Volume XXII

JOURNAL OF

STUDENT AFFAIRS

2012 - 2013

Colorado State University
Colorado State University  
*Journal of Student Affairs*

**Mission Statement**

The mission of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs* is to develop and produce a scholarly publication that reflects current national and international education issues and the professional interests of student affairs practitioners.

**Goals**

- The *Journal* will promote scholarly work and perspectives from graduate students and student affairs professionals, reflecting the importance of professional and academic research and writing in higher education.
- The Editorial Board of the *Journal* will offer opportunities for students to develop editorial skills, critical thinking, and writing skills while producing a professional publication.
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Managing Editors’ Perspective

Jake N. Cohen, Managing Editor – Technical
Olivia Des Chenes, Managing Editor – Coordination
Spencer Ellis, Managing Editor – Marketing & Outreach
Joseph F. Kimes, Managing Editor – Training & Development
Mallory Perkins, Managing Editor – Content

It is with great honor that we present the 22nd edition of the Journal of Student Affairs. Over the past two decades, the Journal has continued to work towards its charge to develop a scholarly publication where graduate students and higher education professionals contribute articles that focus on current student affairs issues. The Journal consists of scholarly articles that address current issues and trends in student affairs practice. This year’s edition continues to promote the values of our profession through encouraging dialogue and conversation around significant topics and research within the profession.

As we reflect upon our two years as members of the editorial board, it is evident the success of the Journal would not be possible without the leadership and guidance of our two faculty advisors, Dr. Oscar Felix and Andrea Reeve. Not only have they provided scholarly insights, but through their professional mentorship and unconditional support, they have empowered us to be leaders in the profession. Our involvement with the Journal has been rewarding and a meaningful component of our graduate school experience, because of Andrea and Oscar’s dedication and energy. We feel privileged to have shared this experience with Andrea and Oscar, as they prepare to transition out of their roles as advisors.

This year we were intentional about streamlining editorial procedures to ensure quality and efficiency for the 22nd edition. This was done by further refining roles and responsibilities, clarifying the editorial timeline, re-energizing the Reader Board experience, and creating a shared online database, which established a culture of collaboration and organization. We are confident these procedures will help future editors to continue the tradition of excellence in the Journal of Student Affairs.

This year, the Journal is very proud to have CSU SAHE alumnus, Dr. Denny Roberts, as our guest author. Dr. Roberts currently serves as Vice President of Student Affairs at the Qatar Foundation in Doha. With a thorough understanding of student affairs practice in the United States, as well as a deep commitment to the internationalization of student services, Dr. Roberts truly embodies the Journal’s commitment to the inclusion of global perspectives. We are extremely grateful for Dr. Roberts’ contribution to the 22nd edition of the Journal.

It has been an honor to serve on the editorial board. Our vision for the future of the Journal includes the continuance of a commitment to development and innovation in the production of our scholarly publication. We are confident in the leadership of the incoming managing editors, and warmly welcome the new faculty advisors, Teresa Metzger and Karla Perez-Velez.

We hope the content of this year’s Journal will provide the basis for engaging educational dialogue and thought. Thank you for the opportunity to serve you in our roles as managing editors of the Journal. We look forward to the future research and perspectives that will arise from the ideas and perspectives contained in this publication.
Past Leadership

As we produce the 22nd edition of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*, we acknowledge those who have laid the foundation for our success.

MANAGING EDITORS

2011-2012  Alexis M. Hendrix ’11, Anthony G. Pang ’12, Marney E. Randle ’12, Kristal D. Sawatzke ’12
2010-2011  Tyler Cegler ’11, Jennifer David ’11, Helen Kang ’11, Joseph Kowalczyk Jr. ’11, and Lisa LaPoint ’11
2009-2010  Jordan Alexander ’10, Kinsey Holloway ’10, Joe Levy ’10, and Nicole Scheer ’10
2008-2009  Kyle Carpenter ’09, Jeff Rosenberry ’09, and David Vale ’09
2007-2008  Travis Mears ’08, Neal Oliver ’08, and Gretchen Streiff ’08
2006-2007  Craig Beebe ’07, Timothy Cherney ’07, and Yulisa Lin ’07
2005-2006  Kristen Harrell ’06 and Brandon Ice ’06
2004-2005  Marci Colb ’05 and Haley N. Richards ’05
2003-2004  Ann Dawson ’04
2002-2003  Lea Hanson ’03
2001-2002  Jody Jessup ’02
2000-2001  Chris Bryner ’01
1999-2000  Greg Kish ’00
1996-1997  Ray Gasser ’97 and Jocelyn Lowry ’97
1995-1996  DeEtta Jones ’96 and Michael Karpinski ’96
1994-1995  Jeremy Eaves ’95 and Alicia Vik ’95
1993-1994  Mary Frank ’94 and Keith Robinder ’94
1992-1993  Jodi Berman ’93 and Brad Lau ’93
1991-1992  Marie E. Oamek ’92

FACULTY ADVISORS

2004-2007  Jennifer Williams Mollock, Director of Black Student Services, Colorado State University
2003-2006  David A. McKelfresh, Executive Director of Assessment & Research, Colorado State University
2000-2003  Paul Shang, former Director of HELP/Success Center, Colorado State University
1996-2000  Martha Fosdick (’95), former Assistant to the Vice President for Student Affairs, Colorado State University
1991-1998  Keith M. Miser, former Vice President for Student Affairs, Colorado State University
1991-1998  Keith M. Miser, former Vice President for Student Affairs, Colorado State University
Advisors’ Perspective

Congratulations to the 2012-2013 Journal Board members for their outstanding leadership, vision, creative thinking, and dedication that produced this year’s scholarly *Journal of Student Affairs*.

We write our final Journal Board Advisors’ Perspective with mixed emotions. We have been most fortunate to work with a diversity of Journal Board members during the past seven years, witnessing considerable growth in the inclusion of additional Board members and outreach to a wider audience of readers and authors. Other innovations include:

- Digitizing and archiving of all 22 Journal editions, now available in e-format through the CSU Library
- Indexing of articles through the CSU Library
- Transitioning from print only to both electronic and print formats
- Broadening of article topics to include global initiatives and perspectives in student affairs
- Adding Journal events such as open house information sessions for first year students and a *Journal* Release event
- Revising Journal Board job descriptions
- Sponsoring a Journal cover design competition
- Adding a QR code for instant connection to the SAHE *Journal* link on the SAHE webpage
- Addition of an invited featured guest author

We leave the Journal Board with confidence that new Advisors and Board members will continue the tradition of leadership for publishing this scholarly work and look forward to reading future editions of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

Thank you to each Journal Board member with whom we have been privileged to work these past seven years. We have learned from each other, and you always will have a special place in our hearts. We also extend our deep appreciation to Dave McKelfresh for his continued support for *Journal* growth and new initiatives.

Andrea and Oscar, Advisors

“A bit of fragrance always clings to the hand that gives you roses”

– Chinese Proverb
State of the Program

David A. McKelfresh, Ph.D.
Program Chair

This year marks the 45th anniversary of the Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) Master’s Program and it has truly been a remarkable year. I am very pleased to provide an update on the “state of the program.” The SAHE program has made significant strides this year with the addition of new faculty, new courses, and new international experiences.

Congratulations are due to all of the SAHE Journal editorial board members, and content and style readers responsible for continuing to produce a quality journal for the student affairs profession.

I would like to express my deep appreciation to Oscar Felix and Andrea Reeve for the service they have provided as faculty advisors to the SAHE Journal Board over the past seven years. Oscar and Andrea will be transitioning out of this role and will be assisting Karla Perez-Velez and Teresa Metzger as they transition into this role.

The SAHE program experienced a record number of applicants this year – 292 applicants for the 20 spaces available for the 2014 cohort. Our applicants were from 42 states, the District of Columbia, and four countries (India, Canada, Saudi Arabia and China). The SAHE program continues to be one of the most diverse graduate programs at CSU, in every respect.

We have an excellent group of new faculty teaching and advising in the program. Kyle Oldham (SAHE, ’04) co-teaches the Portfolio class and advises students, and Kathy Sisneros co-teaches the Inclusive University class with Lance Wright (SAHE, ’01). Teri Engelke, Lori Ann Varela, Jen Johnson (SAHE, ’04), Bobby Kunstman, and Kathy Sisneros all started this year as SAHE faculty co-advisors.

This year, a number of SAHE faculty and students were recognized by the NASPA IV-West association:

• James Banning, SAHE faculty member – Outstanding Faculty Member
• Kris Binard, SAHE faculty member – Outstanding Community College Member
• Sagarika Sarma, SAHE, ’09 – New Professional Rising Star Award

Oscar Felix (’93) and Andrea Reeve continue to provide strong leadership for the iSAHE (international SAHE) student group. Two major highlights this year involved students and faculty engaged in international field experiences:

• Two students (Spencer Ellis and Olivia Des Chenes) and four faculty (Jody Donovan, Jannine Mohr, Oscar Felix and Andrea Reeve) and two university leaders (Mary Ontiveros (CSPA, ’79) and Paul Thayer) led a group of eight students and six faculty in the China/Hong Kong field experience for two weeks in January. One of the highlights of the trip was participating in the conference at Beijing Normal University, hosted by Dr. Qi Li (SAHE, ’96) titled “Quality Improvement in Higher Education.”
• Enrique Lara (SAHE, ’13), and Craig Chesson (SAHE, ’01) along with Paul Giberson (SAHE, ’05) and Paul Osincup, led a group of five students and three faculty in the field experience to Merida, Yucatan in Mexico at the Autonomous University of Yucatan during the first two weeks in January.
This past summer seven students participated in practicum or internship experiences at Franklin College in Lugano, Switzerland, Costa Rica, the Autonomous University of Yucatan in Merida, Yucatan, and the University of Hawaii at Hilo in Hawaii. I would like to express my gratitude to Lance Wright, practicum coordinator for the past five years, as he transitions out of this role.

The SAHE program formalized a partnership with NASPA (Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education) to provide professional development and online classes for the NASPA International Student Services Institutes. Jody Donovan joined Gwen Dungy, NASPA Executive Director Emeritus, in the first such endeavor as the conference presenters for the Hong Kong Student Services Association in December. Oscar Felix joined Gwen Dungy in February as the conference presenters in Abu Dhabi at the annual Gulf Coast Conference.

Our online SAHE Master’s program was successfully launched, enrolling 22 students for fall 2012. Additionally, this spring the online SAHE Certificate Program begins its 3rd year serving approximately 20 students each year.

We are pleased to report that the first Sherwood Scholarship will be successfully awarded to a deserving 1st year SAHE student. The Sherwood Scholar Fund was established by Dr. Grant Sherwood who provided leadership for the SAHE program for 13 years. In addition to receiving $1000, the successful applicant will have the opportunity to meet on a regular basis with Dr. Sherwood.

The SAHE program maintains its long and strong relationship with the Division of Student Affairs and the CSU Graduate School. The Student Affairs Division contributes over $1 million dollars through 45 graduate assistantships available for SAHE students, and the Graduate School provides considerable support for the non-resident tuition premiums for students in their first year in the program. Kacee Collard Jarnot provides excellent leadership in the coordination of the graduate assistantship process, and assistantship supervisors continue to provide excellent experiences for students.

The CSU SAHE program continues to evolve to meet the needs and challenges of our profession. The job placement rate for SAHE graduates is 100% and our alumni continue to report that the program has prepared them very well for working and contributing in the student affairs profession. I would like to thank our faculty, staff, assistantship supervisors, and alumni who all combine to provide a high quality experience for students.
Acknowledgements

The Editorial Board wishes to thank the following individuals for their contributions toward the success of the 2012-2013 *Journal of Student Affairs*:

- Andrea Takemoto Reeve, Director of the Academic Advancement Center and SAHE faculty member at Colorado State University, for her commitment to making this year’s *Journal of Student Affairs* a quality publication, for sharing her experience with professional journals with us, for encouraging the editorial board to broaden the accessibility of the *Journal*, and for her guidance in implementing a more successful editorial process.

- Dr. Oscar Felix, Executive Director of the Access Center and SAHE faculty member at Colorado State University, for providing the *Journal of Student Affairs* with a professional perspective, a supportive approach, and a willingness to improve the *Journal* and all who contribute to its success.

- Dr. David A. McKelfresh, Program Chair for the SAHE program at Colorado State University, for being so supportive and encouraging for those who participate in the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

- SAHE Faculty, for preparing and serving as guides to several authors and Editorial Board members during this process.

- Teresa Metzger and Karla Perez-Velez, for transitioning into their new roles as *Journal* advisors for 2013-2014.

- Dennis “Denny” Roberts, Ph.D., for providing this edition’s guest article.

- Anthony G. Pang, for providing guidance and support to the Editorial Board.

- Members of the Editorial Board for dedicating a tremendous level of professionalism and passion to the success of the *Journal of Student Affairs*, and for their commitment to making the *Journal* a better and more available publication than ever before.

- Members of the Reader Board for their hard work and dedication to editing and analyzing articles.

- Those authors and contributors who chose to submit articles to the 22nd edition of the *Journal of Student Affairs*. Your research, dedication, and quality contributions made it possible to produce this edition.

- Shaun Geisert, Webmaster for the Division of Student Affairs, for his diligent efforts in updating and overseeing the *Journal of Student Affairs* website.

- Colleen Rodriguez, Communications Coordinator for Communications and Creative Services, for her commitment in printing professional quality copies of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

- Matthew Timmons, graphic designer for the Lory Student Center, for designing this year’s cover of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

- CSU Bookstore, for providing a gift card for the cover design winner.

- NASPA and ACPA for assisting the *Journal of Student Affairs* in reaching out to a broader audience of graduate students and new professionals who wish to submit articles for publication.

- Kim Okamoto, for her tireless encouragement and guidance for all associated with the *Journal of Student Affairs* and the CSU SAHE program.
International Student Affairs and the “Path of Flames”

Dennis “Denny” Roberts (’73), Ph.D.
Assistant Vice President, Education of Qatar Foundation

Introduction

“And the only path through the flames, I could see now, is simple human kindness, not overwrought passions and notions of self-sacrifice” (O’Hara, 2004, p. 276). Kevin O’Hara is an American who in 1979 decided to explore his cultural roots by undertaking a walk – 1,800 miles – around the coast of Ireland. Not just a walk by himself but in the way a tinker would have long ago – with a donkey and cart. O’Hara discovered so many things about himself and about the nature of humanity. Encounter after encounter confirmed the essential goodness and hospitality of all those on his path, even at a time when the conflict between the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland was still very volatile.

As a Catholic Irish-American, O’Hara’s most difficult moment on his journey ‘round Ireland was dealing with his own fears as he entered the outskirts of Belfast, a stronghold of Protestantism. The time of troubles was a very frightening reality in 1979 so O’Hara’s trepidation was not entirely unfounded. The coincidence of Pope John Paul’s visit to Dublin on the same day that O’Hara passed through Belfast only added to the sense of doom; doom that had O’Hara fantasizing his own martyrdom in the crowded streets that day. As he left Belfast behind, O’Hara realized that the path of flames was only in his mind. He had been helped by numerous strangers, as he had been throughout Ireland. This help came in response to the simplicity of his mode of travel (walking his donkey and cart) and his willingness to treat all those he would encounter with respect and anticipating a positive response.

Even though O’Hara’s travels in Ireland were very different in form and place than my early work in student affairs, or the more recent encounters I had in my work in Qatar, I have to admit that on occasion I have also had fantasies of my own path of flames. This path of flames has resulted in the forging and shaping that has made my student affairs experience so fulfilling. And, it is probably the simple lessons O’Hara derived from that day in Belfast – striving for humility and being available for human encounter – that have most profoundly shaped my experiences.

Colorado State University – First Step on the Path of Flames

When I was a Colorado State University (CSU) undergraduate music major and active participant in several student organizations, I was advised by Jim Kuder when I served as president of my fraternity. Then, I met Rex Kellums who directed Preview CSU and supervised me in my summer work as an orientation coordinator. I was also influenced by Ursula Delworth who taught my resident assistant course and by Don Fulton who supervised me as a hall director. Ultimately, it was Burns Crookston, serving as Dean of Students, who agreed to meet with me one day about the prospect of becoming a student personnel worker. It was these cumulative encounters that reinforced my hunches that student personnel was a field to which I could contribute and in which I could thrive.

I did not realize that the student affairs staff whom I had encountered were among the emerging wizards of the field. I just thought they were admirable individuals who seemed to have a different sense about them, a sense that called the best out of those around them. Dean Crookston was a bit different because he was a revered figure on campus and one who
intimidated me, even when he draped an apron over his neck to barbecue steaks for faculty, staff and student leaders at his home in celebration of inducting another class at the close of Preview CSU. It was the combination of all these scholar practitioners that brought a special quality to the student experience, and it was their role-modeling that would serve more as a guide for my practice than the books and articles I would study in my graduate courses. CSU was a textbook in itself in the late 1960s and early 1970s – a textbook of experimentation, innovation, research, and theorizing.

Although my master’s courses informed me about the many important functions of student personnel work, I did not really catch on to the fact that the field, although young, had a deep and important intellectual and philosophical foundation. It should have been obvious but I was too immature to understand that the student affairs staff whom I knew were taking courageous, and sometimes dangerous, positions as advocates for student participation, engagement, and rights. Regardless of the fact that I was missing much of the undergirding points of student personnel work, I do vaguely remember one of the assignments in my CSU Master’s class being to create the ideal student affairs organization. Little did I know that such an assignment would actually come to fruition in creating student affairs from nothing four decades later in a new and innovative institution, and in a completely different cultural context.

Now as student affairs practice spreads around the globe, it is even more important to know why we do this “work,” and it is critical that we discern how we can be most effective in it. It is a time to make sure that student affairs is taken seriously wherever the best in higher education practice goes. It may seem to be a bit of an overstatement but much of my path of flames, and perhaps that of others, has been the result of grappling with the complicated dynamics of integrating theory and practice in an emerging field that has been informed by many disciplines and perspectives. Listening to others, reading, and grappling with these ideas have created converging and diverging paths that are important to acknowledge.

Convergent Paths

Having studied the 1937 Student Personnel Point of View very carefully, and then having explored its implications with some of its authors, one of the most important points of convergence in student affairs work is recognizing the central importance of experience-based learning – in the terms of John Dewey, “democratic education” (Roberts, 2012). As a CSU student, the power of holistic learning surrounded me at every turn and this caused me to take it for granted in many ways. Many educators assume that holistic learning is a natural consequence of the collegiate experience and needn’t include an intentional focus. However, a litany of research investigations has made it clear that student experiences vary from individual to individual, group to group, and institution to institution. Thus, it is relatively easy to conclude that those environments where students are most encouraged to engage in learning are those that have the greatest impact.

The commitment to student engagement is empty without ways to think about how it should be supported. It was Dr. Esther Lloyd-Jones, serving on both the 1937 and 1949 committees that drafted The Student Personnel Point of View, who believed and advocated that the greatest potential for student learning and development was in the natural relationships that existed in study, research, sports, living, and any number of other opportunities provided through an active co-curriculum. It was also her belief that healthy organizational culture fostered in a caring community was one of the most effective means to holistic student development. These ideas have been reiterated in an untold number of ways throughout
higher education in North America and have been cited in the best statements on student learning and development (Roberts, 1998).

Considering these foundational ideas of student personnel work, it is not difficult to recognize the convergence of these ideas in the programs and practices that were so much a part of the CSU environment in the late 1960s and early 1970s when Burns Crookston was Dean. After all, Dean Crookston studied with Esther and was one of her favorite proteges. The point is that, even as higher education opportunity exploded in North America, there were professionals who were deeply informed about the emerging research and theory about student learning and who sought to bridge the theory and practice gap through advocacy with their professional peers, faculty, and students.

What is interesting, in retrospect, is to examine the perspective advocated at CSU when many others performing student personnel functions of the time had begun to advocate for student services as the core of their work. The tension between student services and the ideas of student engagement were present at CSU as facilities and student numbers expanded dramatically. However, CSU held the ground that it was not just about service and it was Burns Crookston (1976) who many credit with introducing student development as the underlying philosophy of our work and student affairs as the organizational entity through which much of the work would be fulfilled. Not long after Crookston’s distinctions were published, student development theory and its application in practice broke fully onto the scene of higher education (Knefelkamp, Widick & Parker, 1978). While bringing greater specificity to the ideas of student development and engagement by tapping emerging theories of individual psychology, Knefelkamp, her colleagues, and authors who contributed chapters in the 1978 book acknowledged the great importance of the environment in fostering individual development.

The relationship between what was advocated in The Student Personnel Point of View, the recognition of the critical importance of the individual in the environment, and basing student affairs work on ever-unfolding research and theory to give substance to practice has required defense and protection throughout my career. As student affairs spreads into the international higher education community, arguing for the centrality of these commitments has become a renewed path of flames for me.

**Divergent Paths**

Why has defense of student affairs and its commitment to enhancing student learning and development been necessary? The appeal of the ideas seems so apparent yet there have been distractions along the way that I believe have taken some colleagues down divergent, and potentially contradictory, paths.

The first of the divergent paths was certainly the student service movement that was advocated by some during the rapid expansion and massification of higher education in North America in the 1960s and 1970s. While service was and is a necessary element of what a comprehensive student affairs program should include, it is not the central purpose or philosophy of the work. Clearly, the provision of lodging/accommodation, food, health/counseling, and recreational opportunity are important, but for what purpose? The divergent path of student services was a distraction in the 1960s and it is today in some areas of the global higher education environment where the focus has been placed on convenience and comfort of students rather than on their learning (Roberts, 2012).
Organizational complexity and specialization was the second divergent path and was a natural repercussion of focusing on efficient service. The idea of service being the focus of student personnel work emerged at a time when the complexity of higher education in North America was becoming far greater than it had ever been before and in an economic and organization climate era when organizational hierarchy, specialization, and efficiency were preeminent. World War II had proven that an industrialized society could win a war no one ever imagined could take place. Thus, complexity and accompanying specialization were natural conclusions to reach in many settings, regardless of the focus of the organization. Adopting this perspective, student services staffs were enlarged, facilities expanded, and bureaucratization divided those in universities into sub-units that undermined communication and strong working relationships. This trend not only impacted those working in student services functional areas who lost track of each other’s work and purposes, but it also had the most deleterious impact on relations with other administrative areas and the teaching and research faculty.

Growing organizational separation had another profoundly negative implication; it reinforced modern notions that differentiated intellectual development from other areas such as physical, spiritual, aesthetic, and other forms of development. This division of the intellect from other areas of human development in the academic environment privileged intellectual intelligence over others. In addition, and as we are now beginning to understand, it segregated aspects of the whole in ways that do not reflect the complexity and elegance of the way humans function. The result of these dynamics is that the philosophy of the emerging field, holistic development, was marginalized from the area of central importance to higher education – intellectual development.

The last divergent point is that, in a legitimate and conscientious attempt to advance knowledge and theory in student affairs work, some research and theory-building was asserted as new and different when it could have been strengthened by relating the new ideas to the rich and profoundly important lineage that preceded it. The outcome of this was that foundational philosophy and theory in student affairs did not build incrementally as well as it might, establishing a coherent body of knowledge that can be grasped by either those in the field or others seeking to understand it.

The Ultimate Path of Flames – International Student Affairs

Returning to the distant memory of the CSU masters class when I was asked to create the perfect model of student affairs, I never imagined where I would find myself in the fall of 2007. After 34 years of service in North America, Qatar Foundation invited me to join its staff in creating the Office of Faculty and Student Services. This office was established as a new entity and based on an assessment of the university partners affiliated with Education City at its Doha, Qatar, campus. The idea was to foster cooperation and to cultivate synergies across the universities that would encourage students’ learning and enhance their overall experience. Trail-blazing in student affairs includes some fascinating complexities. As I have compared notes with colleagues who are the pioneers of student affairs practice in international higher education settings, many face similar dynamics. Lack of awareness of student affairs as a field, absence of credentialed staff to perform the work, low appreciation of the value student affairs brings to the full higher education context, and the lack of knowledge of research/theory related to student learning are frequent dynamics that international student affairs educators face. Overlaid on top of these is the fact that international settings frequently include students from much more diverse backgrounds and the national and/or cultural context is likely to be very different than in North America.
In the work begun in Qatar in 2007, the heaviest initial press was for services such as residence halls, health services, transportation, financial aid, and visa processing. Once the basic needs began to fall into place, the shift to more holistic approaches, and approaches more consistent with the core philosophy of The Student Personnel Point of View became possible. The importance of the services has not completely disappeared but over time much more focus has emerged on the value added to the overall educational experience of students; even then, those involved in the work had to find ways to communicate what they were doing and why it made a difference. The need to communicate the nature of our work resulted in a joint writing initiative eventually published as Without Borders: Collaborative Statement on the Student Experience in 2011. This collaborative statement incorporated and contextualized The Student Personnel Point of View in ways to serve students from over 100 countries throughout the Middle East, Asia, Africa, Europe, and North America and it captured the shared spirit among student affairs staff who worked for the branch universities and the coordinating entity of Hamad bin Khalifa University (the name recently given to the former Education City university partnerships).

The new Principles of International Student Affairs (Hamad bin Khalifa University, 2011) defined a different level of engagement than has been typical of the MENA region and many other places in the developing world:

- Every student has dignity and worth and there is value in diverse communities.
- Learning includes the intellect as well as many other areas of human development (i.e. intrapersonal, interpersonal, physical, artistic, career, spiritual).
- Learning is everywhere the student goes and recognizing the power of learning in these many places is central to enhancing students’ experience.
- Developing young people's full potentiality unlocks the human capacity that will create common good, prosperity, and peace.

As a result of this statement, it has become increasingly more obvious that student affairs has something unique to offer. Asserting the original philosophy of student personnel work contemporized and contextualized in this way has demonstrated the importance and relevance of the core convergent ideas enumerated above.

It is clear that international student affairs does not just happen once a philosophy and purpose is established. The authors of the 1937 statement likely realized the challenge of implementation soon after they had drafted their statement and this is the experience those of us in Qatar have also shared. Our experiences reflect a persistent lack of understanding among faculty and those in other administrative areas about student affairs work. And the newness of the idea of student affairs and lack of infrastructure around it press anyone involved to aggressively pursue broad capacity building efforts.
Some of the capacity building strategies we have used to cultivate a commitment to students affairs include:

- Cultivated deep and sustainable partnerships with our university partners through engaging regularly in planning, coordinating, and communicating about our work
- Created intentional professional development that recognized the wide disparity in backgrounds, language, and motivation among student affairs staff
- Hosted regional workshops and conferences to draw a broader number of student affairs staff together and to create a shared identity for our work
- Fostered a learning organization perspective through agreement on shared organization principles and values
- Hosted Qatar Study Tour and Young Professional Institute, engaging U.S. graduate programs in mutual learning with Qatar colleagues and focused on local needs
- Introduced the potential for further graduate study of student affairs through the QF Certificate in Student Affairs program
- Cultivated a mutually respectful relationship among expatriate student affairs trained staff and their national (Qatari) colleagues

These capacity building efforts have taken Qatar Foundation’s Hamad bin Khalifa University from a very small number of Qatari colleagues to Qatari nationals now comprising 40% of the staff. And, Qatar now has its first Qatari national student affairs in higher education masters graduate and a growing number are considering following this path toward appropriate credentialing. Both expatriate and Qatari national staff have proposed and presented at professional conferences, research projects have been undertaken, and a commitment to creating literature appropriate to Arab and Islamic settings is beginning. These outcomes seem both embryonic and monumental, especially given the fact that this has occurred within a five-year window.

Concluding the Path of Flames

Clearly, interest in student affairs work is emerging around the world. In my view, the opportunities to advance the purposes of student affairs are likely greater beyond North America’s borders. These opportunities come with challenges that must be recognized. Understanding the purpose of student affairs work may be negligible. Readiness, talent and preparation may lag behind demand. Some universities blindly adopt student affairs ideas without knowing the purpose and substance of the work.

One can only hope that the growing recognition of what constitutes true student affairs work will not be taken for granted. Student affairs work will be taken seriously when North American educators partner with their colleagues to critically examine what works or does not work. Offered in humility and as engaged learners themselves, North American and other educators may find that they benefit as much or more as they begin to see the world through wider lenses.

The path of flames encountered by O’Hara during his journey around Ireland (2004) was more about understanding himself, dealing with his own limits, and learning to appreciate the vast opportunities available to him by letting go of his own premonitions. The path of
flames for those of us in student affairs, in North America and around the world, may involve similar discoveries. In a profoundly encompassing way, O’Hara’s path of flames may provide a metaphor for how student affairs might thrive in an ever-expanding international arena. In essence, the most important purposes of our work may be striving for humility and being available for human encounter – attributes that CSU graduates have been so privileged to encounter during their study and work over the years.

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Embracing International Students: 
Fostering an Inclusive Campus

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Abstract

International students face numerous challenges upon arrival to the United States (U.S.). International students not only “deal with a new culture in terms of the university, but they also have to adjust to everything from a different climate and unusual foods to a new language and an unfamiliar academic system” (Yu, 2004, p. 13). According to the Institute of International Education (2012a), 764,495 international students were enrolled in higher education in the U.S. for the 2011-2012 academic year—a 6% increase from the previous year. Currently, internationalization of college campuses continues to be a trend college and university administrators’ support and it is gaining momentum (International Association of Student Affairs and Services, 2009). As a result, more attention should be placed on how colleges and universities support international students (Kwon, 2009). This article presents how unique supports and services are needed when working with international students. Bennett’s (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity and Petersen’s (1995) Five Stages of Culture Shock are explained as they apply to international students. Furthermore, the Intercultural Connections Community is introduced—a unique campus housing community supportive of international students at Colorado State University (Housing & Dining Services, Apartment Life, 2008). This article concludes by presenting recommendations for student affairs practitioners to assist international students and integrate them into campus life.

Keywords: campus services, foreign students, higher education, intercultural, international students, student affairs, student housing

In an article published in The Journal of Higher Education, Zhao, Kuh, and Carini (2005) report, “as the proportion of international students increase, both groups [domestic and international students] perceive their campus to be less, not more, supportive” (p. 224). The authors assert international students perceive their campus to be less supportive because of negative amplification, “a situation where focusing on a disappointment in the company of others leads to interpreting other generally neutral or ambiguous aspects of a groups’ experience also as disappointing or frustrating” (Zhao et al., 2005, p. 224). This is alarming since international student enrollment continues to increase (Institute of International Education, 2012a). As a result, more attention should be placed on how colleges and universities support international students (Kwon, 2009). This article brings awareness to a population of today’s college students often misunderstood—international students. This article reveals how international students need unique support services to achieve academic and personal goals, and presents two theories helpful when working with international students. Additionally, the Intercultural Connections Community (ICC) at Colorado State University (CSU) is presented. Finally, this article provides recommendations for student affairs’ practitioners.
International Student Population

Bevis and Lucas (2007) define international students as foreign students, and characterize them as “individual[s] from another country who [are] in the United States (U.S.) temporarily on a student visa, and who [are] registered at an accredited institution of higher education” (p. 11). This population of students helps create a diverse and multicultural environment on college campuses (Zhao et al., 2005). Additionally, $22.7 billion dollars were generated in the U.S. economy as a result of international students’ tuition, living expenses, and other costs, making international student recruitment an attractive revenue-generating source for universities (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2012a).

According to the Institute of International Education (2012a), 764,495 international students were enrolled in higher education in the U.S. during the 2011-2012 academic year – a 6% increase from the previous year. Furthermore, international students enrolling for the first time at a U.S. institution increased by 6.5% from the previous year to 228,467 (IIE, 2012b). This increase makes it the sixth consecutive year where figures show growth in the total number of international students in the U.S. (IIE, 2012a).

The growth of international students in Colorado, where this article is written, is also increasing. In 1992, 5,000 international students were enrolled in degree-granting institutions in Colorado; today, 6,231 international students are enrolled, ranking Colorado 26th among all 50 states (IIE, 2012c). University of Colorado at Boulder has the highest number of international students with 1,681, followed by the University of Denver with 1,430, and Colorado State University (CSU) with 1,352 (IIE, 2012c). The number in Colorado is projected to increase with CSU’s partnership with INTO, a private company partnering with universities to recruit international students (Today@Colorado State, 2012).

Cultural Adjustment of International Students

Students face numerous challenges upon arriving to the U.S. Students “not only must deal with a new culture in terms of the university, but they also have to adjust to everything from a different climate and unusual foods to a new language and an unfamiliar academic system” (Yu, 2004, p. 13). Additionally, students are affected by the campus climate; students must navigate campus culture, habits, and new policies and procedures (Yu, 2004). When students arrive to the U.S. they are likely required to change their way of thinking and behavior to overcome any cultural obstacles encountered (Yu, 2004).

The successful adjustment of students relies on two aspects of adjustment – psychological and sociocultural (Coles & Swami, 2012). Psychological adjustment relates to students’ “mental health and overall well-being” (p. 88), whereas sociocultural adjustment relates to “[behavioral] and cognitive factors associated with effective performance during cross-cultural transition” (p. 88). Moores and Popadiuk (2011) found a sense of belonging allowed students to adjust to host culture, therefore reducing levels of cultural stress and increasing sense of support. The authors believe programming helps provide a feeling of inclusion to host environment by helping students find a place in the community or with host nationals (Moores & Popadiuk, 2011).

“Theory without practice is empty and practice without theory is blind” (Donovan & Branton-Housely, 2004); student affairs applies development theories to assist practitioners understand developmental challenges facing students (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010). Two theories relevant to international students, Pedersen’s (1995) Five Stages of Culture
Shock and Bennett’s (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, are discussed to demonstrate some students’ unique challenges.

**Pedersen’s Five Stages of Culture Shock.** Culture shock occurs “when an individual encounters unfamiliar events in unexpected circumstances” (Yu, 2004, p. 13). Pedersen (1995) defines culture shock as “an internalized construct or perspective developed in reaction or response to [a] new or unfamiliar situation” (p. vii), and describes culture shock as a process, where individuals learn coping strategies essential for future success. Not all international students experience culture shock in the same manner (Pedersen, 1995). The Five Stages of Culture Shock, according to Pedersen (1995), are: Honeymoon, Disintegration, Reintegration, Autonomy, and Interdependence.

During the Honeymoon stage, students are excited being in the host country (Yu, 2004). At Disintegration, students face their “first real encounter and interaction with new culture, leading to feelings of homesickness, depression, and isolation” (Yu, 2004). During Reintegration, students accept positive and challenging aspects of both home and host cultures, allowing them to feel confident in their own identity (Yu, 2004). At Autonomy, students “learn new skills and understandings to balance the host culture and their own identity” (Yu, 2004, p. 15), being able to productively respond to difficult experiences. In the final stage, Interdependence, students move from alienation to an identity where they are comfortable, settled, and accepted (Yu, 2004). Interdependence is the desired goal for international students (Yu, 2004). The typical description of progression through Pedersen’s Five Stages of Culture Shock takes the form of a five-stage U-curve (Yu, 2004).

**Bennett’s Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity.** Bennett’s (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) model provides a framework explaining how people interpret cultural differences. Bennett’s (1993) model applies to anyone experiencing cultural difference. This model can be applied to international students as they move through different stages during adjustment to U.S. culture. The model explains the development of an individual moving from an ethnocentric worldview, where one sees own culture as central to reality, to an ethno-relative worldview, where one sees own culture contextually. Bennett’s (1993) model has six phases: three in the ethnocentric level, Denial, Defense, and Minimization; and three in the ethno-relative level, Acceptance, Accommodation, and Integration.

In Denial, students may be “disinterested in cultural difference when it is brought to their attention” (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003, p. 424). In Defense, students may feel their own culture is the only viable culture (Hammer et al., 2003). A variation of Defense is Reversal, where the host culture is experienced as superior to one’s own culture (Hammer et al., 2003). During Minimization, one’s own cultural worldview is experienced as universal (Hammer et al., 2003).

During Acceptance, students may view their own culture as one of many complex worldviews, “experiencing others as different from themselves, but equally human” (Hammer et al., 2003, p. 425). In Adaptation, students expand worldviews to understand other cultures (Hammer et al., 2003). At the final stage, Integration, students demonstrate feelings of cultural marginality and are able to navigate moving in and out of different cultural worldviews (Hammer et al., 2003). Figure 1 illustrates Bennett’s DMIS model.
Examining Pedersen’s (1995) Five Stages of Culture Shock and Bennett’s (1993) DMIS, this article theorizes Pedersen’s theory may be superimposed on the DMIS. Each stage of culture shock is echoed in one of the DMIS stages. For example, the Honeymoon stage in Pedersen’s theory can be recognized at the Reversal stage of the DMIS; students who are excited being in their host country may adopt the host culture, and experience their host culture as superior. Similarly, the DMIS Defense stage can be reflected in Pedersen’s Disintegration stage; students at this stage experience discomfort and confusion, which may motivate students to isolate themselves from others. Other stages of the DMIS, from Minimization to Integration, may be similarly viewed in Pedersen’s theory, from Reintegration to Independence.

The Intercultural Connections Community
International students report campus housing to be one of the best places for interacting with host country students and other international students (Moores & Popadiuk, 2011). Learning communities are defined as communities where students live, take classes, interact with faculty, and learn together (Kemp, 2010). In contrast to the formal definition of a learning community, Kemp (2010) states creating a culture of collaboration and connection in a living space may also create a distinct form of a learning community. The ICC at CSU is an example of a community where support, collaboration, and connection are expected to facilitate learning.

Purpose of ICC. The ICC is a unique community within the University Apartments at CSU (Housing & Dining Services, Apartment Life, 2008). The ICC is designed for single undergraduate students, 23 years of age and younger, who are interested in cross-cultural
experiences (Housing & Dining Services, Apartment Life, 2008). Residents represent diverse national origins, races, ages, religions, sexual orientations, and abilities (Housing & Dining Services, Apartment Life, 2008). Through a wide range of programming and one-on-one staff-student interaction, the ICC seeks to foster personal growth, global awareness, and promote intercultural competence (Ahmad, 2005).

The ICC provides support services to second year, upper class, transfer, and international students (Ahmad, 2005). Second year students often feel invisible on campus, suffer from academic disengagement, career and major indecision, and developmental confusion (Hunter, Tobolowsky, & Gardner, 2009). Transfer students report higher levels of difficulty socially integrating to their new institution (Townsend & Wilson, 2006). International students experience greater difficulty than local students at socially integrating to their new institution; students are more lonely and homesick (Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2002) and experience less social support than domestic students (Hechanova-Alampay, Beehr, Christiansen, & Van Horn, 2002). Additionally, the leading complaint among international students is lack of friendships with host-nationals; more than one-third of students claim to have no host-national friends (Paper Clip Communications, 2012). The ICC helps unite international and domestic students to build an intercultural community where every student feels welcomed.

**ICC Model.** The ICC model consists of four stages: Pre-Entry, Entry, Involvement, and Exit (Ahmad, 2005). Pre-Entry consists of recruiting students interested in living in an intercultural community (Ahmad, 2005). Interested students complete a live-in agreement explaining program expectations. Entry includes check-in, orientation, and a greeting by staff (Ahmad, 2005). The longest stage is Involvement, where students are exposed and required to attend two community programs per semester, designed to help students integrate into the community and develop intercultural competence (Ahmad, 2005). Exit stage considers what ICC students need before leaving the community (Ahmad, 2005). Table 1 demonstrates the ICC flowchart.

**Table #1: ICC Program Four Phase Flowchart**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>PROGRAM ACTIVITIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRE-ENTRY</td>
<td>1. Recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Traditional Student Housing Application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Interview or Information Session with ICC Coordinator</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Sign Live-In Agreement Form</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Sign Housing Contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENTRY</td>
<td>1. Check-in with Area Office</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Greeting by Community Coordinator (CC) and ICC Mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Attend New ICC Student Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INVOLVEMENT</td>
<td>1. Developmental and Socio-cultural Activities/Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Ongoing Contact by CC and ICC Mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Check Wellness &amp; Academic Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXIT</td>
<td>1. Support Future Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Answer Vacating Questions</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Benefits of ICC. There are 226 ICC students representing over 10 countries, including China, Vietnam, Saudi Arabia, Mexico, and the U.S. Students self-select to live in the ICC for several reasons: (1) interest in being part of an intercultural community; (2) interest in meeting academic, career, or personal goals; and (3), interest in community service and active community involvement (Ahmad, 2005). Students targeted for the ICC hail from many groups. Students from U.S. underrepresented backgrounds feel attracted to ICC because they feel welcomed in the multicultural environment (Ahmad, 2005). Students who enjoy living in residence halls find the ICC to be a good transition to independent living, preparing students for off-campus living (Ahmad, 2005). Transfer students see the ICC as a safe transition to help them cope with the new institution (Ahmad, 2005). For international students, the ICC is attractive due to the peer-to-peer interactions and presence of other international students, often including individuals from their home country (Ahmad, 2005).

Recommendations

Four recommendations were identified to assist student affairs practitioners in working with international students. The first recommendation is to modify current programs and services to provide welcoming and helpful services to international students. Practitioners should take into consideration the impact of modifications on traditional domestic students. Practitioners have the responsibility to continuously adjust to the changing populations of college students, including additional international students.

Technology is frequently used by international students instead of talking directly to peers or instructors in order to “avoid embarrassing exchanges created by language barriers and unfamiliarity with cultural idioms” (Zhao et al., 2005, p. 223). Although reliance on technology may be beneficial in students’ transition, it plays a “part in social isolation if it substitutes for face-to-face interaction” (Zhao et al., 2005, p. 223). Therefore, the second recommendation encourages further research to determine how to effectively provide services to international students, encouraging them to interact with faculty, staff, and peers. Students’ use of technology decreases over time, leading to more face-to-face interaction with peers (Zhao et al., 2005). Student affairs and academic affairs must collaborate to support decreased use of technology by international students and create opportunities for meaningful interactions.

The third recommendation is for practitioners to become familiar with theories such as Pedersen’s (1995) Five Stages of Culture Shock and Bennett’s (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. Intercultural sensitivity and competency can be achieved through ongoing intercultural workshops for staff. Existing professional development workshops should include learning outcomes related to intercultural sensitivity and competency. New professional development workshops focusing on intercultural sensitivity and competency should be developed, utilizing pre-existing campus resources. Finally, monetary support to bring outside campus presenters focusing on intercultural training should be considered.

Lastly, Kemp (2010) suggests creating a culture of collaboration and connection in a living space fosters a community where international students can adjust and deal effectively with culture shock. The final recommendation is targeted to housing professionals. Housing professionals must explore different methods to build community. As of 2003, ICC is an example of a unique community proven to assist students with adjustment to U.S. culture. While other institutions allow single international students to live in university apartment housing, our research found only one program model similar to the ICC because of its setting in apartment-style living (New York University, 2012). Further research should explore the effectiveness and further development of communities such as the ICC.
Summary

As the number of international students continues to increase in the U. S., student affairs practitioners must consider international students’ wellness, academic retention and success, and intercultural experience. This article demonstrates how international students need unique support services to achieve academic and personal goals. Additionally, theories relevant to understanding international students are presented. The ICC is introduced as an example of a living community supportive of undergraduate international students; as international students increase, it is imperative to design programs in housing to serve the population. The authors of this article believe the recommendations provided will help with the internationalization of campuses while developing a sense of global citizenship in all campus constituents. The authors encourage student affairs practitioners to consider the recommendations presented, and help international students be successful college students.

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References


Outdoor Adventure Education: An Underutilized Tool for Student Affairs
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Abstract
The use of outdoor adventure education (OAE) is increasing in student affairs. OAE programs facilitate learning and growth through outdoor experiences that get students out of their comfort zone. These experiences can initiate the learning process, encourage self-efficacy, and promote a sense of community. OAE is being integrated with success into student affairs through outdoor orientation programs, and could be utilized more in other functional areas. However, while OAE has demonstrated its effectiveness, risk management is a concern for institutions that plan to increase their utilization of OAE. Also, the field of OAE has work to do in the areas of diversity and social justice. While these are significant concerns, OAE programs can be powerful tools for student affairs practitioners to achieve a variety of important outcomes and to benefit the student experience.

Keywords: diversity, experiential education, outdoor adventure education, outdoor orientation, risk management, self-efficacy, sense of community, transition, wilderness

The sun had just set and 12 college students sat huddled in a circle on a ridge below the mountain they were hoping to reach the summit the next day. Several members of the group had large blisters and one member was experiencing altitude sickness, so the group decided to divide. Some decided to stay behind at the base camp while others planned to wake up before sunrise to attempt the grueling summit trek. James, a junior, spoke up just before the group dispersed to get ready for the night. He said he was uncomfortable with the fracturing of the group since they had worked together and helped each other to this point. To him, it did not seem right to leave group members behind now. In spite of the group’s earlier decision, James urged them to find consensus. They took another vote and made a unanimous decision to leave no one behind, even if it meant some of the group members would forego their summit attempt. The next day they had a relaxing day full of games and team-builders, and then hiked out of the wilderness as a unified group.

The lessons these students learned remained with them and shaped how they learned, interacted with peers, and made decisions for the entire academic year. This group of students experienced a type of experiential education called outdoor adventure education (OAE). The number of college students who participate in and learn from OAE programs, and who may find themselves on a windy ridge, is a growing trend in the university setting (Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, 1997; Prouty, 2007). Therefore, it benefits from further exploration and understanding of how it can be effectively utilized in student affairs.

Definition and Outcomes
According to Prouty (2007), OAE is a type of experiential education that engages the entire person and can be characterized as occurring outdoors, involving physical activities in an unfamiliar environment, requiring group interactions, and having real consequences. In
addition, many OAE programs include mental and physical challenges and involve spending at least one night outdoors (Bell, 2010; Hattie et al., 1997).

Outdoor adventure education relies on stretch zone experiences to initiate and reinforce the learning processes. There are three learning zones students could be in at any one time; comfort zone, stretch zone, or panic zone (Panicucci, 2007). The comfort zone does not facilitate learning due to a sense of equilibrium and lack of a pressing need to learn or grow. Also, the panic zone does not facilitate learning because there is so much imbalance, the student cannot process and learn from the situation. Lastly, the stretch zone is an area with enough disequilibrium the student is stimulated and pressed to learn, but not overwhelmed by the information. Since stretch zones vary for each individual, many OAE programs rely on a concept called challenge-by-choice (Panicucci, 2007, p. 41). When possible, instructors give students the opportunity to choose whether or not they will undergo a challenge. While instructors encourage students to enter their individual stretch zones, they will not make the decision for others on where their stretch zones may end and their panic zones might begin (Panicucci, 2007).

Benefits to Students

Positive outcomes can be generated by OAE programs and could be beneficial to student development. Being able to gain or enhance self-efficacy and the opportunity to build a sense of community are two benefits of these outdoor-minded programs.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as “a belief in one’s ability to organize and execute the course of action required to attain a given outcome” (Gass, Garvey, & Sugerman, 2003, p. 39). The idea of self-efficacy is to have belief in one’s self and to harbor a sense of resiliency. Studies have shown adventure-based recreation can increase self-efficacy, especially when coupled with challenging activities in an outdoor environment. However, the key to growth and learning for a participant is reflection before, during, and after an experience (Gass et al., 2003). Following an outdoor adventure orientation trip a first-year student shared the impact of spending multiple days in the wilderness and the immense amount of self-growth which occurred. The student reflected on the experience, “Now I know that with determination and patience, I can do anything I set out to do” (Brown, 2006, p. 21). This type of student response illustrates how an OAE participant can develop or enhance self-efficacy through an outdoor transition experience. The most effective OAE programs encourage responsibility and self-reflection. Furthermore, elements of self-efficacy including independence, confidence, self-esteem, and self-concept are enhanced by OAE programs (Hattie et al., 2002). In fact, OAE program participants often show notable increases in these elements between an immediate post-test and a follow-up test taken weeks after the experience (Hattie et al., 2002).

Sense of Community

A first-year student may be prepared for the transition academically, but finding a sense of community within a university can be challenging. Austin, Martin, Mittelstaedt, Schanning, and Ogle (2009) revealed students who experienced an orientation focused OAE program, on average had 12.8 friends during the first month of school compared to the 2.2 friends for non-participants. Starting out with a small group of students that come together specifically for an outdoor expedition can have a strong positive effect on social networking and friend making. This dedication and appreciation for newly found connections has a chance to deepen through OAE trips. For example another student shared in a post-trip survey, “One might say that people can build relationships the same way here as in urban civilization, but there is something about spending a week doing everything with the same people in the
wilderness” (Brown, 1998, p. 21). As universities search for ways to foster community among first-year students, OAE programs are effective tools to be utilized. Students reported the most important impact from group-oriented outdoor experiences was getting to know a group of peers and creating interpersonal connections (Bell, 2006).

**Utilization of Outdoor Adventure Education in Student Affairs**

The educational outcomes OAE programs can achieve demonstrate potential to positively impact college students. A recent increase of OAE programs at colleges and universities indicate this potential is starting to be fulfilled (Attarian, 2001). Many campus recreation centers are adding or expanding their outdoor adventure programs to allow students more opportunity to have intentional outdoor experiences (Taylor, Canning, Brailsford, & Rokosz, 2003). When outdoor adventure programs are carefully developed to achieve specific academic, self-efficacy, and interpersonal outcomes, they are excellent educational tools for both faculty and student affairs professionals. One method in which OAE is being integrated into student affairs is through the use of outdoor orientation programs (OOPs). In addition to these established programs, career centers and health centers are other functional areas that could benefit from OAE utilization or fusion with their existing programs.

**Outdoor Orientation Programs**

The roots of OOPs can be traced to Dartmouth College in 1932. Initially any benefit toward a student’s overall collegiate transition was secondary to the primary goal of orientation to the Dartmouth Outing Club (Bell, Holmes, & Williams, 2010). From those unintentional beginnings, the outdoor orientation idea was born. Thirty years later in 1968 Outward Bound, the expedition-based outdoor leadership program, contributed to the blossoming of OOPs. Roy Smith, an Outward Bound instructor at the time, developed a twenty-one day intensive wilderness orientation program for Arizona’s Prescott College (Bell et al., 2010). This was a pivotal moment for OOPs as Prescott was able to partner with Outward Bound, an organization focused on “deliver[ing] programs using unfamiliar settings as a way for participants across the country to experience adventure and challenge in a way that helps students realize they can do more than they thought possible” (Outward Bound, 2011, para. 1).

Quickly thereafter, additional colleges and universities implemented their own outdoor orientation programming. These subsequent programs employed shorter wilderness trips, but remained true to the original Outward Bound model. The new additions to the OOP landscape also honored Dartmouth’s model of employing trained students to lead the outdoor adventure excursions, while fusing outdoor education philosophy to traditional college programming (Bell et al., 2010). This relationship has been very fruitful as a study from 2006 reported 17,547 students participated in 164 OOPs across the country during that year (Bell et al., 2010). These existing and new programs have the opportunity to demonstrate their relative value to first-year students, their home institution, and the field of student affairs. The start of college can be filled with apprehension and anxiety, and OOPs can encourage a healthy transition for first-year students via support and assistance. OOPs have become a frequented bridge to college, and a model program for using OAE components.

**Career Centers**

The OAE outcomes of independence and self-concept could assist students in better determining career directions, while also directly benefitting the career center of an institution. Confidence, identity-development, a desire for challenge, and flexibility are all necessary in the process of picking a career path and eventually achieving that career. West Virginia University implemented the Sophomore Outdoor Adventure Reorientation (SOAR) program
to assist students in picking a career path and to provide them with a community of support. Following the first year of college, students can participate in a two week OAE experience which includes ample time for reflection, facilitated activities, and discussion designed to help students further realize their career interests and strengths. The community and friendships formed with faculty and other students during this experience provides support for the students throughout the remainder of the college experience (West Virginia University, 2011).

Health Centers
Another university functional area to benefit from OAE programs is the health center. Outdoor adventure education could be a very useful tool in working with students who are struggling with alcohol and other drugs. There are a number of wilderness therapy programs utilizing OAE to assist in the recovery of adolescents who are addicted to drugs or alcohol (Russell, 2000). According to Russell (2000), adolescents participating in a wilderness therapy program indicated the opportunity to spend time reflecting, engaging in adventure with others, and exercising in the outdoors had a number of positive results. The participants stated they had increased skills and desires to improve relationships in their lives, achieve more in school, and avoid drug and alcohol use. Outdoor adventure education has tremendous potential for university health centers if these types of results can be generalized, and if health centers can use OAE to increase the sense of community and self-efficacy of students struggling with addictions.

Concerns and Considerations
Outdoor adventure education programs can positively affect students and functional areas, and produce direct benefits for both groups. However, concerns exist which demand further consideration from student affairs professionals including issues of risk management, diversity, and social justice.

Risk Management
With so many students embarking on university sanctioned outdoor expeditions, managing risk has become an area of emphasis for institutions. This is especially significant since student leaders facilitate many programs’ trips. For example, the Brown Outdoor Leadership Training program consists of sophomore or transfer students participating in a five-day backpacking trip led solely by two undergraduate students (Brown University, 2012). At a time when it appears institutions are becoming more risk averse, the flexibility and support given to outdoor programs shows a level of commitment to outdoor adventure experiences (Bell et al., 2010). However, there remains cause for concern. Focusing specifically on OOPs, only 17% have ever participated in an external review, hinting oversight may be an issue on the department and university level (Bell et al., 2010). Regarding outdoor adventure programs, Bell et al. (2010) state, “if [they] are able to provide well-designed systems for managing the risks associated with experiential activities, these systems could help preserve and inform other college programs wishing to use more experiential activities” (p. 16), which could strengthen the prominence and impact of this university resource. To further add legitimacy to OAE programs, there should be a consideration for additional checks and balances. Creating systems of accountability for outdoor programming will be imperative going forward, and these programs should become more transparent in their operations while also soliciting feedback from external perspectives.
Diversity and Social Justice
Taking a wide view of the OAE landscape reveals disturbing trends. According to Warren (2002), OAE programs have displayed a significant lack of effort in training leaders how to facilitate in an inclusive manner, with racism and classism still existing in the field. Many of the prominent outdoor leadership texts create barriers by rarely mentioning social justice issues and almost exclusively displaying white men and women in photos and drawings (Warren, 2002). In addition, it can be difficult for people with a lower socioeconomic status to get the necessary certification and experience to be leaders in the field, since many programs require extensive experience and certifications. This often requires one to work without pay and the certifications are becoming increasingly expensive (Warren, 2002). Another recommendation for the future would be to encourage leaders in OAE to initiate the effort to train OAE professionals and participants in diversity and social justice issues to help encourage inclusivity (Warren, 2002).

Another diversity and social justice concern is the potential for OAE programs to be exclusive in terms of physical ability. While undoubtedly more OAE programs need to address this concern, there is some progress being made in this area (Guthrie & Yerkes, 2007). The National Sports Center for the Disabled offers a variety of OAE opportunities that include rock climbing, river rafting, and camping trips (National Sports Center for the Disabled, 2011). In addition, over 10% of outdoor camps offer special needs programming (Guthrie & Yerkes, 2007). An outdoor adventure student organization at the University of Wisconsin has been intentional to ensure many of its activities are accessible for students with disabilities (Johnson, 2000). The club provides mobility-impaired students the opportunity to downhill ski with sit-down mono-skis, vision-impaired students the opportunity to bike with tandem bicycles, and disabled students the opportunity to climb mountains by using specialized apparatus and conditioning regimens (Johnson, 2000).

Conclusion
Outdoor adventure education is an effective tool for achieving a number of outcomes and outdoor adventure provides students with educational moments it would be difficult, if not impossible, to achieve in a different setting (Hattie et al., 1997). The use of OAE programs is increasing at colleges and universities and the specific educational outcomes many OAE programs strive to achieve are beneficial to college students’ education (Attarian, 2001; Hattie et al., 1997). Rick Curtis, director of Princeton’s Outdoor Action program, highlights the intangible nature of outdoor adventure when he commented on the use of OOPs in the school’s first year experience; “Students think all their classmates have IQs of 200. Sitting around the campfire, they realize that most of their fellow campers are lugging the same preconceptions” (Troop, 2003, p. 1). The field of OAE clearly has areas for improvement regarding access, diversity, and social justice, and the current leaders in this field must start making progress in these areas. Research should be continued to support and guarantee outcomes are consistently achieved. Outdoor adventure education has significant potential to positively increase students’ self-efficacy and sense of community, and student affairs professionals should continue, or begin, to utilize OAE for the benefit of college students.

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References


ABCs of Ineffective Assessment Cultures: Spelling Out the Wrongs to Make Right

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Abstract
Assessment continues to be a necessary component of student affairs work, gaining importance with professional standards and accreditation requirements. As data from across campus is collected and compiled, institutions find themselves in need of developing and maintaining a culture of assessment. Leadership, guidance, and support are necessary as data needs to not only be collected, but be presented as useful and actionable information. Campus leadership must be actively involved in establishing practices and setting expectations for data collection. Notwithstanding inexperience or lack of expertise, a number of pitfalls can hinder assessment coordination. In this article, common leadership mistakes and misguided efforts are explored in an ABC framework of accountability, behavior, and communication. For each ineffective practice explored in the framework, recommendations and example practices are presented to illustrate how campus leadership could overcome these barriers and advance assessment practices.

Keywords: accountability, assessment, capacity building

Many institutions struggle with assessment. For guidance and support, assessment standards and competencies were set forth and continue to be refined (Henning, Mitchell, & Maki, 2008). While these are standards for data collection and demonstrated evidence, assessment practice is often without a comprehensive and intentional approach (Barham & Scott, 2006; Bresciani, 2010). This results in data being collected, but not translated to useful or actionable information. From a leadership standpoint, there are a number of mistakes or ineffective practices that can derail efforts to establish, maintain, or advance a culture of assessment. This article transforms a few common pitfalls of assessment in student affairs into an ABC framework – accountability, behavior, and communication – to inform those with responsibility of directing, or redirecting, assessment initiatives on campus. Recommendations and examples are presented for each ineffective area, resulting in a list to help guide individual and institutional assessment efforts.

Data Needs
While assessment is far from new, Upcraft and Schuh (1996) elevated the profile of data collection efforts by detailing the importance of a comprehensive assessment approach. Palomba and Banta (1999) expanded on this message, emphasizing assessment’s role in not only documenting and improving quality within an institution, but also communicating strengths of institutional programs and learning opportunities. Schuh (2008) called institutions to act given the increasing avenues – state, government, and accrediting bodies – through which institutions are asked to demonstrate retention, student learning, and programmatic evidence of student success. Consequently, assessment practices need to evolve from isolated practices to collaborative and coordinated efforts to meet institutional needs.
In working to meet these needs, institutions often focus on overcoming practice-based barriers to assessment: lack of time, resources, and competency or experience (Bresciani, 2010). While it is important to address these barriers, the systemic complexities in building and sustaining an assessment culture must also be examined. If an institution is placing importance on data collection and expecting this to translate into action on multiple levels, there should be a framework or plan in place to describe execution. Practitioners like Maki (2001), Bresciani (2006), and Barham and Scott (2006) advise an assessment cycle or process be followed for assessment projects. Institutions such as Stony Brook University have websites “designed to provide assistance and support” and to serve as “a road-map to guide...assessment efforts” (Stony Brook University, n.d.). Even with resources like these, it takes concerted efforts to ensure plans and processes transform to actual practice for staff.

Framework and Recommendations

Given the knowledge and skills necessary to conduct assessment, as well as the perspective of leadership and campus administration, there are a number of elements to keep in mind with respect to leading assessment efforts in student affairs. The ABC framework put forth in this article is an effort to blend theoretical components with realistic practice. Practical and situational examples are provided to aid illustration of how accountability, behavior, and communication play integral roles in assessment culture.

A is for Accountability

Accountability is important for an institution to address, as an assessment culture is only successful when its measures and provisions are implemented. It is not only essential that staff members know their role in the assessment process, but also that institutions designate individuals or collective bodies to ensure responsibilities are fulfilled. Without a plan or expectations in place, it is difficult to hold people accountable for assessment. This can lead to only select assessments and reports completed, leaving many goals or assessment needs unmet. With institutional accountability a primary purpose of assessment (Ewell, 2009), a meta-practice like this must be ensured.

To avoid ambiguity or confusion, institutions can set clear and manageable expectations for staff. At annual divisional retreats, Fordham University in New York presents each department with an eight-part presentation guide for discussing assessment efforts, with points ranging from presentation length to inclusion of action plans based on findings (Walker & Levy, 2012). Knowing staff will need to plan and document their efforts, institutions such as the University of Missouri-Kansas City provide a host of resources, including an assessment handbook and a number of templates and examples (Lindsay, 2012). Guidelines and resources like these reinforce what planning should take place throughout the year and what efforts should look like. Providing clear documentation and examples makes it easier to hold staff accountable for an end product.

Since many see assessment as the responsibility of more than just one person or staff, creating committees is another way institutions can increase accountability. Oregon State University has an Assessment Council who, among other responsibilities, is charged with “setting standards for assessment” and “serving as consultants to departments” (Sanderson & Ketcham, 2009, p. 63). Similarly, California State University – Fullerton (CSUF), created a committee for the purpose of building knowledge and skill capacity, supporting staff with assessment efforts, and helping hold others accountable through project reporting and sharing (Jarnagin, Mink Salas, Lopez Garcia, & Levy, 2011). Committees simultaneously ease the anxiety of numerous staff expected to carry out assessment, as well as the limited staff charged with leading data collection and showing results. Such efforts increase involvement in processes, reinforce
expectations, and make accountability more of a peer-perceived responsibility versus a supervisor or leadership-imposed requirement.

Accountability can also serve as a way to build a positive reputation for assessment. Institutions such as University of Nebraska at Kearney not only present faculty and staff with assessment awards, they also publish the listings on their institution’s website (University of Nebraska at Kearney, 2012). Formal or informal, reward and recognition for assessment efforts not only support staff involved, they also can also help set a standard or create a healthy sense of competition among other staff members. The University of Michigan held an on-campus, internal staff showcase of assessment and research a few years ago that has since developed into the Annual Research Symposium (Walker & Levy, 2012). What started as a selective event for the University of Michigan staff has since drawn distinguished faculty and staff from across the nation. Practices like these remind campus leadership rewards, not just reprimands, should be associated with accountability.

B is for Behavior

In providing resources and increasing accountability, leadership behavior plays a part in staff performance and overall culture of assessment on campus. Too often assessment is established as a priority at the institutional level and then projects are delegated to employees without full context to purpose or importance. This type of behavior downgrades the priority and creates environments where assessments may be conducted without people responsible knowing purpose or need. As student affairs professionals are not necessarily experienced or trained in assessment (Aloi, Green, & Jones, 2007), they rely on solutions to build capacity quickly. Two common efforts utilized or recommended are articles and webinars – both relatively passive forms of education. Even when solid capacity building efforts are in place, rarely do these practices result in the ability to see if skills were put in practice or retained over time. Without leadership setting an example, staff members are left to set their own baselines, which may fall below programmatic expectations or institutional needs.

Leadership should actively role-model behaviors they wish to see in their staff. To do so, campus leadership must be aware of the strategic plan and assessment initiatives to be accomplished (Bresciani, 2010). At CSUF, leadership not only knew of, but also tracked assessments completed within various learning domains for the division (Jarnagin et al., 2011). Furthermore, the Dean of Students and Associate Vice President for Student Affairs regularly attended and led discussions for staff with respect to capacity building webinars or presentations. Leadership presence at such meetings conveys the importance of the activity and challenges staff to answer calls for action and application of knowledge or skills for respective programs or projects.

It is important to establish and encourage behaviors over time, rather than just introducing them in educational formats. West Virginia University’s academic faculty sponsored an educational series to build assessment capacity for student affairs staff (Aloi, Green, & Jones, 2007). As a result of this series, student affairs leadership established an assessment council which not only ensured that skills, charge, and momentum were maintained from these efforts, but also communicated assessment initiatives and guided practice. Such reinforcement of good practice ensures an urgent data priority is addressed with an organized and focused approach instead of hasty review or last minute data collection. Moreover, while leadership involvement is important, committee work and widespread communication of practice helps establish expectations and baselines for behavior of staff with respect to assessment. These expectations and demonstrated behaviors can carry through position levels and across campus.
C is for Communication

Communication is essential to assessment in a number of ways. If communication is not clearly understood or consistent, direction and resources used for assessments can result in confusion as to who is responsible for data collection or purpose of a given project. While assessment cycles point to sharing and reporting results as imperative to the assessment process, that is rarely happening effectively at institutions, if at all (Walker & Levy, 2012). As much as campus leadership may agree assessment is important and relevant to staff, if assessment is not actively or frequently discussed (e.g., meeting agendas, project updates, publications), it becomes an empty imperative by which staff may not abide. Campuses can also experience disconnect between priority and practice in reviewing programmatic and strategic initiatives.

Because consistency of language and definitions are critical, a number of institutions have handbooks, reference guides, and websites with resources dedicated to assessment in student affairs. A web search revealed a number of institutional examples. Some institutions to note are Boston College, California State University – Fullerton, Colorado State University, Marquette University, Oregon State University, Stony Brook University, University at Albany – SUNY, University of Alaska – Anchorage, University of Connecticut, University of San Diego, and West Virginia University. One resource institutions could provide to underscore the importance of communication is a data dictionary. A data dictionary defines terms and illustrates language to use moving forward in institutional data collection and reporting – such as explaining what qualifies as assessment, or what is implied when student is used in a report.

Once language is determined, lines of communication must be open for staff calling for assessments, reports, and findings. If collected data is not reported or findings not shared, why was the data collected in the first place? Intentional data collection always has an audience or stakeholder to report to, if not multiple audiences. Information must be specifically crafted and geared towards each audience’s needs or interests (Walker & Levy, 2012). Just as a report of findings to the board of trustees would look different than one to a population of student leaders, one stock report or summary of information does not encapsulate effective communication in sharing results.

In looking to promote or increase the conversation about assessment, institutions can take small steps to infuse it in regular activities and responsibilities (Walker & Levy, 2012). Adding a standing bullet point to meeting agendas to discuss assessment – upcoming projects, current data collection, sharing of findings – is one way to remind staff assessment is ongoing. Emailing a data point or action item from a recent study to colleagues is another way to share information or communicate changes to those who may not be familiar with operations of or information from areas outside their own. More frequent assessment communication could lead to improved project coordination between colleagues and collaboration across campus. While communication is important, it does not have to be lengthy or time-consuming to make an impact on assessment culture or campus operations. As with other areas, small efforts can lead to big wins in reinforcing behavior and promoting proper practice.
Conclusion

Assessment is not easily understood or well-practiced by all. There are, however, simple elements to the assessment process that are overlooked. Holding staff accountable is necessary with assessment work. Setting clear expectations, enlisting help from others to peer-monitor and support one another, as well as rewarding and recognizing staff accomplishments are ways to increase accountability for assessment efforts. If institutions desire certain behaviors from their staff with respect to assessment practices, they should role model the efforts and put supports in place to reinforce and sustain behaviors over time. Keep communication clear – provide examples and resources for staff to follow, have conversations about projects before they are launched, expect follow up, and infuse assessment conversation into daily activities. While there are certainly an alphabet’s worth of challenges and successes, awareness of these ABCs should alleviate anxiety around the barriers to advancing an assessment culture, while also articulating manageable and actionable steps which could lead to demonstrated successes.

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References


Stressed in College: 
Posttraumatic Stress Disorder and the Implications on Student Affairs 

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Abstract 

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a psychological disorder spurred by the experience or perceived experience of a traumatic event and causing a severe emotional response (National Center for PTSD [NCP], 2011). Traumatic events go beyond the commonly assumed combat and sexual assault, and college students are not exempt from experiencing any sort of trauma. Over 50% of Americans experience at least one event in their lifetime they interpret as traumatic (Seides, 2010). This article defines PTSD and the symptoms needed for an accurate diagnosis. The effects of PTSD on a college population are discussed, followed by an application of how PTSD awareness may benefit student affairs professionals, including the emergence of Veterans and Military Programs and Service (VMPS). Alienation on campus is a critical factor in veterans displaying signs of PTSD, and this article concludes by discussing how VMPS centers offer a social support network for veterans (Elliott, Gonzalez, & Larson, 2011). 

Keywords: college campus, posttraumatic stress disorder, prevalence on campus, PTSD, student affairs, triggering events, veterans, Veterans and Military Programs and Services 

Military combat events are commonly associated with the formation of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), but a plethora of events can lead to this psychological disorder. PTSD is becoming prevalent on college campuses as more students understand the multitude of triggering events and find comfort in seeking support from others. Student affairs professionals should be aware of the impact of PTSD because of the variety of events triggering the disorder (Seides, 2010), and new findings asserting personal perception of trauma as critical (Shigemoto & Poyrazli, 2011). This paper defines PTSD and the symptoms needed for an accurate diagnosis. The effects of PTSD on a college population will be discussed, followed by an application of how PTSD awareness may benefit student affairs professionals. 

General PTSD Diagnostic Criteria 
The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual-IV Edition (DSM) (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) describes etiology, symptomology, and prevalence rates for each listed psychological disorder. PTSD is no exception, and in order to fully understand the impact of PTSD and appropriately assess its influence on college campuses, one must first understand the aforementioned criteria of the disorder. An in-depth description of each sector of criteria is listed below. 

Etiology and Symptomology – Where It Comes From and What It Looks Like 
The DSM (2000) lists six criteria that must be met to diagnose PTSD; one is centered around etiology and the others on symptomology. Etiology stems from experiencing a traumatic stressor, which is defined as having “experienced, witnessed, or confronted with an event or events that involved actual or threatened death or serious injury, or a threat to the physical
integrity of self or others” (National Center for PTSD [NCP], 2011, para. 4) and having an emotional response of severe “fear, helplessness, or horror” (NCP, para. 5). Military combat, all forms of personal assault, terrorist attacks, being kidnapped/taken hostage, life-threatening illness, incarceration of any sort, natural disasters, and car accidents are common PTSD-triggering events, and a variety of other experiences can also trigger PTSD (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Three symptom clusters—intrusive recollections, avoidant/numbing, and hyper-arousal—articulate what an individual with PTSD experiences (NCP, 2011). A predetermined number of symptoms from all three clusters must be present to diagnose, although someone may have symptoms primarily focused within one cluster (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). One symptom from the intrusive recollection cluster must be experienced, as well as three from avoidant/numbing cluster and two from hyper-arousal. Duration of symptoms lasting at least one month and noticeable impairment in at least one area of a person’s life is the final criteria (NCP, 2011). PTSD is also classified as acute-duration under three months—or chronic-duration exceeds three months—and may have a delayed onset (NCP, 2011).

Visible Rates of PTSD

According to Seides (2010), over 50% of Americans experience at least one event in their lifetime which they interpret as traumatic. However, the prevalence of PTSD is between 1% and 10%, nationwide (Read, Ouimette, White, Colder, & Farrow, 2011). Only 5% to 6% of men and 10% to 13% of women report symptoms leading to a diagnosis of PTSD (Seides, 2010; Tang & Fryed, 2011). PTSD prevalence rates amongst college students have also been studied due to the “unique developmental life stage and culture” presented via college (Read et al., 2011). College students are more likely to experience traumatic events, with 67% to 84% reporting such events (Read et al., 2011). Read et al. found 9% of the over 3,000 college students surveyed met criteria for PTSD, with the most common traumatic events being: life-threatening illness (35%), sudden death of a loved one (34%), accident/natural disaster (26%), and physical violence (24%). These are important findings to understand the impact of PTSD on college campuses because they show stressful events more likely to be experienced by a college population, in comparison to typical assumptions of PTSD generating primarily from combat and sexual assault.

Impacts of PTSD on an Individual and Gender-Based Differences

PTSD may affect both body and mind. Effects stem from the symptoms listed within the DSM’s diagnostic criteria. Although limited, most symptoms affecting the body are located within the hyper-arousal cluster and include difficulty sleeping, difficulty concentrating, and hypervigilance, the feeling of always being on guard and wanting to be aware of one’s environment to the point of possible paranoia (NCP, 2011). Difficulty sleeping is due to the possibility of reoccurring thoughts or dreams of the traumatic experience—both of which are symptoms for PTSD—and may lead to decreased functioning in everyday life because of increased fatigue.

Effects on the mind are not as limited in number and span all three symptom clusters. Intrusive recollection effects include feeling as though the event is reoccurring and “intense psychological distress” resulting from exposure to any symbol serving as a reminder of the trauma (NCP, 2011, para. 10). Recurring thoughts and feelings may be experienced in multiple ways, with illusions, flashbacks, and hallucinations being the more common symptoms (NCP, 2011). Each impairs typical functioning because it is usually accompanied by an immediate sense of
returning to the traumatic event, both in thought and feeling (NCP, 2011). Emotional distress may surface as fear, horror, helplessness, or betrayal whenever there is a stimulus reminding the individual of the event (NCP, 2011). Anticipation of such emotional responses may ignite angst in the person; such stimuli directly lead to avoidance symptoms (NCP, 2011). Criteria also include a list of emotional symptoms, many of which may cause additional psychological effects. Restricted range of affect, feeling restrained or detached from loved ones, and anger/irritability are three such symptoms (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). These effects could instigate withdrawal from others or a sense of disconnect with those around, thus increasing the detrimental effects (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

**Application of PTSD Research to the Field of Student Affairs**

PTSD has many implications for student affairs. Although counseling centers on campuses will be the department most directly linked to PTSD, other functional areas are also impacted. Three applications to student affairs are explained.

**Developing a Fuller Understanding of PTSD**

One of the urgent implications centers around student affairs professionals having a more complete understanding of what PTSD is and what events may trigger it. Many associate PTSD with only certain types of trauma, such as sexual assault and military combat, whereas a much wider accumulation of events actually act as triggers (Seides, 2010). Misconceptions surrounding PTSD make it difficult to ask or expect student affairs professionals to appropriately assist students in need. One misconception to tackle is the variety of events classified as traumatic and eliciting PTSD. Military combat and sexual assault are the two most common triggers for PTSD, but as mentioned earlier, the DSM acknowledges a series of other events as well (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). New research by Seides (2010) found “stressful lives and a series of non-lethal and non-catastrophic event over time” also spur PTSD in some individuals (p. 725); she described such events as microtraumas. Frequently being bullied or a continued series of “relatively minor emotional insults” are Seides’ (2010) examples of such microtraumas (p. 725). Not only did this research establish a possible new trigger to PTSD, it concluded “exposure to lifetime multiple traumatic experiences was positively correlated with severity of PTSD symptoms” (Seides, 2010, p. 728). Events with high levels of betrayal associated with them, such as abuse from an acquaintance rather than a stranger, have also been strongly related to the rate and severity of PTSD symptoms (Tang & Freyd, 2011).

Having this deeper understanding of PTSD would allow student affairs professionals to better react when presented with students with PTSD. By knowing the breadth of traumatic events and the large number of college-aged students who experience at least one such event, student affairs professionals could design outreach programs for incoming students during first-year orientations (Read et al., 2011). New treatments for PTSD could be practiced on college campuses as well, including “deliberate cognitive processing,” which focuses on shifting meaning made from traumatic events and encouraging students to regain control of stressing thoughts (Shigemoto & Poyrazli, 2011). Shigemoto and Poyrazli (2011) found such therapy effective in establishing posttraumatic growth (PTG) rather than PTSD if the individual is able to “rebuild and design a more resistant [cognitive] structure to possible events in the future” (p. 1). Utilizing this strategy may allow traumatic events to become sources of learning after the initial trauma is overcome (Shigemoto & Poyrazli, 2011).
Prevalence of Trauma Amongst College Students
Prevalence of severe trauma to college students is another implication for student affairs professionals, with sexual assault and campus shootings reviewed as follows. According to Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, and Martin (2009), approximately 3% of female college students report being sexually assaulted on campus each year, and 20% to 25% of women are sexually assaulted at some point during their collegiate career; this difference is due to the amount of assumed assaults that go unreported. Another study found 52% of sexual assault victims seek help after the incident, with symptoms of PTSD being one of the driving factors for seeking help (Amstadter et al., 2010). Student affairs professionals are at the forefront of those who individuals may seek to confide in due to the relationship one may have previously established. One may choose to open up to a professional with who he or she views as a friend or to a professional he or she trusts because of the context of encounter or the position held by the professionals. Individuals who may be sought out for help by victims of sexual assault should be properly trained to identify symptoms of PTSD so they are able to make proper referrals when necessary (Amstadter et al., 2010).

Campus shootings are, unfortunately, increasing in frequency and intensity, as the 2007 Virginia Tech shooting demonstrated. Student affairs professionals should be prepared to aid in post-shooting campus recovery efforts, using Virginia Tech as an example. Focus was given to providing resources to students who had been directly exposed to the shootings on campus, mainly via classes held in Norris Hall, the shooting’s first location (Hughes et al., 2011). Of the students surveyed in this study, 15% met criteria for PTSD, but a below-average rate was found amongst those who were directly exposed to traumatic events on the day of the shooting (Hughes et al., 2011). Hughes et al. found this drastic difference stemmed from the immense amount of resources afforded to students directly exposed and lack thereof afforded to those indirectly exposed to the incident. Indirect exposure to the shootings elicited higher rates of PTSD because of the large amount of stress students endured; PTSD symptoms “were associated with loss of a nonclose friend/acquaintance and short-term uncertainty about the safety of a close friend” for those who only reported indirect exposure (Hughes et al., 2011, p. 408). Again, student affairs professionals should be taught to identify symptoms of PTSD, mentioned earlier, so accurate referrals can be made. When professionals see multiple symptoms in an individual, they may inquire about the person’s past to see if a traumatic event is spurring these symptoms. While it is difficult to offer risk screenings for all of those suffering from PTSD triggered by indirect contact with an event, student affairs professionals accurately recognizing it is a valuable first step to recommending necessary resources to students (Hughes et al., 2011).

Emergence of Veteran’s Services on College Campuses
Military combat induces stressors such as shooting at others, being shot at, watching friends die, and moving/handling dead bodies, all of which drastically increase the rate of PTSD among veterans (Elliott, Gonzalez, & Larson, 2011). Serious impairment from PTSD among veterans from Iraq and Afghanistan is 9% to 14% and mild impairment ranges from 23% to 31% (Thomas et al., 2010). According to Thomas et al. (2010), “mental health problems increased dramatically from the 3- to 12-month time points” (p. 622) following post deployment, thus illustrating veterans may not show symptoms of PTSD until after arriving to college. College is a likely destination for today’s veterans after returning home, as the post-9/11 GI Bill has funded the tuition of over 210,000 veterans since 2001 and the poor economy has led to all-around increased enrollment in college (Elliott et al., 2011). Fitting in at college is a constant challenge for veterans since their life experience is drastically different from their peers, and there is typically a significant age difference as well (Elliott et al., 2011).
More combat experience and suffering from physical limitations resulting from tours of duty increased the likelihood of displaying symptoms of PTSD, which then led to increased feelings of alienation on campus (Elliott et al., 2011). Veterans with a social support system of some sort were less likely to show signs of PTSD, regardless of combat exposure (Elliott et al., 2011). Elliott et al. (2011) identified increased levels of social integration into the university and sense of belonging to the campus community as components to deter the risk of developing PTSD. Validating the feelings and experiences of veterans is a strategy student affairs professionals can employ during one-on-one interactions with veterans (Elliott et al., 2011). A more visible and encompassing way to foster social integration and belonging among veterans is to establish a Center for Veterans and Military Programs and Services (VMPS), which has recently been recognized within student affairs by its addition to the CAS Professional Standards for Higher Education (CAS) (2011). According to CAS, the mission of VMPS offices should be to “provide, facilitate, or coordinate programs and services for student veterans, military service members, and their family” (p. 4). VMPS offices should also be aware of mental health care for veterans and ensure campus counseling centers are equipped to handle PTSD referrals (CAS, 2011).

Conclusion

Predicting who may be susceptible to PTSD is difficult, as stress is defined by “the interaction between the environment and the individual” and “is precipitated when one’s resources cannot meet the demands of the environment” (Seides, 2010, p. 726). However, research on PTSD is beginning to find correlations between the intensity of PTSD symptoms and personality, social support, and coping ability (Seides). Further investigation into PTSD and its application to student affairs should continue, as more information is needed to adequately prepare student affairs professionals to encounter students with PTSD. Establishing a firm definition of PTSD and criteria to be met for diagnosis, being knowledgeable of the mental and physical effects of the disorder, and applying current research to the field are initial steps toward understanding this disorder. Research must be continued, as stress and unexpected life traumas will forever impact college students and should be understood before appropriate strides can be made.

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References


Native American Student Retention in Higher Education
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Abstract
Access, retention, and postsecondary success of underrepresented student populations are current challenges in higher education. Increased attention and research is needed to understand the factors affecting overall access, retention, and persistence of Native American students who are less represented on campuses than other underrepresented populations. Native American students face a significant number of risk factors before enrolling in postsecondary institutions. The combination of risk factors with institutional barriers creates a challenging environment for Native American college students. Integrating strengths of family and culture serve to support Native American students in their pursuit of higher education. This paper explores the literature to discover the unique factors helping Native American students persist in their studies and earn a degree at a postsecondary institution.

Keywords: American Indian, family education model, higher education, Native American, persistence, retention, student affairs, student departure theory

Educational opportunities for minority students have multiple benefits. Two important benefits include increased diversity on campuses of higher learning, and more post-graduate opportunities for minority students. Campus communities can benefit from learning created through increased diversity and multiple perspectives. The Native American story, has been manipulated by the dominant culture since the dawn of the country (Alexie, September, 2012). Therefore, it is imperative Native Americans have a voice in scholarly work and academic leadership. This paper reviews Native American student retention literature to understand influencing factors, identify areas for improvement, and highlight effective retention methods.

Literature Review of Native American Student Retention
A report from the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA, 2011) highlighted “the number and percentage of postsecondary degrees awarded to American Indian students are well below that of other ethnic groups” (p. 9). The number of American Indian and Alaska Native (AI/AN) students has grown at a faster rate since the increase of scholarship availability and public funding (Lee, Donlan, & Brown, 2010). Despite the increase of students entering higher education institutions, Native Americans continue to be an underrepresented population. Continuous underrepresentation of Native American students may reinforce the dominant culture at four-year institutions. Increasing AI/AN student numbers on college campuses can have a large impact on cultural understanding and create more AI/AN role models for future generations.

The introduction of tribal colleges in 1968 provided a culturally relevant, low-cost, close-to-home alternative for Native American students (American Indian Higher Education Consortium [AIHEC], 1999). American Indian leaders began building tribal colleges after rethinking higher education as a way to strengthen tribal sovereignty and provide higher education without assimilation (AIHEC, 1999). Tribal colleges generally offer two-year
programs for students, yet critics mention tribal colleges’ limited offerings could potentially limit student options after graduation (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). As tribal colleges produce a greater percentage of degree completion (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003), it is important to compare the experiential differences between four-year predominately white institutions (PWIs) to tribal colleges and universities (TCUs) to understand the full picture of student retention. Investigating the success of TCUs can inform student affairs practice at four-year institutions, especially as it relates to Native American student retention.

Factors Influencing Native American Student Retention

American Indian and Alaska Native students enter college with a higher number of risk factors, threatening their success in higher education (Lee et al., 2010). As Larimore and McClellan (2005) noted, Native American students are “among the least likely to enroll in public four-year institutions and the least likely to persist to graduation in those institutions” (p. 18). Any number or combination of risk factors including experiences with poverty may place Native American students at a disadvantage to their non-Native American peers. The interplay between prior risk factors, the logistics of obtaining a degree, and a view of community over self, make college persistence a challenging endeavor.

Lee et al. (2010) stated the six-year graduation rate for AI/AN students was 38.4%, the lowest of any minority group. Besides not earning a degree, dropping out of postsecondary institutions presents additional challenges. Many of these students must repay loans and will be even less likely to get a job (Lee et al., 2010). In peer and family settings, an early departure may reinforce negative feelings of higher education. A student’s experience with failure in college may in turn affect whether others in proximity decide to enroll.

Ortiz and HeavyRunner (2003) explained differences that exist between student experiences at TCUs and four-year, predominately white institutions. Specifically, Ortiz and HeavyRunner (2003) noted, tribal college retention rates are higher, averaging a 50% college graduation rate. Increased Native American student retention points to several assets of tribal colleges. Specifically, tribal colleges are located in areas more easily accessible to Native students, present culturally relevant curriculum, and offer lower tuition rates (AIHEC, 1999). Additionally, tribal colleges are “committed to fostering a family-like atmosphere” (AIHEC, 1999, p. A-4). A report from NCELA (2011) also stated the importance of family and community support, connection with culture, and affirming activities in Native American student success. Many researchers have cited the importance of family atmosphere and community in Native American student success (Reyhner & Dodd, 1995; Guillory & Wolverton, 2008; Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). The pattern of family and community throughout the literature provides support for TCU culture as an asset to Native American student retention.

The cultural value placed on family and community creates a dynamic dualism for Native American students in pursuit of a college degree. The act of balancing two distinct priorities is stressful for students (Lee et al., 2010). Guillory and Wolverton (2008) posited “families acted as both a persistence factor and a barrier” (p. 77). This unique retention phenomenon is repeated throughout the literature. On one hand, students want to make their families proud and serve their communities. On the other hand, students feel responsible for the emotional and financial wellbeing of their families. Research from Guillory and Wolverton (2008) provided a difference in perspective between Native American students and faculty serving these students. Guillory and Wolverton (2008) reported that students found families to be both a benefit and a barrier, while the institutions in their study failed to recognize families as one of the most important impact factors. In other literature, Reyhner and Dodd (1995) reported most students identified families as the most important source of support.
Furthermore, Lee et al. (2010) found family members to be a large influence in students’ decisions to attend college. The cognitive dissonance caused from balancing the two parallel priorities of self and community affects retention of Native American students, who are already experiencing a difficult transition.

The focus on family and community is a cultural strength. If incorporated correctly, institutions have the ability to enhance student experiences. However, the literature is careful to indicate the barriers family can create as well. Focus group participants stated “feelings of family obligation as being a most likely cause for withdrawal from college” (Lee, et al., 2010, p. 265). Guillory and Wolverton (2008) explained students wanted to earn a degree to “make their families proud” (p. 77), however, felt pressure from families to come home. The responsibility to care for family adds stress to an already difficult experience for Native American students.

Related to the aforementioned factors, financial literacy and financial aid were widely mentioned areas of concern for Native American students. Guillory and Wolverton (2008) explained while institutions thought inadequate financial support was a barrier for Native American students, the barrier may lie in a “lack of knowledge regarding the financial resources” (p. 79). Their study found a pattern in the prevalence of students providing financial support to families in times of need (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008). Additional research findings from Lee et al. (2010) highlighted financial struggles were “intertwined with the American Indian and Alaska Native cultural meaning of family obligations” (p. 269). The interplay between family obligation and financial need provide an interesting perspective for working to remove institutional barriers for students. Native American students enter postsecondary institutions at much higher rates of poverty than their non-Native American peers (Lee et al., 2010) making “sufficient financial support” (NCELA, 2011, p. 14) a critical piece of the puzzle in retention. Additionally, closer attention is needed related to financial education for Native American students receiving tuition aid.

Academic preparedness of high school graduates serves as another important aspect of Native American student retention. Native American students generally do not receive the education necessary to score well on assessments important in college admissions processes (NCELA, 2011). The same underachievement in K-12 education causes academic difficulties even into the third year of college (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008). Educational inequity exists in low-socioeconomic areas of the country. Many rural reservations and urban cities struggle to find adequate resources and teachers that are necessary to provide quality education (Teach For America, 2012). Guillory and Wolverton (2008) found students and institutions in agreement that the lack of academic preparedness caused serious barriers to completing a degree. Many Native American students enter postsecondary institutions academically behind and must spend time catching up, a factor that influences persistence rates.

A final influence on Native American retention is the extent to which students are able to express cultural identity and establish a sense of belonging. Older literature related to minority integration positioned a student’s ability to assimilate into majority culture as an indicator of future success (Larimore & McClellan, 2005). An increasing amount of literature supports the incorporation of minority culture into the student experience as a significant influence in retention. Larimore et al. (2005) stated “Native American students who are able to draw strength from their cultural identity while adapting to the demands of campus life are more likely to succeed in their academic pursuits” (p. 21). More currently, Rendon, Jalomo, and Nora (2000) cited Tinto’s revised model, which recommended students find social, cultural, and intellectual communities that support their identity. Community-focused support systems
are an integral part of the success of tribal colleges and must be thoughtfully considered in terms of intentional development in four-year institutions.

**Promising Methods of Increased Retention**

Methods for improving Native American postsecondary retention rates need to be in place before the candidate applies for college. The NCELA (2011) report acknowledged academic achievement and English proficiency of Native American students improved with culturally relevant curriculum in K-12, including native language instruction. Several pre-collegiate programs, such as the federal Talent Search Program, Upward Bound Program, Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (U.S. Department of Education, 2012), and College Horizons (College Horizons, 2012) work to facilitate students with the matriculation into postsecondary institutions. These programs aim to equip low-income high school students with the practical and experiential knowledge necessary to increase potential for success in college (College Horizons, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Guillory and Wolverton (2008) reported that faculty perceived bridge programs and other pre-collegiate services as beneficial. Faculty felt these services helped students gain the practical, educational, and motivational support necessary to increase excitement of postsecondary education and increase the likelihood of college persistence.

In addition to pre-collegiate services, the literature provides new models for postsecondary levels to aid in increasing retention. First, embracing Native American culture in postsecondary education helps students connect with their culture and identity (Thomason & Thurber, 1999). A second important method for improving retention among Native American students involves the creative integration of family. Lee et al. (2010) stated institutions would benefit from efforts including and honoring families of AI/AN students, despite the long distance between families and campus.

In keeping with the trend of involving family and embracing the success of tribal colleges, HeavyRunner and DeCelles (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008) developed the well-known Family Education Model (FEM). Organizing institutions around a community, family-like structure creates a positive environment for student retention. Based on concepts from education and social work (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008), the FEM shifts the focus from lack of retention to family involvement (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). Students' families are involved in cultural activities, orientation, registration, midterms, and graduation (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). A unique aspect of the extended family model is the incorporation of a family specialist, who focuses on counseling, education, advising, and event planning (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008). Guillory and Wolverton (2008) noted the “intervention-based model suggests the extended family structure within the college culture enhances an American Indian student’s sense of belonging and consequently leads to higher retention rates among American Indians” (p. 61). The model has proven effective at five institutions, mostly community colleges (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008). The effect on larger post-secondary institutions is still unknown. More research is needed to understand the student retention implications of a FEM for public, four-year institutions.

Ortiz and HeavyRunner (2003) found two additional effective strategies for supporting Native American student retention. First, a Search and Rescue Team would be formed to focus on at-risk students through one-on-one meetings, intentional tracking and catered intervention methods (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). Second, intentional models teaching family-life skills would build practical and logistical skills to help Native American students navigate multiple bureaucratic scenarios (Ortiz & HeavyRunner, 2003). Lastly, the NCELA (2011) report noted on-campus social support as a large indicator of success. Social support includes a
combination of maintaining cultural identity, opportunities to stay connected with families and communities back home, supportive faculty, financial aid and resources for students’ parents, as well as extra academic support (NCELA, 2011). Such support is imperative to the on-campus experience for Native American students.

Recommendations for Research and Implications for Student Affairs

A primary recommendation calls for additional research focused on Native American retention factors. The current body of literature focused on Native American student retention is young and sparse. Rendon et al. (2000) noted, only within the past 15 years have scholars started to study minority students. Continued research should highlight effective methods of Native American student retention, show results from implementing new measures, and involve voices of students. Implications from new research can inform the decision-making process at all types of postsecondary institutions.

Additionally, student affairs professionals should intentionally plan to create a family-like atmosphere within institutions of higher education. The research cited in this paper emphasizes American Indian students are more likely to succeed in college if they feel close connections with those around them. Native American cultural centers are a step in the right direction. Continuing to involve both the campus-at-large and families far away is an integral piece of helping Native American students feel connected to their college experience, thus increasing their likelihood of success. Furthermore, creating space for families to feel connected to the university add to the community environment. Incorporating families could include formal invitations to an array of student celebrations, including logistical or financial support as needed to attend. Advisors and faculty should focus on developing authentic relationships with Native American students to foster a safe, community-like atmosphere.

Postsecondary institutions should consider partnerships with K-12 schools and districts in an effort to enhance the pre-collegiate services offered, especially at rural, Native-serving schools. The unnecessary gap in bureaucratic and campus culture knowledge holds students back. Through targeted partnership, institutions of higher learning can help facilitate the matriculation of Native American students and help students be better prepared even before they step foot on campus. Additionally, partnerships with TCUs can provide culturally relevant awareness to the design of four-year institutions.

Lastly, continued efforts on financial aid and financial literacy programs will be necessary for students to have access to higher education. Native American students may need a large amount of financial assistance. To make sure these students persist through college, financial literacy planning is critical. It may be necessary to mandate students who receive large amounts of financial aid to attend financial literacy sessions with their advisor or in small groups. Reducing stress related to money allows students to focus on academics. Financial literacy courses may also help students with post-college transitions.

Conclusion

The literature on Native American student retention is new and limited in number. More research from Native American scholars is necessary to complete the picture of student retention and support the efforts of student success. Concepts of family involvement, academic preparedness and financial planning prove to be important components to the retention of Native American students. As student affairs professionals develop intentional strategies for increasing Native American retention, public institutions will see more Native graduates, scholars and leaders who will participate in making institutional decisions and add scholarly work to the existing literature. The intentional inclusion of Native American voices in student
affairs leadership and knowledge is a critical piece to creating postsecondary environments where Native American students feel valued, safe, and successful in their pursuit of a college degree.

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References


Third Culture Kids:
The Development of Global Nomads

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Abstract
This article reviews the theory of Third Culture Kid (TCK) identity development in global nomads; specifically, cross-cultural childhoods, high mobility, and repatriation are explored in the formation of third culture identity and what this means for today’s TCK college students. Common developmental factors shared by children growing up abroad create what is known as a third culture (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Third Culture Kids share similar personality traits due to their upbringing, which often leads to delayed identity development, typically experienced upon repatriation through higher education. Third Culture Kids attend institutes of higher education at much higher rates than their non-TCK peers (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011). Increased enrollment of global nomad students poses new challenges for student affairs professionals looking to support this unique demographic. Third Culture Kid research is examined in this article, along with the lack of research on adult TCKs. The role of higher education in global nomad development, as well as recommendations for student affairs professionals to better support TCKs is explored.

Keywords: cross-cultural, global nomad, higher education, high mobility, identity development, repatriation, restlessness, rootlessness, Third Culture Kid

The interconnectedness of the sociopolitical world climate has created many global career opportunities for families, allowing their children to grow-up abroad (McLachlan, 2000). Dr. Ruth Hill Useem first studied globally mobile families while living abroad in India (TCKworld, 2011). Useem, a sociologist and anthropologist, observed the developmental process of North American children living abroad in India during the 1950’s. From her research, Useem coined the term Third Culture Kid (TCK) to describe global nomad children and is regarded as the founder of TCK research (TCKworld, 2011). TCKs are a diverse population with multicultural backgrounds. Despite cultural incongruence, global nomads “share unique attributes that allow the third culture identity to emerge as a defining feature” (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007, p. 63). Global nomads are not uncommon; approximately 37,000 TCKs return to the United States every year to pursue a higher education (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007), and approximately five million adult TCKs currently live in the United States (Ender, 2002).

This article explores TCK identity development. Cross-cultural childhoods, high mobility, and repatriation contribute to delayed identity development for TCKs (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Similarly, adaptability, feelings of rootlessness, and restlessness also contribute to delayed identity development for TCKs (Hoersting & Jenkins, 2010; Lippincott & Lippencott, 2007). Lastly, this article examines what student affairs professionals in the U.S. can do to best support TCKs in their development.
What is Third Culture Identity?
Third Culture Kids, also known as global nomads, are individuals who have lived a substantial portion of their formative years outside of their parents’ home country, or country of held passport (U.S. Department of State, 2011). The formative years, ranging from birth to eighteen-years-old, affect how one develops identity (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Length of a time lived outside of passport culture is not the determining factor in developing third culture identity. Instead, the time when a child lives abroad contributes to third culture characteristics (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011).

Global nomads build relationships with their passport culture through their parents, and develop a relationship with the expatriate culture(s) in which they live. The development of a third culture comes from the unique intersection between the environment where the individual grows-up and the parents’ culture (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007). Third Culture Kids live among cultures and do not hold possession of a singular culture entirely; the third culture is not a combination of customs, but rather a unique culture only experienced by individuals who grow-up among numerous cultures simultaneously (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001).

Contributing Factors to Third Culture Identity Development
Global nomads live all over the world, and come from diverse backgrounds (Musil, 2008). Depending on the sponsoring agency sending a family abroad, TCKs may identify as members of their embassy, the United Nations, the military, a private company, or a religious mission (Musil, 2008). Despite differences, “global nomads recognize each other...regardless of passport held, countries lived in, [or differing] sponsoring agency” (McCaig, 1994, p. 36); TCKs exhibit common developmental and personality characteristics despite variances in childhood upbringing (Musil, 2008).

Development Factors
Three factors contribute to a global nomad developing third culture identity. Firstly, TCKs are raised in cross-cultural environments (Sellers, 2011). In comparison to non-TCKs, global nomad children are active participants in world cultures, speaking numerous languages, and engaging in unique customs with diverse people (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Multicultural perspectives are woven into the identities of TCKs unconsciously (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011). Individuals who grow-up outside of their home culture are not conscious of the impact of cultural implications to their development (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011).

Secondly, TCKs are raised in highly mobile environments (Sellers, 2011). Sponsoring agencies dictate when and where global families locate (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007). Third Culture Kids relocate frequently, and the people in their lives also move frequently. A TCK could relocate due to a change in a parents’ post, or peers could relocate due to the inherent nature of change in third culture lifestyles (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001).

Lastly, TCKs are expected to repatriate, or return to their passport culture as adults (Sellers, 2011). Global nomads move back to their passport culture, generally between the ages of 18 and 22, to attend college or university (Bonebright, 2009).

Cross-cultural influences on Third Culture Kid identity development. Erikson’s Identity Development Theory states individuals develop identity from external cultural factors (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010). Social and cultural environments are instrumental in developing identity, as these shared norms serve as a foundation for how individuals live as adults (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). An individual’s concept of self is a by-product of his or
her culture. For an individual to develop a strong sense of cultural identity, external cultural norms must be consistent in one’s developmental years. Individuals make meaning of their experiences through the cultural lens in which they were raised (Ender, 2002).

Third Culture Kids live suspended among cultures, and interchange among them frequently, affecting the development of self (Ender, 2002). Global nomads experience acculturation, changing aspects of their identities to accommodate different cultural contexts (Hoestring & Jenkins, 2011). During childhood and adolescence, TCKs live among various cultures, thus inhibiting the ability for them to form a singular cultural identity (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Global nomads respond to numerous culturally constructed norms daily: parents’ culture, local culture, and the cultures of the expatriate community. For primary and secondary education many TCKs attend international schools, which matriculate students from around the globe. Customs of international peers are often adopted by TCKs, further contributing to multicultural identity development (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011; Shields, 2009).

To gain acceptance in society, TCKs become identity chameleons, constantly adapting their identity to their environments (McCaig, 1994). To assimilate to changing cultures, TCKs first observe the values and traditions of others, and seek to mirror the customs of those around them. The ability to conform their identities to the shifting cultural expectations of their environments is a survival tool for TCKs, as it permits them to gain acceptance by those around them (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001).

Influence of high mobility on TCK identity development. TCKs’ high mobility, or the frequency of geographic relocation, impacts their identity development. As a result of guardians’ jobs, TCKs relocate more often than non-TCKs (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Third Culture Kids and their peers, who are typically also global nomads, change schools often. Due to high mobility, TCKs go through transitions at higher rates than individuals born and raised in singular locations (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011). When culture and environment are consistently in a state of flux, TCKs do not have time to make meaning of their identity, as they are habitually deciphering new contextual rules (Ender, 2002).

Repatriation and TCK identity development. Third Culture Kids are expected to return to their passport homes. Most global nomads return to their passport countries to attend college. Global nomads participate in higher education at a rate four times that of non-TCKs (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Growing up, cultural environments constantly change for TCKs. Repatriation provides consistency in environment and culture, and with this comes challenges in explaining one’s multicultural identities to others (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011). Upon repatriation, TCKs must reflect upon their multicultural identities, and for the first time, are forced to interpret their unique backgrounds (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007).

Delayed Identity Development

Common developmental questions TCKs encounter upon repatriation are: Where am I from? Where do I belong? Who am I? (Shields, 2009). Re-entry to the passport culture challenges self-definition as TCKs lack a coherent sense of self (Ender, 2002). When asked, “Where are you from?”, a TCK can either give a short answer, suppressing integral components of their global identity, or tell one’s life story to a stranger (Shields, 2009). Global nomads are confronted with hiding third culture characteristics as a means of assimilation to their passport culture, often leading TCKs to feel misunderstood and marginalized (Bonebright, 2009). This demographic grapples with finding a sense of belonging, and feeling rootless, both geographically and culturally (Lippincott & Lippincott, 2007); TCKs feel like global citizens, while simultaneously feeling as if they belong nowhere (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001).
Third Culture Kids negotiate their cultural identities in an attempt to solidify a singular sense of self (Hoersting & Jenkins, 2010). In this process, global nomads confront grief over lost worlds and cultures in their identity. Feelings of grief are hidden and not understood by passport culture peers. As a result, these individuals are hesitant to reveal personal information for fear of not being understood by others unlike them (Cottrell & Useem, 1999).

**Restlessness and Rootlessness**

Children who grow-up outside their passport country often experience a sense of restlessness and a need for mobility. Due to numerous relocations, these individuals develop what Pollock and Van Reken (2001) described as migratory patterns; global nomads become restless in a singular location for an extended period of time. Restlessness contributes to rootlessness, the lack of belonging in society. Third Culture Kids have difficulty laying down roots and choosing a singular location or culture as home (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011).

**Third Culture Kid Enrollment and Implication for U.S. Higher Education**

Lewis and Clark College in Portland, Oregon is one of the few institutions of higher education in the U.S. to specifically recognize global nomads, as the College actively started recruiting TCKs in the 1990s. The College has all students apply via the Common Application, an application used by over 500 colleges and universities; this application allows students to identify country of citizenship and number of years lived in or out of the U.S. This feature makes self-identification for TCKs easy, and makes these students recognizable to student affairs professionals (B. White, personal communication, July 9, 2012).

According to Brian White, Associate Dean of Students and Director of International Students and Scholars at Lewis and Clark College, the Office of International Students and Scholars has a division specifically focused on TCKs (personal communication, July 9, 2012). The office employs a TCK Intern, who helps program for global nomads and serves on the TCK Advisory Board (B. White, personal communication, July 9, 2012). The TCK Advisory Board consists of two global nomad students and the TCK Intern. As a Board, they are responsible for global nomad programming, including TCK Tuesdays, where students gather bi-weekly to attend social and cultural events in Portland. Third Culture Kids are also invited to be a part of international student orientation. All services provided to an international student at the institution are also provided to TCKs (B. White, personal communication, July 9, 2012). White states, “global nomads’ experiences should be celebrated and recognized” by student affairs professionals on campus (personal communication, July 9, 2012).

**Recommendations for Student Affairs Professionals**

Student affairs professionals should take note of the outstanding efforts made by Lewis and Clark College to be inclusive of global nomads’ unique backgrounds. Third Culture Kids attend college at a much higher rate than non-TCKs, and begin to develop identity upon repatriation to college (TCKWorld, 2011). More assessment is required to better determine trends in the institutional types attended, and the impact of geography in choosing a college or university for TCKs. Further study regarding transition to higher education, and best practices in supporting global nomads is needed.

**Adult TCK Research.** Third Culture Kid research has focused on common childhood characteristics in identity formation. There is little knowledge regarding adult TCKs’ development, which affects TCKs’ experiences in higher education. As global nomads begin to negotiate identity upon repatriation to college, more research must be conducted to understand how this unique population develops and assimilates to life in U.S. higher education as adults. Assessment of TCKs’ experiences on U.S. campuses would be beneficial in determining best
practices in supporting this population. Additionally, more research is needed to see if the experiences of TCKs in college mirror the experiences of other underrepresented students in U.S. higher education, to potentially build off pre-existing theories or practices.

**Supports on Campus.** Global nomad development theory focuses on the commonality of growing-up in multicultural environments. Third Culture Kids often feel caught among cultures, marginalized, lack a sense of belonging, and struggle with developing cultural identity (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Generally, TCKs do not have programs or spaces on campus where they can safely explore their multicultural identities and meet others like themselves.

**Orientation programming.** It can be challenging for global nomads to attend traditional university orientations designed for domestic students, as they may feel caught among their many cultural identities; these students can feel like hidden immigrants as they look and sound like their peers, but feel culturally different (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011). Professionals in orientation programs should permit TCKs the option to attend domestic or international student orientation, to support the student’s choice of identity. If there is a large population of TCKs on campus, an individualized TCK orientation would also be beneficial. This would connect TCKs with others like themselves, and address some of the cultural challenges associated with transition back to the U.S.

**Diversity or cultural centers.** Often TCKs feel like hidden immigrants, identifying more closely with cultures, races, and ethnicities from the countries in which they were raised (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Student affairs practitioners must consider how a TCK’s race or ethnicity effects his or her cultural identity development in college. Developing racial and ethnic identity can be difficult for global nomads. Third Culture Kids may identify with several races or ethnicities, and they may not physically present as those races or ethnicities. Practitioners should create spaces on college campuses for TCKs to explore this aspect of identity. Student affairs professionals should ask themselves: Is there a cultural center on campus where TCKs feel welcome? Are TCKs welcome in an institution’s International Programs office? Is it possible to create a multicultural center specifically for TCKs within a pre-existing diversity office? Student affairs professionals should create a space on campus directly supporting TCKs and their development through advising, mentoring and programming.

**Student organizations.** A student organization specifically for TCKs is recommended. An organization where TCKs can connect with other global nomads would help foster community for the population, allowing them to explore their multicultural backgrounds with likeminded individuals. Additionally, adult TCKs or individuals who understand the implications of being a global nomad should advise the organization.

**Residential living and learning communities (RLC).** Living and learning communities with a global focus can help TCKs transition to college, and create a space to meet others like themselves. Colorado State University’s Global Village RLC provides a space for domestic, international, and TCK students to live and learn together with interculturally competent mentors and staff (Global Village, 2012). Global RLCs help TCKs understand their multicultural backgrounds, and create a space where they can be understood and welcomed. Professionals in residence life should partner with international programs to build an intercultural RLC welcoming of global nomads.

**Retention and persistence.** Recognizing TCKs and validating their unique experiences helps retain global nomads in college. Student affairs practitioners must consider how TCKs find a sense of belonging in a campus community, and how institutions can validate global
nomads’ distinct developmental needs in supporting them throughout their collegiate career (TCKworld, 2011).

**Conclusion**

Third Culture Kid research has grown tremendously from its inception in the 1950s. As global nomads continue to increase in number through globalization, there is much left to discover about this population’s identity exploration (TCKworld, 2011). Global nomads must embrace their multicultural identities and global citizenship to effectively contribute to society and live fully-developed lives (Pollock & Van Reken, 2001). Global nomads benefit from naming their experiences and knowing they are not alone in their unique negotiation of self and culture (Bonebright, 2009). Student affairs practitioners must understand what constitutes third culture identity and how to best support global nomads. Similarly, student affairs professionals must work to develop an inclusive environment on college and university campuses that are welcoming to TCKs. As global nomads become increasingly common, it is essential for student affairs to recognize global nomad’s developmental needs, and provide opportunities for TCKs to explore their multicultural identities and share their unique experiences with others (Pollock & Van Reken, 2011).

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References


Adventure-Based Learning Communities:  
A Promising Synthesis Leading to Increased Student Persistence  
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Abstract  
This paper examines the influences of adventure learning, specifically from a ropes course experience, in higher education learning communities. It researches the collaborative curricular model of student-centered learning and defends its value. Further, it explores the importance of transferred and sustained knowledge, either acquired or enhanced from a ropes course orientation experience, and seeks to prove how salient knowledge is to first-year students. Research shows students who participate in learning communities demonstrate higher percentages of grade point average, commitment to their second year, and satisfaction with their social integration. These results emerge from the experiential education models learning communities adopt, promote, and cultivate. An adventure learning community further contributes to effective learning both inside and outside of the classroom. However, learning community instructors must either be adept or trained to successfully transfer, sustain, and nurture the acquired ropes course experience. Thus, this study seeks to enlighten learning community educators to the value of integrating adventure learning into their curricula and classroom dynamics. Instructors sustaining adventure learning motives and practices beyond an initial ropes course orientation will add a longitudinal effect for their students by enhancing their academic success and sense of belonging on campus. Adventure learning can provide enhanced experiences positively contributing to students’ adjustment to college and student persistence thereafter.  

Keywords:  adventure learning, interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, learning community, ropes course, student development, student persistence  

Experiential learning is capable of changing the way people think by enabling them to view life from fresh perspectives (Priest & Gass, 2005). The primary forms of experiential learning in higher education are undergraduate research and service-learning, yet underutilized adventure learning constitutes a unique and equally effective partnership for learning communities (LCs) (Shapiro & Levine, 1999). The collaborative learning practice empowers students and teachers to learn together in an intellectually stimulating interdisciplinary environment (Shapiro & Levine, 1999). This paper utilizes supporting data to promote adventure learning as an effective tool for higher education educators invested in integrating experiential learning into the development and curricula of LCs. The themes discussed are the effects of ropes course-based orientations, the impact of learning communities on college students, and the advantages and implications for student affairs professionals wishing to synthesize outdoor leadership with higher education.
Statement of Terminology

The following terms are clarified for their repeated use in this paper. Experiential learning is an effective learning practice respecting individual student differences and blending action, reflection, theory, and practice both inside and outside of the classroom (Bobilya & Akey, 2002). A subset of experiential learning is adventure learning, used interchangeably with action learning and adventure education, which is a vehicle for inspiring the interpersonal and intrapersonal growth of students working through problem-solving activities (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005; Priest & Gass, 2005). One of adventure learning’s playgrounds is a ropes course, or challenge course, where there is a series of mentally and physically challenging activities in the form of low ropes, or teambuilding initiatives, and high ropes, or personal development challenges (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005). Ropes course facilitators, or experiential educators, are practitioners integrating the challenge and support philosophy into their leadership agendas, leading experiential activities, and executing debriefing measures contributing to transferable change for participants (McGill & Brockbank, 2004). Another experiential learning environment is housed in learning communities where interdisciplinary teaching enables students to seek community belonging, in-and-out of the classroom experiences, and academic success. They primarily serve first-year students grouped in smaller entities, typically called clusters or cohorts (Shapiro & Levine, 1999), and some have students live together, known as residential learning communities (RLCs) (Kezar, 2011).

Finally, student persistence, perhaps the most salient product of the synthesis between adventure learning and learning communities, results from campus and community involvement, collaboration with faculty and other students (Tinto, 1998), and engaging interactions fostering institutional pride and self-efficacy (Rastall & Webb, 2003).

Effects of a Ropes Course Orientation Experience

Most students participate in traditional orientation experiences, which are short, classroom-based, and are rarely experienced in the outdoors (Rastall & Webb, 2003). Adventure orientation programs offer an outdoor alternative to incoming students to further facilitate their acculturation into college (Rastall & Webb, 2003). Hence, action learning asks students to assume an active role and trust their peers’ input, before seeking the facilitator’s expertise (Estes, 2004). This learning program respects students’ differences, voluntary participation, and personal learning agendas (Priest & Gass, 2005). Akin to the other experiential learning models, action learning attends to the whole student through a holistic structure incorporating cognitive and kinesthetic learning processes (Priest & Gass, 2005). Action learning can initiate and cultivate students’ skills sets and transfer them to their daily lives. Therefore, the effects of adventure orientation are significant when cultivating positive dynamics in learning communities.

The Metaphor of “College as Adventure”

Outdoor orientation programs are committed to promoting the “college as adventure” metaphor in their curricula to demonstrate the transferable gains and significant benefits students acquire through outdoor orientation (Rastall & Webb, 2003). Adventure learning metaphors are essential in development because they serve as a vehicle to transfer development occurring in the outdoor program to the student’s true adventures in everyday life. Outdoor orientations are known for increasing students’ self-efficacy, consciousness of limits, active listening skills, persistence rates, multicultural understanding, diversity awareness, capacity to live a life of integrity, and ability to give and take constructive criticism (McGill & Brockbank, 2004). Finally, an outdoor orientation experience can solidify students’ interpretation of adventure serving as an agent for growth and success in and out of the classroom.
Needing Strong Adventure Learning Facilitators

Although the immediate effects of outdoor orientations are influential, sustaining ropes course influences in a newly-developed community is more difficult to achieve. Hatch and McCarthy (2005), however, give strong reasoning for pursuing and overcoming the difficulties of sustaining longevity for the benefit of students. They surveyed 76 students from five student organizations, attending a large Southwestern university, to summarize their interpretations of group cohesion one week before, immediately prior to, immediately following, and two months after their challenge course experience (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005). This study explored the lasting effects of group functioning and personal effectiveness from challenge course participation (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005) that would be made possible by sufficient training and strong facilitation from instructors working to transfer students' newly acquired skills from a ropes course into their everyday lives (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005; Kezar, 2011). Yet, Hatch and McCarthy (2005) found a lack of training among many instructors, therefore they claim more challenge course experiences need to be followed by weekly debrief and other classroom-based action learning to help preserve the courses’ transference and endurance. Hence, the ability to reflect on challenge course experiences and transmit learned skills requires the facilitation of a skilled experiential educator to make adventure learning worthwhile to students.

Acquisition and Refinement of Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Skills

Ropes courses and learning communities seem to bear more similarities than differences. However, higher education facilitators skilled in adventure education competencies, especially the metaphoric transference of connecting a contrived challenge course experience to actual everyday life, need training to bring these practices into the classroom (Rastall, 1996; Hatch & McCarthy, 2005). Ideally, both students and educators involved in the “collaborative planning and curricular integration” (Estes, 2004, p. 25) of LCs grow more through action learning experiences than their equals not involved. Thus, the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills acquired by ongoing action learning needs to be facilitated and promoted by LC instructors to enable student growth.

Interpersonal Competency. By uniting the agendas of both experiential programs, students can learn from the emphasis on lessons geared toward group interconnectedness, diversity, leadership, trust, self-efficacy, engagement, problem-solving, respect, and integrity (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005; Shapiro & Levine, 1999). The alternative environments for socialization and personal growth at challenge courses and learning communities offer students the chance to acquire and enhance their interpersonal competencies, as in skills of communication and connectedness with others (Priest & Gass, 2005). Many students experiencing the collaboration between LCs and adventure education observe the social processes required of learning (McGill & Brockbank, 2004). Bobilya and Akey’s (2002) study of first-year students portrayed how students were forced into socialization, but later praised the positive results of healthy friendships, teamwork, peer support, and their community pride and voice. Other outcomes of collaborative learning provide students a heightened and polished sense of empathy and group responsibility (McGill & Brockbank, 2004). Thus, increased interpersonal skills enable students to comprehend their responsibility as knowledgeable and thoughtful LC members (Day et al., 2004).

Intrapersonal Competency. Transitioning from collaborative learning to introspection, intrapersonal competency specifically focuses on personal management and reflection capabilities (Priest & Gass, 2005). Students learn to value their ownership and voice in the LC, as encouraged by educators (Bobilya & Akey, 2002). Many learn to utilize their strengths rather
than dwell on their deficiencies (McGill & Brockbank, 2004). Through effective processing, led by a skilled instructor, many students appreciate guided reflection because debrief helps them articulate their experiences and gain deeper understanding (Priest & Gass, 2005). They also tend to feel empowered with the development of new knowledge and practical skills (Day et al., 2004). Instructors implementing perceived risk into their activities, further challenge their students to expand their comfort zones (Rastall, 1996). Hence, “to learn is to adventure” (Priest & Gass, 2005, p. 12) and to venture is to refine learners’ skill sets.

Role of Learning Communities for College Students

Learning communities in higher education vary within the college system, yet most involve experiential learning, active engagement, informal environments, support for academic success and diversity, peer group connections, and shared power in the learning process between students and instructors (Rastall & Webb, 2003; Bobilya & Akey, 2002). Many strive to empower students to become engaged on campus and active within their local, national, and global communities (Nosaka, 2009). Typically, LCs focus on undergraduate research or service-learning (Shapiro & Levine, 1999). Less emphasis is placed on adventure learning communities. Therefore, the role of action learning in higher education LCs needs further experimentation and consideration.

Impact of Learning Communities on Student Achievement and Persistence

Learning community students tend to overcome the rigid learning curve in college sooner than their counterparts not in LCs (Nosaka, 2009). Four constructs from the literature express the positive impacts learning communities can have on students, especially in their first year. First, LCs offer healthy educator-student relationships where students often report gaining more from college and faculty and staff regularly mention rediscovering their joy for teaching, which often occurs in New York City’s LaGuardia Community College’s First Year Seminars (Tinto, 1998). Second, these communities offer substantial opportunities for social integration among their diverse student peers. Whether featuring collaborative learning or teambuilding, LCs require students to actively engage interpersonally through group dialogue and intrapersonally by reflecting to gain a holistic academic experience (Tinto, 1998). Third, instructors try to make learning more accessible, relatable, and empowering for students. Thus, students are typically more exposed to issues of diversity and understanding (Zhao and Kuh, 2004). Further, LCs provide supportive academic environments generally influencing higher grade point averages (GPAs), such as seen in 2009 between CSU’s LC students with a 2.91 GPA and non-LC students with 2.77 (Nosaka, 2009). Fourth, by blending the three prior constructs together, higher student persistence usually becomes a product of LCs. At Seattle Central Community College, LC students displayed a 25% higher retention rate than those involved in traditional curricula studies (Tinto, 1998). Hence, LCs certainly add to students’ satisfaction, success, and persistence in college.

Example of an Adventure Education RLC

According to Tinto (1998), an LC is the essence of collaborative and active learning, and therefore its curriculum should express these pedagogies. Further, Zhao and Kuh (2004) recognize how many learning communities incorporate the pedagogies into their activities to promote academic involvement and social interaction extending beyond the classroom. Minnesota State University at Mankato (MSU) exemplifies the incorporation of adventure into their RLC, the Adventure Education Program. Bobilya and Akey’s (2002) qualitative study reviews the impact of a high and low ropes course experience on the perceptions of first semester, first-year students in MSU’s adventure RLC. Bobilya and Akey (2002) found evidence supporting the successful integration of adventure learning in the RLC, which
claimed to enhance peer connections, establish positive faculty and university relationships with students, promote increased student-centered learning, cultivate an academic support network, and inspire transferable skills development. The results indicate the longitudinal impact of students’ initial action learning experience on the aged dynamics of their RLC; thereby indicating adventure education’s worth and applicability.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals with Learning Communities

According to John Dewey, a founding father of LCs, education is meaningful when a student-centered learning process is priority and a close relationship between student and teacher is required (Shapiro & Levine, 1999). Thus, Dewey would support the belief in educator-student relationships being essential to student persistence. Although considered an outdoor education playground, a challenge course can nevertheless initiate a student’s positive relationship with faculty and staff. The informal setting and fun experience at a challenge course helped students in Bobilya and Akey’s (2002) study demystify their assumptions of intimidating educators. Further, instructors who transferred, sustained, and integrated knowledge acquired from the ropes course into their curriculum were more connected to their students’ individual growth (Hatch & McCarthy, 2005). Hence, this collaborative learning experience is recognized to be as much humbling and impactful for the professional as for the student (Bobilya & Akey, 2005).

Challenge course experiences have the capability to leave lasting impacts on participants in LCs if their classroom instructors are successfully able to sustain the adventure learning constructs established outside and bring them inside the classroom. Student affairs professionals may be the most equipped, promising, and eager educators to assume the role of facilitating action learning within higher education. A series of responsibilities are thus suggested to student affairs practitioners when integrating adventure education into the LCs they design, facilitate, and support.

Preliminary Responsibilities for Learning Community Instructors

The approaches educators could use to enliven their practices include facilitator training, purposeful curriculum development, and active participation at the ropes course orientation. First, participating in challenge course facilitator trainings or experiential education workshops may strengthen instructors’ teaching instruments and practices, and scope of interactive activities for effective collaborative learning. These additional teaching exercises would be wise for practitioners to attend early because they will provide opportunities to strengthen reflective processing skills. Debriefing is an essential skill to master if the instructor plans to transmit the lessons gained on an outside course into the classroom and beyond. Second, when drafting the LC curriculum, adventure learning constructs should be mindfully included, whether subtly by leading reflections or overtly in teambuilding activities (Rastall & Webb, 2003). The curriculum should reflect shared collaborative learning opportunities for the instructor and students to learn together inside and outside of class (Tinto, 1996). Third, the instructor should play a dynamic role in the adventure orientation program to be effective later throughout the LC’s curricular or co-curricular components. Being dynamic means serving as an active listener, eager participant, and critical observer. Thus, instructors are to be aware of the strengths and shortcomings within the group, first surfacing at the ropes course and develop effective classroom activities and debrief questions to further challenge and support students throughout the year.

Subsequent Duties for Learning Community Instructors

Once the initial ropes course experience transpires, student personnel should be compelled to sustain the longevity of adventure within the classroom community. Hatch and McCarthy
(2005) recognizes this role as complex and difficult, yet salient when maintaining the mindset and culture of adventure learning for the benefit of learning community stakeholders. Two suggested responsibilities for student affairs practitioners include developing an inclusive community and encouraging perceived risk-taking, which essentially embody one of student affairs’ beloved philosophies, Sanford’s (1967) theory of “Challenge and Support.” First, by expanding on the initial safe space generated at the course, LC educators should further foster inclusivity within class to help students feel welcome and supported (Nosaka, 2009). Students are to deem when the environment is safe before the instructor delves into deeper discussions and serious topics, like diversity and social justice. This allows students to take ownership for their education and take care of their community. Second, similar to the perceived risks and contrived adventure experiences challenge courses furnish, student affairs educators are urged to create comparable perceived risks within the classroom to challenge students carefully. Hence, by encouraging risk-taking within the classroom students will learn the value of exploring the unknown and having the willingness to take chances with new experiences, which together positively impact self-efficacy (Priest & Gass, 2005). Overall, adventure education is an ideal medium for student affairs practitioners to skillfully integrate and balance challenge and support into their teaching agendas.

Statement of Conclusions

By investigating and synthesizing the scholarly literature, a greater understanding of the alliances between challenge courses and learning communities surfaced. This paper reviewed the supporting data to investigate adventure learning’s effectiveness within higher education by reviewing the potential for educators to incorporate experiential constructs into their curricula. The subsequent themes were covered: the effects of a ropes course orientation experience, including the “college as adventure” metaphor, the necessity for strong facilitators, and interpersonal and intrapersonal skill development; the role of LCs for college students, involving the impact on student achievement and student persistence, and MSU’s exemplary adventure RLC; and finally, the implications for student affairs professionals hoping to intersect adventure education with LCs. Overall, evidence suggests learning communities, coupled with action learning, give students strong opportunities to befriend their instructors, and learn with them as equals. However, for this to occur, educators need to commit to the transference and sustain the longevity of adventure learning in their LCs to better serve students by impacting their development and persistence positively.

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References


Emerging Adulthood: A Turbulent Time for Students
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Abstract
Jeffrey Arnett’s (2004) Theory of Emerging Adulthood (EA) outlines a distinct new developmental phase occurring between adolescence and adulthood. Emerging adults are portrayed as lazy, unmotivated, lacking direction, and selfish by popular culture and media (Arnett, 2004). Arnett (2004) challenges this stereotype through his research and findings. This paper explores the theory’s usefulness for working with college students. The discourse also examines some of the major critiques of EA including: questioning EA’s universal applicability, challenging EA’s assumption of negative life outcomes, and finally, questioning whether or not EA is a stage or a process. The review concludes with the author’s critical analysis of EA, application to student affairs, and implications for future scholarly endeavor.

Keywords: adolescence, emerging adulthood, Jeffrey Arnett, young adulthood

Jeffrey Arnett’s Theory of Emerging Adulthood (EA) is a theory that proposes a new stage in a person’s lifespan development. This theory suggests there is a period of development occurring after adolescence beginning at age 18 and continuing to the mid to late 20s (Arnett, 2004). Based on the developmental timeframe of this theory, Arnett’s ideas are particularly relevant for college students in the U.S. When applied through a developmental lens, student affairs practitioners can use the theory of EA to inform decisions and practice regarding students and policy. The amount of research based on EA has flourished over the past ten years. As the body of knowledge about EA expands, student affairs professionals should familiarize themselves with the theory of EA to apply Arnett in meaningful ways to their work.

This paper is an overview of Jeffrey Arnett’s theory of Emerging Adulthood. Initially, the foundational theories underlying EA are introduced. Next, EA is explored in greater detail and then current issues facing emerging adults are outlined. Other scholars’ critical analysis of EA is presented. Finally, the author provides an analysis of EA and its application to student affairs.

Emerging Adulthood Defined
Emerging adults are portrayed as slackers, lazy, unmotivated, lacking direction, and selfish by popular culture and media (Arnett, 2004). Movies such as Harold and Kumar Go to Whitecastle, Pineapple Express, Dazed and Confused, and Clerks all reinforce this common stereotype. Arnett (2004) sought to discover the motivation and desires of adults in their late teens and early 20s based on research and study of these individuals. He first proposed to distinguish the difference between what was historically considered signs of adulthood from emerging adults’ perceptions of adulthood. Sociologists define adulthood as getting married, having kids, securing stable employment, and purchasing a home (Arnett, 2004). Arnett (2004) discovered emerging adults defined adulthood as: taking responsibility for self, financial independence, and making one’s own decisions (Arnett, 2004).
Terminology
Emerging adulthood has five main distinguishing characteristics. These characteristics include: identity exploration—answering the question: who am I?, instability—constantly shifting plans, self-focus—little to no commitment to others, feeling in-between—neither adolescent nor adult, and possibilities—many possible futures (Arnett, 2004). Furthermore, Arnett explored how emerging adulthood is its own developmental stage and qualitatively different from adolescence and adulthood. Because adults do not necessarily display all the distinguishing characteristics of EA (Henry & Kloep, 2010), perhaps a more relevant term for this time period would be delayed adulthood. Delayed adulthood implies a period of life where the traditional milestones of adulthood have not yet been reached, but the individual is still making progress toward such ends (Henry & Kloep, 2010).

Major Themes in Emerging Adulthood
Arnett (2004) discovered identity exploration is the most salient characteristic of EA. Emerging adults and, especially, college students find they have more time to explore college majors and work options with little commitment (Arnett, 2004). The constant search for a purpose may take an emotional toll on young adults. While such periods of transition and constant change create anxiety in young adults (Arnett, 2004), Murphy, Blustein, Bohlig, and Platt (2010) suggested dealing with ambiguity and change has positive outcomes for emerging adults. Their research found social support is key during life changes and creating a feeling of welfare while “a general sense of optimism often coexisted with unfulfilled expectations” (Murphy et al., 2010, p. 178). These findings contradict some of Arnett’s work and suggest negative mindsets can be mitigated with specific measures.

A defining characteristic of EA is a feeling of positivity about the future despite current circumstances (Arnett, 2004). Nearly all of Arnett’s participants felt they would have better lives than their parents regardless of whether or not they made more money. The feelings of instability and in-between associated with EA are a direct result of young adults actively searching for a high quality of life (Arnett, 2004). Young adults are likely to try out a number of jobs during their twenties as they discover their preferences in work life (Arnett, 2004). Murphy et al. (2010) suggested realistic expectations and social support can help assuage the disappointment when life inevitably does not meet young adults’ high expectations. Student affairs practitioners can be sources of support to students as they face the developmental hurdles of EA.

In a longitudinal study, Pettit, Roberts, Lewinsohn, Seeley, and Yaroslavsky (2011) found EA is marked by a decrease in depressive symptoms and a greater degree of perceived social support. Overall, EA was found to be a time of improved psychological well-being and social interaction (Pettit et al., 2011). The research shows two trends in young adults: an overall positive attitude and a proclivity toward identity exploration. Student affairs practitioners should consider the implications of EA when advising, counseling, or working with college students. Students struggling with choosing a major or ending a romantic relationship are going through the natural challenges of EA. Student affairs practitioners can help normalize these experiences for students through listening and appropriate counseling.

Critiques of Emerging Adulthood
Several critiques of Arnett’s theory have emerged over the past decade. Henry and Kloep (2010) conducted a study of non-collegiate emerging adults living in Wales and found little correlation between the experiences described by Arnett and their own research participants. They argued Arnett’s theory mainly applies to emerging adults in higher education from
middle class backgrounds, and they claim EA is a product of the wealth and opportunities available to these particular individuals (Henry & Kloep, 2010). This could be a valuable distinction for the student affairs practitioner as students from different socio-economic backgrounds may experience EA in unique ways from their peers.

In each of the five defining characteristics of EA, Henry and Kloep (2010) discovered significant differences from the reporting of their participants compared to Arnett’s. Henry and Kloep (2010) argued it is dangerous to call EA a universal stage as scholars and clinicians run the risk of terming people outside the norm developmentally deficient. More research should be pursued in other industrialized countries for further comparisons. As well, research into the similarities and differences of young adults in all industrialized nations could provide valuable insight into EA’s validity as a universal theory. Perhaps international students and students born in countries other than the United States face distinct or unique challenges during EA. Student affairs professionals must be careful when applying this theory to students from diverse national origins.

A Lack of Positive Outcomes

Other researchers claim EA lacks emphasis on positive development and healthy outcomes achieved during this stage. In an effort to challenge this assumption, Hawkins, Letcher, Sanson, Smart, and Toumbourou (2009) conducted research on positive functioning in emerging adults. The researchers studied civic action and engagement, trust and tolerance, and trust in authorities and how these factors impacted social competence and life satisfaction (Hawkins et al., 2009). Hawkins et al. (2009) concluded emerging adults with significant levels of trust “are responsible, self-controlled, empathetic, and satisfied with their achievements, personal life, social life and the direction that their life is taking” (Hawkins et al., 2009, p. 98). This research suggested there are positive qualities young adults exhibit under beneficial influences. Student affairs professionals working with emerging adults might apply this research by first gaining the trust of students before pushing students to accomplish challenging tasks or engage in self-reflection. Any activity designed to build trust in students could have significant positive impact, and more research should be pursued regarding building trust in young adults to explore best practices in this area.

Stage or Process?

The final major criticism of Arnett’s work posits EA is not a stage; EA is a process. Life is much more complex than the simplistic stance of breaking development into stages based on age (Arnett, Kloep, Hendry, & Tanner, 2011). Kloep and Hendry (2011) claimed life is fluid. Humans are always engaged in some process of change or growth and attempts to define the end of one stage and the beginning of another are inherently overly simplistic (Arnett et al., 2011). Furthermore, change is contextual and what holds true under one set of circumstances might be the opposite in a different context (Arnett et al., 2011). Kloep and Hendry (2011) suggested a systems perspective of development where life is seen as “an open system that consists, both of, and belongs to, a number of other open systems; and as human beings, we are part of this natural configuration” (Arnett et al., 2011, p. 58). The stage view of EA encourages scholars to think critically of developmental hurdles while a systems approach encourages scholars to consider historical and social contexts as well as individual context. Student affairs practitioners who prefer a systems approach might be interested in the broader perspective of students’ development.
Implications for Student Affairs

Arnett’s partial focus on college students makes his work relevant to student affairs practitioners. Of particular interest to student affairs professionals should be the intersection of Baxter-Magolda’s (2008) theory of Self-Authorship and Arnett’s (2004) theory of EA. Baxter-Magolda provided a theoretical foundation for college students to move from a place of accepting life as it has been to creating a life of the individual’s choosing (Baxter-Magolda, 2008). Using a combination of Self-Authorship and EA, student affairs practitioners can guide students through the uncertain, ambiguous times in college with greater understanding and awareness for the unique challenges facing students. Shulman and Nurmi (2010) found that setting and accomplishing goals helped predict success and increased well-being in young adults. Student affairs professionals can challenge their students to re-think goals established by family, friends, and society and discover self-directed goals. Such efforts can have a tri-fold benefit of increasing self-authorship – choosing own goals verses other’s goals, encouraging developmentally appropriate exploration – through classes and activities, and enhancing well-being–positive feelings associated with accomplishment. As students struggle with the attainment of their goals, perhaps even changing their goals as they grow and mature, student affairs professionals can frame the overall struggles of this time period in the context of EA. Emerging adulthood provides a rich framework for understanding students’ struggles, obstacles, and self-exploration.

Recommendations

Arnett’s (2004) theory of Emerging Adulthood has been the focus of much research and debate since its release a decade ago. Arnett initially noticed trends among young adults and developed EA to help himself understand this age group (Arnett, 2004). Considering the amount of peer support and critique EA has received, the theory has made a significant impact on the literature.

To strengthen the theory, more research should be pursued in relating it with other theories, such as Baxter-Magolda’s theory of Self-Authorship (2008). As many student development theories exist, finding commonalities and overlap between paradigms can enrich the practitioner’s use of theory. In one example, Kreysig (2010) published a thesis relating EA to Gilligan’s (1982) work on voice and Elkind’s (1967) work on imaginary audience and how this impacts college student development. Clinical psychologists pursue most of the research done today on EA. More research from an educational perspective could help student affairs professionals apply EA to their work with college students. Further research might include questioning and studying racial and ethnic impact on EA and the differences and similarities across race and ethnicity. More research is needed on gender differences as it relates to EA, and how men and women handle the developmental hurdles associated with this time period.

Educational researchers might also take the theory and examine its application in other areas such as teaching, Greek life, residential life, or parent and family programming. This theory might be especially beneficial for practitioners working with families who are frustrated with their college student’s progress. Maybe the family has had dreams for their child to be a dentist or a physicist. When the student gets to college, they struggle and fail most of their science courses but do exceedingly well in philosophy and psychology. Practitioners working directly with parents might reference EA to explain how it might be beneficial for the students to be questioning their college path. In another scenario, maybe the student is not doing well handling the stress and challenges of having a roommate. The roommates want to move out rather than working through their differences. Residence Directors can understand the behavior of his or her residents by referencing EA. The students likely are already exploring the many possibilities of other roommate situations rather than choosing to
engage the current conflict. By understanding students’ developmental process, student affairs professionals might have more compassion and effectiveness when working with students. Many applicable scenarios exist where EA might prove useful. Further research on Arnett’s theory will provide those working with young adults more tools necessary to help students through this turbulent time.

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References


Who Am I?
An Exploration of Role Identity Formation and Socialization Throughout the U.S. Doctoral Process

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Abstract

The development of a professional academic identity is imperative to the success of a United States doctoral student (Ellis, 2001; Rosser, 2004; Tierney, 1997; Weidman & Stein, 2003). This scholarly paper analyses the experiences of five postgraduate students in the Rocky Mountain region using narrative inquiry to illustrate the importance of internal role identity for successful socialization throughout the postgraduate process. We employ narrative inquiry to help us explore the lived experiences of students during their doctoral program years. This method of inquiry investigates the decision-making processes and events that shape aspects of the students’ lives (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Riessman, 1993). Thereafter, through the process of triangulation, we utilize the key takeaways and develop an innovative internal-role identity framework that grounds the research. Ultimately, our established framework guides our research to take a two-pronged approach by first analyzing the oscillating identity shifts from student to scholar throughout the doctoral years. Secondly, we explore the contributing factors and implications to successful socialization in the founding of a professional academic identity. Towards this end, we believe that role identity theory through the auspices of socialization serve as an effective framework for doctoral students in understanding their shifting identities as they take on characteristics of the academic role.

Keywords: doctoral, role identity, socialization

A recent search of assistant professor positions in the field of higher education in the United States yielded 21 open positions nationwide. The advertised description of these open-job positions required potential applicants to demonstrate the following: evidence of scholarly productivity, evidence of a research agenda related to issues of higher education, and evidence of effective teaching at the graduate level (HigherEdJobs.com, 2010). As postgraduate students in a higher education program, we inferred that market competitiveness demanded exiting doctoral students to be highly qualified. As such, research has shown that the development of professional academic identities is imperative to the success of a doctoral candidate (Ellis, 2001; Rosser, 2004; Sweitzer, 2009; Tierney, 1997; Weidman & Stein, 2003). Based on our academic readings and our experiences as emerging scholars, we sought to further understand the reality of the market through two research questions: What are the oscillating internal role identities of doctoral students in the Higher Education program at a Rocky Mountain regional university? How have these shifting identities impacted their navigation of the doctoral process?

This study will identify key contributions from existing research in the field that will validate our use of socialization and role identity theory. Thereafter, through the process of triangulation, we will utilize the key takeaways and build an internal role identity framework.
that grounds our research. Ultimately, our framework will guide our research to take a two-pronged approach in answering the above research questions first by analyzing the oscillating shifts from student to scholar throughout the doctoral program and secondly, by exploring the contributing factors to successful socialization as a professional academic identity.

Socialization Literature

Doctoral student socialization is seen as preparation for the role of scholar, often assumed only after degree conferral (Weidman & Stein, 2003). Tierney (1997) concludes that socialization is a process where individuals create meaning by using their own backgrounds to gain an understanding of an organization and its culture. Furthermore, Tierney argues that the individual academic identities of all members form and change the culture of an organization. Individuals bring their own unique backgrounds and insights to an organization, and the challenge of socialization is to use these attributes to build a collective culture rather than have people maintain the status quo (Tierney, 1993).

Weidman and Stein (2003), in their professional socialization framework, indicate ways a department could foster doctoral student socialization. By making clear the ultimate goal of the department is to prepare scholars, an environment should be established that fosters collegial relationships and encourages participation by doctoral students in scholarly work. Both Ellis (2001) and Weidman and Stein (2003) contend that there were a variety of avenues a department may take to successfully socialize students including providing good mentoring and advising, encouraging students in scholarly work, and modeling collegiality among faculty members, as well as between faculty members and students. Towards this end, Rosser (2004) argued doctoral students get out what they put into their preparation and socialization, and the seemingly embedded process of becoming an academic is an individualized process.

Identity Literature

An important result of one’s pursuit of a doctoral degree is the ability to define one’s self in terms of an academic identity (Green, 2005). Jazvac-Martek (2009) states that little research has been done to evaluate the correlation between a student’s experiences and his or her ability to form an identity as a scholar. She continues by saying that the study of “identity” (Jazvac-Martek, 2009, p. 259) could create a clearer understanding of the hurdles doctoral students are facing throughout their time in doctoral programs. Producing knowledge and creating an academic identity has been equally important in the doctoral process (Green, 2005).

Accordingly, students’ perceived identities and aspirations inform how they engage in doctoral education and the mentoring process alike (Hall & Burns, 2009). Mentoring offers a more expansive and nuanced understanding of the socialization process in the field of education (Hall & Burns, 2009). Halls and Burns (2009) suggest the degree to which each student perceives his or her transformation varies from student to student, but maintain that with faculty aid, each student would begin to formulate his or her own identity over time. Similar to Grover (2007) and Sweitzer (2009), our framework is based on “models of doctoral student professional identity development that draw on literatures from higher education and organization studies” (Sweitzer, 2009, p. 27).

Conceptual Framework

From the literature review, we deduce that doctoral students enter a program with an existing individual academic identity, and subsequent socialization allows students to learn how their identity fits into the overall culture throughout the doctoral process. As such, we believe that role identity theory through the auspices of socialization can serve as an effective framework
for doctoral student understanding of his or her shifting identities as he or she takes on characteristics of the profession (Colbeck, 2008).

Doctoral students hold multiple identities and roles over the course of an academic program and Jazvac-Martek (2009) suggests that “role identities form as a person categorizes, classifies, or associates oneself in relation to a social grouping” (p. 255). Furthermore, particular role identities are corroborated “through the reactions and behavior of others that act to confirm the person as occupant of a particular social position” (Jazvac-Martek, 2009, p. 255).

Collectively, we utilize components of socialization models, specifically role identity formation, to devise our own conceptual model that explores the internal role identity formation of doctoral students through the following approaches (see Figure 1 below):

1) The Beginning of Oscillating Role Identities: As an individual starts the doctoral process, he or she experiences various shifts in role identities – student, researcher, and emerging scholar.

2) The Navigation of Oscillating Role Identities: In order to balance the shifting identities, students create navigational strategies that provide support and guidance throughout the doctoral process.

3) The Formation of a Professional Academic Identity: The student assumes the role of a scholar and identifies his or her own voice within the field.

Figure #1: Graduate Socialization Models

Completed research has given importance to the external role identities (i.e., publications, teaching experience, and interaction in the field through conference presentations) that emerging scholars must assume (Ellis, 2001; Rosser, 2004; Sweitzer, 2009; Tierney, 1997), but little research has conceptually framed the place of internal role identity within socialization. As such, Figure 1 illustrates two distinct graduate student socialization processes utilizing our conceptual framework of internal role identity. The downward arrow from Graduate Student Socialization navigates through to the assumptions of scholarly identity as identified by scholars such as Weidman and Stein (2003) and Jazvac-Martek (2009). The upward arrow from Graduate Student Socialization navigates a journey-mapping process through
the internal and external role identity stages showing the formation of the scholarly role throughout the doctoral process.

Methodology

To best answer our research questions, we utilized narrative inquiry to explore the lived experiences of students during their doctoral career. As a coursework assignment, we conducted 45-minute in-person or phone informal interviews with upper-level doctoral students. This method of inquiry investigated the way in which individuals narrated their experiences and events that shaped aspects of their lives (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Riessman, 1993). Further, this method allowed us to gain an understanding of the factors relevant to the decision-making process of the students we interviewed and their doctoral socialization process.

Participants

Using a convenience sampling approach, we selected five participants from a list of doctoral students in the Higher Education program at the Rocky Mountain region university. Four participants were in their third academic year and one had recently graduated. There was one male participant and four female participants. One participant worked full-time and four participants worked part-time. To keep the identities of the doctoral students confidential, we used pseudonyms in the findings (see Table 1).

Table 1: Participants and Corresponding Pseudonyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postgraduate Student Gender/ Year in Program</th>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male – 3rd Year</td>
<td>P. Thomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female – 3rd Year</td>
<td>K. Magna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female – 3rd Year</td>
<td>S. Anderson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female – 3rd Year</td>
<td>M.K. Gilbert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female – Graduated</td>
<td>G. Golding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings

Doctoral education, described through the narratives of these participants, leads an individual through a process of self-efficacy as they move from student to scholar. In the course of interviews, multiple themes emerged within the shifting role identity of each student. Beginning with the first year of courses, students experienced a variety of struggles, both internal and external, as they grappled with the idea of socialization into the academic community and identity. These struggles started an oscillation of role identity from the valley of student to the peak of scholar, and back again. In order to shrink the pitch of these oscillations over their time in doctoral education, students implemented particular strategies leading finally to the recognition of their own voice in academic work. The following quotes and findings fit well with our internal role identity conceptual framework.
Table 2: *Salient Themes and Selected Quotes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Selected Quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beginning of Oscillating Internal Role Identities</strong></td>
<td>“I felt stressed, nervous, uncertain if I could do it. [I] did not really feel prepared” (M. K. Gilbert, personal communication, October 27, 2010). “I didn’t think I was going to make it through the first quarter…. I didn’t think I would have the time to get it done, to get it done at a true scholarly level” (K. Magna, personal communication, October 21, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Struggle</strong></td>
<td>“It had been 10 years since I completed my last degree, so I wasn’t sure what to expect, other than I would be challenged intellectually” (K. Magna, personal communication, October 21, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>External Struggle</strong></td>
<td>“There are things you have to give up. Some of my routines had to change. How I spent my free time had to change in order to get the reading done, get the homework done, and go to work. I had to rethink my working situation…. I didn’t get to spend time with my friends the first quarter, the first year for that matter” (P. Thomas, personal communication, October 22, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peer to Peer</strong></td>
<td>“You will learn to control your identity – this back and forth identity. That is exactly what [my professor] talks about in CRT [critical race theory]… when you are in different situations you talk in a different way” (S. Anderson, personal communication, October 30, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervisor/ Advisor</strong></td>
<td>“It was something I never did alone in these challenges. I was like, ‘let’s go have coffee’ and then you just start talking about how you get sleep at night or if you get sleep at night” (K. Magna, personal communication, October 21, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formation of Professional Academic Identity</strong></td>
<td>“To speak candidly about things that are frustrating… Frustrations about some of the classes I have taken, just being able to have someone to sit down and talk things out rationally and learn to figure it out, to stop whining and just suck it up. That one’s been good.” (S. Anderson, personal communication, October 30, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“My voice as a scholar is my voice” (G. Golding, personal communication, October 20, 2010). “I don’t necessarily feel like a scholar yet, but I’m headed down that path…. But you know it changes and will continue to change, even over the next year as I get closer and closer, I think my identity will continue to change as I complete my dissertation” (K. Magna, personal communication, October 21, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I’m doing what I need to do; not mimicking anyone. It’s important that you find your own voice” (G. Golding, personal communication, October 20, 2010).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analysis**

In looking at the research in the field as well as the conceptual framework, the analysis will answer the two research questions in our study: What are the oscillating internal role identities of doctoral students in the Higher Education program at a Rocky Mountain regional university? How have these shifting identities impacted their navigation of the doctoral process?

Our findings identified three shifting identity paradigms and four sub-components that contribute to the systematic socialization of doctoral students in the Higher Education program at the Rocky Mountain regional university. The three paradigms: a) Doctoral Student: Beginning of Oscillating Internal Role Identities; b) Role Duality: Navigation of Oscillating Internal Identities; and c) Scholar: Formation of Professional Academic Identity, represent three primary stages in the doctoral program at the Rocky Mountain region university.

Our findings revealed the first paradigm, Doctoral Student: Beginning of Oscillating Internal Role Identities paralleled that of neophytes: learning for the first time the norms, standards,
and expectations of a doctoral program. In addition, as neophytes, the students went through various stages of self-doubt as to whether or not they belonged, and if the preparation garnered at the Masters level had actually prepared them for doctoral research. Furthermore, at the doctoral student stage, students experienced less confidence, uncertainty of their own voice, and a lack of ability to form autonomy.

The second paradigm shift was one of acclimation and as Grover (2007) states, one of engagement and consolidation where students began to “sense their path of success through the program...and their ideas crystallize” (p. 14). At this stage, we found that the doctoral students fell into a space of role duality; they were not yet scholars but not solely students. There was a shared-power of learning and responsibility of garnering and sharing knowledge. Having dual roles, allowed the students to navigate through the socialization process, and found what worked best for them. There was also a sense of discovery and awareness of themselves as not just students but emerging scholars. This, in turn, led them to be more committed to their research and core competencies.

The third paradigm shift, Scholar: Formation of Professional Academic Identity is a transitional stage because it encompasses the role of the scholar within the student’s institution, while preparing to enter the conferred role of an academic. At this stage, the students have accepted the role of scholar and have fully committed to their research. There is synergy and a broadening of scope as to what the scholarly role entails. Sweitzer (2009) acknowledges in the last stage of her Assessing Fit Model that, “students began to develop professional identities as future faculty members” (p. 27).

As each stage is oscillating, it is easy for the scholar to shift to the student stage and vice versa, because even after the degree is conferred, the scholar will presumably enter the academy as a neophyte into a new social culture and organizational environment. Although the graduate is not a student, the socialization process is similar when entering new academic environments. The idea of oscillating identities can best be explained through an image of a cosine graph (see Figure 2) with minimum and maximum points, resembling peaks. From the findings, the doctoral student has the ability to peak and identify between any of the three roles; however, during the doctoral process, the findings suggest they often existed in the shaded region, shifting between roles (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Oscillating Role Identity

The answer to the second research question highlighted that each student’s journey was different; however, the salient commonality that aided significantly in the navigation of their doctoral process was the creation of support communities. Whether it was peer-to-peer or mentor-advisor support, the participants explicitly stated throughout the interviews that
having a support team was instrumental in their socialization process. In addition, the idea of trust became imminent in their discovery of self; that in order to identify themselves as doctoral students, they would first have to trust their peers, mentors, and most importantly the doctoral process. What was not explicitly stated was the importance of familial capital and support. This may be attributed to the limitations of the interview protocol. However, it is important to mention that Sweitzer (2009) argued, “the relationships students have and develop within and outside of the academic community that provide that necessary support” (p. 30). As doctoral students, we would concur that the sustainability of outside relationships including, family and friends, assists with successful identity development and socialization.

**Conclusion**

Rosser (2004) details a story of a doctoral student at graduation that had neither established a research agenda nor considered publishing. This student, Rosser concludes, was not prepared to enter the fast-paced and research-driven economy of education; she had not committed herself to the formation of an external role identity as a scholar. Rosser is correct in her conclusion, especially viewing the current job market for teaching positions in higher education; however, we argue that internal role identity is as crucial for successful socialization into the scholarly role. Doctoral candidates experienced internal role identity formation as an oscillation between the role of student and the role of scholar. Our research demonstrates the shifting between the peaks and valleys of identity that occurs during the doctoral years, challenges and prepares candidates for the attainment of the title “Doctor of Philosophy.” Further research needs to be done considering the ways in which the formation of internal and external role identities interact for the successful preparation and socialization of emerging scholars. This will provide departments and administrators with structures to help students navigate the integration of role identities throughout the doctoral year.

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*Saran Stewart, Kristin Deal, Nicholas Bowlby, Bryan Hubain, and Cerise Hunt are third year doctoral students at the University of Denver.*
References


The following is a list of the members of the SAHE Class of 2013:

- Jake N. Cohen
- Azra Crnogorcevic
- Olivia Des Chenes
- Spencer Ellis
- Dan Hammerquist
- Joseph F. Kimes
- Enrique Lara Nuno
- Lindsay Mason
- Cortney Paddock
- Jose Pena
- Michael L. Pulju
- Sarah M. Stephens
- Zulema J. Sierra
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- Chelsie Taresh-Cicsell
- Melissa Williams
- Long Wu
- Benjamin H. Wurzel
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