

**COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS AS PUBLIC SERVANTS:  
A Q METHODOLOGICAL EXPLORATION**

by

Daniel James Palmer

B.A., Wartburg College, 2005  
M.P.A., University of South Dakota, 2007  
Ph.D., University of South Dakota, 2011

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of  
the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

---

College of Arts and Sciences  
Department of Political Science  
in the Graduate School  
The University of South Dakota  
May 2011

UMI Number: 3450647

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



UMI 3450647

Copyright 2011 by ProQuest LLC.

All rights reserved. This edition of the work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.



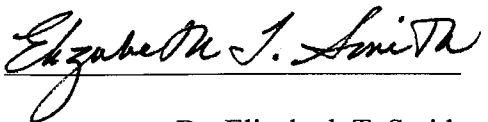
ProQuest LLC  
789 East Eisenhower Parkway  
P.O. Box 1346  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

© 2011  
Daniel J. Palmer  
All Rights Reserved

## ABSTRACT

Daniel J. Palmer, Ph.D., Political Science  
College Administrators as Public Servants: A Q Methodological Exploration  
University of South Dakota, 2011  
Dissertation directed by Elizabeth T. Smith, Ph.D.

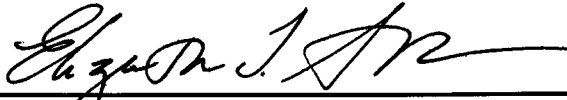
Public administration scholars have long been interested in the professional orientations of public sector executives. An important idea from the body of mainstream public administration theory is that of the “public service orientation,” that is, the notion that public administrators strongly embrace a duty to serve the public interest. This professional orientation has been argued to underlie a host of attitudinal, motivational, affective, and behavioral differences between private executives and their public sector counterparts. The goal of the current project was to explore the public service orientation in the context of American college and university leadership through an analysis of administrative orientation. The study employed *Q methodology* as an intensive, mixed qualitative-quantitative approach that is well-suited to mapping persons’ points of view. Thirty-seven senior college administrators were asked to rank a series of statements regarding the administrative values, motives, and attitudes that underlie their own subjective perspectives on administrative conduct. Analysis of the study’s data proceeded in two stages: 1) the factor analysis and interpretation of the holistic administrative perspectives offered by participants and 2) a qualitative comparison of these perspectives to extant scholarly portrayals of the public service orientation. Results indicated the existence of two major perspectives among higher education administrators. Factor A (*Societal Trusteeship*) is fundamentally oriented toward the needs of external society, and expresses a willingness to leverage institutional resources to improve the human condition. Factor B (*Organizational Stewardship*), by contrast, is an internally-oriented perspective that places primary emphasis on institutional performance. Importantly, the factors are not dichotomous, and suggest a high degree of normative overlap in the professional orientations of college administrators. While the *societal trusteeship* perspective appears to represent a close approximation to the idealized public service orientation, traces of this orientation also are evident in the *organizational stewardship* viewpoint. In total, the study’s findings underscore the conceptual complexity of the public service orientation.

Approved by: 

Dr. Elizabeth T. Smith  
Professor in Charge

**DOCTORAL COMMITTEE**

The members of the committee appointed to examine  
the dissertation of Daniel J. Palmer find it  
satisfactory and recommend that it be accepted.



---

Dr. Elizabeth T. Smith, Chair



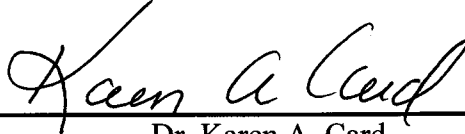
---

Dr. Anthony D. Molina



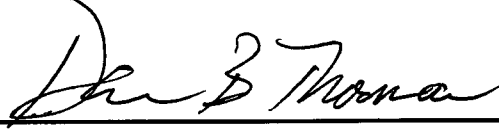
---

Dr. Matthew R. Fairholm



---

Dr. Karen A. Card



---

Dr. Dani B. Thomas

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In the film *The Graduate*, Dustin Hoffman’s character Ben states meekly, “I’m just...I’m just a little worried about my future. I’m a little upset about my future.” Feelings of insecurity and self-doubt surely creep into the mind of every graduate student, and I have been no exception. That this dissertation was ever undertaken, much less completed, is more so a testament to a devoted network of supporters than to the efforts of the author.

I am hopelessly indebted to my musical chairs, Dr. Elizabeth Smith and Dr. Bill Anderson, for their tireless work on behalf of the project, and whose help has sustained this research from beginning to end. Much appreciation is owed also to Dr. Tony Molina, Dr. Karen Card, Dr. Dan Thomas, and Dr. Matt Fairholm for their counsel, their enthusiasm, and for their generous service as a coalition of the willing. I am especially grateful to Dr. Bill Anderson, whose work as a mentor, advocate, and role model has been especially needed at several critical points along the way. All scholars should be so lucky as to encounter one Bill Anderson during their careers.

I also owe a debt of gratitude to the USD Department of Political Science – in particular, Dr. Bill Richardson – for its multifaceted support of my work over the course of my degree program(s). I believe that our department has created a special setting where students are both challenged and nurtured, and in doing so, has fostered an environment that truly exemplifies the legacy of its great patriarch, “Doc” Farber.

Most importantly, I must thank my three families – the Joneses, Palmers, and Lockners – for their irrational confidence in me. Through the sheer force of love they motivated an otherwise unexceptional person do things he never thought possible. And to my parents, Richard and Janice Palmer, whose many sacrifices have never gone unseen, and to my wife, Lindsay, whose perpetual patience, encouragement, and tolerance have taught me a great deal about selflessness – “thanks” will never be enough.

*SDG*

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Abstract</b>	iv
<b>Doctoral Committee</b>	v
<b>Acknowledgements</b>	vi
<b>Table of Contents</b>	viii
<b>List of Tables</b>	ix
<b>List of Figures</b>	x
<b>Chapter 1</b> <i>Introduction</i>	1
<b>Chapter 2</b> <i>Review of Literature</i>	19
<b>Chapter 3</b> <i>Methodology</i>	59
<b>Chapter 4</b> <i>Analysis and Findings</i>	90
<b>Chapter 5</b> <i>Summary, Conclusion, Discussion, and Recommendations</i>	114
<b>References</b>	137
<b>Appendices</b>	160



## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1</b> <i>Summary of Public Service Orientation Findings by Topical Area</i>	52
<b>Table 2</b> <i>Summary of Methodological Approaches Used in Public Service Orientation Research</i>	57
<b>Table 3</b> <i>Factorial Structure of Q Sample</i>	78
<b>Table 4</b> <i>Example Q Statements</i>	79
<b>Table 5</b> <i>AIPE Institutional Counts for Five-State Region</i>	83
<b>Table 6</b> <i>Participant Recruitment by Institutional Type</i>	91
<b>Table 7</b> <i>Participant Recruitment by Institutional Size</i>	92
<b>Table 8</b> <i>Participant Recruitment by Administrative Title</i>	93
<b>Table 9</b> <i>Participant Recruitment by Total Administrative Experience</i>	93
<b>Table 10</b> <i>Participant Recruitment by Time in Current Position</i>	94
<b>Table 11</b> <i>Rotated Factor Matrix for Two-Factor Solution</i>	99
<b>Table 12</b> <i>Q Sort Distribution</i>	101
<b>Table 13</b> <i>Z-Scores and Ranks for Statement Sample</i>	102

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1</b> <i>Q Sort Template</i>	87
<b>Figure 2</b> <i>Scatter Plot of Rotated Factor Loadings</i>	104
<b>Figure 3</b> <i>Venn Representation of Shared Factor Space</i>	105

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

#### Introduction and Purpose

Colleges and universities can be seen to serve a pivotal public purpose in the modern knowledge-based economy. Although no national framework for education is spelled out by the US Constitution, public instruction is generally understood to be a fundamental public good in the democratic context, linked to notions of informed participation, critical discourse, and civic responsibility. Higher education has, in fact, historically occupied a key role in promoting such important public goods as facilitating positive views of citizenship and cultivating future community leaders (Hollister, Wilson, & Levine, 2008). In this light, higher education is thought to encourage the meaningful practice of democracy, as well as to foster the enlightenment of society in general.

However, a number of contemporary social trends have begun to alter the customary image of higher education as a noble deliverer of public goods. Beginning with enrollment pressures accompanying the decline of federal and state support for higher education in the early 1980s, American colleges and universities have increasingly come to be represented within popular consciousness as distributors of private economic benefits, such as increased income, professional mobility, and individual quality of life (*The Institute for Higher Education Policy*, 1998). Newman, Couturier, and Scurry (2004) argue that a new world order has emerged in higher education in light of increasing inter-institutional competition. Globalized rivalry for students, faculty, resources, and prestige has driven higher education toward a market orientation that emphasizes self-interested motives in a consumer-driven climate. Consequently, this

institutional competitiveness has begun to undermine the historic public functions of America's colleges and universities. Recent operational trends, such as the increasing use of merit-based financial aid, the proliferation of homogenizing "mission creep," and heightened prioritization of research and publishing over teaching and service – all of which stem from the growing emphasis on the education marketplace – have reshaped the ways in which higher education serves the public (Ibid; McCormick & Zhao, 2005; Marginson, 2007; Henderson, 2009).

Enter into this mix the tasks and responsibilities of senior college executives. In most settings, campus presidents, provosts, academic deans, and related institutional administrators sit atop organizational hierarchies and share responsibility for the overall management of their respective campuses. As purveyors of organizational agendas and culture, senior administrators play an important role in the shaping of institutional values. Given the levels of responsibility and authority that define these officials, and also in light of the systemic forces outlined above, the professional orientations that shape the conduct of college executives seem deserving of scholarly attention.

Fittingly, public administration scholars have long been interested in the professional orientations of public sector managers. One particular concept from the province of public administration that bears on the foregoing managerial context is that of the "public service orientation," that is, the idea that public administrators strongly embrace a duty to serve the public interest. This viewpoint is posited to underlie a host of attitudinal, motivational, affective, and behavioral differences between private executives and public servants.<sup>1</sup> Though this theoretical construct has stimulated a fair degree of application in conventional venues of government, researchers are yet to apply this notion

---

<sup>1</sup> The public service orientation concept is reviewed thoroughly in the following chapter.

to the realm of the college administrator.<sup>2</sup> The absence of such work seems startling given the gamut of high-minded, publically oriented virtues associated with higher education, and by association, its managers.

It was taken as the central aim of this dissertation project to examine analytically the administrative orientations of senior college administrators with respect to the public service orientation. At its core, the research was driven by a single organizing question: What are the managerial perspectives of high-level college administrators, and how do they compare with existing scholarly portraits of the public service orientation? As a preface, this introduction attempts to bring together an array of topical areas in order to construct a sturdy foundation for this research. More specifically, this chapter highlights the linkages between public service values, higher education administration, and by extension, university leadership. The overarching contention is that public administration scholars would be well-justified in exploring the “public” dimensions, both institutional and normative, that characterize higher education administration. The chapter concludes with a summative outline of the goals and approach of the research project advanced by the remainder of the dissertation.

### **Universities and the Public Interest**

*Should* American higher education institutions as a whole seek to promote the public interest? How one answers this question may hinge on the extent to which one believes colleges and universities are part of “government” proper. Yet, the definitional ambiguities of quasi-governmental entities (such as public colleges and universities)

---

<sup>2</sup> That public service motives and their corollaries bear much importance to students of public administration is well-established. In a much-cited article from 1995, Behn affirms that this area of scholarship represents one of the most pressing research frontiers in the field.

within the framework of governance introduce a host of questions with respect to institutional values and priorities.<sup>3</sup>

Many scholars have made the case that colleges and universities *should* and *do* labor to directly support the public interest. Tead (1946) argued that colleges and universities are called to foster the public interest by equipping students with the intellectual means by which to engage social questions in a rigorous and collaborative way. Renne (1960) similarly suggested that American colleges and universities, especially public land-grant institutions, are obligated to recognize the overarching needs of global industry and government, along with focusing on the individual needs of students. Miller (2006) makes the case that institutions of higher education must become more closely connected to their public purposes, not only to ensure continued financial support from government, but also to remain socially relevant.

In practice, institutions of higher education have been linked to a variety of broad public goals, including the reduction of social and economic inequality through increased access (Bullock, 2005); promoting heightened rates of voting, volunteerism, and social mobility (Miller, 2006); contributing to state and regional economic needs (Wilson, 2004); and developing human capital (Ibid). Jenson (2006) notes that terms such as the “public good” and “public service” are featured in the mission statements of several major institutions in US, including the University of California at Berkeley and the University of Wisconsin. Echoing these themes, colleges and universities pursue a host

---

<sup>3</sup> Some authors, such as H. George Frederickson, resolve the issue by offering a markedly inclusive view on what it means to be “doing” governance. Frederickson (1997) remarks that, “governance comprehends the full range of public activity – government, quasi-governmental, and nongovernmental – and should be – more broadly defined to include the administration or implementation aspects of all forms and manifestations of collective public activity,” (p. 225). Dwight Waldo (1970) contends that, while institutions of higher education should not be understood universally as “government agencies” per se, their social role is such that they should be recognized as public entities, irrespective of technical public-private designation.

of publically oriented ventures, including service-learning initiatives, volunteer programs, applied research, community engagement, and public outreach (Tannock, 2006; Jenson, 2006).<sup>4</sup>

The extensive social and economic advantages ushered in by American colleges and universities no doubt contribute at some level to the benefit of all. What remains largely unknown is the degree to which these institutions recognize and accept the fundamentally public aspects of their activities. To some extent, it seems improbable that colleges and universities would not carry an ingrained sense of the civic goods they facilitate. In light of mounting regulatory involvement from government in the operations of college and universities of all types, the governmental purposes of higher education can hardly be avoided.

### **Government and Higher Education**

Pressures on colleges and universities to pursue policy goals are tied closely to governmental funding that often is accompanied by the loss of autonomy to set institutional priorities. Consensus has generally settled on the view that all levels of government have become more assertive in their application of procedural and substantive controls on US colleges and universities (Kerr & Gade, 1986; Zumeta, 1998). Recapping the rising involvement in campus administration by government overseers, Smith and Adams (2008) submit that the, “Post-industrialist society and the corporate economy have become ever-more reliant on the knowledge roles of universities, and the

---

<sup>4</sup> Some observers have cast doubt on the commitment of colleges and universities to support the goals of public interest service. Dunn, Gibson, and Whorton (1985) present survey data suggesting that institutions of higher education tend to place relatively little emphasis on activities that advance the public interest. Newman, Couturier, and Scurry (2004) follow that self-interested decision making arising from marketplace competition has led to a decline in public service motives in higher education.

state has taken an ever-more intrusive interest in bringing to account those who use the public's funding," (p. 342).

The federal government has shared a long but largely invisible relationship with higher education, mostly through instruments of land-grant college sponsorship, student loan underwriting, tax benefits to families and institutions, and competitive research support (Gladieux, King, & Corrigan, 2005). This last area, financial support for targeted research, represents a particularly amorphous point of entanglement (Lambright & Zinke, 1989). Research goals are established in decentralized fashion, and partnerships between government, industry, and universities arise as marriages of convenience in a patchwork of research, education, and technology transfer programs.

By contrast, the association between state governments and (public) institutions of higher education tends to be a more transparent and structured one. First, state governments typically provide financial subsidies directly to colleges and universities themselves. The US Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics reports that state and local government appropriations, grants, and contracts accounted for roughly 34.5% of total revenues for public institutions of higher education in 2007-2008. By contrast, analogous federal sources accounted for 10.0% of total revenues (Aud, et al., 2010).<sup>5</sup> Combined then, government funding constitutes a major source of funding for many of America's colleges and universities. Second, and in terms of organizational structure, McGuinness (2005) asserts that the formal relationships between

---

<sup>5</sup> State and local governments provided 1.7% of total revenues for private not-for-profit institutions and 0.4% of total revenues for private for-profit institutions. The federal government accounted for 14.5% and 6.0% of total revenues for the same institutions, respectively (Ibid).



public institutions and state government reflect many different arrangements that exist along a spectrum ranging from maximum control to minimum oversight.<sup>6</sup>

The financial and structural fibers that connect government to colleges and universities can be seen to affect institutional mission and goals. Historically, articles of federal legislation such as the Morrill Act and the GI Bill have altered the priorities of the nation's institutions by enlisting universities as instruments of social and economic policy. Similarly, in exchange for financial support, state governments put forward a host of expectations for the management of public institutions. State governing and coordinating boards have become increasingly involved in managing the internal affairs of colleges and universities, and in contrast to their more reticent forbearers, tend to actively press public institutions to demonstrate strong productivity. Newman, Couturier, and Scurry (2004) recount that legislators and other public officials, "expect higher education to mirror the changes taking place in the economy – and in state government itself – and become more flexible, adaptable, consumer-friendly, innovative, technologically advanced, performance driven, and accountable," (p. 75). Such attitudes lay responsibility for these functions at the feet of college and university administrators. Consequently, Birnbaum and Eckel (2005) offer that, "[college] presidents may find themselves becoming like middle managers in public agencies rather than campus leaders," (p. 347). Particularly in light of the recent trend toward performance funding for public higher education institutions, this observation seems supportable.

---

<sup>6</sup> McGuiness (Ibid) proposes four specific models for thinking about the interconnectedness of government and higher education: "institution as a state agency," "state-controlled institution," "state-aided institution," and "corporate institutional governance." Kerr (1990) advocates for a slightly different typology, one which segments colleges and universities along four dimensions: ownership, control, financing, and finance mechanism.

Overall then, institutions of government and higher education are intertwined at multiple levels, and this observation suggests the potential for normative overlap in their respective forms of administration. If the structures of government and higher education are linked in such a way as to facilitate mutual goals, might we not suspect that their respective managers share, to some extent, comparable administrative values? Perhaps no group of actors in the institutional context could better personify organizational priorities and ambitions than senior administrators. Presidents, chief academic officers, and academic deans are thought to shape the organizational culture of the institutions they serve, and thus represent a key population in the study of public service values (Gayle, Tewarie, & White, 2003). The next section takes up a concise account of the task environment of higher education leadership, focusing especially on ideas that bear importance for public administration scholarship.

### **College Administrators and the Public**

Before proceeding, a quick qualifier is needed. Colleges and universities come in a variety of shapes, sizes, and flavors; accordingly, such terms as “president,” “provost,” and “dean” hold multiple meanings. Given the variety of administrative settings constituting the world of higher education leadership, any examination of college executives becomes somewhat reductionist. For example, Kerr and Gade (1987) and Shaw (2002) suggest that the public-private distinction often drives major environmental differences on college and university campuses. The market-driven world of private institutions tends to bring about more administrative flexibility and adaptability, while administrators of public institutions face a spate of political pressures and oversight mechanisms that generally are not encountered in the private world. Executives in public

colleges and universities must be mindful of political gatekeepers, partners, and other stakeholders that bear on institutional decision making. Similarly, small and large institutions are distinct along a number of dimensions, including enrollment and staff size, budgetary complexity, bureaucratic intricacy, community setting, and mission (Hotchkiss, 2002). Altogether then, the many variations between institutional types – public and private, nonprofit and proprietary, liberal arts and professional, and so on – combine to suggest that in higher education administration studies, context matters.

The titles, tasks, and administrative responsibilities of senior college administrators are as diverse as they are vital. *College presidents* are famously understood to wear a closet of hats, including chief administrative officer, executive budgeter, principal fundraiser, academic chieftain, political manager, and public relations director (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005). On most campuses, the president bears accountability for institutional decision making, and thus holds primary responsibility for the overall performance of the school. Similarly, *chief academic officers* (CAO) occupy positions marked by multiple tasks. Lambert (2002) summarizes that the campus CAO (or “provost”), “manages complex personnel processes; plays a critical role in budget, facilities, and technology planning; influences curriculum; participates in strategic planning; and acts in the absence of the chief executive,” (p. 425). Campus CAOs customarily serve as the nominal second-in-command on American campuses, ranking immediately below the president. Perhaps more so than with presidents or CAOs, the tasks that define the work of *academic deans* vary considerably from campus to campus. On some campuses, “the” dean serves as the chief academic officer for the entire institution, while on other campuses multiple academic deans hold responsibility for

separate academic units or divisions (Buller, 2007). In almost all cases, academic deans typically serve as a primary point of contact between administrative executives and the professorate (Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1999).

Much congruence can be seen between the conceptual roles held by the above executives and traditional public administrators. Writing specifically about college presidents, Cohen and March (1974), followed by Birnbaum and Eckel (2005), suggest that campus administrators serve in three main capacities: administrator, politician, and entrepreneur.<sup>7</sup> First, as *administrators*, presidents are responsible for executing university policies, allocating institutional resources, and directing strategic planning efforts. While early American institutions of higher education required only weak coordination, their modern incarnations have evolved into sprawling machine bureaucracies. The second presidential role, *politician*, flows from the pluralistic nature of university governance and centers on serving multiple constituencies and building coalitions between stakeholders.<sup>8</sup> Finally, college presidents of all historical eras have been deeply rooted in the *entrepreneurial* demands of the office. As fundraisers-in-chief, college presidents are tasked with building up institutional stocks of financial and organizational capital. Altogether, one might reasonably surmise that the above constellation of professional roles (*i.e.*, administrative, political, and entrepreneurial) is markedly reminiscent of the task environment faced by public sector managers.

Ostensibly, each of these roles may be seen to extend beyond the campus presidency to other high-ranking administrators. As with presidents, it can be argued that

---

<sup>7</sup> This framework corresponds loosely to another typology issued by Bensimon (1990), who asserts that presidential leadership can be interpreted along four conceptual “frames”: bureaucratic, collegial, political, and symbolic. See also Bolman and Deal (2008).

<sup>8</sup> Consequently, Donovan and Wild (1949) state flatly that, “When a man accepts the presidency of an institution of higher education, he belongs to the public,” (p. 246).

CAOs, deans, and all other manner of campus executives are grounded in expansive bureaucracies and are thus steered by administrative considerations. Political dynamics also permeate all levels of the administrative hierarchy. Buller (2007) argues that academic deans often become entangled in policy affairs as a result of referrals by campus presidents, and consequently that legislator relations are frequently a key aspect of the deanship. Similarly, other researchers have identified both CAOs and deans as occupying kingpin positions in the efforts of their academic divisions to build effective financial donor networks (Ferren & Stanton, 2004; Krahenbuhl, 2004; Hodson, 2010).

In sum, the roles and considerations described above show similarity to the publically oriented duties usually associated with public administrators. The administrative, political, and entrepreneurial features of university management ring true to typical descriptions of the federal agency chief or local city manager. Further, campus executives not only face an administrative environment that approximates that of the public sector, but also influence the formulation of institutional symbols, values, and goals (Hotchkiss, 2002; Lambert, 2002; Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002).<sup>9</sup> Considered together, these observations distinguish college executives as a suitable class of research subjects for scholars of public service values.

### **Summing Up and Segue to Research Plan**

The case so far presented is a multidimensional one. *American colleges and universities, with their idealized and institutional connections to public service, are led by executives whose task environment and professional responsibilities resemble prima facie those of public sector administrators. Senior college administrators can thus be*

---

<sup>9</sup> Birnbaum (1989) concurs: "A symbolic leaders, presidents who consistently articulate the core values of the institution and relate them to all aspects of institutional life reinvigorate the myths that lead people to create a common reality," (p. 208).

*seen as public managers whose professional views are important to public administration theory and practice.* They compose a cadre of visible and influential administrative practitioners whose motives and attitudes present a potential mine of opportunity for public service scholars. Further, compensation packages for the managers of many public institutions are subsidized directly by state or local funds, a convention that reifies the bond between administrative officials and the public. This description alone seems to justify formal inquiry. But beyond these substantive rationales, it also can be argued that the traditional disciplinary barriers between public administration and higher education administration (barriers that might otherwise deter such research) are based on largely untenable distinctions that rightly should be discarded (Eliot, 1959; Faulkner, 1959; Uveges & Carter, 1983; Raffel, 2007).<sup>10</sup> In total, the preceding observations are believed to establish the conceptual appropriateness of undertaking empirical efforts to link higher education executives to the public service orientation. Whether the top executives of America's colleges and universities are steered by a sense of duty to the public interest seems a relevant question not just for academic scholars, but for all observers of the US higher education system.

As will be shown in the next chapter, the normative orientations of college administrators comprise an area of research opportunity that has remained untapped by scholars in either public administration or higher education administration. Scant data exists to link college administrators to *any* particular professional orientation, much less

---

<sup>10</sup> Public administration and higher education administration have persistently occupied entirely different realms of management literature (Raffel, 2007; Ferlie, Musselin, & Andresani, 2009). Despite this historical split, Raffel (Ibid) implores public administration scholars to embrace the idea of exploring the parallels between its conventional domains and those of education administration. Raffel submits that, "a public administration that included public education would describe and understand the world with greater validity, reducing misspecifications of public administration theory and findings, and enhancing public administration research," (p. 144).

the public service orientation posited in public administration literature. Dennison (2001), in fact, laments that “much of the extant literature concerning the university [presidency] appears trivial at best and offensive at worst,” (p. 270). This critique is not uncommon among administration scholars, and paves the way for new exploration.

### **Overview of Research Plan**

This dissertation aimed to add new material to the body of administrative studies by examining the administrative orientations of American college executives. The analytic focus of the research centered on mapping the managerial viewpoints of college administrators (through the use of field data), and then indentifying the linkages between these perspectives and the public service orientation (as portrayed in the body of public administration literature). Interdisciplinary at its heart, this analysis represents a novel effort in the domain of higher education scholarship, and also offers an expansion of existing research on public service motives in the field of public administration.

As a means for approaching the rather ponderous notion of “administrative orientation,” the study employed *Q methodology*, an intensive, mixed qualitative-quantitative methodological strategy that is designed to map research participants’ subjective perspectives on a given object of thought. Procedurally, Q methodology comprises two main operations, the first of which consists of the administration of a modified rank-order card sorting task to a group of subjects. This process is followed by an innovative factor analytic procedure by which participants are mathematically arranged into likeminded clusters. The ensuing sequence of statistical computations produces a factor pattern of holistic viewpoints from which systematic inferences can be made. As a descriptive, taxonomical device, Q methodology does not rely on

conventional hypothesis testing, nor does it explicitly allow for causal modeling. As a cousin to phenomenology, Q methodology emphasizes the human aspects of social experience, and approaches the research setting with limited *a priori* assumptions regarding explanatory dynamics.

Moustakas (1994) instructs that qualitative research questions should reveal the researcher's intent to: reveal essences; seek comprehensive, qualitative descriptions; and avoid prediction and causal explanation. Further, Creswell (1998) advises that qualitative researchers frame their studies around a central, overarching research question underpinned by additional questions that bear relevance to the overall goals of the study. With these points of guidance in mind, this analysis sought to lend insight to a single overarching concern:

*RQ<sub>1</sub>: What normative perspectives constitute the administrative orientations of higher education administrators?*

Altogether then, this study used Q methodology to explore the structure of college administrators' shared representations of administrative orientation. Beyond this task, however, the study also sought to shed light on the extent to which the managerial perspectives of college administrators comport with customary impressions of the idealized public administrator orientation. Identifying the linkages between college executives' points of view and the public service orientation, then, represented another important goal of the research.

In the present study, college administrators from various institutional types were asked to rank a series of statements regarding the administrative values, motives, and attitudes that underlie their own subjective notions of appropriate managerial conduct.



Specifically, the study's participant pool included active and retired presidents, chief academic officers, academic and administrative vice presidents, and academic deans. The statements drawn for this study came from two main sources: academic publications offering descriptive accounts of administrative values, motives, and priorities, and a collection of interview transcripts generated from qualitative field work conducted for an earlier study.<sup>11</sup> Statements were selected on the basis that they offered a wide spectrum of perspective regarding four main dimensions: professional values, personal needs and characteristics, behavioral and attitudinal expression, and reward preferences. To ensure the most efficient sorting exercise possible, the statement sample was limited to a relatively small number of items (n=40).

Data collection efforts were designed to solicit input from administrators from multiple post-secondary institutional types. The selection frame, comprising a list of all accredited degree-granting institutions in South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota, and North Dakota, was compiled from the *2009-2010 Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education* volume published by the American Council on Education. Using institutional characteristics provided in this publication, institutions were selected in such a way that encouraged representation from public, private, proprietary, non-proprietary, four-year, and two-year schools.<sup>12</sup> Within each of these institutional categories, administrators from the five-state region were contacted and interviewed

---

<sup>11</sup> The previous field work noted here refers to a series of interviews conducted by a graduate research team (of which the author was a member) for a doctoral-level qualitative methods course in the fall of 2009; like the present study, this research centered on the administrative value sets of mainline public administrators.

<sup>12</sup> These divisions (*i.e.*, public-private, proprietary-non-proprietary, four-year-two-year) were chosen on the basis that they bisect major institutional dimensions that might reasonably be expected to underlie qualitative differences of managerial viewpoint among administrators.

sequentially until participation goals were met.<sup>13</sup> Participants were recruited by the researcher using an invitation letter and a follow-up phone call.

Data collection occurred on-site using the traditional manual card sorting technique, with the researcher remaining with each research subject to guide the way through each step of the procedure.<sup>14</sup> As opposed to a mail-based or online data collection alternative, the on-site strategy was used as a means for generating higher rates of participation, higher-quality data, and firmer control over the participant pool. Following completion of the sorting task, participants were asked to provide responses to a short series of open- and closed-ended contextual items that assisted in enriching the final analysis.

Factor analysis of the compiled Q data proceeded by conventional methods specified in the body of Q literature. From the perspectives that emerged from the factor analysis, substantive conclusions were drawn regarding the degree of similarity between college administrators and mainline public managers. Judgments regarding the presence or absence of congruence along these lines were derived from a qualitative comparison of the emergent Q factors with portrayals of the public service orientation offered by earlier public administration researchers.

---

<sup>13</sup> It was acknowledged at the outset that actual participation figures would be dependent on the cooperation of solicited individuals, and that the final participant pool might or might not include representation from all institutional types. With regard to participation goals, it was expected that factor saturation would occur with a response level of n=20-40 participants.

<sup>14</sup> As per Q methodological convention, respondents were directed (with the aid of a visual sorting template) to sort a deck of statement cards into the approximate shape of a normal distribution histogram. The distribution template was marked with anchor labels indicating *strong disagreement* (left tail) to *strong agreement* (right tail), segmented by a continuum of nine columns ranging from “-4” to “+4”, with “0” serving as a neutral midpoint. The quasi-normal shape of the template required respondents to sort most cards into middle “neutral” categories, with progressively fewer cards being placed in the tails of the distribution. When sorting was complete, the researcher recorded the final arrangement of the statement cards on a separate form for data entry.

All told, this exploration serves masters in two houses: public administration theorists seeking to better understand the salience of the public service orientation in quasi-governmental organizations, as well as higher education scholars eager for new insights into the managerial perspectives of campus executives.

### **Scope, Limitations, and Delimitations**

Like any work of scholarship, this project admits of a number of analytic strengths and weaknesses. The Q methodological approach used in this study allowed for the mapping of complex perspectives by illuminating participants' *whole responses*, as opposed to individual traits or characteristics. This capability paved the way for naturalistic, comprehensive, and subject-centered analysis. Further, by gathering views from a variety of campus officials, the study attempted to maximize the range of perspectives considered by the analysis.

The study also acknowledges its own limitations. Q methodology's epistemological foundations are such that the technique is neither concerned with nor well-suited to quantitative extrapolation. The study was concerned fundamentally with the incisive interpretation of perspectives, not with traditional hypothesis testing. In addition, the study's exploration of "administrative orientation" was grounded in the theoretical framework of the public service orientation. The Q instrument, as a consequence, sought to probe the facets of administrative worldview that are most relevant to the public service orientation literature, and likely did not capture all possible aspects of administrators' points of view. Finally, the geographically bounded nature of

the study's participant pool may mandate caution in generalizing from the perspectives identified by the research.<sup>15</sup>

### **Structure of the Dissertation Report**

The remainder of this dissertation is structured according to the traditional research report form. The second chapter presents a review of scholarly literature on the theoretical development of the public service orientation. This section explores the characteristics that distinguish public sector employees from their private sector counterparts, as identified in empirical findings, and dovetails into a regrettably short summary of existing work seeking to characterize the professional orientations of college administrators. Next, chapter three gives an account of the epistemological assumptions and methodological conventions of Q methodology, followed by a detailed explanation of the design procedures employed in this study. This section includes a discussion of instrument design, participant selection, and data collection procedures. Chapter four provides analytic computation and results of the study's original research data. Finally, the closing chapter draws linkages between the current study's findings with those from the body of research, focusing especially on points of similarity between the factors identified in the Q analysis and empirical descriptions of the public service orientation. This chapter also includes a brief list of recommendations for future study.

---

<sup>15</sup> Additional discussion of this point is offered in Chapter 3.

## CHAPTER 2

### Review of Literature

#### Introduction

This review offers a comprehensive overview of the somewhat nebulous research area centered on the public service orientation. It will be seen that empirical inquiry in this vein is not unified, and has tended to lack a set of core definitions. Scholars have disagreed about the foundations of the public service orientation, and have intermittently proposed that it represents all manner of dynamics, including attitudes, values, motives, needs, drives, or reward preferences. Indeed, many researchers seeking (in principle) to characterize the professional perspectives of public administrators have not done so under the explicit banner of “public service orientation” research.<sup>16</sup> Much work in this area has been disconnected and atheoretical, and this fragmentation has frustrated efforts to generate a cumulative reservoir of findings. Yet, a formal explanatory construct has slowly begun to emerge from this loose body of writings.

This chapter proceeds by summarizing the major findings from public administration literature with respect to a singular line of research: *What characteristics distinguish public sector employees from their private sector counterparts?* Wittmer (1991) suggests that public employees and managers diverge from their private sector brethren along four principal dimensions – work-related values, reward preferences, needs, and personality types,” (p. 369). This review is structured along similar

---

<sup>16</sup> This deserves clarification. Any consumer of public service orientation research learns quickly that the accumulation of findings in this area has been decidedly piecemeal. While all studies in this vein have focused on identifying key characteristics of public managers, many have done so without nominal reference to any formal, organizing construct. Many sources make no mention of any overarching orientation or ethos, but nonetheless have proven useful in giving shape to what is referred to by some researchers as the “public service orientation.”

dimensions. Sections are organized by topic, including professional values, ego needs and personality characteristics, behavioral and attitudinal expressions of motivation, and reward preferences. Following a survey of findings from each of these areas, attention is turned to the formal “public service motivation” construct advanced mainly by researcher James Perry. The chapter closes with a review of work that has sought to reveal the normative orientations of college and university executives, and the extent to which such orientations include elements of the public service ethos.

### **Overview**

In the aftermath of the public embarrassments experienced by government from the likes of Watergate and the Vietnam War, professional ethics have attracted much attention from public administration scholars. Overman and Foss (1991) argue that three proposals have been forwarded to summarize the notion of professional ethics.<sup>17</sup> One of these, the “separatist” thesis, argues that various professional specialists hold ethical assumptions that are distinct from those of the common public. Physicians, attorneys, and law enforcement officers are common examples of professional circles that formally endorse unique ethical perspectives. Such frameworks underlie major differences in professional objectives, priorities, and approaches. To this idea, Jennings, Callahan, and Wolf (1987) argue that professionalization itself rests on subscription to a particular system of “special virtues and moral character,” (p. 6).

---

<sup>17</sup> “Professional ethics” can be understood as systems of moral obligations and duties that provide a basis for professional action.

The practice of public administration has come to be associated with a well-defined core of professional ethics (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995).<sup>18</sup> In light of the unique social role played by public administrators, these practitioners can be seen to embrace a system of moral foundations related to both bureaucratic (*e.g.*, effectiveness, accountability) and democratic (*e.g.*, social equity, fairness) notions of professional conduct (Ekins, 1988; Pugh, 1991). Apart from this dualism, authors also have added that the professional ethic of public administrators is rooted in the tenets of logical positivism (Pugh, 1991). Skidmore (1995) suggests that the scientific management paradigm, which regards the empirical examination of processes as paramount, has survived as a deeply-embedded fixture of the public administration ethos. Altogether, it appears from the body of scholarly literature that public administrators have been tightly linked to a firm subset of professional values.

One particular dimension of the public administration value set is recognized by some to underpin the fundamental distinction between public and private managers: the so-called “public service orientation,” “public service ethic,” “public service ethos,” or (more formally) “public service motivation.”<sup>19</sup> Staats (1988) surmises that, “In its broadest sense, ‘public service’ is a concept, an attitude, a sense of duty – yes, even a sense of public morality,” (p. 601). Stemming from the democratic context of Western polity, public administrators are hypothesized to relish the notion of the common good, and to make decisions in deference to the public interest. James MacGregor Burns recounts that, from the time of the nation’s founding, America’s constitutional framers

---

<sup>18</sup> Cohen and Eimicke (1995) recount that the International City Managers Association (ICMA) first established a code of ethics in 1942, and the U.S. federal government issued its first ethical guidelines in 1958. The American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) adopted its own code of ethics in 1984.

<sup>19</sup> Of these alternatives, this review tends to rely on the more inclusive moniker “public service orientation,” as this title reflects a greater diversity of dimensions and considerations.

saw the need for a devout service orientation among its public servants. According to Burns, “[The Framers] wanted virtue in both leaders and citizens. By virtue they meant at the least good character and civic concern; at the most...a heroic love for the public good, a devotion to justice, a willingness to sacrifice comfort and riches for the public weal, an elevation of the soul,” (1982, p. 62). Public administrators, from federal agency directors to municipal clerks, thus should function as stewards of public resources and trust. Stewart and Clark (1987) follow that, “the public service orientation recognizes that: a local authority’s activities exist to provide service for the public, a local authority will be judged by the quality of service provided within the resources available, [and] the service provided is only of real value if it is of value to those for whom it is provided,” (p. 161). The locus of authority, then, is acknowledged to reside outside the walls of the organization, and rests with the stakeholders the organization is intended to serve. In this view, public administration is grounded in trusteeship (Teaser, 2003).

#### **“The Governmental Attitude” – Early Observers of a Normative Gap**

That the practice of government is undergirded by a unique professional orientation is not a new idea among public administration scholars. The headwaters for the eventual development of the public service orientation construct can be traced to several of the field’s luminaries. As early as the 1930s, Chester Barnard (1938) had begun to discuss the importance of the “inculcation” of motives in the managerial socialization process. Similarly, Sayre (1951) noted that Herbert Simon’s movement toward value-free administration met with fierce resistance from scholars who rejected the idea that values could be dismissed outright. By mid-century, countervailing calls for



the infusion of democratic values into public administration theory reached a fevered pitch (Ibid).

A seminal contribution to the separatist value perspective in public administration came from Appleby's (1945) treatise *Big Democracy*. In the opening chapter "Government is Different," Appleby suggested that the tasks and responsibilities of public administrators are qualitatively different from those of business executives. Appleby consequently asserted the need for a unique constellation of attitudes among public employees:

[Government] is a system, and the system cannot be understood except in terms of the public employees themselves, their conceptions of their positions, and the attitudes of the public about what is required in and from our civil servants...I shall speak of the 'governmental attitude.' In my judgment no one can serve the public as it should be served by a governmental official unless he has a public-interest attitude with special characteristics (p. 3).

According to Appleby, the "governmental attitude" comprises three main dimensions: "breadth of scope, impact, and considerations," that is, an appreciation for the social enormity of government; "public accountability," an eagerness to promote transparency and the public interest; and "political character," which refers to the habitual consideration of mass public opinion. As will be seen shortly, Appleby's account contributed vitally to modern conceptions of the public service orientation.

Consideration of public service values is also reflected in Mosher's (1968/1982) *Democracy and the Public Service*, an examination of the interplay between merit-based civil service and prevailing democratic ideals. Citing the rising professionalization of the

federal bureaucracy, Mosher expresses uneasiness with the potential erosion of the public interest. Mosher's concerns center on the displacement of traditional democratic values by technocratic, apolitical ones. At its core, Mosher's work can be seen to promote the view that government service should be couched in a strong sense of duty to society (Buchanan, 1975). Along similar lines, Allison (1979) compares the theoretical roles of public and private administrators, suggesting that while clear similarities exist, public managers operate in an environment dominated by unique dynamics. The role of the public manager is rooted in several distinctive considerations, including greater deference to external constituencies and higher expectations for fairness, responsiveness, accountability, and honesty.

### **Development of a Research Program**

The above narratives can be seen to justify the development of a body of empirical literature seeking insight into the professional orientations of public managers. Consequently, scholars eventually began to develop a variety of research designs intended to identify differences between public and private managers. Crewson (1997) and Steinhaus and Perry (1996) note that research on public service motives emerged in the late 1960s, declined through the 1970s and 1980s, but has since resurfaced in light of recent theoretical developments.

Research on the public service orientation has been motivated by a number of considerations. While most authors undertake such ventures purely for the purpose of theoretical development, other concerns have included: improvement of management training programs (Rawls, Ullrich, & Nelson, 1975), dispelling stereotypes (Newstrom, Reif, & Monczka, 1976), improvement of employee recruitment practices (Wittmer,

1991), and refinement of managerial techniques (Karl & Sutton, 1998). Perhaps unsurprisingly, public service orientation research is sometimes chided for serving merely as an instrument for professional advocacy, pursued only as a chest thumping exercise by scholarly sympathizers. Most peer-reviewed work, however, seems more interested in objective theory building than in propagandizing.

Nearly all studies on the public service orientation are based on systematic comparisons between public and private organizations, or more commonly, between public sector and private sector managers.<sup>20</sup> Yet despite their prevalence, studies founded on public-private comparisons are not necessarily advanced in interchangeable terms. Operationally defining such abstractions as “public sector,” “private sector,” “management,” and even “employee” has presented researchers with a stout challenge (Rainey, 1982, p. 291; Rainey, 1983, p. 210; Solomon, 1984, p. 247; Baldwin, 1987, p. 181; Wittmer, 1991, p. 370; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996, p. 279). Apart from definitional ambiguities, this class of research has been critiqued on other grounds. Baldwin (1991) suggests that because sampling strategies in these studies usually center on upper-level managers only, researchers often overlook the full breadth of workers that populate each sector. For better or worse, comparisons of public and private personnel represent the bulk of research on the public service orientation. Occasional incompatibilities notwithstanding, this side-by-side comparative design has persevered as the dominant methodological approach in this area.

---

<sup>20</sup> A limited number of publications have focused on *intra*-sector examinations. See Gilbert and Hyde (1988).

## Empirical Findings and Theoretical Progress

### Values

Defining what is meant by the term *values* is no easy task. Wittmer (1991) suggests that, “The term ‘value’ may refer to interests, preferences, desires, wants, needs, perceived obligations, or other modalities of selective orientation,” (p. 375). The notion of values, somewhat distinct from that of ethics, may also be defined as, “enduring beliefs that influence the choices we make among available means or ends,” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Synthesizing the spate of definitions that appear in empirical literatures, Stackman, Connor, and Becker (2006) propose that values are, “global beliefs about the desirable end states or modes of behavior that underlie attitudinal processes and behavior,” (p. 579). These authors follow that values precede both attitudes (the application of values) and behaviors (the manifestation of attitudes). Rokeach (Ibid) further distinguishes between instrumental values (desirable modes of conduct) and terminal values (desirable conditions). Because of this definitional complexity, Stackman, Connor, and Becker lament that most alleged investigations of values actually fall short of examining values proper (Ibid).

Public administration scholars have offered competing visions of the role of values in public administration theory and practice. Beginning with luminary commentaries from Wilson and Willoughby and extending through the Simon-Waldo furor, the nature of administrative values has produced much disciplinary wrangling (Molina, 2009). The central problems represented by this area are far-reaching: Are values an appropriate object of inquiry for public administration theorists? If so, what values underlie public administrative practice, and to what extent do they shape

administrative outcomes? Most contemporary authors eschew Simon's calls to pursue a value-free science of administration; indeed, Kernaghan (2003) recounts that prominent scholars have called for the creation of a specialized subfield dedicated to examining the role of values in the public sector. Still, many questions about the normative foundations of administrative practice remain unresolved.

The notion of values leadership, namely, the infusion of public service values into the operational framework of organizations, has emerged steadily in the culture of government since the 1960s (Kernaghan, 2003). Nalbandian and Edwards (1983) argue that, within the framework of rational decision making, values serve to underpin the decision scenarios of the public sector. Expressed through value statements, strategic planning documents, codes of conduct, and even statutory language, values occupy a cornerstone position within public sector institutions (Kernaghan, 2003).

But what of the *distinctive* values held by public managers? Perry (2000) affirms that individual values must be accounted for in theories of professional motivation. To state the case bluntly, practitioners of public administration are thought by some scholars (summarized below) to be marked by a distinguishing value pattern which in turn leads to a different set of decision premises than would be found among other administrative professionals (Nalbandian & Edwards, 1983). Banfield (1975), an early writer in this area, proposes that the identity of public management is tied to notions of "non-pecuniary values," such as participating in civic affairs and serving the common good. (p. 601). Tait (1997) segments Banfield's idea of non-pecuniary values into four subsets, including ethical (*i.e.*, fairness, honesty), democratic (*i.e.*, accountability, rule of law), professional (*i.e.*, quality, innovation), and people (*i.e.*, benevolence, compassion).

Charles Goodsell (1989) and Darrell Pugh (1991) offer two sweeping theoretical narratives summarizing the major value paradigms in public administration. First, Goodsell's "Five Ms" framework describes a quintet of value approaches in government service (Ibid, pp. 576-578). *Means*, an instrumental view whereby administrator values facilitate politically- or hierarchically-mandated ends, encompasses traditional managerial values like effectiveness and responsiveness. As its name implies, *morality* centers on moralistic value positions arising from natural law, the Judeo-Christian ethic, or other ethical systems, and emphasizes such values as equality, justice, and honesty. The *multitude* perspective derives from a direct allegiance to citizen preferences, and is associated with pluralist, responsive administration. The *market* orientation, by contrast, replaces the emphasis on popular expectations with a focus on the competitive marketplace, and places value on entrepreneurial management (Molina, 2009). Finally, administrators favoring the *mission* perspective view agency purpose as the ultimate source of normative guidance, and consequently value service and institutional strength. Goodsell concludes that, while these value orientations may frequently come into conflict, they nonetheless represent useful conceptual anchors for thinking about administrative value positions.

Taking a somewhat different tack, Pugh (1991) argues that public service values find their roots in two interrelated theoretical frames: bureaucratic and democratic ethos. The bureaucratic ethos, which owes to the Weberian conception of hierarchical organizational structuring, comprises an instrumental orientation regarding the ideal mode of administration. Carried forward into the modern era by Frederick Taylor, the bureaucratic ethos is closely associated with the scientific management principles to

which it gave rise (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995). Pugh suggests efficiency, efficacy, expertise, loyalty, and accountability as the typifying managerial values of this utilitarian perspective. The democratic ethos, a broad and deontological system arising from the “regime values” of the standing political system, embody (in the American context) such values as personal and property rights, equality, citizenship, the public interest, and social equity (Ibid, p. 14). The democratic ethos flows from the intellectual tradition that informed the nation’s constitutional foundations. Pugh contends that all discussions of normative behavior on the part of American public administrators necessarily take place in the context of these two perspectives.

Combining Pugh’s bureaucratic and democratic ethos frameworks, Gabris and Simo (1995) synthesize a number of value positions likely to underpin the public service ethic, including concern for efficiency and effectiveness, support for merit-based personnel decision making, grounding in a neutral “civil service” orientation, cultivation of democratic values, emphasis on the public interest, and concern for social equity (p. 35). In sum, these authors conclude that, “The ethos of the public sector embraces democracy, eschews profit, and encourages the utilization of bureaucratic structure as the primary means for efficiently implementing public policy,” (Ibid).<sup>21</sup>

Although the value-centric approach to examining the public service orientation failed to fully materialize until the 1990s, findings have since amassed quickly. One early account is offered by Nalbandian and Edwards (1983), who present results from a factor analyzed value ranking procedure administered to students and alumni of MPA and

---

<sup>21</sup> As will be seen, some of the normative components of the public service orientation suggested by the likes of Goodsell (1989), Pugh (1991), and Gabris and Simo (1995) have performed poorly when subjected to empirical scrutiny. Concern for efficiency, for example, has tended to be linked much more closely with private sector managers than with their public sector counterparts (Nalbandian & Edwards, 1983; Gabris & Simo, 1995; Posner & Schmidt, 1996).

MBA graduate programs. These authors found that, while participants from public and private samples tend to ascribe roughly equal importance to instrumental administrative values (such as management and professionalism), public managers show a higher inclination to emphasize public interest values. Members of the private sector sample tended to favor value factors defined by efficiency, scientism, and strategy, whereas the public sector sample placed greater weight on factors featuring participation, equity, and empathy. In light of their results, Nalbandian and Edwards suggest that while public administrators demonstrate a particular alignment of professional values, this value orientation overlaps somewhat with those of other professional groups. Two decades later, Stackman, Connor, and Becker (2006) applied a nearly identical methodological approach and reached a similar conclusion. While the instrumental value orientations of public and private managers roughly approximated one another, public managers showed a greater tendency to identify with terminal values related to desirable *social* conditions, whereas business managers' terminal value orientations reflected *personal* end states (p. 590).

Stackman, Connor, and Becker's (2006) work notwithstanding, most efforts centered on public sector values tend to give exclusive focus to instrumental managerial values. Tallying survey data from former federal executives, Schmidt and Posner (1986) found that effectiveness, leadership, and productivity represent the highest rated managerial values, outpacing the competing values of service to the public and value to the community. Data from this study also indicates somewhat surprisingly that federal executives assign a lower degree of priority to serving external constituencies (*e.g.*, the general public) than internal ones (*e.g.*, subordinates, colleagues). In a parallel design



conducted among city managers in California, the same authors found that a slightly different subset of personal qualities – honest, responsible, and capable – constituted the highest-importance cluster of workplace values (Schmidt & Posner, 1987).

Posner and Schmidt (1996), comparing managerial value statements reported by executive-level subjects from public and private firms, offer that business managers tend to place greater weight on productivity, growth, and efficiency, while public sector executives favor effectiveness, quality, public service, and value to community.

Consistent with the principles of meritocracy, government managers in the Posner and Schmidt study rated individual ability as a more important personal trait than did business managers. Survey participants from government also tended to place a higher level of importance on a variety of both internal *and* external stakeholders (*e.g.*, subordinate employees, the general public) than was seen among private sector participants.

In general, scholarly work in this area seems to suggest that public sector employees view their work as an expression of service to constituencies beyond the self, and more specifically to the public at large. Such instrumental values as effectiveness, accountability, responsiveness, participation, equity, public service, and a concern for social conditions have all been linked to the normative perspectives of public sector personnel. Such findings open the door to another question: What is the source of these values, and what factors lead public servants to adopt them? The following section grapples with personality- and needs-based evidence offered in support of the public service orientation. Research reviewed in the next section suggests that public service values and motives may arise as a consequence of pervasive features of the self.

## Needs and Personality Factors

Several causal mechanisms have been proposed to explain the determinants of workplace performance. General theories of motivation include instinct theories, homeostasis, incentive, drive-reduction, and “need” theories (Kalat, 2002). This final category, need theories, which focuses on the need fulfillment dynamics that shape individual performance motives, represents a major arm of motivation psychology. Even the most casual consumers of popular psychology can demonstrate familiarity with such need theories as Maslow’s hierarchy or McGregor’s Theory X - Theory Y typology. A variety of need dimensions, including achievement, accomplishment, autonomy, professional fulfillment, status, and job security have been examined as possible points of fracture between public and private sector workers (Wright, 2001).<sup>22</sup> These investigations have been somewhat sporadic, but a limited review of key findings, particularly with regard to job security needs, is appropriate here.

In an immense interview effort, Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (1964) found that job security is highly valued among federal employees, and that job security is viewed by the public as representing a prime benefit of government service. Similarly, Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka (1976) identified job security as a top occupational need of local government employees, in comparison to private laborers.<sup>23</sup> Generally comparable findings have also been presented by Baldwin (1987) and Houston (2000).

---

<sup>22</sup> Some authors dispute the value of the need-based approach in public service orientation research. Wright (2001) questions the ongoing acceptance of such theories by public administration scholars, alluding to, “the literature’s continued reliance on the use of dated, humanistic theories of work motivation,” (p. 575). As an alternative, Wright suggests that scholars should consider shifting emphasis to a newer class of goal theories that focus on purposive behavior.

<sup>23</sup> These authors also report that public sector employees ranked personal fulfillment (or “self-actualization”) as the single most important source of workplace motivation. A decade later, Cacioppe and Mock (1984) similarly showed evidence that public workers are more likely than private employees to select personal fulfillment as a motive for professional engagement.

Offering a more nuanced comparison of public and private employees, Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown (1998) suggest that job security represents a salient concern of all levels of government personnel. These authors compared ranked lists of motivators from each sector, and found that both supervisory- and non-supervisory public sector workers ranked “a stable and secure future” as a high-order professional need, whereas private sector employees tended to give it substantially lesser weight. Expanding the comparison to include non-profit organizations, Wittmer (1991) found that managers from both public *and* “hybrid” firms reported a significantly lower degree of preference for job security as a personal priority than did business managers. While the Wittmer (1991) results appear to suggest otherwise, most findings in this area imply that the relatively stable personnel systems associated with government service may attract individuals with a strong sense of need for job security.

Need-based evidence of a unique public sector professional orientation reflects the assumption that public service workers may be linked to a definable and distinctive constellation of individual characteristics. Perry and Porter (1982, p. 89) propose that features of personality – the “raw materials” brought to the work environment – bear implications for the professional orientations of public servants. Consequently, modest scholarly attention has been directed toward discovering personality attributes that distinguish public sector personnel from various comparison groups.

Brewer (2003) describes several such gaps. Examining National Election Survey data, Brewer compared survey responses from federal, state, and local government employees with those of a non-government reference group, and found that public sector employees scored higher on measures of social trust, social altruism, tolerance, and

humanitarianism than did comparison group members. DiMarco and Whitsitt (1975), examining the personality features of female managers from public and private organizations, found differences across several interpersonal relations and life style dimensions. Government participants generated significantly lower subscale scores on measures of expressed control, expressed affection, wanted inclusion, and wanted affection. Bellante and Link (1981) assert that risk averse individuals are more likely to prefer placement in the public sector. Finally, using personality test data to explore differences between public and private sector employees, Guyot (1962) found that public sector bureaucrats are more likely to be motivated by psychological concerns about performance and achievement. Private sector workers, by contrast, were more commonly concerned with satisfying affiliation needs. Guyot (Ibid) reasons that this distinction in needs (performance versus affiliation) stems from the meritocratic foundations of the public sector, as opposed to the nepotistic environment of the business world.<sup>24</sup> In all, these findings lend empirical backing to conventional images of the caring yet guarded bureaucrat. This observation dovetails with the following section, which in turn considers another popular impression of the “typical” bureaucrat: the listless and underachieving slouch.

### **Behavioral and Attitudinal Expressions of Motivation**

Perry and Porter (1982, p. 89) suggest that workplace motivation constitutes, “that which energizes, directs, and sustains behavior,” and flows from a complex array of drivers including individual characteristics, job attributes, and environmental features. A number of authors have taken to the task of probing the behavioral and attitudinal

---

<sup>24</sup> This assertion foreshadows Posner and Schmidt’s (1995) later finding that public managers place higher value on individual ability than do private managers.

dimensions of workplace motivation among the public sector workforce. Included in this cluster of research efforts are studies on organizational commitment and workplace involvement, civic engagement, job satisfaction, and drivers of sectoral choice.

Observers of government are quick to point out that the public sector suffers from stereotyped images of lazy, insensitive, and under-motivated workers, particularly in comparison with the business world (Balk, 1974; Baldwin, 1982; Baldwin, 1991). Whether due to rigid compensation systems, inflexible position classification practices, automated criteria for advancement, or lack of organizational goals, government personnel have long been perceived as initiative deficient. Baldwin (1991) laments that the public workforce is popularly characterized as comprising workers who, “come to work late, take long breaks, leave early and who generally do not work very hard or put forth much effort,” (Ibid, p. 7). Because such appraisals find themselves at odds with hypothesized public service values, several studies have been undertaken to assess the unsavory image of the bumbling bureaucrat.

Attempts to liberate public servants from their reputation for under-exertion have met with mixed results. Buchanan (1974, 1975), for example, presents a gloomy account of organizational commitment in the public sector. This author, after reasoning that measures of “job involvement” offer a good proxy for a public service orientation, presents survey data illustrating a dearth of organizational commitment among public administrators.<sup>25</sup> Buchanan posits that public managers, possibly as a consequence of the operational rigidity of bureaucracy, are less apt (compared to private executives) to display a strong sense of psychological job involvement. Subsequent authors, however,

---

<sup>25</sup> Buchanan (1975) defines job involvement as, “the internalization of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the person, and...the ease with which the person can be further socialized by the organization,” (p. 432).

have challenged Buchanan's inferences on grounds that job involvement does not represent a meaningful component of the public service ethic (see Rainey, 1982).

The implications of Buchanan's (1975) work for the public service ethic aside, these results have been found to come into conflict with subsequent tests of organizational commitment. Later authors have shown evidence that public managers demonstrate equal or greater levels of organizational commitment as do business executives. After surveying public and private sector workers in the southeast U.S., Baldwin (1984) found that public sector workers reported being no less motivated to perform than did members of the industrial sector comparison group. Further, dummy variable regression analysis suggested that private-public designation fails to demonstrate any significant statistical influence on sense of motivation. Similar findings are presented by Kline and Peters (1991) and Steinhaus and Perry (1996). Moon (2000) notes that the antecedents of organization commitment may vary across sectors, and, using comparative survey data, found that feelings of organizational commitment among public sector employees were associated more so with intrinsic motivators than were analogous attitudes among business workers. Other authors argue that the determinants of organizational commitment in the public sector may demonstrate cultural variation (Cho & Lee, 2001). Yet, even now scholarly views on public-private dimensions of organizational commitment are not unified. Goulet's (2002) three-sector survey analysis indicated that public employees demonstrate the lowest relative level of organizational commitment. In this study, the level of organizational commitment reported by private sector workers exceeded that of both public and non-profit sector personnel.

Efforts directed at gauging job satisfaction of public sector employees have invited interest from academics and practitioners alike. Due to greater goal ambiguity and procedural constraints, the public sector is sometimes assumed to produce less workplace satisfaction than is found in the private sector (Wright, 2001). Solomon (1986), comparing multiple-measure survey results from public and private sector managers found that public workers are more dissatisfied with their jobs than are their business counterparts. Concurring results have been published by Smith and Nock (1984), Rainey (1989), and Steel and Warner (1990). Cacioppe and Mock (1984), referring to an alternate “quality of work experience” term, suggest that inter-sector differences in job satisfaction become more pronounced with increasing managerial level.

Scholars tend to offer diverse commentaries on the apparent satisfaction deficit among public sector workers. Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (1964) suggest that, when asked about service in the federal government, business executives tend to associate public service with a loss of personal performance drive. Baldwin (1984), however, argues that mission statements of public agencies tend to be broad and socially vital, a condition which should *create* an increased sense of meaningfulness. In any event, comparative studies on workplace satisfaction have, by and large, tended to depict a rather disconsolate image of the public sector employee.

Outside the workplace, the attitudes and conduct of public service workers seem to substantiate claims of a deep-seated call to serve the public interest. Houston (2006) observes several linkages between government employment and pro-social helping behaviors. Using General Social Survey data, Houston found that government personnel report higher rates of volunteering and blood donation than do non-government workers.

In a related investigation, Brewer (2003) reports that public sector employees demonstrate higher rates of civic participation. After conducting a least squares analysis of National Election Survey data, this author concludes that, “public employment is a substantively important and highly significant predictor of civic participation. Overall, public servants are far more active in civic affairs than are other citizens, and they appear to be catalysts for building the social capital in society at large,” (p. 5).

Perhaps no behavioral act better reflects a public service orientation than does the actual decision to join the public workforce. Wright (2001, p. 565) surmises that, “The composition of the public workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the public sector, attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives.” Generally, research on sector choice assumes that workers will select a work environment consistent with their own needs and values, and that such motives are usually static. Perry and Porter (1982) argue that the individual-organization match – undergirded by the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, and interests of individual workers – bears important consequences for workplace motivation.

Evidence suggests that workers will self-select organizations that satisfy salient personal needs.<sup>26</sup> Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson (1975) conducted one such investigation. These authors separated a sample of graduate students into two groups – those seeking professional placement in the private sector and those seeking employment in the nonprofit sector – and administered an extensive sequence of personality and aptitude tests to each group. Between-groups differences were plentiful; compared to the business group, aspiring nonprofit sector subjects placed significantly less value on ambition,

---

<sup>26</sup> Incidentally, Wright (Ibid) adds that most empirical work on sectoral choice is grounded in need-based or drive-based theories of motivation.



comfortable living, and economic wealth, while placing relatively greater value on helpfulness and forgivingness. Nonprofit participants also tended to score higher on flexibility and personal relations dimensions. These authors conclude that, “it seems clear that managers preferring positions in nonprofit as opposed to profit making organizations have quite different needs...significant differences in personality characteristics, personal values, motives, and occupational values,” (Ibid, p. 621).

Blank (1985), also focusing on the personal characteristics associated with public sector employment, developed a probabilistic model aimed at isolating demographic predictors of sector choice. Using existing national survey data, Blank found that public sector employment (as opposed to private sector employment) is predicted by high education attainment, high work experience, and protected group status.<sup>27</sup> Blank further inferred that the choice to matriculate to the public sector is likely influenced by a number of non-wage considerations. In a closely related analysis, Lewis and Frank (2002) used General Social Survey data to examine a range of demographic and normative covariates of sectoral preference. These writers echo Blank (1985) in showing that women, minorities, veterans, and older respondents, as well as subjects with a family member serving in government, are more likely to prefer public sector placement. Unexpectedly however, Lewis and Frank also found that, among respondents not currently working in government, preference for public sector employment was positively associated with personal income. Perhaps equally surprising is that a reverse trend was true among research subjects actually employed in the public sector. Along similar lines, concern for job security was found to correlate positively with preference for public sector employment, but not with *actual* employment in this sector. Combined,

---

<sup>27</sup> Here, protected group status refers to veteran and nonwhite minority groups.

Lewis and Frank's (Ibid) results would seem to justify reconsideration of conventional assumptions regarding the relationship between attitudinal disposition and sectoral preference. What makes the results of this study so surprising is the wealth of evidence suggesting that public service tends *not* to be associated with economic status. This evidence is considered below.

### **Reward Preferences**

Complex reward systems are employed by virtually all organizations as a means to leverage maximum employee motivation and productivity (Perry & Porter, 1982). Not unlike the conventions of the business world, reward systems in the public sector are structured around an arrangement of personal financial incentives. With merit pay grades and pension provisions, systems of compensation in the public sector are organized under much the same market principles that inform private enterprise (Crewson, 1997). Yet, in the wake of Elton Mayo's famed Hawthorne experiments, workforce scholars have come to understand workers as being motivated by factors independent of economic considerations (Karl & Sutton, 1998).

In this light, a major focus of research on the public service orientation centers on workers' reward orientations, usually through examinations of persistent differences observed between private sector and public sector employees. Such research often is grounded in the distinction between so-called "intrinsic" rewards (emanating from the self) and "extrinsic" rewards (granted from an external source). Houston (2000) contends that reliance on intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards represents a defining characteristic of the public service ethic. Whereas business magnates can be seen as maximizers of profit, public executives are thought to be motivated by an altogether

different set of incentives. To this end, Rainey (1982) suggests that, “Fulfillment of service motives is or should be one of the important rewards for public service, and public administrators will often state emphatically that it is,” (p. 239). Yet, Perry and Porter (1982), followed by Crewson (1997), caution against oversimplification in examining reward motives. These authors combine to suggest that intrinsic and extrinsic motives likely interrelate in complex ways, and that research findings must be interpreted with care (see also Hammer & Tassell, 1983).

In an oft-cited study on public service motives, Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (1964) provide interview-based evidence suggesting that public officials place greater weight on self-sacrifice and contributing to important social functions than on reaping financial rewards. Similarly, researchers Schuster, Colletti, and Knowles (1972) were among the first to suggest that private and public employees demonstrate different patterns of perceived pay utility, that is, subjective valuations of work pay. Following in quick succession, Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson (1975) and Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka (1976) offer further quantitative evidence of sectoral variation in economic reward salience. The latter research team, in light of survey data from public and private workforce samples, showed that employees of public organizations ascribe a lower degree of importance to the direct economic benefits of employment. Public employees also reported lower dissatisfaction with existing economic rewards than did the private employee group. Rainey (1982), offering an apologia of the public service orientation in light of Buchanan’s (1974, 1975) earlier findings with respect to job involvement, presents survey data supportive of the public service motivation among state government officials. Comparing middle managers from state government to analogous groups from

private industry, Rainey found that government administrators gave high ratings to survey items related to public service and social assistance, while simultaneously giving low ratings to items related to financial rewards and prestige.

Comparative findings presented by Cacioppe and Mock (1984) reflect similar differences, but with a vital qualifier. After surveying over 5,000 public and private sector employees in Australia, these authors repeat the familiar conclusion that workers from private firms tend to be motivated by money and career advancement, while public sector workers place greater emphasis on helping others. Importantly, these researchers add that employees' perceptions of motivator salience are driven by an interaction between organizational type and hierarchical level. While lower-tier employees in public organizations reported a modestly stronger inclination toward intrinsic rewards than did their business sector analogs, disparities became far more pronounced among white collar executives. Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) similarly found support for the influence of both sectoral setting *and* hierarchical level on reward preferences.

Wittmer's (1991) investigation of reward preferences is particularly illuminating for the purposes of the present study. This author saw fit to include, in addition to managers from public and private organizations, administrators from "hybrid" firms – that is, organizations whose political control or market involvement is such that they are not situated exclusively in either sector.<sup>28</sup> Asking participants to rank reward categories, Wittmer found strong normative alignment between public and hybrid managers. Public managers and those from hybrid organizations were found to give highest weight to "doing work that is helpful to others," while business managers valued "higher pay" as a

---

<sup>28</sup> In this study, the sample of "hybrid" organizations included hospitals and K-12 schools.

principal priority (p. 376). Public managers also placed higher value than business executives on “community service,” while the reverse occurred for “status and prestige.”

Following the mainline trend from previous research, Crewson (1997) found significant differences between private and public employees with respect to the need to “help others” and to contribute to socially useful goals. Further, Crewson’s analysis suggests that intrinsically-motivated public employees tend to demonstrate a higher degree of commitment to organizational values and goals than do their counterparts. In light of these findings, Crewson asserts that, “public employees do not have reward orientations representative of the private sector. Whether a result of recruitment, self-selection, or socialization...public-sector employees are less likely to be interested in economic rewards than private-sector employees and more likely than are private-sector employees to perceive intrinsic rewards as important,” (Ibid, p. 505). Finally, Houston (2000) used multivariate logistic regression to demonstrate that public sector employees place less importance on pay than do their private sector equivalents, and ascribe more weight to engaging in meaningful work. This report conforms to the dominant vector of findings in this line of research.

Importantly, empirical work has not been entirely unanimous regarding the reward orientations of public sector workers. Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown (1998), for example, found that government survey participants ranked “[having a] chance to benefit society” as a relatively low-salience need, trailing a number of other motivators (*e.g.*, “high salary,” “opportunity for advancement”) typically associated with the business

sector.<sup>29</sup> Using a similar rank-based survey design, Karl and Sutton (1998) found that public sector employees placed more weight on good wages than on ethical management, recognition of work, and even job security. A number of authors consequently have asserted that while financial incentives may carry *relatively* less importance to public sector employees, wages nonetheless are important (Karl & Sutton, 1998; Houston, 2000). Altogether, the goal of understanding the full range of motives that spur the behavior of public servants lies at the heart of efforts to develop a comprehensive public service motivation instrument.

### **Public Service Motivation (PSM) – Measures and Dimensions**

The empirical works surveyed to this point offer important yet somewhat disjointed accounts of the public service orientation. In general, public servants have been distinguished from private sector employees by a concern for constituencies other than the self; normative emphases on effectiveness, productivity, and the public interest; preference for a stable professional environment; high measures of social altruism and civic participation; high levels of education and work experience; and an orientation toward non-monetary rewards. The broad strokes painted by these findings challenge the notion that public administrators are purely self-interested actors (Brewer, Selden, & Facer, 2000). Yet, the continued absence of a guiding theoretical framework led scholars of the 1980s and 1990s to call for the development of improved theory and tools (Perry & Porter, 1982; Wright, 2001). Writing in 1982, Rainey stated flatly that “There appear to have been no studies which have developed multiple-item scales of public service motivation” (p. 291).

---

<sup>29</sup> It is perhaps worth noting, however, that the results of this study were not entirely aberrant. In line with prevailing wisdom, business sector participants placed greater weight on “high salary” and “opportunity for advancement” than did public employees (p. 235).

Armed with a growing body of findings, researchers eventually began to specify a standalone construct that would explain the normative conduct of public administrators. Gabris and Simo (1995) and Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey (2006) credit researchers James Perry and Lois Wise with laying the groundwork for the contemporary public service motivation construct. In 1990, Perry and Wise postulated that public service motivation is likely undergirded by rational, normative, and affective components (p. 368). Rational motives center on public employees' aspirations to participate in government to satisfy personal interests or out of personal identification with a particular agency's goals. Second, the norm-based element flows from a fundamental desire to foster the values of government, namely, protecting the public interest, advancing social justice, and so on. Finally, affective motives are reflected through a benevolent commitment to all members of the body politic, or through an appreciation for the social importance of a particular program. Altogether, the model offered by Perry and Wise highlights the cognitive complexity associated with notions of the public service.

At the close of their 1990 article, Perry and Wise call for the development of psychometric tests that would improve scholarship on public service motives. Such appeals have not gone unanswered, as numerous scholars have seized the chance to construct formal measures of the public service motivation. Gabris and Simo (1995), for example, developed the "Public Service Motivation Survey," an instrument intended to probe users' impressions of personal needs, sources of satisfaction, and sectoral preference (p. 41). The public service motivation also has been scaled using generalized personal value instruments (Posner & Schmidt, 1996).

No other measure of the public service motivation construct, nor any other account of the construct's psychological properties, has received the depth of psychometric evaluation attracted by Perry's own (1996) Public Service Motivation (PSM) scale.<sup>30</sup> As defined by its progenitors, public service motivation, "may be understood as an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations," where motives are defined as loose equivalents to psychological needs (Perry & Wise, 1990, p. 368; Perry, 1996, p. 6; Perry, 2000, p. 471). Expanding the three-legged theoretical model proposed by Perry and Wise (1990), Perry (1996) theorizes that public service motivation is characterized by four dimensions: attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice.<sup>31</sup>

After deploying the PSM scale to explore a series of potential correlates, Perry found that a number of dynamics, including parental modeling, education level, professionalization, and certain measures of religiosity are positively associated with PSM scale scores. While such findings imply that public service motivation may be influenced by lifelong socialization experiences, statistical evidence from the Perry (1997) study is somewhat inconclusive, suggesting complex relationships between these variables. Naff and Crum (1999), after analyzing more than 8,000 survey responses from

---

<sup>30</sup> Beyond the studies summarized here, the Perry (1996) Public Service Motivation scale has also attracted favorable validation from Coursey and Pandey (2007) and Coursey, Perry, Brudney, and Littlepage (2008).

<sup>31</sup> Though the author's original theoretical construct contained six dimensions (*i.e.*, attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self sacrifice, plus sense of civic duty and concern for social justice), confirmatory factor analysis of pilot data suggested that two of the initial six dimensions were redundant with other factors. The final 24-item, five-point Likert scale demonstrates an overall reliability alpha of .90, with individual subscale coefficient alphas of .69 to .74 (Perry, 1996, p. 19). The authors also assert a strong record of construct and discriminant validity in light of ongoing factor validation. Of the four dimensions identified by Perry (1996), self sacrifice and compassion have been identified by several researchers as occupying overlapping conceptual ground (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). Consequently, some authors (Coursey & Pandey, 2007) have reported firm psychometric support for a three-dimension form of Perry's (1996) original PSM construct.



federal government employees, found that women, minority group members, and subjects with a bachelor's degree or higher recorded comparatively high PSM scale scores (Ibid).<sup>32</sup> High-PSM respondents also showed higher levels of job satisfaction, pay satisfaction and impressions of work meaningfulness (Ibid). Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey (2006), exploring gender dimensions of Perry's (1996) PSM scale, found female public managers to be particularly inclined to register high scores on the "compassion" PSM subscale. These authors also noted that such sociohistorical factors as education and professionalization represent significant predictors of most PSM subscale scores.<sup>33</sup>

Perry's PSM construct and instrument have not entirely revolutionized the area of public-private employee comparisons, but they have been successful in stimulating a new burst of research activity. Following the specification and validation of Perry's (1996) measure of public service motivation, studies in this area both surged and unified. Naff and Crum (1999), referring to Perry's PSM model, state that "[We] believe that PSM is potentially a very fertile area for future research," (p. 14). Accordingly, it seems that the Perry formulation of the public service motivation construct represents a solid launching pad for future scholarly activity in this area.<sup>34</sup>

---

<sup>32</sup> Naff and Crum's (1999) analysis is based on a shortened version of the PSM scale proposed by Perry (1996). Further, analytic caution is justified in interpreting the meaningfulness of these results. Due to the sheer heft of the researchers' sample, relatively low-magnitude disparities produced statistically significant differences. For example, the scale score difference between male (21.0, from a possible range of 6.0 – 30.0) and female (21.2) respondents was found to be statistically significant at the  $p < .001$  level.

<sup>33</sup> Specifically, the *education* independent variable (IV) predicted scores on the "attraction to policy making" and "commitment to the public interest" subscales ( $p < .05$ ), while *professionalism* was found to predict scores on all three subscales. The directionality between each of these IV-DV pairs was positive. Markedly similar results were later produced by Moynihan and Pandey (2007).

<sup>34</sup> Indeed, Perry's (1996) PSM scale has even kindled a Q methodological exploration of public service motives. Discussion of this particular study is reserved for the next chapter.

## Public Service Orientation as a Product of the Work Environment

While Perry's model and instrument have given public service orientation scholars a fresh perspective, this research area has continued to be nagged by an ongoing theoretical nuisance. The idea that *organizational context itself* may shape the professional attitudes of its workforce seems intuitive given the structural differences that often exist between public and private organizations. For example, DiMarco and Whitsitt (1975) echo the common stereotype that public managers tend to view their work settings as more bureaucratic and less collaborative than do private managers. To the chagrin of public service orientation enthusiasts, some authors have suggested that rather than persistent dimensions of identity, these attitudes actually stem from a process of conditioning, or are illusory. This view clearly undermines the heroic image of public servants presented in the some public administration research.

Moynihan and Pandey (2007) assert that, "Actors construct beliefs and behaviors based on what is appropriate in light of their environment and the norms of behaviors of those around them," (p. 42). These authors report that OLS modeling indicates a predictive relationship between several structural attributes (namely, hierarchical depth and the presence of red tape) and individual-level public service motivation scores.<sup>35</sup>

Vandenabeele (2007) concurs, observing that, "one can consider public service motivated behavior to conform to a logic of appropriateness as it refers to the realization of certain

---

<sup>35</sup> Perceived presence of bureaucratic red tape was found to be negatively related PSM scores (as measured by Perry's (1996) PSM instrument). In contrast with hypothesized expectations, impression of hierarchical depth was found to positively relate to PSM scores.

institutional values rather than self-interest,” (p. 548). More generally, Wright (2007) has linked mission statement valence with job motivation among state agency employees.<sup>36</sup>

Hammer and Tassell (1983) point to basic features of government service that may influence the sensibilities of the public workforce. These authors argue that, “because the business of government is the public’s business, government operations are subject to much closer public scrutiny than are the operations of private concerns,” (Ibid, p. 284). It follows that, due to the political nature of public service, the same attitudes that support the public interest may simultaneously be those which undergird self-serving administrative behavior. In this view, the public service ethic is reduced to a tautology, or to an artifact of correlational analysis.<sup>37</sup> Yet, this line of reasoning seems inconsistent with earlier work by Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson (1975), who demonstrated that public service values may exist prior to socialization experiences in the work environment.

Researchers have also presented data that may qualify, or at least contextualize, the reward orientations of public managers. As noted already, ample accounts have suggested that public sector personnel are comparatively less inclined to be motivated by financial incentives. Rainey (1983), however, argues that public administrators are also more likely to indicate facing inflexible compensation systems, and further tend to work in environments marked by a weak relationship between performance and pay. Solomon (1986) provides questionnaire analyses from Israeli public employees that suggest discontent with the paucity of pay-for-performance compensation systems. Solomon adds that, although public servants have consistently been linked to non-monetary

---

<sup>36</sup> Wright’s (2007) finding corroborates an earlier postulation by Perry and Wise (1990) that public service motivation is rooted in affective attachment to agency goals.

<sup>37</sup> These authors follow, however, with calls for additional research to tease out the central drivers of work motivation among public sector personnel.

motives, they have at the same time regularly affirmed their dissatisfaction with their own financial benefits (Ibid). Such findings may suggest that the down-playing of economic incentives by public managers simply reflects a broader sense of frustration with compensation systems in the public sector. Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka (1976), attempting to explain this observation, remark that, “It is reasonable to postulate that, either before or soon after entering public employment they [public employees] have resigned themselves to the somewhat limited and tightly structured salary scales and have therefore actively sought to reduce their dissonance by reducing the value of pay in their minds,” (p. 71).

Summing up, Vandenberg (2007) hypothesizes that motivation to serve the public stems not solely from intrinsic factors, but from an intricate intermingling of basic needs, identity regulation, and institutional values. Though perhaps damaging to idealistic representations of the noble bureaucrat, the idea that public employees’ professional viewpoints are shaped by the work environment does not necessarily eviscerate the basic notion of the public service orientation. Wittmer (1991), following a methodical review of extant literature, concludes that, “Such findings lend empirical support to the hypothesis that there is indeed a service ethic among government employees and managers, whether such differences result from the personal characteristics of those selecting public service or from socialization and organizational culture,” (p. 372).

### **Tying it All Together**

It seems from the preceding pages that the public service orientation is not a neatly definable concept. This owes to two main factors. First, many of the extant

studies to which one might refer in fleshing out the public service orientation were not deployed as explicit tests of any unitary concept. Most of the research ventures presented above sought simply to identify limited differences in values, (*or*) motives, (*or*) personality features, *or* reward preferences between public and private workforces. No known research has attempted to simultaneously explore all four dimensions of the public service orientation reviewed above. The use of the term “dimension” is itself tenuous, given that the organization of existing studies into the four categories presented in this review is in no way a standardized approach. Second, research findings have been inconclusive at times, and conflicting at others. This is to say that the structural features of the public service orientation identified by any given research team have occasionally been called into question by the results of subsequent inquiries.

These caveats notwithstanding, Table 1 is provided below as a tool for organizing the preponderant statements of finding within each of the four main areas examined in this review. The framework mostly comprises empirical studies, though it also contains several rationalistic works with high currency in the public administration canon. The “Supporting Evidence” column notes studies (in parentheses) whose results may be seen to clash with the majority of related findings. This framework is necessarily tentative, but nonetheless provides a plausible and defensible skeleton of the public service orientation.<sup>38</sup> Further, the substance of this outline plays a key role in shaping the content of the Q methodological instrument applied in this analysis.

---

<sup>38</sup> It is acknowledged that social scientific research often produces nuanced results, and that typological devices of this variety tend to oversimplify findings. All the same, this framework still holds at least heuristic value.

Table 1

*Summary of Public Service Orientation Findings by Topical Area*

Professional Values <sup>a</sup>	Supporting Evidence
Accountability (Pos.)	Appleby (1945); Pugh (1979); Gabris & Simo (1995)
Effectiveness (Pos.)	Goodsell (1989); Gabris & Simo (1995); Posner & Schmidt (1996)
Efficiency (Neg.)	Nalbandian & Edwards (1983); Posner & Schmidt (1996)
Empathy (Pos.)	Nalbandian & Edwards (1995); Perry (1996)
Honesty (Pos.)	Allison (1979); Goodsell (1979); Schmidt & Posner (1987)
Justice (Pos.)	Goodsell (1979); Perry & Wise (1990)
Public Interest (Pos.)	Banfield (1975); Perry & Wise (1990); Perry (1996)
Responsiveness (Pos.)	Allison (1979); Goodsell (1979)
Individual Ability (Pos.)	Guyot (1962); Posner & Schmidt (1996)
Self-Sacrifice (Pos.)	Kilpatrick, Cummings, & Jennings (1964); Perry (1996)
Needs and Personality Factors	Supporting Evidence
Humanitarianism (Pos.)	Kilpatrick, Cummings, & Jennings (1964); Brewer (2003)
Job Security (Pos.)	Baldwin (1987); Houston (2000); Wittmer (1991; <i>countervailing</i> )
Workplace Stability (Pos.)	Jurkiewicz, Massey, & Brown (1998)
Behavioral and Attitudinal	Supporting Evidence
Civic Participation (Pos.)	Brewer (2003); Houston (2006)
Job Satisfaction (Neg.)	Smith & Nock (1984); Rainey (1989); Steel & Warner (1996)
Motivation to Perform (Pos.)	Guyot (1962); Kline & Peters (1991); Steinhaus & Perry (1996)
Org. Commitment (Neg.)	Buchanan (1974); Goulet (2002); Rainey (1982; <i>countervailing</i> )
Reward Preferences	Supporting Evidence
Intrinsic Rewards (Pos.)	Rainey (1982); Solomon (1986); Houston (2000)
Social Helpfulness (Pos.)	Cacioppe & Mock (1984); Wittmer (1991); Crewson (1997)
Economic Rewards (Neg.)	Newstrom, Reif, & Monczka (1976); Crewson (1997);

<sup>a</sup> "Pos." (positive) and "Neg." (negative) labels refer to direction of association with the public service orientation.

### College Administrators and Public Service

As discussed in the first chapter, America's institutions of higher education are tied closely to an array of public purposes. Colleges and universities promote the public interest by delivering a range of economic and social goods, including increased human capital, improved social mobility, enhanced quality of life, and greater social productivity (*The Institute for Higher Education Policy*, 1998; Miller, 2006; Jenson, 2006). As the overseers of these institutions, it seems reasonable to suspect that some college administrators may carry on in their work with an internalized commitment to the public

interest, that is, a public service orientation. Yet, is there *empirical* reason to believe that this is the case? In general, researchers have yet to take up, much less resolve, this question. Even though college administrators steer institutions whose purposes are civic in nature, this population has been largely overlooked as a potential vessel of the public service orientation.

This review now turns to an examination of what (little) is known of the normative orientations of senior college and university administrators, with particular attention paid to findings that speak to the role of public service perspectives. Writing about college presidents specifically, Nelson (2000) notes that, “With remarkable consistency, presidents have nearly universally affirmed...the responsibility of colleges and their students to uphold the critical social and civic virtues associated with American society,” (p. 109). Yet apart from the rhetorical flourishes that punctuate presidential addresses, little evidence exists that helps us to understand whether publically oriented views are truly ingrained in the professional sensibilities of campus leaders. Nonetheless, an earnest survey of relevant literature is needed, if only to illuminate the sparse scholarly context of the present study. The studies presented below make no claim to examine the public service orientation directly, but do offer relevant insights. Among these analyses are depictions of the interconnected values, motives, leadership orientations, and administrative roles found to underpin campus leadership across a variety of institutional settings.

Waugh (2003) suggests that, as American colleges and universities become more bureaucratized and professionalized, the administrative aspects of campus management have gradually begun to outweigh academic concerns. As a consequence, university

governance has become markedly “managerial.”<sup>39</sup> The rising trend toward professional management in higher education, grounded in an administrative culture favoring values like productivity and accountability may displace values rooted in academic outcomes. Waugh (Ibid) further points out that the top-down nature of professional management shows signs of replacing the lateral, collegial governance structures that were once dominant in higher education. Interestingly, even though Waugh (1998; Ibid) indicts college executives for their abandonment of academic values, this author suggests that the new mould of university management approximates that of the *private* sector, not the *public* sector.<sup>40</sup> Smith and Adams (2008) note a similar trend among institutions of higher learning in Britain, and suggest that British pro-vice-chancellors face mounting pressures to apply top-down business management structures alongside traditional (collaborative) ones.<sup>41</sup>

Interviews with a national cross-section of campus presidents suggest that campus executives do in fact view bureaucratic activities as fundamental to the nature of the presidency. More than half of the presidents interviewed in a study by Bensimon (1990) offered self-descriptions of leadership that reflected bureaucratic considerations. Furthermore, after comparing the self-descriptions supplied by presidents to observations provided by campus colleagues, Bensimon found that bureaucratically-inclined presidents tend to produce recognition as such by peers.

---

<sup>39</sup> Waugh (Ibid) summarizes that, “planning, budgeting, and day-to-day administration is becoming more like the management processes developed for the private sector and increasingly reflects values that conflict with the traditional values of university governance,” (p. 85).

<sup>40</sup> This distinction clearly bears importance to the present analysis. On this matter, Cohen and March (1986) conducted a rank-sorting quantitative procedure with a sample of university presidents and found that participants tended to view the presidency as a closer administrative approximation to a *mayor* than to a *business executive*.

<sup>41</sup> Kenny (2008) observes the same trend among Australian institutions of higher education: “In the last decade or so, there has been a profound shift in management practices in the tertiary education sector from a collegial to a corporate or commercial paradigm,” (p. 11).



To what extent does the academic literature suggest that campus executives endeavor to serve the public interest? Thomas (2000) asserts that the opportunities for university administrators to engage with the public are many: “Institutional leaders, including trustees, academic affairs officers, deans, and particularly presidents, can play an important role in a community. They serve on local boards, speak at public and private events, host parties or provide a forum for addressing particular issues, and comment for the media about current events,” (p. 76). Kubala and Bailey (2001) contest that community colleges are particularly well-connected to the public interest goals of their external communities, mainly because such institutions often exist as municipal special districts financed through local tax revenues. Additionally, community colleges are often governed by boards of directors appointed directly from the community itself. Others, however, suggest that colleges and universities are generally insular. Coats, Humphreys, and Vachris (2004), for example, present quantitative modeling evidence that suggests universities’ institutional performance tends not to vary with statewide political or regulatory conditions.

Some evidence for an external orientation among college executives does exist. Neumann and Bensimon (1990), using a novel interview design, identified four distinct role orientations among college presidents.<sup>42</sup> One of the four “presidential types” generated by these authors, referred to only as “Presidential Type A,” reflects a strong external orientation with a clear commitment to the public goods delivered by higher education. According to Neumann and Bensimon, “Presidents reflecting type A are more

---

<sup>42</sup> The methodological approach taken by Neumann and Bensimon (Ibid) will be examined in greater detail in the next chapter, but essentially entails an informal, inverted factor analysis. The four perspectives revealed by these writers vary along three principal criteria: target of attention, mode of action, and relatedness to institution (p. 685).

than institutional spokespersons or ambassadors to the outside world; they are active participants in and shapers of that outside world. Most assume an active public service role – for themselves as individuals and for their institutions,” (p. 686). No doubt, this study opens the door to further examination of public service values among college administration officials.

### **Segue to Research Design**

This tour of literature has covered much ground, relating both to the public service orientation itself and to the social sciences’ limited attempts to assess its incidence among higher education executives. In light of this review, a chain of informed observations can be laid out. First, it appears from a multitude of sources that public sector managers systematically differ from their private sector counterparts. Though the causal mechanisms underlying these differences are not clear, the points of divergence between these groups are thought to be multidimensional, encompassing normative, attitudinal, and behavioral cleavages. Second, several authors have pointed out that managers from non-profit or quasi-governmental organizations can be seen to exhibit professional characteristics congruent with those found among public sector executives. Finally, the administrative orientations of American college and university executives seem to imitate those of public sector managers in important ways. College presidents have been found to identify with bureaucratic modes of management, and some executives have been seen to operate from a firm base of public service values.

In spite of these generalities, the final verdict remains largely unsettled with regard to the overarching administrative orientations held by college administrators. For example, even if we conclude that college administrators tend to be anchored in

bureaucratic orientations, we may still wonder about the broader worldview(s) in which such understandings are situated. The differences between the many alternatives would seem to be a matter of normative perspective, and it is precisely these perspectives that the present study sought to explore.

As should be clear from this review, the body of public service orientation literature has been built largely through the use of a limited variety of methodological techniques. Early writers, such as Appleby (1945) relied on rationalistic methods leading to prescriptive maxims. In the intervening years, most scholars converged on a single alternative: the side-by-side comparison of public and private personnel. These studies generally have been rooted in the identification of between-groups differences generated from interviews, surveys, personality tests, or formal PSM scales. Unfortunately, much of this work has been undertaken in the absence of a declared theoretical framework, and thus has struggled to accumulate into an easily navigable body of literature. Many studies in this tradition also fail to seek *comprehensive* accounts of an overarching normative orientation, favoring instead the targeted probing of narrow characteristics. Table 2 offers a visual summary of the main analytic techniques used in extant public service orientation research.

Table 2

*Summary of Methodological Approaches Used in Public Service Orientation Research*

Population (and Analytic Technique)	Examples
Public Only (Lit. Review, Normative Synthesis)	Appleby (1945); Goodsell (1989)
Pub./Priv. Comparison (Interviews)	Kilpatrick, Cummings, & Jennings (1964)
Pub./Priv. Comparison (Surveys, Indices)	Solomon (1986); Schmidt & Posner (1986)
Pub./Priv. Comparison (PSM Scales)	Gabris & Simo (1995); Perry (1996, 1997)
Public Only (Q-Methodology)	Brewer, Selden, & Facer (2000)

Clearly then, the Q methodological approach undertaken in the present study is not characteristic of this theoretical area. Only one study, which will be recounted in detail in the following chapter, has directly probed the structure of the public service orientation using Q methodology. Yet, it is argued in the next chapter that Q methodology is particularly well-suited for the exploration of administrative points of view. Stackman, Connor, and Becker (2006) provide encouragement in this direction, offering that, “One way to capture and portray the existence of a sector’s ethos is to examine the value systems of managers who work within that sector,” (p. 56). Accordingly, the following chapter outlines the Q methodological approach used in this study to characterize the normative perspectives of college and university administrators with respect to publically-oriented notions of management.

## CHAPTER 3

### Methodology

*We should be making discoveries rather than testing our reasoning.*

-- William Stephenson, 1953, p. 151

#### Introduction

This chapter is divided into two main parts. The first section summarizes the history, organizing principles, general procedures, and relevant applications of Q methodology in the body of social literature. A major goal of this section is to situate Q in the diverse methodological context of the social sciences. It will be seen that Q has carved a strong niche in the social sciences, and represents a robust member of the methodological canon. The second leg of this chapter includes a description of the current study's specification of Q, including instrument design, participant selection, and deployment. The chapter closes with a look ahead to the final two chapters of the dissertation report.

#### Restatement of Research Question

It should be recalled from the opening chapter that the core research question pursued by this study was articulated as: *What normative perspectives constitute the administrative orientations of higher education administrators?* The open-ended nature of this research question calls for the use of an exploratory, taxonomical device, and in particular, one that offers the analytic leverage necessary to shed light on the full structure of subjective perspective. It is argued in this chapter that Q methodology embodies a technique that is singularly suited to these analytic demands.

## **Q Methodology: Introduction and Overview**

In the prevailing behavioral view, quantitative research tends to emphasize the external standpoint of the researcher (Brown, 1980). Physical and psychological attributes are assumed to be objectively measurable, and research subjects are thus understood as the sum total of all measured characteristics. A given subject's "amount" of a particular trait is understood vis-à-vis a calculated score, derived from a pre-specified scale. Proceeding from tests of predefined research hypotheses, such research tends to employ large, random samples of subjects, and relies extensively on inferential statistical techniques.

Some within the social science academe find much dissatisfaction with the objectivist approach to social inquiry. While the full post-positivist critique of conventional scaling methods is beyond the scope of this work, several points of discontent are notable. Perhaps foremost among these concerns is the idea that traditional rating scales carry their own meanings. Implicitly, scales are constructed from *a priori* assumptions regarding response correctness. Subjects are compelled, as a product of definition operationalization, to align their own thoughts to the response structure devised preemptively by the researcher. Smith (2001) surmises that, "The investigator defines what a response will mean prior to its occurrence, thereby imposing that meaning and interpreting the subject's responses accordingly," (p. 325). True enough, scaling frameworks often define the constructs themselves (Ibid).

Additionally, and in keeping with the external orientation of objectivist science, social inquiry usually attempts to control for, if not altogether eliminate, the expression of self-referent views. Using sophisticated design and measurement practices, researchers

tend to focus more on subjects' *levels of* an attribute than *perspectives about* it. Rather than ask subjects to reflect directly on a topic of interest, positivists generally attempt to locate (in subjects' responses) evidence of variables that are seen as constituents of the broader phenomenon. Further, conventions of psychometric scaling suggest that measures should be constructed so that subjects are unaware of the main variables of interest, so as to assure the highest degree of neutral reporting from participants. Subjective perspective is seen as "noise," a source of irritating clutter that obscures standardized measurement. As observed by William Stephenson, "science is based on data oblivious to any self-evidence or self-reference," (1988a, p. 216).

Viewing such objectivism as an epistemologically-perverse path to understanding the social world, various enclaves of researchers have long advocated for alternative methods of inquiry. An especially devout cadre has formed around an approach known as *Q methodology*. Known simply as "Q", or alternatively as "Q method," "Q technique," "Q factor analysis," or "Q sorting," *Q methodology refers to a unified set of ontological and epistemological principles, reflected in a corresponding methodological protocol*. It represents a major change of focus from positivism, and operates from a new definition of what matters. In contrast to objectivism, Q methodology focuses attention on human subjectivity rather than traits, characteristics, or effects.<sup>43</sup> Procedurally, Q technique comprises two main operations: the administration of a modified rank-order card sorting task to a selection of subjects, followed by an innovative factor analytic procedure. Although Q technique includes a factor analytical component, its premise is orthogonal to that of conventional factor analysis. Rather than measure a sample of

---

<sup>43</sup> Echoing this point, Brown (1994-1995) asserts that Q methodology serves as "the foundation for the scientific study of subjectivity," (p. 15).

human subjects on a series of variables, *Q methodology considers the subjects themselves to be variables, and treats attributes as the sampled population*. The resulting factor analysis, then, identifies patterns of subjectivity, not traits.<sup>44</sup>

The data collection element of Q methodology provides a means by which research subjects can provide their own models of reality (Brown, 1980). Each subject is directed to sort a set of statements (provided by the researcher) into a distribution in such a way that reflects his or her perspective, given a particular condition of instruction. The goal of the method is to allow subjects to think actively about their perspectives, and to engage in deliberative, self-referential disclosure. Q methodology is thus designed to provide a systematic, comparable tool for studying subjective viewpoints. Stephenson (1953) summarizes the intent of the method accordingly: “Q-technique provides a systematic way to handle a person’s retrospections, his reflections about himself and others, his introjections and projections, and much else of a subjective nature,” (p. 86). Q methodology is thus both holistic and intensive. In light of the above, the technique makes no attempt to identify causal mechanisms of any kind (Brown, 2002a). Q methodology is primarily an exploratory, taxonomic device, and as such is not designed to undertake traditional hypothesis testing (Stenner & Stainton Rogers, 2004; Smith, 2001).

## **Foundational Principles**

### **Theoretical Footings: Operant Subjectivity and Concourse Theory**

Q methodology is ineffably tied to its creator, British research scientist William Stephenson. Stephenson, who was trained as a physicist (PhD, 1926) then as a

---

<sup>44</sup> The analytical operations involved in Q methodology will be discussed at greater length in a subsequent section. The central point here is that Q methodology results in the factor analysis of subjects, not tests or attributes.



psychologist (PhD, 1929), undertook a life's work of developing an orderly means for examining human subjectivity (Stephenson 1993-1994; Brown, 1972).<sup>45</sup> Stephenson's approach focuses on investigating the "internal standpoint" of the subject, that is, one's internal frame of reference (Brown, 1980, p. 1). The notion of self-reference is therefore central to Q methodology; subjectivity implies self-reference, whereas objectivity does not (Smith, 2001). Vital here is Brown's (1980) point that, "Fundamentally, a person's subjectivity is merely his own point of view. It is neither a trait nor a variable," (p. 46). Self-referent subjectivity is expressed behaviorally through language, and can be examined systematically using Q methodology (Ibid). In Q methodology, the term *operant* refers to the operations performed by subjects through the card sorting process, manipulating statements to form a viewpoint. Smith (2001) follows that, "'Operant subjectivity,' then, is subjective behavior as expressed through Q methodology," (p. 320).

The basic act of communicating a point of view is understood in Q methodology as an observable behavior that is ripe for investigation (Brown, 2002a). Stephenson's *Concourse Theory of Communication* suggests that all subjective communication can be understood in terms of "concourses," that is, universes of stated viewpoints. All

---

<sup>45</sup> Although the idea of correlating subjects rather than tests was first posited by British factor analyst Godfrey Thompson in 1935, Stephenson is widely credited with devising a more refined procedure (Brown, 1980). In fact, the enigmatic "Q" element of the methodology's title refers to the "q" inter-subject correlation coefficient first developed by Godfrey (Ibid). Stephenson's entry into the scholarly dialogue came in 1935, when in a letter to the editor of the British journal *Nature* he called for the solicitation of articles on the topic of "inverted" factor analysis (Stephenson, 1935b). Stephenson proposed that existing objectivist methodologies were insufficient to pursue positivist social research. Alternatively, he argued that an improved method would center on the correlation of persons rather than tests, and further that subjects should measure themselves rather than be measured by an investigator (Stephenson, 1972). Stephenson's initial calls to abandon the tenets of positivism were viewed as sacrilege among British academicians, especially in light of Stephenson's training and involvement in the empirical orthodoxy (Shemmings, 2006). Factor analyst Raymond Cattell ridiculed Stephenson's articulation of Q methodology, arguing that such ideas, "are totally disabling by any truly scientific standards...[and] retreats from scientific standards of behavioral psychology back to the era of introspection in private worlds," (1951, p. 206). In light of such criticism, Stephenson took leave of his agitated British colleagues, relocating to the University of Chicago (1948-1955) and later the University of Missouri (1958-1972) (Hurd & Brown, 2004-2005).

propositions of fact are coupled to an innumerable cache of viewpoints, or “statements,” which are to some degree self-referent (Stephenson, 1978a). Such viewpoints may be preconceived or ad lib, and are fundamentally concerned with meaning. For example, Stephenson would argue that an infinite concourse of viewpoints exists for the idea of “liberal,” and that this concourse is made operant through the act of communication. Further, concourses are not restricted to the verbal universe only -- images, sounds, or any other medium of experience may be represented through a matching concourse (Ibid).

In sum, operant subjectivity represents one’s “communicable possibilities,” (Stephenson, 1978a, p. 21). Yet, communicating one’s subjectivity is metaphysically dissimilar from the idea of basic information exchange. Providing an opportunity for subjects to render mere “information” falls short of the hermeneutical goal that underpins Q methodology, that is, trying to understand what subjects *mean* by studying the text of what they *say* (Smith, 2001). Stephenson insisted that meaning is organized around personal constellations of concourse statements, and that Q methodology offers a means by which to reveal the structure of these configurations. Communicated statements of opinion are thus viewed as “behavioral manifestations” of subjectivity that arise through the process of discussing social life (Davis, 1997, p. 65; Brown, 1980).

### **Ontological and Epistemological Underpinnings**

Danish philosopher Soren Kierkegaard testified that, “all interest, like all decisiveness, is rooted in subjectivity,” (1846/1941, p. 173). In like kind, Brown (1980) notes that the notion of subjectivity comes to the fore in all human interaction. These observations hearken to Burrell and Morgan’s (1979) assertion that the subjectivist

orientation to science is marked by a sense of the positive role of individual experience in structuring reality. Stephenson, an accomplished physicist, insisted that the world of social life involves *both* objective and subjective reality (Brown, 2002a). In his own words, Stephenson argued that, “Objective fact is singular, defined, and without self-reference whereas subjective experience is boundless, and requires self-reference,” (1993-1994, p. 4).

Q methodology admits of a staunch subjectivist perspective, but at the same time approaches research questions with objectivist analytical tools. According to Brown (2002a), “Subjectivity is without substance in the sense that it cannot be seen or touched, yet in a certain sense it may be said to have structure and form; however, that form is rendered only through mathematical representation. It is the Q sorting which prepares the subjectivity to reveal its structure,” (p. 155). Q methodology, then, does not discard objectivist methods, but rather modifies them to gain analytical leverage on subjectively-oriented research questions.

However, Q methodology’s subjectivist assumptions bear much procedural importance. Stephenson was far more interested in understanding than explanation, knowing *how* rather than knowing *why* (Smith, 2001). Consequently, Q methodology rejects the hypothetico-deductive model of science, whereby hypotheses are framed prior to investigation and are tested through analysis (Watts & Stenner, 2005). In Q methodology, no *a priori* assumptions are made with respect to analytic expectations beyond what is necessary to develop an effective research design (Brown, 1980). In contrast with objectivism, where the researcher begins with an operationally defined concept and follows with measurement, a Q methodologist begins with measurement and

then proceeds to articulate a concept. Altogether, the method's analytic properties, aversion to fact-seeking, and links to social constructionism combine to form, "a middle ground between the positivist and phenomenological methods," of social inquiry (Smith, 2001; Day 2008, p. 141).

In its emphasis on shared social representations, Q inhabits common methodological turf with phenomenology. Taylor, Delprato, and Knapp (1994) observe that the premise of all variant forms of Husserlian phenomenology is the emergent examination of human experience. As a result, the act of communication occupies an elevated role in both methodologies. In hindsight, Stephenson remarked that, "[phenomenology] is reducible to Q methodology: Husserl's perspectives and essences are comparable to the quantized operant factors of Q," (1988, p. 203).<sup>46</sup> Stephenson held that concourse universes are anchored in meaning only (as opposed to fact), a proposition related to Smith's (2001) later assertion that the distinction between "facts" and "essences" corresponds to the perpetual R-Q dichotomy. Sensing these parallels, Taylor, Delprato, and Knapp (Ibid) suggest that Q methodology advances the goals of phenomenology through a more structured technique.

### **Contrasting Q with Positivist ("R") Methodologies**

As a way of distinguishing Q methodology from other research paradigms, Q partisans offer the moniker "R methodology" as a generic label for realist, positivist inquiry.<sup>47</sup> Though the term R methodology does not refer to any specific set of empirical tenets or tools, the label implies a range of conventional quantitative approaches,

---

<sup>46</sup> Some authors, in fact, interpret the shared perspectives that arise from Q analysis as "narratives" or "myths" (see Byrd, 2002, p. 53).

<sup>47</sup> The "R" term refers to Karl Pearson's *r* method of correlating tests with one another in Charles Spearman's method of factor analysis (Brown, 1980). Incidentally, William Stephenson served as a research assistant for Spearman in the 1920s (Stephenson, 1993-1994).

particularly factor analytic techniques. At its most basic level, R methodology aims to identify relationships between measurable, “molecular” traits (Brown, 1980). Research designs are constructed from *a priori* operational definitions and frameworks, and are deployed using large samples of participants. Individual differences are of primary interest to R methodologists, while differences owing to subjectivity are thought of as, “idiosyncrasy, random error, an accident,” (Brown, 1972, p. 61) or “psychometric slop” (Smith, 2001, p. 327). In essence, Q methodologists relegate to the stature of R methodology all techniques that depend on the aggregation and averaging of sample data at the expense of individual-level accounts, especially when this process occurs through factor analysis (Smith, 2001).

The points of contrast between R and Q are many. Q methodology holds that the individual’s whole response (rather than individual measures) is of primary interest, is irreducible, and is inseparable from the subject (Brown, 1980).<sup>48</sup> “Measurement” is undertaken by the subject, and individual characteristics are preserved through all stages of analysis. In Q studies, the population of interest is the concurrence of stimulus materials (usually Q sort statements) rather than a broad population of individuals. Consequently, Q methodology assumes that only *intra*-individual differences are important (Ibid). Procedurally, the researcher avoids imposing meanings on subjects by administering the Q instrument *before* developing a theoretical account of the construct of interest, a heretical practice to R loyalists. Stephenson (1952) provides an elegant account of the central distinction between R and Q:

---

<sup>48</sup> Stephenson quips that, “Theoretically, in any case, r-technique took the person to pieces, but Q-technique can offer to put him together again,” (1936, p. 365). Smith follows that, “In Q studies, subjects are truly subjects, not objects as they are in R,” (2001, p. 328).

...if you test a person for his intelligence, mathematical ability, verbal ability, spatial ability, and all the rest, you are in the domain of R methodology, for these are objective attributes of the individual, and when averaged over many persons there will be a factor structure that may well prove invariant. But if, after all of this testing is completed, you ask the person which of the tests he enjoyed the most, you are immediately in the domain of Q methodology. The former deals with objective aspects of the individual, the latter with subjective aspects, and the two are no more necessarily related than the ability to paint and the appreciation of art, or than athletic ability and the thrill of baseball (p. 484).

Most authors posit that Q methodology is neither purely quantitative nor purely qualitative, but rather is an integrated research technology with methodological headwaters in each camp. Stenner and Stainton Rogers (2004) suggest that, given Q methodology's use of factor analysis, the approach seems decidedly quantitative.<sup>49</sup> Yet almost paradoxically Q is often employed by researchers who harbor major objections to positivistic techniques. Stenner and Stainton Rogers note that Q methodology shares several features with traditional qualitative methods: the extraction of themes from field transcripts; the search for meaning through subjective experience; and an assumption of active partnership with subjects. Taking all these factors into consideration, Stenner and Stainton Rogers (2004), joined by Watts and Stenner (2005), argue that the term *qualiquantology* reflects the conceptual hybridity offered by Q.

---

<sup>49</sup> Summarized somewhat eccentrically by these authors, "When qualitative researchers see the quasi-normal distribution of a Q-sort made up of provided items; hear talk of eigenvalues; and see the decontextualized output of a cluster of factors cut out and laid before them like bloody organs severed from the organic whole of the body...they get preturbated," (Ibid, p. 102).

## Psychometrics in Q Methodology

McKeown and Thomas (1988) flatly summarize the view of most Q methodologists concerning psychometrics: “the validity and reliability tests so central to conventional scaling in mainstream attitude research are simply unessential within the psychometric framework of Q methodology,” (p. 45). These authors observe that the incapacity of psychometric theory to resonate in Q methodological space stems not from a fundamental dysfunction on its own part, but from its incommensurability with the aims of Q. Q devotees are quick to point out that their methodology makes no claims of “measuring” anything, and therefore is not subject to conventional standards of validity evaluation. On this point, Brown (1980) stipulates that, “There is no outside criterion for a person’s own point of view,” (p. 4). Further, since Q is interested only in identifying points of view, the question of whether or not perspectives translate to external behavior is not of consequence. Dennis (1992-1993) explains that, “Validity in Q methodology refers more to the ability of individuals to accurately share their perspectives on the subjective phenomenon under investigation, and to the researcher’s ability to accurately elucidate and portray the subjectivity expressed,” (p. 39).<sup>50</sup>

---

<sup>50</sup> The notion of reliability also has brought about much consternation among Q methodologists. Stephenson (1953) expressed misgivings about replicability in Q studies, arguing rather that discovering new understandings should be the top goal. Hilden (1958) added that normal reliability assessment (*e.g.*, alternate forms, internal consistency) are incompatible with Q, as there can be no basis for splitting or devising alternate forms of Q instruments. Some Q researchers are less willing to accept that Q studies should not conform to *some* standard of repeatability. Thomas and Baas (1992) interject that Q is seen by some to fall “far short of the minimal criteria for scientific measurement,” (p. 18). Thomas and Baas counter that researchers should seek “reliable schematics,” that is, repeatable results across similar P-sets. Similar critiques have come from Fairweather (1981) and D’Agostino (1984). In response to this indictment, several researchers have attempted to liberate Q from its gloomy status as unbecoming of science. Such efforts are typically undertaken through the use of “tandem studies,” whereby researchers compare the results of two or more related Q studies.

## Scholarly Proliferation

Brown (1980) speaks of an intense “methodological poverty” faced by social scientists who seek to understand human viewpoints (p. 2). Helping to fill this void, Q methodology represents an increasingly prominent tool. Danielson (2009, p. 219) interjects that, “Social science research...has seen increasing use of Q method,” in recent years, and Robyn (2005, p. 21) adds that the current body of literature contains more than 2,500 articles featuring Q methodological studies. Though Stephenson initially saw Q methodology as being best suited to the study of psychology, researchers from many disciplines and fields have since embraced Q.<sup>51</sup> This diversity highlights the method’s considerable adaptability.

Smith (2001) summarizes that Q methodology has been employed most frequently in, “communication, political science, nursing science, and developmental psychology, but is equally applicable to economics, social psychology, industrial relations, business, law, women’s studies, and all other disciplines involving human behavior,” (p. 334). Within political science specifically, Q methodological applications have included political imagery, discourse salience, public opinion, political personality, decision making, and political campaign strategy (see Robyn, 2005; Brown, 1980; Gough, Misiti, & Parisi, 1971). Brown, Durning, and Selden (2007) note that the field of public administration represents especially fertile soil for Q, citing work in such areas as strategic planning, personnel management, and decision making. Tetlock, Peterson, McGuire, Chang, and Feld (1992) applied Q to explore historiographic accounts of political group dynamics, particularly the groupthink model of executive decision

---

<sup>51</sup> For an overview of Stephenson’s early views of the applications of Q methodology, see Stephenson, 1935a.



making. Q methodology has been used in personality psychology (Stephenson, 1953; Peterson, Smith, Martorana, & Owens, 2003), clinical psychology (Smith, 2001), and market research (Klooster, Visser, & De Jong, 2008), as well as such sundry areas as product image research (Johnson, 1970), literary interpretation (Brown, 1980), and epistemological inquiries (Miller, 1972).

Especially relevant to the present study is the increasing use of Q methodology in the area of social policy. Byrd (2002) makes the case that Q methodology has grown in popularity as a tool for environmental policy analysis, given its strengths in revealing stakeholder perceptions, interests and values.<sup>52</sup> A number of authors have argued that Q is part of a larger critique of positivist policy sciences, and that our understanding of the policy process should be more contextualized (Day, 2008). Day (Ibid) postulates that Q methodology allows for a closer examination of the motivations and value orientations of policy actors, and that Q holds potential for several public policy frameworks, including the *Institutional Analysis and Development* and *Advocacy Coalition* models.

### **Q Methodology in Administrative Orientation Research**

The above discussion suggests that administrative values are not a new object of interest for Q methodologists. Indeed, this study is not the first to recognize the utility of Q methodology in the study of bureaucratic values and attitudes, nor is it the first to explore the views of college administrators with respect to managerial roles. Brown (1980) identifies bureaucratic viewpoints as a topic rife with opportunities for the

---

<sup>52</sup> For additional works in this area, see Kalof, 1997; Van Eeten, 1999; and Woolley and McGinnis, 2000.

application of Q. Consequently, a number of research projects have surfaced in the general area that houses the present study.<sup>53</sup>

The service of Q methodology to bureaucratic attitudes research has spanned a gamut of subtopics. Gough, Misiti, and Parisi (1971), for example, applied Q methodology in their comparison of American and Italian public administrators on a range of vocational and managerial attitudes. Yarwood and Nimmo (1976) employed Q methodology to assess a group of citizens, administrators and elected officials with reference to their perceived images of public bureaucracy. Similarly, Cunningham and Olshfski (1986) used the method to compare state legislators' and state government bureaucrats' impressions of the policy process in the state of Tennessee. Q sorting has also been enlisted for examinations of police officer satisfaction and vocational needs (Gaines, Van Tubergen, & Paiva, 1984), worker motivation among mid-level managers in state rehabilitation agencies (Sylvia & Sylvia, 1986), views of elected officials and staff members on participative processes in public advisory boards (Webler, Tuler, & Krueger, 2001), and the policy priorities of executives in the United States Forestry Service (Martin & Steelman, 2004).

Inching closer to the focus of the present analysis, Durning and Osuna (1994) investigated how policy analysts in government and academia understand their organizational roles. These researchers administered a Q instrument to 38 state government analysts, local government analysts, and university researchers, and compared the results to "ideal-type" orientations described by earlier theorists.<sup>54</sup> Selden, Brewer, and Brudney (1999), also focusing on administrative roles, explored the views of

---

<sup>53</sup> The general approach of factor analyzing ranked lists of administrative values has support from Nalbandian and Edwards (1983) and Stackman, Connor, and Becker (2006).

<sup>54</sup> These theorists included Meltzer (1976), Behn (1981), and Weimer and Vining (1992).

public personnel on the autonomy-responsibility dichotomy in bureaucratic policymaking. The study, which included responses from federal, state, and local government employees from all hierarchical levels, found evidence of five emergent role orientations.<sup>55</sup>

The public service orientation itself has been investigated through Q methodology. In an article appearing in *Public Administration Review*, Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000) deployed Q methodology as a means to understand, “How individuals view the motives associated with public service,” (Ibid, p. 254). These authors asked 69 students and employees of government to complete a Q sort ranking of individual statements from Perry’s (1996) 40-item public service motivation scale.<sup>56</sup> After rotation, four factors were identified.<sup>57</sup> Participants loading on first factor, labeled by the authors as *samaritans*, expressed affective valence toward those they serve, and showed gratification in serving the interests of the disadvantaged. *Communitarians* present a noble, prideful view of public service, and distance themselves from extrinsic rewards. The authors’ third factor, *patriots*, is defined by a belief in causes that transcend the self, and by the subordination of the self to greater good. Finally, *humanitarians* include those expressing a drive to improve society with an emphasis on facilitating social justice. Brewer, Selden, and Facer take care to note, however, that factor scores indicated a clear mixing of motives among the P-sample.

---

<sup>55</sup> As labeled by the authors, these factor groups included: “stewards of the public interest,” “adapted realists,” “businesslike utilitarians,” “resigned custodians,” and “practical idealists,” (Ibid, pp. 185-190).

<sup>56</sup> These authors opted to include all forty of the original scale items, rather than using only the 24 remaining after Perry’s (1996) validation, in order to provide better coverage of the construct. Where needed, items were reconstructed to ensure positive phrasing.

<sup>57</sup> Technicalities mentioned in this section (e.g., rotation, participant loadings) will be explained in the next chapter.

Clearly then, Q methodology demonstrates a long record of service to administrative attitudes research. Yet looking specifically at research on college and university administrators, we find no sign of Q. One investigation, however, illustrates a methodological goal akin to that of Q, but realizes its aims through other means. Neumann and Bensimon (1990), attempting to describe broad “conceptions of the college and university presidency,” present interview data from 32 college presidents. The analytic premise of this study centers on the systematic (but a-mathematical) clustering of “look-alike” perspectives of the presidential role (p. 682). Relying on an informal, inverted factor analysis that mirrors (in principle) that used in Q, these authors define four unique, abstracted perspectives or “presidential types.” These authors clearly share the epistemological scruples espoused by Q enthusiasts, but fail to capitalize on the statistical advantages offered by Q.

Adopting a similar conceptual approach, the present analysis recognized Q methodology as a more refined instrument for the task at hand. The “qualiquantological hybridity” that marks Q methodology affords it unique analytical power. Said in another way, Q methodology allows for the quantitative representation of a construct (in this case, administrative orientation) without running roughshod over qualitative concerns for context and wholeness. Yet, rather than attempting to measure the *proportionality* or *amount* of public service values in a given setting, Q methodology brings its *structure* into focus. In keeping with the ontological and epistemological foundations of the methodology, this analysis held no interest in detecting the *prevalence* of any particular viewpoint. Adopting a phenomenological perspective, the project sought the public service orientation in terms of shared representations of values, attitudes, and motives. Q

methodology was thus deployed as means to illuminate the operant subjectivity marking the idea of public service.

## **Protocol**

### **Sampling**

In R methodology, the term *sampling* entails the selection of potential participants from a population. Q methodologists, by contrast, use this label to refer to the process of constructing sets of statements used in the sorting process. This convention flows from Stephenson's concurrence theory, which holds that one's point of view can be represented through the subjective configuration of a "universe of discourse." Accordingly, statement sampling in Q involves the compilation of statements from a variety of sources that are representative of a theoretical "ecological universe," (Stephenson 1953; Brown, 1980).

The first step in item sampling is the development of a "concurrence" of Q statements that reflects the construct of interest.<sup>58</sup> Q statements must be articulated in such a way that they correspond to the research question, and should be relatively unaltered from their original source (Watts & Stenner, 2005; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). McKeown and Thomas (1988) suggest that concurrences may represent any of several types, including naturalistic, ready-made, quasi-naturalistic, standardized, or hybrid. Importantly, text statements do not comprise the only medium available to Q researchers. Q studies have been conducted using a range of visual, olfactory, and auditory stimuli, including political cartoons (Kinsey & Taylor, 1982; Trahair, 2003), propaganda posters (Brown, 1979), music (Wacholtz, 1992), and aromas (Kim, Kim, &

---

<sup>58</sup> Smith (2001) notes that the word "concurrence" derives etymologically from the Latin *concursum* – "a running together of ideas" (p. 323).

Kim, 2003). Brown (1980) notes that Q designs have also included color boards, magazine photographs, and landscape images. McKeown and Thomas summarize that the, “possibilities for sampling Q-statements [are] enormous, bounded only...by the researcher’s imagination and by the nature of the problem under investigation,” (1988, p. 28).

Once the concourse has been assembled, the sampling procedure moves to the selection of a smaller subset of statements for use in the actual Q sort. Statements should be exhaustive of the concourse, should be easily understood, and should express statements of self-referential opinion (Smith, 2001). Conceptual ambiguities in Q statements do not pose a threat to validity in Q research due to the goals of the method, and in this sense, statement sampling is as much a craft as a precise science (Brown, 1980). McKeown and Thomas (1988) assert that Q samples may be unstructured or structured. Based on a mix of expertise and intuition, unstructured Q samples are constructed with no underlying theoretical framework, and comprise a researcher’s best attempt to provide coverage of a construct. Structured Q samples, in comparison, are rooted in factorial design. Stephenson (1953) argued that the Q sample should convey a sense of balance with respect to at least one theoretical “effect,” as a means for ensuring a more methodical consideration of possible perspectives (p. 78).

The concourse for this project was developed using a hybrid strategy, wherein statements are gathered from mixed sources. Statements were drawn from two sources: academic articles offering empirical or descriptive accounts of administrative values, attitudes, and motives, and a collection of interview transcripts generated from a related

study.<sup>59</sup> In general, statements were sought that expressed a subjective and relatively concise point of view regarding some aspect of administrative orientation.<sup>60</sup> Of particular interest to the researcher were statements reflecting possible perspectives vis-à-vis the four elements of the public service orientation identified in the literature review. These included statements reflecting potential points of view about administrative values (*e.g.*, “Bureaucratic systems are wasteful and inefficient”), needs (*e.g.*, “I often wonder about my job security”), behaviors and attitudes (*e.g.*, “Entrepreneurship is not limited to the business sector”) and reward preferences (*e.g.*, “Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself”). In all, approximately 175 statements were located that offered these characteristics.

Next, the sample was assembled following instruction by Brown (1980) and McKeown and Thomas (1988). These authors suggest that the number of Q statements included in any given sample should be constructed under the principles of factorial design. Computationally, the total number ( $n$ ) of items should equal the ( $n$ ) of levels of main effect  $X_1$  times the ( $n$ ) of levels of main effect  $X_2$ , for  $X_n$  levels, multiplied by the ( $n$ ) of replications desired for each factorial bin.<sup>61</sup> Table 3 illustrates the factorial structure of the final sample. Grounded in the public service literature, it was expected

---

<sup>59</sup> The “related study” referenced here was a grounded theory analysis of managerial values held by upper-level public administrators in the upper Midwest, and was completed as part of a doctoral seminar during the fall of 2009. Aside from those stemming from interview transcripts, Q statements emanated from the following academic sources: Taylor, 1911; Perry, 1997; Houston, 2006; Brewer, Seldon, and Facer, 2000; Selden, Brewer, and Brudney, 1999; Durning and Osuna, 1994; Steinhaus and Perry, 1996; Hansson, Hogan, Johnson, & Schroeder, 1983; Cunningham and Olshfski, 1986; Waugh, 1998; Neumann and Bensimon, 1990; Noble, 2008; Lundgren and Moore, 2004; Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, and Sparrowe, 2005; Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, and Garud, 2001; Romzek, 1985; Ashworth, 2001; and Tziner, 1983. The use of extant survey items as the basis of Q instrumentation reflects methodological guidance advocated by Danielson (2009).

<sup>60</sup> As per the central research question probed by the study’s research design.

<sup>61</sup> The use of the terms “factorial design” and “main effect” are a peculiar convention in Q, as they present a misleading image of the research. Factorial designs are imposed only to offer a temporary heuristic for thinking systematically about the construct of interest. No hypotheses regarding the design’s so-called main effects were formed or tested, and care was taken to ensure the least restrictive Q sample possible.

that categorical divergence might occur between *private* and *public* views of normative legitimacy. In addition, it was expected that perspectives might structure differently along the four dimensions identified in literature review: *professional values, personal needs and characteristics, behavioral and attitudinal expression, and reward preferences*. Factoring for both possibilities, the resulting 2x4 factorial structure was designed to accommodate the widest possible range of perspectives.

Table 3

*Factorial Structure of Q Sample*

Dimension	Levels
(A) Source of Legitimacy (2 levels)	(a) Private (b) Public
(B) Dimensions (4 levels)	(a) Values (b) Personality Characteristics (c) Behaviors/Attitudes (d) Reward Preferences
Replications = 5	
n = (2)(4)(5) = 40 statements	

The Q instrument thus recognized that emergent views toward values, needs/ characteristics, behaviors/attitudes, and rewards might be *publically*-oriented, *privately*-oriented, or a blend of both. Consequently, each bin in the 2x4 factorial structure was populated in roughly equal numbers with relevant statements from the concourse. The Q set contained, for example, statements expressing positive feelings about “public” rewards (*e.g.*, intrinsic rewards) and others expressing a preference for “private” rewards (*e.g.*, extrinsic rewards). However, individual statements from the concourse were not always clearly suggestive of either sector, and the final Q set purposefully contained statements whose sector orientation was more opaque. A total of 40 statements were selected for use in this study, a full list of which is presented in Appendix A.



Statements were selected on the basis of the researcher’s judgment about the research context. Within each heuristic bin, the research attempted to provide the best possible variety of viewpoints allowed by the statements available in the concourse. In addition to seeking fulsome and non-duplicative coverage of the concourse, succinct statements tended to be favored over lengthy or verbose ones out of concerns for sorting expedience. Efforts were taken to preserve the original nature of statements, and Q items were modified from their original form only when necessary to comply with substantive or grammatical constraints. Table 4 provides a cross-section of exemplar statements from each factorial category.

Table 4

*Example Q Statements*

Category	Example Statement
Public, Values	I try to act in a manner that is open and visible to stakeholders, both on and off campus.
Private, Values	In my role, efficiency is more important than equity or fairness.
Public, Needs	I would like to be able to work for my organization as long as I wish.
Private, Needs	Campuses must be risk takers.
Public, Attitudes	I believe everyone has a commitment to public affairs no matter how busy they are.
Private, Attitudes	What happens to this organization is really important to me.
Public, Rewards	Service to humanity is the best work of life.
Private, Rewards	Doing well financially is more important to me than doing good deeds.

Replications = 5

$n = (2)(4)(5) = 40$  statements

A quick summary is in order. The concourse was constructed by assembling (from an assortment of text sources) a “population” of statements offering a relevant point of view about some aspect of administrative orientation. In particular, statements were sought that reflected at least one of the theoretical areas (*e.g.*, values, reward preferences) identified in the literature review. Concourse statements were coded according to the rough categories indicated in Table 3, and items were “sampled” into the final instrument according to the researcher’s attempt to provide an array of statements

that was as varied and unrestrictive as possible. A total of 40 statements were included in the final instrument.

Watts and Stenner (2005) suggest that pilot testing is a useful procedure in the instrument development process in that it helps to ensure that statements are both understandable and reflective of the underlying research object. Taking this advice to heart, the statement sample described above was subjected to a pilot testing phase prior to formal deployment. The statement sample was administered to a small group of higher education administrators for the purpose of collecting user feedback on the composition of the sample. Panelists were invited to provide real-time, open-ended comments regarding statement clarity, parsimony, and appropriateness. No substantive changes were made to the sample in light of this pilot testing, though several items were modified slightly to improve clarity.

### **Participant Selection**

Because Q methodology treats statements as the population to be sampled, it applies the term *P-set*, rather than *sample*, to a study's group of participants. The P-set is usually generated through theoretical selection (Brown, 1980). This practice hearkens to the unique view of generalizability adopted by Q methodologists. In Q, generalizability refers to the capacity of a completed study to identify all points of view in a given context. Since no attempt is made to tangle with demographic proportionality, randomization of participants is unnecessary. Theoretical sampling, then, constitutes the traditional plan for targeting those individuals best situated to contribute to the question at hand.

As in item sampling, participant selection in Q methodology follows the principle of factorial design; P-set construction relies on limited intuitions regarding the way subjects may conceptualize the research topic. In like kind, P-set design will ideally (though not necessarily) follow the same factorial approach discussed above (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). If the researcher suspects that respondents' points of view are likely to vary as a function of a particular attribute, the P-set should seek to balance the P-set accordingly. For instance, if it is expected that perspectives on a given concept (*e.g.*, administrative orientation) will differ according to a particular contextual factor (*e.g.*, private-public campus), the P-set should include an equal number of private and public subjects. However, Brown (1980) encourages researchers to avoid unnecessarily elaborate designs, arguing that the factorial approach should be understood more as a heuristic than a necessity. Most importantly, respondents should be selected on the basis that they are expected to offer meaningful accounts of reality (Ibid).

Consistent with other phenomenological techniques, Q methodology is a "low-n" approach to social research. In fact, high participation levels are counter-productive in that they may obscure the analytical subtleties required for incisive interpretation (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Brown (1980) affirms that, "All that is necessary, therefore, is to include enough persons, typically no more than 40, to assure the comprehensiveness of the factors and the reliability of the factor arrays," (p. 92). Ultimately, the number of persons in the P-set should be extensive or intensive depending on the aims of the study (McKeown & Thomas, 1988).

Whereas the factorial approach in statement sampling stems from expectations about *how* subjects' points of view might vary, this procedure is used in respondent

selection with respect to *why* such variability might occur. Given that the current study was the first known attempt to apply Q methodology to this particular domain, little empirical basis existed for speculating about the likely dimensions of divergence among the population of interest. Nonetheless, the author anticipated that 1) private versus public, 2) proprietary versus non-proprietary, and 3) four-year versus two-year institutional placement may underlie different conceptions among campus administrators with respect to managerial orientation. For this reason, the P-set was designed to facilitate representation of administrators from public, private, proprietary, non-proprietary, two-year, and four-year institutions. However, no *a priori* statements of expectation were made about the potential differences between these groups. Because the study was especially interested in the managerial perspectives of senior-level higher education administrators, participation was limited to a select cluster of organizational roles: active or retired campus presidents, chief academic officers, academic or administrative vice presidents, and academic deans.

Although pure theoretical sampling is preferred among most Q methodologists, this technique was seen to lack feasibility in current analysis due to the geographic dispersion of the population under study. Because college administrators are distributed nationally, it was determined that a regionally-bounded selection strategy was necessary. The researcher did not expect that limiting participation to administrators within reasonable driving distance would systematically bias the research. Because college administrators are often nationally mobile, there is little *a priori* reason to believe that administrative orientations are regionally insular. Further, although some midwestern states demonstrate tighter coupling between policy makers and administrators (which

may systematically affect administrative orientation), it was expected that by including multiple states in the analysis the variety of perspectives would remain broad.

As indicated above, *institutional* characteristics (as opposed to *personal* characteristics) formed the initial basis for identifying potential participants.<sup>62</sup> A list of potential participants (institutions) was derived from an inventory of all accredited colleges and universities in the upper Midwest, including institutions in South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota, and North Dakota. A master institutional list was compiled from the *2009-2010 Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education (AIPE)* volume issued by the American Council on Education, a publication which categorizes institutions according to several organizational characteristics, including institutional type and control arrangement. From this source, total frequency counts presented in Table 5 were tallied across the five-state region.

Table 5  
*AIPE Institutional Counts for Five-State Region*

Institutional Type	(n)
Public, 2-year	70
Public, 4-year	38
Private, proprietary, 2-year	9
Private, proprietary, 4-year	24
Private, non-proprietary, 2-year	7
Private, non-proprietary, 4-year	89

With these institutional counts in hand, participant solicitation proceeded according to the stratification interests of the project. Because the analytic focus of the study was especially oriented toward administrators from public campuses, these

<sup>62</sup> Participants also were identified with geographic considerations in mind. The researcher targeted administrators in metropolitan areas in order to increase the likelihood of scheduling multiple meetings during each day of travel.

executives were expected to constitute no less than half of the solicited P-set, with administrators from private institutions forming the remaining portion. The private institution subset was further subdivided between proprietary and non-proprietary institutions. Within each of these three subgroups (*i.e.*, public, private proprietary, private non-proprietary), administrators were selected on a theoretical basis from both four-year and two-year institutions.

Expecting a modest rejection rate, 77 campus administrators were contacted through personal correspondence with an offer to participate in the study.<sup>63</sup> Names and contact information for these officials were gathered with the aid of the institutional websites of their respective colleges and universities. Participation was solicited using an invitation letter, followed by a follow-up phone call to each administrator's executive office for the purpose of vetting the prospective subject, discussing the nature of the research topic, and scheduling a date for an on-site administration of the Q instrument.<sup>64</sup> Altogether, 37 willing participants were identified by this method, out of 77 initially approached about participation. Additional discussion of the final P-set is presented in the next chapter.

### **Q Sorting**

According to Stephenson's concurrence theory, respondents engage in the sorting process as a means to reveal their own subjective views of the concurrence universe.

Stephenson (1978a) likened this idea to the notion of chemical formulas: all participants

---

<sup>63</sup> As per the preceding description, this subset of 77 administrators included personnel from public institutions, proprietary private institutions, and non-proprietary private institutions, with each group including representation from two-year and four-year campuses. Reducing the institutional selection frame (n=240) to the subgroup invited to participate was conducted with several considerations, both theoretical and practical, in mind. These factors included travel distance required for the researcher, relevance and/or categorical appropriateness of the institution, and anticipated interest in the study on the part of the potential research subject.

<sup>64</sup> A facsimile version of the initial invitation letter is provided in Appendix B.

are faced with same finite body of Q statements (or by analogy, atoms), but produce a stunning variety of perspectives (*i.e.*, compounds). Q assumes that statements will be “differentially valued” by subjects in ways related to their subterranean points of view (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Q sorting thus assumes that the expression of pleasure-displeasure, approval-disapproval, and the like, is central to the act of communicating one’s subjectivity (Brown, 1994-1995).

In most Q studies, subjects are instructed to sort Q statements (printed on cards) into the shape of a quasi-normal distribution. Subjects are typically allowed to place a specified number of cards into each column of a histogram-like pattern that forces most statements into a middle “neutral” classification, with fewer statements allowed in each tail of the distribution. This template focuses the task goal, places conceptual boundaries on the phenomenon of interest, and represents a natural expression of evaluation (Brown, 1980). The quasi-normal format also serves to ensure that all Q sorts will share the same mean and standard deviation, although such conditions are not required for computational purposes. Additionally, the shape of the distribution encourages subjects to consider statements systematically, and to make fine distinctions between categories (Bolland, 1985).<sup>65</sup> Most Q templates are labeled with a salience continuum that spans from  $-X$  to  $+X$ , with zero as a midpoint and text anchors at the extremes. Regardless of the

---

<sup>65</sup> Some methodologists, particularly the more qualitatively inclined, disapprove of the use of “forced” Q distributions. Gaito (1962) critiques such templates on the basis that they impose exogenous frameworks on participants. According to this author, forced distributions inhibit spontaneity, force attitude moderations, and reduce motivation due to the perceived impersonality of the instrument (Ibid). Consequently, such response formats assume that all participants share similar cognitive complexity and hold views that correspond to the shape of a normal curve (Brown, 1980). Most authors, however, are skeptical of the assertion that forced distributions pose much in the way of real restriction. Cottle and McKeown (1980), comparing results from a variety of contrived Q sort templates, demonstrate that the shape of the distribution is irrelevant from a statistical point of view (see also Brown, 1971 and Day, 2008). Brown further argues that the “hyperastronomical” number of possible arrangements for any one Q sort undercuts the contention that forced distributions impose true constraints.

distribution shape, subjects are instructed to sort all Q statements according to a particular *condition of instruction* which either explicitly or implicitly expresses the principal research question.<sup>66</sup>

Following Q methodological custom, data collection was conducted on-site by the researcher in a location of each subject's choosing. Q sorts were performed using the traditional manual card sorting technique, with the researcher remaining with each participant during the sorting process to guide the way through each step of the procedure. Following advice from Brown (1980), participants were instructed to initially sort statements into three broad piles, then later to proceed with more precise comparisons of statements.<sup>67</sup> Subjects were permitted to make revisions to their sorts throughout all stages of the process. Consistent with the mass of Q scholarship, the study employed a forced distribution with a -4 to +4 rating scale (see Figure 1 below). Sorts were completed under the following condition of instruction: "Sort these items according to those with which you most agree (+4) to those with which you most disagree (-4)." After verbal confirmation of completion, Q responses were recorded by the participants on a separate scoring sheet.

---

<sup>66</sup> McKeown and Thomas (1988, p. 30) provide several examples of conditions of instruction: "What is most like / most unlike a liberal point of view?"; "Sort the items according to those with which you most agree (+5) to those with which you most disagree (-5)."

<sup>67</sup> The sorting instructions provided to participants were adapted from Selden, Brewer, and Brudney (1999).





rather than objectivity in establishing the value of the data,” (p. 198). Consequently, the present study used “member checks” as its main verification technique. Following analysis, a subset of participants (n=14) was contacted by the researcher via email to solicit insight on the study’s interpretation of the emergent factors.<sup>69</sup> Participants were provided with a written summary of each factor, and were asked to identify the perspective that “sounds most like you.” Participants also were encouraged to elaborate on the reasons for their choice of a self-defining perspective. Responses were received from eight participants, and this feedback was useful in shaping the final interpretation of the study’s factors.

\*\*\*

At this juncture, the present study is fully framed. Because this study sought to gather holistic accounts of administrative value representations, Q methodology’s unique capabilities recommended its use. The study thus proceeded from the same post-positivist, phenomenological paradigm that gave rise to the methodology it applied. Yet, as a “qualiquantological” approach, Q method offered a means for probing, revealing, and exploring subjects’ worldviews in a more structured way than is usually associated with phenomenological methods.

The subsequent chapters examine the data procured from the 37 college administrators providing a Q sort under the data collection strategy described above. Chapter four is largely concerned with the statistical treatment of collected data, and describes the analytic reshaping of Q sort data into a workable medium (factor scores). First, Q sorts are correlated and factor analyzed. Factor loadings, which indicate the

---

<sup>69</sup> Text of the verification email distributed to participants is provided in Appendix E.

extent to which individual Q sorts share features with operant factors, are then calculated for each subject in the study. Following mathematical rotation of factor loadings, factor scores are calculated for each statement in the Q sample. These metrics are the chief means by which the structure of each operant factor is interpreted, in that they indicate the relative valence of individual statements within separate factors. In other words, factor scores identify the conceptual anchors that define the shared subjectivity expressed by participants. The chapter thus follows with a thorough exploration of the operant factors arising from the foregoing analytic procedure, an exploration that centers on the study's main research question.<sup>70</sup>

The final chapter centers on interpreting the factors identified above in the context of the public service orientation literature. Posed more precisely: Do any of the factors emerging from campus administrators' Q sort data seem to resemble viewpoints associated with mainstream public servants? This qualitative appraisal serves to ground the emergent factors, as permitted by the data, in the study's theoretical framework. Yet, this comparison is challenged by the inescapable reality that the object of comparison (the public service orientation) has itself not been definitively or comprehensively fleshed out by earlier scholars.<sup>71</sup> Because of this, interpretation is broad yet necessarily cautious, and strives to achieve phenomenological insight without greatly exceeding the reach of what the public service orientation literature will support.

---

<sup>70</sup> As a refresher, RQ<sub>1</sub> was stated in the first chapter as, "What normative perspectives constitute the administrative orientations of higher education administrators?"

<sup>71</sup> Refer to Chapter 2, "Tying it All Together."

## CHAPTER 4

### Analysis and Findings

#### Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the foregoing study. The chapter begins with a description of the study's participant pool, and includes a discussion of the group's general (quantitative) and contextual (qualitative) characteristics. The chapter then turns to its main task: an exploration of the study's original data and emergent factors. Interpretation of the perspectives arising from the study will be augmented with supporting technical explanation of Q methodology's factor analytic protocol.

#### Participant Set

It will be recalled from the previous chapter that theoretical participant selection is preferred in Q methodology due to the technique's phenomenological roots. Further, because "representative sampling" is a concept that Q methodology applies to the selection of *statements* rather than *participants*, Q dispenses with customary procedures for probability sampling during the participant selection process. With these conventions in mind, a discussion of the study's participant group is in order.

As spelled out in Chapter 3, potential participants were selected on the basis of both geographic proximity to the researcher and placement in one of the institutional types identified in the study's factorial view of the institutional population.<sup>72</sup> Participant recruitment proceeded in two separate stages. An initial deployment of invitation letters was distributed in early February 2011 to 63 potential participants.<sup>73</sup> Follow-up

---

<sup>72</sup> See Chapter 3. The design of the participant set sought to include representation from public, private, four-year, two-year, proprietary, and non-proprietary institutions.

<sup>73</sup> A facsimile copy of the letter template is provided in Appendix B.

scheduling phone calls were placed approximately five business days after this mailing, with roughly twenty participants agreeing to participate. With this tentative roster in hand, a second deployment of recruitment letters was distributed to an additional 14 administrators for the purpose of bolstering participation numbers among institutions with relatively poor success rates from the initial round of recruitment. Additional follow-ups were conducted among both recruitment groups until all potential participants (or their designees) had been contacted by phone or email. A total of 77 administrators from 51 different institutions were contacted by the researcher about participating in the study, with a total of 37 administrators (from 21 different institutions) agreeing to participate in the study.<sup>74</sup> Table 6 shows that success rates ranged from a high of 100.0% (at *private, non-proprietary, two-year* institutions) to a low of 8.3% (among *private, proprietary, four-year* institutions).

Table 6

*Participant Recruitment by Institutional Type*

Institutional Type	Population <sup>a</sup> (n)	Contacted (n)	Agreed (n)	Rate (%)
Public, 2-year	70	16	5	31.3
Public, 4-year	38	23	18	78.3
Private, proprietary, 2-year	9	6	1	16.7
Private, proprietary, 4-year	24	12	1	8.3
Private, non-proprietary, 2-year	7	4	4	100.0
Private, non-proprietary, 4-year	89	16	8	50.0
Total	237	77	37	48.1

<sup>a</sup> Refers to institutional counts for SD, NE, IA, MN, and ND from the *2009-2010 Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education* volume. The final participant group did not include any subjects from Nebraska.

<sup>74</sup> Six additional administrators expressed willingness to participate in the study, but ultimately were unable to schedule an interview within the study's timeframe.

Altogether then, 37 administrators were interviewed for this project. Tables 7-10 present additional demographic information for the participant group. Figures presented in these tables refer to data gathered from a brief, supplemental questionnaire presented to participants at the close of the sorting session.<sup>75</sup> As self-reported data, these figures are subject to response error and should be treated as estimates only. This point notwithstanding, these tables are helpful in providing a richer understanding of the participant group.

As seen in Table 7, the final participant group contained subjects from a variety of institutional sizes; campus populations ranged from fewer than 300 full-time students to more than 50,000. Table 8 describes the titular composition of the final participant group. It can be seen from this table that college presidents represented a plurality within the participant group.<sup>76</sup> One additional observation is worth noting here: Because of the relatively compact organizational structures that mark smaller campuses, participation from these institutions tended to come from presidents or vice presidents, while participation from academic deans was more common among larger institutions.

Table 7

*Participant Recruitment by Institutional Size*

Institutional Enrollment (Full-Time)	(n)	(%)
Under 5,000	19	51.4
5,000 to 9,999	7	18.9
10,000 to 19,999	8	21.6
20,000 or more	3	8.1
Total	37	100.0

<sup>75</sup> The sorting protocol used in this study is described in the previous chapter, and a copy of the referenced supplemental questionnaire is included in Appendix C.

<sup>76</sup> It should be noted that the four nominal categories used in this table are general, and may not represent actual position titles. For example, some members of the “president” group are formally designated by their campuses as “chancellor,” “CEO,” “executive director,” etc.

Table 8

*Participant Recruitment by Administrative Title*

Administrative Title	(n)	(%)
President <sup>a</sup>	18	48.6
VP (Academic) <sup>b</sup>	6	16.2
VP (Administrative) <sup>c</sup>	6	16.2
Dean	7	18.9
Total	37	100.0

<sup>a</sup> Includes one retired president two interim presidents.

<sup>b</sup> Includes participants holding the title "Dean of the College."

<sup>c</sup> Includes VPs of finance, administration, and enrollment management.

Table 9

*Participant Recruitment by Total Administrative Experience*

Total Administrative Experience	(n)	(%)
Fewer than 5 years	3	8.1
5 to 10 years	5	13.5
11 to 15 years	8	21.6
16 to 20 years	7	18.9
More than 20 years	14	37.8
Total	37	100.0

In order to gather additional contextual information, each participant was asked to report both *a*) the total number of years served in *any* administrative role in higher education, and *b*) the number of years served in his or her *current* position. Tables 9 and 10 present summary counts for these questionnaire items. In the first table, it can be seen that the participant group was populated by highly experienced administrators; 56.7% of participants reported having more than 15 years of administrative service. Though respondents were not asked to provide age data, Table 9 reinforces the researcher's observation that most participants (though not all) were late middle-aged or older. Table

10 suggests that, though quite experienced, most participants were relative newcomers to their positions, with 78.3% of participants reporting ten or fewer years on the job.

Table 10

*Participant Recruitment by Time in Current Position*

Time in Current Position	(n)	(%)
Fewer than 5 years	17	45.9
5 to 10 years	12	32.4
11 to 15 years	3	8.1
16 to 20 years	2	5.4
More than 20 years	3	8.1
Total	37	100.0

As a class of intensive research paradigms, phenomenological methods place a great deal of weight on the expressed views of a relatively small number of respondents. Moustakas (1994) goes so far as to refer to participants as “co-researchers” in phenomenological designs, given their heightened degree of individual importance in the research process. Q methodology likewise regards the holistic examination of individual subjects as a key gateway to understanding, and in so doing elevates the leverage of individual cases. Because of the prominent status of individual participants in Q methodology, this analysis offers two “participant profiles” as a means for contextualizing the diverse composition of the study’s P-set.<sup>77</sup>

Paul has ascended to academic leadership through a traditional path. He earned a PhD in a natural science field, and completed multiple post-doctoral research fellowships after graduation. Paul began his scholarly career in a tenure track faculty appointment and moved through the assistant-associate-full professor progression in less than ten

<sup>77</sup> Pseudonyms are used. Text descriptions of participants come from free-response data generated from the end-of-session questionnaire.



years. Paul's first full-time administrative work came as a department chair, after which he became an associate vice president for research at a public, four-year institution. He later moved into an interim vice presidency on the same campus, and now holds an academic vice presidential post at another four-year research institution. Paul has remained active in a number of scholarly associations in his native discipline, and has continued to pursue a limited research agenda.

Art's route to higher education administration proceeded along different lines. Art began his career with no postsecondary degree, working as a laborer in private industry for several years. Finding this work somewhat unsatisfying, he entered the armed forces. During his time in the Navy, Art earned both a bachelor's degree and a master's degree, and eventually returned to the private sector as a financial counselor. Art was approached by a local technical college to serve as the instructor of a new accounting course, and over time transitioned into a full-time lecturer. He quickly rose through the administrative ranks, working briefly as a dean and vice president. Art later returned to graduate school to complete a PhD, and currently is the president of the same technical college at which he originally served as an instructor.

These profiles underscore the many professional backgrounds that define the study's participant group, and further hint at the potential for viewpoint divergence along many possible lines. Similarly, Tables 7-10 (above) suggest that just as no one-size-fits-all career track can adequately describe this group, neither can any single administrative environment (Hotchkiss, 2002; Shaw, 2002). With the above observations in mind, the analysis now proceeds to a summary of the statistical operations performed on the data collected from the above participant pool. This section includes discussion of sort

correlation, factor extraction, factor rotation, and factor scores. All analysis referenced in the following sections was conducted in *PQMethod 2.11*, a freeware analytic platform offered by the University of Munich for the analysis of Q sort data.

### **Factor Analysis**

As a mathematical means for reducing sets of variables into smaller subsets of latent dimensions, factor analysis is an essential component of Q methodology (Kothari, 2008). Yet as stated in the previous chapter, Q methodology executes factor analysis in a way that centers on the intercorrelation of whole persons (*i.e.*, Q sorts), not component traits.<sup>78</sup> Rather than seeking statistical commonalities across *tests and measures*, Q methodology looks for common themes between *respondents*. This aspect of Q methodology lies at the heart of its phenomenological roots.

### **Correlation Matrix**

Factor analysis in Q methodology involves the sequential application of four main statistical procedures: correlation, factor extraction, factor rotation, and factor score computation. In the first stage, Q sort data is entered into the analytic software and Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients (in matrix format) are generated between all possible pairs of Q sorts.<sup>79</sup> Because this procedure results in an  $n \times n$  correlation matrix for any

---

<sup>78</sup> William Stephenson (1935a) famously referred to Q as an “inverted” form of factor analysis: “The technique is a complete inversion of all previous factor techniques,” (p. 17). However, Q is distinct from other oblique factoring techniques (such as hierarchical cluster modeling) in that its units of measurement are standardized across the entire data matrix as a product of the ranking procedure (Stephenson, 1936; Brown, 1972; Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). The linearity assumption of traditional correlational analysis is satisfied in Q methodology by the transitivity implicit in the ranking task.

<sup>79</sup> As recommended by Brown (1980, p. 207), Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients for forced distribution data were calculated using the specification:

$$r = 1 - \frac{\sum d^2}{2Ns^2}$$

where *r* is the Pearson's product-moment coefficient between any two Q sorts; *N* is the number of variables (sorts) in the matrix,  $s^2$  is the forced variance of the Q sorting template, and  $\sum d^2$  is the sum of squared differences between the statement rankings. By convention, the -4 to +4 sorting template used in the current study produced constant mean (0) and variance (4.36) values.

given Q design, the present analysis generated a correlation matrix of 37 x 37 cases. The correlation matrix is merely a transitional tool in the factor analytic process, but nonetheless offers initial insight into the participant data. All correlation coefficients were positive, and ranged from +.04 to +.82 with a mean value of +.52. This preliminary observation is suggestive of incremental, rather than categorical, variation between the emergent factors in that no clear polarity is evident among the rough sorts.

### **Factor Extraction and Rotation**

The process by which dominant points of view are extracted from a Q dataset is generally indistinct from that used in other methods (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Two main factoring procedures have been widely used in Q methodology: centroid extraction and principal components analysis. Centroid extraction was preferred by early writers due to its computational simplicity, but current researchers now tend to favor the more mathematically elaborate principal components method (Brown, 1980).<sup>80</sup>

The current project used principal components analysis as its factor extraction technique. Generally speaking, the chief goal of the extraction process is to identify the underlying, unobserved meta-variables that account for shared variance in the dataset. In principal components analysis, factor extraction is performed through matrix algebra operations conducted on covariance matrices of inputted data (Smith, 2002). Linear eigenvectors are derived from clusters of association as implied by the covariance matrix, and eigenvalues are computed that express the relative strengths of these vectors.

Eigenvectors approximate the line-of-best-fit concept from regression procedures, and

---

<sup>80</sup> Brown (1980) reiterates that the choice of factoring procedure is not statistically important, summarizing that, "In essence, factor analysis is merely a complicated tautology which serves to break down a correlation coefficient into its component parts," (p. 223). Zwick and Velicer (1986) follow that principal components analysis represents, "an eigendecomposition of the  $P \times P$  sample correlation matrix," (p. 433.)

indicate the most efficient representation of shared variance between multiple variables.

The eigenvector generating the single highest eigenvalue (*i.e.*, capturing the greatest magnitude of covariance) is referred to as the “principal component,” with subsequent, lower-order vectors being extracted in succession based on residual variance.

Eigenvectors, or *factors*, serve the goal of summarizing major sorting patterns, or “family resemblances” across multiple Q sorts (Brown, 1980).

The principal components analysis with varimax rotation performed on the current data seemed to recommend a two factor solution.<sup>81</sup> Initial attempts to allow for additional factors resulted both in high factor intercorrelation and in widespread mixed factor loadings, both of which are conditions that obscure the search for an interpretable factor structure.<sup>82</sup> This high level of factor intercorrelation was unsurprising given the aforementioned high degree of statistical association in the original correlation matrix.

The initial principal components analysis produced a total of seven factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, though as is often the case in unrotated factor matrices, the

---

<sup>81</sup> Zwick and Velicer (1986) suggest that retained components must have at least three significant loadings, and that all retained factors should have an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Beyond these statistical criteria, however, Brown (1978), McKeown and Thomas (1988), and Thomas and Baas (1992) emphasize the importance of *theoretical* considerations in settling on a final set of derived factors. These authors note that theoretically meaningful points of view may fail to reach conventional statistical thresholds for importance.

<sup>82</sup> Factor loadings are correlation coefficients that express the extent to which particular Q sorts are similar to an underlying factor; as such, a squared factor loading expresses the percentage of a subject’s response variance that is accounted for by the factor (Brown, 1980). One can determine the proportion of total variance accounted for by each factor by dividing the factor’s eigenvalue (*i.e.*, the sum of all squared loadings) by the total number of sorts in the matrix (Brown, 1978). A word of explanation also is necessary regarding the rotation of factorized data. Rotation is a graphical abstraction that is imposed on factor loadings from the original principal components analysis. Principal components analysis generates initial factor loadings that describe the extent to which individual Q sorts correlate with each derived cluster of association. Factor loadings can then be superimposed on a grid plane and treated like positional coordinates in factor space. Factors are “rotated” through the original coordinates in order to shift the axes closer to groups of loadings or theoretically significant loadings, with the goal of bringing loadings close zero on all but one factor (Agresti & Finlay, 1997). With new axes in place, original loadings are relabeled with coordinates relative to the shifted framework. Modified loadings allow for cleaner factor saturation, and produce more interpretable results. The “varimax” rotation strategy used in this study seeks to maximize the squared loadings (*i.e.*, explained variance) of each factor and reveal a “simple structure” between factor loadings (Kim & Mueller, 1978). This method is a prevailing approach in factor analytic applications, including Q methodology (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988).

vast majority of variance was attributable to the principal component ( $\lambda=19.97$ ). The rotated factor matrix for the two-factor solution is provided in Table 11. No null loadings were recorded in this solution, which produced a sum of squared loadings figure of 22.0 and accounted for 59.4% of the total Q sort variance.<sup>83</sup> Yet it can be seen that even after rotation, a number of mixed-loaded cases (that is, those with statistically significant loadings on multiple factors) remained in the dataset.<sup>84</sup>

Table 11

*Rotated Factor Matrix for Two-Factor Solution*

Subject ID	Factor A Loading	Factor B Loading	Subject ID	Factor A Loading	Factor B Loading
1	<b>0.599</b>	0.151	19	0.222	<b>0.655</b>
2	<b>0.713</b>	<b>0.440</b>	20	0.150	<b>0.765</b>
3	0.335	0.385	21	<b>0.416</b>	<b>0.742</b>
4	<b>0.643</b>	<b>0.495</b>	22	-0.008	<b>0.636</b>
5	<b>0.622</b>	<b>0.480</b>	23	<b>0.604</b>	<b>0.578</b>
6	<b>0.686</b>	<b>0.511</b>	24	<b>0.615</b>	0.352
7	<b>0.669</b>	0.285	25	<b>0.426</b>	<b>0.564</b>
8	<b>0.721</b>	0.369	26	<b>0.682</b>	0.395
9	<b>0.801</b>	0.222	27	<b>0.600</b>	0.353
10	<b>0.526</b>	<b>0.643</b>	28	<b>0.515</b>	<b>0.431</b>
11	0.298	<b>0.717</b>	29	<b>0.672</b>	0.132
12	<b>0.476</b>	<b>0.664</b>	30	<b>0.784</b>	0.375
13	<b>0.574</b>	<b>0.560</b>	31	<b>0.433</b>	<b>0.728</b>
14	<b>0.719</b>	<b>0.486</b>	32	<b>0.494</b>	<b>0.465</b>
15	<b>0.782</b>	0.108	33	<b>0.634</b>	<b>0.409</b>
16	0.396	<b>0.667</b>	34	<b>0.783</b>	<b>0.456</b>
17	<b>0.757</b>	0.353	35	<b>0.509</b>	0.312
18	<b>0.647</b>	0.364	36	<b>0.795</b>	0.175
(cont.)	(cont.)	(cont.)	37	<b>0.650</b>	<b>0.448</b>
Eigenvalue:				13.144	8.820
Variance (%):				35.523	23.837

Note: Bold font indicates a statistically significant factor loading ( $\alpha=.01$ ).

<sup>83</sup> Total explained variance is derived by dividing a factor's eigenvalue by the number in the P-set ( $n=37$ ).

<sup>84</sup> For  $\alpha=.01$ , statistical significance of factor loadings is defined by the function  $2.58 [SE]$ , where  $SE$  (standard error) is equal to one (1) divided by the square root of the number of items in the statement sample. For purposes of this study, this number is 0.408 (or 0.310 for  $\alpha=.05$ ).

To resolve the problem of mixed loadings, sorts were defined (*i.e.*, flagged as being representative of a factor) manually through the *PQMethod* platform. This approach was preferred to the automatic flagging of cases by *PQMethod* in that the manual approach would assure that no mixed cases would be used in the computation of factor arrays. Altogether, five “pure” cases (sorts 1, 9, 15, 29, and 36) were flagged for factor A and three such cases (19, 20, and 22) were flagged for factor B.<sup>85</sup> The resultant factor arrays (discussed below) produced a final inter-factor Pearson’s *r* of .392.

### **Factor Scores and Factor Arrays**

Factor scores are computed after all rotation is complete, and serve as the chief means for identifying defining statements for each factor. According to McKeown and Thomas (1988), “factor scores are essentially weighted z-scores for each statement in the Q-sample; these can be reconverted into an array of scores corresponding to the +5 to -5 values used in the original Q-sort continuum,” (p. 18). The broader “factor array” mentioned here refers to the composite Q sort generated for each factor using the scores from all participants loading cleanly on each factor.<sup>86</sup> This process bears semblance to the phenomenological concept of *horizontalization*, and the information leveraged by the factor arrays is vital for factor interpretation (Moustakas, 1994).

For any given factor, the factor array is constructed by merging the Q sorts of purely-loaded subjects.<sup>87</sup> Factor weights are computed for each defining sort as a function of loading magnitude; those participants who most closely approximate a given

---

<sup>85</sup> Loadings for all flagged cases were significant at  $\alpha=.01$ .

<sup>86</sup> A hypothetical way to think about factor arrays is this: The factor array provides a map for what would be produced if *a factor itself* could complete a Q sort. The factor scores that compose the factor array reveal the relative importance of each statement within the factor.

<sup>87</sup> Q sorts whose variance is accounted for by multiple factors are confounding in factor score computation, a condition that underscores the importance of avoiding the use of mixed cases in the creation of factor arrays. Especially in the current project, where participants tended to load on both factors, identifying the handful of “factor exemplars” was crucial for purposes of interpretation.

factor are weighted most in shaping the factor array.<sup>88</sup> Factor weights are then applied to composited raw score matrices in such a way that the relative position of each statement within individual arrays, as expressed through z-scores, is determined.<sup>89</sup> In the last stage, z-scores are transformed into whole numbers analogous to the original sorting template (e.g., -4 to +4). To ease readability, Table 12 provides a reproduction of the sorting template used in the current study. This distribution similarly depicts the distribution of factor scores for both analyzed factors.

Table 12

*Q Sort Distribution*

	<i>Most Disagree</i>				<i>Neutral/ NA</i>	<i>Most Agree</i>			
Value	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
Items (No.)	2	3	5	6	8	6	5	3	2

The procedures outlined above were completed in the current analysis as part of the *PQMethod* programming routine. Computed z-scores, ranks, and converted factor scores for all forty Q statements are presented in Table 13. The provided factor arrays help to illuminate the conceptual structure of each factor's composite Q sort. The interpretive analysis of these factor arrays is given full attention in the following sections.

<sup>88</sup> Raw factor weights are calculated using the formula:

$$w_X^A = \frac{f}{1 - f^2}$$

where  $w_X^A$  is subject  $X$ 's factor weight on factor  $A$  and  $f$  is the subject's factor loading (Brown, 1980, p. 240). Factor weights are then converted into multiplier coefficients by multiplying each factor weight by the absolute value of one (1) divided by the largest factor weight among the group of defining sorts.

<sup>89</sup> Z-scores are calculated using the traditional formula:

$$z = \frac{T - \bar{x}_T}{s_T}$$

where  $T$  is the sum of weighted response values for all defining sorts for a given statement,  $\bar{x}_T$  is the mean weighted response value across all statements, and  $s_T$  is the standard deviation of summed weighted response values. According to Brown (1980), the use of z-scores, "removes the arbitrary effect of the number of subjects associated with (a given factor)," (p. 243).

Table 13

*Z-Scores and Ranks for Statement Sample*

No.	Statement	Factor A			Factor B		
		Z-Score	Rank	Score	Z-Score	Rank	Score
1	I believe in putting duty before self.	-0.07	20	0	0.85	8	2
2	I am proud to be working for this organization.	0.82	12	1	1.76	2	4
3	It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.	-1.35	37	-3	-1.54	37	-3
4	A good administrator will expose what he/she views as unethical conduct, even if that activity is not against the law.	0.49	16	1	0.45	14	1
5	I am committed to my campus and its stakeholders.	1.04	9	2	1.50	3	3
6	I actively recommend policy positions that represent general public needs and interests.	1.03	10	2	-1.67	38	-3
7	I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.	1.86	1	4	-0.06	24	0
8	"Politics" is a dirty word.	-1.17	34	-2	-1.21	35	-2
9	I have a very strong desire to be a success in this world.	-0.17	23	0	1.07	5	3
10	Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	0.55	15	1	0.37	18	0
11	The greatest prosperity results from the greatest possible productivity of the people in the organization.	-0.36	26	-1	0.33	19	0
12	I rarely think about the welfare of people I don't know personally.	-1.10	33	-2	-1.31	36	-3
13	In terms of my career, it is important to me to create a secure and comfortable future.	-0.33	25	-1	0.41	15	1
14	Bureaucratic systems are wasteful and inefficient.	-0.89	29	-1	0.48	12	1
15	I enjoy the social position in the community that comes with my job.	0.04	19	0	0.07	23	0
16	In my role, efficiency is more important than equity or fairness.	-1.48	38	-3	-0.90	32	-2
17	I take pleasure in getting chances to "rub elbows" with important people.	-0.99	32	-2	-0.28	27	-1
18	I often wonder about my job security.	-1.18	35	-2	0.16	22	0
19	I like to see rewards go to the more entrepreneurial units on campus.	0.41	17	0	0.66	9	2
20	My work as an administrator fits into a pluralist decision making system in which many competing actors have a part.	1.02	11	1	0.99	6	2



21	To me, the phrase “duty, honor, and country” stirs deeply felt emotions.	-1.26	36	-3	0.39	16	1
22	Serving others would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.	0.66	13	1	0.38	17	0
23	I tend to tell people what I like and what I don't like, and what I want them to do.	-0.94	30	-1	1.22	4	3
24	The give and take of policy making appeals to me.	1.35	3	3	-0.22	26	-1
25	I would prefer seeing campus officials do what is best for the larger community, even if it harmed the school's interests.	-0.16	22	0	-1.79	39	-4
26	I would like to be able to work for my organization as long as I wish.	-0.21	24	0	0.27	20	0
27	The buck stops here. I need to be accountable to stakeholders.	0.17	18	0	0.45	14	1
28	If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off.	1.09	6	2	-1.04	34	-2
29	Doing well financially is more important to me than doing good deeds.	-1.72	40	-4	-0.68	30	-1
30	Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	1.25	4	3	0.92	7	2
31	Campuses must be risk takers.	1.09	7	2	-0.34	28	-1
32	One of my key responsibilities is successfully growing the institution's operations and capacity.	0.59	14	1	0.58	10	2
33	I try to act in a manner that is open and visible to relevant stakeholders, both on and off campus.	1.37	2	4	0.56	11	1
34	What happens to this organization is really important to me.	1.23	5	3	1.95	1	4
35	I would find it very satisfying to be able to form new friendships with whomever I liked.	-0.44	27	-1	0.22	21	0
36	I believe everyone has a moral commitment to public affairs no matter how busy they are.	-0.10	21	0	-0.18	25	-1
37	People may talk about the public interest, but they are really concerned about their self interest.	-0.55	28	-1	-0.78	31	-2
38	My job does not give me a strong feeling of accomplishment.	-1.71	39	-4	-2.44	40	-4
39	Service to humanity is the best work of life.	1.07	8	2	-0.99	33	-2
40	I want the respect I deserve for my work.	-0.96	31	-2	-0.60	29	-1

## Findings and Interpretation

Creswell (1997) calls on phenomenologists to create “textural descriptions” of the shared meaning that emerges from contextual field data. In Q methodology, the interpretation of field data – factor analyzed Q sorts – is rooted in the evaluation of factor arrays. Two different strategies may be employed for this purpose (Durning & Osuna, 1994). First, analysis may focus on the complete factor arrays *within* individual factors, noting the statements that define the landscape of factor score distributions. Second, factor arrays may be explored with primary attention paid to *between*-factors differences, that is, the distinctive aspects of each factor. This report makes use of both approaches, but tends toward the latter strategy given the high degree of correlation between the factors.

A word about the geometric properties of the factors is in order. As has been noted in earlier discussion, the principal components analysis and varimax rotation of the study’s Q sort data resulted in two factor arrays that were correlated at a level of  $r = .392$ . Further, the tendency for subjects to load positively on both factors suggested a dual unipolar loading distribution. Figure 2 illustrates this spatial configuration with a scatter plot of rotated factor loadings, with flagged cases highlighted.

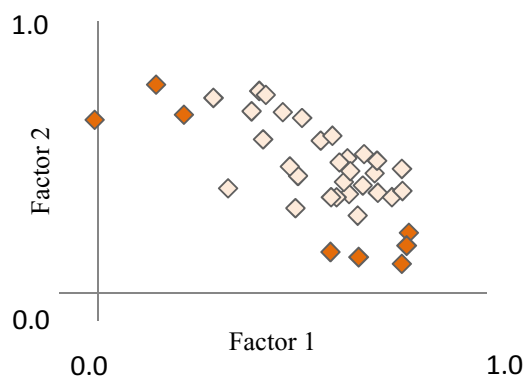


Figure 2. Scatter Plot of Rotated Factor Loadings.

The plots shown in this figure indicate that the factor loadings generated by the Q instrument were not orthogonal but rather were obliquely related. *The absence of statistical independence between factor loadings leads to the conclusion that the two perspectives voiced by the study's participants were not mutually exclusive.* Subjects tended not to reject either factor outright, but instead tended to accept both to varying degrees. Indeed, most participants occupied a middle ground that shared characteristics with two “ideal types” (discussed below).<sup>90</sup> This prevalent interweaving of viewpoints is depicted graphically in Figure 3, which emphasizes the general unity of the respondent pool. Despite this considerable overlap, a smaller subset of participants expressed a relatively pure alignment with one pole or the other, and these accounts provide the leverage needed to examine the normative structure of each factor.

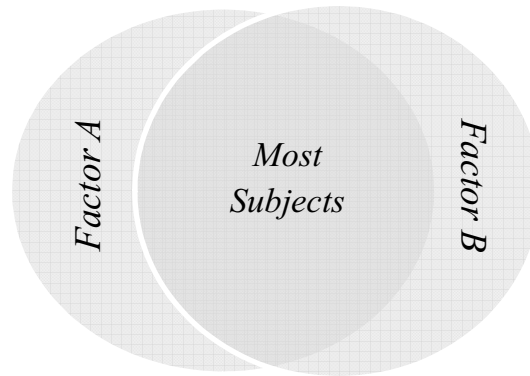


Figure 3. Venn Representation of Shared Factor Space

Each of the two factors represents a different stance toward the statement sample, and ostensibly, a different administrative orientation. Interpretation of individual factors centers on the description of the common discourse expressed by each factor's composite

<sup>90</sup> Stephenson (1936) asserted that, “Persons who correlate together, or who are saturated with the same factor in Q-technique, obviously are alike in some respect. In a sense they approximate to a *type*,” (p. 356).

array of scores. In the following sections, an integrated summary of defining Q statements for each factor is given, supported by a comparison of factor scores produced by each cluster of likeminded respondents.

### **Factor A: Societal Trusteeship**

Participants loading on factor A convey a humanistic concern for external society, and view themselves as members of an interconnected world. They understand themselves as promoters of the public interest, and embrace a sense of responsibility for facilitating social equity. This external orientation permeates not only these participants' common sense of vocational scope and purpose, but also their shared societal telos.

These views are underpinned by factor scores from the following statements:<sup>91</sup>

- Statement 7: *I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.* (+4 0)<sup>† 92</sup>
- Statement 6: *I actively recommend policy positions that represent general public needs and interests.* (+2 -3)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 28: *If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off.* (+2 -2)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 39: *Service to humanity is the best work of life.* (+2 -2)<sup>†</sup>

<sup>91</sup> Following each statement, values in parentheses display the factor scores for factors A and B, respectively. Factor scores range from -4 (most disagree) to +4 (most agree). Those statements that were “distinguishing” (*i.e.*, generated significant factor score differences from the other factor) are flagged († for  $\alpha=.01$ , ‡ for  $\alpha=.05$ ). Statistical significance is indicated by a between-factors z-score difference ( $z_{A-B}$ ) greater than 2.58 (for 99.0% confidence) or 1.96 (for 95.0% confidence) times the *standard error of the difference* ( $SED_{A-B}$ ) between z-score distributions, as given by:  $SED_{A-B} = \sqrt{SE_A^2 - SE_B^2}$ . In this formula, standard error (*SE*) is calculated as  $SE_x = s_x\sqrt{1 - r_x}$ , where  $s_x$  is the standard deviation of the Q distribution and  $r_x$  is the estimated reliability coefficient for factor  $x$ . Factor reliability is given by the formula:

$$r_x = \frac{0.80p}{1+(p-1)0.80},$$

where  $p$  is the number of sorts defining a factor and 0.80 is the intra-person test-retest reliability estimate for statement sorting (Brown, 1980, pp. 244-246).

<sup>92</sup> This statement attracted the highest z-score for this factor.

This configuration of statements suggests that *societal trustees* (e.g., participants with high factor loadings on factor A) are fundamentally concerned with the improvement of macro-level social conditions, and further that they appear willing to take an active role in that venture by way of institutional channels. These observations seem to comport with participants' treatment of statements reflecting altruistic orientations to society. They firmly reject the primacy of financial remuneration as a meaningful professional reward, and also underscore the salience of service to humanity as a powerful motivator.

- Statement 29: *Doing well financially is more important to me than doing good deeds.* (-4 -1)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 30: *Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.* (+3 +2)

The concern for public well-being indicated by the above statements also seems to extend to these participants' conceptions of appropriate managerial conduct. *Societal trustees* are marked by a desire to foster administrative transparency, as well as a rejection of the notion that the need for efficiency overrides the competing value of equity. Both observations suggest that administrators of this disposition tend to ascribe some level of importance to the notion of stakeholder deference.

- Statement 33: *I try to act in a manner that is open and visible to relevant stakeholders, both on and off campus.* (+4 +1)<sup>‡</sup>
- Statement 16: *In my role, efficiency is more important than equity or fairness.* (-3 -2)

Participants' appraisals of certain facets of the administrative task environment also are revealing. Specifically, *societal trustees* show a favorable view of the policymaking enterprise. Responses are suggestive of a personal affinity for the consensus-building aspects of the policy process, as well as distaste for the insinuation that "politics" is a pejorative concept. At the same time, these administrators do not appear to relish the opportunity to fraternize with other power elites.

- Statement 24: *The give and take of policy making appeals to me.* (+3 -1)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 8: *"Politics" is a dirty word.* (-2 -2)
- Statement 17: *I take pleasure in getting chances to "rub elbows" with important people.* (-2 -1)<sup>‡</sup>

Further, in comparison with factor B administrators (discussed below), participants aligning with the *societal trusteeship* factor tend to be more dismissive about the importance of one's occupational prospects. These participants seem to experience little anxiety regarding their job security, and similarly downplay the need to establish steady footing within the professional ranks.

- Statement 18 *I often wonder about my job security.* (-2 0)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 13: *In terms of my career, it is important to me to create a secure and comfortable future.* (-1 +1)<sup>‡</sup>

### **Factor B: Organizational Stewardship**

Whereas *societal trustees* are fundamentally oriented toward society at large, *organizational stewards* are distinguished by the emphasis they place on their own institutions. Theirs is a distinctively internal perspective, one which focuses diligently on the welfare of their organizations. They are critically concerned with the operational

management of their institutions, and tout their on-campus labors as a source of pride. Further, their attention to the internal affairs of their institutions begets a high degree of personal commitment to their respective organizations. Both of the two highest-ranked statements in the factor array for this group (Statements 34 and 2) were distinguishing between the factors.

- Statement 2: *I am proud to be working for this organization.* (+1 +4)<sup>†93</sup>
- Statement 34: *What happens to this organization is really important to me.* (+3 +4)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 5: *I am committed to my campus and its stakeholders.* (+2 +3)

This pronounced sense of responsibility to the organization is coupled with a drive for personal control and professional achievement. Compared with their *societal trustee* counterparts, *organizational stewards* report a tendency to exert control when dealing with others and to disapprove of bureaucratic mechanisms. These characteristics seem consistent with stereotypical images of the “take charge” manager, and reinforce these participants’ robust aspirations for professional success. At the same time, the *organizational stewardship* view does not appear to be associated with autocratic leanings, as its adherents also view favorably the notion of pluralist decision making.

- Statement 23: *I tend to tell people what I like and what I don’t like, and what I want them to do.* (-1 +3)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 14: *Bureaucratic systems are wasteful and inefficient.* (-1 +1)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 2: *I have a very strong desire to be a success in this world.* (0 +3)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 20: *My work as an administrator fits into a pluralist decision making system in which many competing actors have a part.* (+1 +2)

<sup>93</sup> As above, parenthetical values refer to factor scores for factors A and B, respectively.

*Organizational stewards*, then, tended to place on the positive end of the Q sorting distribution statements related to organizational well-being and a goal-directed personal orientation. On the opposite (negative) pole of the sorting continuum, these administrators defined themselves in ways seemingly antithetical to the alternative factor perspective. In particular, *organizational stewards* expressed skepticism with the idea that institutional priorities should be subjugated in the interest of the public good:

- Statement 25: *I would prefer seeing campus officials do what is best for the larger community, even if it harmed the school's interests.* (0 -4)<sup>†</sup>

As noted in the previous section, *organizational stewards* similarly took exception to other statements inviting an activist role in social affairs.<sup>94</sup> The main thrust of these appraisals seems to tender a general attitude of dismissiveness toward the idea of deliberate (institutional) action on behalf of society in general. Perhaps unexpectedly then, these administrators diverge from *societal trustees* in their handling of statements expressing positive valence toward a divestment of the self out of a sense of duty.

- Statement 1: *I believe in putting duty before self.* (0 +2)<sup>†</sup>
- Statement 21: *To me, the phrase "duty, honor, and country" stirs deeply felt emotions.* (-3 +1)<sup>†</sup>

Also in stark contrast to *societal trustees*, *organizational stewards* express a lack of affection for the policy making process (Statement 24) and a less visceral reaction to the role of financial motives (Statement 29). This perspective seems slightly more disposed to favor an entrepreneurial, pro-growth administrative agenda, though not through high-risk organizational strategies:

---

<sup>94</sup> This observation refers specifically to statements 6, 28, and 39. Because factor score differentials for these statements were already presented in the discussion of the *societal trusteeship* factor, they are not reproduced here.



- Statement 19: *I like to see rewards go to the entrepreneurial units on campus.*  
(0 +2)
- Statement 32: *One of my key responsibilities is successfully growing the institution's operations and capacity.* (+1 +2)
- Statement 31: *Campuses must be risk takers.* (+2 -1)<sup>‡</sup>

### Summary of Factors

In summary, two factors were pinpointed by the study's factor analytic procedure. These factors represent two different orderings of the Q statement sample, and thus two different administrative points of view. Understanding the essential qualities of these factors requires an inspection of the relationships both between and within their respective structures. On this note, it is important at the outset to recap two major observations about the factors and their constituents.

First, it is clear that the factors are not dichotomously populated. The raw Q sorts gathered by the study tended to be positively correlated with one another, and 17 of the study's 37 participants generated significant loadings on both factors. The prevalence of mixed factor loadings points to the possibility that, rather than bisecting participants into two separate groups, the Q sample instead activated two different dimensions of a unitary but complex managerial schema. This possibility is further borne out by the observation that, even after limiting the extraction of z-score arrays to the purely-loading "true believers" of each factor, the factors still show evidence of normative overlap.

This certainly is not to say that the factors are indistinct. A number of deep fissures are indicated by the factors arrays. In general, *societal trustees* exhibit an externally-oriented, humanist perspective. This point of view underscores a need for

social equity and communicates a willingness to apply organizational policies to the benefit of the broader public. Perhaps consequently, transparency and fairness are underscored as administrative values. The policy process is seen as an appealing endeavor, though likely not due to the opportunities it affords for socializing with elites. Financial compensation is rebuffed as a professional motivator, and job security is not a pressing consideration.

The second factor is defined by its strong sense of *organizational stewardship*. The welfare of the institution is of primary interest, and this measure of concern fosters prevailing feelings of organizational involvement, pride, and even a sense of duty. The broader needs of society are seen as legitimate concerns, but not a realistic object of institutional resources. This administrative perspective is somewhat more growth-oriented and entrepreneurial than its counterpart, and finds little satisfaction in bureaucratic mechanisms or the policy process. On a personal level, professional success is of keen significance, and personal assertiveness is a defining characteristic.

With these overviews in mind, qualitative differences between the factors should be clear. But as implied above, the factors are by no means purely adversarial, and demonstrate several points of contact. First, both factors are marked by prominent feelings of professional accomplishment.<sup>95</sup> Both factors flatly reject the assertion that work does not engender a sense of achievement, but at the same time are lukewarm to the idea that this satisfaction is derived from social recognition.<sup>96</sup> Second, while the *organizational stewardship* viewpoint is especially characterized by its intra-organizational orientation, feelings of attachment to one's campus weigh prominently for

---

<sup>95</sup> Statement 38: *My job does not give me a strong sense of accomplishment.* (-4 -4)

<sup>96</sup> Statement 15: *I enjoy the social position in the community that comes with my job.* (0 0); Statement 40: *I want the respect I deserve for my work.* (-2 -1)

*societal trustees* as well. Alignment with either factor entails an ongoing commitment to one's current institution along with a high concern for its welfare.<sup>97</sup> Finally, *societal trustees* are not alone in their contemplation of social conditions. Indeed, both factor types can be seen to involve some extent of reflection about community issues, though *societal trustees* appear more apt to consider an interventional role for their institutions.<sup>98</sup>

\*\*\*

This analysis identified two distinct administrative orientations among its participant pool, orientations that may hold meaning for many constituencies – both inside and outside – of higher education. Clearly though, the study's theoretical framework and statement concourse were such that the two perspectives emerging from the study are not the *only* perspectives one might find among the ranks of higher education leadership. With this natural delimitation in mind, the closing chapter returns to the notion of the public service orientation, and considers the ways in which the current findings might be brought to bear on the relevant public administration literature.

---

<sup>97</sup> Statement 34: *What happens to this organization is really important to me.* (+3 +4)<sup>‡</sup>; Statement 5: *I am committed to my campus and its stakeholders.* (+2 +3)

<sup>98</sup> Statement 3: *It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.* (-3 -3); Statement 12: *I rarely think about the welfare of people I don't know personally.* (-2 -3); Statement 30: *Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.* (+3 +2)

## CHAPTER 5

### Summary, Conclusions, Discussion, and Recommendations

#### Introduction

This report closes with a complete review of the goals, method, and outcomes of the current study. First, the chapter provides a concise overview of the project's purpose and research question, supporting literature, analytic technique, and findings. Next, conclusions are offered regarding the two operant factors revealed by the study, followed by discussion of the factors in view of the broader scholarly literature. The dissertation concludes by offering several possible directions for future research.

#### Summary

##### Context, Purpose, and Research Question

The current epoch in higher education is one marked by great change. Post-secondary education has long been associated with a host of public purposes, many of which are underpinned by structural ties to government proper. However, state and local governments – once a chief patron of US colleges and universities – have shown an increasing disinclination to support higher education through direct appropriations (Esposito, 2010). For most colleges and universities, and particularly public institutions, the burden of covering operational costs has gradually fallen to other sources, including student tuition and fees, research grants and contracts, and private fundraising. The consequent marketization of higher education has left many observers wondering about the status of public interest values in the modern academe.

With the above context in mind, the current project was undertaken as a means to examine the administrative orientations of higher education executives. Specifically, the

study pursued a single, overarching research question: “What normative perspectives constitute the administrative orientations of higher education administrators?” More specifically however, the project sought to shed light on these administrators’ viewpoints with respect to the “public service orientation.” This concept emanates from the public administration literature, and suggests that traditional public managers approach their work with an ingrained sense of responsibility to serve the public interest. Taking this idea as its conceptual framework, the research sought to explore the aspects of administrative worldview that are most relevant to the public service orientation literature. Overall, the study was carried out so as to better understand the managerial perspectives of higher education leaders, and also to provide new insight on the public service orientation.

### **Supporting Literature**

Observers of the public sector have long contended that, with regard to professional values and motives, “government is different.” Early authors, such as Barnard (1938), Appleby (1945), and Mosher (1968), offered descriptive accounts of the unique normative perspective held by public sector employees. According to these writers, public workers are expected to operate from a broad and deep-rooted sense of duty to the public interest, underpinned by a range of bureaucratic and democratic ideals.

Empirical descriptions of the public service orientation have centered on several substantive areas. First, public sector personnel are thought to embrace a unique array of personal and administrative values, including accountability, effectiveness, empathy, responsiveness, and self-sacrifice (Nalbandian & Edwards, 1983; Posner & Schmidt,

1996; Perry, 1996).<sup>99</sup> Second, a number of personality factors – such as humanitarianism and the sensed need for job security – have similarly been posited as illustrative of the public service orientation (Brewer, 2003; Baldwin, 1987; Houston, 2000). Third, public employees have been linked to several behavioral and attitudinal predictors, including high civic participation and low job satisfaction (Houston, 2006; Rainey, 1989). Finally, public sector workers consistently have been associated with a preference for intrinsic rewards over economic incentives (Rainey, 1982; Crewson, 1997).

Importantly, the above literature only on rare occasion has focused on quasi-public organizations (Wittmer, 1991; Goulet, 2002). Higher education executives in particular have received meager interest from public administration scholars interested in illuminating the public service orientation. Further, virtually no studies on the public service orientation have attempted to illuminate the comprehensive perspectives of their research participants. Most studies in this area have proceeded from quantitative designs that pay little attention to the phenomenological aspects of the public service orientation. It was the aim of the current analysis to address both of these shortcomings.

### **Methodology and Findings**

This project employed Q methodology, a taxonomic approach based on the factor analysis of data gleaned from a specialized card sorting task. The Q instrument was designed using the factorial approach advised by the methodological literature (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Each of the study's 40 statements reflected some stance on one of the many values, needs, attitudes, and reward preferences that have been associated (either positively or negatively) by previous researchers with the public service orientation.

---

<sup>99</sup> Citations are partial. See Chapter 2 for complete discussion of relevant works.

Participants were recruited from several different institutional categories, including all possible combinations of four-year, two-year, public, private, proprietary, and non-proprietary institutions. The selection process was theoretical, and participants were recruited through an invitation letter and follow-up phone calls. The final participant group included 37 active or retired senior administrators – including presidents, academic or administrative vice presidents, and academic deans – from four states (South Dakota, Iowa, Minnesota, and North Dakota). The group included a mix of titular roles, experience levels, and institutional sizes. Q sorts were collected in-person by the researcher during February and March 2011.

Two operant factors emerged from the study's Q sort data. The *societal trusteeship* perspective entails a fundamental concern for external constituencies, and sees the academe as a viable mechanism for improving society *en masse*. This viewpoint perceives a high level of dependence between people, and thus sees service to humanity as an important motivator. Financial success is eschewed as a personal goal. This view is suggestive of a transparency- and equity-seeking administrator, one who is invigorated by the policy making process. The *organizational stewardship* viewpoint is defined by a preoccupation with and commitment to one's institution. The organization is extolled as an imminent source of personal pride. This perspective seems to feature a preference for non-bureaucratic power structures, and suggests a measure of ambitiousness, as well as modest concerns for entrepreneurship and organizational growth. While this orientation may be grounded to some extent in a pressing sense of duty and by a personal interest in serving society, the prospect of sacrificing institutional interests for the benefit of the general public is resolutely rejected.

## Conclusions: Split Decision or Split Personality?

The study's research question asked: "What normative perspectives constitute the administrative orientations of higher education administrators?" In other words, how do senior college officials see and make sense of their administrative roles? The results of the current study are both useful and agonizingly ambiguous. While the study's analysis of Q sort data indicates the presence of two administrative standpoints, the broader phenomenological meaning of this two factor solution is subject to interpretation. Consequently, at least two possible interpretations of the factors seem reasonable. This section considers both, in order of parsimony.

On one hand, the two factors can be seen as dichotomous, rival orientations. This interpretation would conclude that the qualitative differences between the factors are such that the universe of college administrators is largely bifurcated into two disparate groups of partisans. Indeed, that the current study would identify multiple prominent perspectives should come as no surprise in view of the extant literature on campus administrators. A host of researchers, including Kerr and Gade (1986), Neumann (1987), Birnbaum (1989), and Eddy (2005), have concluded that college and university executives tend to ground their conceptions of leadership and organizational strategy in a variety of perspectives.

The factors are, to be sure, distinct in important ways. Of the forty statements included in the Q instrument, eight generated factor score differences of four or greater.<sup>100</sup> Many of these statements seem to reflect profoundly different orientations to the world and society:

---

<sup>100</sup> A factor score (*i.e.*, z-score) difference of this magnitude indicates statistical significance at  $\alpha=.01$ .



- Statement 6: *I actively recommend policy positions that represent general public needs and interests.* (+2 -3)
- Statement 7: *I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.* (+4 0)
- Statement 25: *I would prefer seeing campus officials do what is best for the larger community, even if it harmed the school's interests.* (0 -4)
- Statement 28: *If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off.* (+2 -2)
- Statement 39: *Service to humanity is the best work of life.* (+2 -2)

The factors also differed in a number of other areas, including but not limited to their impressions of professional motivators (Statement 29), personal ambition and assertiveness (Statements 9 and 23), sense of duty (Statements 1 and 21), the policy making process (Statement 24), job security and professional stability (Statements 18 and 13), bureaucracy (Statement 14), organizational risk (Statement 31), and organizational pride and investment (Statements 2 and 34).<sup>101</sup> Taken together, the scope of divergence between the factors seems suggestive of real normative conflict, and this conflict could underpin a categorical difference in administrative orientation.

However, as was asserted in the preceding chapter, this “split decision” interpretation is seriously challenged by the study’s analytics. Nearly half of the study’s participants loaded significantly on both factors, and there was also evidence of a conceptual nexus between the factors themselves. Looking at the factor arrays for each factor, it can be seen that several points of view were held in common by even the purest specimens of the opposing perspectives. Both factors appear to be associated with a

<sup>101</sup> All of the above statements generated z-score differences that are significant at  $\alpha=.05$  or lower.

strong sense of professional accomplishment, commitment to one's campus, concern for the welfare of others, and an apparent disinterest in the social status derived from one's position:

- Statement 38: *My job does not give me a strong feeling of accomplishment.* (-4 -4)
- Statement 5: *I am committed to my campus and its stakeholders.* (+2 +3)
- Statement 12: *I rarely think about the welfare of people I don't know personally.* (-2 -3)
- Statement 3: *It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.* (-3 -3)
- Statement 15: *I enjoy the social position in the community that comes with my job.* (0 0)

These mixed loadings and partially overlapping factor scores combine to suggest a more compelling interpretation than the factors-as-rivals thesis. *Rather than bilateral adversaries, the two factors are likely to be semi-integrated shades of the same global orientation.* But what would account for the coexistence of views that, at least on the surface, seem somewhat conflicted if not largely contradictory? This question calls to mind the works of several earlier authors, including Cohen and March (1974) and Birnbaum and Eckel (2005). As outlined in Chapter 1, these authors propose that the college presidency is characterized by three main roles: administrator, politician, and entrepreneur. Each role comes with its own set of responsibilities and priorities, and each places different demands on the incumbent. Presidents and other senior college administrators are thus expected to oscillate – often on a daily basis – between the many “hats” of office.

It seems plausible that the myriad roles of the higher education executive are undergirded by a discrete set of cognitive schemata. Bolman and Deal (2008) assert that the use of “cognitive frames” is a behavioral hallmark of organizational leaders. According to these authors, a cognitive frame, “is a mental model – a set of ideas and assumptions – that you carry in your head to help you understand and negotiate a particular ‘territory’...the essence of this process is matching situational cues with a well-learned mental framework,” (p. 11). Similarly, Birnbaum and Eckel (2005, p. 359) refer to the “schemas of effectiveness” college executives construct as a means to reconcile perceived ambiguity in the workplace.<sup>102</sup> The net message here is that the complex task environments faced by college executives are met with correspondingly complex managerial orientations, and that the compartmental nodes of these broader orientations may be activated by contextual cues. In this view, it seems probable that the Q instrument simply tapped the *societal trusteeship schema* among some participants while eliciting the *organizational stewardship schema* among others.

Overall then, despite the presence of a limited number of pure partisans, most senior administrators align themselves – to varying degrees, and according to contextual triggers – with *both* perspectives. The two viewpoints are thus mutual constituents of shared normative space. This conclusion is warranted by the study’s original data, and further reflects a view offered by numerous previous theorists. In addition, initial verification work suggests that the study’s participants tend to concur with this

---

<sup>102</sup> One of the study’s participants, a cognitive psychologist by training, volunteered the opinion that senior college administrators tend to be “high self-monitors” and “high impression managers,” in that their positions require them to be both sensitive and responsive to situational cues.

assessment of the data.<sup>103</sup> According to feedback offered by two mixed-loaded respondents:

- I'd rather say option C, something in between the two options below...Personally, I think a blend of the two is best. The organization has to be healthy (profitable) if it is to be a leader in social equity and broader society values.
- I would say a combination of the 2 perspectives. I have a strong sense of social justice, but I also am committed to serving my organization and its staff, faculty, and students.

Post-hoc feedback from another participant highlights the fluid, situational nature of alignment with one perspective over the other, and consequently reinforces the primary conclusion of the analysis:

- I find myself intrigued by the two perspectives that you present. They are obviously not dichotomous, and I feel that both of them show in my own perspective of my position and the duties and obligations of the deanship. I would say that these are two differing themes in an average deanship, with one winning [sic] out over the other in particular circumstances. I would bet that you would find that people are very contextually oriented, and that in some instances they were A and some more 'B like'.

---

<sup>103</sup> As per discussion in Chapter 3, a subset (n=14) of the study's participant group was contacted (post-analysis) by the researcher for verification purposes. Preliminary descriptions of both factors were emailed to participants, who were then asked to identify the description that "sounds most like you."

The apparent blending of administrative perspectives seen in the current study would seem to bear important implications for the public service orientation literature. In particular, the above discussion may underscore a chief reason for the inconsistent or inconclusive findings that have sometimes marked this area of research. The next section takes up an examination of the conceptual points of contact between the public service orientation and the study's extracted factors.

### **Discussion: Post-Mortem on the Public Service Orientation**

At its outset, the current study was proposed not only as a means to explore the administrative orientations of college executives, but also as an attempt to flesh out the public service orientation in a previously untapped venue. The study so far has delayed discussion of the latter topic to avoid tainting the study's main interpretive content with "logiocategorical" commentary.<sup>104</sup> With a full account of the factors in hand, attention now returns to the public service orientation and its relationship to the present analysis. Hoping to keep firm footing in the study's natural context, this section leans heavily on free-response verbal accounts provided by participants during the dialogue that occurred after individual sorting sessions.

Overall, elements of both factors can be seen to resemble posited characteristics of the public service orientation. *Societal trustees*, for example, see service to humanity and social justice as pressing considerations (Statements 39 and 28), and appear disposed to address public interest goals through institutional policy (Statement 6). These sentiments would seem to typify touchstones of the public service orientation, as a

---

<sup>104</sup> Brown (1980) cautions researchers against the interpretation of Q factors along *a priori* empirical categories, out of concern that analysts may, "end up describing relationships among their own mental constructs rather than the (operant) reality upon which the constructs are superimposed," (p. 28, *parenthetical text added*).

number of writers have identified humanitarianism (Brewer, 2003), empathy and compassion (Perry, 1996) and social justice (Perry & Wise, 1990) as core descriptors of the public sector ethos. Several participants reiterated these considerations:

- I really think I belong in the public sector. I really have a heart for helping those who can't help themselves.
- And so that's been my career path...one that's kind of steered toward wanting to be of greater service to humankind and still have a position where I could use my organizational skills.
- Whether I was here or in another aspect of public finance, my motivation would be the public good, not just the university good. My allegiance is probably more to the broader notion of the public good than it necessarily is to the institution.

Importantly, this perspective is not confined to participants from public campuses only, but rather was found among public and private executives alike. Several of this factor's highest-loading participants, in fact, were administrators at private institutions. One former (private) college president explained his service-oriented perspective in terms of religious motives:

- I've always had a very strong commitment to the idea that one serves one's community. That is also a faith commitment. We tend in our culture, I think, to separate the two. But in fact I think the Christian person is called to serve his or her community, and that's always been a profound motivator for me.

Concerns for humanity and improving the conditions of society were described in a number of other ways. One campus president expressed dismay at the failure of his

governing board to “take care” of the institution’s blue-collar workers through cost-of-living wage adjustments. Another president discussed his campus’s efforts to convert a dilapidated property adjacent to the school into low-rent housing for single mother students. Several officials articulated a pronounced personal interest in improving institutional access for underserved student populations, particularly ethnic minorities and first-generation students. A number of participants also made ready reference to their involvement on volunteer citizen boards and other public service groups.

The *societal trusteeship* perspective seems to align well with the public service orientation in other ways. Ample scholarly works have linked the public service orientation to notions of self-sacrifice (Perry, 1996) and intrinsic, non-pecuniary motives (Crewson, 1997; Tait, 1997; Houston; 2000). Factor scores from statements 17, 29, and 30 would seem to characterize *societal trustees* as being grounded in much the same value orientation. Similarly, and as theorized by the research literature, *societal trustees* express a defining sense of obligation to administrative transparency and accountability (Statement 33). As echoed by the study’s participants:

- There’s been a strong trust developed over the last two hundred years plus, between those that we support and those that fund us. They give us freedom to operate, even though we think we’re always sort of intruded on. They trust us, they do have some level of accountability, but there’s a unique sort of social contract between the public higher education in the United States and the public that supports us.
- Most people view the office of provost as powerful; I view it as having a lot of responsibility and accountability.

Also mirroring the predictions of several authors (Perry, 1996; Coursey & Pandey, 2007), *societal trustees* show some level of attraction to the policy making process (Statements 24 and 8). Further, this factor's low appraisal of statement 16 supports earlier research that associates the public service orientation with low relative concern for administrative efficiency (Gabris & Simo, 1995; Posner & Schmidt, 1996).

However, the contours of this perspective are not entirely in the image of the public service orientation as proposed by empirical researchers. Unlike traditional conceptions of the public service ethic, *societal trustees* are defined by both a lack of concern for job security (Statement 18) as well as a relative disinterest in creating a stable professional future (Statement 13). These views represent a break from the conventional image of the stability-seeking bureaucrat (Kilpatrick, Cummings, & Jennings, 1964; Jurkiewicz, Massey, & Brown, 1998). *Societal trustees* also reject assertions of vocational dissatisfaction (Statement 38), and show little affinity for any prevailing sense of duty (Statements 21 and 1). Again, these views would seem to come into conflict with standard accounts of the public service orientation (Rainey, 1989; Steel & Warner, 1996).

Turning to the *organizational stewardship* perspective, traces of the public service orientation are a bit more elusive. At its core, this viewpoint entails a fundamentally internal focus. While the treatment of several statements (in particular, 12 and 3) suggests a personal recognition of social or community conditions, the broader factor array suggests that attention is principally devoted to enhancing the organization.<sup>105</sup> That this stance was found to exist as an alternative to the *societal trusteeship* viewpoint is not surprising given the literature's dreary view of job involvement and organizational

---

<sup>105</sup> As summarized by one college president: "In fact, your first obligation is to your institution and its success."



commitment among public service workers (Buchanan, 1974; Goulet, 2002).

*Organizational stewards'* stance on the topic of societal needs versus institutional needs is illustrated well by open-ended comments from this factor's high-loaders:

- My students and the employers that hire my students...I try to guide myself and guide the organization to focus on those two groups and the successful outcome of the interaction between those two groups. The actual administration and success of the organization simply happens because of satisfying those groups. As far as feeling the greater social environment, I find that has not been a big part of my motivation.
- I'm paid to educate. That's my job. It's not to decide on the politics or the fairness of the issues. I try to keep focused on what my job is, and make sure I do it.
- [Serving the public interest] is something I don't think about. It's something that I think happens just by virtue of the role that I have, but it's not why I drifted into the work that I do. I'm not here because I had this overwhelming desire to serve the public good.

Other participants noted that concern by campus executives for external institutional stakeholders has come under increasing tension in light of reduced public funding to higher education. A dean from a public, four-year institution spelled out the circumstances this way:

- When I started here 30 years ago, probably 60 percent of the university's budget came from the state. In this college we're now down to, I think it's dropped below 20. So, only about 19 percent of our budget is paid by the

state. So some people argue that we no longer owe anything to the state. Some of the colleges here really see themselves as private colleges within a public university. You'll hear legislators and you'll hear family members or citizens who will say 'my son or daughter should be able to get into (name of institution) because I pay taxes.' And I think at one point that was a good argument. But I think there's been a significant shift because of the funding base.

The *organizational stewardship* perspective's relatively negative appraisal of bureaucracy (Statement 14), favorable views of entrepreneurship and organizational growth (Statements 19 and 32), professional ambitiousness (Statement 2), and apparent "take charge" attitude (Statement 23) seem to further distance this perspective from the classic public service orientation (DiMarco & Whitsitt, 1975; Rawls, Ullrich, & Nelson, 1975; Posner & Schmidt, 1996). At the same time, this factor does show limited convergence with public service ideals. This perspective appears to be mildly risk-averse (Statement 31) and stirred by some transcendent sense of duty (Statements 1 and 21). These points of agreement reinforce the notion that this factor should be not be juxtaposed with the public service orientation in purely adversarial terms.

The executive perspectives painted by this study are clearly reminiscent of those offered by earlier researchers. *Societal trusteeship* conjures up notions of Brewer, Selden, and Facer's (2000) *samaritans*, who while not stirred by any proverbial sense of duty, see themselves as compassionate "guardians of the underprivileged," (p. 257). Selden, Brewer, and Brudney's (1999) typology of bureaucratic role orientations, with its *stewards of the public interest* exemplar, is also called to mind. This classification

describes administrators that are committed to serving, “the needs and concerns of all citizens, including disadvantaged groups,” through institutional policy. Finally, *societal trustees*’ human relations orientation seems uncannily similar to that of *Presidential Type A* proposed by Neumann and Bensimon (1990). As described by these authors, such executives, “are generally concerned about making major contributions to the state, to the country, to humanity, or to local regions or communities. They visualize the institution as a participant in an increasingly interdependent world,” (p. 686). These authors’ choice of words is conspicuously predictive of a comment received from one of the study’s participants:

- I think what drives me in my interest in being in a leadership position in a university is that I genuinely would like to make this state better, and I would like to create a more prosperous future for (state name), and for the region, and even for our country to some extent. And I think that if that didn’t drive me, I probably wouldn’t do this job.

Neumann and Bensimon (Ibid) further suggest another type, *Presidential Type B*, which is highly similar to the current study’s *organizational stewardship* perspective in its internal focus and concern for the development of human capital. According to Neumann and Bensimon, these administrators “give primary attention to internal college life,” and, “are personally concerned with assuring the comfort and well-being of the college’s ‘people’,” (p. 688). These writers note however, that (just as in the *organizational stewardship* perspective) despite their emphases on internal performance, these administrators nonetheless remain cognizant of the conditions of the outside world.

## Summary

Wittmer (1991), encapsulating his own study of reward preferences among public, private, and non-profit organizations, affirms that, “the public service ethic seems to be alive and well *and was shown to extend beyond core public organizations (government) to more hybrid groups,*” (p. 380, *emphasis added*). What then is the final word on the current study’s comparison between its own operant factors and the public service orientation?

It seems clear that the *societal trusteeship* perspective represents the cleanest approximation of the idealized public service orientation. Perry’s (1996) formal model of the public service motivation (PSM) comprises four main dimensions: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. It can be argued that all four are present in the *societal trusteeship* perspective. However, this viewpoint is also *dissimilar* from typical descriptions of public servants in that it implies no particular concern for occupational stability. At the same time, the *organizational stewardship* perspective appears normatively distant from the public service orientation, but still is defined by a prevailing sense of duty.

It seems obvious that neither of the factors isolated by the present study represents a “glass slipper” match to the classic public service orientation. While this outcome may speak to the nature of the research instrument or the participant group, another reasonable conclusion exists. It may be that the “classic” public service orientation (to the extent that any such unified definition exists) is a more conceptually complex construct than is implied by most of the extant research.

Some writers have hinted at this prospect. The venerable Anthony Downs (1967) noted a distinct intermingling of self-interest and altruism in the professional motives of bureaucratic officials. Nalbandian and Edwards (1983) further suggested that public administrators are marked by a defining value set, but that this value set overlaps with those of other professional groups. More recently, Q methodologists Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000) have asserted that, “our findings reveal that PSM is more complex than depicted in previous studies that have explored adjunct concepts and contrasted groups...we find that the motives for performing public service are mixed,” (p. 261).

These appraisals clearly cast doubt on the public service orientation as a homogenous and invariable concept. Comparison of the study’s operant factors to the public service orientation is challenged further by the possibility that the public service orientation itself not only is somewhat indistinct, but also is shifting. Particularly in light of contemporary efforts to, “redesign, to reinvent, to reinvigorate” the culture of the public sector, it seems reasonable to expect that the normative mold of the public bureaucrat has changed, and continues to change.<sup>106</sup> In this light, future efforts to peg the precise structure of the public service orientation may require researchers to hit a moving target.

### **Limitations and Directions for Future Research**

No single study can probe all possible questions of interest within a given research topic. Likewise, the results of the foregoing study prompt a number of ancillary questions, many of which call for new methodological solutions. Because all research approaches are marked by unique strengths and weaknesses, it is suggested here that the

---

<sup>106</sup> Remarks taken from President Bill Clinton’s public address announcing the rollout of the *National Performance Review*, delivered March 3<sup>rd</sup>, 1993 (Shafritz, Hyde, & Parkes, 2004, p. 556).

continued development of this particular line of research will require considerable methodological pluralism.

On one hand, Q methodology should continue as a central tool for follow-up study, given that much remains to be answered about the nature of the two factors identified in the present study. For example, what accounts for the widespread mixing of factor loadings seen in the study's data? The above discussion postulated that this outcome stems from the coexistence of multiple schemata within the same overarching orientation. A follow-up study might ask a group of participants to resort the same Q statements under varied conditions of instruction, *e.g.*, "when I deal with *internal* stakeholders" versus "when I deal with *external* stakeholders." This approach would help to untangle the mechanisms by which managerial schemas become manifest, and would offer useful insights into the phenomenology of administrative orientation.

As acknowledged in the first chapter, the current study is limited in its theoretical characterization of administrative orientation. Because the study was mainly interested in the aspects of this concept that are relevant to the public service orientation literature, the items used in the statement sample were undoubtedly restrictive. Subsequent Q methodologists may wish to use a more inclusive, less structured statement sample, one that is not based on a rigid *a priori* theoretical framework. This strategy would allow researchers to see if similar factors emerge even when they are not being "lured" by the instrument.

Along similar lines, subsequent authors may also wish to develop a more textually fulsome statement sample than was applied in the present study. Succinct statements were favored in the sampling process in order to speed the sorting task. However, the

brevity of the statements drew amused comments from several participants, and may have been slightly distracting for some.<sup>107</sup> All participants seemed fully willing to devote adequate time to the sorting task, and for this reason, concerns about sorting expediency likely were unnecessary. In addition, broadening the statement sample likely would improve the interpretive capacity of the instrument.

This study stands firm in its conviction that human worldviews are the province of subjectivist science, and thus must be examined holistically and contextually. At the same time, the study also acknowledges that Q methodological work can be extended through quantitative exploration. While Q provides a mathematical framework for rich phenomenological study, its intensive format is such that it is unequipped to grapple with the quantitative proportionality of the factors it produces. Exploring the demographic drivers of administrative orientation (*e.g.*, gender, geography, institutional factors) seems a relevant venture. Indeed, this study implicitly expressed this point in the factorial design of its participant group.

Numerous participants volunteered a casual hypothesis about the demographic drivers of administrative orientation. One campus president suggested that rising age brings change to one's sense of administrative self. Another president commented on the socializing forces of organizations, surmising that the fiscal strength of one's current institution is a profound shaper of managerial values. With these sundry observations in mind, it further should be noted that several executives encouraged the development of a forecasting model of decision making that uses administrative orientation as a predictor. This prospect would seem to offer an exemplary opportunity for the integration of quantitative modeling techniques and Q methodology.

---

<sup>107</sup> One participant affably referred to one of the statements as sounding "fortune cookie-like."

## Implications

This dissertation was conducted in the service of two academic masters: higher education administration and public administration. What takeaway insights does the study render to scholars in these fields? Perhaps the most important implication of the study for higher education researchers arises from the finding that senior college administrators appear to simultaneously identify with *multiple* role orientations. Rather than normative monists, higher education executives tend to be value pluralists whose administrative lenses appear transitory and situational. This conclusion not only is consistent with the notion of cognitive schema theory, but also makes sense in light of college administrators' multifaceted task environments. As summarized by one college president:

- While we focus on that greater good out there, we also have to focus intensely on the vitality of the institution. So in one sense you have a very macro view, but at the same time you have a micro view on the responsibility at hand, and understanding and grappling with the limitations that you face. We do face that duality.

From a scholarly standpoint, the extent of normative pluralism indicated by the study's factor loadings would seem to call into question the efforts of earlier researchers to categorize campus executives as representative of singular administrative "types." Such approaches may underestimate the degree to which college administrators appear disposed to see the world in multidimensional, schema-driven ways. Consequently, the current findings may compel scholars to fundamentally reframe the ways in which they



conceptualize other administrative technologies, such as leadership style and managerial approach.

By extension, this logic also implicates the vast majority of studies on the public service orientation, and underscores the present study's main contribution to the public administration literature. Public administration theorists have devoted decades to the task of giving shape to the public service orientation. Critically, most formal studies have proceeded from one central, implicit assumption: that the public service orientation represents a rigid construct that is, with sufficient time and effort, empirically definable. The present analysis seriously challenges this simplified view of the public service orientation, and consequently calls for a reexamination of this core assumption.

The present study also bears implications for administrative practice in higher education. As elaborated above, the primary conclusion of the analysis is that the *societal trusteeship* and *organizational stewardship* perspectives tend to be jointly operative in college executives. From the standpoint of professional practice, is the marriage between these orientations a healthy and productive one? The answer is illuminated by statements made by two different community college presidents:

- In making decisions about what's best for the school, I manage to deal with that by looking at, you know, if the school wasn't here, the community would be worse off. And so, making sure that we're a viable organization is important to the community.
- Improving the quality of life for one student at a time as they come through the institution...ultimately leads to the fulfillment of the common good.

These statements speak to an important corollary of the blending of internally- and externally-directed administrative orientations by college executives. It seems profoundly unlikely that any college executive would not embrace some level of personal interest in the welfare of his or her organization. The livelihoods and legacies of campus leaders are tightly coupled to institutional performance, and this condition no doubt elevates the importance of institutional well-being for many administrators. Yet, at the same time, the above comments underscore the importance of viewing the “business” of campuses in the context of the public interest. America’s colleges and universities are vital benefactors of the nation’s public interest, and an earnest self-awareness of this status seems crucial for the ongoing legitimacy of the higher education project. The relationship between “the public” and higher education is a reciprocal one, and campus officials would do well to remain mindful of their role in the public sphere.

Encouragingly, the results of the present study suggest that this awareness is indeed prominent within the ranks of higher education leadership. This observation would seem to transcend the domains of academic theory building and administrative practice, and offer a hopeful message to a far broader audience. Pfiffner (1999) argues that citizens should expect public service values to thrive in all institutions whose goal is the provision of public goods. In the shadow of this proposition, the present analysis affirms that the notion of public interest trusteeship tends to be a prevalent fixture in the administrative orientations of college executives. This observation should be greatly pleasing to all observers of higher education who expect colleges and universities to remain well-connected to their many public purposes.

## REFERENCES

- Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (1997). *Statistical methods for the social sciences*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Allison, G.T. (1979). Proceedings of the Public Management Research Conference: *Public and private management: Are they fundamentally alike in all unimportant respects?* Washington DC: Office of Personnel Management document no. 127-53-1, pp. 27-38.
- Appleby, P. (1945). *Big democracy*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf Publishing.
- Ashworth, K. (2001). *Caught between the dog and the fireplug – or – how to survive public service*. Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., & Drake, L. (2010). *The condition of education 2010: Supplemental tables* (NCES 2010-028). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Statistics, US Department of Education.
- Baldwin, N.J. (1984). Are we really lazy. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 4, 80-89.
- Baldwin, N.J. (1987). Public versus private: Not that different, not that consequential. *Public Personnel Management*, 16 (2), 181-193.
- Baldwin, N.J. (1991). Public versus private employees: Debunking stereotypes. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 11 (1-2), 1-27.
- Balk, W.L. (1974). Why don't public administrators take productivity more seriously? *Public Personnel Management*, 3 (4), 318-325.

- Banfield, E.L. (1975). Corruption as a feature of governmental organization. *The Journal of Law and Economics*, 18 (3), 587-605.
- Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Behn, W. (1986). The moralism of attitudes supporting intergroup violence. *Political Psychology*, 7 (3), 403-425.
- Behn, R.D. (1995). The big questions of public management. *Public Administration Review*, 55 (4), 313-324.
- Bellante, B., & Link, A.N. (1981). Are public sector workers more risk averse than private sector workers? *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 34, 408-412.
- Bensimon, E.M. (1990). Viewing the presidency: Perceptual congruence between presidents and leaders on their campuses. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 71-90.
- Birnbaum, R. (1988). *How colleges work: The cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Birnbaum, R., & Eckel, P.D. (2005). The dilemma of presidential leadership. In P.G. Altbach, R.O. Berdahl, & P.J. Gumport (Ed.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*, (pp. 340-368). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Blank, R. (1985). An analysis of workers' choice between employment in the public and private sectors. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 38, 211-224.
- Bok, D. (2003). *Universities in the marketplace: The commercialization of higher education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Bolland, J.M. (1985). The search for structure: An alternative to the forced Q-sort technique. *Political Methodology*, 11 (1/2), 91-107.
- Bolman, L.G., & Deal, T.E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Boss.
- Brewer, G.A. (2003). Building social capital: Civic attitudes and behavior of public servants. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 13 (1), 5-25.
- Brewer, G.A., Selden, S.C., & Facer, R.L. II (2000). Individual conceptions of public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 60 (3), 254-264.
- Brouwer, M. (1992-1993). Validity: Q vs. R. *Operant Subjectivity*, 16 (1/2), 1-17.
- Brown, S.R. (1971). The forced-free distinction in Q technique. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 8 (4), 283-287.
- Brown, S.R. (1972). A fundamental incommensurability between objectivity and subjectivity. In S.R. Brown & D.J. Brenner (Eds.). *Science, psychology, and communication* (pp. 57-94). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Brown, S.R. (1978). The importance of factors in Q methodology: Statistical and theoretical considerations. *Operant Subjectivity*, 1, 117-124.
- Brown, S.R. (1979). Perspective, transfiguration, and equivalence in communication theory. In D. Nimmo (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook*, 3 (pp. 51-65). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction/International Communication Association.
- Brown, S.R. (1980). *Political subjectivity: Applications of Q methodology in political science*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Brown, S.R. (1984). "Q-analysis": Caveat emptor. *Operant Subjectivity*, 8, 6-17.

- Brown, S.R. (1994-1995). Q methodology as the foundation for a science of subjectivity. *Operant Subjectivity*, 18 (1/2), 1-16.
- Brown, S.R. (2002a). Subjective behavior analysis. *Operant Subjectivity*, 25 (3/4), 148-163.
- Brown, S.R. (2002b). Q technique and questionnaires. *Operant Subjectivity*, 25 (2), 117-126.
- Brown, S.R. (2008). Q methodology. In L.M. Given (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (pp. 699-702). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brown, S.R., Durning, D.W., & Selden, S.C. (2007). Q methodology. In J.G. Miller & K. Yang (Eds.), *Handbook of Research Methods in Public Administration* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) (pp. 721-764). Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.
- Buchanan, B. (1974). Government managers, business executives, and organizational commitment. *Public Administration Review*, 34 (4), 339-347.
- Buchanan, B. (1975). Red tape and the service ethic: Some unexpected differences between public and private managers. *Administration & Society*, 4, 423-444.
- Buelens, M., & Van den Broeck, H. (2007). An analysis of differences in work motivation between public and private sector organizations. *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 65-74.
- Buller, J.L. (2007). *The essential academic dean: A practical guide to college leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bullock, M.B. (2005). Public good of private colleges. *University Business*, 8 (5), 96.
- Burns, J.M. (1982). *The Vineyard of Liberty*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.

- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*. London: Heinemann.
- Byrd, K. (2002). Mirrors and metaphors: Contemporary narratives of the wolf in Minnesota. *Ethics, Place, and Environment*, 5, 50-65.
- Cacioppe, R., & Mock, P. (1984). A comparison of the quality of work experience in government and private organizations. *Human Relations*, 37 (11), 923-940.
- Cattell, R.B. (1951). On the disuse and misuse of P, Q, Qs, and O techniques in clinical psychology. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 7, 203-214.
- Coats, D., Humphreys, B.R., & Vachris, M.A. (2004). More evidence that university administrators are utility maximizing bureaucrats. *Economics of Government*, 5, 77-101.
- Cohen, M.D., & March, J.D. (1974). *Leadership and ambiguity: The American college president*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Cohen, M.D., & March, J.G. (1986). *Leadership and ambiguity: The American college president*. Watertown, MA: Harvard Business Press.
- Cohen, S., & Eimicke, W.B. (1995). Ethics and the public administrator. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 537, 96-108.
- Cottle, C.E., & McKeown, B. (1980). The forced-free distinction in Q technique: A note on unused categories in the Q sort continuum. *Operant Subjectivity*, 3 (2), 58-63.
- Coursey, D., & Pandey, S. (2007). Public service motivation measurement: Testing an abridged version of Perry's proposed scale. *Administration & Society*, 39 (5), 547-568.

- Coursey, D.H., Perry, J.L., Brudney, J.L., & Littlepage, L. (2008). Psychometric verification of Perry's public service motivation instrument: Results for volunteer exemplars. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 28, 79-90.
- Creswell, J.W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crewson, P.E. (1997). Public-service motivation: Building empirical evidence of incidence and effect. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 7 (4), 499-518.
- Cunningham, R. & Olshfski, D. (1986). Interpreting state administrator-legislator relationships. *The Western Political Quarterly*, 39 (1), 104-117.
- D'Agostino, B. (1984). Replicability of results with theoretical rotation. *Operant Subjectivity*, 7 (3), 81-87.
- Danielson, D. (2009). Q method and surveys: Three ways to combine Q and R. *Field Methods*, 21 (3), 219-237.
- Davis, L.D., Marlowe, J., & Pandey, S.K. (2006). Gender dimensions of public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 66 (6), 873-887.
- Davis, T.C. (1997). Patterns of identity: Basques and the Basque nation. *Nationalism and Ethnic Politics*, 3 (1), 61-88.
- Day, S. (2008). Applications of Q methodology to a variety of policy process theories and frameworks. *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, 11 (2), 141-171.
- Dennis, K.E. (1992-1993). Looking at reliability and validity through Q-colored classes. *Operant Subjectivity*, 16 (1/2), 37-44.



- Dennison, G.M. (2001). Small men on campus: Modern university presidents. *Innovative Higher Education*, 25 (4), 269-284.
- DiMarco, D., & Whitsitt, S.E. (1975). A comparison of female supervisors in business and government organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 6, 185-196.
- Donovan, H.L., & Wild, R.W. (1949). The president and the public. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 26 (5), 258-262.
- Downs, A. (1967). *Inside bureaucracy*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.
- Dunn, D.D., Gibson, F.K., & Whorton, J.W. Jr. (1985). University commitment to public service for state and local governments. *Public Administration Review*, 45 (4), 503-509.
- Durning, D. (1999). The transition from traditional to postpositivist policy analysis: A role for Q methodology. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 18 (3), 389-410.
- Durning, D., & Osuna, W. (1994). Policy analysts' roles and value orientations: An empirical investigation using Q methodology. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 13 (4), 629-657.
- Ekins, A.H. (1988). Teaching ethics in public administration. *Public Administration Review*, 48 (5), 885-891.
- Esposito, G. (2010). Looking for a way out. *New Directions for Higher Education* (151), 39-48.
- Fairweather, J.R. (1981). Reliability and validity of Q-method results: Some empirical evidence. *Operant Subjectivity*, 5 (1), 2-16.

- Ferlie, E., Musselin, C., & Andresani, G. (2008). The steering of higher education systems: a public management perspective. *Higher Education, 55*, 325-348.
- Ferren, A.S., & Stanton, W.W. (2004). *Leadership through collaboration: The role of the chief academic officer*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Frederickson, H.G (1997). *The spirit of public administration*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gabris, G.T., & Simo, G. (1995). Public sector motivation as an independent variable affecting career decisions. *Public Personnel Management, 24* (1), 33-51.
- Gaines, L.K., Van Tubergen, N., & Paiva, M.A. (1984). Police officer perceptions of promotion as a source of motivation. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 12* (3), 265-275.
- Gaito, J. (1962). Forced and free Q sorts. *Psychological Reports, 10*, 251-254.
- Gayle, D.J., Tewarie, B., & White, A.Q. Jr. (2003). *Governance in the twenty-first-century university: Approaches to effective leadership and strategic management*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gilbert, R.G. & Hyde, A.C. (1988). Followership and the federal worker. *Public Administration Review, 48* (6), 962-967.
- Gladieux, L.E., King, J.E., & Corrigan, M.E. (2005). The federal government and higher education. In P.G. Altbach, R.O. Berdahl, & P.J. Gumport (Ed.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*, (pp. 163-197). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

- Goodsell, C.T. (1989). Balancing competing values. In J. Perry (Ed.), *Handbook of Public Administration*, (575-584). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Goss, R.P. (1996). A distinct public administration ethics? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 6 (4), 573-597.
- Gough, H.G., Misiti, R., & Parisi, D. (1971). Contrasting managerial perspectives of American and Italian public administrators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 1, 255-262.
- Goulet, L.R. (2002). Organizational commitment across three sectors: Public, non-profit, and for-profit. *Public Personnel Management*, 31 (2), 201-210.
- Guyot, J.F. (1962). Government bureaucrats are different. *Public Administration Review*, 22 (4), 195-202.
- Hammer, E.R., & Van Tassell, D.V. (1983). On the issue of public vs. private sector motivation: Have the stereotypes been debunked? *Public Personnel Management*, 12 (3), 282-289.
- Hansson, R.O., Hogan, R., Johnson, J.A., & Schroeder, D. (1983). Disentangling type A behavior: The roles of ambition, insensitivity, and anxiety. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 17, 186-197.
- Henderson, B.B. (2009). Mission creep and teaching at the master's university. *College Teaching*, 57 (4), 185-187.
- Hilden, A.H. (1958). Q-sort correlation: Stability and random choice of statements. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 22 (1), 45-50.
- Hodson, J.B. (2010). Leading the way: The role of presidents and academic deans in fundraising. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 149, 39-49.

- Hollister, R.M., Wilson, N., & Levine, P. (2008). Educating students to foster active citizenship. *Peer Review*, 10 (2/3), 18-21.
- Hotchkiss, E. (2002). Transforming the small college: A challenge for presidential leadership. In R.M. Diamond (Ed.), *Field Guide to Academic Leadership* (pp. 401-413). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Houston, D.J. (2000). Public-service motivation: A multivariate test. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 10 (4), 713-727.
- Houston, D.J. (2006). "Walking the walk" of public service motivation: Public employees and charitable gifts of time, blood, and money. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory: J-PART*, 16 (1), 67-85.
- Hurd, R.C., & Brown, S.R. (2004-2005). The future of the Q methodology movement. *Operant Subjectivity*, 28 (1/2), 58-75.
- Institute for Higher Education Policy (1998). *Reaping the rewards: Defining the public and private value of going to college*. Washington, DC.
- Jennings, B., Callahan, D., & Wolf, S.M. (1987). The professions: Public interest and common good. *The Hastings Center Report* 17 (1), 3-10.
- Jenson, J.M. (2006). Research and the public good. *Social Work Research*, 30 (4), 195-197.
- Johnson, R.M., (1970). Q analysis of large samples. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 7 (1), 104-105.
- Jurkiewicz, C.L., Massey, T.K., & Brown, R.G. (1998). Motivation in public and private organizations: A comparative study. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 21 (3), 230-250.

- Kalat, J.W. (2002). *Introduction to psychology (6<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Pacific Grove, CA: Wadsworth-Thompson Learning.
- Kalof, L. (1997). Social construction of environmental concern. *Human Ecology Review, 4*, 101-106.
- Karl, K.A., & Sutton, C.L. (1998). Job values in today's workforce: A comparison of public and private sector employees. *Public Personnel Management, 22* (3), 391-401.
- Kernaghan, K. (2003). Integrating values into public service: The values statements as centerpiece. *Public Administration Review, 63* (6), 711-719.
- Kerr, C. & Gade, M.L. (1987). The contemporary college president. *American Scholar, 56* (1), 29-45.
- Kerr, C. (1990). The American mixture of higher education in perspective: Four dimensions. *Higher Education, 19* (1), 1-19.
- Kerr, C., & Gade, M.L. (1986). *The many lives of academic presidents*. Washington DC: Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges.
- Kilpatrick, F., Cummings, M.C., & Jennings, M.K. (1964). *The image of the federal worker*. Washington DC: Brookings.
- Kim, J., & Mueller, C.W. (1978). *Factor analysis: Statistical methods and practical issues. (Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences, Volume 14)*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kim, J.H., Kim, B.I., & Kim, J.K. (2003). Olfactory factors in aroma uses. *Journal of Human Subjectivity, 1* (2), 157-176.

- Kinsey, D., and Taylor, R.W. (1982). Some meanings of political cartoons. *Operant Subjectivity*, 5 (3), 107-114.
- Kline, C.J., & Peters, L.H. (1991). Behavioral commitment and tenure of new employees: A replication and extension. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 194-204.
- Klooster, P.M.T., Visser, M., & De Jong, M.D.T. (2008). Comparing two image research instruments: The Q-sort method versus the Likert attitude questionnaire. *Food Quality and Preference*, 19, 511-518.
- Kothari, C.R. (2008). *Research methodology*. New Delhi, India: New Age International.
- Krahenbuhl, G.S. (2004). *Building the academic deanship: Strategies for success*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Kraimer, M.L., Wayne, S.J., Liden, R.C., Sparrowe, R.T. (2005). The role of job security in understanding the relationship between employees' perceptions of temporary workers and employers' performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (2), 389-398.
- Kubala, T., & Bailey, G.M. (2001). A new perspective on community college presidents: Results of a national study. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 25, 793-804.
- Lambert, L.M. (2002). Chief academic officers. In R.M. Diamond (Ed.), *Field Guide to Academic Leadership* (pp. 425-436). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Lambright, W.H., & Zinke, R.C. (1989). Science, technology, and public administration: The government-university nexus. *Public Administration Review*, 49 (2), 206-209.

- Lewis, G.B., & Frank, S.A. (2002). Who wants to work for government? *Public Administration Review*, 62 (4), 395-404.
- Lippman, W. (1955). *The political philosopher*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown.
- Mahoney, R.J. (1997). "Reinventing" the university: Object lessons from big business. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 44 (8), B4-B5.
- Marginson, S. (2007). University mission and identity for a post post-public era. *Higher Education & Development*, 26 (1), 117-131.
- Martin, I.M., & Steelman, T.A. (2004). Using multiple methods to understand agency values and objectives: Lessons from public lands management. *Policy Sciences*, 37, 37-69.
- Mayhew, L.B. (1971). Emerging concepts of the presidency. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 42 (5), 353-367.
- McCormick, A.C., & Zhao (2005). Rethinking and reframing the Carnegie Classification. *Change*, 37 (5), 50-57.
- McGuinness, A.C. Jr., (2005). The states and higher education. In P.G. Altbach, R.O. Berdahl, & P.J. Gumport (Ed.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*, (pp. 198-225). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- McKeown, B.F., & Thomas, D.B. (1988). *Q methodology (Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences, Volume 66)*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meltsner, A. (1976). *Policy analysts in the bureaucracy*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

- Miller, E.F. (1972). Positivism, historicism, and political inquiry. *American Political Science Review*, 66, 796-817.
- Miller, M. (2006). Higher education, the market, and the public good. *Change*, 38 (1), 4.
- Molina, A.D. (2009). Values in public administration: The role of organizational culture. *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, 12 (2), 266-279.
- Moon, M.J. (2000). Organizational commitment revisited in new public management: Motivation, organizational culture, and managerial level. *Public Performance and Management Review*, 24 (2), 177-194.
- Mosher, F. (1982). *Democracy and the public service* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Moynihan, D.P., & Pandey, S.K. (2007). The role of organizations in fostering public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 40-53.
- Naff, K.C., & Crum, J. (1999). Working for America: Does public service motivation make a difference? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 19 (4), 5-16.
- Nalbandian, J., & Edwards, J.T. (1983). The values of public administration: A comparison with lawyers, social workers and business administrators. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 4, 114-129.
- Nelson, S.J. (2000). *Leaders in the crucible: The moral voice of college presidents*. Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.
- Neumann, A., & Bensimon, E.M. (1990). Constructing college presidents' images of their leadership roles, a comparative study. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 61 (6), 678-701.



- Newman, F., Couturier, L., & Scurry, J. (2004). *The future of higher education: Rhetoric, reality, and the risks of the market*. San Francisco, CA: Wiley & Sons.
- Newstrom, J.W., Reif, W.E., & Monczka, R.M. (1976). Motivating the public employee: Fact vs. fiction. *Public Personnel Management*, 5 (1), 67-72.
- Noble, C.H. (2008). The influence of job security on field sales manager satisfaction: Exploring frontline tensions. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 28 (3), 247-261.
- Overman, E.S., & Foss, L. (1991). Professional ethics: An empirical test of the “separatist thesis.” *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 1 (2), 131-146.
- Perry, J.L. (1996). Measuring public service motivation: An assessment of construct reliability and validity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 61 (1), 5-22.
- Perry, J.L. (1997). Antecedents of public service motivation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 7 (2), 181-197.
- Perry, J.L. (2000). Bringing society in: Toward a theory of public-service motivation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 10 (2), 471-488.
- Perry, J.L., & Porter, L.W. (1982). Factors affecting the context for motivation in public organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 89-98.
- Perry, J.L., & Wise, L.R. (1990). The motivational bases of public service. *Public Administration Review*, 50 (3), 367-373.
- Peterson, R.S., Smith, D.B., Martorana, P.V., & Owens, P.D. (2003). The impact of chief executive officer personality on top management team dynamics: One mechanism

- by which leadership affects organizational performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (5), 795-808.
- Pfiffner, J.P. (1999). The public service ethic in the new public personnel systems. *Public Personnel Management*, 28 (4), 541-555.
- Posner, B.Z., & Schmidt, W.H. (1996). The values of business and federal government executives: More different than alike. *Public Personnel Management*, 25 (3), 277-289.
- Pugh, D. (1991). "The origins of ethical frameworks in public administration. In J. Bowman (Ed.), *Ethical frontiers in public management* (9-34). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Raffel, J.A. (2007). Why has public administration ignored public education, and does it matter? *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 135-151.
- Rainey, H.G. (1982). Reward preferences among public and private managers: In search of the service ethic. *American Review of Public Administration*, 16, 288-302.
- Rainey, H.G. (1983). Public agencies and private firms: Incentive structures, goals, and individual roles. *Administration & Society*, 15 (2), 207-242.
- Rainey, H.G. (1989). Public management: Recent research on the political context and managerial roles: Structures and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 15 (2), 229-250.
- Rawls, J.R., Ullrich, R.A., & Nelson, O.T. Jr. (1975). A comparison of managers entering or reentering the profit and nonprofit sectors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 18, 616-623.

- Renne, R.R. (1960). Land-grant institutions, the public, and the public interest. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 331, 46-51.
- Robyn, R. (Ed.). (2005). *The changing face of European identity: A seven-nation study of (supra) national attachments*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Romzek, B.S. (1985). The effects of public service recognition, job security, and staff reductions on organizational involvement. *Public Administration Review*, 45 (2), 282-291.
- Sayre, W.S. (1951). Trends in a decade in administrative values. *Public Administration Review*, 11 (1), 1-9.
- Schmidt, W.H., & Posner, B.Z. (1986). Values and expectations of federal service executives. *Public Administration Review*, 46 (5), 447-454.
- Schmidt, W.H., & Posner, R.Z. (1987). Values and expectations of city managers in California. *Public Administration Review*, 47 (5), 404-409.
- Schuster, J.R., Colletti, J.A., & Knowles, L. (1973). The relationship between perceptions concerning magnitudes of pay and perceived utility of pay: Public and private organizations compared. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 9 (1), 110-119.
- Selden, S.C., Brewer, G.A., & Brudney, J.L. (1999). Reconciling competing values in public administration: Understanding the administrative role concept. *Administration and Society*, 31 (2), 171-204.
- Shafritz, J.M., Hyde, A.C., & Parkes, S.J. (Eds.). (2004). *Classics of public administration* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

- Shaw, K.A. (2002). Creating change: Suggestions for the new president. In R.M. Diamond (Ed.), *Field Guide to Academic Leadership* (pp. 389-400). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Shemmings, D. (2006). 'Quantifying,' qualitative data: An illustrative example of the use of Q methodology in psychosocial research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 147-165.
- Skidmore, M.J. (1995). Ethics and public service. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 537, 25-36.
- Smith, D., & Adams, J. (2008). Academics or executives? Continuity and change in the roles of pro-vice-chancellors. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 62 (4), 340-357.
- Smith, L.I. (2002). *A tutorial on principal components analysis*. Unpublished web document. University of Otago (New Zealand). Retrieved from [http://www.cs.otago.ac.nz/cosc453/student\\_tutorials/principal\\_components.pdf](http://www.cs.otago.ac.nz/cosc453/student_tutorials/principal_components.pdf)
- Smith, M.P., & Nock, S.L. (1980). Social class and the quality of work in life in public and private organizations. *Journal of Social Issues*, 36 (4), 59-75.
- Smith, N.W. (2001). *Current systems in psychology: History, theory, research, and applications*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
- Solomon, E.E. (1986). Private and public sector managers: An empirical investigation of job characteristics and organizational climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71 (2), 247-259.
- Staats, E.B. (1988). Public service and the public interest. *Public Administration Review*, 48 (2), 601-606.

- Stackman, R.W., Connor, P.E., & Becker, B.W. (2006). Sectoral ethos: An investigation of the personal value systems of female and male managers in the public and private sectors. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 16 (4), 577-597.
- Steel, B.S., & Warner, R.L. (1990). Job satisfaction among early labor force participants: Unexpected outcomes in public and private sector comparisons. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 10 (3), 4-22.
- Steinhaus, C. & Perry, J.L. (1996). Organizational commitment: Does sector matter? *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 19 (3), 278-288
- Stenner, P., & Stainton Rogers, R. (2004). Q methodology and qualiquantology: The example of discriminating between emotions. In Z. Todd, B. Nerlich, S. McKeown, & D.D. Clarke (Eds.), *Mixing methods in psychology: The integration of qualitative and quantitative methods in theory and practice* (pp. 101-120). Hove, East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.
- Stenner, P., & Watts, S. (1997-1998). [Re]searching for love: Subjectivity and the ontology of Q factor. *Operant Subjectivity*, 21 (1/2), 27-48.
- Stephenson, W. (1935a). Correlating persons instead of tests. *Character and Personality*, 4, 17-24.
- Stephenson, W. (1935b). Technique of factor analysis. *Nature*, 136, 297.
- Stephenson, W. (1936). Introduction to inverted factor analysis, with some applications to studies in orexis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 27, 353-367.
- Stephenson, W. (1952). Some observations on Q technique. *Psychological Bulletin*, 49, 483-498.

- Stephenson, W. (1953). *The study of behavior: Q-technique and its methodology*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Stephenson, W. (1972). Applications of communication theory: I. The substructure of science. *Psychological Record*, 22, 177-192.
- Stephenson, W. (1978a). Concourse theory of communication. *Communication*, 3, 21-40.
- Stephenson, W. (1978b). The shame of science. *Ethics in Science & Medicine*, 5, 25-38.
- Stephenson, W. (1988). William James, Niels Bohr, and complementarity: V – Phenomenology of subjectivity. *The Psychological Record*, 38, 203-219.
- Stephenson, W. (1993-1994). Introduction to Q-methodology. *Operant Subjectivity*, 17 (1/2), 1-13.
- Stewart, J., & Clarke, M. (1987). The public service orientation: Issues and dilemmas. *Public Administration*, 65, 161-177.
- Sylvia, R.D., & Sylvia, K.M. (1986). An empirical investigation of the impacts of career plateauing. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 8 (3), 227-241.
- Tait, J. (1997). A strong foundation: Report of the task force on public service values and ethics (the summary). *Canadian Public Administration*, 40 (1), 1-22.
- Tannock, S. (2006). Higher education, inequality, and the public good. *Dissent*, 53 (2), 45-51.
- Taylor, F. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. New York, NY: Harper & Brothers.
- Taylor, P., Delprato, D.J., & Knapp, J.R. (1994). Q-methodology in the study of child phenomenology. *Psychological Record*, 44, 171-183.

- Tead, O. (1946). Education in the public interest. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 17 (9), 456-462.
- Teaser, P.B. (2003). When the state takes over a life; The public guardian as public administrator. *Public Administration Review*, 63 (4), 396-404.
- Tetlock, P.E., Peterson, R.S., McGuire, C., Chang, S., & Feld, P. (1992). Assessing political group dynamics: A test of the groupthink model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63 (3), 403-425.
- Thomas, D.B., & Baas, L.R. (1992-1993). The issue of generalization in Q methodology: "Reliable schematics" revisited. *Operant Subjectivity*, 16 (1/2), 18-36.
- Thomas, N.L. (2000). The college and university as citizen. In T. Erlich (Ed.), *Civic Responsibility and Higher Education* (pp. 63-97). Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Trahair, R.C.S. (2003). A psychohistory study of political cartoons using Q-method. *Journal of Psychohistory*, 30, 337-362.
- Tziner, A. (1983). Correspondence between occupational rewards and occupational needs and work satisfaction: A canonical redundancy analysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 56, 49-56.
- Van Eeten, M. (2001). Recasting intractable policy issues: the wider implications of the Netherlands civil aviation controversy. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 20, 391-414.
- Vandenabeele, W. (2007). Toward a public administration theory of public service motivation: An institutional approach. *Public Management Review*, 9 (4), 545-556.

- Von Alt, K.A. (Eds.). (2010). *2009-2010 accredited institutions of postsecondary education*. Washington DC: American Council on Education.
- Wacholtz, L.E. (1992). *The country music audience: A Q-technique portrait of seven listener types*. Unpublished manuscript read at annual meeting of the International Society for the Scientific Study of Subjectivity, Columbia, MO.
- Waldo, D. (1970). The university in relation to the governmental-political. *Public Administration Review*, 30 (2), 106-113.
- Watts, S. & Stenner, P. (2005). Doing Q methodology: Theory, method, and interpretation. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 2, 67-91.
- Waugh, W.L. Jr. (1998). Conflicting values and cultures: The managerial threat to university governance. *Policy Studies Review*, 15 (4), 61-73.
- Waugh, W.L. Jr. (2003). Issues in university governance: More “professional” and less academic. *Annals of the American Academy of Political Science*, 585, 84-96.
- Webler, T., Tuler, S., & Krueger, R. (2001). What is a good public participation process? Five perspectives from the public. *Environmental Management*, 27 (3), 435-450.
- Weimer, D., & Vining, A. (1992). *Policy analysis: Concepts and practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Wiesenfeld, B.M., Raghuram, S., & Garud, R. (2001). Organizational identification among virtual workers: the role of need for affiliation and perceived work-based social support. *Journal of Management*, 27, 213-229.
- Wilson, B.J. (2004). The public interest: Building the will to save higher education. *The Journal of the New England Board of Higher Education*, 18 (4), 23-24.



- Wittmer, D. (1991). Serving the people or serving for pay: Reward preferences among government, hybrid sector, and business managers. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 14 (4), 369-383.
- Wolverton, M., & Gmelch, W.H. (2002). *College deans: Leading from within*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Wolverton, M., Wolverton, M.L., & Gmelch, W.H. (1999). The impact of role conflict and ambiguity on academic deans. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 70 (1), 80-106.
- Woolley, J.T., & McGinnis, M.V. (2000). The conflicting discourses of restoration. *Society and Natural Resources*, 13, 339-357.
- Wright, B.E. (2001). Public-sector work motivation: A review of the current literature and a revised conceptual model. *Journal of Administration Research and Theory*, 11 (4), 559-586.
- Wright, B.E. (2007). Public service and motivation: Does mission matter? *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 54-64.
- Yarwood, D.L., & Nimmo, D.D. (1976). Subjective environments of bureaucracy: Accuracies and inaccuracies in role-taking among administrators, legislators, and citizens. *Western Political Quarterly*, 29 (3), 337-352.
- Zumeta, W. (1998). Public university accountability to the state in the late twentieth century: Time for a rethinking? *Policy Studies Review*, 15 (4), 5-22.
- Zwick, W.R., & Velicer, W.F. (1986). Comparison of five rules for determining the number of components to retain. *Psychological Bulletin*, 99 (3), 432-442.

**APPENDIX A**  
**Statement Sample**

No.	Statement
1.	<i>I believe in putting duty before self. (Perry, 1997)</i>
2.	<i>I am proud to be working for this organization. (Steinhaus &amp; Perry, 1997)</i>
3.	<i>It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community. (Perry, 1997)</i>
4.	<i>A good administrator will expose what he/she views as unethical conduct, even if that activity is not against the law. (Cunningham &amp; Olshfski, 1986)</i>
5.	<i>I am committed to my campus and its stakeholders. (Selden, Brewer, &amp; Brudney, 1999)</i>
6.	<i>I actively recommend policy positions that represent general public needs and interests. (Selden, Brewer, &amp; Brudney, 1999)</i>
7.	<i>I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another. (Perry, 1997)</i>
8.	<i>"Politics" is a dirty word. (Perry, 1997)</i>
9.	<i>I have a very strong desire to be a success in this world. (Hansson, Hogan, Johnson, &amp; Schroeder, 1983)</i>
10.	<i>Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself. (Perry, 1997)</i>
11.	<i>The greatest prosperity results from the greatest possible productivity of the people in the organization. (Taylor, 1911)</i>
12.	<i>I rarely think about the welfare of people I don't know personally. (Perry, 1997)</i>
13.	<i>In terms of my career, it is important to me to create a secure and comfortable future. (Neumann &amp; Bensimon, 1990)</i>
14.	<i>Bureaucratic systems are wasteful and inefficient. (Cunningham &amp; Olshfski, 1986)</i>
15.	<i>I enjoy the social position in the community that comes with my job. (Tziner, 1983)</i>
16.	<i>In my role, efficiency is more important than equity or fairness. (Selden, Brewer, &amp; Brudney, 1999)</i>
17.	<i>I take pleasure in getting chances to "rub elbows" with important people. (Tziner, 1983)</i>
18.	<i>I often wonder about my job security. (Noble, 2008)</i>
19.	<i>I like to see rewards go to the more entrepreneurial units on campus. (Waugh, 1998)</i>
20.	<i>My work as an administrator fits into a pluralist decision making system in which many competing actors have a part. (Durning &amp; Osuna, 1994)</i>
21.	<i>To me, the phrase "duty, honor, and country" stirs deeply felt emotions. (Perry, 1997)</i>
22.	<i>Serving others would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it. (Perry, 1997)</i>
23.	<i>I tend to tell people what I like and what I don't like, and what I want them to do. (Neumann &amp; Bensimon, 1990)</i>
24.	<i>The give and take of policy making appeals to me. (Perry, 1997)</i>
25.	<i>I would prefer seeing campus officials do what is best for the larger community, even if it harmed the school's interests. (Perry, 1997)</i>
26.	<i>I would like to be able to work for my organization as long as I wish. (Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, &amp; Sparrowe, 2005)</i>
27.	<i>The buck stops here. I need to be accountable to stakeholders. (Interview transcript from earlier study)</i>
28.	<i>If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off. (Perry, 1997)</i>
29.	<i>Doing well financially is more important to me than doing good deeds. (Perry, 1997)</i>
30.	<i>Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements. (Perry, 1997)</i>
31.	<i>Campuses must be risk takers. (Ashworth, 2001)</i>
32.	<i>One of my key responsibilities is successfully growing the institution's operations and capacity. (Posner &amp; Schmidt, 1996)</i>
33.	<i>I try to act in a manner that is open and visible to relevant stakeholders, both on and off campus. (Lundgren &amp; Moore, 2004)</i>
34.	<i>What happens to this organization is really important to me. (Crewson, 1997)</i>
35.	<i>I would find it very satisfying to be able to form new friendships with whomever I liked. (Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, &amp; Garud, 2001)</i>

36. *I believe everyone has a moral commitment to public affairs no matter how busy they are. (Perry, 1997)*
  37. *People may talk about the public interest, but they are really concerned about their self interest. (Brewer, Selden, Facer, 2000)*
  38. *My job does not give me a strong feeling of accomplishment. (Tziner, 1983)*
  39. *Service to humanity is the best work of life. (Houston, 2006)*
  40. *I want the respect I deserve for my work. (Romzek, 1985)*
-

## **APPENDIX B**

### **Text of Invitation Letter**

Participant Name  
Address Line 1  
Address Line 2  
City, State, Zip

Subj: **Participation in Higher Education Leadership Study**

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

My name is Daniel Palmer, and I am a PhD student at the University of South Dakota. I am currently writing a doctoral dissertation on the managerial perspectives of our region's higher education leaders, and I would like to ask for your participation in this research. Should you choose to join the study, you not only will contribute to a potentially meaningful piece of scholarship, but also may gain new insights into your own administrative values.

The study will rely on a research technique known as "Q methodology." As a participant, you will be asked to sort a series of forty short statements (printed on paper cards) into a spatial pattern that reflects your own administrative viewpoint. Data will be collected on-site at a location of your choosing, and your participation should require no more than 35-40 minutes.

Your responses will remain strictly confidential; any potentially-identifying information generated from the study will not be shared or published in any form. Further, results of the study will be made available to you at your request.

**I will be contacting your office in the coming days to make arrangements for an on-site data collection meeting with you.** I would greatly appreciate your willingness to share a few minutes talking with me about your managerial perspectives. This project is expected to prove highly beneficial to scholars of college and university leadership, and as a member of a select group of higher education executives, your participation will be highly valued. If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints now or later, you may contact the researcher at the address below. If you have any questions about your rights as a human subject, complaints, concerns, or wish to talk to someone who is independent of the research, contact the Office of Human Subjects Protection at 605-677-6184. You may also contact the faculty advisor for this project, Dr. Elizabeth Smith (Elizabeth.Smith@usd.edu), at the USD Department of Political Science, 414 East Clark Street, Vermillion, South Dakota 57362.

Best Regards,

Daniel Palmer, MPA  
USD Department of Political Science  
414 East Clark Street – Farber House  
Vermillion, SD 57069  
Dpalme01@usd.edu

## APPENDIX C

### Data Response Materials and Informed Consent Sheet



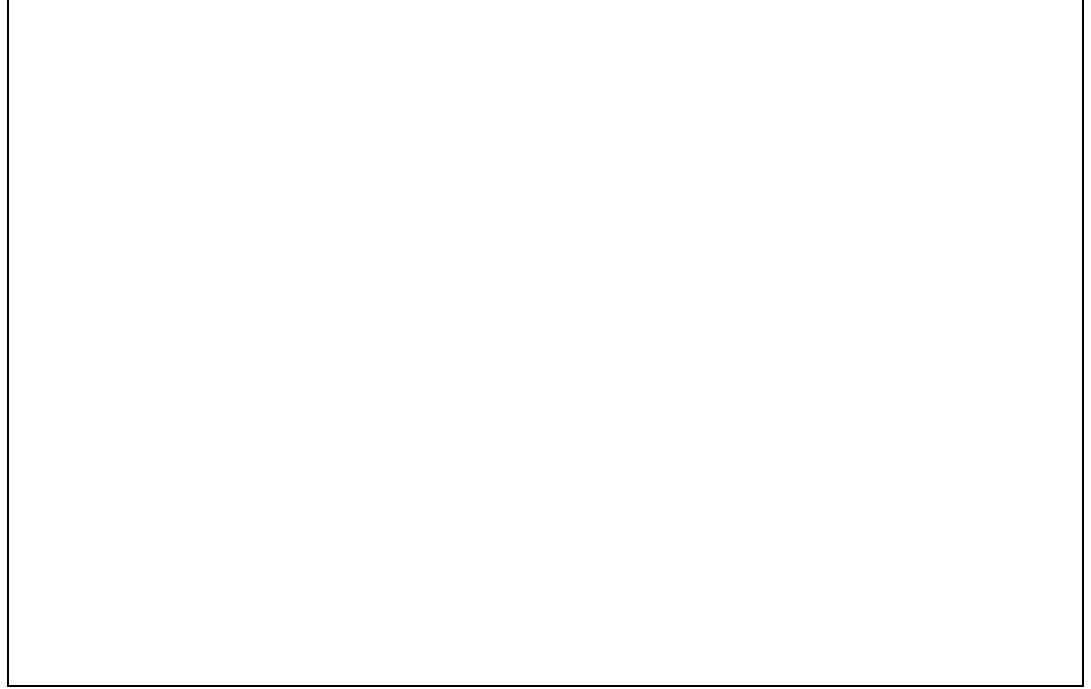


## Closing Questions:

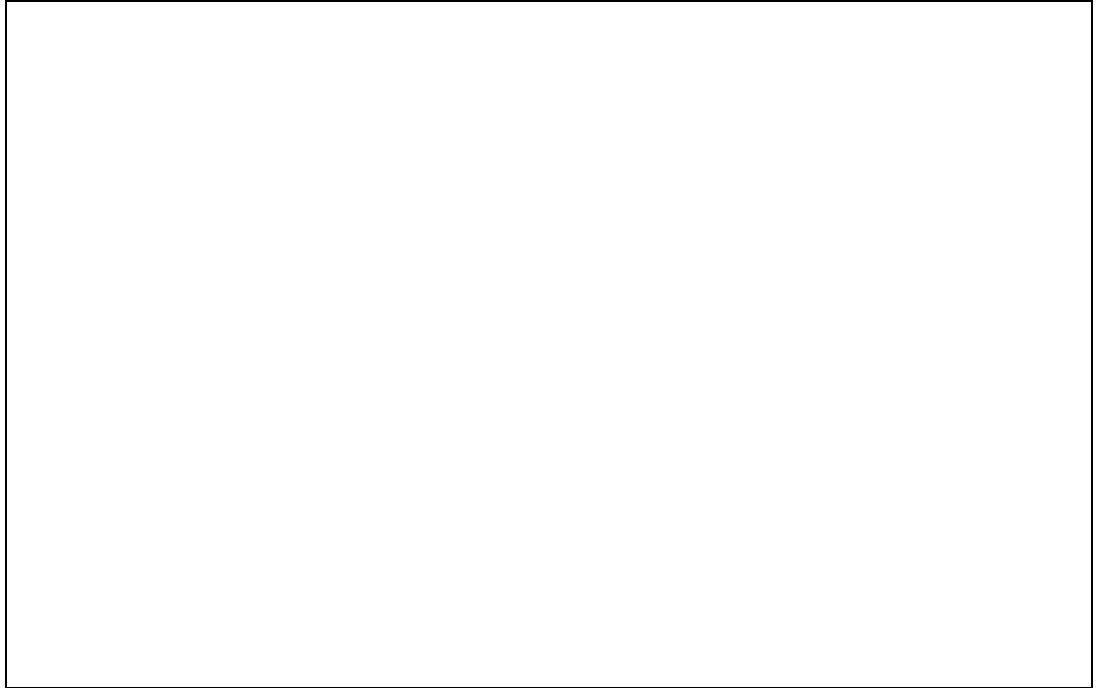
1. **What administrative title/position do you currently hold? (If you are retired, please enter the title/position you held most recently.)** \_\_\_\_\_
  
2. **What is the highest degree you have earned, and what was your major field or discipline?**  
 High school degree  
 Associate's degree [Major field: \_\_\_\_\_]  
 Bachelor's degree [Major field: \_\_\_\_\_]  
 Master's degree [Major field: \_\_\_\_\_]  
 Professional degree (M.D., J.D., etc.) [Major field: \_\_\_\_\_]  
 Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.) [Major field: \_\_\_\_\_]  
 None of the above
  
3. **How many years have you served in any administrative role *at any institution of higher education*?**  
 Fewer than 5 years  
 5 – 10 years  
 11 – 15 years  
 16 – 20 years  
 More than 20 years
  
4. **Altogether, how many years have you served in your current administrative role (or a comparable one) *at your current institution*?**  
 Fewer than 5 years  
 5 – 10 years  
 11 – 15 years  
 16 – 20 years  
 More than 20 years
  
5. **For each of the following dimensions, which category best describes your current institution?**
  - A) Control:  
 *Public* college or university  
 *Private* college or university
  
  - B) Finance:  
 *Proprietary* (for-profit) college or university  
 *Non-proprietary* (non-profit) college or university
  
  - C) Focus:  
 Primarily awards *two-year* degrees  
 Primarily awards *four-year and/or graduate degrees*
  
  - D) Enrollment (total, full-time):  
 Under 5,000 full-time students  
 5,000 – 9,999 full-time students  
 10,000 – 19,999 full-time students  
 20,000 or more full-time students



6. Please take a few minutes to describe your career arc. Specifically, what sorts of organizations and positions have you worked in prior to securing your current position?



7. Do you have any further comments that you feel may be beneficial to this research?



## ***Informed Consent Statement: Administrative Perspectives Q-Sort Study***

### *Description of the Project:*

This research project is being conducted by Daniel Palmer, a doctoral student in political science at the University of South Dakota. This study explores the managerial perspectives of American college and university administrators through the use of Q methodology. A regional sample of campus executives will be asked to rank-sort a set of statements that describe various values, attitudes, and sources of motivation.

### *Nature of Participation:*

You will be asked to manually sort a series of forty statements (printed on paper cards) into a spatial arrangement that reflects your managerial viewpoint. Your completed "Q sort" will be recorded by the researcher on a separate response form. Following this task, you will also be asked to provide verbal responses to a short sequence of closed- and open-ended questions. With your permission, an audio recording of the complete session will be made that will serve as an aid to the researcher during the analysis phase. Altogether, your participation should require no more than 30 minutes.

### *Benefits of Participation:*

You will have the opportunity to engage in a novel research technique that allows for meaningful reflection and self-expression. Consequently, you may gain new insights into your own managerial perspectives. Your responses will also contribute to an analysis that aims to improve scholarly understanding of college leadership. The final results of this research will be furnished in complete form on your request.

### *Potential Risks:*

No physical or psychological discomfort is expected to arise as a result of participating in this research. Your research session will be audio recorded with your permission only.

### *Confidentiality:*

Confidentiality of your participation is assured. No personal or institutional identifiers will be recorded by the researcher on the response form, and you will be encouraged to avoid verbally disclosing any identifying information during the audio-recorded research session. In the event that any potentially-identifying information is generated from the study, it will not be shared or published in any form. All audio and data records will be destroyed following completion of the analysis.

### *Decision to Quit at Any Time:*

You are under no obligation to participate in this study, and are free to withdraw your participation from this research at any time during the data collection process. Expressed willingness to conduct an on-site meeting with the researcher will serve as implied consent to participate in this research.

*Please retain this form for your records and future reference. If you have any additional questions or complaints about this consent statement or any other aspect of this study, contact the researcher at [dpalme01@usd.edu](mailto:dpalme01@usd.edu) or contact the University of South Dakota Office of Human Subjects Protection at [humansubjects@usd.edu](mailto:humansubjects@usd.edu).*

## **APPENDIX D**

### **IRB Approval Letter**

December 14, 2010

The University of South Dakota  
414 E. Clark Street  
Vermillion, SD 57069

PI: Dr. William Anderson      Student PI: Daniel Palmer  
Project: 2010.204 - College Presidents as Public Servants: A Q-Mthological Exploration of  
Administrative Wolrdview

Review Level: Exempt 2 Risk: No More than Minimal Risk  
USD IRB: 01 Initial Approval: 12/14/2010  
Approved items associated with your project:  
Cover Letter

The proposal referenced above has received an Exempt review and approval via the procedures of the University of South Dakota Institutional Review Board 01.

Annual Continuing Review is not required for the above Exempt study. However, when this study is completed you must submit a Closure Form to the IRB. You may close your study when you no longer have contact with the subjects and you are finished collecting data. You may continue to analyze the existing data on your closed project.

Prior to initiation, promptly report to the IRB, any proposed changes or additions (e.g., protocol amendments/revised informed consents/ site changes, etc.) in previously approved human subject research activities.

The forms to assist you in filing your: project closure, continuation, adverse/unanticipated event, project updates /amendments, etc. can be accessed at <http://www.usd.edu/research/research-and-sponsored-programs/irb-application-forms-and-templates.cfm>.

If you have any questions, please contact: [humansubjects@usd.edu](mailto:humansubjects@usd.edu) or (605) 677-6184.

Sincerely,

*Sandra Ellenbolt*

Sandra Ellenbolt, JD  
Director, Office of Human Subjects Protection  
The University of South Dakota  
Institutional Review Boards  
(605) 677-6184  
LJ700000001668

## **APPENDIX E**

### **Text of Verification Email**

Subj: **Palmer Dissertation Study – Follow-Up**

All,

I'm contacting (via bcc) those participants from my dissertation project who expressed an ongoing interest in the results of the study. The project is still in the analysis phase, but I'm wondering - if time permits - whether you would assist me with one more quick request. Below, I've listed brief descriptions of two different administrative perspectives that have emerged from my factor analysis of Q sort data. I'm wondering if you might take a look at each of these snippets, and then let me know which one, if either, sounds most like you. Your response could be as brief as "A" or "B", or (even better) you could choose to expand a bit on why one or the other seems more/less descriptive of you.

Perspective A

Perspective A comprises an externally-oriented, humanist perspective. This point of view underscores a need for social equity and communicates a willingness to apply organizational policies to the benefit of the broader public. Perhaps consequently, transparency and fairness are underscored as administrative values. The policy process is seen as an appealing endeavor, though likely not due to the opportunities it affords for socializing with elites. Financial compensation is rebuffed as a professional motivator, and job security is not a pressing consideration.

Perspective B

Perspective B is defined by its strong sense of organizational stewardship. The welfare of the institution is of primary interest, and this measure of concern fosters prevailing feelings of organizational commitment, pride, and even a sense of duty. The broader needs of society are seen as legitimate concerns, but not a realistic object of institutional resources. This administrative perspective is somewhat more growth-oriented and entrepreneurial than factor A, and as such, finds little satisfaction in bureaucratic mechanisms or the policy process. On a personal level, professional success is of keen significance, and personal assertiveness is a defining characteristic.

Feel free to contact me by email ([dpalme01@usd.edu](mailto:dpalme01@usd.edu); preferred) or phone (605-870-0419).

Thanks again for your support of the project!

Thanks,  
Daniel Palmer