# The Development of Student Organization Advisor Workforces Through the Expansion of Strategic Talent Management Practices

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations for how to best manage student organization workforces to achieve engagement and retention. The research questions ask (a) how educational institutions and student organizations strategically manage advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles and (b) what talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged student organization advisor workforce. Through a systematic review methodology with an evidence-based management perspective to configure the best available evidence for synthesis, this dissertation incorporates organizational citizenship theory, the functional theory of volunteerism, and strategic talent management theory to reach the conclusions. Study findings confirm that student organization advisor service is linked to all elements of the functional theory of volunteerism but is primarily motivated by the values function first and then the career functions. Furthermore, student organization advisor service is a form of organizational citizenship behavior, and the values function of volunteerism is the antecedent to service as an advisor. Finally, it was determined that strategic talent management practices can be applied to student organization advisors, but such practices are not being implemented by key stakeholders. A theoretical model of advisor involvement and suggestions for implementation are presented to address this gap in practice. As a result of these findings, a model for practice that incorporates key strategic talent management practices to address fundamental advisor needs has been developed with an evidence-based blueprint for implementation.

*Keywords*: advisor, functional theory of volunteerism, organizational citizenship, strategic talent management, student organization

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Student organizations, which are intra-curricular, co-curricular, or extra-curricular not-for-profit or non-profit organizations at the secondary or post-secondary education level, have been described as the "critical link" between the mission of education and students' successful outcomes (Twale, 1988, p. 16). These groups enhance student learning through contextual instruction, leadership development, personal development, applied learning, educational persistence and attainment, and social self-concepts (ctsos.org, Dunkel et al., 2014; Winston Jr. et al., 1997). Student organizations may operate at the chapter (or local) level as well as at the state, national, or international levels. They are a means by which students develop critical thinking, synthesis, and decision-making skills; and improve their personal skills such as attitudes, values, and personality (Montelongo, 2002, p. 61). Participation in student organizations has also been shown to lead to higher grade point averages and academic achievement (Kosloski, 2010, p. 79). Student organizations have been demonstrated to be a true force in student success, both academically and in life.

The mission of student organizations is to create "a physical, emotional, psychological, and intellectual forum" to enable students to be effective in the milieu of their education, provide opportunities to improve social skills, and integrate "adaptable skills" into their toolbox (Twale, 1988, p. 2). In their mission statements, student organizations often use terms such as "developing," "inspiring," "preparing," "guiding," and "building" of students and skills (for example, see the mission statements available at bpa.org, deca.org, educatorsrising.org, fbla.org, ffa.org, skillsusa.org). These word choices demonstrate both the forum and development aspects of the mission of student organizations.

Student organizations are essential to student development and thus to student retention from both the institutional and organizational perspectives. Astin (1984) postulates that the amount of student learning and development from a program is relative to the quality and amount of the student's involvement in the program and that the effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is linked to the ability to raise student involvement (p. 519). This line of thought leads to the conclusions that student success will rely on student involvement and that retention of students is much higher as a result of such involvement (Astin, 1984, p. 524). Student organization membership can lead to the success of the student and consequently the educational institution. Retention is a key factor in the ongoing accreditation process (aacsb.org), which is directly related to the institution's financial viability (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2010). In addition, as student organizations are sustained by their membership, student participation is essential to the success of the organization.

Student organization advisors (referred to in this dissertation simply as advisors) are the lifeblood of student organizations. A student organization advisor is usually a faculty or staff member affiliated with the institution where the local group (referred to in this dissertation as a chapter) is based. As such, they are the link between the students, the student organization, the chapter level, and the institution (Evans, Evans, & Sherman, 2001, p. 69) acting as a leader, promoter, teacher, and facilitator in chapter activities and membership (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 62). Advisors serve as mentors, supervisors, performance planners, communicators, educators, team-builders, and assessors (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 95–122). However, the primary role of the advisor is to help the chapter and the students in that chapter succeed by fulfilling the mission to create an environment for students to learn from, facilitate meaningful opportunities for interaction and exchange, and spark growth in the students and expand their skill set (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 122). The success of student organization programs in delivering on these goals depends on the ability of advisors to fulfill these objectives (Twale, 1988, p. 2).

Advisors are further defined as employees or representatives of a secondary or post-secondary institution who are responsible for leading a chapter or local group of a student organization (Janosik et al., 2003, p. 197). For the purposes of this dissertation, this operational definition would exclude advisors for organizations in which the individual would be unable to refuse the advisor assignment due to contractual obligation, criminal penalty, or court-martial, such as the Reserve Officer Training Corps or coaching athletic sports teams (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 31, 35). Advisors implement an agenda for student accomplishment and define chapter responsibilities such as promoting the organization to prospective members and internal and external stakeholders; raising funds to develop resources to support organizational activities; serving as a link to business partners in the community that provide expertise, funding, jobs and opportunities to members; acting as an expert and coach for competitions; organizing and supervising travel for students; and continually developing themselves to stay on top of industry trends and necessary educational outcomes (DECA, 2017). They may receive stipends for their advisor role (Parsippany-Troy Hills Education Association, 2015, p. 40), be strongly encouraged to serve as an advisor as a function of their primary work (Davies, 1979, p. 21), be directly or indirectly incentivized in other forms such as a reduced course load or through recognition during the faculty evaluative process (Nadler, 1997, p. 19), or they may simply function as intra-organizational volunteers.

Student organization executives at the national level and managers at all educational institutions must concern themselves with the retention of existing advisors. Turnover in advisors can lead to decreased membership counts (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 69) and reduced influence (McCann, 1996, p. 269). Turnover also leads to higher organizational costs. Advisors who are new to the role incur higher support costs and require increased resources (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 61; Dahlgren, 2015, p. 5; Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 10) including more training, an increased need for ongoing support, and increased staff time to fulfill these needs. While overarching data on turnover are not available from any source, these elements can serve as leading indicators of issues that student organization executives as well as educational institution managers need to understand. Without knowledge of what keeps advisors in place and performing, the associated turnover costs should be a concern for managers of student organizations at all levels.

This dissertation examines volunteer motivational factors that maintain, sustain, and retain these student organization advisors. The results will provide guidance to both student organization executives and academic institutions about how to best strategically manage advisor talent. The focus of this dissertation is forward-looking, specifically examining proactive measures that can be taken to manage this talent pool, rather than reactions to issues. The current chapter begins by setting out the background of the dissertation and the problem statement. The purpose and importance of the current dissertation in addressing the problems associated with advisor turnover will then be addressed. Finally, the research questions and propositions, as well as operational definitions of terms are presented to provide a basis for the conceptual framework and a scoping review of the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

## Background

Participation in student organizations has been demonstrated to improve student outcomes. Astin (1984) postulated a theory of student involvement that students learn more with increased participation in both academic and social aspects of their educational experience, including student organizations (pp. 525-526). Indeed, there are major benefits for students who participate in student organizations. Studies have shown positive correlations between involvement in student organizations and grade point average (Kosloski, 2010, pp. 75–81), leadership (Kuh & Lund, 1994, pp. 8–12), career preparation (Kuh, 1995, p. 133), and college success and employability (Alfeld et al., 2007). Students who participate in pro-social organizations, as opposed to sports groups, also participate in fewer risky behaviors, such as alcohol usage (Eccles & Barber, 1999, pp. 30–36). As all of these activities are correlated to higher starting salaries when students enter the workforce and students who have higher starting salaries tend to have higher lifetime earnings, the benefits to the students as a result of their involvement are clear (Vermeulen & Schmidt, 2008, p. 445). Student organizations serve the educational institution by being drivers of academic performance, better career preparation, and better life outcomes.

One element common to all student organizations is the advisor, who serves the organization, the students, the chapter, and the institution. The advisement of student organizations "has been an enduring function" in education (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 94) and is vital to the success of both students and the educational institution. Advisors of student organizations play key roles in both the local educational environment and the student organization itself. While there is not one agreed-upon definition of the role of the advisor, the literature demonstrates the varied roles of the advisor as a leader, connector, fundraiser, competitor, professional, promoter, travel agent, and CEO wrapped into one package (DECA, 2016, p. 6). This service is, of course, in addition to their primary, full-time role as an educator.

The initial drive to engage in the role of student organization advisor can vary. Understanding the factors behind the initial decision to engage with an organization and discovering what keeps advisors engaged are necessary aspects of managing this workforce. However, the question of what motivates advisors to take on and continue these roles has been answered in a variety of different ways in the literature. Some advisors say that advisement began as an "occupational hazard" of their job they learned to appreciate (Davies, 1979, p. 23), while others called it an enhancement (R. A. Meyer, 2008, p. 81) or a detriment to their career goals (Cockriel, 1987, p. 6). Some were simply invited to become advisors (Croft, 2004, p. 66) and others identified with the group's mission (Nadler, 1997, p. 22) and joined the cause. With such divergent views, configuring, assessing, and synthesizing the results of these studies to draw conclusions about factors driving advisor talent management are necessary management tactics that require strategies for the organization, the chapter level, and the institution that sponsors them.

Serving as an advisor is a form of organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors are those that are considered to be beyond the scope of the formal job description, undertaken without direct or formal recompense, and completed for the sake of the organization, not the individual (Organ, 1997, p. 86). These extra-role behaviors as advisors are discretionary and promote the effective functioning of the institution but are not tied to the formal employment contract (P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 513). These behaviors are extra-role and prosocial but benefit specific groups or the organization as a whole (Rioux & Penner, 2001, p. 1306; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983, p. 654). Citizenship behaviors are characterized as those "outside of the formal reward system," but "[promote] the effective functioning" of the organization (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 513). By definition, advisors carry out organizational citizenship behaviors by performing outside of their primary role and promoting the effective operation of the institution, the chapter, and the organization through their efforts.

Undertaking such behaviors taxes an increasingly busy educational workforce. As resources become scarcer, teachers, and by extension, advisors, spend 40% of their time on administrative, non-teaching tasks, which can be defined as lesson-planning and preparation, grading, general administrative work, collegial collaborations, student counseling, parent communications, school management duties, and engagement in student activities (OECD, 2017, p. 2). This element of engagement in student activities is obviously crucial to student organization success. Without advisors, student organizations and their members would lack the leadership, experience, knowledge, and training to be successful. However, educational institutions generally ignore the value of this service in favor of research agendas or teaching interests, which leads to difficulties in recruitment, engagement, and retention of faculty engaging in service roles, such as student organization advisement (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, pp. 361–363). Not properly recognizing or taking advantage of this vital workforce could eventually lead to declines in student outcomes and by extension result in declines for the institution.

The student organization advisor is essential to the success of both the student and the organization. Student organizations improve student learning outcomes through higher grade point averages (Kosloski, 2010, p. 79), provide students with career and empowerment skills (Hudson, 1999, p. 20), and even strengthen national security (Wolf & Connors, 2009, p. 121). During World War II, the students from the Future Farmers of America purchased and sold over $36 million dollars in war bonds, cultivated nearly 122,000 acres of victory gardens, and placed more than 50,000 farm workers in the agriculture industry in the United States, significantly contributing to the war effort (Wolf & Connors, 2009, p. 117). Involvement in student organizations assists in the development of students' occupational, social, leadership, and citizenship skills (Gordon, 2008, p. 219; Twale, 1988, pp. 2–3), but none of their accomplishments in these organizations, whether academic, industry-led, or nationally important, would be possible without the advisors leading students in their efforts. Some of the most recent research demonstrates that these organizations act as an intervention that increases student support, improves perceptions of the institution, and enhances contact with faculty, resulting in higher success rates (Mwaikinda & Aruguete, 2016, p. 24). Considering that half to two-thirds of advisors have served less than five years in that role (Rainwater, 2000, p. 149; Vanguri, 2010), retaining them in their capacity as advisors is of immense importance to students, faculty, staff, educational institutions, student organizations, and society at large.

Without advisors' labors in recruitment and management, there would be no membership to support. Without their leadership in program delivery, students would be unable to take advantage of the organization's services and programs. Retention and motivation of advisors are critical not only to the success of the individual student or the local chapter group but to the larger student organization, as they "make or break" the local chapter (Evans et al., 2001, p. 69). The symbiotic relationship between the individual school and the national organization relies upon the advisor as the bridge between the national organization and the local chapter (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60). Advisors act as advocates, facilitators, and leaders for the chapter, the institution, and the national student organization as a whole (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60; Evans et al., 2001, p. 69; Nadler, 1997, pp. 20–23), arguably making theirs the most essential role in the student organization at the local chapter, state, and international levels (Banks & Combs, 1989, pp. 60, 63).

However, the role of the advisor is often defined by the student organization and the educational institution rather than by the advisors themselves. In most cases, strategic vision, programmatic direction, and partnership efforts come from the student organization's national-level office, while policies and procedures, local operational rules, and legal boundaries are set by the educational institution. Nevertheless, the success of all those program elements relies upon the advisor's execution (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 9–12). As student involvement helps to improve outcomes for students and student organizations are a delivery mechanism for such involvement, student organization advisors play a key role in student outcomes and success. The varied aspects of their role require a higher level of engagement than simply participating in teaching or scholarship.

## Problem Statement

Student organization executives and educational institutions must concern themselves with how to attract, sustain, and retain student organization advisors as an essential talent. Advisors play a role in almost every element of the daily operations of a student organization, in addition to the workload, travel, and legal liabilities associated with student organization advisement. However, the role of the advisor is mostly ignored by institutions in favor of activities such as research and teaching, and such service is largely overlooked in the quests for tenure and advancement (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, p. 361). It can be inferred that such inattention can lead to recruitment and retention issues, as employees will focus on what matters most to their employer. As the adage goes, "what gets measured, gets done," and if student organizations are not a priority for those who are making the decisions, the organization will not be a priority for faculty members either.

Despite this lack of respect or recognition, advisors often take on these extra-role responsibilities anyway. The role of an advisor is complex, complicated, and under-compensated (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 10). At times, advisors even pay for the privilege of being an advisor as they finance their membership dues, travel, conference fees, and other participation costs out of their own funds (Nadler, 1997, p. 21). Advisors are also tasked with understanding complex programs that involve significant time commitments, sometimes need to raise large amounts of money to keep the local organizational unit sustainable, may be required to travel and chaperone students for days at a time, and must often advocate for resources in an already scarce environment when fundraising alone cannot sustain the organization (Alexander, Davis, & Pierce, 2015, p. 14).

However, this key role of organization advisement has many challenges. Advisors are responsible for developing membership, securing funding, maintaining fiscal responsibility, and meeting the varied needs of the national organization, the educational institution, and the students. Institutions can have trouble finding advisors due to the lack of attention to the role, the seemingly large workload, required travel, legal liabilities, and alignment with the goals of the organization.

Fewer faculty and staff are seeking to take on the role of an advisor (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 9). The latest data from one national student organization demonstrate that retention has become a concern due to both the retirement of long-term advisors and the attrition of newer advisors (New Jersey DECA, 2018). These data have been borne out through other research. Advisors with less than five years of tenure range from half to two-thirds of the advisor corps (Rainwater, 2000, p. 149; Vanguri, 2010). Indeed, the seminal work in this area specifically cites retention and the turnover in advisors as a consistent challenge to student organizations over time (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 8).

Attrition can have a major effect on the management of the organization. In one organization, 52% of the total corps of advisors are new advisors, defined as those with less than five years of tenure (New Jersey DECA, 2018). Organizational obstacles to service and program implementation result, as every aspect of the organization's operations from training, to content, to deliverables from both the educational institution and the student organization are affected by the inexperience of the advisor.

An analysis of organization-level data shows that more requests for help come from new advisors compared to existing ones (New Jersey DECA, 2018). For example, new advisors require higher levels of service and assistance from the national-level organization regarding questions, programs, regulations, and advice-seeking. Those needs lead to increased costs for the organization and the institution (Tull, Hirt, & Saunders, 2009). Training in programs, technology, process and procedures, as well as effective member and chapter management require an increased investment of staff time and associated costs at the national level.

The time-intensive needs of inexperienced advisors also tax the resources of student organizations themselves. Based on an analysis of membership counts and staff members at the national level, national career and technical student organizations average one staff member at the national level per 7,000 to 10,000 members (bpa.org, deca.org, fbla.org). If a large proportion of advisors require a higher level of service due to inexperience, the business model is unsustainable at this cost structure. The increased investment in staff and capital will ultimately lower sustainability, as it has been shown that low retention rates increase direct costs that impact the bottom line (Siauciunaite & Vizgirdaite, 2015, p. 94).

Revenue decline from advisor turnover is also as important as increased costs related to turnover. When advisors turn over, the local chapter, the institution, and the national organization will suffer. For example, membership tends to wane after an advisor leaves, be it through lower member retention or through the closing of the chapter due to lack of an advisor (DECA, 2016). This decline has multiple effects. To begin, revenue for the national organization will decrease due to reduced membership and conference revenues. Data from Internal Revenue Service filings for eight federally-recognized national career and technical student organizations, show that 90% of their revenue is derived from these two areas (BPA, 2017; DECA, 2017; FBLA-PBL, 2017; FCCLA, 2017; FFA, 2017; Phi Delta Kappa, 2017; SkillsUSA, 2017; TSA, 2017), leaving these organizations susceptible to the actions of the local chapter and relying upon them for financial health. The costs related to turnover and retention of advisors make it necessary for student organization executives to understand the factors that motivate, sustain, and retain advisors.

Chapter and advisor attrition will also result in a lower profile for the organization at both the chapter and the organization level. Within the educational institution, the lack of leadership in the membership recruitment role will result in declining enrollments (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 61). Larger membership numbers in member-based organizations equal political influence (Mermer & Shields, 2016, pp. 2–9) and the realization of both legislative and funding priorities, so these losses will eventually mean that the influence of the organization will shrink along with financial support. Moreover, the organization may lose members to another competing organization that can seize members, fundraising, and influence within the school (Heath-Camp, 1992), all of which have longer-term financial effects on organizational sustainability. For example, in a related post-secondary setting, if a Greek organization is de-certified as an official organization of the institution, other fraternities or sororities may seek out those members, and such declines would place the originating Greek organization into disarray.

The opportunity cost of lack of growth and loss of members is also staggering. For example, Alexander, Davis and Pierce (2005) studied a national student organization known as Family, Consumer and Career Leaders of America. FCCLA is a career and technical educational organization that supports education in consumer sciences throughout the United States (FCCLA.org). In this study, during the 2014-2015 school year, there were 553 FCCLA chapters in Texas, but 2,948 teachers engaged in teaching family and consumer sciences in the state (Alexander et al., 2015, p. 9). If these teachers that were not already involved each became FCCLA advisors and began programs in their schools, it would result in over $250,000 in additional revenue just from dues to the organization, based upon FCCLA's minimum chapter size of 12 members. That revenue does not include conference fees, merchandise, and other ancillary revenues from these students. Extrapolating that data across the United States as a whole demonstrates that there are possibly millions of dollars in revenue being left behind, in part because national student organizations and educational institutions are unable to motivate individuals to become advisors or retain advisors in the program. This inability to attract advisors affects the sustainability of the organization as funding resources in education become scarcer.

While all non-profits (and most for-profit entities) often suffer from lack of consistent funding, student organizations have more unique challenges due to the nature of their funding process. The relationship between local, state, and federal tax dollars that fund the sponsoring educational institutions is complex. In data from 2013, approximately 9.7% of students in the United States were privately educated (https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=55), so the funding for most school student organization programs has been tied to political influence, tax revenue, voter selection, and local and federal standards; resources can be redirected based upon administration and political priorities (McLendon, Hearn, & Mokher, 2009, pp. 688, 706). For example, according to the Association for Career and Technical Education, federal funding for education was cut $2.4 billion dollars for the fiscal year 2018, resulting in less funding for educational programs across the board (http://ctepolicywatch.acteonline.org/federal-funding/page/2/). Even programs that kept funding intact at current levels, like those funded by the Carl D. Perkins Act, have seen a 23% cut to funding over the last 10 years when adjusting for inflation (https://careertech.org/sites/default/files/FY16_Perkins_Funding_Request.pdf). As educational budgets are subjected to funding cuts, so are educational institutions (Hahn, 2015, pp. 1–8). This can have a trickle-down effect on various educational programs, including student organizations, and make scarce resources even more so (Cavanaugh, 2003). These funding issues also highlight the need to understand advisor retention because student organization executives will have to rely more upon volunteers when funding levels are lower, as federal education spending is forecasted to continue to decline (Hahn, 2015, p. 1).

When student organization advisors are compensated, the compensation for those willing to work in key roles advising student organizations or teams varies greatly. One study of advisors in a national student organization showed that only 7.3% were compensated (Nadler, 1997, p. 21) and another showed that payments varied from stipends and complete expense reimbursement to no compensation in either area (Gutschmidt, 2009, pp. 143–147). The results of a recent literature review that included advisor compensation showed that funding continues to be a concern among student organization advisors (Dahlgren, 2015, p. 5).

In a specific example, while a career and technical student organization advisor will work roughly the same amount of hours and travel as much as a football coach, the two student organization advisors of the Future Business Leaders of America group in one district were compensated a total of $1,763 while the football coaching staff was compensated a total of $36,014 (Parsippany-Troy Hills Education Association, 2015, pp. 40–42). This disparity is unique to advisors, as they sometimes receive compensation, as opposed to wholly uncompensated volunteers, and they generally work long hours as advisors. In addition, most will spend money on items such as dues or travel, which is generally unreimbursed (Nadler, 1997, p. 21).

Being a student organization advisor is not a lucrative pursuit for an advisor, and there are better-compensated extra-role behaviors that they may take advantage of, such as coaching sports teams. In addition, only 35% of faculty members reported that service plays a key role in reappointment, tenure, and promotion (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, p. 353), and undertakings in scholarship and teaching tend to lead to better-compensated roles. Understanding what drives student organization advisors to engage and continues to engage them is therefore important for organizational and institutional executives who do not always have the financial wherewithal to better financially compensate advisors.

Furthermore, educators already spend a fair amount of time engaged in non-instructional activity, and that time is divided among many responsibilities (OECD, 2017). Indeed, the administrative burden that teachers now face has been well chronicled in news media reports that teachers are retiring early, resigning, and seeking different careers because they can no longer cope with these time-intensive tasks (Brunden, 2016; Freedman, 2007; McCartney, 2011). If the burdens are immense enough to drive educators to leave the profession, then the organizations that rely upon them to fulfill extra-role behaviors, like student organization advisor, may suffer. Understanding the factors that help retain, engage, and motivate this workforce will help both organizations and institutions manage for retention.

Finally, as student organizations grow, so does the need to attract and retain staff to oversee them. As collegiate Greek organizations shrink due to the increased scrutiny over ongoing substance abuse issues (McCabe, Veliz, & Schulenberg, 2018, p. 541), poor image, or perceived lack of benefits (Fouts, 2010, p. 27), there is an opportunity for schools to grow other types of student organizations in their stead. This “good problem” is one that can also result in organizational needs and drive increased privations in this area.

## Purpose of the Study

To meet the challenge of properly managing advisor talent, managers in both student organizations and educational institutions must tailor management efforts to the motivational needs of advisors. The purpose of this study is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations on how to best manage this workforce to achieve engagement and retention. This study will examine organizational citizenship behaviors and the volunteer motivational functions that guide advisor attraction, engagement, and retention. This work will also provide insight into the strategic talent management practices that will align the needs of the organization and the needs of the institution in creating student success. Furthermore, this study will help institutions and national student organization executives minimize attrition and the related turnover costs through identifying best practices for retention.

This dissertation will configure results from empirical studies of both secondary and post-secondary student organization advisors at the local level. It will take the form of a systematic review, which is a type of research that aims to bridge the gap from scholarship to practice by bringing together evidence in a format that allows management consumers of research studies to gain the knowledge, benefit, and insights from many studies without the time consumption of having to read and assess all the relevant literature (Thomas, Harden, & Newman, 2012). This review will be conducted using a thematic synthesis. This type of synthesis attempts to bring together findings of different types of studies but is still systematically grounded through rendering the results into a common framework for understanding (Thomas et al., 2012). Using thematic synthesis in this study is appropriate for the research questions, as the research that can be applied to this area is both qualitative and quantitative, and the best available evidence can be applied to the research question. Finally, the data will be configured to produce new concepts and explanations (Thomas & Harden, 2008). A more detailed description of this methodology will be provided in Chapter 3.

## Scope of Study

The scope of this study will encompass student organization advisors serving at both secondary and post-secondary educational institutions. The chapters they lead may be independent or a part of organizations that operate at the chapter, state, and national/international levels. Advisors of Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs will not be included in this study due to the inability of these advisors to refuse to advise ROTC programs as a court-martial offense for disobeying a direct order. Coaches of athletic teams will also be excluded from the study, as they do not fall within the operational definition of student organization advisors and can in some circumstances be compelled to coach against their will as a condition of employment (State of New Jersey, n.d.).

**Significance of the Study to Management**

The retention of student organization advisors is essential to the survival of both the educational institution and the national organization. Students who are involved with their schools beyond their classes tend to have better educational and career outcomes. Educational institutions experience a ripple effect when expectations in student development are not met, including loss of accreditation, loss of local control, and financial difficulty. Student organizations serve as a pathway for success in those areas. National levels of student organizations can also face financial difficulty as a result of declines in revenue and increased costs. A lack of attention to this vitally important workforce can eventually have damaging consequences for all concerned. Unfortunately, lax management of advisors is an issue that continues to recur.

For decades, student organizations have struggled with misconceptions about their programs, resistance from administrators, lack of monetary rewards, teacher turnover, and attrition as issues affecting their long-term viability (Davies, 1979), and such issues continue to persist (Alexander et al., 2015). It is essential that managers and executives of student organizations have an understanding of why advisors engage and disengage in their roles, despite the pressures of time, workload, and compensation inherent in today's educational system.

The long-term financial sustainability of these organizations is at stake, as advisors hold the front-line responsibility for delivering upon the goals of both the educational institution and the national organization. To take an example from the world of athletics, if there were no football teams at levels lower than the National Football League, there would be no pipeline to identify, develop, and train talent from local communities, schools, and colleges. The infrastructure of having to develop that talent would be prohibitively costly and wholly unsustainable for team owners, and the league would cease to exist. The same principle drives the management needs of student organizations. If the national office were responsible for all elements of program delivery and management across networks of thousands of schools, the costs of participation would be so exorbitantly high that it would be unsustainable. Student organizations rely upon the local chapter and in turn, advisors for survival.

With a true understanding of why student organization advisors choose to engage and remain in their role as student organization advisors, organizational practices and programs at the national level as well as management practices at the institutional level can be aligned with their needs. Implementation and execution of specific aspects of how this workforce is managed can be honed to better meet the motivational needs of the local advisor. Furthermore, programs that are developed to manage for retention can be supported by evidence-based data to ensure that the motivational factors are not just empirically understood but utilized for the success of all stakeholders.

**Significance of the Study to Scholarship**

Based upon searches of major academic databases, there has been no attempt to configure or aggregate studies of factors in advisor retention in any type of systematic review. This gap in the literature demonstrates the need to add to the scholarship in this area. Such an undertaking would attempt to validate the findings of multiple studies and add meaning to the current pool of data. Since single studies are vulnerable to biases and validity issues, looking at a larger pool of data for consistency and meaning will lend further credibility to the findings.

In addition, this area of student organization research is underserved. Most research on this topic focuses on student outcomes, effectiveness, and assessment. Moreover, groups or institutions have been the focus of most research, rather than the advisor. The current study will provide a broader scope of inquiry and offer insight into the profession for both student organizations and educational institution professionals.

Furthermore, overall research on the management of student organization advisors is an area that is lacking in depth. While there is much research on the efficacy of student organizations and their outcomes for their participants, advisors have been neglected in the research. Nevertheless, the key role they play has importance for the future of research in this area and is essential to understanding how student organizations operate and their effectiveness in achieving positive outcomes.

## Research Questions

The goal of this research is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations about how to best manage student organization advisors for engagement and retention. The research questions guiding this study's evidence-based research analysis and synthesis are:

RQ1: How do student organizations and educational institutions strategically manage student organization advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles?

RQ2: What talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged advisor workforce?

## Discussion of the Themes and Concepts

### Functional Approach to Volunteerism

The functional approach to volunteerism is the operationalization of the theory posited by Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) regarding the recruitment, retention, and placement of volunteers. This theory postulates that volunteers are motivated to engage in service to meet their own needs, which are described as values, understanding, career, social, protective, and enhancement needs. The *values* function describes the act of volunteerism to express values important to the volunteer. The *understanding* function describes the volunteer as seeking to learn about the world or to utilize skills that are under-valued in their everyday life. The *career* function encompasses gaining career-related knowledge and understanding gained through volunteering. The *social* function allows individuals to strengthen personal and group relationships through volunteering. The *protective* function relates to volunteerism as a way to reduce negative feelings about oneself through volunteerism. The *enhancement* function allows volunteers to grow psychologically through their experience (Clary et al., 1998). By adapting this theory to the context of student organizations, advisors can be classified as volunteers who are driven by one or more of these functions.

**Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

The concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) dictates that for organizations to operate effectively, employees must be willing to do more than what their job requires (Smith et al., 1983, p. 662). Organizational citizenship behavior consists of two different dimensions of prosocial, non-task behaviors: altruism and compliance. Altruism is extra-role behavior directed toward specific individuals, while compliance is directed toward the organization as a whole (Smith et al., 1983, p. 661). Advisors engage in organizational citizenship behavior as they serve the institution and the organization (compliance) and the students (altruism).

**Strategic Talent Management**

Strategic talent management (STM) differs from strategic human resources management in that it goes beyond the traditional model of projecting staffing needs and managing employees through their progression with the organization. Rather, strategic talent management involves systematically identifying pivotal roles that contribute to the strategic advantage of the organization, cultivating a pool of high-potential employee talent, and differentiating the human resource structure to accommodate the amalgamation of the position and the identified talent through the deployment of strategies meant to deploy and support that talent (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, pp. 305–306). Because this talent pool contributes to the organization in a crucial way, strategic talent management can be a major element in the attraction and retention of student organization advisors and will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

## Definitions and Terminology

Operational definitions of key terms used in this study are provided to ensure conceptual understanding.

### Student Organization

Student organizations are operationally defined for this study as intra-curricular, co-curricular, or extra-curricular, not-for-profit or non-profit organizations at the secondary or post-secondary education level that enhance student learning through contextual instruction, leadership development, personal development, applied learning, educational persistence and attainment, and social self-concepts (ctsos.org, Dunkel et al., 2014; Winston Jr. et al., 1997). Student organizations may operate at the chapter (or local), state, national, or international levels.

### Student Organization Executives

Student organization executives represent the management of the levels of student organizations above the chapter level. This group includes state-, national-, and international-level executives responsible for the professional management of these organizations. They may also be referred to simply as the national or international level of the organization.

**Student Organization Chapter**

For the purposes of this study, a chapter of a student organization is the local operating unit of the national level of the student organization. Chapters may operate at the secondary or post-secondary level. The chapter consists of the chapter advisor and students and is responsible for the guidance, administration, and management of the local unit of the student organization (Minchello, 2017, p. 2). A chapter may also be referred to as a local group.

**Secondary Educational Institution**

Secondary institutions of education are operationally defined for the purposes of this study as both public and privately operated educational institutions, that offer "formal instructional programs with a curriculum designed for students in their ninth through the twelfth year of full-time education" (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011, p. 38).

**Post-Secondary Educational Institution**

A post-secondary institution is operationally defined by Knapp, Kelly-Reid, Ginder, and Mary (2007) as an:

> organization that is open to the public and has as its primary mission the provision of postsecondary education, i.e., formal instructional programs with a curriculum designed primarily for students who are beyond the compulsory age for high school. This definition includes academic, vocational, and continuing professional education programs. (p. 1)

The term institution throughout this dissertation may refer to secondary, post-secondary, or both types of educational institutions.

## Chapter Summary

The importance of retaining student organization advisors was introduced in this chapter. Student organization advisors are essential to the long-term viability of student organizations at the national or global level because they carry much of the burden of work done for the entire student organization and also play an important role in driving student outcomes for the institution. This chapter provided background and insight into the management problems of advisor turnover, including increased costs, decreased revenues, loss of influence, and competition from rival organizations. The purpose of this study is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations on how to best manage this workforce to achieve engagement and retention.

## Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation will be organized into a five-chapter structure. The introduction, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the problem, and theoretical concepts were presented in Chapter 1. Chapter 2 presents a scoping review of the literature, including concepts key to the understanding of this topic, as well as an overview of the conceptual framework. In Chapter 3, the importance of evidence-based research and the systematic review methodology are discussed. Chapter 4 reports the findings and conclusions of the research and synthesis as related to the research questions. Chapter 5 offers the overall conclusions, recommendations for management, emerging trends, and opportunities for further research.

# CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

## Introduction and Review of Study Background

The purpose of this study is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations for how to best manage student organization advisor workforces to achieve engagement and retention. To address this purpose, two research questions have been developed: How do student organizations and educational institutions strategically manage student organization advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles? What talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged advisor workforce?

To analyze the concept of the strategic talent management of student organization advisors, this chapter will begin with a discussion of the theoretical framework of organizational citizenship behavior, the functional theory of volunteerism, and strategic talent management. This is followed by a scoping literature review to present data from a wide array of sources to examine how these concepts interact with the management of student organization advisors. Finally, a conceptual framework is introduced to demonstrate the propositions drawn from the background and the scoping literature review.

## Theoretical Framework

### Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The theoretical construct of organizational citizenship behavior was first proposed by Bateman, Smith, Organ, and Near in 1983 and was based upon a combination of Chester Barnard’s concept of the “willingness to cooperate” and Daniel Katz’s identification of the differences between “dependable” and “innovative and spontaneous” behaviors (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 513). The theory defines organizational citizenship behaviors as those that are not recognized by the formal system of remuneration or compensation but that promote the successful performance of the organization and that are generally not punishable when not performed (Organ, 1988).

The seeds of the theory can be found in the works of Daniel Katz (1964) and Chester Barnard, who identified the basic tenets of involvement in an organization's goals (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000). Their research theorized that the organization must prevail upon its members to remain as a part of the organization, that the members must dependably carry out their roles, and that successful organizations have members that act beyond their roles (Katz, 1964, pp. 131–133). Organizational citizenship behavior as a construct evolved from that conceptualization (Smith et al., 1983, p. 653).

The original research advanced the idea that extra-role behaviors are undertaken for two reasons: altruism and compliance. Altruism helps specific persons (Smith et al., 1983, p. 661) and tends to arise out of situational circumstances, such as a problem of a co-worker, a request for assistance, a need for service, or a desire to help someone out of caring feelings for that person. Berkowitz (1972) describes altruism as "fairly commonplace" and notes that it incurs little cost and is performed without any expectation of direct or compensatory payment in return (pp. 65–67).

By contrast, compliance behaviors come from a different place and are related to norms that are already in place. For example, compliance behaviors are about what a good employee "ought to do," versus actions to benefit an individual person with no expectation of reciprocity (Smith et al., 1983, p. 655). These behaviors could include adherence to rules, appropriate utilization of work hours, good attendance, and good conduct (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 782).

Seminal works demonstrate organizational citizenship behavior as a separate and distinct construct within organizational behaviors.

The original definition of organizational citizenship behavior has been further clarified as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1997, p. 86). This is not to say that organizational citizenship behavior does not lead to some rewards. However, these rewards are considered to be "indirect and uncertain" (Organ, 1997, p. 87) and may or may not lead to increased compensation or promotion; either way, they are not guaranteed by the role or the performance of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988, p. 5).

There are critics of this construct. Studies have shown that the definition of "extra-role" is loose and can vary from supervisor to supervisor, employee to employee, and workplace to workplace (Morrison, 1994, pp. 1559–1561). However, it has also been shown that these variations are issues of measurement and definition rather than of concept. Regardless of where the line is drawn for when a behavior is extra-role, who would consider it to be extra-role, or how it should be specifically, empirically defined on a construct basis, the concept itself shows good validity, with some construct improvement (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995, pp. 271–276).

Organizational citizenship behavior differs from contextual performance as well. Contextual performance is defined as the maintenance of the "broader organizational, social, and psychological environment" in which the core business must function (Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997, p. 76). The difference between contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior is that the former need not be extra-role nor non-rewarded (Organ, 1997, p.

90). That is, contextual performance activities can be non-task but still essential and intra-role. For example, a human resources manager at a manufacturing plant does not operate the machinery that produces the product (non-task), but the manager's role is still vital to the staffing of the plant, the maintenance of the environment, and therefore important to the overall operations of the organization. Based upon this subsequent research in the area of organizational citizenship behavior, Organ (1997) more thoroughly defined contextual performance as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (p. 95).

**Functional Theory of Volunteerism**

In psychological terms, the functionalist theory asserts that the reasons behind holding a belief about something can be found in the function that such beliefs perform in service to the individual. This function may also serve the ego, allow one to express oneself, assert values, or even serve the individual's self-concept (Katz, 1960, pp. 163–204). The theory states that one's attitudes about these beliefs inform one's personality.

The functional theory of volunteerism builds upon this concept. Volunteering has been empirically defined as an activity for which time is "freely given to benefit another person, group or organization" but does not preclude the actor from benefiting from the work through either recompense or other intangible benefits (Wilson, 2000, pp. 215–216). However, there is much debate about what is considered a volunteer. Carson (1999) stated that developing an "all-purpose" theory of volunteering is a nearly impossible feat due to the precision necessary in defining and measuring the concept (p. 67). Volunteerism also does not imply that those acting in that capacity are amateurs, and some volunteers are the most accomplished practitioners in the entire world in their field. Nevertheless, Merrill (2006) created a working definition consisting of four tenets of volunteerism: it implies dynamic involvement, is undertaken by the volunteer's own free will, is not motivated by financial gain, and focuses on the common good (p. 10). These four elements are generally present within student organization advisement, as the financial gains are negligible to non-existent, advisors spend time on their role, and they undertake extra-role behaviors that serve the common good of the organization.

This theory dictates that volunteerism serves different needs within individuals, giving them an opportunity to express their values, learn and practice knowledge, satisfy social needs, serve their career interests, protect them from their own personal problems, and enhance ego growth (Clary et al., 1998, pp. 1517–1518). As their volunteer activities fulfill one or more of these functions, volunteers are able to maintain a level of satisfaction through volunteerism and remain engaged (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996, p. 504). If they remain engaged, the associated costs of turnover decrease, which provides benefit to both the educational institution and the student organization.

**Strategic Talent Management**

While there is not a single, generally accepted definition of what strategic talent management is (Ashton & Morton, 2005, p. 30), Collings and Mellahi (2009) identified four key streams of thought that are blended together to encompass most elements of the prevalent definitions. The first element is the role of traditional human resource management, involving recruitment, retention, and succession planning. The second strand focuses on developing pools of talent and managing employee progression. The third involves managing top-performing employees up and low-performing employees out of the organization. The last piece involves identifying key positions that will provide the firm strategic advantage and developing a talent pool that is uniquely positioned to contribute to that strategic advantage. This model takes a strategic view of people, positions, and business models to drive a talent system that is both aligned to the organization's long-term strategic needs and focused on the talent at hand in the areas of recruitment and rewards (Sparrow, Scullion, & Tarique, 2017b, p. 38). It is based upon the theory that performance is a function of facility, purpose, and opportunity of employees to accomplish their goals (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 310).

There are four approaches to this model of strategic talent management. The *key people* approach allows for differentiated awards for proven talent. The *strategic pools* approach provides for linking talent to competitive advantage. The *key practices* approach brings differentiated techniques to managing talent, and the *key positions* approach allows for treating positions as pivotal rather than classifying the individuals that occupy them as pivotal (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 38). The approach taken by management may vary by situation, position, or talent, and all four of these tactics can be applied in strategic talent management.

## Scoping Literature Review

### Student Organizations

**Types of organizations.** There are many different types of student organizations at the secondary and post-secondary levels of education. For example, Stanford University has 625 student organizations on campus, across all disciplines (https://admission.stanford.edu/student/organizations/). The varied student organizations that exist on high school and college campuses are generally classified into one of the following groups: student government, Greek letter organizations, residence hall organizations, honors and recognition organizations, military, sports, academic, or special-interest (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 24).

Each of these types of organizations has a role. Student government organizations are charged with assisting in institutional governance. Greek letter organizations consist of the fraternity and sorority system and usually only exist at the post-secondary level. Residence hall associations are programs and services that not only support academic progress but promote individuals' well-being. Honor society membership is conferred based upon scholarship or leadership in a field of study. Military organizations are affiliated with the United States military and are meant to incorporate military training in education. Sports programs are generally instructional, recreational, for purposes of winning, or for professional purposes. Academic groups combine academic learning and student involvement, while special interest groups link students with non-academic interests, such as community service, shared hobbies, or religion (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 24–41). This dissertation focuses on student groups that are non-military and non-sport.

Student organizations may operate on scales that are beyond the institution. While there are some groups that are specifically contained to one institution, there can be local, regional, national, or international student organizations, and the local unit is often referred to as a chapter. The benefits of establishing a chapter of a larger student organization lie in having more support mechanisms for student development, advisor support, and name recognition for the group.

The structure of a student organization chapter consists of two types of positions. The first are students, who serve as members and officers and are the main beneficiaries of the organization's mission (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 19). The second key role is that of the advisor, who is a professional staff member engaged to provide support to the student organization (Yoon, 1996, p. 58). In addition to these participants, additional stakeholders include the national organization level (if the organization is a nationally-organized or chartered association), and the educational institution where the student organization's chapter is based.

**Roles, benefits, and challenges of student organizations.** Student organizations provide a "critical link" between the educational institution's missions of learning and development (Twale, 1988, p. 16). They can help students develop self-determination, build self-confidence, strengthen decision-making and problem-solving abilities, cultivate employment skills, and facilitate interpersonal interaction (McNally & Harvey, 2001, p. 117). Student organizations also help to develop individuals as leaders, provide experiences, assist students in adjusting to the school and community, build new skills to broaden the development of the participant's social, recreational, and professional capabilities, and serve as a laboratory where students can demonstrate skills in self-government and self-discipline (Goren, 1956, p. 351). Presidents of the United States, state Governors, and celebrities have all been involved in student organizations in their educational careers (Binkley & Byers, 1982). Student organizations also enable institutions to deliver on the promise of educating the whole person (Nuss, 2003, p. 65) and serve the varied needs of students of all types.

Other groups in addition to students derive benefits from student organizations. These organizations often provide services through labor, mentorship, fundraising, involvement and promotion (Evans et al., 2001, p. 65). For example, Future Farmers of America greatly contributed to the war effort in World War II through its members' purchase and sale of over $36 million dollars in war bonds, their cultivation of nearly 122,000 acres of victory gardens, and placement of over 50,000 farm workers in the agriculture industry in the United States (Wolf & Connors, 2009, p. 117). Student organizations help increase the public's awareness of the educational institution and raise its profile, helping to market the institution in the community.

The academic structure of the educational institution benefits as well. Both secondary and post-secondary institutions are able to attract and retain students through the "visibility and involvement" of student organizations (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 14), whose members act as student ambassadors and spokespersons, and aid in the recruitment of students. Institutions also benefit from the higher retention rates of students who are involved in student organizations (Astin, 1993, p. 394). Students who are involved in student organizations can help in times of crisis and even advise the institution on a myriad of matters. An example of this is the formation of student groups in the aftermath of the recent campus shootings in Parkland, Florida, which demonstrates the beneficial power of student involvement (Fagenson & Johnson, 2018). The educational institution derives benefits from the increased retention that student organizations provide and when combined with the positive impacts to profile, educational performance, and outcomes, student organizations can help to stabilize tuition and ease institution-borne costs (Roebber & Meadows, 2012).

Student organizations themselves also benefit from the participation of students. As the burdens on such organizations have shifted from support mechanisms like the government to members and corporations (Lankard, 1996), they survive on the strength of members and revenues associated with membership, including dues, conference fees, and the sale of retail items, that fund staff, materials, building, and other associated expenses. The organization also benefits from the opportunity to contribute to the institution and the student, as well as to fulfill the organization's purpose and mission (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 16). The national organization benefits as the students carry out its mission, succeed in their education and careers, and entice other students to become involved.

The national organization's reliance upon the local unit does not mean that student organizations do not pose a challenge to other stakeholders. The educational institution must concern itself with funding of these organizations, the legal concerns of student involvement and travel, the physical resources involved in hosting student organizations (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 7), as well as attracting and retaining advisors, which is a focus of this work. The organization must maintain its membership base (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60), monitor funding issues (Evans et al., 2001, p. 70), manage finances (Lipsky, 1944, pp. 484–487), and ensure it remains in good standing with the institution (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 9). Student members must also balance their academic and student organization responsibilities to ensure success in both efforts (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 13). However, the benefits to the stakeholders outweigh these challenges.

In sum, educational institutions need student organizations to retain existing students, recruit new students, and improve the performance of the students involved. Organizations will in turn help raise both revenues and the profile of the educational institution. The driving force of those efforts is the student organization advisor, who serves both the whole of the student organization (locally, and in applicable cases, nationally) and the educational institution.

## Student Organization Advisors

**Role of the advisor in the organization.** The student organization advisor is an essential element in the organization. The advisor's role is often discussed or explained in the literature, but usually in the abstract (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60). Student organization advisement has historically been broken down into three elements: maintenance functions, growth functions, and program functions (Bloland, 1962, p. 46). The advisor has also been described as the person that provides support and assistance to the members (Yoon, 1996, p. 58).

One national student organization states that the role of the advisor encompasses the tasks of being a leader, connector, fundraiser, competitor, professional, promoter, travel agent, and CEO in one job (DECA, 2016, p. 6). Others describe advisors as mentors, supervisors, and educators (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 1996). Usually, the advisor position is an extra-role to the individual's primary position (Van Dyne et al., 1995, pp. 217–218), and its duties are generally outside of the normal assessed and compensated tasks of that position (Dee, 2000, p. 4.58.1).

Advisors are usually faculty or professional staff members of the institutions where the student organization chapter is based (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, p. 351). Regardless of the platitudinal lexicon afforded to advisors, from a functional perspective, they are expected to meet with officers, set programs of action, attend meetings and activities, be an information resource, interpret and enforce institutional policies, and motivate and encourage members (Dunkel, 2004). They may be called upon to act as fundraisers (Nadler, 1997, p. 22), be responsible for membership growth (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 61) and program delivery (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 100–120), and even chaperone student travel and events (Bloland, 1962, p. 48). These responsibilities mean that advisors must serve not only the educational institution, but also the national student organization, and the student members themselves. They are a lynchpin in delivering student organization services to all of these constituencies.

Though it may be taxing, this hard work and effort has benefits for the advisor, as well as for the community, the student organization, the educational institution, and the student members. Advisors as mentors may have a great impact on the growth and development of students. They can take pride in the recognition their students receive and sometimes earn recognition for themselves. They can also observe the sense of the student body, often being more in tune with fads, culture, and changes. Advising student organizations provides opportunities to be an educator outside of the classroom and to form networks of like-minded individuals. It is a way to serve the educational institution as well as the students. Finally, advisors can gain the rewards of participating in an organization that appeals to their own special interests (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 17–18). However, it is unknown whether these benefits are the main reasons that advisors engage in the organizational citizenship of becoming or serving as an advisor, or if there are other driving forces behind taking on this role.

**Challenges in recruiting and retaining advisors.** Advisors also face challenges in their role that can lead to recruitment and retention issues. They are charged with having to practice time management to undertake advisement in addition to their actual in-role duties (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 12). Educators' time is quite limited, and their struggles with paperwork, state standards, and required in-service training have been well documented (Freedman, 2007; McCartney, 2011). Advising student organizations takes time that is already limited by other factors (Nadler, 1997, p. 21; Yoon, 1996, p. 59) and puts additional pressure on educators who feel they are already overworked (Lankard, 1996, p. 4).

Advisors are often under or unappreciated. In a study on service at land-grant post-secondary institutions, service, including advisement, was among the least influential factors in granting tenure (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, pp. 362–363). Other studies have shown that advisement of students and student organizations is given little consideration in comparison to teaching and publications in tenure decisions (Marshall & Rothgeb, 2011, p. 575). While institutions generally find value in student organization advisement, it is not usually factored into promotion and tenure decisions (Myers & Dyer, 2005, p. 43), making it hard to retain faculty and staff who are on the tenure or promotion track in these positions.

Although they may be overworked and underappreciated, advisors are often held responsible for the success or failure of the student organization (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60). They have been described as the final word on all activities as well as the link to the institution, alumni, and the professions which they represent (Evans et al., 2001, p. 69). Accountability to students, the national organization, the institution, parents, and other stakeholders can be overwhelming (Alexander et al., 2015, pp. 13–15). Huff (2003) determined that all of the success factors for successful chapters lay upon the advisor's shoulders when their advisement and classroom duties were combined (p. 46-48). Since students will come and go and advisors generally remain constant (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 62), they are the lightning rod for the organization and the institution in success or failure.

Compensation has been shown to be a factor in advisor's willingness to serve as a student organization advisor (Davies, 1979, p. 67). Not only are their workload and responsibility great, but studies have demonstrated that more than 90% of advisors are unpaid for their work or are uncompensated. Student organization advisors frequently do not receive course relief, release time, or other easing of the burdens from their in-role position for these extra-role behaviors (Gutschmidt, 2009, pp. 173–185; Nadler, 1997, p. 21), and rewards are often peripheral (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 18).

Recruitment and training of advisors are also a cause for concern. There can be a distinct lack of training for new student organization advisors. Banks and Combs (1989) stated that advisors are "often left to learn effective advising on their own" (p. 60), and lack of training can be an obstacle in willingness to serve as an advisor (Hudson, 1999, p. 54) or even cause some to leave service as an advisor (Alexander et al., 2015, pp. 13–15). Indeed, advisors look for more formalized training in their roles (Vanguri, 2010) and evidence demonstrates that organizational models that provide for such training either formally or informally tend to attract advisors (Stanislawski & Haltinner, 2008, p. 175).

**Issues Associated with Advisor Turnover**

**Training.** Not only are their workload and responsibility great, but relevant training is necessary for educators to improve both the quality of instruction and the quality of advisement in student organizations (Cannon, Kitchel, & Tenuto, 2013, p. 51). However, the lack of training of advisors has been a persistent issue resulting in advisor turnover. As far back as World War II, lack of advisor training was viewed as a force behind advisors' disengaging from an organization (Lipsky, 1944, p. 484). These issues have continued through the present day. Dee (2000) reported that "very few" educators receive training on mentoring or advising students (p. 4.84.5). Furthermore, advisors often must learn through anecdotal evidence and trial-and-error, thereby demonstrating a training gap (Dahlgren, 2015, p. 5; Dee, 2000, p. 4.58.1).

When training does occur, it is often non-standardized. The Council for Advancement in Higher Education Studies states that even though there is an expectation of training, there is no prescribed course of study (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 276). Relevant training is necessary for educators to improve both the quality of instruction and the quality of advisement in student organizations (Cannon et al., 2013, p. 51). This lack of training can spell disaster for a student organization at the chapter level, as any inattention to program elements will interrupt the growth cycle and result in decline (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60).

**Membership & conference revenue.** National student organizations are funded in large part by dues and conference fees. In a review of 2016 tax data from the career and technical student organizations recognized by the U.S. Department of Education, between 75% and 90% of revenues were derived from these categories (GuideStar.org). The costs due to the lack of training, combined with resulting declines from inattention to the student organization (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60) can have a significant impact upon the national-level student organization as a whole.

**Limited staff support resources.** National-level student organizations often operate with limited personnel to serve student organization chapters, and they can have a high staff member to advisor rate. This means that student organizations, in order to control costs, are minimally staffed to service their members. An overview of staff and membership counts from 10 national student organizations reported one full-time equivalent staff member servicing a range of 5,000 to 10,000 members (ctsos.org). Successful student organization advisors are required to be subject matter experts (Evans et al., 2001, p. 69), and one of the ways to become one is to engage the national organization level for knowledge. The more staff such interactions necessitate, the more resources are required to service the body of chapters. This increased level of service can create resource allocation problems and tax already over-utilized staff resources, resulting in decreased service levels to advisors.

**Inability to attract new advisors due to compensation.** The role of the advisor is diverse, intricate, and often under-compensated or not compensated at all. The payment of dues, fundraising, after-hours activities, training, compensation, and education have all been linked to advisors' not participating as student organization advisors (Hudson, 2003, p. 3). Advisor service has even been described by one author as both a privilege and a penance (Dee, 2000). Evidence has shown that many advisors receive no compensation for their time, either in course-release, paid compensation, or even support with dues or expenses (Evans et al., 2001, p. 69; Gutschmidt, 2009, pp. 112–120). The practice of offering little or no compensation can make it hard to attract chapter advisors to take on these roles.

**Loss of recruitment and retention value to the institution.** The ability of an educational institution to attract and retain students relies in part upon the prominence and participation of students in student organizations (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 14). The connection of these student organizations to academic programs helps recruit students to the institution as well. Academic performance, learning, and retention are all positively impacted by student and faculty involvement with student organizations (Astin, 1993). As faculty advisors are the touchstone for the student organization from year to year (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60), the loss of an advisor can negatively affect the organization's viability, thereby snowballing to the institution. As faculty advisors can "make or break" a student organization (Filak & Pritchard, 2007, p. 64), they can feasibly have a direct impact upon key factors leading to the survival of the institution if the local chapter of a student organization fails due to advisor turnover.

**Loss of service to the institution.** One of the main duties of a faculty advisor is to be a motivator (Ferris, Johnson, Lovitz, Stroud, & Rudisille, 2010, p. 37). New advisors are often undertrained (Grossman Leopard, 2017, p. 3) and face steep learning curves (Banks & Combs, 1989, p. 60). While advisors are learning about their role and how to best fulfill it, the organization can suffer. Student members serve the educational institution in a variety of capacities, such as on advisory committees, student government boards, institutional boards, and even state-level governing boards (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 15). Without the advisor as a motivator to provide encouragement, demonstrate belief in, and help students to set and achieve goals (Ferris et al., 2010, p. 40), the institution can suffer a loss of service. As a result, the best students may not be motivated to take on service roles in the educational institution, and the organization may suffer as a result.

## Organizational Citizenship Behavior

**Student organization advisement as organizational citizenship behavior.** Student organization advisement can be described as organizational citizenship behavior. Altruism (also referred to in the literature as helpfulness) can be defined as assistance to specific persons (Organ, 1997, p. 94). In this case, advisors can be helping specific students or a colleague, associate, or their supervisors. Research bears this finding out, as nearly half of advisors in one study were asked to serve in the role by either fellow faculty or by students (Nadler, 1997, p. 27).

Student organization advisement also reflects organizational citizenship in the element of compliance. Taking on an advisor role when asked to, even though it is outside of the job role, as was reported by a third of advisors in one study (Nadler, 1997, p. 27), demonstrates that advisors also take on these roles as a result of being a “good citizen” and doing things that are right or proper, which are classic signs of compliance behaviors within organizational citizenship behavior (Smith et al., 1983, p. 662).

Furthermore, advising itself generally consists of non-task behaviors. While some advisors report being assigned a role as an advisor, most have reported a lack of compensation and support (Gutschmidt, 2009; Nadler, 1997) and that university service such as advisement is an area of low value in the tenure process (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006; Marshall & Rothgeb, 2011). Without compensation and formal recognition, the tasks can certainly be considered non-task, even when assigned by a supervisor (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000, pp. 548–549). By taking on these roles, advisors serve the local chapter and its students through altruism and both the educational institution and the student organization through compliance. This leads to the following proposition:

P1. Advisors practice a form of organizational citizenship behavior through their service as advisors, which is an extra-role behavior.

**Functional Approach to Volunteerism**

**Advisors as volunteers.** As advisors are frequently uncompensated (Nadler, 1997, p. 21) and most are engaging in non-task behaviors that benefit the organization, are actively engaged in the organization, and undertake the task to benefit others, their actions would satisfy the definition of volunteerism. Therefore, this construct can be used as an operational definition of advisors as volunteers. Based upon these parameters, student organization advisors can be considered volunteers, and their motivations can be explained by the functional approach to volunteerism.

In an attempt to determine why volunteers are motivated to engage and remain engaged in volunteer service, Clary et al. (1992) developed a psychological strategy for the placement, recruitment, and retention of volunteers. That strategy involved the identification of six major factors that serve the individual by engaging in volunteerism. Different volunteers pursue different goals, based upon their individual needs (Clary et al., 1998, pp. 1516–1518) and many may have multiple motivations for volunteering (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 157). A national survey demonstrated that the configuration of functions that motivate volunteers varies with the type of volunteering, but some functions will remain prevalent, based upon the context. (Clary et al., 1996, p. 497). As a result, the following propositions can be derived:

P2. Advisors are motivated by one or more of the functions outlined in the functional theory of volunteerism.

P3. Similar to other volunteers, there will be multiple functions that are important to student organization advisor talent management.

P4. One of the functions will emerge as the prevalent function that drives student organization advisors.

## Alignment of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Functional Approach

The functional approach to volunteerism and the concept of organizational citizenship behavior operate in tandem. Volunteerism and organizational citizenship behaviors are both prosocial behaviors (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005, p. 404; Penner, 2002, pp. 451–454), share similar traits of being "non-obliged, beneficial activities," and form role identity in similar ways (Finkelstein et al., 2005, p. 405). Organizational citizenship activities can also lead to engaging in volunteerism, and the drivers behind organizational citizenship behavior, such as building relationships and pride in the organization, can correlate to the varied functions of volunteerism (Van Vianen, Nijstad, & Voskuijl, 2008, p. 154). As a result, a deduction can be made that engaging in organizational citizenship behavior can drive individuals to engage in volunteer behaviors and therefore, organizational citizenship behavior and volunteer behaviors can be linked together. This results in the following proposition:

P5. Organizational citizenship behaviors are linked to the functional approach to volunteerism.

## Strategic Talent Management

**Strategic talent management as a driver of organizational citizenship behavior.** Organizational commitment has been considered a key element in strategic talent management. The more closely an individual fits into an organization, the higher the organizational commitment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005, pp. 315–316) and the better the employee's performance (Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008, p. 1014). When employees engage in extra-role behaviors, they participate more, are more concerned with the health of the organization, and become mentors (Organ, 1988). Moreover, when volunteers are looking to fulfill specific needs, and organizations can fulfill those needs, engagement and retention increase (Clary et al., 1996, p. 503). Acting as a student organization advisor is a path to positive outcomes for both the individual and the organization.

Strategically matching strategic talent management with the tenets of organizational citizenship brings forth the concept of the individual being strategically aligned to the organization. Strategic talent management also aligns the employee's potential with the extra-role performance required of pivotal positions, including proactivity, flexibility, and adaptation to initiatives. The alignment results in higher performance and deeper commitment from the employee. This concept can be applied to organizational citizenship behavior and volunteerism, as both share similar traits. Thus, the concept of managing volunteer talent strategically can be of assistance in attracting and retaining student organization advisors. The following propositions can be made:

P6. Understanding the volunteer functions that are important to student organization advisors is essential to the ability to strategically manage advisor talent in their role.

P7. The use of strategic talent management can be aligned to the prevalent volunteer function(s) to strategically manage advisor talent for successful outcomes.

**Thesis Statement & Propositions**

Student organization advisors can be attracted, engaged, and retained through the use and application of strategic talent management practices. A review of the relevant literature produces several propositions that are used in the theoretical framework of this study:

P1. Advisors practice a form of organizational citizenship behavior through their service as advisors, which is an extra-role behavior.

P2. Advisors are motivated by one or more of the functions outlined in the functional theory of volunteerism.

P3. Similar to other volunteers, there will multiple functions that are important to student organization advisor talent management.

P4. One of the functions will emerge as the prevalent function that drives student organization advisors.

P5. Organizational citizenship behaviors are linked to the functional approach to volunteerism.

P6. Understanding the volunteer functions that are important to student organization advisors is essential to the ability to strategically manage advisor talent in their role.

P7. The use of strategic talent management can be aligned to the prevalent volunteer function(s) to strategically manage advisor talent for successful outcomes.

**Conceptual Framework and Narrative**

The following is the conceptual framework outlining the interactions between the theoretical lenses and the propositions based upon the scoping literature review.

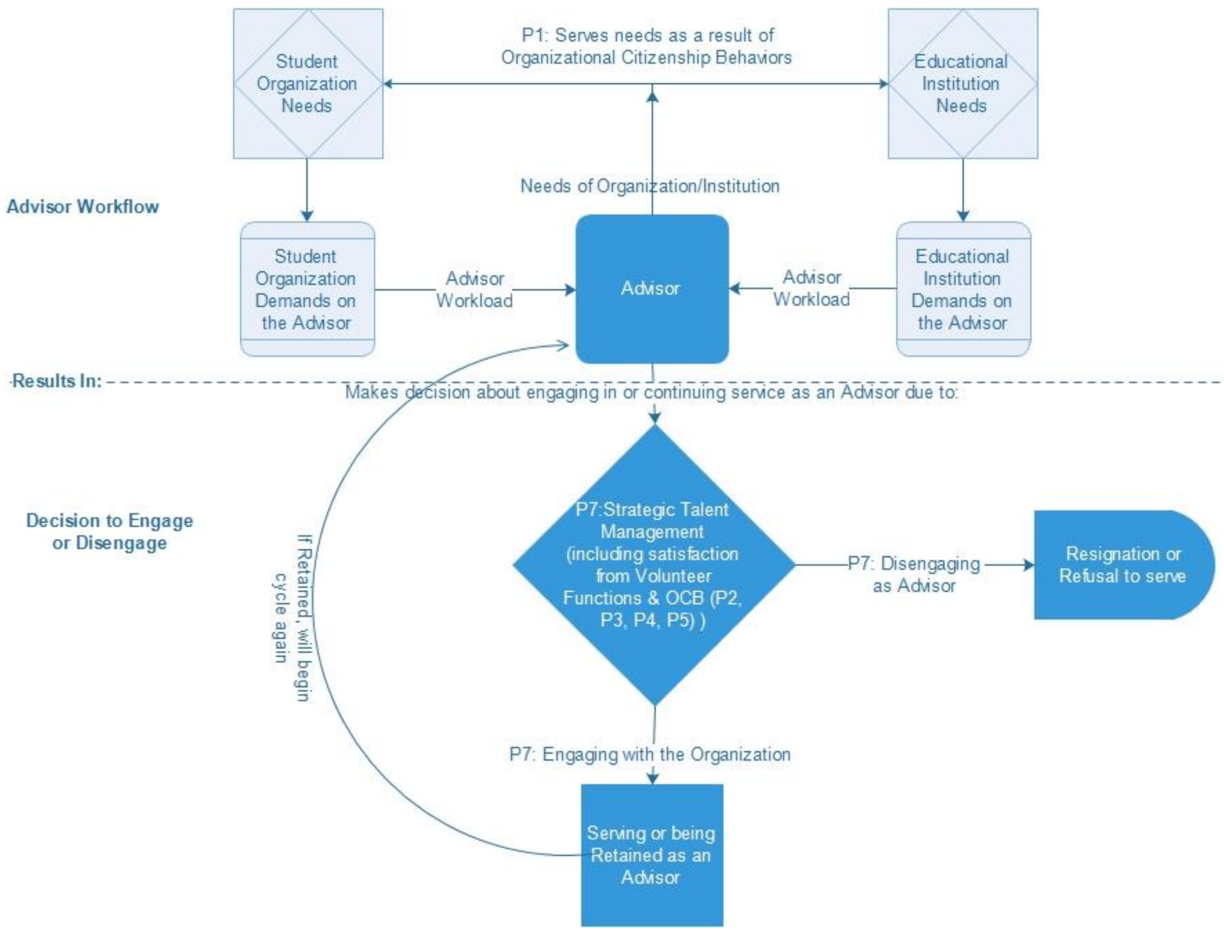


*Figure 1.* Preliminary conceptual map outlining theorized advisor engagement and disengagement process.

At the center of this framework is the student organization advisor, who serves both the student organization and the educational institution by performing organizational citizenship behaviors. Both the student organization and the educational institution place demands on advisors, increasing their workload beyond what is required, (i.e,. as they undertake extra-role behaviors). That workflow results in a need for an advisor to decide about engaging in or continuing service as an advisor.

The advisor will make this decision based upon several factors and the intervention of strategic talent management, which will stem from their satisfaction gained from serving as an advisor. This satisfaction will be based upon the fulfillment of their needs as volunteers through the functions of volunteerism and uses their organizational citizenship behavior as a driver. Depending on their initial need fulfillment and the intervention of strategic talent management, the advisor will engage as an advisor or choose to remain, which results in a repeat of the cycle, or the advisor will disengage prior to service or resign if the organization does not fulfill those needs.

## Chapter Summary

The literature highlights the key responsibility of the student organization and the student organization advisor in the success of the educational institution, the student, and the student organization itself. From this standpoint, the role of the advisor is akin to being a volunteer, and the issues involved with turnover of these individuals are applicable. Concepts of organizational citizenship behavior, the functional theory of volunteerism, and strategic talent management form the theoretical foundation of the study, and links were described to demonstrate the connection to the conceptual framework. Chapter 3 will present the methodology for the data analysis and synthesis of the evidence, as well as provide transparency into the search stratagem, quality appraisal of the literature, and expert insight into the dissertation.

# CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology used in this dissertation to answer the research questions. As this work seeks to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations on how to best manage student organization advisor workforces to achieve engagement and retention, it is important that a research methodology was crafted to address both the research questions and the associated propositions that emerged from the literature review.

This dissertation was grounded in an evidence-based management approach to systematic review. By utilizing evidence-based methods to determine the research findings, this approach integrated the best available evidence into a synthesis of the data and ensured that the results are derived from those sources rather than speculation, assumption, or supposition (Rousseau, 2012a, p. 3).

A thematic synthesis was applied to the data to synthesize the evidence at hand. Thematic synthesis is an approach to analyzing data that combines multiple types of research and methods to allow themes to emerge and results to be configured in a way that helps to produce new theory (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009, p. 3; Gough & Thomas, 2012, p. 52). As the purpose of this dissertation is prescriptive, that is, intended to provide solutions to the difficulties related to motivating and retaining a vitally important workforce, a configurative approach was appropriate for the research questions at hand.

This chapter is organized as follows. The relevance of a systematic review and evidence-based management is discussed, followed by a detailed overview of the search strategy used to gather the evidence and the quality appraisal process applied to the evidence. The qualitative coding methodology is then discussed along with an overview of the synthesis methodology utilized to arrive at the results. Finally, the input of expert reviewers is discussed. Chapter 4 will review the analysis and discussion of the findings, and Chapter 5 will examine the author's conclusions and the implications of the research.

## Research Design and Data Collection: Relevance of Evidence-Based Management and Systematic Literature Review

### Evidence-Based Management

The implementation of evidence-based management is a needed element for management practitioners. Simply put, there has been a "profound doing-knowing" problem in management practice (Rousseau, 2012b, p. vii). Managers often make strategic decisions and take subsequent action based upon little to no evidence, anecdotal evidence, or worse, conjecture that is not backed up with facts. This practice has been common in other elements of everyday life. For example, it took nearly 200 years for evidence-based medicine to become a standard in professional practice (Rousseau, 2012b, p. viii). John Maynard Keynes famously said that "There is nothing a government hates more than to be well-informed, for it makes the process of arriving at decisions much more complicated and difficult" (Young, Ashby, Boaz, & Grayson, 2002, p. 218). Even when there is evidence for or against something, if the sweeping tides of unpopularity roll in, managers, executives, and other decision-makers in the public and private sectors can be swept away in it. One needs to look no further than the Trump Administration, which has reportedly banned the phrases "evidence-based" and "science-based" from the lexicon at the Centers for Disease Control in order to forward political agendas based upon "community standards," as has been reported by the *Washington Post* and CNN (Ravitz, 2017; Sun & Eilperin, 2017). While some reports have varied, a FOIA request is pending (Domonske, 2017) to determine the complete veracity of the claims. Regardless of the source of the list, this case is but one example of attacks on evidence, which have been undertaken throughout history. From Galileo's view on heliocentricity to recent arguments over gun violence or global warming, various claims have all been subject to what we would now call attacks on evidence. However, in recent times, evidence-based decision making in management has taken root in the zeitgeist.

Since the Second World War, there has been exponential growth in the social sciences related to the management of factors that impact human performance. Individual, social, societal, and organizational factors have been shown to impact organizational effectiveness, and the consequences of non-evidence-based decision making include decreased profits, effectiveness, market share, and stakeholder support (Rousseau, 2012b, pp. xxiv–xxv). This paradigm shift in the social sciences has led to a movement to bring evidence-based decision-making to the practice of management, as there is benefit in such an undertaking to the individual and to the organization.

The process of evidence-based management "is a knowledge-intensive, capacity-building way to think, act, organize, and lead" (Rousseau, 2012a, p. 3) that utilizes the best available scientific findings, assembles and interprets organizational metrics in a systematic fashion using thoughtful yet judicious acumen to increase decision-making efficacy, and considers ethical issues for stakeholders (Rousseau, 2012a, pp. 4–5). One of the ways that evidence-based management utilizes the best available scientific evidence is through the use of systematic review.

Furthermore, evidence-based scientific inquiry is also deeply rooted in education-related research. The U. S. Department of Education's (USDOE) Institute of Education Sciences, which is the statistical, research, and evaluation division of the USDOE, can only fund research that conforms to "rigorous, systematic, and objective methodology" of "scientifically-based research standards" (Education Sciences Reform Act, 2002). Funding is only available if the researcher can demonstrate the practice of evidence-based inquiry. Such systems demonstrate that evidence-based science spans many realms and has successfully made the leap from medicine to the areas specific to this research, namely management and education.

**Systematic Literature Review**

A systematic literature review (hereinafter referred to as systematic review) is an essential component of the practice of evidence-based management (Rousseau, 2012a, p. 7). This type of research aims to bridge the gap from scholarship to practice by bringing evidence together in a format that allows consumers of research studies to gain the knowledge, benefit, and insight from many studies without having to read and assess all the relevant literature. Systematic reviews have often been used in the practice of evidence-based medicine (Barends, ten Have, & Huisman, 2012, p. 26), but this is a new concept in the area of management (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 116). Its benefit for all organizations is that it attempts to obtain all the relevant data in an area, sometimes leading to surprising conclusions (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 126). This type of review provides new insights into ideas, models, decisions, and methodologies in management that may not have been achieved through standard research alone.

By assembling and synthesizing an entire body of research, systematic reviews attempt to bring new meaning to existing findings (Rousseau, 2012a, pp. 5–8). Through an assessment of what is known and unknown about a subject, systematic reviews also help identify the best available research evidence (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 117). The importance of utilizing this process is that practitioners can be assured that decisions based upon systematic review findings are strongly rooted in evidence.

A systematic review involves assembling evidence in a manner that spans a continuum of configuring or aggregating results. Configurative methods are geared more toward developing concepts and generating theory, while aggregative methods are used in the testing of theory (Gough & Thomas, 2012, p. 52). While all systematic reviews will have some elements of both methods of synthesizing results and interpreting theory (Gough & Thomas, 2012, p. 53), using a primarily configurative or aggregative review will explore theory and develop results based upon the testing or generation of theory. This dissertation uses a configurative form of synthesis, which will be described in more detail later in this chapter.

This type of review equates to the practice of evidence-based management in many different ways. A systematic review focuses on a specific research question, utilizes systematic criteria for searching and assessing studies, and results in answers about what we know and do not know about a question or a topic (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 119). Evidence-based management is defined by four fundamental criteria: (a) using the best available findings, (b) gathering and organizing them in a systematic manner, (c) using critical reflective judgment to reduce bias and increase decision-making quality, and (d) using ethics to determine the short and long-term impacts of decisions on stakeholders (Rousseau, 2012a, pp. 6–15). Systematic reviews and synthesis explicitly address the first three criteria.

A systematic review uses the best available evidence. One of the most important elements of a systematic review is ensuring that its scope is sufficient to include as much relevant literature as possible, ideally including all studies and data relevant to the research question (Briner & Denyer, 2012, pp. 120–122). This process includes seeking out unpublished data and grey literature to avoid publication bias and keeping the scope sufficiently narrow to ensure that an exhaustive search can be done effectively (G. Brunton, Stansfield, & Thomas, 2012, pp. 108–118). As such, the data used in this review meet the standards of being the best available evidence.

This method avoids bias since the search strategy is published and needs to be replicable (G. Brunton et al., 2012, p. 116). By publishing the exact search terms, process, and results, any bias present can be identified and questioned. Systematic reviews avoid selecting studies based upon the researcher's intended position and instead show the exact path for the selection of included data (Rousseau, 2012a, p. 7). This transparency strengthens the objectivity of the study and avoids questions of validity while ensuring reviews take all evidence into account (Burns & Burns, 2008, pp. 431–435). By accomplishing these necessary tasks, the study will demonstrate rigor, transparency, and validity.

The methodological approach of a systematic review, at its heart, is a way to gather, assess, and present findings for synthesis (Gough, Oliver, & Thomas, 2012, p. 251). Rousseau (2012) states that "Evidence-based management values gathering and attending to organizational facts, metrics and indicators in a systematic fashion to increase reliability and usefulness" (p. 3) and follows a scientific protocol to do so (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 120). The connection of a systematic review to evidence-based practice is symbiotic, as the same elements of the fact-gathering from evidence-based management are essential components of a systematic review.

Ongoing use of critical, reflective judgment applies to all steps of the systematic review process. The selection criteria, framework, data collection, quality assessment, synthesis, and conclusions are all elements of a systematic review and require reflective, transparent, and critical judgment at each juncture to ensure both efficacy and validity (Briner & Denyer, 2012, pp. 125–127). Decisions are made at each juncture; some will be based upon certain standards decided at the outset of the study, such as inclusion or exclusion criteria and others, such as amending the question based on the underlying issues, can evolve as the review takes shape (Rousseau, 2012a, pp. 11–12).

The impact of long-term decision making, while not explicitly an element of systematic review, is certainly present in the process. The systematic review has evolved over time to move beyond meta-analyses and syntheses of "what works?" to include other approaches such as thematic and narrative synthesis. Through the use of systematic review methodology, results that challenge generally accepted truisms can emerge and in turn impact long-term thinking and decision making. A systematic review allows for such changes to be implemented based upon evidence, which is consistent with the tenets of evidence-based management.

The purpose of connecting a systematic review with evidence-based management is to facilitate decision-making. The combination of these concepts allows for the idea that "generally accepted truths" are not always wholly accurate. Systematic review favors critically analyzed, well-researched, transparent data that provide better insight, and more organizations are relying upon these facts in their decision-making process. Indeed, this "data-driven" revolution may prove even more fruitful for evidence-based decision making.

Nevertheless, the systematic review methodology has limitations. It is a time-consuming task and is also dependent upon the research utilized in the review (http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20140402163359/; http://www.civilservice.gov.uk/networks/gsr/resources-and-guidance/rapid-evidence-assessment/what-is). Without a sound, systematic method and criteria for both searching and evaluating evidence and without the time necessary to analyze and synthesize the articles contained in that search, the results of the review may be correct based upon the synthesized facts, but the underlying research may not be the body which scientific conclusions should be based upon. The selection of literature for this study is discussed in detail in the search methodology section.

Furthermore, a systematic review may not be the most efficient method for arriving at management answers. The researcher must ask questions to determine that a systematic review is the correct methodology, such as whether the research question can be better answered through primary research, if a review has already been completed, and if it is appropriate to the question at hand (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006, p. 28). In the case of this dissertation, primary research data exist that have contributed to this research question. Additionally, there have been no systematic reviews available to this author throughout the research process, so the gap in the literature exists that this researcher aims to fill.

The choice of systematic review as a methodology to investigate these research questions is logical. The evidence in question spans different types of organizations and different types of educational institutions. The empirical studies in the literature focus on one sample, one type of institution, or one type of organization, but this dissertation has a broader scope. A research format such as systematic review will facilitate deriving new meaning from existing studies and applying it more broadly, determining common themes, and developing prescriptive measures, therefore the systematic approach is appropriate to this type of review.

## Search Strategy

The search methodology is a key element of a high-quality systematic review. The search strategy protocol is meant to ensure that the review is "systematic, transparent, and replicable" and able to be "challenged, criticized, revised, or improved" in future studies (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 120). This technique is meant to ensure that the study meets the goals of the research while also demonstrating that there is no bias in the results.

While the aim of the search strategy is to obtain all relevant material, searches rarely accomplish this objective. Unpublished and grey literature often lend perspectives to a systematic review (Briner & Denyer, 2012, p. 120), but are sometimes not included due to both publication bias and the resources needed to access them. G. Brunton et al. (2012) recommend that studies that are aggregative in nature should aim to have enough material to have an unbiased view of a subject, while studies that are configurative in nature must attempt to piece together a sufficient range of concepts to encapsulate the concept as a whole (p. 110). As this is a configurative review intended to encompass a wide range of literature, strategies for this search included examining bibliographic databases through keyword searches, hand searches, reference list checks, internet searches, use of dissertations and theses, and professional and personal contacts (G. Brunton et al., 2012, pp. 121–127). Even though collecting every piece of literature on a subject is impossible, these strategies ensure that sufficient literature can be identified to answer the research questions.

The search was rooted in the identification of seminal works. Key authors were identified in the literature review and the resulting theoretical framework was built upon their works. The authors utilized in that framework were all highly ranked in the Scopus database. Scopus is the largest database for “multidisciplinary scientific literature,” with access to 49 million records. High rankings in Scopus indicate studies that are widely cited and considered to be seminal (Chadegani et al., 2013). Based upon this framework, the research questions were determined, and the search strategy was defined.

This study also followed the guidance of the PRISMA Statement. The goal of the PRISMA Statement is to “help authors improve the reporting of systematic reviews” (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, & The PRISMA Group, 2009, p. 2). Although the PRISMA

Statement was not designed to be a quality appraisal tool, it is a higher standard to which systematic reviews are held and benchmarked in order to reduce the risk of poor systematic reviews (Liberati et al., 2009, p. 22). The PRISMA Statement checklist for this dissertation can be found in Appendix B.

A PRISMA diagram is a tool used to report how all identified literature is accounted for in the final synthesis of the evidence (J. Brunton & Thomas, 2012, pp. 85–86; Liberati et al., 2009, pp. 15–16), and a PRISMA diagram was developed in conjunction with the PRISMA Statement to show the search strategy for this study (see Figure 2). The PRISMA diagram accounted for the articles included, excluded, and identified via a snowballing strategy. Snowball sampling (also known as reference list checking) is a proven and applicable approach employed in a purposive search in which relevant literature is identified from the search of pertinent cases to gain new insight into previously unidentified literature (G. Brunton et al., 2012, p. 115).

In this case, the search strategy included the following syntax: (“high school*” OR “secondary school*” OR college* OR universit*) AND student* n5 (club* OR organization* OR association* OR societ* OR group* OR extra-curricular) AND (advisor* OR adviser*) n5 (teacher* OR instructor* OR facult* OR professor*) n10 (attract* OR appeal* OR engag* OR retain* OR retention). This string ensured that the search includes relevant documents and excludes as much irrelevant information as possible. As the research attempts to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations for how to best manage student organization advisor workforces to achieve engagement and retention, the research needed to capture data for various types of institutions because advisors work at different educational levels. This search string was engineered to ensure maximum effect while excluding other irrelevant data. Beyond querying only English language studies, no delimiters of either full-text articles or scholarly journals were applied in order to gain the maximum amount of possible grey literature, as prescribed by Briner and Denyer (2012, p. 121).

The initial search did not yield a sufficient number of usable results either through direct search or snowballing, so a second search was undertaken. The more basic string of ("student organization" OR "student club") AND (advisor* OR adviser* OR sponsor OR teacher OR coach OR mentor OR volunteer) was used, which delivered a higher "on-target" result. However, since there was value in both strings, results from both searches were included in the results.

The search resulted in a combined total of 1,559 articles identified through an initial database search of 46 electronic databases available through the University of Maryland University College OneSearch tool. The databases included in the OneSearch tool were deemed sufficient for this study, as they included ERIC, Education Research Complete, Professional Development Collection, and Teacher Reference Center, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, and the Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection, which are the primary databases to search for education-related articles. The complete list of databases is included in Table C1. As stated, this search was also supplemented through snowball searching of reference lists, which yielded 10 more items for consideration. After removing all duplicate works, 1,152 articles remained. Once de-duplication was completed, the titles and abstracts were reviewed as the first step of screening. To remain in consideration for full-text review, the article had to reference student organization advisors and address the attraction, retention, engagement, or management of that workforce. Most of the studies focused on the efficacy of participation in student organizations, and those studies were not included. In addition, articles had to specifically mention organization advising and not just academic advising. Through this process, 1087 records were excluded from the consideration set, leaving 65 articles to be evaluated in their entirety.

The data came from the aforementioned databases available to the author, and all document management was done through the Mendeley reference management program. Mendeley is a desktop and web program produced by Elsevier for organizing and distributing research papers, unearthing research data and cooperating with authors online. The application combines Mendeley Desktop, a PDF viewer, and reference management program with Mendeley Web, an online social network for researchers (Mendeley.org). Titles and abstracts were exported from the EBSCO Host server to a .RIS file, which was imported into Mendeley for the initial evaluative stage of the synthesis. PDF files of data selected for full-text evaluation were added to the program, and the program was used for both reading and reference management throughout this work.

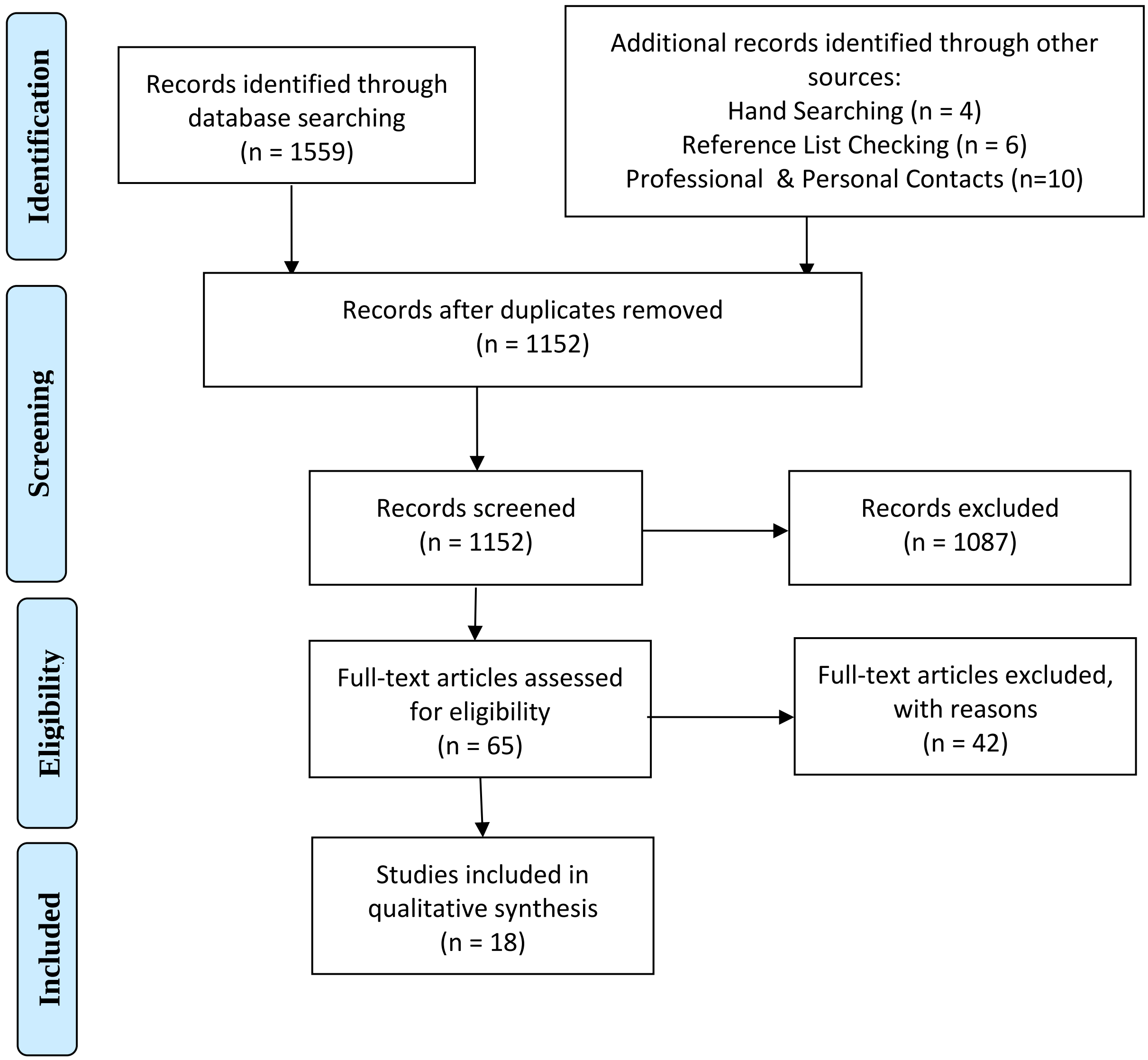


*Figure 2*. The preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analysis (PRISMA) diagram outlines the author's search strategy. Adapted from "The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement," by D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, D. G. Altmann, and The PRISMA Group, 2009, PLoS Med, 6, p. 3, Copyright 2009 by The PRISMA Group. Adapted under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

# Quality Appraisal of the Literature & Coding Methodology

## Quality Appraisal

After the articles for review were selected, the next important step was quality appraisal. Appraising the quality of the literature is intended to judge whether research being used in the synthesis is "fit for purpose" and meets the standards, characteristics, or relevance to the research question (Harden & Gough, 2012, p. 156). This dissertation deployed quality appraisal methods in order to ensure transparency, scientific validity, and relevance to the topic at hand.

Traditionally, most quality assessment of research has been epistemological, concentrating on the research design and methodology. However, there are other quality dimensions upon which research can be judged. Furlong and Oancea (2006) envisioned research quality assessment based upon wider dimensions of robustness (p. 116-118) as part of a "broadening composition of the review system" (p. 8). In addition to the traditional epistemic evaluationsresearch quality can be measured in the technological context, the "capacity building" or "value for people" context, and the economic context (Harden & Gough, 2012, p. 157). The first dimension concerns itself with the value of the research in the context it is applied, as in the value it provides for usage. The second reflects the research's ability to provide for partnership, collaboration, engagement, and plausibility and whether it provides growth for practitioners. The final dimension concerns providing value to those who fund research (Furlong & Oancea, 2005). The purpose of a systematic review is to provide evidence for practice (Rousseau, 2012a, p. 7) and must meet the standards of traditional research quality. That purpose is why a systematic review seeks the "best available evidence" (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009, p. 121) and not just evidence subject to publication bias or academic strata.

The data used in this dissertation have been subjected to a rigorous quality appraisal process. The first step was to define inclusion and exclusion criteria, which included three aspects. First, the included studies must reference student organization advisors. Second, the studies must connect to the attraction, retention, engagement, or management of the student organization advisor workforce. Finally, the studies must specifically mention student organization advising and not just academic advising. A two-pronged search was conducted to obtain relevant works. Once results were retrieved, the initial inclusion criteria were applied to the titles and abstracts. After irrelevant articles were screened out, the full text of each study was read and evaluated based upon the inclusion and exclusion criteria, and the articles that did not meet the criteria were excluded. The final stage was to subject the remaining studies to a weight of evidence framework to evaluate their quality and relevance.

Weight of evidence is a framework that measures three aspects of quality and relevance, including a judgment about the integrity of the evidence standing alone, the relevance of the form of the evidence to the research question, and finally, the relevance of the application of the evidence to the review question (Gough, 2007, p. 223). This method allows for a blended assessment of the data that provides for a robust methodology for inclusion and exclusion that measures evidence against epistemic factors, quality factors, and relevance factors to determine suitability for inclusion in a systematic review.

While the weight of evidence methodology offers a framework for making judgments about each study, it does not specify how judgments should be made. Such methods are important, as each review is different, and both researchers and end users have needs that can diverge. A strategy can be employed that takes the judgment of practitioners who will use the data into consideration, and such a strategy has been endorsed by many systematic review practitioners (Gough, 2007, p. 225).

For the purposes of this dissertation, the weight of evidence framework was defined by three dimensions. Weight of Evidence A is the generic level of study quality that includes standard evaluative methods of research, such as transparency, accuracy, accessibility, and quality of method. Weight of Evidence B measures the purposivity of the study to the research questions of this dissertation. Weight of Evidence C includes review-specific characteristics about the relevance of the work to the research questions of this dissertation (Gough, 2007, p. 224). Each work subjected to the Weight of Evidence assessment was scored on a scale of one (low quality) to three (high quality) for WoE A, B, & C, and the scores were averaged to arrive at a final score. Articles with a final average score of 2.66 or better were included in the final synthesis. A full summary of the articles assessed under the Weight of Evidence is included in Table C1.

**Coding Methodology**

Once the quality assessment was completed, the eligible studies were coded. Coding is a way to assign meaning to and describe information captured during a study (Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012, p. 137; Saldana, 2016, p. 4). Systematic reviews homogenize the data based on the research questions and framework. As different studies can use different phrasing or characterizations, especially in social scientific research, coding provides a way to place the data from various types of studies into a common “language” so it can be appropriately analyzed and utilized to form conclusions (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014, p. 71). For example, in this study, “awards,” “recognition,” “trophy,” and “certificate” all referred to forms of non-monetary recognition, and all figured into the data analysis in the same category.

Coding was accomplished using the 2018 version of MaxQDA software for qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods research. MaxQDA is flexible enough to support different methods of qualitative research while allowing researchers to apply different review approaches to the analysis of the data (Saillard, 2011, p. 2). For the purpose of this study, managing the data, coding, and memoing were important fundamentals in the coding process (Miles et al., 2014, p. 71). Memoing brings together distinct details into coherent meanings that allow for reflection and “meaning-making” for the author (Saldana, 2016, p. 44). In this case, memoing was used to objectively define codes, reference different elements that correspond to those codes, and ensure consistency. MaxQDA software provides sufficient support for those items (Saillard, 2011, p. 22) and is also an appropriate selection for thematic content analysis (Olivera, Bitencourt, dos Santos, & Teixeira, 2013, p. 81), which was helpful for this study’s use of thematic synthesis.

Studies were coded at multiple points throughout the process. Coding began at the end of the inclusion and exclusion process. In a configurative approach such as the thematic systematic review in this study, the included works are coded by using the conceptual framework as a starting point and those codes evolve as themes emerge from the data (Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012, p. 144). This process of coding also allowed codes to arise from the data, which is known as in vivo coding, and is acceptable in the initial coding process (Saldana, 2016, p. 117). For example, the code “organizational citizenship” was included before coding began, but the code “pay or release time” emerged from the data collected.

Pattern coding followed the first cycle of coding and was based on a synthesis of the initial data. Pattern codes are higher-level codes that aggregate codes from the first cycle. This type of meta-coding allows the researcher to condense large amounts of data into overall themes, which makes the coding easier to manage, helps the researcher establish a cognitive framework that helps clarify and revise the conceptual framework, and contributes to a synthesis of the findings (Miles et al., 2014, p. 87; Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012, p. 148). For example, codes like “good of the campus,” “for student benefit,” and “improve department standing” had different objectives but the same overall goal and thus the same theme, so they were pattern coded as “organizational citizenship behaviors.”

The data analysis and extraction elements of coding generated meaning from the data. As themes emerged from coding and analyzing the data, the evidence was systematically assembled to follow a logical thought process and synthesis (Miles et al., 2014, p. 72). This coding process helped explain the context of the study, supported the quality appraisal of the data, interpreted the findings, and helped inform the synthesis (Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012, p. 137). In this work, the thematic findings were then utilized in the synthesis, from which analytic and overall conclusions were drawn.

## Synthesis Methodology

Synthesis is a method for assembling the findings of multiple studies to find new meaning that may not be apparent when studies are assimilated individually, rather than in a group (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009, p. 685). The synthesis methodology is the analysis of data that a systematic review is dependent upon. Synthesis can take many forms, and there are multiple methods of synthesizing qualitative and quantitative evidence, with more than 20 approaches to synthesis identified in just one study (Dixon-Woods, Agarwhal, Jones, Young, & Sutton, 2005). This makes the approach to synthesis an important consideration in the overall interpretation of the evidence.

In this study, the evidence is in multiple forms and types of studies, and therefore needed to be analyzed through an approach that will translate across multiple studies, study designs, and interpretations. A thematic synthesis is a systematic review technique that brings together research findings of different types (Thomas et al., 2012, p. 193) and systemizes the analysis of the evidence regardless of the perspective the study takes. This approach means that studies used in the analysis can be qualitative or quantitative, interpretive or realist (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009, pp. 2–3). In this approach, themes emerged from varied data rather than testing specific theories.

As a result, thematic synthesis can be both data-driven and theory-driven, allowing for multiple elements to come together and be applied to the literature used (Dixon-Woods et al., 2005, p. 47). In this way, it is similar to primary research, as the line-by-line coding deployed in this methodology translates data into a common language. Furthermore, the thematic approach is a superior method of identifying commonality (Lucas, Baird, Arai, Law, & Roberts, 2007, p. 4) and has the capability to gather and interpret an assortment of studies, methods, and findings to discover new meaning.

This approach combines elements from both meta-ethnography and grounded theory (Thomas et al., 2012, pp. 193–194). It is similar to meta-ethnography as the study is coded into themes that are at first descriptive and then refined into analytical themes that are translated into practice and theory. The difference is that meta-ethnography assumes a conclusion, while thematic synthesis has no particular stance and allows for data to emerge without pre-assumed information. It is similar to grounded theory in that thematic synthesis is an inductive approach of moving from the specific to the general and allowing the theory to emerge from the data instead of beginning with a theory and testing it for efficacy (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009, p. 3). This approach allows the themes from the data to drive the synthesis.

This type of synthesis was appropriate to the research questions, as the research is this area varies. The research questions, in this case, can be addressed with studies that contain both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, which thematic synthesis allows (Thomas et al., 2012, p. 194). One of the most important elements in synthesis is rendering the results into a common framework for understanding. The common framework ensures that the synthesis is "systematically grounded" in the research it uses for analysis (Thomas et al., 2012, p. 194). As the aim of this research is prescriptive, this type of analysis was used to develop a shared, universal construct, regardless of the individual studies that make up the synthesis.

Another reason why a thematic synthesis was a useful approach to the research questions guiding this study is its development of analytical themes. This type of synthesis allows the researcher to move past merely descriptive themes and synthesize new "interpretive constructs, explanations or hypotheses" (Pantoja, 2011, p. 7). Applying the evidence to a specific population based upon the synthesis to raise new hypotheses or constructs was the objective of this study, making this approach a good fit to the research questions.

The thematic synthesis process also allows for the translation of themes. Thematic synthesis contextualizes the results as they were initially described and recontextualizes them in a manner that enables the translation of results across studies (Thomas & Harden, 2008, p. 2). As a result, high-quality research that is not directly related to the research question can be brought into the final synthesis, providing a more thorough, intellectually valid, and conceptually vigorous interpretation of the results, which will contribute to scholarship and remain evidence-based in the same process.

A robust process that includes the coding itself, the development of descriptive themes, and the generation of analytical themes (Pantoja, 2011, p. 7) results in a critical, transparent analysis of the work. For this dissertation, the coding began by identifying common themes and rendering them into a common vernacular. From this stage, the studies were coded line-by-line, treating each body of work in its entirety as data, which is an acceptable method for "even-handed" treatment of data (Thomas et al., 2012, p. 195). From these data, descriptive and analytical themes were identified in order to develop common understandings of situations, cases, interventions, and results that emerge from the entire body of literature rather than a single study.

This method has limitations. The precise technique for synthesizing the evidence is unclear (Dixon-Woods et al., 2005, p. 47), and the results may differ depending upon the quality appraisal criteria being used (Thomas & Harden, 2008, p. 8). However, this difference is a flaw that all systematic reviews are susceptible to, as all are based on the evidence that is eventually used in the synthesis.

Nevertheless, the process of translating the data into themes and analyzing those themes was carried out in a rigorous manner that allows for transparency of data, results, and reporting. Syntheses are conceived as "empirically grounded and verifiable interpretations" from the data (Sandelowski & Barroso, 2007, p. 21). In this study, the thematic synthesis is about "going beyond" the concept of primary studies and conceptually innovating by developing new theory from existing data (Thomas & Harden, 2008, p. 9). All of these factors contribute to the selection and application of thematic synthesis and confirm its appropriateness for this work.

## Limitations

This study relied upon a systematic review methodology. This method is limited in the sense that it is a secondary research method and relies upon the quality of the primary research utilized. While all evidence configured for the final synthesis was subjected to a quality appraisal process, the final body of evidence represented a range of quality appraisal scores. Some studies were included in the overall synthesis that lowered the final average of scores when reviewed as an entire body of work (See Table D1). Furthermore, each of the included studies have their own individual limitations that become limitations of this dissertation.

The results of this study were also subjected to single-author bias. All the included works were examined by the author for quality and relevance. As the nature of a dissertation does not allow for a second author or reviewer during selection or assessment, as well as during the coding and synthesis process, it did not allow for outside perspectives on the selection and inclusion of content used in the systematic review process.

The author of this study also used an approach that allowed for qualitative and quantitative research to inform the answer to the research question. This variance in the types of research utilized can create inherent challenges related to how to configure the findings of the research. For instance, both research types were evaluated using the weight of evidence framework for quality appraisal, but arriving at similar scores does not inform the relationship between the research studies used, nor if the results arrive at similar meanings.

The body of knowledge in this area is limited. The small number of studies included in this dissertation reflects the best available evidence for synthesis and configuration, but it is still limited by the amount of evidence accessible at this time. As further high-quality research may become available, new studies may offer additional insight into the management of student organization advisors.

**Expert Panel Review**

For the purposes of reviewing this research, subject matter experts (SMEs) were consulted to provide context and feedback to the author. SMEs are experts identified as scholars and practitioners that can lend insight about the subject of this dissertation and provide feedback. After identification, the dissertation advisor approved the list of SMEs, allowing for initial contact and inquiry concerning their willingness to be included and to offer feedback, advice, and insight. The SMEs approached to review this dissertation had experience in student organizations or volunteerism, and the panel featured both scholars and practitioners in the field. A full list of experts along with their qualifications and a short biographical snapshot is presented in Appendix B.

Based on their review of an extended abstract of Chapters 1 and 2, and a description of the methodology, the SMEs provided comments on the (a) clarity of the study problem, (b) significance of the study, (c) scope of the study, (d) literature informing the study, (e) conceptual framework, (f) research approach (g) overall written quality, (h) overall practical value, (i) overall strengths of the study, and (j) overall weaknesses of the study. The feedback was then reviewed, organized, and summarized into three areas: (a) support for the study and its concept, (b) additional information to consider for the study, and (c) recommendations for author consideration.

Expert feedback focused on the importance of the advisor to the student achievement process. The expert panel agreed that advisors were an essential yet understudied workforce and that the lack of management focus on them was an important issue for discussion. Panel members commented that while the lack of very recent data (less than five years) could be a concern, as long as the extrapolated data demonstrated high congruity, this dissertation's forward-looking focus could be a contribution to the field and that the findings could contribute to long-term analysis of the advisor role. While the data points did vary by publishing date, the studies included in the synthesis of the evidence demonstrated agreement on a wide array of issues, as will be discussed in the next chapter. The panel also suggested research on how advisor perceptions are shaped by administrator perceptions, but this work was already completed by Meyers and Dyer (2005). Overall, the panel felt there was a need for this research and that a gap in scholarship exists in this area.

## Chapter Summary

This chapter described the research methodology used in this dissertation. The virtues and limitations of an evidence-based systematic review method were discussed, and the rationale for using this method was presented. The search strategy for obtaining evidence and the quality appraisal method for evaluating the evidence for synthesis was elaborated upon. Next, the methodology for synthesizing the evidence was described, along with the justifications and limitations of such a method. Finally, feedback about the work from an expert panel was enumerated and discussed. Based upon the steps outlined, data were extracted from the selected evidence for use in the qualitative synthesis. In Chapter 4, the results of the synthesis and the subsequent findings will be discussed.

# CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

## Results of Systematic Review: Evidence for Research Questions and Propositions

The results of this systematic review and synthesis of the evidence in providing managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations for how to best manage student organization advisor workforces to achieve engagement and retention are presented in this chapter. First, the thematic findings from the author's data analysis are presented, organized by thematic finding. In this case, the themes that emerged from the coding process served as the initial findings from the data. A discussion of the analytic conclusions drawn from those findings and an updated conceptual model and narrative outlining the conclusions from the data follow. Some alternative perspectives are presented, and the chapter closes with a summary.

## Thematic Findings and Discussion based on Synthesis and Analysis

### Thematic Finding 1: Student Organization Advisors Practice Organizational Citizenship Behavior

**Thematic Finding 1A: Altruism.** Appearing in 16 of 18 of synthesized articles, the most prevalent theme for the engagement and retention of student organization advisors was the advisor's satisfaction resulting from the benefits to student development that arose from the students' participation in student organizations. (For detailed results outlining articles supporting each theme, see Table D4.) This finding connects directly to the altruism dimension of prosocial behavior, as personal satisfaction can lead to altruistic behaviors (Smith et al., 1983, p. 654) and outweighed any other of the functional factors in the functional theory of volunteerism. One advisor was directly quoted as saying "I think that the reason that we're all here is because of the value that it brings students. I think that we all have that. Otherwise, we wouldn't be here"

(Gutschmidt, 2009, p. 116). Nadler (1997) found that 84% of advisors surveyed viewed the relationships they developed with students and the satisfaction they derived from observing and participating in student growth as reasons to engage (p. 22). This was borne out in all but two of the 18 studies synthesized.

This finding supports Propositions 1 and 4 that advisors practice forms of organizational citizenship behavior (see Table D5). Specifically, this altruism-based, extra-role behavior exemplifies the elements of citizenship behavior as envisioned by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983), and as such, supports Proposition 1. Proposition 4, which states that one function drives the engagement and retention of volunteers above all others, is also supported by the data. In this case, values, which is an altruistic function, is the primary driver based on the evidence.

**Thematic Finding 1B: Expertise.** In 10 of 18 studies synthesized, advisors engaged because of a need for their expertise, which was the second most emergent element of this overall theme. This reason for engagement corresponds with the career and enhancement factors of the functional theory of volunteerism as well. Whether they were asked to become advisors by students or they engaged because they felt there was a need, advisors who engaged because of this element appeared in over half of the studies included in this review. Sometimes they engaged because there was a need for guidance and advocacy (Vanguri, 2010, p. 32) or because they “just liked the students” (Croft, 2004, p. 49). Expertise-driven engagement was also based upon being elected (Schweitzer & Hudson, 1990, p. 61) or even just being asked (Neary-DeLaPorte, 2014, p. 46). These differing reasons can be linked to both the understanding and enhancement-based elements of the functional theory of volunteerism, but the underlying situation drove a need for the advisor’s service and the advisor undertook the role. These statements support Propositions 3 and 4, which state that multiple functions will be important, but one will be most prevalent (in this case, the values function). These findings upheld the veracity of these propositions.

**Discussion of Thematic Finding 1.** Combining both these findings and helping students primarily as a result of altruism and providing needed experience can be defined as an organizational citizenship behavior. As organizational citizenship behavior is not an enforceable element of job performance and also contributes to positive organizational outcomes (Organ, 1997, pp. 86–87), it can be linked to advisor engagement. As stated in Chapters 1 and 2, student organizations have benefits for the educational institutions in terms of higher recruitment, retention, and service outcomes (Dunkel et al., 2014, pp. 14–15), therefore, advisor service not only contributes to organizational outcomes, but it also meets the definition of pivotal talent, as described in the models for strategic talent management outlined in Chapter 2. These findings suggest that the advisor role has strategic importance to the organization and is as essential as any other role that focuses on recruitment, engagement, and retention of students. In addition, these results demonstrate that multiple functions of volunteerism are important to advisors and that one function is prevalent, supporting Propositions 3 and 4. Furthermore, they demonstrate that an understanding of the functions is essential to aligning organizational practices to manage advisor talent, supporting propositions 6 and 7 (see Table D5 for a complete summary by thematic finding and proposition).

The results further demonstrate a link to elements of strategic talent management. The practices-based approach to strategic talent management links the individual's contributions to organizational-level practices, combined with individual competencies to build capacity (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 52). Furthermore, there are elements of strategic talent management that involve the importance of human resource and organizational architecture to ensure continued commitment to the organization (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 306). The same organizational practices that ensure contribution and commitment could be put in place when managing student organization advisors. As their service does contribute to outcomes and organizational success, the findings would suggest that understanding the reasoning behind their engagement and aligning needs based upon these factors is possible. Ergo, this finding upholds Propositions 6 and 7, which dictate that understanding volunteer functions is essential to strategically talent managing advisors and that aligning practices to their needs would result in success.

Even if rewards are present, they do not immediately disqualify behavior from being an altruistic action. In this research, rewards were aggregated in coding at a slightly higher gross total than expertise, with 23 and 19 mentions respectively, but the code only appeared across eight of the 18 studies synthesized, leading to a question of the factor's efficacy for consideration as a major theme. Upon further examination, the topic of rewards includes the elements of recognition, monetary compensation, release time, or other tangibles, but when broken down, it does not provide the same ubiquitous prevalence and meaning as the need for expertise does. Furthermore, theorists define the organizational citizenship construct to include non-contractual rewards (Organ, 1997, p. 89). Therefore, rewards would not be a disqualifying factor in the determination of this thematic finding and, as such, these results do not conflict with the values function of volunteerism, nor the altruism elements of organizational citizenship behavior, and further uphold Proposition 1. This realization also helps clarify that if managers appeal to the advisor's altruistic tendencies, the lack of compensation or tangible reward for these volunteers is not an uncrossable hurdle in their recruitment or retention.

This finding was corroborated by Cornelis, Van Hiel, and De Cremer (2013), who determined that altruism is an important motivator of volunteer behavior (p. 462) and that the altruistic element of values-based volunteering was positively linked to extra-role behaviors and satisfaction arising from that behavior (p. 463). The confluence of the data helps support the theme's overall veracity.

Furthermore, the evidence demonstrates that the lack of compensation is not as big a disengagement factor as previously thought. Altruism attracts advisors to the role, while the career function, which includes compensation, plays a secondary role in that compensation is not a prime motivator. This demonstration provides greater insight into which human resource and talent management practices are important.

The emergence of this theme and the supporting subthemes of altruism and expertise in the findings and supporting evidence uphold Proposition 1, which states that advisors practice a form of organizational citizenship behavior through their service as advisors, which is an extra-role behavior and meets the criteria for such behaviors. In addition, multiple functions of volunteerism are important to advisors and one function is prevalent, supporting Propositions 3 and 4. Finally, the findings also indicate that volunteer functions are essential to strategically talent manage advisors and that aligning practices to their needs would result in success, upholding Propositions 6 and 7.

**Thematic Finding 2: Advisors are Primarily Motivated by the Values Function of Volunteerism**

In this research, the works analyzed indicate that the values function is the primary reason for student organization advisors' engagement and sustainability (See Table D4). More than any other reason, advisors engage because of their beliefs in helping students, contributing to the validity of Proposition 3. This finding is important to understanding advisors, as the literature suggests that the main challenges to attract and retain them are compensation, training, time, responsibility, and the lack of value placed on their work as advisors. The current finding informs an entirely new way of thinking about how to manage advisors from the perspectives of volunteerism, organizational citizenship, and talent management.

The values function appears in 15 out of 18 articles used in the qualitative synthesis of the data, demonstrating the fidelity of this finding as one of importance to all stakeholders. From an institutional perspective, understanding the importance of the values function provides insight into how to strategically tap into advisor talent within the institution, as it determines what is most important to advisors and how to best align the organization's needs to the advisor's. From the perspective of the student organization, this finding also clarifies that the elements that matter most are ones that can be tapped into, even though advisors are not under their auspices as employees.

This finding corresponds to the values function under the functional theory of volunteerism, which is defined by acting on values important to the volunteer or expressing a need to help others (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 157). The belief that advisement is helping others is important to student organization advisors because their prime motivation is student development. Since the top reason for engagement is positive student development, and underlying student organization advisement is an altruistic modality, this finding aligns with the rest of the research. Undertaking organizational citizenship behavior for positive student outcomes explains why advisement is important to them. The findings and associated data also support Propositions 1, 4, and 5, demonstrating that advisors practice organizational citizenship, that those behaviors are linked to the functional theory of volunteerism, and that one function (values) is prevalent (see Table D5).

Vanguri (2010) determined that engaging with the students, mentorship, identification with the mission of the organization, student development, and even providing task-specific support all drove advisor engagement (p. 30-31). In a survey of 487 respondents, 41% of advisors reported that the benefits of the organization, the enjoyment of preparation, and the community service aspects were important to them, and 75% also considered student organization advisement the “best part of their job” (Thompson, Thompson, & Orr, 2003, p. 6). This theme is also present in the study of Meyer and Dyer (2005), who showed that advisors valued student organizations for both student development and retention (p. 41), demonstrating importance of why they engage with the role. All of these behaviors can be considered values functions, as the function is defined as helping others in a meaningful way, serving as an advocate, and receiving satisfaction from expressing their own values and beliefs (Clary et al., 1992, p. 337).

Neary-DeLaPorte (2014) showed that major drivers for student organization advisors were concern about the group, the importance and desire to help others, doing something for a cause, concern about students, and compassion for students in need. As such, her research bore out that the values function was an important factor in student organization advisor motivation (p. 49). Similarly, Meyer and Kroth (2010) found that advisors at the undergraduate level serve because the purpose of the organization is important to the development of the student and to their own values (p. 419). These altruistic, helping behaviors are examples of the wide and varied but consistent activities that motivate advisors and align with their values.

Acting on deeply held beliefs and advocating for a cause important to the individual are both values factors (Clary et al., 1992, p. 337), and the finding that these factors motivate advisors provides support to Proposition 1 that values are a prevalent factor. (See Table D4 for a summary of findings by author.) Furthermore, alignment of human capital to the organizational strategy is an element of a strategic-pools approach to strategic talent management (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 56) and is an exploitable practice that can be applied to talent management of advisors, supporting Propositions 6 and 7. Neary-DeLaPorte's (2014) findings also support Proposition 1, as the results listed in this section contain organizational citizenship's compliance and altruism elements.

**Thematic Finding 3: The Career Function of Volunteerism is of Prime Importance to Advisors**

Values are a prevalent function, but other functions were also present. Career was the second-most prevalent function, occurring in 10 of the 18 included articles. This function refers to the fact that volunteerism is not just for the sake of helping others, but also for helping volunteers explore job opportunities or enhance their careers (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 157). While the career function only appears half as often as values factors (see Table C1), it does appear across more than 50% of the studies analyzed. Croft (2004) saw that filling institutional needs, gaining professional development, reducing course load, and being good for candidate portfolios were all elements that can be classified as elements of the career function (p. 51). The prevalence of career as a function supports Propositions 2 and 3, showing that advisors are motivated by multiple functions.

The predominance of this function also speaks to elements of strategic talent management. The practices approach to strategic talent management states that attrition can be managed through engagement in career, developing employees, and delivering performance (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 53). As the career function is about building career-relevant skills, the elements of strategic talent management that focus on personal development can potentially address the motivations of these advisors, who are seeking opportunities to learn and perform. This makes them highly receptive to the elements of strategic talent management and upholds Propositions 6 and 7. As such, understanding the functions is important to strategically manage advisor talent and align the practices to their needs.

The career function can also be associated with elements of advisor motivation. In some cases, student organization advisement promotes the industry the advisor teaches, is a part of, or wants to promote (Alexander et al., 2015, p. 15), thereby ensuring better personal career outcomes through increases in demand and prospect pipelines. In other cases, advisors wish to gain support from administrators to protect their jobs (Davies, 1979, p. 58). These actions based upon career self-interest all correspond to the career area. When the needs of the individual (the advisor) are a match with the needs of the institution (enrollment and revenue from students), and the organization (revenue from members), advisors are placed in a unique position of driving the success of the institution, the student, and themselves. As student involvement leads to higher student retention (Dunkel et al., 2014, p. 14), advisors enable steady and increasing revenue streams to the organization and the institution. The linking of these three components highlights the unique nature of the role of advisors as a key position within the organization. The confluence of these components further supplements the evidence for the establishment of strategic talent management practices addressing advisors from a position approach, resulting in better personal and organizational outcomes, supporting Propositions 6 and 7.

In some cases, a major driver of the career function is the "informal" assignment of duties as specified by the advisor's superiors. In three studies that directly measured this occurrence across a total of 505 student organization advisors, approximately 18% to 25% of advisors felt they had to volunteer as part of their job duties (Croft, 2004, p. 46; Neary-DeLaPorte, 2014, p. 46; Vanguri, 2010, p. 31). In other words, they took on the advisor role because they were asked to by the department, they were "voluntold," or they were filling institutional needs. However, in all the works synthesized, advisement was not part of their regular job duties or requirements. This finding is important to note because, beyond the intangible elements of career protection, such as feeling a need to protect their job or position, very few advisors receive release time, monetary rewards, or other tangible benefits (Croft, 2004, p. 53; Nadler, 1997, p. 21). Since advisor retention is an existing issue for managing advisor workforces, this finding provides support to the elements of strategic talent management, organizational citizenship, and the functional theory of volunteerism.

From a strategic talent management standpoint, attracting talent, minimizing attrition, identifying key talent, and developing employees are all part of the career function as well as elements of strategic talent management; therefore, the importance of the career function provides evidence to support Propositions 6 and 7. Furthermore, the advisor's actions based upon the career function link this evidence to the organizational citizenship elements of advisor behavior, as it has already been determined that organizational citizenship is practiced through advisor service as verified by Proposition 1. Finally, data analysis indicates that the reason this function rates so high is that the job security elements described above possibly skew the results, providing support for Proposition 3 that the advisor is motivated by multiple functions of volunteerism. This clear and significant association of factors also supports Proposition 5.

The inference that the career function is more prevalent because of the job security element is reasonable, as the remaining functions are nearly equal in prevalence throughout the synthesis (see Table D1). Esteem, social, and understanding functions occur at nearly the same rate, and the protective function occurred at a lower but closely occurring rate. With such equal findings, the data confirm that the reasons for this variance are due to the difference of importance in factors as reported in Clary and Snyder (1999, p. 159) and Chacón, Gutiérrez, Sauto, Vecina, and Pérez (2017, p. 314). In the case of this dissertation, the variance is acceptable but also is reliable and provides fidelity for this work, as such variances sync with previously accumulated data in both primary and systematic review studies on volunteerism.

Resultingly, propositions 2, 3, and 4 are upheld. Advisors are motivated by one or more of the functions outlined in the functional theory of volunteerism, and the data demonstrated that all functions could play a role in advisor motivation, thereby supporting Proposition 2. Furthermore, as is true of other volunteers, multiple functions are important to student organization advisor talent management. Specifically, the career function is second in importance after values, and the rest of the functions share equal importance, thereby supporting Proposition 3. The function that most strongly drives student organization advisors was clearly the values function, supporting Proposition 4.

**Thematic Finding 4: Organizational Citizenship and the Values Function are Correlated**

The concept of organizational citizenship relies upon the construct of altruism. In this construct, altruism is operationally defined as a dimension focused on helping others in work-related settings on issues that affect the organization (N. P. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009, p. 124). When it comes to student organization advisement, advisors helping students through engagement meets that definition. The advisor helps the students through practicing extra-role and altruistic behaviors, which are ways of helping both the students and the organization as a whole.

Based upon this behavior, it can be inferred that values-based volunteerism is the antecedent to organizational citizenship behavior, thereby demonstrating a correlation between the two. If the number one reason advisors engage is student development, which is a values-related function, and given that values are a form of altruism, the resulting construct is a form of organizational citizenship behavior. Advisors are helping individuals, which is an altruistic function, but they also help the organization by doing so, which is a compliance function. These behaviors comprise the classic construct of organizational citizenship behavior.

This finding supports Proposition 5 that organizational citizenship behaviors are linked to the functional approach to volunteerism. In this case, the values function leads to organizational citizenship behavior through student organization advisement, which serves both the altruistic and compliance elements of the construct.

**Thematic Finding 5: Training is the primary reason for disengagement yet it can be considered a strategic talent management process leading to successful advisor outcomes.**

The most common reason given by advisors for dissatisfaction or disengagement was the lack of training or information to do their job effectively. The importance of training cannot be underestimated in engaging advisors. This reason was a recurring theme in almost every study included in the synthesis and occurred twice as often as any other disengagement reason. For instance, Horstmeier (2006) found that nearly half of advisors felt little or no competence in advising student organizations, as compared to feeling competent or very competent in academic advisement, such as scheduling or degree completion (p. 51). Meyers and Dyer (2005) reported similar results that most advisors reported little to no training, and most of their perceived competence was as a result of experiential learning on the job (p. 44). Meyers and Dyer stated that 87% of the 222 advisors in their sample had not been trained to advise student organizations. The lack of training and induction is a widespread issue that is both institutional and organizational across many different groups and is not isolated to one type of student organization or institution.

At the organizational level, Banks and Combs (1989) reported that the national offices of student organizations provide little guidance to advisors (p. 60). Gutschmidt (2005) reported similar results, with advisors asking for support systems such as advisor training programs, manuals, new advisor training at conferences, and even “first timer” name tags at events (p. 56-60). In Vanguri’s (2010) study, advisors asked for more “formalized advisor training workshops” (p. 32). A lack of information from the intermediate-level managers such as state executives or representatives of national organizations was also a sore point, and those state-level managers share responsibility for advisor training (Davies, 1979, p. 54; Gutschmidt, 2009, p. 78; Thompson et al., 2003, p. 5).

The need for training and induction of advisors is another link to strategic talent management. The strategic-pools approach holds that strategic talent management can be driven by human capital management planning (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 56). Such an element of planning includes training and provides further evidence for Proposition 7. Strategic talent management is an element of managing advisor talent, demonstrating that carefully planned onboarding and support processes can lead to perceived success, as opposed to allowing the advisor to succeed or fail without the proper background support.

However, the student organization is not alone in its lack of preparation for advisors. In a long-standing study, Davies (1979) found that in-service training was one of the most effective solutions for eliminating difficulties in advisement (p. 52). Thompson et al. (2003) showed that less than half of advisors had advised a student organization as part of their student teacher training (p. 5). Neary-DeLaPorte (2014) revealed that lack of preparation in both understanding the role and knowing how to provide leadership development was in the top five challenges for advisors. The top recommendation from Vanguri (2010) was to devise and deliver workshops to assist new and existing advisors with training (p. 33). The practices approach to strategic talent management encompasses all aspects of advisor preparation, including talent identification, engagement and retention, career management, employee development, and performance improvement (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 53). As such, these findings further support Propositions 6 and 7 and the need for strategic talent management for this workforce.

Another element of training that emerged was confusion due to the complexity of the organization. The respondents in the study by Alexander et al. (2015) stated that the student organization's national level processes and programs were complex and hard to understand. Gutschmidt (2009) described advisors' difficulties in articulating the organization's complex programs (p. 84), and Vanguri (2010) spoke of the obstacles that bureaucracy created for advisors (p. 33). There are elements of training that require that advisors are properly prepared for the role, which they are not receiving in the current model of management.

However, training was found to be an element of strategic talent management. Strategic talent management is "the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these roles, and the development of a differentiated resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment" (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 305).

Combining an understanding of values as a primary motivator with an understanding of the need for training of the advisor provides insight that will help better coordinate strategic talent management practices with the advisor's needs. Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model predicts that if strategic talent management practices are implemented, work motivation, organizational commitment, and extra-role behaviors can occur (p. 306). Advisors are already performing organizational citizenship behaviors that demonstrate organizational commitment and extra-role behaviors. Since those organizational citizenship practices are already in place, continued commitment to training is a strategic talent management practice necessary to keep advisors retained and engaged.

Propositions 6 and 7 can be upheld. Proposition 6 states that understanding the volunteer functions that are important to student organization advisors is essential to the ability to strategically manage advisor talent in their role. Proposition 7 states that the use of strategic talent management can be aligned to the prevalent function(s) to strategically manage advisor talent for successful outcomes. Understanding what motivational factors are important in the talent management of student organization advisors allows managers to identify if strategic talent management practices can be used with this population. Training is a universal need, and the practice of training is a vital element of strategic talent management. Therefore, both Propositions 6 and 7 are reasonable and founded.

**Thematic Finding 6: Time is a Prevalent Factor in Dissatisfaction or Disengagement, Versus Other Reasons**

The second most common theme regarding disengagement in the synthesis of the research was time. Advisors cited a lack of time as a dissatisfaction factor in half of the studies, and it was a negative factor that loomed large. In one study, 96 of 209 of advisors agreed with the statement that "advising takes too much time" (Alexander et al., 2015, p. 15) and in another, advisors reported that they spent an average of 73 hours per semester advising students, which would be more than 45 minutes per school day (Thompson et al., 2003, p. 5). An advisor in Gutschmidt's (2009) study stated that regardless of responsibilities, advisement "all boils back to time" (p. 66).

Advisors noted how the time spent advising student organizations takes away from their personal responsibilities. Vanguri (2005) quoted an advisor as saying that advisement takes time away from family (p. 33), and Floerchinger (1992) mentioned that activities like commuting or taking on familial responsibilities associated with the progression of time will affect an advisor's responsibility to fulfill organization-related responsibilities (p. 40). Regardless of the reasons they engage, the amount of time the position requires may drive advisors away. As a global trend, concern about time pressures has the strongest effect on volunteerism worldwide (Merrill, 2006, p. 9). Time is an important finding, and the relationship of time to volunteerism can be a consideration in the development of strategic talent management practices, as systematic approaches to affirm talent, manage talent flows, and develop performance can all be linked to strategies to better manage advisor time pressures and needs.

## Thematic Finding 7: Other Elements Related to Administration, Compensation, and Recognition Occurred as Important Reasons for Engagement or Disengagement But Are Not as Ubiquitous as Training or Time

**Thematic Finding 7A: Administration issues.** Issues involving institutional administration were important themes, appearing in 13 of 18 synthesized studies. Administrative managers generally did not consider service as an advisor to be a qualifying aspect of promotion or tenure (Croft, 2004, p. 60; Horstmeier, 2006, p. 49; Myers & Dyer, 2005, p. 40; Nadler, 1997,

p. 20). Many advisors do not receive other consideration or non-monetary support or even appreciation for the work they do as advisors from administrators (Davies, 1979, p. 51; Gutschmidt, 2009, p. 68; Nadler, 1997, p. 22; Schweitzer & Hudson, 1990, p. 62; Thompson et al., 2003, p. 6). Demonstrating the value of employee contributions through performance management and minimizing attrition through reward and recognition initiatives are elements of strategic talent management, supporting Proposition 7 and highlighting that this concept can be aligned to student organization advisor talent.

**Thematic Finding 7B: Compensation.** Compensation was another reason for dissatisfaction or disengagement. Davies (1979) noted that lack of compensation was distressing to advisors (p. 62), and this trend has continued. Other studies with a total respondent pool of 712 show that between only 7% and 12% of advisors receive any kind of pay, stipend, or release time (Nadler, 1997, p. 22; Schweitzer & Hudson, 1990, p. 62; Thompson et al., 2003, p. 5). In addition to the lack of pay or release time, advisors are also expected to pay the costs of travel to conferences, workshops, and symposia, as well as other related elements themselves (Gutschmidt, 2009, pp. 66, 90; Nadler, 1997, p. 21). Compensation relates to the people perspective of strategic talent management through an investment in top-performing employees (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 46). If advisors are considered key performers, a strategic talent management practice of offering adequate compensation to them can be utilized. However, such practices will also require a differentiation strategy to delineate their performance in the role of advisor. These strategies should differ from any other roles they undertake, including their primary function and, as a construct, strategic talent management practices can be aligned to this need. Furthermore, since the career function was found to be important, strategic talent management practices would lend more credibility to the supposition that career motivation leads to the need for compensation. This finding provides substantiation that Propositions 6 and 7 can be upheld through understanding that the career function has importance and a strategic talent management practice can be aligned to it.

**Thematic Finding 7C: Recognition.** Another cause of advisor disengagement is lack of recognition. Be it the absence of support from administration in terms of motivational recognition such as awards or little to no recognition of student success, the lack of appreciation and recognition for the work being done by advisors is a factor in their disengagement. The absence of gratitude as a reason to disengage is described by Floerchinger (1992), who stated that lack of support and reinforcement could drive advisors away (p. 40), and these sentiments were echoed by Gutschmidt (2009, p. 70), Horstmeier (2006, p. 49), Nadler (1997, p. 22), and Neary-DeLaPorte (2014, p. 54). Recognition is an element of both the esteem dimension of the functional theory of volunteerism and of strategic talent management as an intervention. While esteem was not a key element in advisor engagement or disengagement, the esteem factor's significance demonstrates that multiple factors will be important to student organization advisors, substantiating Proposition 4.

Recognition structures help minimize attrition as a strategic talent management practice (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 53), and if these structures are in place, they can help manage this workforce. This finding also corroborates Propositions 6 and 7 and shows how strategic talent management and the functional theory of volunteerism can be utilized together to better manage talent in these roles.

**Thematic Finding 7D: Rewards.** Compensation, recognition, and administrative difficulty combined coincide with rewards as a motivational factor. Rewards affect the engagement of advisors, whether they are in the form of recognition for the tenure process, monetary compensation, release time, formal and informal accolades, and other demonstrations of appreciation. Dahlgren (2015) found recognition from the institution, organization, and students to be a motivating factor (p. 2), and Meyer and Kroth (2010) identified appreciation activities as an element of advisor success. Appreciation is an element of rewards that has proven efficacy.

Schweitzer and Hudson (1990) also found that merit pay, promotion, and tenure were perceived rewards of advisement. While compensation tends to be rare, it also tends to satisfy advisors (Thompson et al., 2003, p. 6). The reward of time is just as important as the reward of money, and the allotment of more time was an incentive for advisors to return (Neary-DeLaPorte, 2014, p. 55). The absence of both the recognition and the rewards elements of satisfaction can be a disincentive, but such feelings can be negated by providing monetary and non-monetary incentives. Again, while reward is not the primary or secondary factor in engagement or disengagement, it is an important area of focus as it could lead to eventual satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Developing reward systems is a strategic talent management practice. Rewards in this context do not need to be specifically financial and can be differentiated based upon the advisor's needs (Sparrow et al., 2017b, p. 54). Apart from the intrinsic rewards that arise from advisement, the approach from rewards can be applied to the people, practices, position, and pools approaches to strategic talent management. Regardless of how the institution approaches strategic talent management for this workforce, rewards are an important element of success. This finding further sustains Proposition 7 that talent management can be aligned to manage the advisor workforce.

## Analytic Conclusions

### Analytic Conclusion 1: Student Organization Advisor Engagement is Linked to All Elements of the Functional Theory of Volunteerism but Primarily as a Result of Values and Career Functions

The analysis of the evidence showed that student organization advisors engage in volunteer service as advisors based upon the functional theory of volunteerism. This theory states that volunteers are motivated by six functions, corresponding to an expression of their values, the enhancement of their career, the need to grow and enhance themselves as a person, the desire to strengthen social relationships, the drive to learn more about the world, or the need to reduce negative feelings (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 157). The prevalent function driving engagement is values, and the second most prevalent is career. The other functions of volunteerism play equal but less important roles in motivating advisors.

The emergence of values as a primary factor in student organization advisor motivation is an important and novel finding. The results of a national survey on volunteerism administered to 2,671 participants showed a negative correlation between volunteers in educational settings and values as an engagement reason (Clary et al., 1996, p. 496). In the same survey, values as a function was not correlated as highly as either the understanding or social functions in youth development settings. Since both categories represent the two closest types of volunteers to student organization advisors, this finding indicates that this subset of volunteers has a unique drive behind their engagement as volunteers that differs from more generalized populations.

This differentiated result has wide implications for those tasked in both institutions and organizations with attracting advisor talent. Practitioners must provide reasoning for advisors to engage that align with the values aspect of the role. The benefit to the student must be of paramount importance, as the emergence of this as a primary engagement reason is of particular value to prospective volunteers and provides insight into the specifics of what the values function means to them. Volunteering as an advisor is an expression of the importance of their views, and their ultimate satisfaction is based upon acting on those views (Clary et al., 1992, p. 337). Continued engagement requires alignment of the advisor role with their values, and role satisfaction requires the fulfillment of those values. In short, management should focus on and appeal to the values aspects of the role if they want to drive both student organization advisor satisfaction and engagement.

Advisor needs also present a uniquely intriguing problem for both the organization and the institution. In this case, it would seem that advisors engage if their needs or aspirations are in alignment with the aims of the institution and the organization. In order to attract and retain talent, it can be extrapolated that the aim of both the institution and the organization must speak to the volunteer's beliefs. While it does not seem that both must have the same goal, what the theoretical basis of this dissertation presupposes is that the organization and the institution need to appeal to the advisor's values. Otherwise, the efficacy of attraction or retention could decrease.

Satisfying an advisor's value-based needs is only one part of the equation. The second-most prevalent function in student organization advisement is the career function. This function is satisfied when the advisor receives career-related benefits from service (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). Essentially, advisors must have both their career needs and their need to act on their values met in their work as advisors.

However, the finding regarding career functions presents a conundrum: if advisors do not feel their career is growing as a result of participation, they may disengage. Training was a major theme that caused disengagement among advisors, yet the growth from training could be a satisfaction driver for retention, which also relates to the career function. Other emergent themes such as compensation, recognition, and rewards were also career-based aspects. As advisors grow in their careers, they have expectations of growth in these three areas. However, through the lens of student organization advisement, the lack of these factors was a reason for disengagement in the synthesized literature, and when these elements of the advisor's career needs are not being fulfilled, they disengage. Considering that compensation was a factor in the problem analysis, along with recruitment and retention, the careers function has continued importance in this area of research, and practitioners must consider these factors.

**Analytic Conclusion 2: Student Organization Advisor Service is an Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Function-Based Volunteerism in Student Organization Advisement is the Antecedent to Organizational Citizenship**

Student organization advisors perform both altruism and compliance behaviors of organizational citizenship in their role as advisors (Smith et al., 1983, p. 654). Specifically, their work in helping students satisfies the altruistic elements, and the action of taking on this role to support the mission and goals of the institution reflects the compliance elements.

Altruism is an aspect of the values-based function of volunteering and directly correlates to advisors' stated reason for engagement, which is their ability to affect student development. The initial altruistic motivation becomes the foundation for assisting the organization through extra-role behaviors, which comprise all elements of citizenship behaviors.

Furthermore, the advisor's engagement in the role can enhance overall performance. A meta-analysis of 55 studies indicated that organizational citizenship behavior and role-performance have a corollary relationship, and the level of satisfaction derived from engaging in organizational citizenship is greater than from basic in-role performance (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 791). That conclusion is supported by the findings from this analysis that satisfaction arose from the advisor's engagement in values-based, altruistic behavior. Therefore, the recognition of organizational citizenship behaviors should be a part of any intervention for managing this workforce.

**Analytic Conclusion 3: Strategic Talent Management Practices can be Applied to Student Organization Advisors, but There is a Lack of Implementation from Key Stakeholders**

While strategic talent management practices are a good fit with motivating, engaging, and retaining student organization advisors, there is a lack of implementation of this construct from both the institutional and organizational sides. There is a distinct difference between the frequency of disengagement reasons appearing in the literature (287 occurrences) versus engagement reasons (191 occurrences) (see Table D2). One can extrapolate that when the factors that drive advisors away from their role as student organization advisors total 150% more than the factors that keep them engaged, there is a distinct lack of management of the advisor workforce or a disregard for their service and contribution to the institution and organization. This lack of talent management may cause new advisors to disengage, but the literature shows that most disengagement factors can be negated with strategic talent management practices.

Advisors cited the lack of training more than any other reason for dissatisfaction or disengagement. Yet, the literature indicates that skill development and training is an element of strategic talent management. While training has existed in a traditional human resource management context, the development of a high-potential, high-performance talent pool is the goal of strategic talent management (Sparrow, Scullion, & Tarique, 2017a, p. 25). As such, the development of employees, including coaching and mentoring, learning opportunities, and other organizational learning capabilities are key to successful employee and organizational development. New or poorly trained advisors have been shown to be responsible for decreased membership rolls, revenue loss, increased service costs, and loss of service to the institution. It is clear in the synthesis of the evidence that the lack of training is causing difficulties, but this gap in the practice of strategic talent management of advisors can be easily filled and needs to be a component of any talent management program that seeks to improve outcomes.

Induction is one way to combat the lack of training. The results of a survey specifically targeted to student organization advisors in career and technical organizations showed that a three-pronged model of advisor development featuring classroom learning for a student organization supervision course, student teaching that involved co-advisement of student organizations, and hands-on participation in conferences and events helped advisors feel better prepared for their role (Stanislawski & Haltinner, 2009, p. 174). If advisors feel confident, they are more likely to take on extra-role behaviors and gain greater satisfaction from their organizational citizenship. Satisfied employees tend to be better performers, and this performance will lead to a better experience for the students, the organization, and the institution.

It is possible that student organization training is merely overlooked as a part of the significant amount of training and scholarship needed to become an educator. Between student teaching and the requirements of ongoing professional development or advanced degrees, institutions may simply feel that advisors already have the tools they need to be successful. In this case, ongoing personalized professional development is another talent management practice that can be applied. The aim of training in strategic talent management is to develop high-performing, high-potential talent pools (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 307), and this development can be accomplished through personalized learning. However, professional development is often considered to be disconnected from everyday practice, too generic, and infrequent (DeMonte, 2013). Ensuring that advisors have access to high quality, highly-relevant training has been shown to be effective. As such, an essential element of applying strategic talent management principles to this workforce must be focused training efforts.

While it is not a specific function, time is a major consideration in volunteerism. Volunteers of all stripes disengage due to time pressures (Merrill, 2006, p. 9). In this dissertation, time was second only to training as a strong disengagement factor. Strategic talent management does not address time as a construct, but it does include elements that can be related to time. For example, a differentiated people-centric talent management strategy is meant to acknowledge key performers through recognition and compensation opportunities. Release time to deal with student organization business or reduced class loads to help advisors be more engaged both give advisors more time and recognize the time they've already spent on the role.

An advisor's investment of time in student organizations can also be made a more prominent consideration in the tenure and promotion process. Advisors are hesitant to invest time in student organizations due to the lack of acknowledgment for the work of the role. However, in a key practice-based approach to strategic talent management, if the talent-review process were better designed to take time spent on student organizations into account, it would account for less disengagement because their work would be appreciated and acknowledged. Currently, there is little to no practice for valuing the work of student organization advisors built into the employment review process (Horstmeier, 2006, p. 49), as evidenced by the lack of recognition in tenure review. Because advisors will spend their time where it matters, leading student organizations will take a secondary place to more highly-valued tasks such as research or teaching extra class loads.

External recognition and rewards are other motivational tools that align with strategic talent management practices. Organizations that recognize key personnel can be less reliant on monetary awards as well. Highlighting intrinsic rewards such as student development, or offering rewards that do not involve compensation such as organizational recognition, commendation letters in an employee's file, or even recognition of the employee's alignment to personal goals can drive performance (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 54), and such rewards have been shown to motivate advisors. These rewards are just some examples of strategic approaches that can promote advisor satisfaction beyond monetary awards.

Another element of strategic talent management is that advisor engagement and satisfaction practices need to be aligned to both position requirements and expected performance. Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model of strategic talent management requires the identification of pivotal talent positions as the initial stage in such efforts (p. 306). Advisors should be considered strategic assets due to their value across the spectrum to both the institution and the organization.

Astin's (1984) theory of involvement states that the more students are involved in non-classroom experiences on campus, the better their outcomes are. Dunkel et al. (2014) assert that involvement will assist in recruiting potential students, and student organizations are an essential element of providing robust educational experiences. However, the literature shows that the advisors who facilitate the operation of these organizations are not treated as key personnel to the educational institution. If the experiences that advisors facilitate are necessary to recruit and retain students, provide expertise, and enable student development, advisors should be considered a strategic asset that is as important as any other element in the student cycle. Talent management practices should identify the role as such, and organizational processes should be developed to maximize the human capital of the role.

Beyond identifying the advisor's role as pivotal talent, the next step should be to develop talent pools to take on the role. Collings and Melahi (2009) identified this as "recruitment ahead of the curve," which is a shifting away from vacancy-led recruitment to the proactive identification of high-potential prospects (p. 307). This is a paradigm shift away from the model of advisors taking the job because no one wants the position or filling the position because it is vacant. Instead, advisors should be encouraged to take on the role because the institution and the organization value it and because the advisor has been identified as a high-potential candidate for success in the student organization and the institution. This new paradigm incorporates the attributes of rewards, recognition, and values, reinforces the career element of volunteer motivation, and acknowledges the value of student development, thereby driving value needs. Essentially, regarding student organization advisors as key talent in the institution and the organization ensures commitment through addressing every need important to the engagement, involvement, and retention of student organization advisors.

**Summary of Analytic Conclusions**

This study has two research questions: "How do student organizations and educational institutions strategically manage student organization advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles?" and "What talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged advisor workforce?" It also included the thesis statement that "Student organization advisors can be attracted, engaged, and retained through the use and application of strategic talent management practices." Thematic findings and analytic conclusions were presented that provide answers to both questions and uphold the thesis statement. This dissertation has provided the antecedents to advisor service, the reasons advisors accept the role, what keeps them motivated, and what causes them to disengage. Strategic talent management practice examples have also been provided to ensure that managers have the tools necessary to drive engagement, retention, and performance.

This dissertation also provided several propositions, as follows:

P1. Advisors practice a form of organizational citizenship behavior through their service as advisors, which is an extra-role behavior.

P2. Advisors are motivated by one or more of the functions outlined in the functional theory of volunteerism.

P3. Similar to other volunteers, there will multiple functions that are important to student organization advisor talent management.

P4. One of the functions will emerge as the prevalent function that drives student organization advisors.

P5. Organizational citizenship behaviors are linked to the functional approach to volunteerism.

P6. Understanding the volunteer functions that are important to student organization advisors is essential to the ability to strategically manage advisor talent in their role.

P7. The use of strategic talent management can be aligned to the prevalent volunteer function(s) to strategically manage advisor talent for successful outcomes.

The researcher determined through the synthesis of the evidence that all of the propositions could be upheld. A complete recap of propositions by thematic finding can be found in Table D5.

## Conceptual Model and Narrative

Based upon the evidence, a new conceptual model has been developed to drive the advisor engagement process, as outlined in Figure 3. In this model, advisors begin to engage because of their motivations due to the values function of volunteerism. From this initial motivation, advisors undertake organizational citizenship behaviors and further engage as a student organization advisor. From the advisor's commencement of service in the role, continued engagement will depend upon the intervention of strategic talent management processes executed by management. If managers implement strategic talent management processes that address the issues of training, time, rewards, and value, advisors will continue to engage, and the cycle begins again. If not, the advisor will eventually resign from the role.

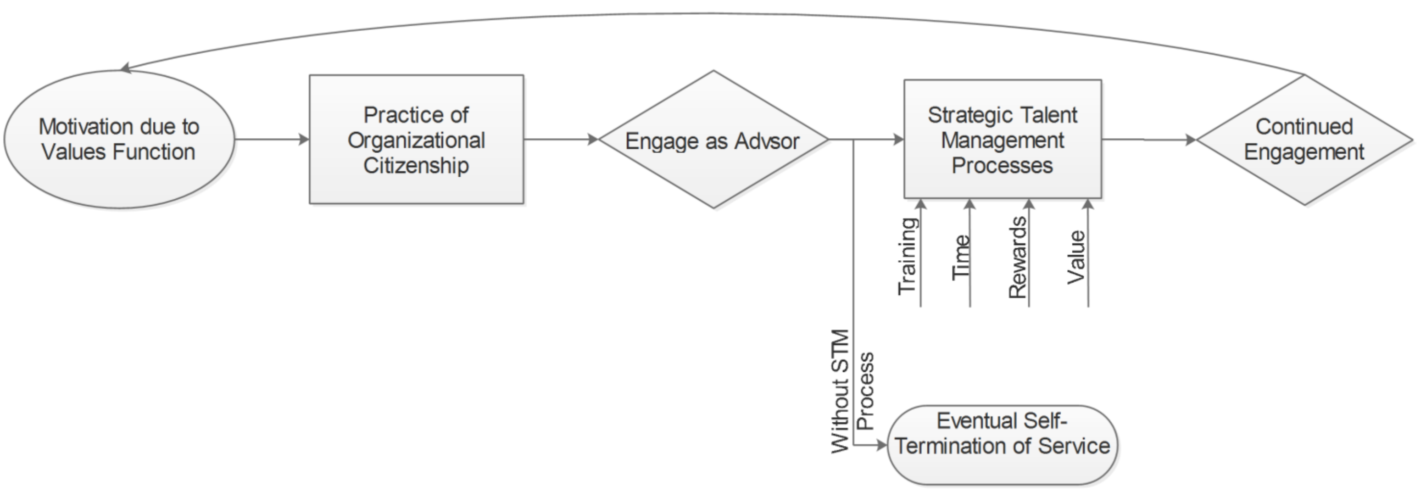


*Figure 3.* Final conceptual model based upon synthesized evidence.

## Alternative Perspectives

When theorizing the lenses for this study, alternative viewpoints were considered, and upon synthesis of the evidence, it can be determined that other interpretive theories can be applied to the evidence at hand. Including these theories may have altered both the direction and the outcomes of the study.

To begin, a primary research methodology may have yielded different results. Due to the differing and dynamic nature of the samples being measured, the instruments being used, and the limitations of such methodologies, a different researcher may have yielded different results.

While all of the included studies in this area came through a transparent search process, a rigorous screening, and a thorough evaluative process, the gathering and analysis of primary data could have provided different results than by aggregating and configuring the results of multiple studies.

This study specifically utilized strategic talent management practices as a theoretical lens. An alternative viewpoint from the synthesis of the data could have been motivator-hygiene theory and applying that lens to the emergent data instead of strategic talent management. The data suggest that satisfaction with the role of advisor aligns to individual perceptions about the role and that dissatisfaction with the advisor role is determined by the context and environment, which aligns with the motivator-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1965, p. 394). While the research questions in this work did not address this theory, it might be useful to determine through further research if components of motivator-hygiene could be an antecedent to satisfaction.

Another theoretical perspective on the motivation of advisors is the hierarchy of needs in human motivation theory. The argument can be made that the benefits of advisement fulfill the esteem and self-actualization needs of this theory, and the disengagement factors align to the safety (money) and love (time) needs (Maslow, 1943, pp. 380–383). A possible explanation that the hierarchy of needs offers is that satisfying those needs will lead to being able to satisfy higher-level needs, resulting in advisor engagement. Again, while this was not the focus of this research, the personal growth aspects of Maslow's work could also form a basis for future research in this area.

## Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed and discussed the evidence obtained from the synthesis of all included studies and provided an analysis of the findings resulting from the data. These findings supported the offered propositions that arose from the literature. Advisors are primarily motivated by the values function of the functional theory of volunteerism (Propositions 2 and 4) and are motivated to a lesser extent by all of the functions (Proposition 3). In their role, they practice organizational citizenship, which is linked to the functional approach to volunteerism (Propositions 1 and 5).

The evidence indicates that an understanding of advisor motivation can be used to suggest strategic talent management (STM) practices for managing this workforce that will both provide support and strengthen their engagement reasons as well as prevent the circumstances that will lead to disengagement (Propositions 6 and 7). Based upon this analysis, the thesis statement and all of the offered propositions were upheld, and both research questions were answered.

Finally, a new conceptual model for advisor engagement was developed from the findings. Chapter 5 will discuss the final conclusions and implications of the model and the findings, as well as limitations of the study and implications for practice and scholarship.

# CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND EMERGING TRENDS

The focus of this dissertation is on how to manage student organization advisors to attract, engage, and retain them in their roles and what strategies can be implemented to do so. The inability to retain and motivate this workforce can drive poor results in educational institutions and at the top levels of student organizations. For the institution, the loss of advisor talent can lead to decreased student outcomes, decreased revenue, decreased recruitment and retention, as well as loss of service to the institutional community. For the organization, turnover can lead to increased costs of service, decreased revenue from conferences and members, and a declining profile within the educational and student community. These concerns drive the need to better engage this workforce. The purpose of this study is to provide managers in both educational institutions and student organizations with empirically-based recommendations for how to best manage this workforce to achieve engagement and retention.

Two research questions guided this dissertation: “How do student organizations and educational institutions strategically manage student organization advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles?” and “What talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged advisor workforce?” At the commencement of this study, the author proposed that student organization advisors can be attracted, engaged, and retained through the use and application of strategic talent management practices. Based on a review of the relevant literature, seven propositions were developed for the theoretical framework for the study:

P1. Advisors practice a form of organizational citizenship behavior through their service as advisors, which is an extra-role behavior.

P2. Advisors are motivated by one or more of the functions outlined in the functional theory of volunteerism.

P3. Similar to other volunteers, there will multiple functions that are important to student organization advisor talent management.

P4. One of the functions will emerge as the prevalent function that drives student organization advisors.

P5. Organizational citizenship behaviors are linked to the functional approach to volunteerism.

P6. Understanding the volunteer functions that are important to student organization advisors is essential to the ability to strategically manage advisor talent in their role.

P7. The use of strategic talent management can be aligned to the prevalent volunteer function(s) to strategically manage advisor talent for successful outcomes.

All of these propositions were upheld. The results were synthesized and configured to develop the thematic findings and analytic conclusions discussed in Chapter 4. This final chapter will present the overall conclusions of the study, including a discussion of the proposed theoretical model developed from the author's findings. The implications and recommendations for practice will then be addressed, as well as the limitations of the study. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the future research and emerging trends, followed by a summary of the chapter as a whole.

## Overall Conclusions

After a review of the literature and a synthesis of the data, the researcher concluded that student organization advisors can be attracted, engaged, and retained through the use and application of strategic talent management practices. This study examined how to do so. The focus on this workforce began by asking the following research questions:

RQ1: How do student organizations and educational institutions strategically manage student organization advisor talent to attract, engage, and retain advisors in their roles?

RQ2: What talent management strategies can be applied to sustain a competent, satisfied, and engaged advisor workforce?

Through an evidence-based analysis of the data, both of these questions were conclusively addressed. Strategic talent management practices can be implemented to motivate, engage, and retain advisors in order to drive performance and enhance both the educational institution and the student organization. The current findings provide insight into a new model of advisor talent management that tailors strategic talent management practices to best suit advisor needs.

This new theoretical model for the strategic talent management of advisors is based on the work of Collings and Mellahi (2009) and their descriptions of strategic talent management systems (p. 307-311). This model is built on the identification of student organization advisors as pivotal talent. While the individual's performance is still a consideration, by identifying these positions as key talent to the organization, management would place increased strategic focus on them, which will help drive organizational systems and processes to ensure proper talent is attracted (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 307). By categorizing advisors as strategically important to both the organization and the institution, recruitment processes will identify the best available talent and ensure that the position is taken seriously.

Educational institutions are driven by enrollment. In primary and secondary education, the educational experience of the students play a large part in attracting populations to the area

(Barkley, Henry, & Bao, 1998, p. 98). Public school funding relies upon taxes, so the revenue that drives school districts relies upon having "good schools" that parents want to send their children to. Good student outcomes are dependent upon student involvement, and quality student involvement depends on interaction with organizations and the educators that run them (Astin, 1984, p. 525). This interaction is important and can be applied to other levels of educational institutions as well.

Similarly, at the post-secondary level, students that are more involved in organizations and have more interaction with faculty have better outcomes, driving recruitment and retention. Recruitment and retention equal revenue for the institution that can provide more resources for both students and faculty. Advisors play a major role in the organization's health and survival, directly and indirectly affecting institutional outcomes. If pivotal talent makes contributions that drive the strategic outcomes of the institution (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 307), then advisors do so in a manner that has a direct result on students. An additional benefit of considering advisors as key talent is the alleviation of lack of value or regard for the role from managers. Treating advisors as key talent demonstrates that the organization and institution actually value the role and service the advisors provide and negates lack of value as a disengagement reason.

After acknowledging that advisors are pivotal to success, organizations and institutions need to cultivate a pool of qualified, high-potential talent. Most student organization advisors are not recruited for the role. In Neary-DeLaPorte's (2014) study, 46.5% of advisors were asked by students to serve (p. 46). This passive, ad-hoc model of recruitment illustrates a larger issue, which is that advisors are not developed as talent, nor are they recruited for the role by those setting the strategic direction or anticipated outcomes for the institution.

Strategic talent management represents a change from a vacancy-based model to a model of developing talent to fill future positions when they are available. A proactive methodology would allow organizations to develop advisors and would eliminate the most ubiquitous reason for advisor disengagement, which is lack of training. If managers developed a system to pre-identify advisor talent and if these candidates received in-depth and on-the-job training as a part of their preparation for the role, it would not only better prepare them but would also allow the organization to capitalize on the factors that drive engagement. An early identification and engagement program allows advisors to contribute to student development, which is the number one engagement factor. Such a program would also appeal to the altruism and compliance elements of organizational citizenship, allowing them to contribute and even help stimulate their career motivation, which is the second-most important function of advisor engagement. The identification of possible advisors as future leaders in the role helps drive the individual as a person and drive the performance of the institution. Furthermore, advisors are asking for this type of training, and as educators are generally accustomed to being well trained, it seems to be a necessity. Without proper training, there is no continued commitment from advisors, underlining the need for training as a talent management practice.

Identification of talent by managers also helps the organization. The severity of issues associated with onboarding new advisors, such as increased support costs, membership declines, and possible loss of the chapter can be reduced through such efforts. Furthermore, advisors feel better about their abilities in the role when they are identified and trained; one pilot study showed that co-advisement learning before taking on the role resulted in 95.5% of participants expressing more confidence in their role as advisors (Stanislawski & Haltinner, 2008, p. 173). This practice benefits both the organization and the institution.

The third element of the model is to create a differentiated human resource architecture to accommodate the role of the advisor. This architecture will help to overcome many of the disengagement factors of advisors. The second-most prevalent disengagement factor was the amount of time required to be an advisor. The creation of a system that allows for advisors to better manage the time necessary to carry out their advising duties would be an important element of that differentiated architecture that managers can create. If advisors are treated as pivotal talent, the element of time will become less of a factor because differentiating the system could allow for flexibility in advisor tasks from their primary role. Some other recommendations for flexibility could include release time or lessened research requirements to compensate for the time spent advising. Such a system also fulfills the career function. If advisors feel they are serving the students and not compromising their careers through advisor service, it will help drive the two key motivational functions, providing a great incentive to stay on as advisors.

Another element of this model should include rewards, which do not necessarily need to be monetary. The rewards could be the recognition of service and the key role it plays in the promotion and tenure process, release from some research requirements, and even traditional awards such as institutional or peer recognition. All of these types of rewards can serve as motivators for advisors. While lack of salary is a disengagement reason, compensation could be a side effect of other disengagement reasons, such as lack of recognition or lack of resources, and increased recognition and resources can compensate for lack of pay. Recognition also helps serve the career function that motivates many advisors.

This differentiated architecture can include more resources to fulfill the role. The more successful the advisor is in the organization, the more resources could be provided for the operation of the organization. This system would help decrease disengagement factors such as lack of recognition, lack of resources, lack of value by the administration, and cost. A differentiated architecture that accounts for these factors will allow for more engaged advisors who will stay in the role.

This dissertation outlines a new model for managing the advisor workforce based on a theory of advisor engagement and involvement that provides for the advisor role to be treated as pivotal talent. The model specifies identifying, recruiting, and training of talent in preparation for the role and stipulates a differentiated human resource architecture to accommodate the needs of advisors in terms of time, training, and rewards. The application of this model by educational institutions and student organizations will result in better-prepared and better-engaged advisors and thus increased retention.

## Implications and Recommendations for Management

### Educational Institutions

This new model of advisor engagement and involvement has broad implications for both organizations and institutions. Concerns and hindrances to advisor involvement have persisted for decades, largely due to the lack of innovation in managing this workforce. This dissertation provides a clear pathway to creating a new human resource model to attract, engage, and retain student organization advisors. However, implementation of this model will require a paradigm shift in how organizations and institutions think about advisor engagement and how they act to develop this unique role within their structure.

From the institutional standpoint, there must be a transition from the ad-hoc model that currently seems to exist to a more active model of advisor talent management. To utilize this model, institutions will need to implement systems that identify the advisor role as pivotal talent, identify talent within the organization to serve as advisors and train them accordingly, and then differentiate their reward, recognition, promotion, and incentive structures. The implementation of these systems will assist in developing, maintaining, and retaining interest in the role.

Putting this model into practice will require the breaking of some established norms in education. Education administrators will need to stop seeing service as an addition to rather than a key component of tenure requirements. Academic departments will need to hire talent based not just on research prowess but on the ability to relate to service as a key element of the role. This change will require resources to implement and a cultural shift to recognize the importance of these roles both within management and faculty ranks.

**Student Organizations**

The findings of this study also have implications for student organizations. Student organizations need to better support not just the advisor but the educational institution, since much of the advisor role is institutionally driven. Organizations can provide advice and develop programs to assist institutions in changing their systems to better accommodate advisors. Educating administrators about why this role is important, making empirical research available that shows increased educational outcomes from involvement, and even providing training modules to assist advisors in a pre-service state are ways that leaders in student organizations can assist the institutions in such transitions.

The organization itself is poised to address advisor needs as well. Providing direct advisor training can assist. In addition, leaders of student organizations can show they appreciate advisor service through direct recognition programs. They can drive initiatives aimed to assist advisors in coping with time commitments and simplify the complexity of the organization to address time needs. However, without the buy-in of the institution, the organization is not able to address all of the needs of the advisor. This imbalanced interdependence means that student organization leaders must also lobby the institution to understand the importance of the role and better capitalize upon this workforce.

In summary, leaders of educational institutions must place service on the same level of importance as research and teaching, possibly through adopting a philosophy that student organizations can drive revenues in a similar fashion. They must accommodate the time, recognition, and reward needs of advisors in order to attract best-in-class employees and adjust their systems accordingly to identify and retain them. From the organization's perspective, leaders must also modify their systems to be sensitive to the time and recognition needs of advisors, while educating institutions about the pivotal role of advisor and the benefits the institution can realize as a result of proper management of this workforce.

## Future Research and Emerging Trends

### Future Research

The dearth of research in the area of managing advisor workforces to achieve engagement and retention emphasizes a need for future research to empirically test the theoretical model proposed in this study. A great deal of research on the benefits of participation in student organizations has been done, but little has been done on the benefits to the organization or the advisor per se. This gap creates many other opportunities for study to determine how the role of advisors assist in student attraction and retention, how advisors support national levels of the organization, and how advisement can be a form of scholarship, for example.

In particular, a primary avenue of future study arises directly from this dissertation. Specifically, the theoretical model proposed here must be subjected to empirical research to validate or disprove its findings and is the next logical step in demonstrating that strategic talent management practices can be applied to this workforce in a purposeful way, based upon their needs, to better attract, engage, and retain advisors.

**Emerging Trends**

**Political.** Current trends indicate that student organizations are growing, and legislative trends point to their inclusion in educational programming. A recent example is the reauthorization of the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education act. The program, last updated in 2006, specifically allows states to use government funds to support student organizations in their space and requires schools receiving funding to include a co-curricular student organization as part of their overall teaching (H.Res. 2353, 2018). This indicates that the government believes that student organizations are an essential part of student learning outcomes and that there is political support for the role that student organizations – and consequently advisors – play in student development. This symbiotic relationship will drive the need to continue to attract and retain student organizations and their advisors in order to maintain funding through such programs. Therefore, student organization advisors are necessary to the financial health of the institution.

**Economic.** Public investment in schools has declined across many states. The US Census Bureau's school funding per student declined from 2008 to 2015 in 29 states (Leachman, Masterson, & Figueroa, 2017, p. 1). This decline in funding spells a troubling trend for the implementation of strategic talent management practices for advisors, as any such program will require resource investment, and those resources are becoming scarcer. Adding to the resource crunch, student populations are rising on average, while the number of teachers and other school employees is falling (Leachman et al., 2017, p. 3). The lack of resources can also mean that advisors' time will be taxed even more. These trends make creative solutions that are less resource-intensive than more traditional methods even more important in advisor strategic talent management programs.

**Social**. Another area that provides opportunities for the growth of student organizations at the post-secondary level is the marked decline of fraternity and sorority membership in recent years. This decline has been attributed to time constraints and value-divergence from member needs (Fouts, 2010, p. 29). Furthermore, there is evidence that Greek involvement leads to more substance abuse after college (McCabe et al., 2018, p. 540), and there is a plethora of negative news stories about Greek-life related incidents across the zeitgeist. This focus could lead to a shift in student organization participation and a need for institutions to offer alternatives to the Greek model as other avenues for student involvement. The possibility for increased involvement in student organizations can lead to an increased need for more qualified student organization advisors, thereby making engagement and retention top priorities for educational institutions and student organizations.

**Legal**. Depending on their involvement, student organization advisors have potential liability in the event of negative actions such as hazing, sexual harassment and molestation, and even capital offenses. Educational institutions must be aware of their liability exposure and provide training to advisors to combat unwanted liability. As advisement is an official duty of the institution, ensuring that advisors are equipped to act as responsible employees within the duty of care has become paramount in order to protect students and institutions. Moreover, with the rise in importance of Title IX and the Clery Act in education (Koebel, 2017, p. 555), training to mitigate liability must be a part of strategic human resource management practice for advisors.

In summary, the political trends regarding the importance of student organizations to federal funding, the economic trends of lower overall education funding, the social trends of declining Greek organization enrollment, and the increased legal responsibilities for student organization advisors put increased responsibility upon student organizations and the advisors that lead them. Without properly managed and motivated advisor workforces, the lack of funding and increased legal responsibilities could scare advisors away from the role. In order to capitalize upon the growth opportunities that can arise from federal funding and the shift away from fraternities and sororities, the time to implement strategic talent management of advisors and empirically test this model is now.

## Chapter Summary

Students who are involved in organizations have better educational and career outcomes. Simply put, student organizations are a proven methodology for driving better student outcomes, which is the prime directive of every educational organization or institution, and the student organization advisor is the lynchpin in delivering upon those outcomes. However, historically little attention has been paid to managing this important workforce. Student organization executives and educational institutions must make more effort to attract, sustain, and retain student organization advisors as essential talent. Advisors play a key role in almost every element of the daily operations of a student organization. Advisors engage due to altruism, remain involved as a result of their organizational citizenship, and will stay engaged or disengage because of their satisfaction with the role.

This dissertation presented a model of strategic management of advisor talent that highlights the factors that drive engagement and retention and minimizes the factors that drive advisors away. These talent management practices will enable educational institutions and student organizations to attract, motivate, and retain advisors, which will lead to positive student outcomes as well as the long-term viability and stability of both the organization and the institution. This proposed model is a significant leap forward in providing new insights to stakeholders in managing the talent necessary to not only help educational organizations and institutions sustain themselves and maintain stability, but also ensure that students have access to educational experiences that result in better personal and professional outcomes, and align with their future needs.

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# Appendix A

## Expert Panel Reviewers, Feedback, and Supporting Documentation

Table A1

*Expert Panel Reviewers*

| Reviewer | Background & Reason for Selection | Summary of Feedback |
|---|---|---|
| Brenda Clark, Ed.D. – Chief Executive Officer, MBA Research | Dr. Clark's professional experience includes some 34 years of teaching at the secondary, community college and university levels. Since 2015, she has been responsible for the organization's Professional Development Team, Teacher Advisory Network, Conclave, MBA Leadership Forum, and the ongoing professional development initiatives at MBA Research. She has been an active leader at both the state and national levels in both professional and student organizations and has received numerous awards at the state and national levels. Dr. Clark's selection dovetails with her experience as a student organization advisor, and also with her role at MBA, which services student organization and educational institutions throughout the country. | There was an expression of surprise that there is enough literature and research around this topic to complete a systematic review. However, the reviewer took this as "good news". The reviewer expressed that if there is enough research, to study state-level executives and local level advisors. The reviewer also stated that weaving student success into the study could be helpful as well. |
| Kimberly Moreno, Ed.D. – Career Cluster Program Officer at the New Jersey Department of Education | Dr. Moreno has been a health-science educator and student organization advisor and student organization participant for the last 10 years. Dr. Moreno has also | "Strategically targeting areas of need such as retention programs for the advisor or a method to address misconceptions at an institutional level are key |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | served as the New Jersey Career and Technical Student Organization program officer for Health Sciences and as the career cluster lead in that area, providing oversight to student organizations in Health. A Milken Educator Award winner, she was targeted as an early-to-mid career education professional for her already impressive achievements and, more significantly, for the promise of what she will accomplish in the future. She is a published scholar in education, and her experience with student organizations as both an advisor and a student, as well as her academic credentials make her an ideal candidate for expert review. | recommendations. Furthermore, understanding the current system and identifying areas that need improvement will essentially provide recommendations for improvement. The strength of this study is that there is not a lot of current research on the student organization advisors role within the organization. Understanding that may link to further research and the development of supports that are needed for both students and advisors. The literature provided identifies pertinent areas that provide a foundation of need for the study. Identifying the theoretical and conceptual framework allows for a substantial understanding of how the proposed research is fundamental and needed." |
| E. David Farrokh - Assistant Dean of the College of Business for Student Affairs, Kean University | David Farrokh is a career, higher education professional, who has worked in a variety of roles in student affairs, from residence hall director, and academic advisor, to leading the scholarship and assessment teams. In his role now, Farrokh serves as Kean University's College of Business and Public Management as a top executive, overseeing 5 department chairs, as well as all student affairs for Kean's largest college multiple global campuses. David's experience in student affairs, and higher education in addition to his oversight of | "The research design provides a practical application across disciplines as a motivational predictor, training, and retention utility. The study provides key strengths with its utility in the marketplace, and for application in higher education. While other motivational theory may be considered, the theoretical basis for the work is sound and has the potential to provide end users with sound advice both conceptually and operationally. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | student organizations at this global university positions him well to advise in this research. | |

**Sample Subject Matter Expert Evaluation & Feedback Form**

**Subject Matter Expert Evaluation & Feedback Form**

For Doctor of Management Candidate: Jeffrey Victor

Feedback from: ____________________________

*Please provide your insights and suggestions for each of these topic areas. Comments and suggestions for each topic are appreciated.*

Clarity of the Study Problem – Is the topic's relationship to the field of management practice made clear and explained?
**Your observations**:

Significance of this Study – To what extent would this study contribute to the practice of management? How original is this study?
**Your insights**, including awareness of similar studies or research that would duplicate this study:

Scope of this Study – Is the scope of this study made clear? Is it focused on management issues that can be realistically investigated?
**Your observations** about its do-ability:

Literature informing this Study – Does the type and relevance of literature reviewed provide the proper direction for this study?
**Your observations** and suggestions of literature sources that would be helpful:

Conceptual Framework (if provided) – Does the candidate present a clear picture of how key factors are related, and how those factors would be explained through research?
**Your comments:**

Research Approach – Is the research approach described in a logical manner?
**Your comments** and suggestions of other research studies that address this candidate's topic:

Overall Written Quality – Does this study present a clear line of reasoning consistent with other management research materials with which you are familiar?
**Your suggestions** for overall improvements that can be made to this approach:

Overall Practical Value – Does this study offer a clear and recognizable opportunity to produce results that would impact a management practice?
**Your comments:**

Overall Strengths of this study
**Your comments:**

Overall weaknesses of this study
**Your comments:**

Other open-ended comments that would be helpful to candidate:

Please indicate your concurrence at being referenced in the dissertation as one who provided feedback.
Reviewer's Name / date of review: ______________________________________

## Appendix B

## PRISMA Checklist

Table B1

*PRISMA Checklist*

| **Section/topic** | **#** | **Checklist item** | **Reported on page #** |
|---|---|---|---|
| **TITLE** | | | |
| Title | 1 | Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both. | i |
| **ABSTRACT** | | | |
| Structured summary | 2 | Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number. | ii |
| **INTRODUCTION** | | | |
| Rationale | 3 | Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known. | 17 |
| Objectives | 4 | Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS). | 29 |
| **METHODS** | | | |
| Protocol and registration | 5 | Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number. | N/A |
| Eligibility criteria | 6 | Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale. | 70 |
| Information sources | 7 | Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched. | 70, 159 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Search | 8 | Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated. | 70 |
| Study selection | 9 | State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis). | 71 |
| Data collection process | 10 | Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators. | 75 |
| Data items | 11 | List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made. | 76 |
| Risk of bias in individual studies | 12 | Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis. | 71 |
| Summary measures | 13 | State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means). | N/A |
| Synthesis of results | 14 | Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., $I^2$) for each meta-analysis. | N/A |
| Risk of bias across studies | 15 | Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies). | 73 |
| Additional analyses | 16 | Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified. | N/A |
| **RESULTS** | | | |
| Study selection | 17 | Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram. | 73 |
| Study characteristics | 18 | For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations. | 162 |
| Risk of bias within studies | 19 | Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12). | 162 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Results of individual studies | 20 | For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot. | N/A |
| Synthesis of results | 21 | Present the main results of the review. If meta-analyses are done, include for each, confidence intervals and measures of consistency | 85 |
| Risk of bias across studies | 22 | Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15). | N/A |
| Additional analysis | 23 | Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]). | N/A |
| **DISCUSSION** | | | |
| Summary of evidence | 24 | Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers). | 104 |
| Limitations | 25 | Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias). | 113 |
| Conclusions | 26 | Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research. | 117 |
| **FUNDING** | | | |
| Funding | 27 | Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review. | No funding was used in this work. |

*Note.* The preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analysis (PRISMA) checklist shows the author's compliance to the PRISMA statement. Adapted from "The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement," by D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, D. G. Altmann, and The PRISMA Group, 2009, PLoS Med, 6, p. 7, Copyright 2009 by The PRISMA Group. Adapted under the terms of

**Appendix C**

Table C1

*List of Databases Included in Search*

| |
|---|
| Academic Search Complete |
| America: History & Life |
| American Doctoral Dissertations 1933 - 1955 |
| Books24x7 |
| Business Insights: Essentials |
| Business Source Complete |
| CINAHL |
| CINAHL Complete |
| Computer Database |
| Computers & Applied Sciences Complete |
| Criminal Justice Abstracts with Full Text |
| eBook Collection (EBSCOhost) |
| Education Research Complete |
| Emerald Fulltext |
| Encyclopedia, Funk & Wagnalls New World |
| Environment Complete |
| ERIC |
| European Views of the Americas: 1493 to 1750 |
| Gale Virtual Reference Library |
| GPO Monthly Catalog |

| |
|---|
| GreenFILE |
| Health Source - Consumer Edition |
| Health Source: Nursing/Academic Edition |
| Historical Abstracts |
| Hoover's |
| JSTOR |
| Library, Information Science & Technology Abstracts |
| MasterFILE Premier |
| MEDLINE |
| Mergent Online |
| Military & Government Collection |
| Nursing Reference Center |
| OAIster |
| Oxford Reference Online Premium |
| Oxford Scholarship Online |
| Political Science Complete |
| Primary Search |
| Professional Development Collection |
| Project Muse |
| PsycARTICLES |
| Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection |
| PsycINFO |
| Regional Business News |

| |
|---|
| ScienceDirect |
| Scopus |
| SocINDEX with Full Text |
| Teacher Reference Center |

## Appendix D

## Quality Appraisal and Qualitative Coding

Table D1

*Quality Appraisal Summary by Study, Weight of Evidence Score and Rationale (Author's Names in Bold Indicate Inclusion in Qualitative Synthesis)*

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***WoE D: Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Adams, E., Conry, J., Heaton, P., Ramisghani, S. Rodgers, P., Eddington, N. (2015) | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on Student Organization Development, not Advisors | **Medium 2.33** |
| **Alexander, K., Davis, K., Pierce, S. (2004)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Medium –2 – Focuses on perceptions of the organization by advisors and non-advisors but provides useful data for synthesis | **High 3.00** |
| Baker, G. E. & Miller, F.M. (1976) | Medium – 2 – Case study of advisor work from the authors. | Low – 1- Does not provide evidence. | Low – 1 – Focused on Student Development, not Advisors | **Low 1.33** |
| **Banks, M. C. & Combs, H. W. (1989)** | Medium – 2 – Application of situational leadership to Student Organization Advisors | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Medium – 2 – Focused on situational leadership in student organizations but provided useful data for synthesis. | **High 2.66** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bloland, P. (1962) | High – 3 – Literature review on the role of the advisor. | Medium – 2 – Study design is valid for question but provides little actual data. | Low – 1 – Focused on tasks of advisors, and not advisors themselves. | **Medium 2** |
| Brown, D., Reumann-Moore, R., Hugh, R., Christman, J.B. & Riffer, M. (2009) | High – 3 – Quantitative empirical study on educators. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on school coaches, not student organization advisors. | **Medium 2.33** |
| Browning, E., Gould, C., McFarland, J., Rinehart, M., & Ross, H. (2002) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of an “expert” in student leadership. | Low – 1 – Did not address elements of advisor capacity. | Low – 1 – Focused on recruitment and fundraising, not Advisors | **Low 1** |
| Bruening, T. & Hoover, T. (1990). | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | Low – 1 – Study is designed to answer commitment to Student Organizations but mostly measures simple data. | Low – 1 – Did not provide any data towards answering RQ. | **Low 1.66** |
| Cantner, C. (2018) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of an experienced advisor. | Low – 1 – No data to back up ideas – more of an opinion piece. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **Low 1.66** |
| Cipilloni, D. (2012) | Medium – 2 –Not empirical. Case study on one organization. | Medium – 2 – No empirical data. Focuses on one situation. | Low – 1 – Focused on students versus advisors. | **Low 1.66** |
| **Croft, L.B. (2004)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Cornelis, I., Van Heil, A., De Cremer, D. (2013)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Medium – 2 – Follows leaders of scout-type organizations, not student organizations. | **High 2.66** |
| Csermely, P. (2007) | Medium – 2 – Case study on author's experience in starting an organization. | Medium – 2 – No empirical data. Focuses on one situation. | Low – 1 – Did not provide any data towards answering RQ. | **Low 1.66** |
| **Dahlgren, M. (2015)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Davies, D. (1979)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| DeBates, D. & Pickard, M. (2008) | Medium – 2 – Speculative theory of two student organization implementation models. | Low – 1 – No data to back up ideas – more of an opinion piece. | Low – 1 – Addressed implementation of student organization models, not advisors. | **Low 1.00** |
| DeSawal, D. (2006) | High – 3 – Studies Advisors in Empirical Survey | Medium – 2 – Study design is valid for question but does not differentiate between student organization and academic advising. | Low – 1 – Focused on advisors, but mostly academic advising, and their training, not motivation or engagement reasons. | **Medium 2.00** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Drezner, N. (2010) | Medium – 2 – Case study on one organization in one school. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on student development rather than advisors. | **Medium 2.00** |
| Edwards, L., Hinton, V., & Barnett, J. | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of authors. | Low – 1 – Focused on personal experiences, not measurements. | Low – 1 – Focused on the benefits of student organization, advisement. | **Low 1.00** |
| **Filak, V.F. & Pritchard, R.S. (2007)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey Organization Advisors | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Medium – 2 – Focused on situational leadership in student organizations but provided useful data for synthesis. | **High 2.66** |
| Fiscus, L. (2015) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of an “expert” in student leadership. | Low – 1 – Did not address elements of advisor capacity. | Low – 1 – Focused on Student Development, not Advisors | **Low 1.00** |
| Fitzpatrick, K. (2011) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of the author. | Low – 1 – Did not address elements of advisor capacity. | Low – 1 – Focused on elements of advisement but not advisors. | **Low 1.00** |
| **Floerchinger, D. (1992)** | Medium – 2 – Not an empirical study, but well-referenced, and well-researched. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 2.66** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Furgeson, D., George, M., Nesbit, S., Peterson, C, Peterson, D., Wilder, R. (2008) | High – 3 – Studies Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on advisors, on student mentorship. | **Medium 2.33** |
| Gryder, R., Gandy, J. & Green, D. (2008) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of the author. | Low – 1 – Did not address elements of advisor capacity. | Low – 1 – Focused on elements of advisement but not advisors. | **Low 1** |
| **Gutschmidt, D. (2009)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Qualitative Interviews | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Horstmeier, R. (2006).** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Hudson, C.C. (2000)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| Hsu, T. (2017) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a chapter advisor. | Low – 1 – Case study of advisor's own experience | Low – 1 – Focused on advisement of a GSA tasks, no focus on advisors themselves. | **Low 1** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hull, N. (2014) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student leadership. | Medium – 2 – Addresses student organizations but not advisors. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for leading organizations as advisors but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |
| Kalakay, J. (2009) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student affairs professional. | Medium – 2 – Addressed how to advise organizations in turmoil. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for leading organizations in transition but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |
| Kane, C. (2017) | Medium – 2 – Literature review with little empirical data. | Medium – 2 – Addresses student organizations but not advisors. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for leading organizations as advisors but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.66** |
| Levy, B. (2016) | Medium – 2 – Case study format of one school. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for the question. | Low – 1 – Focused on advisement of a Model UN Club, no focus on advisors themselves. | **Medium 2.00** |
| Lyons, S. & Grady, J. (2014) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of student affairs professionals. | Medium – 2 – Addressed how to advise organizations. | Low – 1 – Focused on student organization development, not advisors. | **Low 1.33** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| McNew, A. (2016) | Medium – 2 – Secondary data analysis of importance of student organizations. | Medium – 2 – Addresses article focus but not as described. About employability. | Low – 1 – Proports to determine importance of advisors but focused on importance of organizations | **Low 1.66** |
| **Meyer, R. & Kroth, M. (2010).** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Meyers, B & Dyer, J. (2005)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| Miles, J. (2011) | Medium – 2 – Empirical study but small sample that would not be statistically representative. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on student reflections on SGA but not on factors affecting advisors. | **Medium 2.00** |
| Morrell, E. (2006) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student affairs professional. | Medium – 2 – Addressed how to advise organizations. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for leading organizations in as advisors but didn’t address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Munoz, L., Miller, R., & Martin Poole, S. (2016) | High – 3 – Quantitative empirical study on educators. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Focused on gathering for recruitment of students by student organization advisors but didn't address RQ. | **Medium 2.33** |
| **Nadler, M. (1997)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Neary-DeLaPorte, R. (2014)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| Neil, W. & Woodbury, D. (2005) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student affairs professional. | Medium – 2 – Addressed how to excel as an advisor of a student organization. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for building capacity in leading student organizations but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |
| Quon, D. & Smith, D. L. (1991) | High – 3 – Quantitative empirical study on educators. | Medium – 2 - Addressed many factors with occupational teachers but in little depth. | Low – 1 – Focused on gathering large amounts of data, including on student organization advisors but didn't address RQ. | **Medium 2.00** |
| Rapoport, E. (2016) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student affairs professional. | Medium – 2 – Addressed how to excel as an advisor of a student organization. | Low – 1 – Focused on providing advice for building leadership in leading student organizations but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rivers, S. (2015) | High – 3 – Qualitative interview method appropriate to study. | Medium – 2 – Addressed small subsets of population. | Low – 1- Focused on training for new teachers, didn't mention advisement in any significant manner | **Medium 2.00** |
| Roberts, T.G., Dooley, K., Harlin, J. & Murphey, T | High – 3 – Empirical survey method appropriate to study. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Addressed needs for teacher training, and not for advisors. | **Medium 2.33** |
| Roberts, T.G., Harlin, J., Murphey, T. & Dooley, K. (2007) | Medium – 2 – Studies prospective student organization advisors in pre-service states. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Addressed need to establish organization to train advisors, not advisors or prospective advisors. | **Medium 2.00** |
| Ruhland, S. (2000) | High – 3 – Quantitative empirical study on educators. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 – Addresses retention of educators but in the context of skills. | **Medium 2.33** |
| **Schweitzer, J. & Hudson, J. (1990)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Medium – 2 – Focused on faculty service and how organizations value advisors but provided useful data for synthesis. | **High 2.66** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shapiro, C.A. (2012) | High – 3 – Studies Residential Organization Advisors in Action Research | Medium – 2 – Tested theoretical training program. | Low – 1- Focused on training for new teachers, didn't mention advisement in any significant manner | **Medium 2.00** |
| Smith, D. N. & Hanlon, B. P. (2009) | Low – 1 – Narrative on being an advisor. | Medium – 2 – Valid methodology as a position paper. | Low – 1 –Focused on lessons learned from advisement, not advisors. | **Low 1.33** |
| Sosland, J. & Lowenthal, D. | High – 3 – Measured students internship supervisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1 –Focused on internship supervisors, not faculty advisors. | **Medium 2.33** |
| Strebin, B.A. & Mileto, L.A. (1995) | Medium – 2 – Empirical study, but ranged from students to educators, not necessarily advisors. | Medium – 2 – Valid methodology, but execution was questionable as there was no prospective advisor or execution. | Low – 1- Focused on gathering opinions about starting new student organizations. | **Low 1.66** |
| Talbert, B.A., Larke, A. Jones, W.A. | Medium – 2 – Dual case analysis of program implementation. | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – Focused on students and not advisors | **Medium 2** |
| Tan, J. & Pinca-Legaspi, K. (2015) | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Research | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | Low – 1- Focused on student organization financial management, didn't mention advisement in any significant manner | **Medium 2.33** |

| ***Study*** | **WoE A: Rigor or soundness of studies** | **WoE B: Appropriateness of study design for answering the review question** | **WoE C: Relevance of the study focus to the review** | ***Total*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Taylor, J. (2010) | Medium – 2 – Literature overview of student organizations | Medium – 3 – Reviewed Student Organizations as an overview | Low – 1 – Did not address advisors at all. | **Medium 2.00** |
| **Thompson, C., Thompson, D, & Orr, B. (2003)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| **Vanguri, D. (2010)** | High – 3 – Studies Student Organization Advisors in Empirical Survey | High – 3 – Study design is valid for question. | High –3 – Focused directly on Research Question. | **High 3.00** |
| Woods, A.M., Richards, K.A. & Ayers, S. (2016) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a practitioner. | Low – 1 – Based upon author's own experience | Low – 1 – Focused on teacher recruitment. | **Low 1.00** |
| Whittington, M.S. & Cano, J. (2007) | Medium – 2 – Case study of advisor work from the authors. | Medium – 2 – Case is based on Author's Experiences | Low – 1 – Training case for new advisors, does not address RQ. | **Low 1.66** |
| Wyckoff, S. (2006) | Low – 1 – Narrative on being a program chair. | Medium – 2 – Narrative is based on Author's Experiences | Low – 1 – Does not address RQ at all. | **Low 1.33** |
| Yoon, H. (1996) | Low – 1 – Not empirical. Opinions of a student affairs professional. | Medium – 2 – Addressed the role of student organization advisors. | Low – 1 – focused on providing advice for leading organizations but didn't address RQ. | **Low 1.33** |
| Zappas, K. (2010) | Low – 1 – Interview with one person, no rigor. | Low – 1 – Simple interview with no depth. | Low – 1 – Does not address elements of motivation, engagement, or OCB. | **Low 1.00** |

Table D2

*Summary of Codes and Occurrences within the Studies Synthesized*

| **Code** | **Code Description** | **# of occurrences** |
|---|---|---|
| Total Number of Codes | | 684 |
| Type of Respondent | | 0 |
| Non-Advisor | Refers to responses from non-advisors. | 25 |
| Advisor | Refers to responses from advisors. | 31 |
| Engagement Reasons | | 0 |
| Autonomy | Refers to when advisors feel they are autonomous in advisement, resulting in engagement. An example would be an institution taking a hands-off approach to management. | 3 |
| Competence | Refers to when advisors feel they excel at the role, resulting in engagement. An example would be serving as an advisor because they feel they understand it well. | 5 |
| Job/Function Based | Refers to when advisors are required to advise, as part of their job function, resulting in engagement. An example would be an agricultural teacher being required to advise a group of Future Farmers of America. | 13 |
| Need for Expertise | Refers to when advisors feel the need to serve due to their expertise, resulting in engagement. An example would be wanting to serve as a student advocate. | 19 |
| Organization Well Respected | Refers to when advisors feel they are part of a well-respected student organization, resulting in engagement. An example would be statements referring to pride in the group. | 11 |
| Positive Student Development | Refers to when advisors feel students develop knowledge, skills, and abilities in a positive manner, resulting in engagement. An example would be recognition of educational growth. | 68 |
| Promotes Industry | Refers to when advisors feel their service promotes their industry or content area, resulting in engagement. An example | 6 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | would be a marketing student organization promoting marketing fields. | |
| | | Recruitment and Retention of Students | Refers to when advisors feel their service results in student retention and recruitment, resulting in engagement. An example would be reference to how participation results in retention. | 9 |
| | | Rewards | Refers to when advisors receive rewards, resulting in engagement. An example would be payment or a stipend for service. | 23 |
| | | Scholarly Activity | Refers to when advisors feel serving as an advisor is a scholarly activity. An example would be service being recognized as an element of scholarship. | 6 |
| | | Social | Refers to when advisors gain positive feelings from social engagement as a result of participation, resulting in engagement. An example would be participating because friends do so. | 2 |
| | | Sponsorship/Resources | Refers to when advisors receive sponsorship or other resources resulting in engagement. An example would be getting funding for conferences or dues. | 10 |
| | | Training | Refers to when advisors receive training, resulting in engagement. An example would be training to improve role performance. | 6 |
| | | Values Advisors | Refers to when advisors feel valued, resulting in engagement. An example would be institutional recognition for service. | 6 |
| | Disengagement / Non-Engagement Reasons | | | 0 |
| | | Administration Issues | Refers to when internal issues with the institution's administration is a negative. An example would be when required academic courses prevent student participation in the organization. | 19 |
| | | Community Issues | Refers to when issues outside of the organization or institution are a negative. An example would be referencing lack of community support for organizational goals. | 2 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Complexity | Refers to when the complexity of the organization is a negative. An example would be referencing systems the organization have in place as too complex. | 9 |
| | | Cost / Funding | Refers to when cost of participation in the organization is a negative. An example would be cost of dues or travel. | 13 |
| | | Guilt/Fear | Refers to use of fear or guilt to force a faculty member into service. An example would be threatening an advisor with professional discipline if they do not participate. | 1 |
| | | Inclusion | Refers to issues of groups of students or advisors working together as a negative. An example would be fostering inclusion and diversity in the organization. | 8 |
| | | Lack of Recognition | Refers to when lack of recognition is perceived as a negative. An example would be no recognition from the institution for receiving an award from the organization. | 13 |
| | | Lack of Resources | Refers to when lack of resources for the organization from is perceived a negative. An example would be not paying for advisor dues or travel to organizational conferences. | 17 |
| | | Lack of Value from Administration | Refers to when the educational institution does not value the advisor's contributions, having a negative effect. An example would be ignoring advisement as a component in tenure review or reappointment. | 22 |
| | | Lack of value from Organization | Refers to when the national organization does not value the advisor's contributions, having a negative effect. An example would be ignoring advisor suggestions. | 7 |
| | | Legal Responsibilities | Refers to when legal issues would be a negative. An example would be liability for students when traveling. | 4 |
| | | Misalignment with Personal Goals | Refers to when the goals of advisement or the organization does not align with the advisor's personal goals or values, causing disengagement. An example would be an advisor retiring, so advisement is no longer a priority. | 8 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Organizational Focus | Refers to when lack of focus from the national organization level is a negative. An example would be referencing the lack of consideration for differences in institutions as a negative experience. | 4 |
| | | Salary / Stipend / Compensation | Refers to when lack of salary, compensation, stipends or release time as compensation is a negative. An example would be referencing no payment for their services as an advisor as a negative experience. | 17 |
| | | Student Interest | Refers to when lack interest, passion, or engagement is an issue. An example would be taking on extra burdens because students aren't doing what they are supposed to do. | 21 |
| | | Time | Refers to the time it takes to advise an organization being a negative to their experience. An example would be referencing how much time it takes to advise students. | 40 |
| | | Training / Information | Refers to when lack of training or communication to inform advisement is not present. An example would be referencing the lack of information or training available as a negative experience. | 82 |
| | STM Practices | | | 0 |
| | | Training | | 1 |
| | | Enthusiasm | | 1 |
| | Organizational Citizenship Behaviors | | | 0 |
| | | Collectivism | | 1 |
| | | Altruism | | 3 |
| | Volunteer Functions | | | 0 |
| | | Career | Refers to the VFI Career Function. The career function is satisfied when people volunteer to learn particular skills or to learn about an organization not simply for the sake of learning but because doing so will help them explore job opportunities or introduce them to potential career contacts. | 32 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Esteem / Enhancement | Refers to the VFI Esteem Function. Volunteering serves an esteem function to the extent that it enhances a person's esteem by making the person feel needed and important. The person already feels good about him- or herself but volunteers for the purpose of feeling even better. | 15 |
| | | Protective | Refers to the VFI Protective Function. The person motivated by protective concerns volunteers to help himself or herself forget about or escape from negative qualities and feelings | 9 |
| | | Social | Refers to the VFI Social Function. Social volunteering is a reflection of the normative influence of friends, family, or a social group whom they hold in esteem. | 16 |
| | | Understanding | Refers to the VFI Understanding Function. Volunteering serves an understanding function by satisfying the desire to understand the people whom one serves, the organization for which one volunteers, or oneself. Volunteering | 14 |
| | | Values | Refers to the VFI Values Function. For some, volunteering serves a values function by allowing them to act on deeply held beliefs about the importance of helping others. By volunteering, such persons express their values in a meaningful way and receive satisfaction from knowing that their service is a true expression of those values. | 62 |

Table D3

*Code Occurrence by Synthesized Study*

| Code System | Alexa... | Banks... | Corne... | croft ... | Dahlg... | davie... | Filak, ... | Floerc... | gutsc... | Horst... | huds... | Meye... | Meye... | nadle... | neary ... | Schw... | Thom... | Vang... |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Volunteer Functions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Career | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | ■ | ■ |
| Esteem / Enhancement | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | | | ■ | | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ |
| Protective | | | ■ | ■ | | | | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | |
| Social | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | |
| Understanding | | | ■ | ■ | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | | | ■ | | | |
| Values | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ |
| Engagement Reasons | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Autonomy | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | | | | | | | | | |
| Competence | | ■ | | | | | | | | | | | ■ | | | | | |
| Job/Function Based | | | | ■ | ■ | | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ |
| Need for Expertise | | ■ | | ■ | | ■ | | | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |
| Organization Well Respected | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | ■ | |
| Positive Student Development | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |
| Promotes Industry | ■ | | | | | | | | ■ | | ■ | | | | ■ | | | ■ |
| Recruitment and Retention of Students | | ■ | | ■ | | | | | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | | | | | |
| Rewards | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | |
| Scholarly Activity | | | | ■ | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | | | | | | |
| Social | | | | | ■ | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sponsorship/Resources | | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | | ■ | | | |
| Training | | | | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | | | | | | ■ | |
| Values Advisors | | | | | | | | | | ■ | | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | |
| Disengagement / Non-Engagement Reason: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Administration Issues | ■ | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | | | | | ■ | | | ■ |
| Community Issues | ■ | | | | | ■ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Complexity | ■ | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | | | | | | | | ■ |
| Cost / Funding | ■ | | | | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | | | | | | | |
| Guilt/Fear | | | | | | | ■ | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Inclusion | | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | | | | ■ | | | | |
| Lack of Recognition | | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | |
| Lack of Resources | | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | | | | |
| Lack of Value from Administration | | | | ■ | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | |
| Lack of value from Organization | | | | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | | | | |
| Legal Responsibilities | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | | | | | | | | | | |
| Misalignment with Personal Goals | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | | | | ■ | | | ■ |
| Organizational Focus | ■ | | | | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | | | | | |
| Salary / Stipend / Compensation | | | | | | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | |
| Student Interest | ■ | | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | | | ■ |
| Time | ■ | | | | ■ | | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ |
| Training / Information | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ | ■ | | ■ | ■ |

Columns above list the following articles from left to right in the order below:

Alexander, K., Davis, K., Pierce, S. (2004)

Banks, M. C. & Combs, H. W. (1989)

Cornelis, I., Van Heil, A., De Cremer, D. (2013)

Croft, L.B. (2004)

Dahlgren, M. (2015)

Davies, D. (1979)

Filak, V.F. & Pritchard, R.S. (2007)

Floerchinger, D. (1992)

Gutschmidt, D. (2009)

Horstmeier, R. (2006).

Hudson, C.C. (2000)

Meyer, R. & Kroth, M. (2010).

Meyers, B & Dyer, J. (2005)

Nadler, M. (1997)

Neary-DeLaPorte, R. (2014)

Schweitzer, J. & Hudson, J. (1990)

Thompson, C., Thompson, D, & Orr, B. (2003)

Vanguri, D. (2010)

Table D4

*Propositions Supported by Article*

| | Supporting Proposition: | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Article** | **P1** | **P2** | **P3** | **P4** | **P5** | **P6** | **P7** |
| Alexander, K., Davis, K., Pierce, S. (2004) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Banks, M. C. & Combs, H. W. (1989) | | | | | X | X | X |
| Cornelis, I., Van Heil, A., De Cremer, D. (2013) | X | X | X | X | | | X |
| Croft, L.B. (2004) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Dahlgren, M. (2015) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Davies, D. (1979) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Filak, V.F. & Pritchard, R.S. (2007) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Floerchinger, D. (1992) | | | | | X | X | X |
| Gutschmidt, D. (2009) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Horstmeier, R. (2006). | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Hudson, C.C. (2000) | | | | | X | X | X |
| Meyer, R. & Kroth, M. (2010). | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Meyers, B & Dyer, J. (2005) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Nadler, M. (1997) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Neary-DeLaPorte, R. (2014) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Schweitzer, J. & Hudson, J. (1990) | | | | | X | X | X |
| Thompson, C., Thompson, D, & Orr, B. (2003) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Vanguri, D. (2010) | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |

Table D5

*Propositions Supported by Thematic Finding*

| | **Supporting Proposition:** | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Thematic Finding** | **P1** | **P2** | **P3** | **P4** | **P5** | **P6** | **P7** |
| Theme 1: Student Organization Advisors Practice Organizational Citizenship | X | | X | X | | X | X |
| Theme 2: Advisors are Primarily Motivated by the Values Function of Volunteerism | X | X | | X | | X | X |
| Theme 3: The Career Function of Volunteerism is of Prime Importance to Advisors | X | X | X | X | | | X |
| Theme 4: Organizational Citizenship and the Values Function are Correlated | X | | | | X | | X |
| Theme 5: Training is the primary reason for disengagement yet can be considered a strategic talent management process leading to successful advisor outcomes. | | | | | | X | X |
| Theme 6: Time is a Prevalent Factor in Dissatisfaction or Disengagement, Versus Other Reasons | | | | | | X | X |
| Theme 7: Other Elements Related to Administration, Compensation, and Recognition Occurred as Important Reasons for Engagement or Disengagement But Are Not as Ubiquitous as Training or Time | | | | | | X | X |