THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP FRAMES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE PERSONNEL AND SENSE OF BELONGING OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

A Dissertation

by

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This dissertation meets the standards for scope and quality of
Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi and is hereby approved.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of college students at Southwest Texas Junior College (SWTJC). Colleges and universities play a very important role in making life better and different for every student who chooses to enter these institutions. Higher education institutions must commit to creating and maintaining environments in which students are able to obtain a sense of belonging. The investigation of these concepts has implications for higher education in the creation of a campus culture in which college personnel work effortlessly to provide students with a sustained sense of community, acceptance, and affiliation. This study examined the relationship between college personnel leadership frames (political, human resource, structural, & symbolic) and sense of belonging at a community college in rural, southwest Texas. It looked at the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and student sense of belonging as a means for gaining a deeper understanding of the factors that make students successful.

Statistical analysis of the research questions showed few statistically significant results. Analysis of the first research question (leadership frames) showed one statistically significant result in the political frame between employees working in continuing education/workforce and employees working in administrative/business services. Analysis of the second research question (sense of belonging) showed differences in the areas of peer support and isolation, but with low effect size. Analysis of research question three showed mixed results. The human resources frame had the highest mean score and was predictive of sense of belonging, however, it showed a low level of explanation of sense of belonging and low predictive values.

While the analysis of the four frames provided insight into the characteristics of the personnel and analysis of the sense of belonging provided insight into the needs of the students,

the analysis of the relationship between the two failed to help understand what leadership behaviors may be more successful in fostering sense of belonging among students. However, the study did underscore several key areas including differences among student groups and negative relationships between certain leadership behaviors and sense of belonging.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my sweet friend and confidant, Josie, who made me promise her that I would complete this degree – I did it! May your spirit live on through the work we do for student success and the relationships we build with each other.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

College students require connection and engagement to be successful in their higher educational goals (Kuh, 2013). These opportunities occur when students are physically located on the campus, in classrooms, libraries, common areas, and recreation areas. These settings provide opportunities for impactful communication between faculty, staff, and students (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, &Whitt, 2010). Through engagement practices, higher education institutions provide environments in which students experience a sense of belonging to the campus community (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2010; Strayhorn, 2012). A sense of belonging is a decisive factor for students to connect with the campus community and remain in college (O'Keeffe, 2013). O'Keefe related that students making a significant connection with "just one key person" on campus can make a difference toward student success (p. 607). Furthermore, faculty, administrators, and staff frame a college's culture in which students connect or not. According to Kuh (2003), "An institution's cultural properties affect to varying degrees almost everything that happens at a college or university" (p. 24). A better understanding of how college personnel leadership frames shape the organization can lead to a better understanding of how students express their sense of belonging.

Community Colleges

Community colleges are uniquely American. These two-year institutions are idealistic, multitier, more precise on means than on ends, and therefore necessarily messy in form, function, and effectiveness (Beach, 2014). Community colleges are open-access institutions that enroll large numbers of at-risk students. The first community college, Joliet Junior College, opened its doors in 1901 paving the way for more than 1,200 community colleges of various types to be

opened over the next 105 years (Modern Language Association, 2006; American Association of Community Colleges, 2014). Of the existing community colleges, 58% are considered small with enrollments under 4,500 students (CCSSE, 2005). They are located in rural, urban, and suburban areas and offer general education preparation courses for transfer, technical training in specific occupational fields, and basic education courses for those wishing to succeed at the college-level (Modern Language Association, 2006).

According to Mullin (2012), community colleges across the United States enrolled half of minority undergraduate students in higher education and more than 40% of undergraduate students living in poverty. Students enrolled in community colleges attend part-time (44%). Eighty-four percent of community college students are employed; 60% work more than 20 hours per week (Mullin, 2012).

Another notable characteristic of community college is that their student populations are getting younger. Between 1993 and 2009 the number of enrolled students under the age of 18 increased; these students are most often dual credit students who may not ever set foot on a community college campus (Mullin, 2012). The point is that all of these factors add up to a group of students that is unmistakably difficult to engage.

Student Success

Research in the distinct areas of student success and faculty leadership style is plentiful. However, research regarding how these areas connect is less abundant. The research suggests that colleges that adopt a student success agenda are more likely to see the benefits of their efforts than colleges who do not embrace the ideas of student success (Kuh et al., 2010). The seminal study of 20 higher education institutions by Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, and Whitt (2010) provided well documented recommendations for increasing student success and educational

effectiveness. The key recommendation is that in order to effectively construct an environment that supports and promotes engagement in educationally effective activities, every person– faculty, staff, and administrator – must be invested and involved in the business of student success (Kuh et al., 2010).

Student success in higher education is a topic of discussion for most administrators and policy makers. They view the success of students is directly linked to the success of higher education institutions (HEIs) and their ability to gain and maintain funding. Federal and state funding to HEIs is becoming inextricably linked to certain student success measures. These include graduation rates, transfer rates, and even single course success. For example, in Texas, Momentum Points provide 10% of state funding to public 2-year colleges (McKinney & Serra Hagedorn, n.d.). The percentage of funding from Momentum Points is expected and intended to increase as Texas continues to tighten its coffers (McKinney & Serra Hagedorn, n.d.). As a result, funding is no longer simply the business of recruiters, enrollment management professionals, and administrators; it is the business of every faculty and staff member on a college campus. From the custodian to the tutor to the highest-ranking faculty member and the president, each person has responsibility for student success. Although faculty members are considered the first line of communication between HEIs and students, there is very little information available regarding the connection between student success and faculty leadership style (Solis, Kupczynski, & Mundy, 2011).

Student Engagement

Faculty and staff spend a great deal of time attempting to connect with and engage college students in the academic material and in the campus community. According to Kuh et al. (2010), student engagement contains two key elements: (a) "the amount of time and effort

students put into their studies and other activities;" and (b) "the ways the institution allocates resources and organizes learning opportunities and services to induce students to participate" (p. 9). Colleges that deliberately cultivate methods and practices that create a sense of belonging lend themselves directly to stronger development of student autonomy, student resiliency, academic competence, and academic achievement (Schuetz, 2008).

Student engagement is a student success activity. Highly engaged students who are closely connected to the campus community demonstrate higher rates of success than students who are not actively involved with the campus community and its structures, processes, and practices (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006). Faculty members are highly influential participants in students' engagement and connectedness to the campus community (Kuh et al., 2010). In fact, Kuh et al. (2010) noted that "meaningful interactions between students and their teachers are essential to high-quality learning experiences" (p. 207).

Daily interaction with students is a key component to student success (Kuh et al., 2010). If students are regularly attending class, faculty have readily available opportunities to forge connected relationships through daily interactions. Although faculty have the most opportunity for one-on-one contact, successful collaborative efforts between faculty, staff, and administrators are crucial to building and maintaining an engaged and connected campus community (Kuh et al., 2010). Although staff and administrators are not in daily, one-on-one contact with students, Kuh et al. (2006) noted that interactions with any college personnel or supportive adult on campus are indicators of success. Students who had positive exchanges with any college personnel were more likely to be academically successful (Amelink, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Therefore, it is critical for colleges to focus on development and implementation of student engagement practices and methods across all parts of the institution.

Colleges and universities that are known for student success have embraced the idea that student learning happens during all student experiences. With this idea in mind, they have created methods, practices, procedures, and environments that cultivate student engagement (Kuh et al., 2010).

High-Impact Practices

Although this study does not measure high-impact practices, the information is important. High impact practices have been implemented at the college to be investigated. It is expected that this would lead to a stronger sense of belonging among students. The delivery devices for these student engagement actions are known as high-impact educational practices. High-impact practices provide the structures by which college faculty and staff engage with students in ways that are meaningful and critical to strong student development and high levels of student success. When incorporated appropriately and effectively, high –impact practices become transformative (Kuh, 2008). Students involved in such high-impact practices often change perspectives, question prior belief systems, and take control of their own lives (Kuh et al., 2010; Wawrzynski & Baldwin, 2014). George Kuh is often cited as the authority regarding high-impact educational practices. Kuh (2008) reported a list of the activities that are critical to both student engagement and academic success of students. The activities include:

- First-year seminar and experiences
- Common intellectual experiences
- Learning communities
- Writing-intensive courses
- Collaborative assignments and projects
- Undergraduate research

- Diversity and global learning
- Service- or community-based learning projects
- Internships
- Capstone courses or projects (Kuh, 2008).

Sense of Belonging

According to Strayhorn (2012), sense of belonging "refers students'… feeling or sensation of connectedness…to the campus community" (p. 3). This perception has been an enduring concept. A strong sense of belonging in the academic classroom setting and in the larger campus community means that students feel "accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers)" (Goodenow, 1993, p. 25). Sense of belonging is also noted to be key to human function, to overall well-being, and to overall happiness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Hagerty, Lynch-Bauer, Patusky, Bouwsema, & Collier, 1992).

Not only is sense of belonging critical for the well-being of individual students, it is also critical for the success of institutions in the areas of academic achievement, retention, persistence, and overall student success (Rhee, 2008). As students build relationships and support systems, their feelings of commitment and connection to the campus community grow and they are, in turn, more deeply dedicated to persisting and succeeding (Strayhorn, 2012).

Community College Leadership and Administration

Community college leadership happens in a complex and unpredictable environment. Community college leaders must contend with many challenges that easily curtail the institutional success unless leaders are equipped with both an understanding of how to navigate the policy structure of institutions and applying theory to guide their decision making and allowing the organization to be fluid (Nevarez & Wood, 2010).

Faculty Leadership

Community college faculty have long been encumbered with the responsibility of student success. They spend much of their time teaching in the classroom. In a study for the American Association of Community Colleges, Rifkin (1997) stated that community college faculty spend 15 hours per week in class. During those 15 hours per week, community college faculty teach between 75 and 150 students and participate in more student contact hours than faculty in any other educational setting. Although as many as 40% of community college faculty engage in scholarly research activity (Rifkin, 1997), these same faculty members view their primary responsibility as student contact.

Community college faculty interpret their professional role as one of student contact. In other words, they believe that the more hours they spend in the classroom lecturing, grading exams, correcting essays, and doing other teaching-related activities, the better (Rifkin, 1997). On the contrary, it is increasingly important that community college faculty think of their role in terms of how effectively they can lead and promote student engagement activities and a student success agenda (Rifkin, 1997). Extensive research exists about formal leadership in higher education (Campbell, Syed, & Morris, 2010; Eddy, 2013; Dopson, Ferlie, McGivern, Fischer, Ledger, Behrens, & Wilson, 2016; Reille & Kezar, 2010; Solis, Kupczynski, & Mundy, 2011) however, there is a dearth of research regarding the informal leadership roles of faculty in teaching and learning (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015).

Community college faculty spend the majority of their time in informal leadership settings – writing curriculum, developing learning activities, and designing teaching strategies (Hofmeyer et al., 2015). These activities, although informal, are as important to student engagement and to the student success agenda as the formal leadership and research roles played

by those in specific administrative and research positions (Nunn & Pillay, 2014). Further, successful implementation of a student success agenda requires impactful connections between college personnel and students (Kuh et al., 2010). Effective implementation of a student success agenda requires formal and informal leadership by those who recognize the influence their actions have on students (Hofmeyer et al., 2015; Kuh et al., 2010). As such, it is critical and timely to study the intersection of faculty leadership style and student success.

Staff Leadership

A review of the literature regarding support staff leadership produced a handful of studies (Arrington, 2015; Middleton, 2006; Szerkeres, 2004). Staff leadership roles tend to be informal or, at the highest level, mid-management (Arrington, 2015). Many of these overlooked and undervalued leaders are positioned very close to students and can provide a wealth of information regarding student success (Arrington, 2015; Szekeres, 2004).

Administrative Leadership

Much of the research on administrative leadership in higher education is focused on university presidents. Eddy (2013) stated that there is little research that exists regarding community college presidents. What can be found concerning community college administrative leadership provides evidence that traditional thinking about leadership roles has changed rapidly over the last two decades as community colleges face a slew of presidential retirements (Eddy, 2013).

In order to prepare for the replacement of these retiring leaders, community colleges have moved toward collaborative or shared leadership models (Hickman, 2010). The American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) embraced collaborative leadership as far back as 2005 when it created the Leading Forward Initiative. The AACC initiative was guided by the

concepts that people can learn how to lead and that many people can share leadership in an organization (AACC, 2005; Eddy, 2013). Community colleges have embraced these concepts and, in many cases, moved toward a shared governance structure that is focused on responsibility and accountability (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006).

Southwest Texas Junior College

One such institution is Southwest Texas Junior College. Southwest Texas Junior College (SWTJC) is an open admission community college that offers associates degrees, certificate programs, and adult basic education programs. SWTJC consists of three full service campuses and four extension sites in rural southwest Texas. SWTJC serves a vast rural region encompassing 11 counties in the extreme southwest corner of Texas. This service region stretches 275 miles along the Rio Grande River, spanning over one-fourth of the Texas-Mexico border, and is comprised of over 16,500 square miles – larger than nine states in the nation.

Students attending SWTJC face many disadvantages in their pursuit of a higher education degree or certificate. One of those disadvantages is that there is no major metropolitan area or prevailing business or industry in the region that provides a solid foundation for students as they pursue their degrees or after they graduate. As a result, the SWTJC service region has faced a *brain drain* for a number of years in which the educated people from the area have moved in search of better, higher paying jobs (Johnson, 2012). Although the area lacks a large metropolitan area, there are three small cities in the area that provide most of the job opportunities and house the three major SWTJC campuses. As a Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI), SWTJC serves an 84% Hispanic student body. Poverty rates in the service region range from 18% in Medina County (on the outskirts of the San Antonio metropolitan region) to 37% in Zavala County (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). The Bachelor's degree (or higher) attainment rate

is 14% for the region, and Spanish is spoken as a primary language in over 50% of homes (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

Over the last several years, Southwest Texas Junior College established several projects focused on improving student retention and success rates and has received recognition for these efforts as indicated by its selection as a Top 10 Community College in the nation in the inaugural round of the Aspen Foundation's Community College Excellence initiative. This initiative recognizes institutions for exceptional student outcomes in four areas: student learning; certificate and degree completion; employment and earnings; and high levels of access and success for minority and low-income students. Southwest Texas Junior College is also acknowledged by the Lumina Foundation's Achieving the Dream (ATD) initiative as a Leader College, and as one of only 12 colleges in the nation to be chosen for Lumina's Increasing Latino Student Success Initiative.

Since 2006, SWTJC has had positive gains from two projects – Student Success Centers (SSC) and TRiO-Student Support Services (T-SSS). These centers were originally proposed as supplemental instruction centers but have evolved into a compendium of services including math and science tutoring, writing tutoring, advising, honors research, disability support services, and student life. Present on all full-service campuses, SSCs provide services to virtually every student at SWTJC. Retention rates of students who regularly engage with SSCs are higher (56%) than retention rates for those who do not (47%) (Southwest Texas Junior College, 2015). The TRiO-Student Support Services project works to break down the barriers that first-generation, low-income, and disabled students encounter on the path to transfer and eventual attainment of bachelor's degrees. Staff in both the SSCs and T-SSS work closely with willing faculty to provide additional faculty office hours and faculty-student mentoring.

Statement of the Problem

Although Southwest Texas Junior College has made significant progress in improving the student success rate, more progress must be made to reach the goal of number one community college in the nation – especially as it relates to the majority population of part-time, Hispanic, and low-income students. Southwest Texas Junior College has an 84% Hispanic population with only 37% of these students attending full-time. In addition, low-income students represent 66.5% of the SWTJC college student population (Southwest Texas Junior College, 2014). Students who attend part-time, Hispanic students, and low-income students are among the hardest to engage student groups as it is often challenging for them to acquire a sense of belonging on their campuses (Strayhorn, 2012). Thus, comprehensive and accessible support services as well as high-impact, student engagement practices must be present for part-time, Hispanic, and low-income student success (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006).

It is believed and supported by the research (Arbona & Nora, 2007; Massey, Charles, Lundy, & Fischer, 2003; Strayhorn, 2008; Swail, Cabrera, & Lee, 2004; Warburton, Bugarin, & Nunez, 2001) that low full-time attendance rates and low graduation rates for Latino students are directly a result of lower than average engagement and sense of belonging. According to Mayhew, et al. (2016), higher rates of student persistence and better academic performance are positively related to faculty student interactions. This study examined the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and students' sense of belonging.

Theoretical Framework

Multi-frame Model for Organizations

The study was governed by Bolman and Deal's (1991) Multi-frame Model for Organizations, which separates traditional theories of organizational leadership into four

schemes or *frames*. Bolman and Deal's (1991) model defined four frames: *structural frame*, *human resource frame*, *political frame*, and *symbolic frame*. Each frame, as defined by Bolman and Deal (1991), determined how leaders ascertain and act on situations.

The *structural frame* focuses on goals, policies, roles, and structure. These leaders value data, analysis, and accountability. They seek to solve organizational problems through policies and restructuring practices (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

The *human resource frame* concentrates on meeting basic human needs, forging relationships, and empowerment of others. Leaders in this frame focus efforts on changing the organization to respond to the needs of the people or on using training to change the people to fit the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

The *political frame* centers efforts on competition for resources. Leaders in the political frame are negotiators who view the world through the lens of realism and/or pragmatism. They are coalition builders who use the power they gain to negotiate compromises (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

The *symbolic frame* views the world as a chaotic place that needs interpretation. Leaders in this frame believe that organizations have cultural symbols that shape a shared mission and vision. They are charismatic, dramatic, enthusiastic, and committed to rituals, stories, and other symbolic forms (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Sense of Belonging

The study was also governed by the concept of sense of belonging. Strayhorn (2012) suggested that sense of belonging is "one term with many meanings" (p. 8). Sense of belonging is also known as sense of community, sense of acceptance, and sense of affiliation as it is an

extremely diverse construct that can be applied to many different situations (Strayhorn, 2012). As such, sense of belonging has been defined by many different people in many different ways.

For the purposes of this study, sense of belonging was first defined broadly as a concept and then more specifically as it applied to college students. The broader definition of the concept as stated by Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwesman, and Collier (1992) is “the experience of personal involvement in a system or environment” (p. 173). The specific definition as it applies to college students was “students’ sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers) in the academic classroom setting and of feeling oneself to be an important part of the life and activity of the class” (Goodenow, 1993, p. 25). The sense of belonging concept has two subscales. First, student/peer relationships was defined as “perceived classroom comfort, perceived isolation, perceived academic support, and perceived social support” (Hoffman et al., p. 239). Second, student/faculty relationships was defined as “empathetic understanding, perceived faculty academic support/comfort, and perceived faculty social support/comfort” (Hoffman et al., p. 243).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and students’ sense of belonging at Southwest Texas Junior College. The first objective was to describe the leadership frames of college personnel at SWTJC. The second objective was to describe sense of belonging among students at SWTJC. Finally, a third objective of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging at Southwest Texas Junior College.

Research Questions

One independent variable, leadership frames, was present. Leadership frames are comprised of four parts (a) *human resource*, (b) *structural*, (c) *political*, and (d) *symbolic* (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The dependent variable was the sense of belonging of students as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (Hoffman, Richmond, Morrow, & Salomone, 2002). Demographic data was also collected. If statistical significance was found among relationships between leadership frames and sense of belong, further analyses was conducted to identify further where those relationships occured. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators as indicated by the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991)?
2. What are students' perspectives regarding sense of belonging as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (Hoffman et al., 2002)?
3. What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging?

Definition of Terms

The following terms were defined for the purposes of this study. The four *leadership frames*: *structural frame, human resources frame, political frame,* and *symbolic frame* are measured with the Leadership Orientations Instrument (LOI) (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Each frame, as defined by Bolman and Deal (1991), reflects how leaders ascertain and act on situations. All operational definitions for the LOI are based on a 5-point scale: 1 = never; 2 = occasionally; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; 5 = always.

Structural frame focuses on goals, policies, roles, and structure. These leaders value data, analysis, and accountability. They seek to solve organizational problems through policies and restructuring practices (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Human resource frame concentrates on meeting basic human needs, forging relationships, and empowerment of others. Leaders in this frame focus efforts on changing the organization to respond to the needs of the people or on using training to change the people to fit the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Political frame centers efforts on competition for resources. Leaders in the political frame are negotiators who view the world through the lens of realism and/or pragmatism. They are coalition builders who use the power they gain to negotiate compromises (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Symbolic frame views the world as a chaotic place that needs interpretation. Leaders in this frame believe that organizations have cultural symbols that shape a shared mission and vision. They are charismatic, dramatic, enthusiastic, and committed to rituals, stories, and other symbolic forms (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

The level of *sense of belonging* was measured by students' responses to the Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB) (Hoffman et al., 2002).

Sense of belonging is defined by Goodenow (1993) as "students' sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers) in the academic classroom setting and of feeling oneself to be an important part of the life and activity of the class" (p. 25). Sense of belonging has five sub-scales: (a) perceived peer support; (b) perceived faculty support/comfort; (c) perceived classroom support; (d) perceived isolation; and (e) empathetic

faculty. The operational definition of both subscales is based on a 5-point scale: 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = mostly untrue; 5 = completely untrue.

College personnel were defined as any faculty, staff, or administrator at Southwest Texas Junior College. As operational definitions, they self-identified on the survey instrument in several areas:

1. Role: administrator; full-time faculty; adjunct faculty; staff; or other;

2. Function: academic affairs; administrative/business services; continuing education; or student services;

3. Length of Employment: 0 to 3 years; 3+ to 8 years; 8+ to 13 years; 13+ to 18 years; or more than 18 years;

4. Level of Education: high school diploma; certification; associate's degree; bachelor's degree; master's degree; doctorate; or other;

5. Campus: Del Rio; Eagle Pass; Uvalde; or other.

Students were defined as any person officially enrolled in Southwest Texas Junior College according to official records from the registrar's office. As operational definitions they self-identify on the survey instrument in several areas:

1. Gender: male or female;

2. Age: 18-24; 25-34; 35-44; 45-54; 55-64; 65-74; or 75 or older;

3. Ethnicity: African American/black; American Indian/Alaska Native; Asian; Hispanic/Latino; Pacific Islander; White; Two or more ethnicities; or other;

4. First person in immediate family to attend college: yes or no;

5. Program Type: academic program or technical program;

6. Status: full-time or part-time;

7. Campus: Del Rio; Eagle Pass; Uvalde; or other.

Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations

There were several limitations to the study that could not be controlled. College personnel, type of student, campus locations, program of study, age, ethnicity, teaching assignments, and length of employment are conditions of the campus culture, region in which the college resides, those who choose to work and attend. The participants were both students and college personnel, who self-reported. Data were limited to the perceptions respondents have of themselves when reporting, as well as if they responded. Even though participants self-reported, the instruments being utilized were previously tested and were shown to be reliable and valid. The timing of data collection can vary the results. College personnel and students face different levels of stress during an academic year, which may affect their views. A time was selected to distribute the instruments at a time when stress was assumed to be minimal.

Delimitations

There were several choices made to control the research. The selection of the instruments was made based on strong literature support, as well as reliability and validity. The leadership frames are important as it provides respondents with items that show interaction with others in the organization, thus representing a type of engagement. Engagement is a key feature of student success. The sense of belonging instrument shows a level of student connectedness to the campus community. How students are connected as it relates to how college personnel engage with others remains the focus of this study. Southwest Texas Junior College is affected by Texas state legislation to increase student success rates. Its senior administration is looking for ways to understand its personnel’s engagement with each other and how it might affect

students. Therefore, the entire college personnel and student population are selected to participate in the study.

Significance of the Study

Significant impact on the SWTJC community was expected as a result of the study. Faculty, staff, and administrators, as well as students, board members, and each community and its inhabitants in which a SWTJC campus exists will be impacted by the results. In addition, the results of this study may be utilized to inform and prepare hiring practices, professional development planning, policy making, and policy implementation.

Summary

Leadership frames and sense of belonging are important factors in the success of students. This study examines the leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of college students at Southwest Texas Junior College (SWTJC). The investigation of these concepts has implications for higher education in the creation of a campus culture in which college personnel work effortlessly to provide students with a sustained sense of community, acceptance, and affiliation (Strayhorn, 2012). This chapter presented an overview of the high-impact engagement practices implemented by college personnel that are known to generate strong sense of belonging to the campus community.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Building a campus culture that includes systematic opportunities for engagement is both universal for all types of postsecondary institutions and highly important in order to meet the needs of the increasingly complex job market and the globalizing economy. A campus culture that is threaded with fibers of formal and informal engagement between students and committed college personnel is timely, and a necessity for higher education institutions that are struggling to de-stagnate persistence and degree attainment rates. Every interaction, no matter how insignificant it seems, should be constructed around the idea that sense of belonging for students is critical to the overall success of the institution. In their seminal article, Baumeister and Leary (1995) hypothesized that the need to belong is linked directly to well-being. Failure to develop a sense of belonging leads to social isolation and feelings of loneliness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Maslow (1943) stated that human behaviors are motivated by certain needs. These needs include the very basic physical survival needs, the psychological needs of belongingness and self-esteem, and the need for self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). Following this logic, students must have adequate and timely sense of belonging in order to reach the desired level of achievement and self-actualization (Maslow, 1968; Maslow, 1943). Correspondingly, Braxton and Hirschy (2004) concluded that a high level of institutional commitment to the welfare of students is indicative of sense of belonging among students and ultimately their ability to persist.

This chapter reviews the literature pertaining to faculty leadership and student sense of belonging in 6 sections: (a) Community Colleges; (b) Student Success; (c) Student Engagement; (d) High-Impact Practices; (e) Sense of Belonging; and (f) Administrative/FacultyLeadership.

Community Colleges

Open-access community colleges were designed to serve a very specific purpose in the American education system – to prepare underprepared high school graduates for entry to university (Beach, 2014). Since the first public, community college opened in 1901, colleges have acquired many additional missions including technical education, adult basic education, business and workforce training, and dual credit education (Modern Language Association, 2006). Community colleges must now be "responsive to the needs of local residents, local businesses, state systems of secondary and postsecondary education, and state and regional economies, not to mention the myriad needs of many different types of students" (Beach, 2014, p. 519).

Community colleges are most often accredited by a regional association and award the certificate at the lowest level and associate's degrees as their highest credential (Pierce, 2006). Among the goals and tradition of community colleges are access, service, open admissions, and low tuition rates (American Association of Community Colleges, 2006). Many community colleges (58%) are characterized as small with enrollments of fewer than 4,500 students. Only 8% are considered large with enrollments of 15,000 or more (CCSSE, 2005). These institutions are located in rural, urban, and suburban areas and therefore provide educational opportunities for an enormous group of students (Modern Language Association, 2006). In fact, according to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (2014), there were 12.8 million students enrolled in community college in the United States in 2014. Again, according to the AACC (2014), community college students make up 45% of all undergraduate students in the United States. Of those, 36% are first-generation and 17% are single parents (AACC, 2014).

Community college students are often considered immediately at-risk because they possess certain characteristics including being more likely to need remediation and delay entry to college after high school graduation, enrolling as part-time students, to be single parents, to work full-time, to be financially independent from their parents, and to be first-generation students (CCSSE, 2005). Community college students range in age from 14 to 80 and come to college with a varying degree of life and educational experiences (Breznau, 1998). With all of these factors included, it is evident that community college students face many challenges in reaching their educational goals. They are unmistakably difficult to engage as they spend much of their time on responsibilities outside of college. All of this considered, there is still a very intense need for these students to belong to a college community that is supportive of their goals and their success.

Student Success

Postsecondary degree attainment rates in the United States are sluggish. The National Center for Education Statistics (U.S. Department of Education, 2015) reported that 59% of students who began a bachelor's degree program in 2007 had attained that degree in six years. The Department of Education came under scrutiny for its calculation of degree attainment rates because their calculation only tracks first-time, full-time students enrolling in the fall semester who have attained a degree in 150% of their normal program completion time (Juszkiewicz, 2014). Because community colleges are open door institutions enrolling many of their students part-time, this measure is an unquestionably bad fit for looking at the success of community college students (Juszkiewicz, 2014). The Department of Education reports a 21.2% graduation rate for community colleges, while the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) puts that rate at 39.9% (Juszkiewicz, 2014). The difference is accounted for by AACC's use of a

measure that tracks students who first enroll at a community college and graduate with a degree or credential from that same institution or a different institution three years later (Juszkiewicz, 2014). Regardless of the calculation, degree attainment rates at two and four year institutions are not what they should be. If postsecondary degree attainment rate are to be effected, persistence and student learning must improve considerably (Kuh et al., 2010). Improving persistence and student learning requires a commitment by college personnel to institutionalize engagement and belonging practices proven to increase student success.

Calculations aside, colleges and universities have made increasing graduation rates a top priority recognizing that the best predictors of persistence to graduation are academic preparation and motivation (Kuh et al., 2010). Because the academic preparation of first-time in college students cannot be controlled by postsecondary institutions, the focus for colleges and universities has been on increasing motivation, student engagement, and belonging (Kuh et al., 2010). Research declared that time spent doing educationally purposeful activities is the best predictor of student success. In other words, what students do in college is more indicative of their persistence and degree attainment than any other factor (Astin 1993; Braxton, Jones, Hirschy, & Hartley, 2008; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Conditions for Student Success

Perhaps key to creating this environment is the extent to which college personnel create conditions that are positively associated with student success (Kuh, 2011). Kuh (2011) focused on seven areas that, if fostered at high levels, can provide conditions in which student success can be effected positively. The seven areas cited by Kuh (2011) include: (a) making student success as an institutional priority; (b) teaching students to use institutional resources to their

advantage; (c) making good initiatives available to all students; (d) establishing early-warning and support systems; (e) helping faculty create a sense of belonging in their classrooms; (f) focusing assessment and improvement on student success; and (g) reculturing student affairs.

Community College Student Success

Community colleges were conceived as extensions of public high schools in the early 1900s with the primary purpose of preparing elementary school teachers with a mix of liberal arts education and vocational training (Carnevale, 2014). There are roughly 1,200 community colleges in the United States that are "well positioned to meet the increasing demand for skilled workers in manufacturing, technology, healthcare, and other high-growth fields" (Wyner, 2014, p. #). Further, community colleges carry the unique determination as institutions that can help the United States increase our steady decline in higher education degree completion (Wyner, 2014). Community colleges were identified several years ago by the federal government as an integral partner in addressing the economic challenges faced by the United States (Lothian, 2009). Community colleges have experienced a great deal of transformation and attention over the last several years. Their primary purpose as a transition space between high school and a four-year university or high school and the workforce is clear (Carnevale, 2014), but the opportunity for community colleges to "influence the trajectory of the country's economy through workforce development and higher education is remarkable (Burns, 2010, p. 33). These colleges educate approximately 13 million students per year; in fact, most of the United States' college freshman and sophomores attend community college (Wyner, 2014).

Correspondingly, community colleges act as the higher education access point for low-income students, minority and immigrant students, academically underprepared students, and students with low levels of social capital (Burns, 2010; Carnevale, 2014). Students attending

community colleges are often working (50%) and they are taking at least one remedial course (61%) (Goldrick-Rab, 2010). Community college students are a unique mix of high school students seeking college credit (dual credit), high school students completing transient remedial courses before attending a four-year university, and full-time and part-time students completing a range of vocational training programs or transferable core academic courses (Carnevale, 2014). The principal goal of many students is to emerge from community college with the skills and education required in order to obtain a job that pays more than minimum wage (Carnevale, 2014).

With such an important purpose in mind, it seems tantamount for community colleges to reform their institutions to focus on success. However, this work also requires critically sensitive actions so as not to decrease access while working to admit those students who are more likely to be successful and those who are most likely to complete degrees and certifications (Wyner, 2014). After all, as supported by a sluggishly increasing community college degree attainment rate, students typically attend community college with the goal of accessing either a four-year university or the workforce, not to complete degrees (Wyner, 2014). Even so, in an environment in which the government and the public seek to hold community colleges accountable for their funding by demanding improved success outcomes, Wyner (2014) declared many community colleges have pledged human and financial resources toward efforts to meet these high expectations. These efforts include strategies such as creating learning communities, devising early warning systems, providing incentivized financial aid, requiring study skills and career exploration courses, and working to change local, state, and federal policies. Goldrick-Rab (2010) emphasized that since higher education is a labor-intensive industry, future research on community college student success must focus on how college personnel affect success and

“what kinds of professional development and support translate into more effective teaching practices” (p. 458). All of these tactics are focused on increasing completion rates; however, completion rates have remained stagnant (Wyner, 2014).

Much of the recent work aimed at increasing community college student success was offered in the form of funding by private philanthropic foundations and organizations (Burdman, 2009). These efforts by organizations such as the Lumina Foundation, Achieving the Dream, the Ford Foundation, and the Aspen Foundation once focused on four-year universities; however, that concentration has changed as these entities realize the critical function community colleges play in the higher education landscape (Burdman, 2009). One entity that is working to understand the factors that effect community college outcomes is the Aspen Foundation. The Aspen Prize for Community College Excellence was created as part of these efforts and was built on a four-part definition of community college success: (a) completion – degree and certificate attainment or transfer; (b) equity – equitable outcomes for minority and low-income students; (c) learning – clearly defined and measured learning expectations; and (d) labor market – job attainment (Wyner, 2014). There is obviously a great deal of overlap between Kuh’s (2011) conditions for student success in universities and the Aspen Foundation’s definition of community college success. Achieving these environmental goals provides community college students not just with access to education, but access to high-quality education and an improved future for our country (Wyner, 2014).

An environment that encompasses the conditions associated with student success is often referred to in higher education nomenclature as an engaged or integrated environment. Astin (2001) posited that engagement is both environmental, and influenced by the choices of students. As a result of students’ predisposition to seek out certain environmental characteristics and their

ability to choose how they negotiate those environmental characteristics, students' experiences vary a great deal (Astin, 2001). Further, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) viewed the level of student integration into the academic and social constructs of the college as directly related to the level of impact college has on students. This level of integration is also known as student engagement. Harper and Quaye (2015) defined engagement as "participation in educationally effective practices, both inside and outside the classroom, which leads to a range of measureable outcomes" (p. 3). Whether it is called integration or engagement, the basic idea is that students interact with the college environment and those environmental interactions influence both the students' development and success (Saenz, Hatch, Bukoski, Kim, Lee, & Valdez, 2011). The academic, social, and extracurricular interactions of students with the college environment are essential to their success in college (Astin, 1984; Harper & Quaye, 2015; Kuh, et al., 2006; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Student Engagement

There are several theories that guide the thinking and research about student development, engagement, and belonging on college and university campuses. Although these theories cannot possibly address every story or situation within higher education, they do serve to define, explain, influence, and provide the basis for knowledge construction in higher education (Jones & Abes, 2011). These theories provide a framework for which higher education professionals are able to view students and their behaviors. Further, they develop structures that aid in the development and engagement of students toward successful completion of their higher education goals (Jones & Abes, 2011). Three of these theories are reviewed below.

Developmental Theories

Many of the most robust and longstanding theories about students are developmental theories. Developmental theories include psychosocial theories, cognitive structural theories, social identity theories, and holistic development theories (Jones & Abes, 2011). There are several concepts that are central to student development theories including challenge and support; dissonance; stages, phases, statuses, and vectors; and epigenetic principle and developmental trajectory.

Perhaps the earliest and most fundamental theory of student development is that of Nevitt Sanford (1966). Sanford asserted that there is an ideal balance between challenge and support for college students. Too much support can instigate stagnation for the student and too much challenge can overwhelm the student. Sanford (1966) indicated that colleges and universities can put into place people, policies, and structures that either support the development of their students or hurt the development of their students by introducing excessive challenge (Jones & Abes, 2011; Sanford, 1966). Over the years, it has become clear that those structures that create challenge or support for students differ depending on the characteristics of the student population and the way those characteristics shape the perception of challenge and support (Jones & Abes, 2011).

Another concept central to student development theory is that of dissonance (Jones & Abes, 2011). Dissonance or crisis is what must occur in order for development to take place at all. This type of crisis, according to Widick, Parker, and Knefelkamp (1978) is not necessarily an emergency, rather this type of crisis is a time at which "one reaches an intersection and must turn one way or the other" (p. 3-4). These times of dissonance occur when environmental and internal activities cause students discomfort (Jones & Abes, 2011). The way that students go

about resolving the dissonance that occurs in their lives is the cause for the development process to occur.

Most all developmental theories involve a structural system such as stages, phases, statuses, or vectors. Such terms refer to the location of a student on a developmental continuum (Jones & Abes, 2011). Students' experiences occur along this developmental scale, and as students resolve points of dissonance, they move from one stage, phase, status, or vector to another. It is impossible for each unique student experience to be documented along the continuum; however, the stages and phases identified by researchers serve to represent certain common, defining experiences for each student (Jones & Abes, 2011).

There are several classifications of developmental perspectives on student development – (a) psychosocial, (b) cognitive-structural, (c) identity, (d) holistic, (e) organizational, and (f) student engagement. These theories are useful for making sense of the stark differences among students and how they navigate their collegiate experiences (Evans, 2011). Below is a discussion of psychosocial, cognitive-structural, identity, and holistic development theories. Organizational and student engagement theories are discussed in their own sections as they are important to this study.

Psychosocial theories. Evans (2011, p. 169) asserts that "psychosocial theorists examine the developmental issues that arise at different points during the life span and how they are resolved." Psychosocial development theories are mostly a result of Erikson's work regarding human development (Evans, 2011). According to Erikson (1980), human development occurs in steps or stages. During each stage people are presented with certain situations or issues that must be attended to in order to progress to the next step or stage of development. Humans advance through the stages when certain internal and external conditions interact to create a crisis in

which development occurs (Erikson, 1980). The result of confronting each crisis and moving forward to the next stage is attainment of a certain level of self-actualization (Evans, 2011). Many theorists (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Josselson, 1996; Marcia, 1980) applied Erikson's work to college students to create a group of psychosocial student development theories. These theories provide guidance for understanding the responses and concerns experienced by college students, as well as, for designing appropriate and helpful programs, training, policies, and procedures (Evans, 2011).

Cognitive-structural. According to Evans (2011), "cognitive-structural theories examine how people think and make meaning out of their experiences" (p. 175). Piaget (1952) is credited with developing the idea that each person possesses a set of structures that determine how they think about and respond to their environments; these structures ebb and flow along a developmental continuum. People experience these the stages along the developmental continuum at different ages and different rates; however, each stage develops out of the experiences and responses that occurred before it, becoming more complex as time goes on (Evans, 2011; Wadsworth, 1979). Wadsworth (1979) also put forward the idea of cognitive conflict that occurs when new information conflicts with the existing structure in which the person exists. According to cognitive-structural theorists (Piaget, 1952; Wadsworth, 1979), people will people will try to either assimilate the new information into their current structure or accommodate the information by creating new structures in which to operate. Assimilation and accommodation occur in order for people to regain equilibrium (Wadsworth, 1979). Cognitive-structural theories that apply to college students include intellectual development, moral development, and spiritual and faith development (Evans, 2011).

Intellectual development. Perry (1968) studied college students at two private, ivy league universities during the 1950s. He identified nine structures grouped into four levels in which humans perceive the world (Perry, 1968). Similar to the work of Wadsworth (1979), Perry (1968) determined that the structures exist along a continuum that is progressed through in order, but none of the structures lasts for any particular amount of time. Growth and development occur during the transition between each of the structures. In addition, there are three detours in which more development occurs: (a) temporizing – movement from a structure is postponed; (b) escape – renouncement of responsibility, and (c) retreat – regression (Perry, 1968). Evans (2011) noted that Widick, Parker, and Knefelkamp (1978) furthered Perry's work as it pertains directly to the cognitive development of students; they specifically identified periods of challenge and support as significant to the development of college students.

Another group of researchers (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule, 1986) applied Perry's work directly to women, eventually developing Women's Ways of Knowing. Their study involved women of many socio-economic levels and identified developmental "similarities among women regardless of their backgrounds" (Evans, 2011, p. 177). Baxter Magolda (1992) identified four stages of epistemological development for college students: absolute knowing, transitional knowing, independent knowing, and contextual knowing. Absolute knowing involves depending on authorities for knowledge. The transitional knowing stage occurs when students recognize that knowledge is uncertain and that authorities do not have all the answers. The independent knowing stage happens when students recognize that all knowledge is uncertain and they begin to value situations in which they can think independently. Contextual knowing is usually achieved by students after they have graduated and moved into the workforce; this stage includes the realization that context is important to determine the validity of knowledge and that

evidence must be provided to support knowledge (Evans, 2011). Furthermore, Baxter Magolda (1992) found several gender-related differences in intellectual development through the first three stages, with women using relational patterns of knowing and men utilizing impersonal patterns of knowing. However, Evans (2011) noted that there were no gender-related differences once involved in the contextual knowing stage of intellectual development.

A widely utilized and extensively supported epistemological development model for college students is King and Kitchener's (1994) Reflective Judgment Model. The Reflective Judgment Model consists of seven stages divided into three levels (Evans, 2011). Each stage consists of a different understanding of knowledge, how it is acquired, and how knowledge conflicts are resolved (Evans, 2011). King and Kitchener (1994) recognized that college students move through three levels of thinking: pre-reflective thinking, quasi-reflective thinking, and reflective thinking. Reflective thinking is the highest level and is similar to Baxter Magolda's contextual knowing; however, students are able to utilize more than one stage of thinking at any given time (Evans, 2011). When students encounter complex issues and work through them using reflective judgment, their skills are further developed (King & Kitchener, 1994).

Moral development. According to Evans (2011, p. 179), "moral development is the process by which individuals go about making decisions that affect themselves and others." Kohlberg (1976) studied the cognitive part of moral development – moral reasoning. He discovered that it is with moral reasoning that humans apply logical reasoning and are able to see others' points of view. The more individuals are able to reason logically, the more developed their moral reasoning becomes (Kohlberg, 1976). Again, moral development occurs when people must confront situations in which they must use their moral reasoning skills (Kohlberg,

1976). Gilligan (1982) found that Kohlberg's moral development theory applied differently to men and women. She found that men often use justice and rights thinking to deal with moral reasoning, while women often use base their moral judgments on care and responsibility (Gilligan, 1982). Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, and Thoma (1999) developed a neo-Kohlbergian methodology of moral reasoning in which reasoning is fluid and progresses in complexity; they stopped short of declaring their theory as applicable to every human being.

Spiritual and faith development. Spirituality or faith is the search for purpose and meaning by humans (Parks, 2000). Although spirituality and faith are important aspects of life, this area of development is often overlooked, especially in looking at the development of college students (Evans, 2011). Fowler (1981) declared that faith is the universal conviction of all human beings that we must connect to a "larger center of meaning and purpose, which some call God" (Evans, 2011, p.182), but faith is expressed differently and uniquely for each individual. Development of faith, according to Fowler (1981) is a series of unconscious, cognitive-structural stages in which humans adopt specific beliefs and values. Similar to most other cognitive-structural models, Fowler (1981) believed faith development occurs when individuals are confronted with crises and that the stages of faith development are increasingly more complex. Parks (2000) built on Fowler's work adding a level in which young adults or college students make meaning and learn from other people such as mentors and teachers. As explained by Parks (2000), faith development occurs as a person interacts with self, others, world, and God. The ways that these elements interact with each other and change over time is the catalyst for faith development (Parks, 2000). For positive faith development to occur, students must be involved in working through new and opposing ideas and constructs, reflect on them, and test different positions on each idea and construct (Parks, 2000).

Identity Development. Identity, otherwise known as, self-definition is created by interacting with and experiencing the environment in which one is situated (Torres, 2011). Erikson (1994) explained, that during college, students' experiences and interactions within the college environment become catalysts for changes in students and these changes are what form identity. It is important to recognize that development of identity is not suddenly completed at some point during the life-span; instead, as explained by Torres (2011), "beyond the adolescent years, identity development researchers describe a process of re-visiting identity statuses, suggesting that identity should not be seen as linear and completed at a certain point" (p. 189).

Identity development theories are derived from earlier theories such as lifespan and psychosocial development theories in which theorists asserted that personal and social identities are formed throughout the life-span as human beings learn to distinguish themselves from others (Erikson, 1994; Kroger, 2004; McEwen, 2003; Torres, 2011). Identity development is closely linked to the social systems in which humans exist. These social identities "influence who we are, how we see ourselves, and how we relate to others" (Torres, 2011, p. 189). Social identities include characteristics such as ethnicity, race, gender, sexual orientation, social class, and religion which describe a reference point in which each person develops their own identity (Torres, 2011). Individuals commonly operate within the context of multiple social identities at the same time which informs how each person makes meaning within and perceives themselves as part of multiple social systems (Jones & McEwen, 2000). Because students may not develop a strong sense of social identity before entering college, it is important for higher education practioners to understand that students' levels of social identity development inform both their internal voices and their decision making abilities (Torres, 2011). The lower the level of social

identity development, the more common it is for a student to make a decision based on the context or environment than on their internal wants and needs (Torres, 2011).

Student Engagement Theories

Student engagement research (Astin, 1984; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perna & Thomas, 2008; Tinto, 1993) provides a context for higher education institutions to incorporate certain policies and practices that promote student development and success. Much work has been done in higher education institutions to identify and promote engagement activities that are essential to the student experience, student development, and student success (Kuh, 2011). Student success is defined in many different ways including academic achievement, satisfaction, persistence, acquisition of knowledge and skills, and attainment of educational or personal goals (Association of American Colleges & Universities, 2007; Braxton, Hirschy, & McClendon, 2004; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2007). Student engagement theories take into account that students come to college with varied backgrounds (socioeconomic status, finances, academic preparation, family support) and these backgrounds may determine the path for student success before they even enter college (Kuh, 2011). As a result of these different student backgrounds, colleges must engage students in educationally purposeful activities that are linked with desired student success outcomes (Kuh, 2001, 2003; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Such activities include leadership, honors, and work-study programs; tutoring and study groups; and study-abroad and service learning opportunities (Kuh, 2011). Higher education institutions must work to create an environment in which these educationally purposeful activities are inextricably linked to the policies, procedures, and practices at work.

As detailed above, the National Survey of Student Engagement, describes certain conditions that, if and when present, create a highly engaged student body and high levels of

student success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005). The first student success linked condition is that the college has made student success an institutional priority. The institution has focused time and effort on designing programs and practices that contribute to student success; the administration, faculty, and staff recognize and fully engage in making student success a priority for the institution (Kuh, 2011). Second, is that institutions must guide students to use the institutional resources that are available to them, and provide resources that are appropriate for several groups of students. These varied groups include first time in college students, students returning after a stop out, and transfer students (Kuh, 2011). Such institutional resources include high performance expectations, required or highly encouraged participation in activities, on-campus living, and intrusive advising (Kuh, 2011). Third, student affairs and academic affairs personnel must collaborate to provide engaging activities on a comprehensive scale (Kuh, 2011). Twigg (2005) found that students do not choose to participate in such activities even if the activities can provide them valuable and beneficial information. It has been widely noted that college students 'don't do optional' (Bradley, 2014; Fain, 2012; Twigg, 2005), so it is imperative that college and university personnel provide programming that works on a widely available scale.

The fourth condition necessary to student success is a comprehensive early warning system with a built in safety net for students when they need support (Kuh, 2011). Comprehensive early warning systems must be monitored regularly and often to ensure that they are working as intended and that they are being used properly by students and by institutional personnel (Kuh, 2011). The fifth, and most extensively documented condition, is that classroom experiences and campus community experiences must be congruent and reinforcing to a sense of belonging (Kuh et al., 1991; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005; Kuh, 2011;

Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). When community is intentionally built, students are able to learn and develop a commitment to personal and educational goals (Kuh, 2011; Maslow, 1968).

The sixth key component for student success is that institutions accurately collect data, effectively analyze the data, and promptly utilize the data to make changes (Kuh, 2011). The seventh fundamental condition is that the campus culture does not give students the proverbial runaround (Kuh, 2011). Instead, a highly functional campus culture that effectively links policies, practices, procedures, and behaviors is overwhelmingly cited as key to student success in studies of high-performing higher education institutions (Collins, 2001; Kuh, 2011; Kuh et al., 2005; Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Tierney, 1999).

Organizational Theories

There are several organizational theories at play in understanding campus operations and how campus operations permeate the structures of student engagement, belonging, development, and success. Organizational theory provides a framework in which administration, faculty, and staff can identify and validate their roles in "leadership, governance, organizational change, resource allocation, human resource management, organizational design, restructuring, hiring, teamwork, networking, and organizational culture" (Kezar, 2010, p. 226). Higher education personnel interact with at least one of these constructs of campus operations each day, hence gaining an understanding of organizational theory and its role in organizational change; this process assists higher education personnel in creating an organization focused on student success (Kezar, 2010).

Because the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and students' sense of belonging in college, instruments that measure these concepts were selected. In order to describe the leadership frames of college

personnel at SWTJC, the researcher selected Bolman and Deal's (1997) four-frame model, *Leadership Orientations*, because of its utility in many different organizations and with the many leaders within them.

According to Bolman and Deal (1997), who integrated many organizational studies, there are four frames that provide a lens to understand organizations and how they work. These frames are structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Through these lenses, Bolman and Deal (1997) provided a sort of roadmap by which to navigate and unravel organizational issues.

The structural frame is a commonly used framework by which leaders base their decisions on the organizational structure and the roles played by each person within that organizational structure (Kezar, 2010). This frame is useful because it provides identification of opportunities to restructure, to maximize performance, and to meet goals (Kezar, 2010).

The human resource frame focuses more on motivation and needs of the people involved in the organization. Leaders who rely on the human resource frame understand and work to utilize human capital and focus on leadership strategies that encourage participation and celebrate the commitment and effort of the human beings involved in the organization (Kezar, 2010).

The political frame, as described by Bolman and Deal (1997), is often the least utilized by educators because politics are generally viewed as having a negative impact on organizations. However, the political frame can be utilized to build agendas, bring out common visions, persuade others, and identify sources of power that can be used to bring about change (Kezar, 2010).

The symbolic frame deals with organizational symbols such as mission, vision, and values. This frame is highly underutilized in higher education because of its rather recent emergence into academic research (Kezar, 2010). Leaders who view organizations through the symbolic frame recognize that the mission, vision, and values of organizations give employees both a sense of purpose and a way to view the future so that goals can be met (Kezar, 2010). Bolman and Deal (1997) designated the symbolic frame as the only frame that highlights the importance of the spirit of the organization.

The research by Bolman and Deal (1997) further revealed that leaders tend to use only one or two frames to navigate and address organizational issues. The authors also found that leaders perceive themselves as using certain frames successfully, while members of the same organization do not perceive the frames being used at all or if they are used they are not used effectively (Kezar, 2010). Bolman and Deal (1997) actually emphasized a multi-frame model of viewing organizations in which leaders recognize the strengths and weaknesses of all the frames and use a combination of the best parts of the four frames to address organizational issues.

Birnbaum (1988) applied the four frames directly to the organizational behavior of higher education institutions. In Birnbaum's work (1988), the frames are entitled bureaucratic, collegial, political, and anarchical. Most of the same concepts described in the work of Bolman and Deal (1997) apply (bureaucratic equals structural; collegial equals human resource; political equals political); however, the anarchical frame is unique to the organizational behavior within higher education institutions. In fact, the anarchical frame is most often found in large research universities which operate differently from other types of higher education institutions in a state of organized chaos where there are many different goals set by many different people and groups of people within the university (Kezar, 2010). According to Kezar (2010), the organized nature

of the chaos in anarchical institutions occurs because of "the independence and autonomy of faculty, the shared nature of power and authority, and the complexity of the work of faculty and staff in the teaching and learning process" (p. 234).

The remaining frames as applied to higher education institutions operate much the same as in other organizations. The bureaucratic (structural) college or university is driven by goals, purposes, and directives; they are organized into hierarchical, sometimes siloed units, with little communication between and among different departments (Kezar, 2010). The collegial (human resource) higher education institution operates as a community divided into several different groups that respect each other and work well together. However, it is usually evident to members of the community that the faculty hold a more influential and powerful place within the community (Kezar, 2010). Weick (1991) described collegial institutions as loosely coupled systems with autonomous employees and decentralized decision making. Finally, political colleges and universities contain many different cultures and few common values between cultures (Kezar, 2010). Berquist (1992) found that unionized campuses operate with a political culture because of there is no collegiality in the community due to the failure of the administrative culture to provide for the financial and personal needs of the faculty and staff.

The second objective of the study is to describe the sense of belonging among students at SWTJC. The Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB) (Hoffman et al., 2002) was selected by the researcher for several reasons. The first reason for selection is that the SB (Hoffman, et al., 2002) was developed as a tool to determine students' levels of integration or belonging in the systems and structures of higher education. A second reason for selecting the SB is that its developers recognized and attempted to capture "the complexity in measuring this psychological manifestation" of sense of belonging (Hoffman et al., 2002, p. 228). The final reason for

selecting the SB is that its developers intended to provide a tool with which higher education institutions can cultivate institutional retention policies that take into account the critical nature of sense of belonging in student's decisions to stay or go (Hoffman et al., 2002, p. 228). It is the connection between institutional leadership characteristics and students' sense of belonging that this researcher intends to discover.

Measuring Student Engagement

According to Veiga, Reeve, Wentzel, and Robu (2014) engagement is a construct consisting of a range of student involvement characteristics including effort, persistence, classroom behavior, self-regulation, active learning, and strategic thinking. Because engagement is such a complex and highly important concept, great care must be taken in measuring it (Veiga et al., 2014). There are many types of instruments available for measuring student engagement within a higher education institution. Some instruments measure only one aspect of student engagement, while others attempt to measure multiple dimensions of the concept. There are instruments that measure engagement at all types of educational institutions from elementary school up to higher education (Veiga et al., 2014). Measures of student engagement also range from self-report questionnaires to assessments using outside observers (Veiga et al., 2014). There are many measures of student engagement including the Student Engagement Instrument (SEI), the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE), the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (CSEQ), the College Senior Survey (CSS), and the Student Satisfaction Inventory (SSI).

The SEI is a self-report instrument used to assess cognitive and affective engagement of students with their high schools and was aligned with high school completion research. The data gathered from the SEI is intended to "complement behavioral and academic engagement data

readily available in school records" (Lovelace, Reschly, Appleton, & Lutz, 2014, p. 510). The CCSSE is the community college relative of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) which was developed to measure engagement at 4-year colleges and universities. The CCSSE is also a self-report instrument with the goal of providing "information about effective educational practice in community colleges;" CCSSE data is used to "promote improvements in student learning and retention" (McClenney, 2007, p. 137). The CCSSE is an annual survey that provides information about college students' participation in purposeful educational opportunities and activities, how they spend their time, how and how often they interact with personnel, and the take-aways they have obtained from college (McClenney, 2007). Results of the CCSSE are published publically and are intended to be used for benchmarking purposes (McClenney, 2007). The CSEQ is a now defunct questionnaire that measures the "quality of effort students expend in using institutional resources" (Gonyea, 2007, para. 1). Its developer asserted that quality of effort is essential for evaluating engagement and understanding how learning and development are effected by engagement (Gonyea, 2007). Higher education institutions can still license the CSEQ and use it to assess program effectiveness, learning outcomes, complement other data, compile accreditation data, examine initiatives and efforts, assess programming, and evaluate student involvement (Gonyea, 2007). The SSI is another self-report inventory that asks participants to first rate the importance of a list of expectations about their college experiences and then rate their satisfaction with the same list of expectations. A performance gap is calculated that explains the differences between students' expectations and their level of satisfaction with their college experiences. (Bryant, 2006). The SSI is available is several versions including one for community colleges, one for four-year institutions, and one for career colleges (Bryant, 2006). Each of these instruments seeks to quantify student engagement

in a way that it can be used to inform policy and program decision making at higher education institutions.

According to Pascarella and Terenzini (2005), quality engagement with college personnel is critical to student persistence and educational attainment. Engagement is not just about frequencies, but quality of engagement. Therefore, there is a need to examine other types of interactions as an expression of quality. This leads to the long-standing question 'what are we doing wrong?' The issue may not be a matter of, what are we doing wrong?, but what other data are needed? For example, how many times do students visit their teachers? How many times do they go to the library? How many student organizations are they involved in? How much time do they spend on homework? All of these interactions and many more comprise the high-impact engagement practices Kuh et al. (2010) described as critical to student success.

High-Impact Practices

Researchers (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason, 2009; Schuetz, 2008; Strayhorn, 2012; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996) declared that academic, interpersonal, and extracurricular activities should be focused on increasing student engagement thereby building an initial sense of belonging that leads to student autonomy, competence, and success. There are certain practices, policies, and procedures that, if implemented by postsecondary institutions, are known to increase student engagement thereby increasing student success (Kuh et al., 2010). As far back as 1987, Chickering and Gamson (1987) cited student-faculty contact, prompt feedback, high expectations, cooperation among students, active learning, time on task, and respect for diverse talents and ways of learning as good practices for engagement in higher education. Educationally effective institutions observed how to focus students' efforts toward certain activities and engage students in those activities at a deep level (Kuh et al., 2010). A study by

Brownwell and Swaner (2009) revealed that students who participate in certain high-impact educational practices consistently persist at a higher rate than their non-engaged peers.

High-impact educational practices are a set of active learning behaviors that have been tested and proven helpful to the success of college students (Kuh, 2008). Although Kuh (2008) listed 10 activities that are known to increase student success, he also noted that these activities are not inflexible. Instead, Kuh (2008) indicated that high-impact educational practices are adaptable to both the characteristics of the learners and the culture and context of the institutions in which they are practiced. For example, Bonet and Walters (2016) stated that engagement through high-impact practices reaches students in classrooms, but when done systematically, these practices permeate outside of the classroom services such as counseling and academic support resources as well. A deep impact on performance is observed when inside and outside of the classroom experiences exhibit a congruent commitment to students' academic and personal succeses (Bonet & Walters, 2016). Assessment of these practices' contribution to learning is easily performed on many college and university campuses where they are prevalent. The problem is that colleges and universities that employ high-impact practices often do so unsystematically (Kuh, 2008). In other words, there are a lot of colleges and universities that use high-impact educational practices, but most of those colleges and universities have not made pervasive changes to their curriculum and culture to include high-impact educational practices as part of the fiber of their being.

The following ten high-impact educational practices have been researched and are proven to increase student retention and student engagement: (a) first year seminars; (b) common intellectual experiences; (c) learning communities; (d) writing-intensive courses; (e) collaborative assignments and projects; (f) undergraduate research; (g) diversity and global

learning; (h) service learning projects; (i) internships; and (j) capstone courses and projects (Kuh, 2008). Engagement in high-impact activities is strongly correlated with increasing first-year to second-year retention. Hispanic students who participate in high-impact practices have a higher likelihood of returning for a second year of college than white students (Kuh, 2008).

Kuh (2013) emphasized that there are several elements that are shared across all of the high-impact educational practices. First, high-impact educational activities are effortful in that they demand that students put forth effort to complete purposeful tasks in a way that strengthens their investment in both the activity and in their commitment to their college endeavors. Second, these activities help students build relationships with faculty, staff, and peers; when in the company of people who have shared interests, students succeed at higher levels. Third, students receive frequent feedback from both their teachers and their fellow students. Fourth, students have the opportunity to apply what they are learning in many different situations which makes the learning more meaningful. Fifth, high-impact activities provide a forum for students to reflect on what they have learned and to reflect on how the learning is changing them as a person.

Student engagement is explicitly tied to student success. Within student engagement exist two specific mechanisms that promote student success. These include the time and effort that students spend on their studies and educational activities, and the way higher education institutions allocate resources toward getting students to participate in learning opportunities in which they gain benefit (Kuh et al., 2010). Of interest for this study is the second mechanism – how some colleges and universities foster student success by planning and organizing curriculum, academic supports, personal supports, and extracurricular activities in a way that students will put forth maximum effort. The formula for producing this type of deep engagement

with students is nothing short of a mystery to many colleges and universities, while some have figured it out. It seems that those who have successfully engaged themselves in an introspective process of tearing down and rebuilding pervasive policies, procedures, and practices that engage students at a level that drives persistence, motivation, and, ultimately success (Kuh et al., 2010). Obviously, these institutions build an engaged student body through the people who are connected daily with students – the faculty, staff, and administrators.

Sense of Belonging

Foundations

Sense of belonging has its roots in psychology. The human need to feel connected is deep and innate; it is referred to using many different descriptors including, but not limited to: belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Goodenow, 1993; Maslow, 1954), relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1991), affiliation (McClelland, 1987), mattering (Osterman, 2000), sense of identification or positioning (Tovar & Simon, 2010), and sense of community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Strayhorn (2012) indicated that belonging is not just universal, it is a basic human need that applies to every single person.

Further, the need to belong also drives behavior and action. Belongingness needs motivate human beings to act or behave in certain ways. Of course, acting or behaving in a certain way in order to become or remain part of a group can be either negative or positive to a person's overall well-being (Strayhorn, 2012). Strayhorn (2012) explained that "all people want to feel cared about, needed, valued, and somewhat indispensable as the object of someone else's affection" (p. 19). Substantiating this need to belong is critical for psychological and physical well-being (Maslow, 1968).

Humans must have their need for belongingness met in order to move up Maslow's (1968) hierarchy of needs. Belongingness was considered by Maslow (1968) as a middle level need which arises only after basic needs such as food, shelter, and safety are met. It follows that if the middle level need for belongingness is not satisfied, higher-level needs – understanding, knowledge, self-actualization – will be prevented from ever emerging (Maslow, 1968). For college students, it is especially critical for the middle-level need for belonging to be met so that the high-level needs can be satisfied and students can successfully reach their educational and career goals. As Strayhorn (2012) put it "the consummate goals of higher education cannot be achieved (or even pursued) until students feel a sense of connectedness, membership, and belonging in college" (p. 18).

Students' Sense of Belonging

College personnel with highly successful student populations share with their students a very deep level of connection with their institutions' mission, vision, and culture (Kuh et al., 2010). They understand that each and every contact they have with students is an opportunity to not just build learning opportunities, but also to foster a community built for student success (Kuh et al., 2010). Tinto (1975) theorized that higher education institutions are constructed of several academic and social systems. Student integration into these systems is central to their perceived 'fit' within the institution and their decision to persist through degree completion (Tinto, 1975). The perceived integration or affiliation with the systems is known as sense of belonging (Hoffman, et al., 2002). In other words, the higher the level of integration, the higher the level of belonging, and the higher the level of persistence at the institution (Hoffman, et al., 2002). There are many factors that affect the level of integration and sense of belonging. Researchers in fields other than higher education have done well to define sense of belonging as

the level of personal involvement in a system (Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwseman, & Collier, 1992). This personal involvement in the institutional systems involves being a valued member of the system, finding interpersonal relatedness within the system, and obtaining a perceived adequate level of support and resources from the system (Cohen & Willis, 1985; Hagerty et al., 1992; Hagerty, Williams, Coyne, & Early, 1996).

At many higher education institutions there is small group of senior faculty and administrative staff that seems to get it. This group has been around long enough and has had enough experience to understand that what they do and say affects the student experience. Institutions that get it have taken that group of faculty and staff and used it to drive institutional aspirations and to empower the campus community to take responsibility for student success (Kuh et al., 2010). These institutions understand that formal and informal relationships with college personnel (faculty, staff, and administrators) play a significant role in student success in college (Kuh et al., 2006). Mardsen (2004) posited that the nature of the relationships between students and college personnel either supports students in their academic endeavors or presents obstacles for persistence and completion. Researchers and theorists alike view the social network (relationships with faculty, staff, peers, family, friends, and mentors) of students as integral to satisfaction, persistence (retention), and what students actually gain from college (Kuh et al., 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Tinto, 1993).

Students with supportive social networks have a better chance of persisting after conquering an obstacle because they have a safety net of relationships with people who have either experienced some of the same difficulties or understand and can relate how to navigate through the perceived obstacles (Kuh et al., 2006). College personnel play a unique role in helping students navigate through perceived obstacles. In many ways, college personnel have

mastered the unpredictable aspects of the college experience. Members of the college personnel have not just been to college, they have persisted through college and graduated. In other words, college personnel have been to college, and they have the proverbial t-shirt. College personnel are privy to seemingly trivial, but extremely helpful information such as the definition of all the program acronyms, the place with the best prices for books, and the person who can waive parking tickets. They can provide access to the best research assistant jobs, the gym hours, and, of course, they know each event that offers free food and how to get a second helping. College personnel speak college, and for students, learning to speak college can make the difference between staying in and graduating or dropping out. College personnel can ease the burden of these perceived obstacles by working to engage students in a supportive social network built with college personnel who understand their essential role in building students' sense of belonging in college (Kuh et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Strayhorn, 2012).

The different types of interactions that students have with college personnel each solidify a different part of the college experience. Interactions between faculty and students have long been touted as highly effective engagement activities. Formal, in-class interactions with faculty promote academic competence while informal, out-of-class interactions are related to student development (Kuh et al., 2006). The extent to which students interact with college personnel (any supportive employee on campus) is directly related to persistence and success (Kuh, 2003; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Although the dynamics of how these interactions effect student success are not completely understood at this time, it is clear that interactions with college personnel matter to students (Kuh et al., 2006).

There are multiple definitions of sense of belonging used in higher education. Although each definition is slightly different, the constant is that sense of belonging is a result of the level

of group integration felt by students (Strayhorn, 2012). Many of these explanations are built upon the belief that belonging is a basic human need as conveyed by Maslow (1968). Maslow (1968) stated that humans possess, as part of basic construction, many physiological needs, but also have many psychological needs. These psychological needs, such as sense of belonging, are fulfilled by the environment and they are necessary for well-being to the point that deprivation of these needs can cause illness (Maslow, 1968). Thus, feeling a sense of belonging in one's environment is a necessary and required part of the basic human need structure.

Strayhorn (2012) defined sense of belonging in college as the perceived support for students on campus. More specifically, sense of belonging is manifested as being connected, cared about, accepted, respected, and valued as a part of the campus community (Strayhorn, 2012). Sense of belonging is critical to psychological well-being, as it contributes to feelings of happiness and joy (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Obtaining a sense of belonging has many positive outcomes including academic achievement, retention, and persistence, as well as, development of supportive and meaningful relationships (Hausmann, Schofield, & Woods, 2007; Rhee, 2008; Strayhorn, 2012). When the need to belong is fulfilled, people, namely students, are able to operate more successfully toward their goals.

Deprivation of basic psychological needs such as sense of belonging limits the person's ability to move to a higher level of the pyramid (Maslow, 1968). If the need to belong goes unfulfilled, negative outcomes follow. Research shows that students whose need to belong goes unfulfilled exhibit disengagement, lack of commitment, and the lower levels of motivation, development, and academic achievement (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Goodenow, 1993). It also holds true that since belonging is a basic human need, it is situation-specific (Maslow, 1968). For example, students who experience a sense of belonging in a student organization, but not in the

classroom will excel in the student organization, but may experience negative outcomes in classroom activities (Osterman, 2000). Strayhorn (2012) also specified sense of belonging by asserting that it is about reciprocal relationships with other people who are part of the campus community. Reciprocity is important because all the members of the community benefit from each other in various ways (Strayhorn, 2012). Further, reciprocity is necessary because "the group satisfies the needs of the individual – in exchange for membership, they will be cared for and supported" (Strayhorn, 2012, p. 3). As part of this reciprocal group, members feel that they matter to each other, that they contribute to the group, and that, through the group's commitment to each other, all of their needs will be met (McMillan & Chavis, 1986).

There are other elements of sense of belonging as Strayhorn (2012) postulated. The first is that sense of belonging is enough to motivate certain human behavior. Human beings need to feel cared about and valued, and, as a result, they behave in a certain way in order to belong to their desired group (Strayhorn, 2012). Second, sense of belonging is more important at certain points and in certain contexts. As Strayhorn (2012) explained, sense of belonging takes on heightened importance (a) in certain contexts such as being a newcomer to a group or community, (b) at certain times such as late adolescence, and (c) among certain populations especially those that are marginalized. Third, students have difficultly completing academic tasks unless their basic need to belong is met (Strayhorn, 2012). The last, and most critical element, of sense of belonging is that it is heavily linked to mattering (Strayhorn, 2012). Put differently, it is not enough to have positive experiences in a group for belongingness to occur, on the contrary, a person must feel cared about and valued as part of the group in order to truly feel as though they belong to said group.

Consequently, identity plays a role in belonging, in that social identity and core-self are critical in the development of sense of belonging. The point at which a person exists in development of social identity and core-self can affect that person's feelings of belonging (Strayhorn, 2012). As Strayhorn stated "although the need for belongingness is universal and applies to all people, it does not necessarily apply to all people equally" (2012, p. 123). As discussed above, a well-developed sense of belonging is also indicative of many positive outcomes such as engagement, academic achievement, and happiness; however, a poorly developed sense of belonging suggests negative outcomes such as depression, loneliness, and poor academic achievement (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Sense of belonging is fluid; hence, the need for it must be satisfied continuously as conditions change (Strayhorn, 2012).

Building an environment in which students, faculty, and staff feel a sense of belonging and/or community has long been touted as a necessity albeit a challenging necessity for a successful higher education institution (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). With the appropriate amount of support and resources, a higher education institution can create an environment in which students, faculty, and staff can all experience a sense of community in which their contributions are valued and respected. Creating this sort of environment is not easy as it requires support and resources from governmental leaders as well as high level higher education administrators (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). When this type of environment is created it lends itself directly to student retention and further student success.

Tinto (1993) identified three major sources of student departure from college: (a) academic difficulties; (b) inability of students to resolve educational goals; and (c) failure to become integrated in the academic and social communities of the institution. In order to persist and be retained in college, students must be fully integrated into the academic and social systems

of the college (Tinto, 1993). Tinto (1993) posited that these systems include formal systems such as academic performance and extracurricular activities and informal systems such as faculty-student interactions outside the classroom and peer-group interactions with fellow students. Obtaining a sense of belonging is a critical part of persistence and retention of students. Colleges are responsible in large part for creating environments in which all programs, both formal and informal, are committed to development of highly supportive academic and social communities in which all students are accepted and respected as competent members (Tinto, 1993).

While it is known that obtaining a sense of belonging is critical to success, it is also known that simple involvement in institutional systems is not adequate to ensure student success (Hoffman et al., 2002). Hoffman, Richmond, Morrow, and Salomone (2002) posited that greater clarity was needed regarding contributing factors to students' development of sense of belonging. As a result of this lack of clarity, the researchers set out to develop an instrument that measures sense of belonging, the results of which can be used to assist higher education institutions to design effective retention and intervention strategies on their campuses (Hoffman, et al., 2002).

Community College Leadership and Administration

Leadership, especially in the community college, occurs in a highly complex, unpredictable, constantly changing environment. Community college administrators must learn how to best serve the needs of their students while facing a slew of challenges including constantly fluctuating financial and human resources; complex federal, state, and local laws; unpredictable stakeholder demands; and halfhearted relationships with faculty and staff (Nevarez & Wood, 2010). While many community college leaders possess a vast amount of practical

experience, Nevarez and Wood (2010) assert that community college leaders must also use theory to guide their approach to successfully leading community colleges in this very dynamic environment.

Although leadership and administration are often used interchangeably, the terms are actually incredibly different (Nevarez & Wood, 2010). Administration, according to Olsen (2006), is both a mode for establishing and following the policies, procedures, and behaviors of an institution as well as a descriptive term for those people who hold positions in the upper echelons of leadership of an institution. Administration and administrators tend to be driven by "rules, regulations, processes, policies, law, bylaws, strategic plans, and other established institutional protocol (Nevarez & Wood, 2010, p. 57). Leadership, on the other hand, is a concept by which administrators act within their college's policy and procedure structure. Leadership is very broadly defined within community colleges. Northouse (1997) defined leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Nevarez and Wood (2010) applied this concept to community colleges and developed the following definition – "leaders influencing and inspiring others beyond desired outcomes" (p. 57). Often, community colleges include personnel who operate either as administrators or leaders, but not as both. Nevarez and Wood (2010) emphasize that when personnel understand that the concepts of administration and leadership are best used together (holistic approach), institutional efficiencies are significantly enhanced.

Faculty Leadership

The majority of existing studies regarding leadership in higher education focus on formal administrative roles such as presidents, vice presidents, deans, and department chairs. Few studies have focused on college personnel who are part of the informal leadership structures that

govern the everyday work environments of higher education.

Informal leadership structures are integral to the student experience (Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, & Warland, 2015). Faculty and staff who participate in leadership activities such as mentoring students, advising student groups, and coordinating engagement activities are often overshadowed by their counterparts who bring in big research dollars, especially in higher education institutions with a research focus (Hofmeyer et al., 2015). The Hofmeyer et al. (2015) study found that faculty limited such teaching activities in favor of research activities in order to gain recognition from the administrative leadership at their institutions. This focus on research has undermined the college personnel who are committed to leading and teaching students. To some extent, faculty who place an emphasis on teaching and learning activities have experienced indifference, mistrust, and micromanagement in cultures that fail to incentivize those who become leaders in teaching and learning activities (Hofmeyer et al., 2015). In the community college, the focus on research is not as prevalent, and instead, triumphs in teaching and learning are celebrated and incentivized.

Community college faculty make up 22% of the full-time faculty workforce (Modern Language Association, 2006). These faculty members cite the ability to make an impact in students' lives as the reason they remain in community colleges (Modern Language Association, 2006). Many community college faculty (73%) experience feelings of joy in their work and 71% find their work meaningful (Modern Language Association, 2006). Because community college faculty are intent on making an impact, they are readily available to participate in leadership activities such as mentoring and modeling.

In a study on good teaching in college, Samples and Copeland (2013) found that the good teaching involves commitment to leadership activities that directly support student learning by

focusing on building a sense of belonging with students. Samples and Copeland (2013) asserted that since community college faculty are perceived to spend most of their time interacting and engaging with students, a faculty reward system that recognizes good teaching that includes these leadership activities could be a game changer for some institutions (Samples & Copeland, 2013). Because it is evident that faculty-student interaction is fundamental to student success, the emphasis should be placed on interacting and engaging with students both formally and informally. In community colleges, the focus has long been on student contact, but Rifkin (1997) reported that a greater faculty emphasis on student learning may create a greater urgency among students to become autonomous learners. Since community colleges serve more than half of the underserved student population, another key in community colleges is the need for diverse faculty who can serve as role models and mentors for students (Rifkin, 1997).

Staff Leadership

A review of the literature on leadership in higher education yielded little regarding staff leadership. The focus in the research is on administrative leadership and faculty positions of authority (Arrington, 2015). Although support staff are positioned close to students and can often provide insight to the barriers to student success, their contributions to the leadership structures in higher education are often overlooked and undervalued (Arrington, 2015; Szekeres, 2004).

One of the noted leadership roles for staff is that of the holder of the informal cultural capital of the institution (Bourdieu, 1977). The cultural capital held by support staff includes items such as who to ask for help, where to go for help, how to navigate the bureaucracy of higher education, and how to access campus resources (Arrington, 2015). Staff impact student success by leading and supporting students in their pursuit of cultural capital. According to

Middleton (2006), higher education environments must be welcoming and unobstructed for cultural capital to be obtained and in order for students to successfully achieve their degrees. Staff play essential leadership roles in creating these unobstructed processes in which students can "get what they want, when they want it" (Middleton, 2006, p. 3).

Administrative Leadership

Traditionally, formal leadership at community colleges existed in the extreme upper echelons of the organizational structure. Often the president sat in the lone authoritative, decision-making position. However, in the 1990s, community colleges began a shift toward a shared leadership structure in which the decision making process became more participatory in nature and involved those in positions such as vice president, associate vice president, dean, and division chair (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006).

This shared governance structure still exists in community colleges at this time. Lucey (2002) posited that in a shared leadership structure, members have specific roles and make decisions in a specific area or set of circumstances. Typically, faculty and academic administrators are responsible for curriculum and scholastic decisions, while other administrators are responsible for decisions regarding budget and resource allocation as well as general institutional strategy and management (Lucey, 2002). The emphasis is no longer on one great person leading the organization, but rather emphasizes participatory and shared decision-making (Chliwniak, 1997).

There are many different terms to describe the current administrative leadership structure at community colleges (i.e., shared leadership, shared governance, multidimensional leadership, etc.) (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). All of these terms describe an administrative structure in which the focus is less on the one person leading the organization and more on the roles of many

administrators (academic and non-academic) sharing the responsibility and accountability for the institution (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006).

Southwest Texas Junior College

At Southwest Texas Junior College (SWTJC), the engagement discussion has been ongoing for a number of years. Personnel and administration seem to realize that engagement is necessary for continued and increased success of students. After making superficial changes to curriculum, student activities, and assessment processes for several years prior to the 2015 reaffirmation visit, SWTJC faculty, staff, and administration chose student engagement as the topic for the Quality Enhancement Plan portion of the reaffirmation of accreditation process. As a result of the Quality Enhancement Plan, there have been more opportunities for face to face engagement, training for faculty on a variety of classroom engagement strategies, and increased funding for engagement initiatives. There is also an increased sense awareness of the role that engagement plays in student success, however, the college struggles to make lasting systemic changes. The feeling among some college personnel is that engagement is just another trend that will wane as quickly as it flourished. Add to this attitude the fact that faculty, staff, and students at SWTJC are spread across three full service campuses and four smaller service sites, and there is a severely mixed bag of attempts at good student engagement. Nevertheless, SWTJC's administration is focused on increasing persistence and graduation rates. So much so, that they have committed a wide range of human and financial resources to increase the graduation rate by 14% over the next year and a half. A sustained increase in persistence and graduation requires an intense look at the effectiveness of the ways in which college personnel interact with students. This study will examine the relationship between campus personnel leadership frames and student success at Southwest Texas Junior College.

Summary

Higher education institutions must recognize their abilities to effect change for their students. Colleges and universities play a very important role in making life better and different for every student who chooses to enter these institutions. In order to meet the essential needs of students while also providing opportunities for development, higher education institutions must commit to creating and maintaining environments in which students are able to obtain a sense of belonging (Braxton & Hirschy, 2004; Maslow, 1968). Therefore, institutions must focus on building policies, procedures, programs, and structures that engage students in meaningful ways so as to maximize sense of belonging, and ultimately student success (Deil-Amen & Rosenbaum, 2003).

CHAPTER III: METHODS

Student success in college is directly linked to the connections and engagement activities experienced by students (Kuh, 2013). Students can experience these connections to the campus community and its resources in many settings across college campuses. These experiences provide a method for integration into the institutional systems, thus leading students to develop a sense of belonging to the campus community (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2010; Strayhorn, 2012). Additionally, student experiences are affected by how campus personnel express their "personal values and contribute to their sense of purpose in their own work" (Vuori, 2014, p. 517).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and sense of belonging at Southwest Texas Junior College. The first objective was to describe the leadership frames of college personnel at SWTJC. The second objective was to describe sense of belonging among students at SWTJC. Finally, a third objective of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging at Southwest Texas Junior College. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators as indicated by the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991)?
2. What are students' perspectives regarding sense of belonging as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (Hoffman et al., 2002)?
3. What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging?

Design

The study was ex post facto in nature and it employs a correlational design. Ex post facto studies are performed in retrospect to study relationships among characteristics that already exist (Vogt, 2007). In other words, ex post fact research is used to discover relationships among existing variables.

There was one independent variable, leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators, present in the study (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The dependent variable was the level of sense of belonging among students that are present at Southwest Texas Junior College (Hoffman, et al., 2002). No causal inferences could be made because the independent variable was not be manipulated.

Participant Selection

The participant population consisted of full-time and part-time faculty, staff, and administrators who work at Southwest Texas Junior College and students attending the same community college. There were four major groups included in the study: (a) faculty; (b) staff; (c) administrators; (d) students. Faculty, staff, and administrators are full-time or part-time employees at the college. These employees work in various functional areas within the college including academic affairs, administrative/business services, continuing education/workforce development, or student services. The employees have varying levels of experience in higher education ranging from less than 1 year to more than 18 years. They also have varying levels of education ranging from high school diplomas to doctoral degrees. These employees primarily work at one of three campuses or an additional four service sites.

Students were classified as full-time, part-time, or dual credit. All dual credit, high school students will be excluded from the study by excluding their email addresses from the list

of survey recipients. All student participants were 18 years of age and older and not dual credit, high school students. Some student participants were first generation college students. They attended one of three campuses or four service sites. Since the ability to speak and write English is required to be an employee or student, the entire study was conducted in English.

Potential participants for the leadership frames section of the study were identified from all college personnel at the college. Participants for the leadership frames section were identified by obtaining a list from the human resources coordinator of all full-time and part-time faculty, staff, and administrators at the college. The list contained first name, last name, and email addresses for each potential participant. A recruitment email containing the link to the survey was sent to all employees on the list.

Potential participants for the sense of belonging section of the study were identified from all non-dual credit students enrolled during the fall 2017 semester at the college. Dual-credit students were not be included in the list. These participants were identified by obtaining a list from the registrar's office of all non-dual credit students who are enrolled at the college during the fall 2017 semester. The list contained first name, last name, and email address for each potential participant. A recruitment email containing the link to the survey was sent to all students on the list.

Instrumentation

The researcher developed two different instruments: (a) Campus Personnel Leadership Survey (faculty, staff, and administrators) and (b) Sense of Belonging Survey (students). Both instruments are located in the Appendix.

The Campus Personnel Leadership Survey uses Bolman and Deal’s (1991) Multi-frame Model for Organizations, which separated traditional theories of organizational leadership into

four schemes or frames. Bolman and Deal's (1991) model defined four frames: structural frame; human resource frame; political frame; and symbolic frame. Each frame, as defined by Bolman and Deal (1991), determines how leaders ascertain and act on situations.

The level of sense of belonging is measured by students' responses to the Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB) (Hoffman et al., 2002). This survey describes the perception of valued involvement of students in a higher education setting (Hoffman et al., 2002) in five areas areas: (a) perceived peer support; (b) perceived faculty support/comfort; (c) perceived classroom support; (d) perceived isolation; and (e) empathetic faculty understanding.

Data Collection

Data from faculty, staff, and administrators was collected electronically using the TAMU-CC supported Qualtrics online survey tool. The primary investigator was the collecting party. Data from students was collected electronically also using the TAMU-CC supported Qualtrics. The primary investigator was the collecting party. Permission to use the college's email system to send out the recruitment letter, consent form, and survey was obtained from both the college's vice president of academic affairs and the president of the college.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was completed through several statistical calculations. They included examining assumptions, descriptives and frequencies, Cronbach's alpha, *t*-tests, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, correlations, and multiple regression. Assumptions, descriptives, and frequencies are described in more detail below. *T*-tests compared nominal data (e.g., gender: male & female) in two categories with ordinal data (e.g., a leadership frame on a 5-point scale). ANOVAs compared nominal data in more than two categories (e.g., role: administrator; ft faculty; pt faculty; staff; other) with a single set of ordinal datum (e.g., a single leadership frame on a 5-

point scale). MANOVAs compared nominal data (e.g., gender: male & female or role: administrator; ft faculty; pt faculty; staff; other) to multiple sets of ordinal data (e.g., all four leadership frames on a 5-point scale). Correlations were used to explore associations between variables (e.g., leadership frames to sense of belonging subscales). Multiple regression was used to understand how much college personnel leadership frames explained students' sense of belonging. It also served to understand the prediction of college personnel leadership frames to students' sense of belonging (Pallant, 2013).

Assumptions

Assumptions were associated with statistical analyses. For statistical analyses to be considered accurate, certain assumptions have to be met (Glass & Hopkins, 2008). The first assumption was independence of observation; therefore, it was assumed each participant worked independently to complete the survey. The second assumption was normality, which relates to the evaluation of histograms, skewness, and kurtosis. A normal distribution was expected. Variables with scaled scores were examined for skewness and kurtosis. Homogeneity of variance was the third assumption, which refers to equality of scores around a mean score. Levene's statistic helped determine equality. If unequal groups appeared, results were interpreted in light of Levene's unequal pairing.

Descriptives and Frequencies

Several analyses were used for the study, including descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics summarize data into useful results. Descriptive statistics relate results in meaningful and convenient ways (Coladarci et al., 2011). Descriptive statistics involve the reduction of data from unmanageable details to manageable summaries (Babbie, 1990). They also include frequency distributions, which show how data are associated by assigned values (Coladarci et al.,

2011). Descriptive statistics also includes analyzing community of inquiry according to Cronbach's alpha. Data were obtained from the instruments and entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis. Several analyses were conducted, including descriptive and frequencies. Analyses were performed at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

Before discussing the results of analyses, it is important to note that just because a test is statistically significant does not mean that the effect it measures is meaningful or important. Effect size is an objective measure of the strength or magnitude of the relationship between variables. Pearson's correlation coefficient r and Cohen's d are very common measures of effect size (Field, 2009). Although Vogt (2007) argued that there are no useful statistical rules for deciding about large or small correlations coefficients, Frankfort-Nachmias (1999) considered correlation coefficients to be (a) weak ($r = .22$), (b) moderate ($r = .52$), and (c) strong ($r = .82$). Field (2009) reported that the widely-used effect sizes are (a) small ($r = .10$), (b) medium ($r = .30$), and (c) large ($r = .50$). Vogt (2007) noted that in educational research, Cohen's d is referred to as *the* measure of effect size. Although relationships may be statistically significant, effect size indicates the strength of a relationship (Vogt, 2007).

Research question one examined the leadership frames of college faculty, staff, and administrators. It is analyzed according ANOVAs and MANOVAs. The following diagrams represents the type of analyses.

F

Figure 1: College Personnel ANOVA

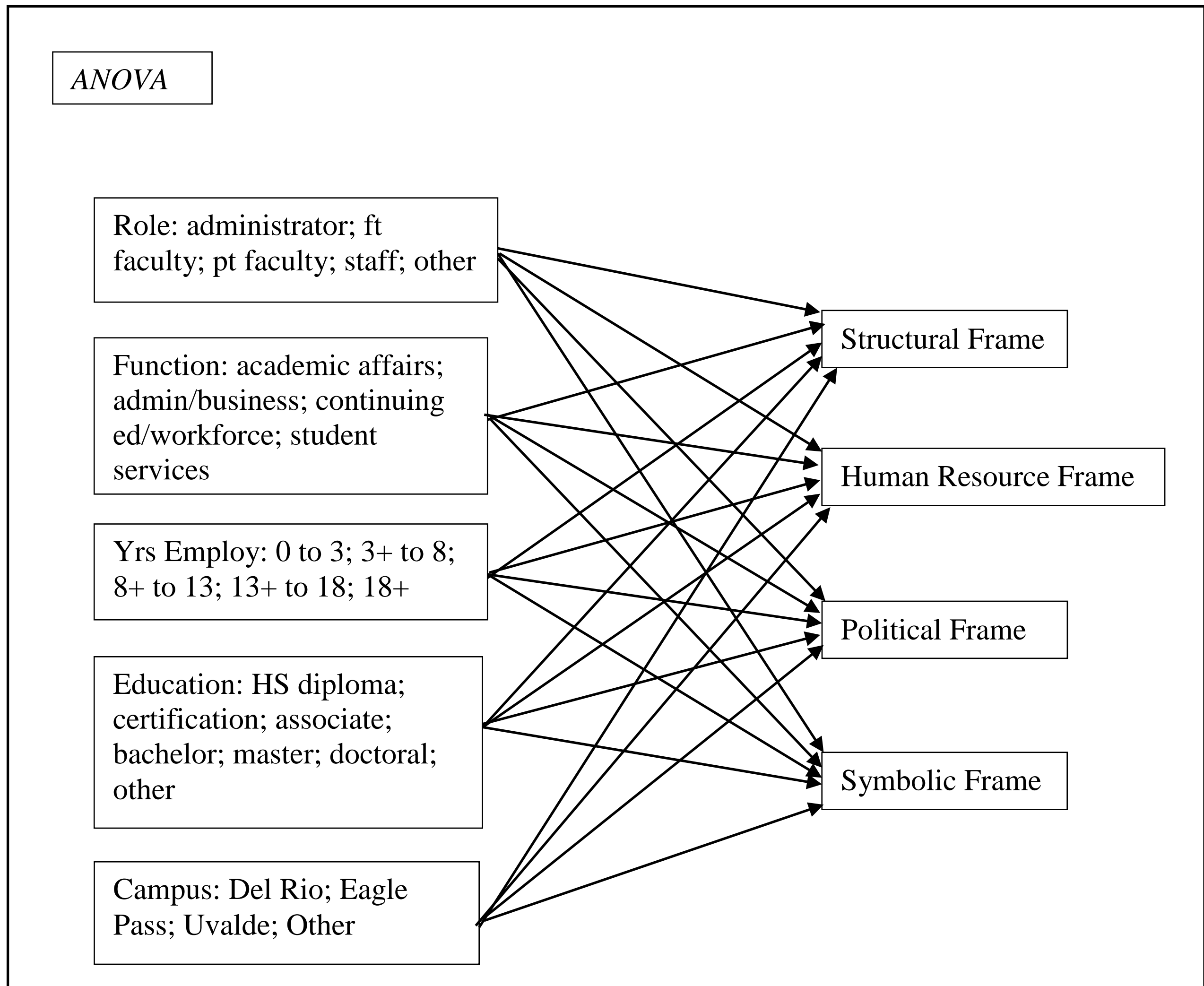
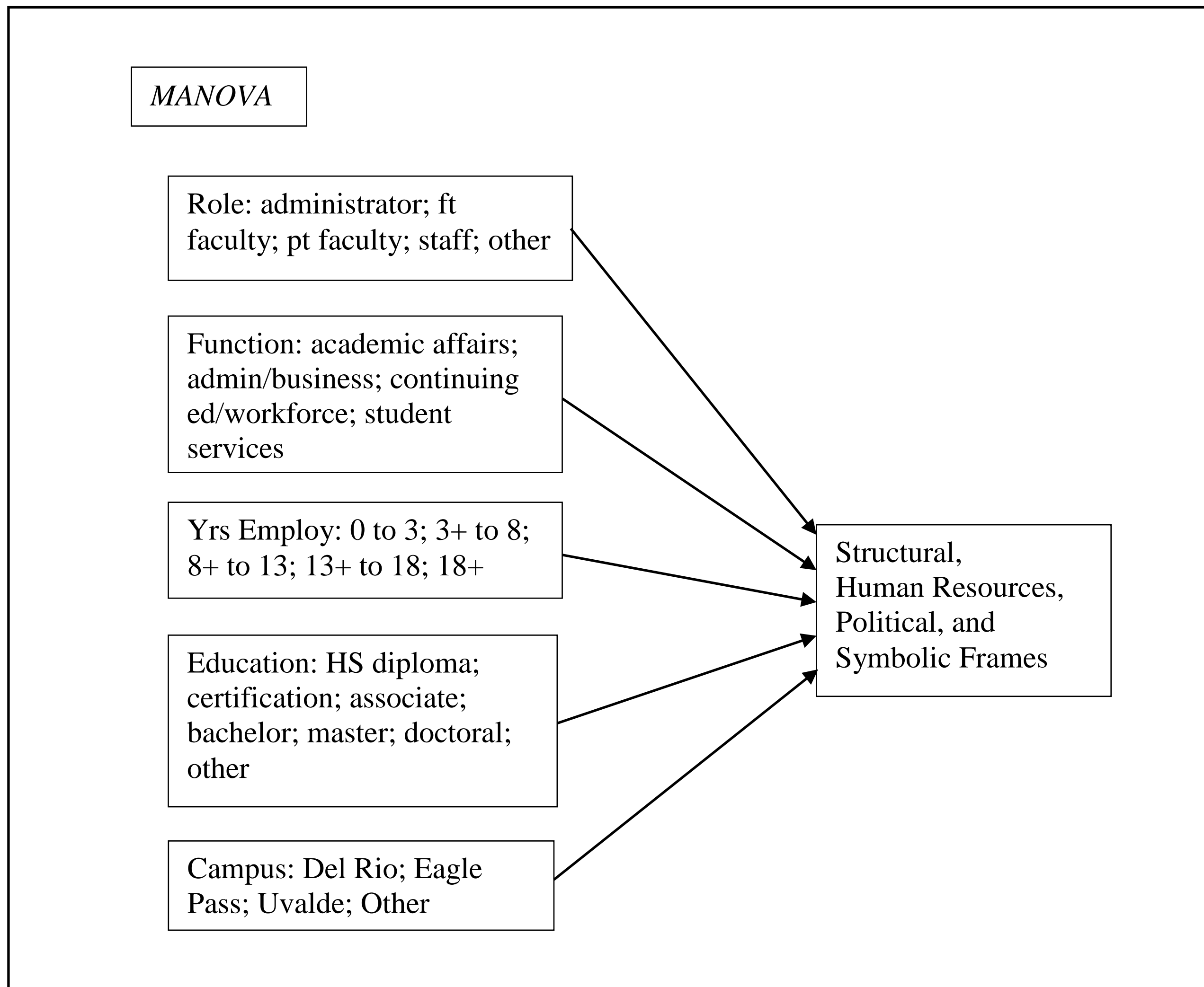


Figure 2: College Personnel MANOVA



Research question two examined the sense of belonging of students. It is analyzed according *t*-tests, ANOVAs, and MANOVAs. The following diagrams represents the type of analyses.

Figure 3: Student *t*-test

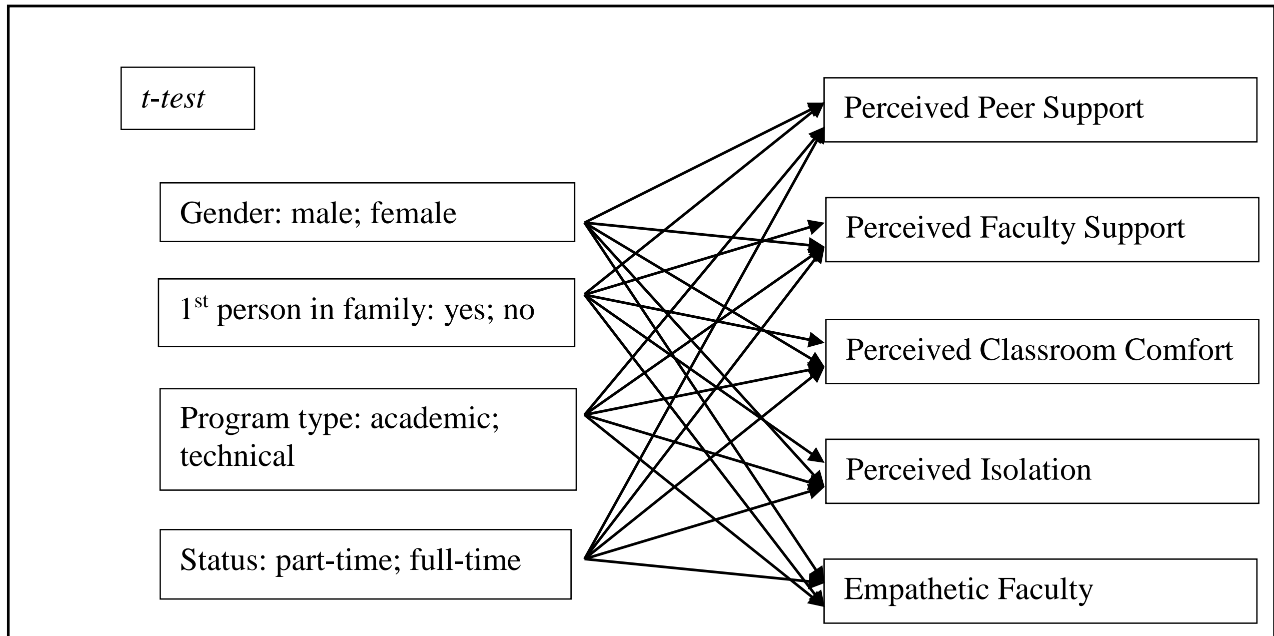


Figure 4: Student ANOVA

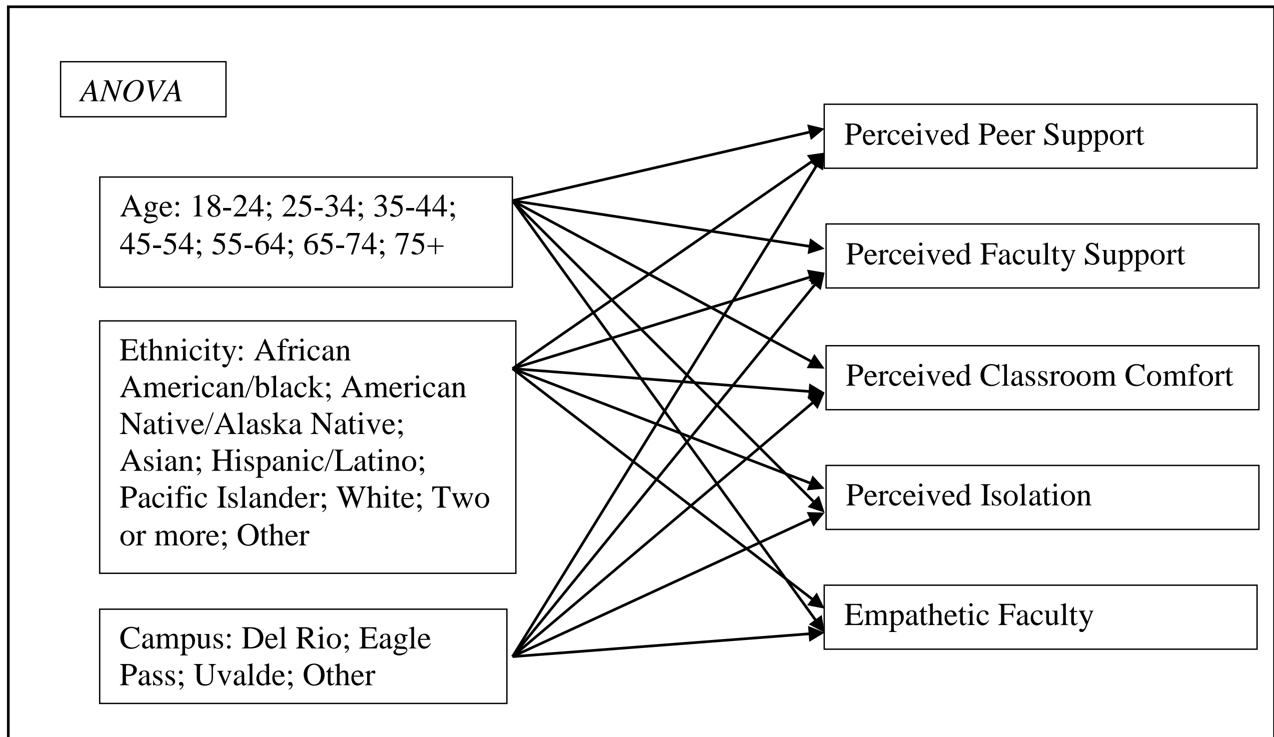
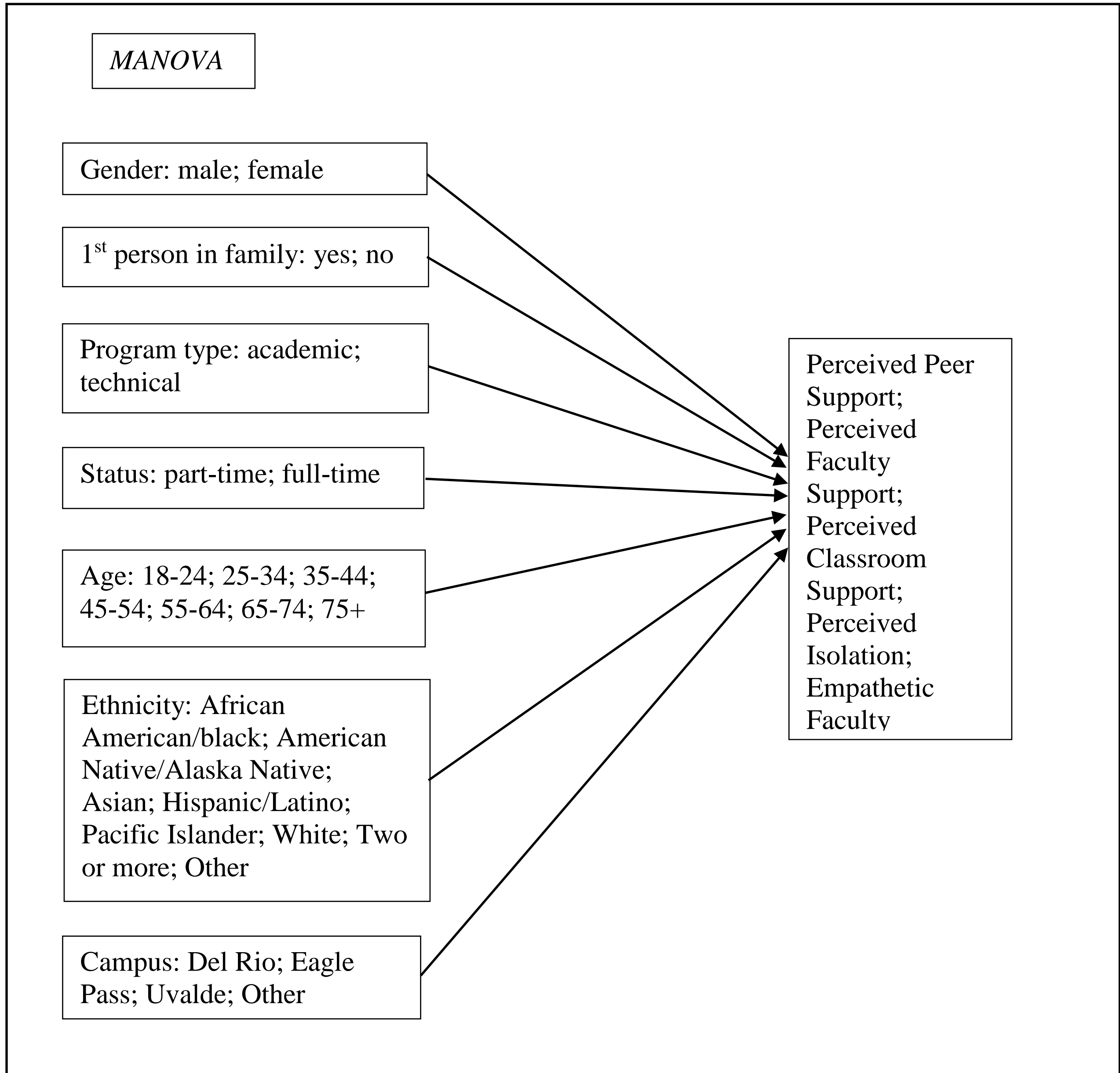


Figure 5: Student MANOVA



Research question three examined the relationship between college personnel leadership frames with students' sense of belonging. It is analyzed with correlational and multiple regression statistics. The following diagrams show the relationships of the variables.

Figure 6: Correlation

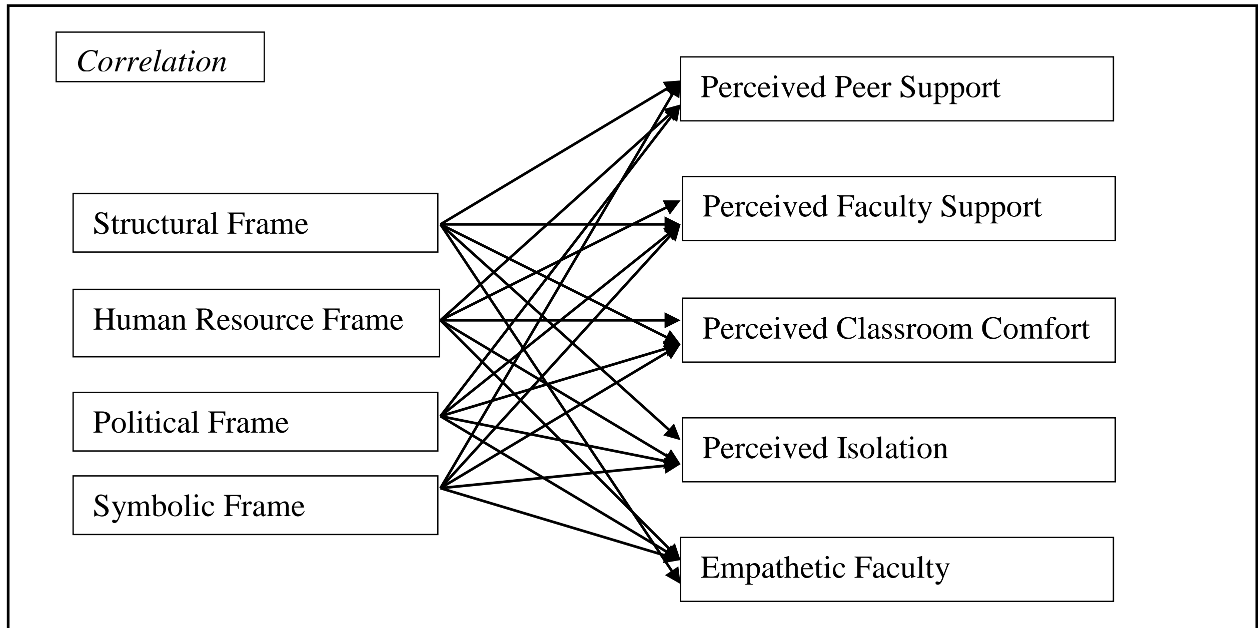
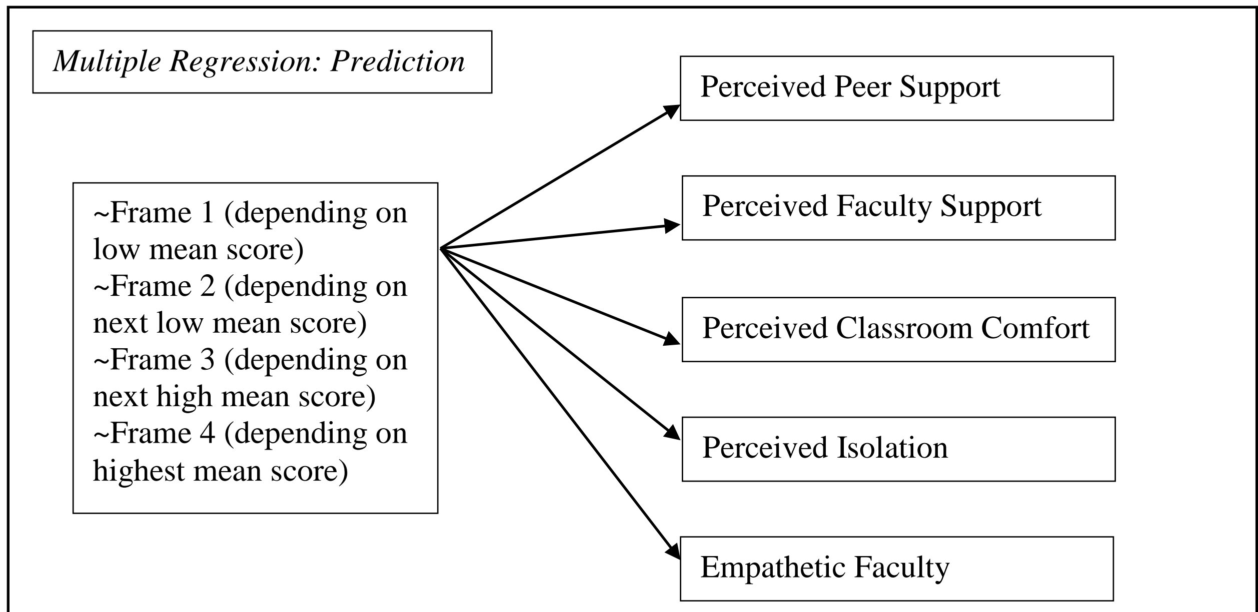


Figure 7: Multiple Regression



Summary

This study examined the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and sense of belonging. College personnel provide the direct link to connect students to institutional

systems and practices that are crucial to development of sense of belonging (Kuh, et al., 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Strayhorn, 2012). It is critical for higher education institutions to understand the factors that contribute to the ability of students to develop institutional sense of belonging in order to develop policies and procedures that foster student persistence to success (Hoffman, et al., 2002). Thus, we sought to illuminate the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and student sense of belonging as a means for gaining a deeper understanding of the factors that make students successful.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and students' sense of belonging at Southwest Texas Junior College. To do so, both were measured and analyzed by performing descriptive statistics, *t*-tests, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, correlation, and regression analyses to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and sense of belonging. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators as indicated by the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991)?
2. What are students' perspectives regarding sense of belonging as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (Hoffman et al., 2002)?
3. What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging?

There was one independent variable, leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators, present in the study (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The dependent variable was the level of sense of belonging among students that are present at Southwest Texas Junior College (Hoffman, et al., 2002). The study also documented the role of several demographic variables for both groups – college personnel and college students. Demographic variables of interest included the following for college personnel: (a) role at the college: (b) area of employment; (c) length of employment; (d) education level; and (e) primary campus of employment. And, for college students, demographic variables of interest included the following: (a) gender; (b) age; (c) ethnicity; (d) first generation status; (e) type of program; (f) part-time, full-time status and (g) primary campus of attendance. The study was conducted with participants from a small,

regional, community college in southwest Texas. Because survey response rates were low, and because of the ex post facto nature of the study, no causal inferences can be made.

Response Rates

For many years, response rates played a major role in establishing the accuracy of population estimation in research. Seventy-five years ago response rates to educational research were around 60%, but by the 1990s, response rates dropped to 21% (Fosnacht, Sarraf, Howe, & Peck, 2017). More recently, response rates between 5% and 50% showed no statistical difference in results and scholars began to rethink their approach to response rates (Fosnacht, et al., 2017). The thinking about response rates has shifted and now response variability is considered important. McMillan (2012) asserted participants should be representative of adequate variability according to the instruments used for a study. This study had lower response rates at 28% and 7% for college personnel and students, respectively. However, the analysis showed adequate variability, normal distribution, and strong Cronbach's alpha, indicating an adequate sample size for analysis.

Descriptive Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the variables as follows: (a) the independent variable–leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators at Southwest Texas Junior College; (b) the dependent variable, level of sense of belonging among students that are present at Southwest Texas Junior College; and (c) demographics of both groups. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to produce descriptive statistics, such as frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations as appropriate. Tables 1-12 illustrate the descriptive statistics.

The participant population for the personnel leaderships frames portion of the study consisted of full-time and part-time faculty, staff, and administrators who work at Southwest Texas Junior College. For the leadership frames survey, 534 surveys were sent and 149 surveys were returned. This indicated a 28% response rate.

Although personnel respondents were asked to indicate their role according to 5 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. The rationale for the the groupings was that there are two basic roles at the college: (a) administration/staff who are non-teaching employees; and (b) faculty who teach as their primary job responsibility. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: *Campus Role of Personnel Participants*, N = 147

Campus Role	Frequency	Percent
Admin/Staff	89	60.5
Faculty	58	39.5

Personnel participants were asked to indicate their functional area of employment at the college. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: *Functional Area of Personnel Participants,* N = 147

Functional Area	Frequency	Percent
Academic Affairs	54	36.7
Administrative/Business Services	32	21.8
Continuing Education/Workforce	21	14.3
Student Services	40	27.2

Personnel participants were asked to indicate their length of employment at the college. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: *Length of Employment of Personnel Participant,* N= 147

Length of Employment	Frequency	Percent
0 to 3 years	38	25.9
3+ to 8 years	38	25.9
8+ to 13 years	30	20.4
13+ to 18 years	21	14.3
18+ years	20	13.6

Although personnel participants were asked to indicate their level of education according to 7 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. There were not enough cases in the other categories for analyses. The rationale for the the groupings was that the majority of the responding personnel at the college had a graduate degree. All other respondents were grouped in the bachelor's degree and below category. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: *Level of Education of Personnel Participants*, N = 147

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's degree and below	73	49.7
Graduate degree	74	50.3

Although personnel respondents were asked to indicate their campus of employment according to 4 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. There were not enough cases in the other categories for analyses. The rationale for the the groupings was that Uvalde is the main campus and the other campuses are extension sites. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: *Campus of Employment of Personnel Participants,* N = 147

Campus of Employment	Frequency	Percent
Other	52	35.4
Uvalde	95	64.6

The participant population for the student sense of belonging portion of the study consisted of students attending Southwest Texas Junior College during the fall 2017 semester. For the sense of belonging survey, 4,152 surveys were sent and 305 surveys were returned. This indicated a 7% response rate. The low return rate by students was most likely attributed to timing of the survey as it was distributed between at the end of the fall semester when students are focused on final exams.

Although student participants were asked to indicate their campus of attendance according to 4 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. There were not enough cases in the other categories for analyses. The rationale for the the groupings was that Uvalde is the main campus and the other campuses are extension sites. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: *Campus of Attendance of Student Participants,* N = 302

Campus of Attendance	Frequency	Percent
Other	172	57
Uvalde	130	43

Student participants were asked to indicate their full-time, part-time status at the college. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: *Full-time, Part-time Status of Student Participants*, N = 302

Status	Frequency	Percent
Part-time	110	36.4
Full-time	192	63.6

Student participants were asked to indicate their program type at the college. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: *Program Type of Student Participants*, N = 302

Program Type	Frequency	Percent
Academic	248	82.1
Technical	54	17.9

Student participants were asked to indicate their first generation status at the college. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: *First Generation Status of Student Participants,* N = 302

First Generation	Frequency	Percent
Yes	118	39.1
No	184	60.9

Although student participants were asked to indicate their ethnicity according to 8 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. There were not enough cases in the other categories for analyses. The rationale for the the groupings was that Southwest Texas Junior College is a Hispanic Serving Institution located along the Texas-Mexico border, therefore Hispanic students make up 85% of the student population (Southwest Texas Junior College, 2017). The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: *Ethnicity of Student Participants*, N = 302

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
Other	70	23.2
Hispanic/Latino	232	76.8

Although student participants were asked to indicate their age according to 5 categories, they were grouped into 2 categories according to frequencies. There were not enough cases in the other categories for analyses. The rationale for the the groupings was that the 18-24 age group is considered traditional students while the 25+ age group is considered non-traditional students. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: *Age of Student Participants*, N = 302

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-24	186	61.6
25+	116	38.4

Student participants were asked to indicate their gender. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: *Gender of Student Participants*, N = 302

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	203	67.2
Male	99	32.8

Reliability

Reliability analysis was performed to measure the internal consistency of both survey instruments. Cronbach's alpha "indicates the consistency of a multiple-item scale" (Leech,

Barrett, & Morgan, 2015, p. 53). Both the personnel leadership frames survey and the student sense of belonging survey contained subscales. High internal consistency is indicated at Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 or higher (Leech et al., 2015). The results of Cronbach's alpha analysis for the personnel leadership frames portion of the study is presented in Table 13.

Table 13: *Personnel Leadership Frames*

Leadership Frame	N	# of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Structural	149	8	.788
Human Resources	149	8	.825
Political	149	8	.850
Symbolic	149	8	.887

The results of Cronbach's alpha analysis for the student sense of belonging portion of the study is presented in Table 14.

Table 14: *Student Sense of Belonging*

Dimension	N	# of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Peer Support	305	8	.892
Perceived Faculty Support	305	6	.840
Perceived Classroom Support	305	4	.929
Perceived Isolation	305	4	.790
Empathetic Faculty	305	4	.887

Research Questions

RQ 1: Leadership Frames

What are the leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators as indicated by the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991)? The researcher developed The Campus Personnel Leadership Survey using Bolman and Deal's (1991) Multi-frame Model for

Organizations, which separated traditional theories of organizational leadership into four schemes or frames. Results for the statistical analysis of the leadership frames of college personnel (human resources, structural, political, symbolic) according to their demographic characteristics (role at the college, area of employment, length of employment, education level, and primary campus of employment) were presented to answer the research question.

RQ 1: *t*-test

Role at the College

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to role at the college. Levene's test for equality of variance was not violated. No statistical differences were found between roles (administration/staff or faculty) with regard to the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: *t-test: Role at College on Leadership Frame*

Frame	Role	N	*t*	Df	Mean	SE	*p*
Structural			.938	145		.083	.35
	Admin/Staff	89			4.16		
	Faculty	58			4.08		
Human Resources			1.734	145		.093	.08
	Admin/Staff	89			4.29		
	Faculty	58			4.15		
Political			1.525			.103	.13
	Admin/Staff	89			3.69		
	Faculty	58			3.53		
Symbolic			.095			.114	.92
	Admin/Staff	89			3.83		
	Faculty	58			3.82		

Education Level

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to education level. No statistical differences were found between education level (bachelor's and below or graduate degree) with regard to the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames. For the Symbolic leadership frame, Levene's test for equality of variance was violated, $p = .07$. The result of the *t*-test was not statistically significant, $p = .85$. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 16.

Table 16: *t-test: Education Level on Leadership Frame*

Frame	Education Level	N	*T*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Structural			-.562	145		.082	.58
	Bachelor's & Below	73			4.11		
	Graduate Degree	74			4.15		
Human Resources			.019	145		.081	.98
	Bachelor's & Below	73			4.24		
	Graduate Degree	74			4.24		
Political			-.792	145		.101	.43
	Bachelor's & Below	73			3.59		
	Graduate Degree	74			3.67		
Symbolic			-.188	140.46		.112	.85
	Bachelor's & Below	73			3.82		
	Graduate Degree	74			3.84		

Campus Work Location

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to primary campus of employment. No statistical differences were found between campus (other or Uvalde) with

regard to the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 17.

Table 17: *t-test: Primary Campus Work Location on Leadership Frame*

Frame	Campus	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Structural			-.208	145		.085	.84
	Other	52			4.12		
	Uvalde	95			4.14		
Human Resources			-.339	145		.086	.74
	Other	52			4.22		
	Uvalde	95			4.25		
Political			.572	145		.105	.57
	Other	52			3.67		
	Uvalde	95			3.61		
Symbolic			1.313	145		.116	.19
	Other	52			3.93		
	Uvalde	95			3.78		

RQ1: ANOVA

Functional Area of Employment

The results of a one-way ANOVA were analyzed to examine if there were differences between area of employment (academic affairs, administrative/business services, continuing education/workforce, student services) and leadership frames. For area of employment and the structural frame, there was no statistical difference: $F(3, 143) = 1.386$, $p = .250$. For area of employment and the human resources frame, there was a statistical difference: $F(3, 143) = 3.065$, $p = .030$. However, the post hoc test showed no statistical differences in the pairs. It is an indication that all areas of employment interact for human resources to be statistically significant

and no pairing indicates significance. For area of employment and the political frame, there was a statistical difference: $F(3, 143) = 3.200$, $p = .025$. However, the post hoc test showed the statistical difference was between administrative/business services (N = 32; M = 3.43) and continuing education/workforce (N = 21; M = 3.93), $p = .019$. Employees in continuing education/workforce showed slightly higher attributes of the political frame than those employees in administrative/business services. For the Symbolic frame, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was violated, $p = .06$, therefore, homogenous subsets were analyzed for statistical significance. Tukey post hoc results indicated that there was no statistical significance, $p = .18$. Results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18: *ANOVA: Functional Area of Employment on Leadership Frame*

Frame	SS	Df	MS	F	*p*
Structural	1.00	3	.33	1.38	.25
Human Resources	2.16	3	.72	3.06	.03
Political	3.42	3	1.14	3.2	.02
Symbolic	4.70	3	1.56	3.63	.18

Length of Employment

The results of a one-way ANOVA were examined to examine if there are differences between length of employment (0 to 3 years, 3+ to 8 years, 8+ to 13 years, 13+ to 18 years, 18+ years) and leadership frames. No statistical differences were found with respect to length of employment and leadership frames. For length of employment and the structural frame, there was no statistical difference: $F(4, 142) = 2.285$, $p = .063$. For length of employment and the human resources frame, there was no statistical difference: $F(4, 142) = .424$, $p = .791$. For length of employment and the political frame, there was no statistical difference: $F(4, 142) = .823$, $p =$

.512. For length of employment and the symbolic frame, there was no statistical difference: F(4, 142) = 1.391, p = .24. The results of the one-way ANOVA are presented in Table 19.

Table 19: *ANOVA: Length of Employment on Leadership Frame*

Frame	SS	df	MS	F	*p*
Structural	2.15	4	.53	2.28	.06
Human Resources	.423	4	.10	.42	.79
Political	1.235	4	.30	.82	.51
Symbolic	2.50	4	.62	1.39	.24

RQ 1: MANOVA

Role at the College

Upon further investigation of role at the college results of a one-way MANOVA examined the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames with role at the college. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 2.43, *Wilk's lambda* (4, 142) = .936, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in leadership frames based on role at the college. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 20.

Functional Area of Employment

Additionally, results of a one-way MANOVA examined the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames with functional areas. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 1.54, *Wilk's lambda* (12, 370.70) = .879, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in leadership frames within functional areas: academic affairs; administration/business affairs; continuing education/workforce; or student services. However, tests between-subject effects were statistically significant. For functional areas and human resources, the results were: F(3, 146) = 3.07, $p < .05$ (SD = .495; M = 4.24).

For functional areas and political, the results were: $F(3, 146) = 3.20$, $p < .05$ (SD = .611; M = 3.70). For functional areas and symbolic, the results were: $F(3, 146) = 3.63$, $p < .05$ (SD = .674; M = 3.83). Although statistically significant, the effect sizes were low: .060; .063; and .071 respectively. Moreover, according to R-square, the results only explained 4.3% of the variance. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 20.

Length of Employment

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames with length of employment. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 1.26, *Wilk's lambda* (16, 425.29) = .868, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in leadership frames based on length of employment: 0 to 3 years; 3+ to 8 years; 8+ to 13 years; 13+ to 18 years; 18+ years. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 20.

Level of Education

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames with level of education. No statistically significant effect was found (F = .356, *Wilk's lambda* (4, 142) = .990, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in leadership frames based on level of education: bachelor's degree and below; and graduate degree. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 20.

Campus Work Location

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the Structural, Human Resources, Political, and Symbolic leadership frames with the campus where staff work. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 1.433, *Wilk's lambda* (4, 142) = .961, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no

statistically significant difference in leadership frames based on the campus where staff work: Uvalde; and another campus. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 20.

Table 20: *MANOVA Results of Campus Role, Functional Areas; Length of Employment; Level of Education; and Campus on Leadership Frames*

Variable	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Wilk's Lambda	*p*
Campus Role	2.43	4	142	.936	.050
Functional Area	1.54	12	370.70	.879	.108
Length of Employ	1.26	16	425.29	.868	.218
Symbolic	.356	4	142	.990	.840
Campus	1.43	4	142	.961	.226

The statistical analysis of the leadership frames of college personnel according to their demographic characteristics showed only statistically significant results with leadership frames and functional work areas. Although differences were found in the political frame between those employees in the continuing education/workforce functional area and those in the administrative/business services functional area, further analysis indicated low effect size.

RQ 2: Sense of Belonging

What are students' perspectives regarding sense of belonging as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (Hoffman et al., 2002)? The researcher developed the Student Sense of Belonging Survey using Hoffman et al.'s (2002) Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB), which described the perception of valued involvement of students in a higher education setting (Hoffman et al., 2002) in five areas (peer support, faculty support, classroom comfort, isolation, empathetic faculty). Results from the statistical analysis of sense of belonging of community college students according to their demographic characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, first

generation status, type of program, part-time, full-time status, primary campus of attendance) were presented to answer the research question.

RQ2: *t*-test

Gender

It is to be noted that with the SB, a lower mean score is interpreted as a higher sense of belonging, whereas 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = untrue; 5 = mostly untrue; and 6 = completely untrue. A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to gender. No statistical differences were found between gender (female & male) with regard to the five areas of sense of belonging. For the perceived peer support area, Levene's test for equality of variance was violated, $p = .09$, therefore results were used from equal variances not assumed. The result of the *t*-test was not statistically significant, $p = .05$. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 21.

Table 21: *t-test: Gender on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	Gender	N	*T*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			-1.976	192.89		.174	.05
	Female	99			2.51		
	Male	99			2.85		
Faculty Support/Comfort			-.171	196		.138	.86
	Female	99			2.19		
	Male	99			2.22		
Classroom Support			-1.161	196		.157	.25
	Female	99			2.19		
	Male	99			2.01		
Isolation			.911	196		.175	.36
	Female	99			3.40		
	Male	99			3.24		
Empathetic Faculty		99	-.826	196	2.05	.153	.41
	Female	99			2.17		
	Male						

Age

It is to be noted that with the SB, a lower mean score is interpreted as a higher sense of belonging, whereas 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = untrue; 5 = mostly untrue; and, 6 = completely untrue. A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to age. Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the peer support area, $p = .001$; the classroom comfort area, $p = .001$; and the empathetic faculty area, $p = .09$. Therefore, results were used from equal variances not assumed. For the peer support area, there was statistical significance among age groupings, $p = .004$. Results of the *t*-test indicated that there was statistical significance with the 18-24 age group (M = 2.47) showing a higher level of peer support than the 25+ age group (M = 2.91). For the classroom comfort area, there was statistical

significance among age groupings, *p* = .004. Results of the *t*-test indicated that there was statistical significance with the 18-24 age group (M = 2.43) and the 25+ age group (M = 1.80) indicated a higher level of comfort with the classrooms. The result of the *t*-test was not statistically significant for any of the other areas. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 22.

Table 22: *t-test: Age on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	Age	N	*T*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			-2.936	208.91		.149	.004
	18-24	186			2.47		
	25+	116			2.91		
Faculty Support/Comfort			.773	300		.118	.44
	18-24	186			2.27		
	25+	116			2.18		
Classroom Support			5.073	293.08		.125	.000
	18-24	186			2.44		
	25+	116			1.80		
Isolation			.517	300		.142	.61
	18-24	186			3.39		
	25+	116			3.31		
Empathetic Faculty			1.747	279.67		.123	.08
	18-24	186			2.24		
	25+	116			2.03		

Ethnicity

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to ethnicity. Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the classroom comfort area, *p* = .06; and for the isolation area, *p* = .09. Therefore, results were used from equal variances not assumed. No statistical

differences were found between ethnicity groups (other & Hispanic/Latino) with regard to the five areas of sense of belonging. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 23.

Table 23: *t-test: Ethnicity on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	Ethnicity	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			1.176	138		.213	.24
	Other	70			2.99		
	Hispanic/Latino	70			2.74		
Faculty Support/Comfort			-.523	138		.168	.60
	Other	70			2.25		
	Hispanic/Latino	70			2.33		
Classroom Support			.053	137.71		.201	.96
	Other	70			2.24		
	Hispanic/Latino	70			2.23		
Isolation			.052	137.98		.206	.96
	Other	70			3.28		
	Hispanic/Latino	70			3.26		
Empathetic Faculty			-1.405	138		.198	.16
	Other	70			2.07		
	Hispanic/Latino	70			2.35		

First Generation Status

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to first generation status. Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the peer support area, $p = .02$; the faculty support area, $p = .01$; and for the classroom comfort area, $p = .09$. Therefore, results were used from equal variances not assumed. No statistical differences were found between first generation groups (yes & no) with regard to the five areas of sense of belonging. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 24.

Table 24: *t-test: First Generation Status on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	FG Status	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			-.386	223.63		.148	.70
	Yes	118			2.60		
	No	184			2.66		
Faculty Support/Comfort			.936	209.08		.124	.35
	Yes	118			2.31		
	No	184			2.19		
Classroom Support			1.593	217.77		.144	.13
	Yes	118			2.33		
	No	184			2.11		
Isolation			-.414	300		.141	.68
	Yes	118			3.32		
	No	184			3.38		
Empathetic Faculty			.306	300		.129	.76
	Yes	118			2.18		
	No	184			2.14		

Type of Program

It is to be noted that with the SB, a lower mean score is interpreted as a higher sense of belonging, whereas 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = untrue; 5 = mostly untrue; and, 6 = completely untrue. A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to type of program (academic & technical). Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the peer support area, $p = .02$, therefore results were used from equal variances not assumed. For the peer support area, there was statistical significance among type of program groupings, $p = .03$. Results of the *t*-test indicated that there was statistical significance with respect to the academic program grouping (M = 2.68) and technical program grouping (M = 2.21) indicated a

higher level of peer support. The result of the *t*-test was not statistically significant for any of the other areas. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 25.

Table 25: *t-test: Type of Program on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	Program	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			2.202	95.92		.209	.03
	Academic	54			2.68		
	Technical	54			2.22		
Faculty Support/Comfort			1.574	106		.192	.12
	Academic	54			2.34		
	Technical	54			2.04		
Classroom Support			1.211	106		.226	.23
	Academic	54			2.34		
	Technical	54			2.07		
Isolation			-1.339	106		.235	.18
	Academic	54			3.32		
	Technical	54			3.64		
Empathetic Faculty			1.403	106		.221	.16
	Academic	54			2.29		
	Technical	54			1.99		

Part-time, Full-time Status

It is to be noted that with the SB, a lower mean score is interpreted as a higher sense of belonging, whereas 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = untrue; 5 = mostly untrue; and, 6 = completely untrue. A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to part-time and full-time status. Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the peer support area, $p = .000$, therefore results were used from equal variances not assumed. For the peer support area, there was statistical significance among age groupings, $p = .000$. Results of

the *t*-test indicated that there was statistical significance with respect to the part-time grouping (M = 3.06) and full-time grouping (M = 2.39), showing a higher level of peer support. For the isolation area, there was statistical significance among part-time and full-time groupings, $p = .02$. Results of the *t*-test indicated that there was statistical significance with respect to the part-time grouping (M = 3.15) and full-time grouping (M = 3.47) indicating lower levels of isolation. The result of the *t*-test was not statistically significant for any of the other areas. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 26.

Table 26: *t-test: Part-time, Full-time Status on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	PT/FT Status	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			4.533	189.32		.149	.000
	Part-time	110			3.07		
	Full-time	192			2.39		
Faculty Support/Comfort			.386	300		.119	.70
	Part-time	110			2.27		
	Full-time	192			2.22		
Classroom Support			.497	300		.141	.56
	Part-time	110			2.14		
	Full-time	192			2.22		
Isolation			.23	300		.142	.02
	Part-time	110			3.15		
	Full-time	192			3.48		
Empathetic Faculty			.927	300		.131	.51
	Part-time	110			2.21		
	Full-time	192			2.13		

Primary Campus of Attendance

A *t*-test was performed to test for differences according to primary campus of attendance. No statistical differences were found between campus groups (other & Uvalde) with regard to the five areas of sense of belonging. Levene's test for equality of variance was violated for the empathetic faculty area, $p = .01$, therefore results were used from equal variances not assumed. The result of the *t*-test indicated no statistical differences in these areas. The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 27.

Table 27: *t-test: Primary Campus of Attendance on Sense of Belonging Area*

Area	Campus	N	*t*	df	Mean	SE	*p*
Peer Support			-.176	189.32		.141	.86
	Other	172			2.62		
	Uvalde	130			2.65		
Faculty Support/Comfort			.603	300		.116	.55
	Other	172			2.27		
	Uvalde	130			2.19		
Classroom Support			.658	300		.137	.51
	Other	172			2.23		
	Uvalde	130			2.14		
Isolation			-1.217	300		.139	.23
	Other	172			3.29		
	Uvalde	130			3.45		
Empathetic Faculty			.509	300		.128	.61
	Other	172			2.19		
	Uvalde	130			2.12		

RQ2: MANOVA

Gender

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with gender. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was not violated, $p = .55$. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 1.941, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 192) = .952, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas within gender: female and male. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Age

Additionally, results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with age. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was violated, $p = .000$. When Box's test for equality is violated, the variables must be examined separately as the multivariate test should not be viewed as robust whether it is statistically significant or not (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2015). Although a statistically significant effect was found with MANOVA (F = 11.429, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 296) = .838, $p = .000$), it cannot be considered robust and variables were examined separately. There was a statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas within age: 18-24 and 25+. Levene's test of equality of error variances was violated for the peer support area, $p = .001$; the classroom comfort area, $p = .001$; and the empathetic faculty area, $p = .097$. Tests between-subject effects were statistically significant. For age and peer support, the results were: $F(1, 301) = 9.441$, $p < .05$ (SD = 1.217; M = 2.639). For age and classroom comfort, the results were: $F(1, 301) = 22.277$, $p < .05$ (SD = 1.179; M = 2.193). The results must be interpreted with caution because results showed unequal variance. Although statistically

significant, the effect sizes were low: .031; and .069 respectively. Moreover, according to R-square, the results only explained .90% of the variance. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Ethnicity

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with ethnicity. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was not violated, $p = .399$. No statistically significant effect was found (F = 1.183, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 134) = .958, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas based on primary campus of attendance: Other and Hispanic/Latino. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

First Generation Status

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with first generation status. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was not violated, $p = .156$. However, no statistically significant effect was found (F = .844, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 296) = .986, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas based on first generation status: yes and no. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Type of Program

Additionally, results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with type of program: academic and technical. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was violated, $p = .033$. When Box's test for equality is violated, the variables must be examined separately as the multivariate test should not be viewed as robust whether it is statistically

significant or not (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2015). No statistically significant effect was found with MANOVA (F = 1.191, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 102) = .945, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas within type of program: academic and technical. However, tests between-subject effects were statistically significant. Levene's test of equality of error variances was violated for the peer support area, $p = .025$. Tests between-subject effects were statistically significant. For type of program and peer support, the results were: $F(1, 107) = 4.85$, $p < .05$ (SD = 1.106; M = 2.45). The results must be interpreted with caution because results showed unequal variance. Although statistically significant, the effect size was low: .044. Moreover, according to R-square, the results only explained 1.8% of the variance. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Part-time, Full-time Status

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with part-time, full-time status. Box's test for equality of covariance matrices was violated, $p = .016$. When Box's test for equality is violated, the variables must be examined separately as the multivariate test should not be viewed as robust whether it is statistically significant or not (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2015). Although a statistically significant effect was found with MANOVA (F = 6.292, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 296) = .904, $p = .000$), it cannot be considered robust and variables were examined separately. There was a statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas within part-time, full-time status: part-time and full-time. Levene's test of equality of error variances was violated for the peer support area, $p = .000$. Tests between-subject effects were statistically significant. For part-time, full-time status and peer support, the results were: $F(1, 301) = 23.148$, $p < .05$ (SD = 1.217; M = 2.639). The results must be interpreted with caution

because results showed unequal variance. For part-time, full-time status and isolation, the results were: F(1, 301) = 5.29, $p < .05$ (SD = 1.196; M = 3.358). Although statistically significant, the effect sizes were low: .072; and .017 respectively. Moreover, according to R-square, the results only explained .10% of the variance. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Primary Campus of Attendance

Results of a one-way MANOVA examined the peer support, faculty support/comfort, classroom support, isolation, and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas with primary campus of attendance. Box's test of equality of covariance was not violated, $p = .384$. No statistically significant effect was found (F = .56, *Wilk's lambda* (5, 296) = .991, $p > .05$). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in sense of belonging areas based on primary campus of attendance: Other and Uvalde. Results for all MANOVA tests are in Table 28.

Table 28: *MANOVA Results of Gender, Age, Ethnicity, First Generation Status, Type of Program, Part-time, Full-time Status, Primary Campus of Attendance*

Variable	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Wilk's Lambda	*p*
Gender	1.94	5	192	.952	.089
Age	11.43	5	296	.838	.000
Ethnicity	1.18	5	134	958	.321
First Generation Status	.844	5	296	.986	.519
Type of Program	1.19	5	102	.945	.319
PT/FT Status	6.29	5	296	.904	.000
Primary Campus	.560	5	296	.991	.730

The statistical analysis of sense of belonging of community college students according to their demographic characteristics showed mixed results. Although differences were found in the

areas of peer support and isolation, effect sizes were low and explained very little of the variances found.

RQ 3: Relationship between Leadership Frames and Sense of Belonging

What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging? Correlations were used to explore relationships between leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of college students. Multiple regression was used to examine how much college personnel leadership frames explained students' sense of belonging. Results from the statistical analysis of correlations and multiple regression of leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of community college students were presented to answer the research question.

Correlations

Correlations were used to examine associations between leadership frames and sense of belonging. Vogt (2007) argued that there are no useful statistical rules for deciding about large or small correlations coefficients. Field (2009) reported that the widely-used effect sizes are (a) small ($r = \pm.10$), (b) medium ($r = \pm.30$), and (c) large ($r = \pm.50$). Although relationships may be statistically significant, effect size indicates the strength of a relationship (Vogt, 2007).

Usually, a two-tailed test is used for correlations. However, the premise of this study relates leadership frames to sense of belonging. As such, a one-tailed analysis was utilized. Results indicated statistical significance among several leadership frames and sense of belonging areas: political frame and peer support, $r = -.15$, $p < .05$; symbolic frame and peer support, $r = -.18$, $p < .05$; human resources frame and isolation, $r = -.14$, $p < .05$; political frame and empathetic faculty, $r = -.16$, $p < .05$; and symbolic frame and empathetic faculty, $r = -.22$, $p < .01$. The correlations are negative, indicating as the leadership frame characteristics decrease,

the sense of belonging characteristics increase. However, the relationships are considered weak. The results are summarized in Table 29.

Table 29: *One-tailed test: Leadership Frames and Sense of Belonging*

Variable	N	*R*	*p*	*M*	*SD*
Political Frame	149	-.15	.036	3.62	.63
Peer Support				2.63	1.22
Symbolic Frame	149	-.18	.013	3.82	.69
Peer Support				2.63	1.22
Human Resources	149	-.14	.048	4.23	.50
Isolation				3.35	1.19
Political Frame	149	-.16	.025	3.62	.63
Empathetic Faculty				2.16	1.09
Symbolic Frame	149	-.22	.004	3.82	.69
Empathetic Faculty				2.16	1.09

Multiple Regression

What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging? To answer this question, all data were used to examine the unique and combined contributions of the four leadership frames in explaining each of the five areas of sense of belonging of students at Southwest Texas Junior College. Hierarchical multiple regression was used for leadership frames to explain sense of belonging. The hierarchy was determined by mean score. The leadership frame with the lowest mean score was entered first and the highest mean score was entered last. This approach was intended to examine the predominate leadership frame, human resources, to explain sense of belonging. The hierarchy

followed this order: Political (M = 3.62); Symbolic (M = 3.82); Structural (M = 4.12); and Human Resources (4.23). Table 30 provides a summary of results for all regression analyses.

Peer Support

The combination of the four predictor variables, political frame, symbolic frame, structural frame, and human resources frame, was statistically significant. The results of the regression indicated only the human resource frame was statistically significant and only explained 3.5% of the variance, ($R^2 = .035$, $F(1, 144) = 5.29$, $p < .05$. It was found that the human resource frame significantly predicted peer support but the relationship is low ($\beta = .297$, $p < .05$).

Faculty Support

The combination of the four predictor variables, political frame, symbolic frame, structural frame and human resources frame, was statistically significant. The results of the regression indicated that both the human resource frame and the symbolic frame were statistically significant and only explained 3% of the variance, ($R^2 = .029$, $F(1, 144) = 4.45$, $p < .05$. It was found that the human resource frame ($\beta = .227$, $p < .05$) and the symbolic frame ($\beta = -.317$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted faculty support, but the relationships are low.

Classroom Comfort

The combination of the four predictor variables, political frame, symbolic frame, structural frame and human resources frame was not statistically significant for classroom comfort. The results of the regression indicated no statistical significance ($R^2 = .009$, $F(1, 144) = .799$, $p > .05$).

Isolation

The combination of the four predictor variables, political frame, symbolic frame, structural frame and human resources frame, was not statistically significant for isolation. The results of the regression indicated no statistical significance ($R^2 = .026$, $F(1, 144) = 2.753$, $p > .05$).

Empathetic Faculty

The combination of the four predictor variables, political frame, symbolic frame, structural frame and human resources frame, was not statistically significant for empathetic faculty. The results of the regression indicated no statistical significance ($R^2 = .069$, $F(1, 144) = 3.383$, $p > .05$).

Table 30: *Regression Results of Leadership Frames on Sense of Belonging Areas*

Sense of Belonging	*t*	*p*	Beta	*F*	df	*p*	R^2 Change
Peer Support				5.29	1, 144	.02	.035
Political	.28	.78	.04				
Symbolic	-1.72	.09	-.26				
Structural	-.96	.34	-.11				
HR	2.30	.02	.02				
Faculty Support				2.42	1, 144	.037	.029
Political	-.17	.87	-.03				
Symbolic	-2.01	.046	-.30				
Structural	-.93	.35	-.10				
HR	2.12	.037	.27				
Classroom Comfort				.799	1, 144	.37	.006
Political	-.15	.88	-.02				
Symbolic	-.76	.45	-.12				
Structural	.34	.74	.04				
HR	.89	.37	.12				
Isolation				2.75	1, 144	.10	.019
Political	.37	.71	.06				
Symbolic	.61	.54	.09				
Structural	-.41	.68	-.05				
HR	-1.66	.10	-.22				
Empathetic Faculty				3.39	1, 144	.07	.02
Political	-.03	.97	-.005				
Symbolic	-2.42	.02	-.36				
Structural	-.38	.71	-.04				
HR	1.84	.07	-.24				

The regression analyses showed mixed results. Although the human resource frame had the highest mean score and was predictive of sense of belonging in some instances, it had a low level of explanation of sense of belonging and low predictive values.

Summary

Statistical analysis of the research questions showed few statistically significant results. Analysis of the first research question (leadership frames) showed one statistically significant result in the political frame between employees working in continuing education/workforce and employees working in administrative/business services. Analysis of the second research question (sense of belonging) showed differences in the areas of peer support and isolation, but with low effect size. Analysis of research question three showed mixed results. The human resources frame had the highest mean score and was predictive of sense of belonging, however, it showed a low level of explanation of sense of belonging and low predictive values.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH

This study examined leadership frames of personnel and sense of belonging of students at Southwest Texas Junior College. It also examined the possible relationship between leadership frames and sense of belonging. The study was ex post facto in nature, examining already existing characteristics of the study population (Vogt, 2007). No causal inferences could be made because the independent variable (leadership frames) was not manipulated.

Personnel participants consisted of full-time and part-time faculty, staff, and administrators at Southwest Texas Junior College. Leadership frames were measured using Bolman and Deal's (1991) Multi-frame Model for Organizations. The Multi-frame Model for Organizations separated traditional theories of leadership into four frames: structural frame; human resource frame; political frame; and symbolic frame. Each frame determined how leaders ascertain or act on situations, but the frames are not mutually exclusive (Bolman & Deal, 1991). In other words, one leader can exhibit characteristics from one, more than one, or all of the frames (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Student participants consisted of full-time and part-time students attending the same community college. Sense of belonging among student participants was measured using the Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB) (Hoffman, et al., 2002). The SB described the perception of valued involvement of students in a higher education setting (Hoffman, et al., 2002) in five areas: (a) perceived peer support; (b) perceived faculty support/comfort; (c) perceived classroom support; (d) perceived isolation; and (e) empathetic faculty.

The study was conducted at Southwest Texas Junior College (SWTJC), a rural community college located in the extreme southwest corner of Texas. SWTJC serves eleven counties along the Rio Grande River and is comprised of over 16,500 square miles. SWTJC is

the only community college serving this vast, but rural region. A focus over the last 10 years on retention and success rates at Southwest Texas Junior College caused personnel to develop and implement several programs aimed at increasing engagement between personnel and students, and increasing success among students. These programs included at-risk retention and success services through the Student Success Centers, high-impact engagement practices through the Quality Enhancement Plan, wildly important goals through Franklin Covey's Four Disciplines of Execution, and Achieving the Dream's seven key dimensions for community colleges. Through the implementation of these programs, Southwest Texas Junior College began to build small, highly engaged communities among students. As personnel persisted in developing and implementing even more retention and success initiatives, the small student communities began to grow larger. These initiatives were borne out of an aspiration to become part of the elite top 10 community colleges in the nation.

Conclusions and Discussion

Students are not unlike other individuals in that their basic needs must be met in order for them to be successful (Maslow, 1968; Maslow, 1943). One of the needs that is often overlooked by colleges and universities is that of belonging or connectedness (Strayhorn, 2012). Nevertheless, higher education institutions and their employees are in a unique position to utilize engagement practices to intentionally build environments and processes that meet students' need to belong (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, &Whitt, 2010). If developed intentionally, college environments provide a much needed, opportunity to meet this basic need of belongingness for students (Strayhorn, 2012). Gaining a sense of belonging is a decisive factor in students' decisions to remain in college; making even one meaningful connection with a group, office, or employee can prove significant for the student success journey (O'Keeffe, 2013). Moreover, personnel possess

a unique opportunity to frame a culture in which students connect or do not connect. Kuh (2003) related that everything that happens in colleges and universities is linked in some way to the institution's culture. Following that logic, this study was conducted in order to understand how college personnel leadership frames shape the college culture, and therefore, shape how students express their sense of belonging.

The study first documented the role of several demographic variables for both groups – college personnel and college students. Demographic variables of interest included the following for college personnel: (a) role at the college: (b) area of employment; (c) length of employment; (d) education level; and (e) primary campus of employment. And, for college students, demographic variables of interest included the following: (a) gender; (b) age; (c) ethnicity; (d) first generation status; (e) type of program; (f) part-time, full-time status and (g) primary campus of attendance. The following research questions guided the study.

RQ1: What are the leadership frames of faculty, staff, and administrators as indicated by the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991)? According to Bolman and Deal (1997), there are four frames that provide a lens to understand organizations and how they work. These frames are structural, human resource, political, and symbolic (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Bolman and Deal (1997) emphasized a multi-frame model of viewing organizations in which personnel use a combination of the best parts of the four frames to address organizational issues and to develop and implement institutional policies, procedures, and processes that shape the institutional environment.

The four leadership frames: structural frame, human resources frame, political frame, and symbolic frame are measured with the Leadership Orientations Instrument (LOI) which reflects how leaders ascertain and act on situations. The LOI is based on a 5-point scale: 1 = never; 2 =

occasionally; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; 5 = always. Overall, college personnel expressed the human resource frame as the highest (M = 4.23) followed by structural (M = 4.11), symbolic (M = 3.82), and political (M = 3.62).

This study found statistically significant results with leadership frames and functional work areas only. No other statistical significance was found between leadership frames and the other documented demographic variables. Specifically, the results showed statistical significance between the human resource frame and functional work areas; however, further analysis indicated that no one functional area contributed to the use of the human resource frame. Rather, the human resource frame is applied to a statistically significant degree in all functional areas at SWTJC. Bolman and Deal (2013) noted that higher performance among institutions is directly linked to the way employees are treated by the institution; the result is highly motivated employees who do a very good job. Personnel who operate within the human resource frame take care in meeting basic human needs, forging relationships, and empowering those around them; they focus on changing the organization to respond to the needs of the people or on using training to change the people to fit the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Accordingly, the human resource frame aligns with many of the SWTJC initiatives meant to increase student engagement and build student belongingness. Furthermore, the human resource frame also aligns with Maslow's (1943) work regarding fulfillment of the human need to belong and feel connected and Strayhorn's (2012) work regarding sense of belonging among students. Bolman and Deal's (2013) model validates the human resource frame as one that leads to motivate toward success rather than one that leads "by carrot and stick" (p. 123).

Another statistically significant result was found between the political frame and functional work areas. Additional post-hoc analysis showed that employees working in the

continuing education/workforce functional area possessed slightly higher attributes of the political frame than those in administrative/business services functional area. The political frame centers efforts on competition for resources; they are negotiators who view the world through the lens of realism and/or pragmatism (Bolman & Deal, 1991). They are coalition builders who use the power they gain to negotiate compromises (Bolman & Deal, 1991). At SWTJC, the continuing education/workforce division is intended to provide programs for the region that meet both the the needs and the special interests of business and industry by preparing a skilled workforce (Southwest Texas Junior College, 2018). As stated earlier, SWTJC serves a region that is very large in size, but remains rural and largely untouched by substantial business and industry. Some of the largest employers in the region are hospitals, school districts, and SWTJC itself. With the decreased need for oil workers after the Eagle Ford Shale faltered, SWTJC's continuing education/workforce recently found itself training workers for a limited amount of regional jobs. Correspondingly, continuing education/workforce personnel who exhibited higher attributes of the political frame must be well-suited to negotiate with employers in order to meet their goals. Bolman and Deal's (2013) work substantiated that politics become "more salient and intense in difficult times" (p. 190).

RQ 2: What are students' perspectives regarding sense of belonging as measured by the Sense of Belonging Instrument (SB) (Hoffman et al., 2002)? The SB was developed as a tool to determine students' levels of integration or belonging in the systems and structures of higher education (Hoffman, et al., 2002). According to Goodenow (1993), sense of belonging is "students' sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers) in the academic classroom setting and of feeling oneself to be an important part of the life and activity of the class" (p. 25). Hoffman, et al. (2002) defined sense of belonging as the

perception of 'valued involvement' that is predicated on establishing supportive relationships in five areas: (a) perceived peer support; (b) perceived faculty support; (c) perceived classroom comfort; (d) perceived isolation; and (e) empathetic faculty.

The SB is on a 6-point scale with 1 as high and 6 as low. It is to be noted that with the SB, a lower mean score is interpreted as a higher sense of belonging, whereas 1 = true; 2 = mostly true; 3 = equally true and untrue; 4 = untrue; 5 = mostly untrue; and, 6 = completely untrue. Overall, students' identified with sense of belonging in the following order: (a) empathetic faculty (M = 2.16); (b) perceived classroom comfort (M = 2.20); (c) perceived faculty support (M = 2.24); (d) perceived peer support (M = 2.63); and perceived isolation (M = 3.35).

The statistical analysis of sense of belonging of community college students according to their demographic characteristics showed mixed results. Although differences were found in the areas of peer support and isolation, effect sizes were low, and explained very little of the variances found.

For the peer support area, statistically significant differences were found between age groups, program types, and full-time, part-time status; however, low effect sizes explained very little of the variance. According to mean scores, the 18-24 age group reported stronger peer support than those in the 25+ age group. Additionally, technical program students reported stronger peer support than academic program students, and full-time students reported stronger peer support than part-time students. At SWTJC, technical students are also likely to be full-time students in the 18-24 age group. As a result, it is not surprising that full-time students in the 18-24 age group who are enrolled in technical programs reported stronger peer support. While it seems unconventional, peer support has been found to be more important to the academic

achievement of non-traditional students over traditional students even to the point of determining withdrawal decisions (Fragoso, GonAlves, Ribeiro, Monteiro, Quintas, Bago, Fonseca, & Santos, 2013). Johnson, Taasoobshirazi, Clark, Howell, and Breen (2016) discovered that predictors of academic achievement for traditional and non-traditional students are divergent with traditional students often reporting higher levels of peer support in spite of its absence as a predictor of academic achievement for them. Conversely, peer support is a strong predictor of academic achievement for non-traditional students, but there are few indications from the literature for augmenting peer supports for this group since they often live off campus and fail to become involved in campus life (Johnson et al., 2016).

With respect to part-time and full-time students, statistically significant differences were found in the isolation area. Again, effect sizes were low and explained an extremely low amount of the variance. According to mean scores for isolation, full-time students reported lower levels of isolation than part-time students.

For the isolation area, statistically significant results were found between part-time and full-time students; however, low effect size explained very little of the variance. According to mean scores, part-time students reported stronger isolation that full-time students. Interestingly, the isolation area had the highest overall mean score indicating that students at SWTJC, regardless of their part-time, full-time status, identified most with isolation. Calcagno, Bailey, Jenkins, Kienzl, and Leinbach (2008) specified that a dominance of part-time students at an institution weakens persistence and makes it more challenging to establish a socially and academically engaged environment. SWTJC's student population is made up of a majority (66%) of students taking less than 12 credit hours. It follows that the large number of part-time students at SWTJC would increase reports of isolation since they spend less time involved in the

life and activity on campus. SWTJC's recent emphasis on increasing engagement needs a more specific focus on reaching part-time students and working to engage them in these activities and initiatives.

RQ3: What is the relationship between leadership frames of college personnel and students' sense of belonging? Correlations and regressions were used to explore relationships between leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of college students and to discover how much leadership frames explained sense of belonging. Results from the statistical analysis of correlations revealed statistically significant results between the political frame and two sense of belonging areas, peer support and empathetic faculty; the symbolic frame and two sense of belonging areas, peer support and empathetic faculty; and the human resource frame and the isolation area of sense of belonging. All of the correlations were negative, indicating that as the leadership frame characteristics decrease, the sense of belonging characteristics increase.

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to discover how much leadership frames explain sense of belonging. The hierarchy was determined by mean score; political frame was the lowest ($M = 3.62$) followed by symbolic ($M = 3.82$), structural ($M = 4.11$) and human resource ($M = 4.23$). The leadership frame with the lowest mean score was entered first and the highest mean score was entered last. This approach was intended to examine the predominate leadership frame, human resources, to explain sense of belonging.

The results of the regression indicated few statistically significant results and explained low levels of the variance. Specifically, the human resource frame predicted both peer support and faculty support, but the relationships were negligible. The symbolic frame also predicted faculty support, but, again, with negligible relationship. Since the human resource frame focuses on meeting basic human needs, forging relationships, and empowering those around them, it

seems logical that the human resource frame would be indicative of sense of belonging in the areas of peer support and faculty support (Bolman & Deal, 1991). As stated by Bolman and Deal (2013, p. 117), the human resource frame is built on the core assumption that "a good fit benefits both" the organization and the individuals working in it. Since the human resource frame is widely employed by SWTJC personnel, it follows that they would be concerned with establishing a good fit for students within the institution.

Implications

The results of the study showed no clear statistically significant results or patterns across the study. However, a lack of patterns or statistically significant results does not indicate the findings are not noteworthy. A strong sense of belonging in the academic classroom setting and in the larger campus community means that students feel "accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers)" (Goodenow, 1993, p. 25). According to Nevarez and Wood (2010), the community college is a complex and unpredictable environment. The results of the study confirm this. Bolman and Deal's (1991) leadership frames was chosen to help understand the relationship between leadership and students' sense of belonging because it describes a broad spectrum of leadership activities. Although personnel mostly described themselves across the spectrums, the relationship to sense of belonging was not very apparent. Understanding the campus environment, itself, can also be complex and unpredictable. Nevertheless, several implications can be garnered.

First, the human resource leadership frame was consistently more prevalent than the other three frames. The implication is that these are the types of characteristics needed in today's complex world of higher education. Students have more and more choices for college, whether it is location, online, or type of institution. As students build relationships and support systems,

their feelings of commitment and connection to the campus community grow and they are, in turn, more deeply dedicated to persisting and succeeding (Strayhorn, 2012). The human resource frame is consistent with students' need to connect with the campus as a community, because its core assumptions are: (a) organizations exist to serve human needs; (b) to be successful, people and organizations must be in sync; (c) if there is a bad fit between people and organizations, one or both suffer; (d) good fit is indicative of success for people and organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Kuh (2011) identified congruency or fit between classroom experiences (personnel) and campus community experiences (students) as a critical element in building community and reinforcing to a sense of belonging. A highly functional campus culture that effectively establishes fit among policies, practices, procedures, and behaviors is overwhelmingly cited as key to student success in studies of high-performing higher education institutions (Collins, 2001; Kuh, 2011; Kuh et al., 2005; Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Tierney, 1999). Furthermore, leaders who rely on the human resource frame understand and work to utilize human capital; they utilize leadership strategies that encourage participation and celebrate the commitment and effort of the human beings involved in the organization (Kezar, 2010). Since the human resource frame was more prevalent at SWTJC, it is fair to say that personnel are focused on establishing an environment conducive to both sense of belonging and student success.

Second, students attending SWTJC face many disadvantages in their pursuit of a higher education degree or certificate. Poverty rates in the service region range from 18% in Medina County (on the outskirts of the San Antonio metropolitan region) to 37% in Zavala County (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). The Bachelor's degree (or higher) attainment rate is 14% for the region, and Spanish is spoken as a primary language in over 50% of homes (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). The implication is that there must be a concerted effort by all personnel on campus to help give

these students a sense of belonging. Sense of belonging is also noted to be key to human function, to overall well-being, and to overall happiness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Hagerty, Lynch-Bauer, Patusky, Bouwsema, & Collier, 1992). The implication is that students need deep relationships at SWTJC to become successful. The students rated their sense of belonging with empathetic faculty as the highest characteristic. Samples and Copeland (2013) found that good teaching involves commitment to leadership activities that directly support student learning by focusing on building connections with students. Furthermore, Samples and Copeland (2013) cited faculty-student interaction as fundamental to student success, wherein the emphasis is placed on interacting with students to build sense of belonging. Community college faculty are often willing to participate in leadership activities, such as modeling and mentoring since they are intent on making an impact for students (Modern Language Association, 2006). These types of activities are part of the network of educationally purposeful activities cited by Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) as critical to student success. According to this study, SWTJC has made inroads for creating an environment in which students feel support and belongingness as a result of the activities and behaviors exhibited by their faculty.

The third implication indicates it is possible to achieve a consistent campus culture across diverse locations with differing personnel and students. Personnel at the campus locations did not differ with regard to students' sense of belonging. This indicates campus culture is consistent across the college. The researcher actually believed the opposite to be true of SWTJC; however, the data revealed that SWTJC has made progress in implementing the initiatives set forth in the Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP). Building an environment in which students, faculty, and staff feel a sense of belonging is necessary albeit challenging (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Creating this sort of environment is not easy as it requires support and resources

from many constituents, but when this type of environment is created, it lends itself directly to student retention and further student success (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Through the QEP, SWTJC has implemented high-impact engagement practices across all campuses and service sites. As a result of the Quality Enhancement Plan, there have been more opportunities for face to face engagement, training for faculty on a variety of classroom engagement strategies, and increased funding for engagement initiatives. The findings of this study support the need for continued delivery of consistent activities and trainings that are focused on establishing a highly engaged student population.

Fourth, there is an implication that job responsibility may overshadow campus culture. In the instance where there were statistically significant differences between personnel function and leadership frames, those people in continuing education/workforce reported more of a political frame than personnel in administrative/business services. This could be due to the influence of the type of work required in continuing education/workforce. The political frame centers efforts on competition for resources; they are negotiators who use their power to negotiate compromises (Bolman & Deal, 1991). At SWTJC, the continuing education/workforce division provides programs for the region that meet both the needs and the special interests of business and industry by preparing a skilled workforce (Southwest Texas Junior College, 2018). With a limited field of business and industry organizations in the area and state and federally mandated job fulfillment goals to meet, continuing education/workforce employees must be keen negotiators who use their influence to build partnerships with key employers as well as with students.

Fifth, campus culture can also influence unity among personnel according to their length of employment and leadership frames. According to Kuh (2003), "An institution's cultural

properties affect to varying degrees almost everything that happens at a college or university" (p. 24). With no statistically significant differences, the message of providing a college full of highly engaged students is clear. Kuh (2011) asserted that a fundamental condition for a campus focused on student success is that the campus culture must not give students the proverbial runaround. Instead, a highly functional campus culture effectively links policies, practices, procedures, and behaviors to drive student success (Collins, 2001; Kuh, 2011; Kuh et al., 2005; Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Tierney, 1999). With no differences among personnel, the indication is that personnel are buying into the proposed campus culture.

Sixth, there were statistically significant differences in student groups and sense of belonging. This is important because it indicates campus leadership cannot take a one-size-fits-all approach to its projects. Over the last several years, Southwest Texas Junior College established several projects focused on improving student retention and success rates and has received recognition for these efforts as indicated by its selection as a Top 10 Community College in the nation in the inaugural round of the Aspen Foundation's Community College Excellence initiative. This initiative recognizes institutions for exceptional student outcomes in four areas: student learning; certificate and degree completion; employment and earnings; and high levels of access and success for minority and low-income students. As the results show, there are differences among groups. Specifically, there were differences between age groups, technical and academic program groups, and part-time and full-time students. Full-time, more traditionally aged, technical students felt higher levels of peer support, which indicates a need for SWTJC to focus efforts on helping part-time, non-traditionally aged, academic students forge relationships with each other. The results also indicate that part-time students feel more isolated at SWTJC, so a closer look should be taken at connecting part-time students with the campus

environment. As administration moves forward with developing and implementing new student initiatives, care should be taken with establishing programs that meet the needs of definitive groups rather than taking an 'all darts at the dart board' approach.

Finally, there were negative relationships between two of the leadership frames and several of the sense of belonging areas. The negative relationships between leadership frames and sense of belonging areas is notable because it indicates that students feel a higher level of sense of belonging when certain leadership characteristics are lower or absent. Specifically, the peer support and empathetic faculty sense of belonging areas both increased when the political and symbolic frames decreased. As defined by Bolman and Deal (1991), the political frame centers efforts on competition for resources, negotiation, realism/pragmatism, and compromise. The symbolic frame, as defined by Bolman and Deal (1991), views the world as a chaotic place that needs interpretation; these leaders are charismatic, dramatic, enthusiastic, and committed to rituals, stories, and other symbolic forms. It follows that students feel a stronger sense of belonging in the areas of peer support and empathetic faculty when the use of these frames is less dominant. Another notable relationship occurred between the human resource frame and isolation. This was also a negative relationship, indicating that when use of the human resource frame went down, isolation went up. The human resource frame concentrates on meeting basic human needs, forging relationships, and empowerment of others (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Accordingly, when students feel like their basic needs for connectedness are being met by personnel in the human resource frame, they feel less isolated.

Recommendations for Future Research

In order for college students to reach their academic success goals, their needs for belongingness and connection must be met (Kuh, 2013; Maslow, 1968). Sense of belonging

within the campus culture is critical to student success because it effects students' decisions to stay or go (O'Keeffe, 2013). College personnel establish the college's culture which ultimately determines whether students connect or not. As Kuh (2003) noted, the institutional culture affects everything at a college or university, and is therefore, extremely critical to student success. As such, this study sought to better understand how college personnel leadership frames shape the organization, and, in turn, understand how students express their sense of belonging. This study identified leadership frames of college personnel and sense of belonging of students at Southwest Texas Junior College. Although the results of the study showed no clear statistically significant results or patterns across the study, it did establish several areas in need of further exploration.

First, the four predictor variables explained very little variance in only two of the five sense of belonging areas, according to hierarchical regression. Additionally, its predictive and effect size values were low. This indicated that the Bolman and Deal (1991) model is not a good model for predicting sense of belonging. Future research should explore different leadership models that might be more indicative of the conditions necessary for students to establish a strong sense of belonging with their campus cultures. For example, a higher level of explanation may occur if the Emotional Intelligence Leadership Model was examined (Ramos-Villarreal & Holland, 2011). The model indicates that leaders with high emotional intelligence skills sub-consciously build environments in which people feel comfortable to collaborate and support each other (Ramos-Villarreal & Holland, 2011). Additional future research would be appropriate in identifying the leadership behaviors of personnel at institutions with high levels of sense of belonging and designing an instrument for the population. An internet search in scholarly libraries and GoogleScholar for sense of belonging leadership produces very little scholarly

literature on the subject. Campus leaders may have unrealistic expectations of personnel and students' sense of belonging if there is not a clear leadership style that models it. Nevertheless, Dranitsaris, Dranitsaris-Hilliard (2012) wrote, "[Employees] need to be able to connect their own identify to the organization's intrinsic identity in order to feel a part of the collective" (para. 2).

Second, future research could further examine the disparity between certain student groups and their reported sense of belonging. This study indicated that there were differences in sense of belonging between age groups, program groups, and part-time, full-time groups in the areas of peer support and isolation. Specifically, future research about isolation of part-time students is of particular interest because not much exists in the literature regarding how to remedy students' feelings of isolation in college. Perhaps, qualitative data, such as interviews with part-time students about their feelings of isolation would further inform the literature in this area. The size of many colleges and universities in numbers of students and employees requires leaders to find the most efficient processes and procedures in order to meet organizational objectives (Castro, 2015). However, this often leaves little room or resources to attend to differences. A study could examine those differences more in depth to discover where processes and procedures could meet the needs of all students better.

Third, future research could further examine the negative relationships between certain leadership behaviors and sense of belonging. This study indicated that leaders operating in the political or symbolic leadership frame reduced sense of belonging among students in the empathetic faculty area. This indicated students are looking for genuine interaction. The political framework produces an environment that competes for resources and creates conflict. It tends to be coercive in nature. The symbolic frame establishes an environment that can be ambiguous, uncertain, and confusing. Symbols are created to reduce those characteristics.

Symbols can be items like mascots, school colors, programs, stories, ceremonies, and the list seems endless (Bolman & Deal, 1991). If students do not identify with those leadership frames, their sense of belonging is reduced. As such, future research should further explore the specific characteristics of these leaders that makes them less appealing to students.

Research should also examine the students from an asset model (Benson, Scales, & Syverstsen, 2011; Pashak, Handal, & Scales, 2018). Often institutions categorize students as underrepresented, lacking certain skills and abilities, and approach them from a deficit perspective, that is, what they do not have. Identification of assets and building programs to capitalize on those assets is a strategy for developing students and strengthening their autonomy, sense of belonging, and competence (Pashak et al., 2018). Research should examine students from an asset perspective—what they do have. A discovery of their assets could lead to the development of initiatives to enhance their skills and abilities, thus building on a foundation they currently exhibit versus providing programs that may be inconsistent or overwhelming to them (Pashak, et al., 2018).

Fifth, this study examined the relationship between personnel leadership frames and student sense of belonging. Embedded in the SWTJC organizational culture are a number of initiatives: Leading Forward Initiative; Aspen Foundation's Community College Excellence; Lumina Foundation's Achieving the Dream; Student Success Centers; and the TRiO-Student Support Services. Although these initiatives were implemented to assist with student success, there are no data indicating whether they relate to student sense of belonging or not. Braxton and Hirschy (2004) concluded that a high level of institutional commitment to the welfare of students is indicative of sense of belonging among students and ultimately their ability to persist.

Although these initiatives are a high level of commitment, data are lacking as to their connection with sense of belonging.

Research should also examine student sense of belonging and persistence and retention. The initiatives above were implemented to increase student engagement toward success. How it is associated with persistence, retention, and sense of belonging is uncertain. College life can be overwhelming for students. As students juggle work, social interaction, recreation, and family, adding college requirements to the mix may become more overwhelming than helpful toward college completion. Ganon and Packard (2012) found balancing work and college to be overwhelming and it delayed students' progress toward completion. The research could conduct focus groups centered around what aspects of college lends to students' feelings of being overwhelmed. An instrument can be developed and tested, then employed for further use to compare feelings of being overwhelmed on a college campus with student success.

Finally, a repeat of the same study at a research one university or an emerging research university where response rates might be higher could provide a better understanding of the predictive characteristics of the Bolman and Deal model on sense of belonging. As indicated by both Kuh et al. (2010) and Strayhorn (2012), personnel play a highly influential role in developing the meaningful interactions that establish connectedness and belonging for college and university students. Highly engaged students who are closely connected to the campus community demonstrate higher rates of success than students who are not actively involved with the campus community and its structures, processes, and practices (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006). Research should examine the leadership characteristics of personnel in a different setting in order to further explore the predictive qualities of leadership frames on sense of belonging.

Summary

This study described the leadership frames of personnel and the sense of belonging of students. The study also examined the relationship between leadership frames and sense of belonging. While the analysis of the four frames provided insight into the characteristics of the personnel and analysis of the sense of belonging provided insight into the needs of the students, the analysis of the relationship between the two failed to help understand what leadership behaviors may be more successful in fostering sense of belonging among students.

This study did underscore several key areas including differences among student groups and negative relationships between certain leadership behaviors and sense of belonging. However, it is apparent that the Multi-frame Model for Organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1991) was not a good model for sense of belonging. The strategic work that SWTJC has done to increase student engagement and success may be a factor in the results of this study; however, the work to increase student success at SWTJC must continue.

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Appendix 1: Personnel Recruitment Letter

November 15, 2017

Dear Employee,

My name is Randa Faseler Schell. I am an Educational Leadership-Higher Education doctoral candidate at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. I am also your colleague at Southwest Texas Junior College where I serve as Director of Student Engagement & Success.

I am currently drafting my dissertation in fulfilment of my program research requirements under the supervision of Randall Bowden, Ph.D., Associate Professor in the College of Education and Human Development at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. The purpose of my study is to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and sense of belonging of students at Southwest Texas Junior College.

I am writing today to ask you to participate in the college personnel leadership frames portion of my study. This part of my study is conducted via one online survey that takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. The survey has two parts: (a) leadership frames; and (b) demographic information. I have received permission to conduct this study from both the Institutional Review Board at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and from Southwest Texas Junior College.

The participation criterion includes:

(a) Faculty, staff, or administrator at Southwest Texas Junior College

If you choose to participate, please click on the following link and complete the online survey.
https://tamucc.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_78IpHY47qZPJSnj

Your experiences in higher education and specifically as an employee at Southwest Texas Junior College would be very helpful for my study. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions please contact me or my committee chair at the phone number or email address listed below.

Thank you again,
Randa Faseler Schell
830-486-9464
rschell@islander.tamucc.edu

Randall Bowden, Ph.D.
361-825-6034
randall.bowden@tamucc.edu

Appendix 2: Student Recruitment Letter

November 16, 2017

Dear Student,

My name is Randa Faseler Schell. I am an Educational Leadership-Higher Education doctoral candidate at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. I serve as Director of Student Engagement & Success at Southwest Texas Junior College.

I am currently drafting my dissertation in fulfilment of my program research requirements under the supervision of Randall Bowden, Ph.D., Associate Professor in the College of Education and Human Development at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. The purpose of my study is to examine the relationship between college personnel leadership frames and sense of belonging of students at Southwest Texas Junior College.

I am writing today to ask you to participate in the student sense of belonging portion of my study. This part of my study is conducted via one online survey that takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. The survey has two parts: (a) sense of belonging; and (b) demographic information. I have received permission to conduct this study from both the Institutional Review Board at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and from Southwest Texas Junior College.

The participation criterion includes:

(a) Current student at Southwest Texas Junior College

If you choose to participate, please click on the following link and complete the online survey.
https://tamucc.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eL5U7s6fn09bkbP

Your experiences as a college student at Southwest Texas Junior College would be very helpful for my study. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions please contact me or my committee chair at the phone number or email address listed below.

Thank you again,
Randa Faseler Schell
830-486-9464
rschell@islander.tamucc.edu

Randall Bowden, Ph.D.
361-825-6034
randall.bowden@tamucc.edu

Appendix 3: College Personnel Leadership Survey

You are being asked to participate in a survey regarding leadership among community college personnel in southwest Texas. Your responses are confidential and are used for research purposes only. All information is reported in aggregate form and no individual identifiers are used as part of data collection.

This portion of the survey asks you to describe your leadership and management style. Considering your experience in higher education, you are asked to indicate how often each of the items below is or was true of you. Please use the following scale in answering each item:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

You would answer '1' for an item that is never true of you, '2' for one that is occasionally true, '3' for one that is sometimes true of you, and so on.

Please be discriminating – Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

1. Think clearly and logically.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

2. Show high levels of support and concern for others.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

3. Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

4. Inspire others to do their best.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

5. Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

6. Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

7. Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

8. Am highly charismatic.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

9. Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

10. Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

11. Am unusually persuasive and influential.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

12. Am able to be an inspiration to others.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

13. Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

14. Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

15. Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

16. Am highly imaginative and creative.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

17. Approach problems with facts and logic.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

18. Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

19. Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

20. Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

21. Set specific, measureable goals and hold people accountable for results.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

22. Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

23. Am politically very sensitive and skillful.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

24. See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

25. Have extraordinary attention to detail.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

26. Give personal recognition for work well done.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

27. Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

30. Am a highly participative manager.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

○ Never ○ Occasionally ○ Sometimes ○ Often ○ Always

Demographic Data
This portion of the survey asks you to describe yourself.

1. Which of the following best describes your role at the college (choose your primary role if you have multiple roles)?

- ○ Administrator
- ○ Full-time Faculty
- ○ Adjunct Faculty
- ○ Staff
- ○ Other

2. Which of the following best describes your functional area?

- ○ Academic Affairs
- ○ Administrative/Business Services
- ○ Continuing Education/Workforce Development
- ○ Student Services

3. Which of the following best describes the length of your employment in higher education?

- ○ 0 to 3 years
- ○ 3+ to 8 years
- ○ 8+ to 13 years
- ○ 13+ to 18 years
- ○ More than 18 years

4. Which of the following best describes your current level of education?

- ○ High school diploma
- ○ Certification
- ○ Associate's degree
- ○ Bachelor's degree
- ○ Master's degree
- ○ Doctorate
- ○ Other ___________________________

5. Which of the following campuses/facilities do you consider your primary place of employment?

- ○ Del Rio
- ○ Eagle Pass
- ○ Uvalde
- ○ Other

Appendix 4: Sense of Belonging Survey

You are being asked to participate in a survey regarding Sense of Belonging among community college students in southwest Texas. Your responses are confidential and are used for research purposes only. All information is reported in combined form and no individual identifiers are used as part of data collection.

This portion of the survey asks you to describe your experiences at the college. Considering your experience as a student, you are asked to indicate how each of the items below is or was true of your experience. Please use the following scale in answering each item:

1	2	3	4	5	6
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

Please read each item carefully and rate your agreement with each statement based on your experience at the college during the current school year. You would answer '1' for an item that is true of you, '2' for one that is mostly true, '3' for one that is equally true of you, and so on.

Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and decide the things that are really true of your experience versus the things that are mostly true, equally true, or untrue of your experience.

1. I could call another student from class if I had a question about an assignment.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

2. Other students are helpful in reminding me when assignments are due or when tests are approaching.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

3. If I miss class, I know students who I could get the notes from.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

4. I have met with classmates outside of class to study for an exam.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

5. I discuss events which happen outside of class with my classmates.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

6. I invite people I know from class to do things socially.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

7. I have developed personal relationships with other students in class.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

8. I have discussed personal matters with students who I met in class.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

9. I feel comfortable seeking help from a teacher before or after class.

○ True ○ Mostly True ○ Equally True and Untrue ○ Untrue ○ Mostly Untrue ○ Completely Untrue

10. I feel comfortable asking a teacher for help if I do not understand course-related material.

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

11. If I had a reason, I would feel comfortable seeking help from a faculty member outside of class time (i.e., during office hours, etc.).

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

12. I feel comfortable talking about an academic problem with faculty.

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

13. I would feel comfortable socializing with a faculty member outside of class.

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

14. I feel comfortable asking a teacher for help with a personal problem.

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

15. Speaking in class is easy because I feel comfortable.

○ True	○ Mostly True	○ Equally True and Untrue	○ Untrue	○ Mostly Untrue	○ Completely Untrue

16. I feel comfortable volunteering ideas or opinions in class.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

17. I feel comfortable contributing to class discussions.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

18. I feel comfortable asking a question in class.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

19. It is difficult to meet other students in class.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

20. No one in my classes knows anything personal about me.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

21. I rarely talk to other students in my classes.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

22. I know very few people in my classes.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

23. I feel that a faculty member would take the time to talk to me if I needed help personally or academically.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

24. I feel that a faculty member would be sympathetic if I was upset.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

25. I feel that a faculty member would be sensitive to my personal difficulties if I shared them.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

26. I feel that a faculty member would really try to understand my personal problem if I talked about it.

○	○	○	○	○	○
True	Mostly True	Equally True and Untrue	Untrue	Mostly Untrue	Completely Untrue

Demographic Data
This portion of the survey asks you to describe yourself.

1. What is your gender?

Female	Male

2. What is your age?

18-24 years old	55-64 years old
25-34 years old	65-74 years old
35-44 years old	75 years or older
45-54 years old	

3. What is your ethnicity?

African American/Black	Pacific Islander
American Indian/Alaska Native	White
Asian	Two or more ethnicities
Hispanic/Latino	Other

4. Are you the first person in your immediate family (mother, father, brother, sister) to attend college?

Yes	No

5. Are you enrolled in an academic program or a technical program?

Academic program	Technical program

6. Are you a part-time student (less than 12 hours) or a full-time student (12 or more hours)?

Part-time	Full-time

7. Which campus/facility do you primarily attend?

Del Rio	Uvalde
Eagle Pass	Other