of Total	2.0%	2.3%	4.4%
Staff	Count	3	6	9
	% within Gender:	3.4%	2.4%	2.6%
	% of Total	.9%	1.7%	2.6%
Total	Count	89	254	343
	% within Please indicate the position level you aspire to in your career.	25.9%	74.1%	100.0%
	% within Gender:	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	25.9%	74.1%	100.0%
Chi-Square		17.385	df=6	p=.008

Table 4-10. Experiences and Employment Preference

Experiences	Frequency	Percent
Undergraduate Experience	267	76.5
Current Job	265	75.7
Internships / Practicums	245	70.0
Graduate Advisors and/or Professors	198	57.1
Former Employment	186	53.3
Professional Associations	133	38.2
Elective Graduate Courses	104	30

Note: (Age) Current job ($\chi^2 = 9.273$, $p = .010$), Undergraduate experience ($\chi^2 = 9.977$, $p = .007$), and Internships / practicums ($\chi^2 = 12.444$, $p = .002$). (Ethnicity) Current job ($\chi^2 = 9.602$, $p = .048$).

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

The purpose of this research was to examine the employment preferences and plans of current graduate students pursuing a career in higher education and/or student affairs and the potential impact of both experiences and factors on their future career plans. The results of this study provide further insight into how future employment preferences might mirror the changing demographics of higher education, particularly those institutional types who are experiencing rapid growth. Chapter 5 will discuss the results of the study and possible implications for leaders in higher education in addition to recommendations for further research.

As college enrollment patterns continue to shift, non-traditional institutional types and programs, such as for-profit colleges and on-line learning programs, are predicted to continue to grow and expand, thus requiring additional leaders with academic experience and skills in higher education. As the demand for qualified campus leaders is expected to exceed the projected supply, many Boards are developing succession plans for their perspective campuses (Stripling, 2011). To help address this shortage of qualified leaders, colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains. One strategy that has been implemented is the use of current senior administrators in student affairs as a potential resource for providing qualified replacements (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; NASPA, 2010; Bullard, 2008). Many senior level student affairs administrators obtain their formal education and training in graduate programs in student development, student affairs, higher education, or similar and are proven leaders of higher education.

This research focused on factors that might relate to the employment decisions for graduate students in student affairs programs, in particular as it relates to institutional type and choice of field. This study addressed how these career and employment findings compare with the changing landscape of American higher education, namely the leadership needs of different institutional types due to current student enrollment patterns.

The primary findings of the research were:

1. Regarding employment preferences, community colleges are not highly rated as are doctoral granting programs and baccalaureate colleges.
2. Women make up a large majority of students enrolled in student affairs programs thus quality and balance of one's career, life, and family are of great importance as shown in the preference for level of professional attainment.
3. Overall the findings did not support the research indicating student affairs professionals are a viable resource to combat the leadership gap facing higher education.

Demographics

Women represented 75% of the population who participated in this study, which is similar to the composition of most graduate programs in student affairs (Taub & McEwen, 2006). Over the past 25 years, the field of student affairs has attracted more females than males due to the general nature of the profession which has appealed to those individuals with a specific skill set that includes but not limited to caring, empathetic, counseling, and program developer.

Regarding ethnicity, studies have shown that the composition of student affairs programs have historically been under represented, with 8% to 35% of the students in the programs being classified as minorities (Taub & McEwn, 2006). This has long been a concern and challenge for the profession as those in the field of student affairs, particularly ones who have work directly with students, serve as mentors and

professional role models to a student population that has a much larger minority representation. NASPA, one of the leading student affairs professional associations, has developed a number of programs specifically designed to attract ethnic minority students and under-represented groups to the profession of student affairs. Their NASPA Undergraduate Fellows Program is one example and is a mentoring program designed to attract potential students to the field as well as increase awareness to the profession (NASPA, 2012).

Discussion of the Results

Research Question One

As more students enrolled and sought a college education, additional programs and colleges began to emerge to meet these diverse needs in the educational market place. Much like the undergraduate programs that have proliferated and fragmented into hundreds of sub-specialties for students to concentrate their undergraduate studies, the more than 7,000 American colleges and universities have also evolved into many types. These schools have become specialists in providing students with the area of academic studies as well as academic delivery systems that cater to their wants and needs.

As reported in Chapter 4 and shown in Table 4-3, the most selected institutional type preferred for employment was baccalaureate colleges and doctoral graduating universities. This is no surprise for a couple of reasons. First, a majority of the institutions who offer graduate programs in student affairs are classified as doctoral graduating universities. These results would indicate that individuals who are pursuing a career in higher education are seeking those institutions that they are most familiar

with, meaning where they completed their undergraduate education, or where they are currently enrolled in their graduate program, or where they are currently employed.

Although more than half of all students attend a community college at one point in their college education (2011, AACC), community colleges ranked the second to last in employment preference, finishing in front of for-profit schools. It was suggested that more graduate students would opt for working in a community college environment than the results showed due to their experience and exposure.

For-profit schools are a relatively newcomer to higher education but are definitely one of the fastest growing segments of enrolling students. Many programs are on-line or have limited facilities that function primarily as classrooms thus there are limited opportunities for those wanting to work in student affairs and related areas. The limited facilities and lack of support services for enrolled students most likely impacts the level of preference for graduate students.

Gender and ethnicity had no impact on institutional type preference. Age did show a significant difference with students' 18 to 25 years preferring to work in a baccalaureate college while older students, 26 years of age and above, showed a preference for doctoral granting institutions. One explanation for the results related to age could be the fact that larger research orientated universities tend to have a greater number of older students, versus baccalaureate institutions. Another reason for this difference in preferences is that there is a greater number of this group that are employed by doctoral degree granting universities as compared to their smaller counterpart, the baccalaureate college.

Research Question Two

This question relates to question one, in seeking to determine if there is any relationship between the institution type where one currently attend graduate school and the type they prefer to seek employment upon graduation. As shown in Chapter 4, there was a significant difference and the null was rejected. From these results the type of institution the student currently attends does appear to have a relationship with the preferred type of school one wishes to seek employment. More than two-thirds of those who selected doctoral granting institutions, currently attend a similar type of school. This would be expected as people tend to gravitate towards what they are familiar with and or comfortable. These results do not support those institutional types that are growing and are in need of skilled leaders. This reported relationship is important for leaders of other institutional types to appreciate as they need to explore, develop, and implement new strategies to expose this future work source to other career opportunities within their schools.

Research Question Three

This question asked students to indicate how important each of twelve factors were in choosing their next position of employment. The top three of importance as indicated were sense of community with the institution, supervisor and colleagues, and salary and benefits. These results were also supported in the previous pilot study conducted in 2006 as the same three factors were ranked in the top five.

Sense of community in this study was not defined for the survey participants and could be interpreted differently and mean numerous things to an individual. Larger campuses and older and more established research institutions might provide this sense of community to some students through their established time honored traditions,

diversity of both students and staff, and size of the division or department in which one works. In contrast, smaller baccalaureate colleges could provide a sense of community to students who value a more personal campus culture that offers the potential for multiple departments to work and collaborate together more often than larger colleges or universities. Those campuses where a sense of community is not apparent or lacking would have appeared to be less appealing to potential new employees.

Similar to sense of community, the quality of colleagues and supervisors is also of importance and relates to community. How the supervisor and colleagues relate and function as a team is important. Traditionally, larger organizations tend to have more formalized rules, regulations, and structure for employees than their counterparts (Mintzberg, 1989). The smaller campus community can provide a more informal structure and climate for employees which can be more appealing for some. These findings show the importance of institutions to develop and provide adequate support and training for current and future supervisors as their ability to manage and lead successfully will be pertinent to attracting and retaining quality employees.

Those factors that were rated as least important included opportunity to continue in a doctoral program, familiarity with the institution type, and campus facilities. These results were also confirmed with the previous pilot study as all three were ranked the least important with regards to selecting future employment.

Related to the leadership dilemma facing higher education, the low ranking and importance of pursuing a doctoral degree may have some future implications. If colleges and universities are going to look to student affairs leaders as potential candidates for senior level positions, the attainment of a terminal degree has been and

will most likely continue to be a requirement. However this question did not ask specifically if attaining a doctoral degree was important or in one's future plans but if this factor was important in selecting their next position of employment. With the advent and popularity of on-line and distance learning doctoral programs, particularly in education, this may not be a critical factor in attracting potential leaders.

Some of the twelve factors that were presented to the students to rate as to their importance in selecting their next position would be characterized as "maintenance" factors, according to Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (Owens, 1995). Herzberg theorized that maintenance factors were those items that were important to employees and must be satisfied before employees can begin to be motivated to succeed on the job. Some examples include work environment, supervision, salary and benefits, culture of organization, and physical conditions. These maintenance factors are expected by employees and are fundamental expectations that employers need to acknowledge their importance as they attract new employees.

Research Question Four

Students were asked to indicate their interest in 29 career fields related to student affairs and higher education. First Year Experience (FYE), leadership development, student activities, orientation programs, and academic advising ranked as the top five choices. FYE programs, designed to assist college freshmen and new students in their transition to college and university life, have been around for over thirty years. Modeled after University of South Carolina's program, they were first popularized on larger university campuses and later migrated to other four-year colleges. Most recently community colleges have realized their impact and importance to student retention and success and many have adapted FYE programs in their

programs. Because of this proliferation among hundreds of campuses, many graduate students have participated in and/or served as peer leaders in similar programs, thus making it one of the more popular career fields, particularly for younger students.

In the same manner, orientation programs, leadership development, student activities, and academic advising are traditional services found on virtually every campus. It is also common that these services often utilize and involve undergraduate students in leadership roles in the respective departments that provide these services. These undergraduate experiences are a major reason why students select student services as a career choice (Taub & McElwen, 2006). Because of this exposure and the positive nature of the services provided (i.e. orientation and leadership training), these programs tend to be more popular with graduate students pursuing a career in student affairs in particular with the 18 to 25 year old group.

The fields with the least amount of interest included financial aid, campus ministry, registrar, commuter services, adult learner services, and disability services and student accommodations. In contrast to the areas of most interest, these services are highly specialized requiring a specific skill set in addition to serving a targeted group of students. Because of this, fewer students have had exposure to these programs and services, hence they have less appeal. Another possible explanation is that many of these fields are highly regulated by federal and other institutional guidelines which are not as appealing to many in the student affairs profession.

Gender differences can be attributed to those fields who traditionally are composed of one gender over another in addition to the type of services they provide. For example, professionals who work in a women's cent on a campus tend to be

women just as judicial affairs has traditionally attracted a higher percentage of males. Some fields have changed dramatically in their gender preference. Career Services for example was once predominantly staffed with males who would work with employers. Today, the field of career services has many more female leaders in this area.

Research Question Five

This question dealt with the position level within the organization, students aspired to. Of the five options, director/coordinator ranked the highest followed by the position level of dean. Many graduate students in student affairs programs are often mentored by someone during their undergraduate experience (Taub & McElwen, 2006). These mentors are instrumental in influencing students to consider entering the field and continuing graduate school in similar programs. It is not surprising that these student affairs professionals, many of whom at the director, coordinator, and dean level, not only inspired future professionals but also were looked up to by these student leaders.

The level of president and vice president were not as highly ranked most likely due to the above point where limited mentoring and interaction involved undergraduate students. Because of the lack of exposure to these positions, current graduate students don't recognize this as a career goal. Another possibility for this ranking is the phenomenon affecting not just education but organizations in general, is the generational shift in balancing career with family. The Center for Generational Studies (2012) characterizes generational groups according to their attitudes and behaviors in all aspects of life. According to this characterization, the majority of current graduate students are termed "Millennials," those individuals born from 1981 – 1999. Though this

group is still relatively early in their professional career, it is expected that “Millennials” will follow a similar pattern in regards to career and family balance like their predecessors, the “Gen X” generation. This perception toward work and aspiration could partially explain the reluctance to aspiring to top levels like that of president and vice president. Similar to results of question three relating to attainment of a doctoral degree, this perceived lack of interest of pursuing a senior level position could also have long term ramifications on addressing the leadership shortage.

Similarly in a study by the American Council on Education, it reported only 30% of current chief academic officers or provosts, aspired to be president (Jaschik, 2009). The study described the primary reason for this low level of interest had more to do with the high rate of job satisfaction the current chief academic officers were experiencing. Many indicated that they were content and enjoyed still being directly involved in academics as opposed to the roles of presidents where often many of the functions are seen as external to the academy, like fund raising, governmental affairs, and public relations (Jaschik, 2009).

Gender showed a significant difference when compared with level of aspiration. Overall males made up approximately 25% of the total study group, yet almost half of all students who selected the level of president, were male, at 46.4%. Approximately one-third of respondents were male who selected vice president as their level of aspiration.

The position level of staff was selected low most likely due to the fact that staff could be interpreted as a support level or entry level positions. The level of faculty was not highly selected due to the fact that most students in their respective graduate

programs are trained to be administrators and not specifically for teaching, although many will combine this in their career down the road.

Research Question Six

Regarding experiences that most impacted the type of institution one prefers to work for, undergraduate experience rated most important. The next ranked factors were work experience and internships. All three appear to indicate that hands on directly related experience appear to have the most impact on preference for institutional type. This supports and reinforces the importance for graduate internships and practicum experiences and their impact on students' employment preference.

When age was factored, over 80% of the 18 to 25 year old group indicated that their undergraduate experience was important in selecting future employment, versus 2/3 of the 26 year old and over group. These data seem logical in that the undergraduate experience is relatively fresh in the minds of this age group.

African American students valued their experience in both professional associations and undergraduate studies greater than Caucasian and all other minority groups. Numerous professional associations like NASPA and SACSA have designed and implemented several programs and scholarships to attract minorities, particularly African American students who often do not have mentors or other professionals from their same ethnicity.

There were no significant differences in gender as it relates to experiences that were important in their preference for future employment.

Implications for Higher Education

Throughout higher education, numerous boards, search firms, and other leaders charged with finding qualified and suitable replacements for their senior level vacancies,

are faced with dwindling pool of candidates (Meads-Fox, 2009). Although at first this trend was showing first among community colleges, it has impacted other institutional types as well. Combined with the growing enrollments of colleges and universities, additional staff and leaders are a necessary if American colleges and universities want to reclaim and sustain their world ranking.

With the shortage of capable and qualified leaders for their programs and campuses, schools of all types need to step up efforts to attract professionals. Doctoral granting institutions appear to be the preferred type currently but that can change if the others provide more experiences to attract this shrinking talent pool. Administrators need to link with graduate programs in their region and provide quality and diverse internships, part-time employment, and practicums at their campus sites.

Program directors of the graduate programs also should affirm that their program provides multiple opportunities and exposure through the curriculum, advising, and extra-curricular offerings on the different institutional types. The biggest challenge in academe, according to Erroll B. Davis, Jr., Chancellor of the University System of Georgia, is to create a system where programs are actively developing leadership skills earlier in one's careers (Davis, 2008).

For-profits schools have historically put much of their emphasis into admissions and enrollment and little on support services for enrolled students. They currently are experiencing some pressure and attention from national and state legislatures on the quality of these services and need to step up their commitment.

Professional associations representing the different institutional types, like the Association for Public and Land Grant Universities and the American Association of

Community Colleges, can also take the lead in preparing and providing opportunities to future candidates. Some already have developed programs specially designed to train and develop current mid-level staff for future senior leadership opportunities. AACC for example offers a number of leadership development programs including the Future Leaders Institute and the Future Presidents Institute (AACC, 2011).

Ultimately the charge for the many hiring authorities and search committees will be to look outside the traditional supply pipelines for qualified personnel to fill their leadership vacancies. The results of this research did not support earlier proposals stated in the literature regarding a potential solution for the leadership crisis could be those professionals in the student affairs field. Although future research to verify these findings should include those current students enrolled in doctoral level programs, current graduate students enrolled in student affairs programs will not be able to alone fill this impending void. Some recommendations for leaders involved in the Administration and coordination of student affairs graduate programs include:

1. Create additional opportunities for students to experience different institutional types (i.e. internships and practicums).
2. Enhance the current curriculum to include courses that broaden the awareness of different institutions and their unique qualities.
3. Hire faculty with experience in the various college and university settings.

Recommendations for Future Research

The scope of this research was focused on the southern region of the United States targeting 55 graduate programs. Additional research could include additional geographic regions or a national study to see if there are regional differences in employment trends among this group of graduate students. Conducting research on

other sub-groups of colleges and universities not included in this study, like religious affiliated schools, could prove beneficial and further insight. In addition the current institutional categories used in this study could be further broken down to sub-groups including public and private.

The population studies for this research included those graduate students enrolled in a student affairs program in the fall of 2010. It would be of both interest and value to conduct longitudinal research tracking participants from their time in graduate school and beyond regarding their career path.

Another aspect of this study was that it limited the type of graduate program to primarily student affairs. There are numerous other graduate programs that are preparing future leaders in American higher education. These programs should be included in future studies. In addition longitudinal and follow up studies could also be beneficial in observing possible changes with this segment over time as it relates to their career pathways.

Further research on specific strategies of filling the leadership gap could be useful in comparing effectiveness and sustainability of future leadership. Obtaining data on other search strategies that go outside the traditional candidate supply chain as well as internal programs, like grow your own (GYO) leaders programs and their effectiveness would be of interest (Reille, Kezar, 2010).

Facing budget constraints and reduced federal and state funding, many public institutions are expanding their mission and scope by developing satellite campuses, distance programs, and on-line curriculums. One projection shows that up to 15% of all students will be fully classified as on-line learners (Keener & Campbell 2008). These

new initiatives designed to enhance enrollment and increase revenue, will need additional academic and support services for this growing student body. Research on how schools attract, recruit, and retain qualified professionals in these new positions is paramount.

One potential limitation is the fact that 72.9% of those students completing the survey had indicated their program was focused on student affairs / college student personnel. Similarly, 21.9% stated they were enrolled in a program with a broader emphasis with a focus on higher education administration. The remaining 5.0% were in other types of programs or in community college leadership. This is a potential limitation as the focus of the study was on students in graduate programs with a concentration in student affairs. Future research should also include those in doctoral programs in higher education leadership or similar.

A major finding in this research reported on those areas within the career of student services that students most preferred to work. Additional research could examine is there adequate job opportunities in these popular areas as opposed to the areas that students tend to prefer the least.

Conclusion

Higher education is faced with numerous challenges in the 21st century. Some of the challenges include changing demographics of both students and faculty, increased pressure for accountability (i.e. is learning occurring, graduation rates), and financial constraints as public funding is drastically diminished, and double-digit tuition increases are less feasible (Skinner, 2010). Public support and perception is lukewarm at best. On the international stage, the U.S. once reigned supreme in the percentage of adults with a college degree, but that was a quarter century ago, and one recent report by the

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development shows the U.S. has dropped from 12th to 16th in the world in the percent of young adults age 25 to 34 having earned a college degree (Washington Post, 2011). This latest report comes two years after President Obama announced his goal of adding an additional eight million new college graduates by 2020 (College Board, 2011). Another issue that has garnered much attention the past decade is the perfect storm of an aging of current presidents paired with the impending shortage of qualified leaders.

This leadership dilemma has also caught the attention of those in institutions of higher education, as senior level search committees see fewer qualified candidates apply for the presidency of their colleges or university (Mead-Fox, 2009). In its 20th anniversary report on the College President, The American Council on Education reported that one of their major findings is that due to an aging cohort of presidents, colleges and universities will experience a unprecedented rate of turnover in their senior leadership (2007).

To help address this shortage of qualified leaders, colleges and universities will need to look at alternative supply chains in addition to developing new strategies for leadership development as current models are no longer sufficient for the future (Eckel & Hartley, 2011). Senior administrators in student affairs are a potential resource for providing qualified potential replacements (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Bullard, 2008; NASPA, 2010; de la Teja, Dalpes, Switt & Swenk, 2010). Many senior level student affairs administrators obtain their formal education and training in graduate programs in student development, student affairs, higher education, or similar. Supporting the academic mission of the academy, student affairs administrators often work in

collaboration with their academic colleagues with the ultimate goal of helping students succeed. Student affairs professionals, many with advanced and graduate degrees in the field of higher education administration or student affairs, enhance the learning goals and objectives of their respective schools by assisting students in and outside the classroom.

As college enrollment patterns continue to shift, all institutional types are predicted to continue to grow, particularly those in the non-profit sector and programs focusing on professional education thus requiring leaders with academic experience and skills in higher education (Carlson, 2011; Eckel & Hartley, 2011). Although student affairs personnel are one potential solution to this challenge, schools need to implement multiple strategies in addressing the leadership gap. As one association faced with this crisis states:

The leadership shortages can be addressed through a variety of strategies such as college grow-your-own programs, AACC council and university programs, state system programs, residential institutes, coaching, mentoring, online and blended approaches. Important considerations that apply to all forms of delivery include sustaining current leaders and developing new ones” (AACC).

APPENDIX A
THE STUDENT AFFAIRS GRADUATE SURVEY (2010)

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

Informed Consent

University of Florida - College of Education
Department of Educational Administration & Policy

October 2010

Dear Graduate Student:

As a graduate student currently studying student affairs, counseling, or higher education, I invite you to take a few minutes to participate in this dissertation research by completing "The Student Affairs Graduate Survey."

The purpose of this survey is to collect data on potential factors that might relate to a graduate student's career choice and employment preferences.

The survey includes 18 items and should take less than ten minutes for you to complete. Your responses will be kept completely confidential, as results will be reported in aggregate. Institutions or individuals who wish to receive results of this study can do so by contacting me at tarob@ufl.edu or (904)860-1525. Any questions or other inquiries regarding this study should also be directed to me.

For questions regarding your rights as a research participant in this study, please contact:
IRB02 Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
(352) 392-0433

As a participant, you should be aware that no foreseeable risks or benefits are anticipated as a result of your participation in this research. In addition, no compensation will be awarded for your participation. You have the right to withdraw from the study at anytime without consequence. If you agree to participate by completing the survey, please select "Next" at the bottom of this page.

Thank you again for your time and assisting me with this research.

Sincerely,

Tom Robertson
University of Florida
Ed.D. Candidate

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

Directions:

Thank you for your participation. The following survey is being used for research at the University of Florida, College of Education, in the Department of Educational Administration & Policy.

The purpose of this survey is to collect data on those factors that might be related to the career choices of graduate students in student affairs, higher education administration, or similar programs. Your responses will be confidential and results will be aggregated. If at any time you wish to stop taking the survey, just click on "Exit this survey" at the top right corner of your screen.

Thank you for your time and participation.

1. Please select the institution type you plan to work for after completing your graduate program.

- Baccalaureate Colleges (Schools may offer graduate programs but their focus is on undergraduate education and includes liberal arts colleges)
- Community Colleges or State Colleges
- Doctoral Graduating Universities (Land Grant Universities and other larger research universities)
- For Profit Colleges or Universities
- Masters / Bachelors Colleges & Universities (Typically regional universities with less than five doctoral programs)
- Other (please specify)

2. For the next two questions (#2 and #3), please indicate how important each of the following factors are in choosing your next position.

	1 Very Important	2 Somewhat Important	3 Neutral	4 Less Important	5 Not at all Important
Institution's reputation	<input type="radio"/>				
Familiarity with school or institution type	<input type="radio"/>				
Opportunity to continue in a doctoral program	<input type="radio"/>				
Institution's mission & purpose	<input type="radio"/>				
Campus facilities	<input type="radio"/>				
Geographical location	<input type="radio"/>				

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

3. Please indicate how important each of the following factors are in choosing your next position.

	1 Very Important	2 Somewhat Important	3 Neutral	4 Less Important	5 Not at all Important
Sense of community with the institution	<input type="radio"/>				
Supervisor & colleagues	<input type="radio"/>				
Student body	<input type="radio"/>				
Promotion opportunities	<input type="radio"/>				
Salary & benefits	<input type="radio"/>				
Professional development (i.e. resources and support for life-long learning opportunities)	<input type="radio"/>				

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

4. Please indicate your level of interest for each of the student service areas as it relates to your career plans.

	1 Interested	2 Neutral	3 Not Interested
Assessment / Research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Adult Learner Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Service Learning & Volunteer Programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
International Students & Programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Orientation Programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
LGBT Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Campus Ministry	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Health, Drug, & Alcohol Programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Career Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Athletics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teaching Faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Academic Advising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Registrar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Intramurals / Campus Recreation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
First Year Experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Disability Services & Student Accommodations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Multicultural Affairs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Admissions / Enrollment Management	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Judicial Affairs / Student Accountability	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Commuter Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leadership Development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Greek Affairs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Student Union	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Student Activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Residence Life & Housing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Counseling Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Alumni Affairs & Development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women's Resources	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial Aid	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

5. Please select the degree program in which you are currently enrolled.

- Masters
- Specialists
- Ed.D.
- Ph.D.
- Other (please specify)

6. Please indicate the year you are in your program.

- 1st year
- 2nd year
- 3rd or more

7. Please indicate which of the following best describes your current graduate program.

- Student Affairs / College Student Personnel
- Counseling
- Higher Education Administration
- Community College Leadership
- Other (please specify)

8. After you complete your current graduate degree, how many years do you plan to work in higher education?

- None
- 1 - 5 years
- 6 - 10 years
- 11 - 20 years
- 21 or more

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

9. Please indicate the position level you aspire to in your career.

- President
- Vice President
- Dean
- Director / Coordinator
- Faculty
- Staff
- Other (please specify)

10. Do you plan to relocate to another state after you complete your graduate program?

- Yes
- No

11. Which of the following types of institutions best describes where you attended as an undergraduate student. Please select all that apply.

- Doctoral Graduating University (Land Grant Universities and other larger research universities)
- Masters / Bachelors College or University (Typically regional universities with less than five doctoral programs)
- Baccalaureate College (Schools may offer graduate programs but their focus is on undergraduate education and includes liberal arts colleges)
- Community College or State College
- For Profit College or University
- On-line / Distance Learning Program
- None of the above

12. From what type of institution did you receive your undergraduate degree?

- Doctoral Graduating University (Land Grant Universities and other larger research universities)
- Masters / Bachelors College or University (Typically regional universities with less than five doctoral programs)
- Baccalaureate College (Schools may offer graduate programs but their focus is on undergraduate education and includes liberal arts colleges)
- Community College or State College
- For Profit College or University
- On-line / Distance Learning Program
- None of the above

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

13. Please indicate the impact of the following factors in deciding on the type of institution you plan to work for upon completing your graduate program.

	Important	Neutral	Not important
Graduate advisors and/or professors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Internships / practicums	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Elective graduate courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Current job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Undergraduate experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Professional associations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Former employment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

Demographics:

14. Gender:

- Male
 Female

15. Ethnicity:

- African American
 Asian/Pacific Islander
 Caucasian
 Hispanic / Latino
 Multiracial
 Native American
 Other (please specify)

16. Current Age:

- 18-25 years
 26-30
 31-39
 40-49
 50-above

17. Using the drop-down menu, please select the university or college in which you are currently enrolled.

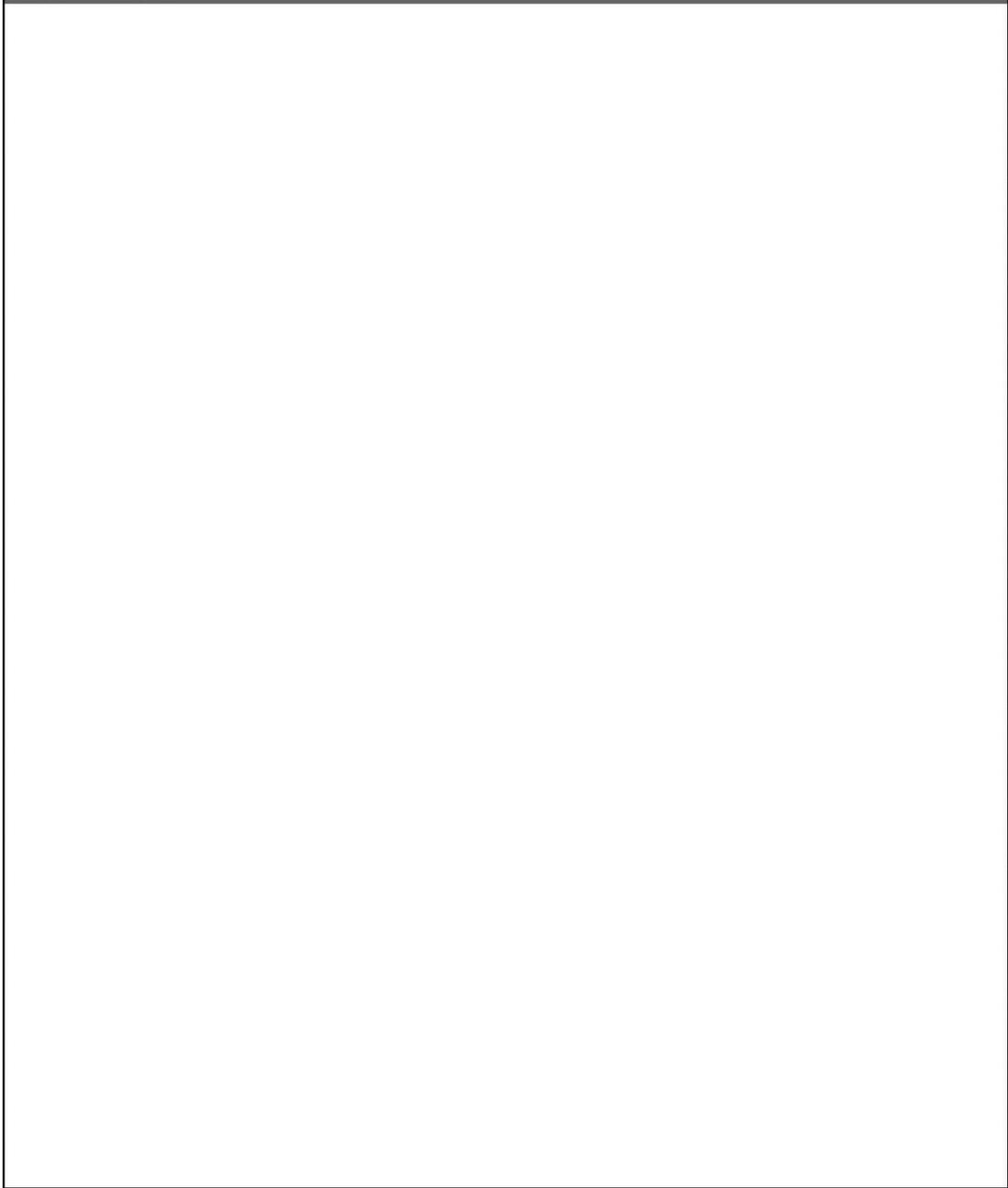
The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

18. Please select all professional organizations (related to higher education) in which you are currently a member (You can select more than one).

- American Association for Community Colleges (AACC)
- American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
- The Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE)
- National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA)
- National Council on Student Development (NCSD)
- Southern Association for College Student Affairs (SACSA)
- Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE)
- Local, regional & state organizations
- Specialized Organizations (i.e. NACDA, NODA, ACUHO-I)
- None
- Other (please specify)

The Student Affairs Graduate Survey

Thank You!



APPENDIX B
PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS (2006 & 2010)

SCHOOL	INVITED (2006)	RESPONDED (2006)	INVITED (2010)	RESPONDED (2010)
Abilene Christian University			X	
Appalachian State University	X		X	18
Auburn University	X		X	1
Arkansas State University	X		X	
Arkansas Tech University	X		X	28
Barry University	X		X	
Baylor University	X		X	12
Clemson University	X	1	X	
College of William & Mary	X		X	18
Florida Atlantic University	X		X	
Florida International University	X	12	X	
Florida State University	X	22	X	1
George Mason University			X	
George Washington University	X			
Georgia Southern University	X		X	
Hampton University	X		X	
James Madison University	X		X	
Kennesaw State University	X			
Louisiana State University	X	5	X	
Lynn University			X	
Marshall University	X	1	X	
Mississippi State University	X		X	
Nicholls State University			X	
North Carolina State University	X		X	
Northwestern State University of Louisiana	X		X	
Old Dominion University	X		X	
Radford University	X		X	
Southwest Texas State University	X			
Texas A&M University	X		X	14
Texas State University - San Marcos			X	
Texas Tech University	X	17	X	
University of Alabama	X	23	X	
University of Arkansas - Fayetteville	X	12	X	15
University of Arkansas - Little Rock	X		X	7

SCHOOL	INVITED (2006)	RESPONDED (2006)	INVITED (2010)	RESPONDED (2010)
University of Central Arkansas	X		X	15
University of Central Florida	X		X	18
University of Florida	X	11	X	10
University of Georgia	X	19	X	21
University of Kentucky	X		X	
University of Louisville	X	15	X	
University of Maryland - College Park	X	27	X	10
University of Memphis	X		X	
University of Miami	X		X	
University of Mississippi	X		X	
University of New Orleans	X			
University of North Carolina - Greensboro	X	4	X	14
University of North Florida			X	
University of North Texas	X		X	22
University of Oklahoma	X	1	X	
University of Saint Thomas	X			
University of South Carolina	X	39	X	35
University of South Florida	X		X	18
University of Southern Mississippi	X		X	3
University of Tennessee - Knoxville	X		X	6
University of Texas - Austin	X	10	X	20
University of Virginia	X	11	X	15
University of West Florida	X	7	X	5
Valdosta State University			X	9
Vanderbilt University	X		X	0
Virginia Tech University	X		X	12
Western Carolina University	X	4	X	
Western Kentucky University	X	9	X	
West Virginia University	X		X	
TOTAL:	55	255	58	348

APPENDIX C
THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND STUDENT AFFAIRS SURVEY (2006)

Community College & Student Affairs

Informed Consent

1. I, Thomas A. Robertson, am a current doctoral student in the department of Educational Administration & Policy at the University of Florida, and am conducting research on factors that influence career decisions for graduate students in student affairs. My faculty advisor for this project is Dr. Dale Campbell, Professor, Department of Educational Administration & Policy (Tel: 352-392-2391, ext. 281, Fax: 352-392-0038, or dfc@coe.ufl.edu). The results of this study will be reported in aggregate and will be shared with participating universities and individual participants if requested. Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law.

If you voluntarily agree to participate, you will be given the on-line survey to complete. You do not have to answer any questions and participants are free to withdraw at any time without penalty. The approximate time for completion of this survey is ten minutes. As a participant, you should be aware that no foreseeable risks or benefits are anticipated as a result of your participation in this research. In addition, no compensation will be awarded for your participation.

I will be available to answer any questions concerning these procedures. You can contact Tom Robertson at: University of Florida College of Pharmacy, 580 W. 8th Street, Jacksonville, Florida, 32209 or phone (904) 244-9591, or e-mail tarob@cop.ufl.edu, or fax (904) 244-9591.

Questions or concerns regarding research participants' rights may be directed to the UFIRB office, P.O. Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250 or phone (352) 392-0433. Thank you for your time and participation in this study.

**Approved by University of Florida Institutional Review Board 02, Protocol #2005-U-1100
For use through 12-14-2006.**

BY SELECTING "CONTINUE" YOU INDICATE THAT YOU HAVE READ THE ABOVE INFORMATION AND VOLUNTARILY AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT.

Continue

No Thanks

Community College & Student Affairs

Survey Directions

The following on-line survey will take less than ten minutes to complete and is being used for an independent research class at the University of Florida, College of Education, in the Department of Educational Administration & Policy. Results will be aggregated. Thank you for your time and participation.

2. Sex:

 Male Female

3. Ethnicity:

 African
American Asian Caucasian Hispanic Multiracial Native
American Other

4. Age:

 18-25 years 26-30 31-39 40-55 56-above

5. Are you currently enrolled as a graduate student in a masters level program?

 Yes No

6. Is your graduate program in student affairs, student personnel, higher education, or something similar? (NOTE: If you answer "No" to this question, there is no need to complete the rest of the survey. Thank you.)

 Yes No

7. Please select which university in which you are currently enrolled.

8. Do you plan to work outside of the state in which you are currently attending college?

 Yes No

9. Have you ever attended a community college?

 Yes No

10. If you answered "Yes" to question #5, did you attend part-time (less than 12 credits/semester)?

 Yes No

11. Did you complete a two-year degree at a community college (i.e. AA, AS, AAS)?

 Yes No

Community College & Student Affairs

12. Are you currently enrolled in any classes related to "community colleges" in your graduate program?

Yes

No

13. Do you plan to take any courses related to "community colleges" in your graduate program?

Yes

No

14. Have you ever discussed with your graduate advisor or professor(s) the topic of community colleges as a career option?

Yes

No

15. Are you currently completing an internship or similar experience at a community college?

Yes

No

16. Have you completed an internship or similar experience at a community college?

Yes

No

17. Would you be interested in exploring possible internships at a community college if available in your area of interest?

Yes

No

18. Have you ever been employed by a community college?

Yes

No

19. If the previous question was answered "Yes," were you employed full-time?

Yes

No

20. Are you currently employed by a community college?

Yes

No

21. If you answered "Yes," to the previous question, are you currently employed full-time?

Yes

No

Community College & Student Affairs

22. Check which area within student affairs you plan to work after graduating:

	Academic Advising	Admissions / Enrollment Management	Athletics	Career Services	Campus Ministry	Counseling Services	Financial Aid	First Year Experience	Greek Life	International Students	Intramurals & Campus Recreation	Judicial Affairs	Leadership Development	Orientation
Please select one	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. Rank in order of preference (1-5) which institutional type you prefer to work for after completing your graduate degree. (1=First choice, 5=Last choice)

	1	2	3	4	5
Doctoral Graduating Universities	<input type="radio"/>				
Masters / Bachelors Colleges & Universities	<input type="radio"/>				
Baccalaureate Colleges	<input type="radio"/>				
Community Colleges (2-year colleges)	<input type="radio"/>				
For Profit Colleges or Universities	<input type="radio"/>				

24. Please rank the following criteria (1-12) when selecting future employment (1=Most important, 12=Least important).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Campus facilities	<input type="radio"/>											
Familiarity with school or institution type	<input type="radio"/>											
Geographical location	<input type="radio"/>											
Institution's reputation	<input type="radio"/>											
Institution's mission & purpose	<input type="radio"/>											
Opportunity to continue in a doctoral program	<input type="radio"/>											
Professional climate & environment	<input type="radio"/>											
Promotion opportunities	<input type="radio"/>											
Salary & benefits	<input type="radio"/>											
Sense of community with the institution	<input type="radio"/>											
Student body	<input type="radio"/>											
Supervisor & colleagues	<input type="radio"/>											

Thank You!

APPENDIX D
UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA DIGITAL COLLECTIONS FOR ELECTRONIC DATA
STORAGE

Object D-1. The complete data collected as a result of this research is stored electronically with the University of Florida Office of Digital Collections. To access these data, please use the following link.

<http://ufdc.ufl.edu//IR00001185/00001>

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Thomas A. Robertson is the Assistant Dean for Students in the Lloyd L. Gregory School of Pharmacy at Palm Beach Atlantic University, located in West Palm Beach Florida. He has served in numerous administrative and teaching roles in higher education, primarily in student affairs for 28 years. He completed a Bachelor of Science in secondary education at Central Michigan University and a Master of Arts in higher education at Michigan State University. He is a member of several professional associations including NASPA, SACSA, AACP, and CPFJ and currently serves on the board of directors for Christian Pharmacist Fellowship International.

Tom and his wife, Paula, and their son, Jack, reside in Wellington, Florida and are active members of Community of Hope church in Loxahatchee Groves, Florida.