Journal *of* Student Affairs

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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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Table of Contents

Managing Editors' Perspective

Christopher R. Carter, Managing Editor – Training and Development
Emma Hart, Managing Editor – Coordination
Maria R. Marinucci, Managing Editor – Marketing & Outreach
Vanessa Santana, Managing Editor – Technical

The *Journal of Student Affairs* is celebrating its 23rd year of annual publication in 2014. The *Journal* continues to create unique opportunities for graduate students, new professionals, and senior level administrators to contribute scholarly articles to the field of student affairs. Our intention with this year's publication of the *Journal of Student Affairs* is to provide relevant articles regarding current issues, emerging trends, innovation, and the improvement of programs and services within the field. It is our aspiration to uphold the values of student affairs through collaboration, development, and mentorship and to stimulate discourse about academic research and writing.

It has been our honor to welcome two new advisors, Teresa Metzger from the Office of Residence Life and Karla Perez-Velez from the Department of Health and Exercise Sciences, to the *Journal* and have their guidance during a time of transition and many changes. Amongst the changes were the restructuring of Editorial Board member positions and the development of a database of graduate preparatory programs and contacts, which led to improved outreach resulting in a record number of submissions for the *Journal*. We are also grateful for our advisors who created professional development opportunities for the Editorial Board, most notably a workshop at the University of Northern Colorado to refine our editing process, as well as the chance to attend the annual Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) Conference in St. Louis, MO. SAHE will continue its commitment to provide funding support and establish a new tradition for future Editorial Board members to annually embark on this unique professional development opportunity.

The *Journal* is also pleased to continue the tradition of selecting a scholarly guest author from the field of student affairs. This year, the *Journal* is proud to feature an article titled, "The New Student Affairs Leaders: Our Theory, Practice and Future" by Dr. Frank D. Sanchez ('93), who serves as the Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs for the City University of New York system. We admire all he has accomplished for student success, and the wonderful example he has set for the potential paths of SAHE alumni. We are inspired by his work, and are deeply grateful for his contribution to the *Journal*.

We thank all of our contributing authors, mentors, and support personnel who have made this year's publication a success. Also deserving of appreciation are the associate editors for their diligence and superb work ethic. We are confident to be leaving the *Journal* in the hands of great leadership. Finally, we thank our readers and fellow colleagues, for whom we strive to provide a quality publication. As managing editors of the *Journal*, we hope you find the articles contained within these pages to be thought provoking, informative, and useful to the application of your practice.

Past Leadership

As we produce the 23rd edition of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*, we acknowledge those who have laid the foundation for our success.

MANAGING EDITORS

2012-2013	Jake N. Cohen '13, Olivia Des Chenes '13, Spencer Ellis '13, Joseph F. Kimes '13, Mallory Perkins
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
1998-1999	Kirsten Peterson '99
1997-1998	Beth Yohe '98
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

It is with great honor that we serve as the advisors of the CSU SAHE Journal Board. In this, our inaugural year as advisors, we are proud of the Board and congratulate them for all of their hard work and dedication in the production of this year's *Journal of Student Affairs*.

This year has been a year of reflection on past accomplishments and success of the *Journal*, but also a year of new ideas and innovation. The creative team of eight graduate students have challenged themselves to look at the journal with fresh eyes in order to improve and ignite a new era for the *Journal*. Below are some the accomplishments of the board this past academic year:

- Increased proposal submissions from both professional, scholarly, and student authors

- Participation at the annual Association for the Study of Higher Education Conference

- Professional Development with University of Northern Colorado HESA Faculty, Dr. Matt Birnbaum and Dr. Tamara Yakaboski on *Best Practices of Journal Boards*

- Development of a new proposal review process

We are very proud of the work the Board has completed this year. In addition, we want to thank our predecessors, Andrea Reeves and Dr. Oscar Felix, who transitioned us into our roles as advisor. You have been great mentors! Furthermore, we wanted to thank Dr. Matt Birnbaum and Dr. Yakaboski for sharing your knowledge and insight on best practices of journal boards. You have enhanced our knowledge of this important work. As always we thank Dr. Dave McKelfresh and the SAHE faculty for all their support of the students on the board. Lastly, we thank the Board! The exchange of learning between student and advisor has been rewarding.

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Teresa Metzger   Karla Perez-Velez
CSU Office of Residence Life, CSU Department of Health
Housing and Dining Services and Exercise Science
SAHE Advisor   SAHE Advisor

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State of the Program

David A. McKelfresh, Ph.D.
Program Chair

This year marks the 46th anniversary of the Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) Master's Program and it has been an active year with many accomplishments. 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 appreciation to Karla Perez-Velez and Teresa Metzger for the service they are providing as faculty advisors to the SAHE Journal Board. This year Karla initiated a professional development field experience for the Journal Board members to attend the annual conference of the Association for the Study of Higher Education – a very fulfilling experience for our students, which will become an annual professional development tradition for our SAHE Journal Board.

The SAHE program experienced a record number of applicants this year – 298 applicants for the 20 spaces available for the 2015 cohort. Our applicants were from 43 states, the District of Columbia, and four countries (Morocco, Canada, China, and Mexico). The SAHE program continues to be one of the most diverse graduate programs at CSU, in every respect.

We have three new faculty teaching in the program. Alexis Kanda Olmstead and John Durkin co-teach the newly developed course – Philanthropy in Student Affairs. Keith Lopez moved into the role of Practicum Coordinator for the SAHE residential program. I would like to express my gratitude to Paul Giberson, Practicum Coordinator, as he transitions out of this role for our residential students. Paul will continue to coordinate practicum experiences for our online students.

This year, three SAHE faculty were recognized by the NASPA IV-West association:

- Emily Ambrose, SAHE faculty member, Outstanding New Professional Award
- Jason Foster, SAHE Co-advisor, Outstanding New Professional Rising Star
- Dave McKelfresh, SAHE Program Chair, Distinguished Service Award

Oscar Felix ('93), Jody Donovan, and Andrea Reeve continue to provide strong leadership for the SAHE International Field Experiences. The major highlight this year involved SAHE students and faculty travelling to Morocco. Two students (Steph Parrish and Rachel Goold) along with our faculty led a group of 14 students on the Morocco field experience for two weeks in January. Dr. Mohammed Hirchi from CSU's Foreign Language and Literatures Department accompanied the group to assist with Arabic and cultural translation. Some of the highlights of the field experience were the homestays in Rabat during which students and faculty experienced everyday life in Morocco with families, numerous in-depth discussions with current students and faculty/staff at over 10 public and private universities throughout the country, and the cultural immersion experiences touring the monuments, palaces, countryside, and souqs as well as eating amazing Moroccan food. A specific highlight for

Oscar and Jody was running every morning through Rabat, Fes, Casablanca and getting lost in Marrakesh – and then found 8.8 miles later!

This January Kyle Oldham (SAHE faculty member) and Ebenezer Yebuah (SAHE '14 student) traveled to Ghana, Africa to develop relationships with faculty and staff members at a number of institutions of higher education. They have been laying the groundwork for an International Field Experience for future SAHE students to travel to and learn about higher education in Ghana.

Over a year ago 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 (NISSI). Building on the successful NISSI experiences in Hong Kong and Abu Dhabi this past year, Jody Donovan and Oscar Felix will be the NISSI presenters in the United Arab Emirates Abu Dhabi in March at the annual Gulf Coast Conference, and Randy Hyman will be the NISSI presenter in Croatia in May.

Our online SAHE Master's program continues to provide a strong academic experience for students all over the world. Additionally, this spring the online SAHE Certificate Program begins its 4th year serving approximately 20 students each year. Beginning this semester we are offering an online Student Affairs Business Management and Auxiliary Services Certificate through a joint agreement with the CSU College of Business and their online MBA Program.

We are pleased to report that the first Sherwood Scholarship was awarded to Maria Marinucci (SAHE '14). The Sherwood Scholar Fund was established by Dr. Grant Sherwood who provided leadership for the SAHE program for 13 years. Applicants address the importance of integrity and character in the student affairs profession, and how they integrate their values into their work.

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 is in her third year of providing strong leadership in the coordination of the graduate assistantship process, and assistantship supervisors continue to provide excellent experiences for students.

The CSU SAHE program has evolved to meet the needs and challenges of our profession. The job placement rate for SAHE graduates is 100% and our alumni consistently report that the program has prepared them very well for working in and contributing to 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 New Student Affairs Leaders: Our Theory, Practice and Future

Frank D. Sanchez, Ph.D.
City University of New York

Abstract

The changing higher education milieu has created an opportunity for new student affairs professionals to think differently about our work with students. This article encourages SAHE graduates to examine the adequacy of student development theory while proposing how student affairs professionals may need to adapt in the coming years. The guest author also provides several alternative philosophical and pragmatic discussion pieces with the intention of pushing today's student affairs paradigm and profession forward.

Introduction

On a daily basis, I am inspired and moved by the work we do in higher education. With students at the center of our work we have the privilege of providing access to a life-altering education, mentoring the process of deep learning, guiding meaningful talent acquisition and encouraging the practice of life-long learning. I am often moved by how this work, particularly that of our new student affairs professionals, gives students an awareness of themselves and the world in which they live.

While the core values of the Colorado State University Student Affairs and Higher Education (SAHE) graduate program are often shaped by a strong, emotive ethic of care as described above there are emerging national trends also shaping how we will perform our work with students in the future. Today's new student affairs graduates are being called to participate in a rapidly changing new era of higher education. It appears significant shifts in the expectations of our new professionals are emerging across the collegiate landscape. I have come to believe these changes are requiring each of us to carefully examine our core values, the adequacy of our work and the relevancy of student affairs in the future.

Environmental Scan

This past summer at the NASPA Region IV annual conference in New York City Dr. Richard Keeling highlighted what he referred to as "quantum changes" facing higher education and the student affairs profession. During his keynote Dr. Keeling shared how the higher education landscape is dramatically and fundamentally being altered. Specifically, he discussed several challenges facing higher education including:

- Competing priorities: The mission of higher education has become increasingly complex including growing pressures to fundraise as a result of less state support, increasing research, improving access, utilizing technology and delivering high quality teaching.

- Claims of not enough quality: It appears that the general public is becoming more critical about higher education's ability to deliver competencies and skills enabling graduates to be employable in the global marketplace.

- Too expensive: Today's college student debt has surpassed the total credit card debt in America. This, along with rising tuition costs are fostering alternative instructional and service delivery models (i.e. Massive Open Online Courses).

- Low graduation and completion rates: How effective or efficient is the college experience when large percentages of enrolled students do not complete their degree?

Dr. Keeling's assessment of higher education left me believing how the new Student Affairs professionals must be prepared to adapt to a far less stable higher education environment if they desire to lead effectively and, in some cases, survive. These developing challenges in the collegiate landscape are prompting all of us to explore new paradigms for how we are trained, how we deliver high impact student experiences and how we provide leadership on our campuses. Perhaps more importantly, I believe these environmental changes call for clarity and focus in our work with students.

Purpose of Article

Today's higher education milieu should encourage our next generation of student affairs professionals to think differently about how our work must evolve in the coming years. The future of our work and effectiveness in leading higher education institutions is increasingly dependent on adaptation, evolution and infusion of new ideas. The purpose of this article is to highlight a few critical discussion topics that I believe can offer important guidance to SAHE graduates as they prepare for the impending changes in our field. There is no doubt this era of higher education metamorphosis will dramatically shape how they think and act on our profession, its theory, practice and future.

Our Theory

Over two decades ago, Professor Rich Feller posed the following question in my Introduction to Student Development SAHE course, *"Are we student development theorists or are we social engineers?"*

Dr. Feller's framing of our work with students fundamentally shaped how I thought about the collegiate experience and how I envisioned my role as a student affairs administrator. Indeed, my time in higher education has been about reimagining our social institutions and the delivery of more effective support services to the next generation of students. For me, Professor Feller's question posed a new mental model for how we advance students in the college environment. Moreover, it surfaced additional questions about the relevancy and adequacy of our foundation with student development theory.

Let me ask, "What do Student Affairs professionals do better than anyone else?" Well, my academic colleagues would debate me on this but I believe Student Affairs professionals are more deliberate and skilled than anyone else at establishing and cultivating meaningful relationships with students. In fact, the vast majority of our time is often working directly with students in numerous capacities and length of time. Few, if any, non-student affairs campus personnel can compare to our student "contact hours" particularly among our live-in housing professionals (i.e. housing assistantships). It is in the frequency and quality of human interaction that we often pride ourselves and make the case for the importance of student affairs on our campuses.

While student interaction in practice is clearly in our wheelhouse, what is less clear is whether or not we are the campus experts on the student interface. Sure we are well versed in any variety of student development theories and can make a case for why the development of students is important. But have we made a concrete case why these psychological theories are vital to leading higher education institutions and the learning enterprise? I am not confident we have done so.

In my 20 plus years working on a variety of public/private, small/large, urban and rural campuses, I have never had a college or university president or Trustee/Regent ask me, "How are our students developing?" Or ask "What is the average vector of our entering first-year student and is it getting better?" "Are our students becoming less dualistic?" Instead and almost without exception both governance leaders and presidents ask, "What are our student retention rates?" Are we improving the number of student graduating and completing degrees?" "Are our students getting jobs?" "What learning outcomes are occurring?" "Are our students satisfied with their collegiate experience?"

What I have found is that student development theory is rarely mentioned when it comes to important governance and leadership conversations. If I am honest the theoretical bedrock of our profession does not align well with the practical expectations of today's higher education leaders. More directly, it is my belief student development theory has become woefully inadequate for the required work of today's student affairs professionals. I am convinced in order to deliver on expected collegiate outcomes student affairs leaders must not only be versed in student development theory but know equally well the pedagogy of effective interactions with students. While student development theory offers a good framework for our work it does not offer us adequate nor practical language, strategies or tactics for improving student interface, interaction, engagement or learning.

For a moment imagine studying theory that offers insight into the skills and methods of highly effective advisors, coaches, counselors, mentors and, ultimately, the student affairs professional? We would unpack, in practical terms, how we maximize student interaction toward building skills, strengths, talents, knowledge and transferring information and knowledge. For example, Lev Vygotsky's, a Russian socio-cultural theorist, stressed the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky wrote volumes on student interactions providing extensive detailing of where individual development results from the dynamic interaction between individuals and society (i.e. social engineer). For me, the implications of his work for our students (individuals) and campus (society) seem ideal for new professionals in student affairs. Perhaps more interesting, virtually all of Vygotsky's work focused on K-12 leaving an open canvas for discussing, researching and writing about the applications of his work in higher education generally and student affairs specifically.

Vygotsky wrote about numerous concepts that have potential applications to our work in student affairs including:

- More Knowledgeable Other (MKO): Someone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner, with respect to a particular task, process, or concept.

- Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD): The difference between what a student can achieve independently and what a student can achieve with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner.

- Community plays a central role in the process of "making meaning."

- Concepts like coaching, modeling, guiding participation, cognitive apprenticeships, cultural mediation and interpersonal communication, scaffolding and fading have relevance and application through Vygotsky's work.

If we can shift the foundation of how we are trained, supplementing psychological student development models with pedagogical learning models, I am convinced we will find greater effectiveness engaging students. By looking beyond student development theory and exploring alternative cognitive theories we are in a position to expand our understanding of the student

interface with stronger definition, precision and detail; truly becoming experts of the student experience and interface.

Our Practice

I believe one of the most significant challenges for new professionals is the decline of state funding for higher education and its implications on our day to day work with students. As evidence Colorado has experienced a significant reduction in state funding over the last 10 years. According to the Chronicle of Higher Education the state lost 45 percent of its overall state budget and 48 percent per student between 2002 and 2010. It seems clear to me this trend will result in tighter student affairs budgets and, consequently, fewer human resources and staffing positions to serve and engage our students. I am convinced in the coming years Divisions of Student Affairs will likely not have enough counselors, advisors and staff to maintain the traditional work and service to students. As a result, I believe new professionals must be entrepreneurial in how they maximize their support on larger numbers of students. We must "scale-up" our services to support more students while maximizing staff effectiveness and scope of impact.

The City University of New York has taken the notion of scaling-up very seriously in recent years particularly in the area of student financial support. In the fall of 2013, the City University of New York enrolled 272,000 degree seeking students and served another 250,000 students in adult and continuing education programs. Sixty percent of students at CUNY come from the lowest income brackets in America and CUNY administrators know thousands of students drop out of school not because they cannot make it academically but because they cannot make it financially. The financial challenges for students are further magnified when considering the cost of living in NYC.

In examining the financial needs of students, CUNY administrators learned that while many students were at a poverty level they were not applying for public benefits in which they qualified. Armed with this intelligence CUNY developed private and governmental partnerships to connect eligible students to public benefits via Single Stop Centers at seven community colleges. The staffing of these centers ranged from 1 to 3 staff members per center.

In the first year of this pilot program, CUNY allocated over $770,000 in public benefits across six community colleges including legal services, food stamps, health insurance, financial counseling and other support. In year two, the financial support to students participating in the Single Stop centers jumped to over $11 million. In year three, the financial support increased to $24 million and in 2013, over $35.5 million was allocated to students across seven CUNY community colleges. In the last three years over 32,000 students have been supported with a total allocation of $73 million. In terms of the return on investment, for every $1 dollar invested in the program, the services allocate $25 in public benefits to students. On average, students confirmed through the Single Stop Program received $5,000 in additional financial support and services.

The Single Stop experiment is one example of a scalable initiative which is redefining our delivery of financial support for students. More importantly, it is one of a growing number of examples where new student affairs professionals will be tasked with scaling-up services and programs for larger numbers of students. Tomorrow's professional must be adept at cost-effective strategies that serve large numbers of students while also improving the quality of the experience. No longer will we be able to only serve those students who chose to engage with us. Instead, we must shift the scope of our work toward a quality engagement for every student. I believe this is a needed and increasingly essential new vision for student services moving forward.

In a similar fashion, the use of social medial and leveraging forums like Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter have become tools for scaling-up connections with students. Today and tomorrow's student affairs professional can provide leadership for our universities and academic communities on how to best use these forums to engage students. These forums will allow us to not only engage students we have traditionally connected with but will enable us to scale up our connection with numerous other students who do not utilize the traditional delivery of services and support. I am certain our expertise in the social media realm can be used to lead support in training faculty and improving instruction in and out of the classroom.

Our Future

The future of student affairs work will be heavily dependent on our ability to traverse the shifting landscape in higher education. Now more than ever this generation of new student affairs professionals must be encouraged to explore new paradigms, imagine new mental models and deploy new innovations. There are a variety of philosophical and pragmatic frameworks that can offer alternatives ways of thinking about the future of our profession.

Below are a few alternative frameworks worth additional exploration:

- Academic Mission v. Learning Enterprise: I believe in the coming years the building pressure of accountability combined with increasing rates of tuition, poor graduation rates and global competition for jobs will place pressure on the academic mission. I believe this pressure will force institutions to embrace a broader learning enterprise paradigm. For student affairs professionals we will have an opportunity to shift away from the mantra that the "academic mission is preeminent" and embrace a new principle in which the "learning enterprise is paramount". This paradigm shift will have significant implications for how and where staff spends their time.

- Why Parity with Faculty?: It is my belief that student affairs professionals place too high of a premium on partnerships with our academic colleagues. While there have been decades of literature focusing on the importance of faculty collaborations and partnerships, in some cases it appears we are attempting to reach parity with faculty in the hopes of finding legitimacy of our work. While faculty partnerships may offer supplemental academically-based learning outcomes, I firmly believe student affairs professionals can lead the development of a high quality collegiate experience with and without faculty participation. Bottom-line, I am not ready to release the relevancy of student affairs purely on whether or not academic colleagues acknowledge our value. In fact, I believe student affairs professionals are far more nimble than our academic colleagues to create highly engaging and relevant learning experiences for today's student. Academics do not define the collegiate experience nor should they determine the value-add of student affairs and the work we do to transform students' lives.

- Capitalizing on Actionable Intelligence: As student affairs graduates you have been trained well through a variety of assistantships, practicums and curricula. Regardless of your area of emphasis or position, I am convinced knowing how to utilize actionable intelligence on your campus will be essential as you develop your leadership skills. Higher education institutions are often data rich but information poor. Institutions are frequently gathering a variety of data and evidence as it relates to the student experience (i.e. National Survey on Student Engagement, Noel-Levitz Student Satisfaction Inventory, Strength Quest, etc.). The utility of

data is more than just collecting it. To capitalize on the data and information we must 1) analyze trends, patterns; 2) convert data to useful information; 3) disseminate it broadly and; 4)act on it. The regular use of actionable intelligence must be the new normal and part of how we do business in providing the very best service and support to our students.

Summary

I have an unwavering belief and equally steadfast vision that tomorrow's student affairs practitioners are poised to lead our American higher education institutions. As emerging new professionals SAHE graduates are wonderfully positioned to transform our profession and offer new solutions for tomorrow's higher education challenges.

Beyond gaining a critical understanding of functional areas, practices and theory in graduate coursework, new professionals have a unique advantage of being exposed to a rapidly changing collegiate environment. Unlike the CSU SAHE graduates of 20 years ago, today's champions of the profession are poised to not only advance the evolution of Student Affairs but, in fact, dramatically influence and impact the entire learning enterprise as we know it.

In this article, I have attempted to raise questions about the relevancy of our theory, propose a new mental model for practice and offer considerations for future conversations. I am hopeful this narrative has stimulated and encouraged an alternative outlook as we welcome a new age of higher education.

In January 2011, Dr. Frank D. Sanchez was appointed as the Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs at the City University of New York (CUNY). Today, CUNY is the largest urban, public university in America serving over 540,000 students across 24 institutions.

For over 20 years, Dr. Frank D. Sanchez has worked to advance campus student services and policies aimed at increasing student success and degree completion. Prior to CUNY, Dr. Sanchez served as the CSAO and Associate Vice Chancellor at the University of Colorado Denver and Anschutz Medical Center. During his tenure, Dr. Sanchez led the development of several new functional areas as well as provided the primary leadership for consolidating all centralized student services at the Downtown Denver and Anschutz Medical Center campuses.

Dr. Sanchez has presented at numerous national conferences and is actively involved in several national boards including being selected in 2011 to the Bill and Melinda Gates Millennium Scholars Advisory Board, the Northeast Hispanic Scholarship Fund Advisory Board and in 2007 to the NASULGC/ AASCU National Taskforce on the Voluntary System of Accountability (VSA).

Dr. Sanchez holds a BA degree in Psychology with minors in Communication and Chicano Studies from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, a M.S. degree in Student Affairs and Higher Education from Colorado State University, and a Ph.D. in Higher Education Administration with a minor in Learning, Cognition and Instruction from Indiana University-Bloomington. Dr. Sanchez is also an alumni of the Institute for Educational Management program at Harvard University.

References

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Undocumented Student Access to Higher Education: Overview of State and Federal Legislation

Christina A. Wright Fields
Indiana University

Abstract

Undocumented students experience numerous issues including: lack of documentation, economic disadvantages, academic preparedness, family language barriers, and marginalization. Student affairs professionals are vested with the responsibility for assisting and supporting the academic and social success of all students, including those from undocumented families. Student affairs professionals should be aware of the laws and policies impacting this population, thus allowing them to better assist these individuals and become advocates. Through a historical and legal analysis of the DREAM (Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors) Act this article addresses relevant court cases, DREAM Act creation and impact, and state legislation involvement or response to the DREAM Act (i.e., California AB540 legislation). The article then briefly describes future implications for higher education and the larger society as a whole. Lastly, the article concludes with recommendations of how to tailor current student affairs practices to meet undocumented students' needs.

Keywords: DREAM Act, IIRIRA, postsecondary access, undocumented students

Issues surrounding undocumented immigrants continue to be a highly political debate in the United States, but most of society continues to ignore the status of undocumented children. Currently, there are approximately 10.3 million undocumented immigrants of all ages living in the U.S. representing the following countries and regions: 57% Mexico, 24% Other Latin America, 9% Asia, 6% Europe and Canada, and 4% Africa (Passel, 2004). In the United States, there are 1.8 million undocumented children under the age of 18 (Passel, 2006). In five states – Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada and Texas – at least one in ten students in grades kindergarten through 12 have parents who are undocumented immigrants (Passel & Cohn, 2009).

Approximately 65,000 undocumented students graduate each year from U.S. high schools and about 13,000 undocumented students enroll in post-secondary education annually (Gonzales, 2009). Undocumented students are often referred to as illegal, illegal aliens, tax residents, and unauthorized (Kobach, 2006; Migration Policy Institute, 2006). These terms can be perceived as rude, negative, or offensive. This paper will utilize the preferred terms undocumented student or undocumented immigrant as a display of respect for undocumented students. Undocumented refers to foreign nationals who entered the United States without inspection or with fraudulent documents or entered legally as a nonimmigrant but then violated the terms of his or her status and remained in the United States without authorization (National Immigration Law Center, 2011). An undocumented student is a student who is not a legal resident in the U.S., meaning he or she does not have a visa or green card, or is not a naturalized or U.S. born citizen (Bernal & Chuan-Ru Chen, 2010).

Challenges Faced by Undocumented Students

Undocumented students are trapped in a legal paradox in the United States because they have the right to a primary and secondary school education but encounter uncertainty upon graduation from high school (Gonzales, 2009). Numerous undocumented students have the academic preparation to pursue higher education, but their economic and social mobility continue to be restricted by their undocumented status. Undocumented children are often referred to as the "1.5 generation" because they fit somewhere between the first and second generations (Gonzales, 2009). They are not considered first-generation immigrants because they did not choose to migrate, but they do not belong to the second generation because they were not born in the United States.

Most college-bound undocumented students have lived in the United States most of their lives, attended K-12 schooling in the U.S., speak English and view themselves as Americans (their primary identification is informed by their experiences growing up in the United States), excelled academically in high school, and desire to enroll in post-secondary education (Gonzales, 2009; Olivas, 2009). Many undocumented students are unaware that they are undocumented until they begin the college process and realize they are unable to pursue postsecondary education due to cost barriers and admission challenges. These barriers include their ineligibility to receive most state aid and any federal assistance, as well as their inability to work while in school (Olivas, 2010). Federal and state legislation as well as institutional policies influence undocumented students' access to higher education. The federal government has primary deference over immigration issues, whereas education is generally understood as the domain of individual state governments.

Relevant Court Cases

The Supreme Court ruled in *Plyler v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 202 (1982) to grant access to a K-12 public education for undocumented children, and recognized them as future members of society, therefore entitling them to educational benefits. In this case, Texas legislature sanctioned a statute which withheld state funds from local school districts that educated undocumented children and authorized local school districts the authority to deny enrollment in public schools to undocumented children. Supporters of this legislation believed undocumented children should not be allowed to take advantage of the same educational opportunities offered for U.S. citizens. The plaintiffs, undocumented school-aged children, challenged the statute on equal protection grounds. The United States Supreme Court rejected the claim that "illegal aliens" were a suspect class, thus affirming the lower court's decision that the revision violated the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). The Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution prohibits states from denying any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws (U.S. Const. amend. XIV. § 2). States must treat individuals in the same manner as others in similar conditions and circumstances (U.S. Const. amend. XIV. § 2). A resident or non-resident is entitled to the same protection under the laws that a citizen is entitled to, meaning he or she is expected to obey the laws and receive equal protection of those laws.

In addition, the Court overruled the claim that "illegal aliens" were a suspect class because "unlike most of the classifications that had been recognized as suspect, entry into this class, by virtue of entry into this country, was the product of voluntary action" (*Plyer v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 219, 1982). The Court affirmed the lower court's decision, indicating that if the state desired to deny the plaintiffs, undocumented school-aged children, the free public education offered to other children residing within its borders, then the denial had to be justified by showing that it furthered some substantial interest. This substantial interest mentioned in this

court case had to be in accordance with immigration law, with respect to duties and rights of "aliens," meaning the state had to prove that the absolute deprivation of education was the result of the inability to pay for the desired benefit (*Plyer v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 219, 1982).

Another case, *Toll v. Moreno*, 458 U.S. 1 (1982) involved a G-4 non-immigrant student who desire to establish postsecondary residency in the state of Maryland for in-state tuition purposes. Individuals with a G-4 non-immigrant visa are officers or employees of international organizations or an immediate family member. The Court ruled that the University of Maryland could not discriminate against nonimmigrant students in establishing in-state tuition and fees. The University of Maryland's policy denying nonimmigrants the opportunity to pay reduced, in-state tuition constituted a violation of the Supremacy Clause (*Toll v. Moreno*, 1982). University of Maryland's policy indicated citizens and immigrants could obtain in-state status, but undocumented immigrants could not, which was considered a violation of the Supremacy Clause of the U.S. Constitution (Salsbury, 2003). The Supremacy Clause implies that any federal laws – even a regulation of a federal agency – trumps any conflicting state law (U.S. Const. art. VI, cl. 2). The *Toll v. Moreno* case reaffirmed the federal government is preeminent in matters of immigration policy and Congress does not have the authority to regulate state benefits for postsecondary education (Salsbury, 2003).

States may not enact "alienage" classifications, except in limited cases of political and government functions, or where the states are given such jurisdiction as a feature of the federal scheme (Olivas, 2004). One of the first cases applying *Plyler's* ruling to postsecondary education was, *Leticia A. v. Board of Regents*, No. 588982-4 (Superior Court, County of Alameda, May 7, 1985). In this case, the Court reaffirmed Toll v. Moreno by stating "education code precluding undocumented students from establishing residence" (*Leticia A. v. Board of Regents*, 1985) was unconstitutional and undocumented students could establish residency for tuition purposes for both University of California and California State University systems of higher education.

The *Plyler* case was almost thirty years ago, but undocumented students continue to encounter hardships regarding access to higher education. On October 20, 2011, the Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) filed *Ruiz v. Robinson and Brogan*, U.S.D.C. (S.D. FL) (Case No. 1:11-cv-23776-KMM), which would overturn state statute and require Florida to extend its in-state tuition rates to citizen residents who qualify, regardless of their parents' undocumented status (Olivas, 2012). This class action suit undertakes a dual legal track because the SPLC challenged Florida policy under the Fourteenth Amendment's Equal Protection Clause and also makes a federal preemption claim under the Supremacy Clause (Noncitizens of the world, 2011). Undocumented children are being treated differently than their peers based on their parents' immigration status, which violate the Equal Protection Clause. SPLC argued that Florida's attempt to deny residency to the children of undocumented immigrants "represents an impermissible attempt to regulate immigration – a field squarely within the exclusive domain of the federal government" (Noncitizens of the world, 2011, Florida Tuition Inequality section, para. 2).

Immigration Challenges

A provision enacted in 1996 as part of the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigration Responsibility Act (IIRIRA) prohibits states and localities from granting undocumented students post-secondary education benefits on the basis of state residence, unless equal benefits are made available to all U.S. citizens. Kobach (2006), a DREAM Act opponent and IIRIRA advocate, contended that "allowing in state tuition for 'illegal aliens' encourages the violation of federal immigration law and is unfair to legal 'aliens' and out-of-state U.S.

citizens" (Kobach, 2006, p. 1). IIRIRA emphasizes that state residency is a state benefit to be determined by states. At the time the bill was created, Congress assumed no state would be interested in losing extra revenue from out-of-state students, thus this provision would ensure undocumented immigrants would not be rewarded with a taxpayer-subsidized college education (Kobach, 2006). Undocumented students were perceived as receiving in-state tuition rates at the expense of taxpayers, and that this gift was costing taxpayers a great deal of money especially at a time when higher education costs continued to escalate. IIRIRA requires undocumented immigrants to pay international or out-of-state tuition rates at colleges and universities, which has the effect of making postsecondary education unattainable for many students.

Recently, several legislations were introduced in Congress to address the undocumented student population by repealing the IIRIRA provision, which would permit some undocumented students to become U.S. legal permanent residents (LPRs). In August 2001, Senators Orrin Hatch, R-UT, and Richard Durbin, D-IL, introduced S.1291, the Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors (DREAM) Act. The DREAM Act was created to provide a pathway for young people who have been in the U.S. for five years or more and are at least 12 years old on the date of enactment to start conditional permanent residency and then work towards other types of residency. The DREAM Act would allow qualifying youth to become eligible to adjust from conditional to permanent legal resident status if they: a) graduate from a two-year college, b) finish at least two years of a four degree, or c) serve at least two years in the U.S. military, during a six-year period (Migration Policy Institute, 2006). On December 18, 2010, the Senate voted against the DREAM Act.

IIRIRA's advocates never imagined that some states might develop other avenues around this provision. In June 2001, Texas became the first state to enact a statute (Senate Bill 1528) to allow undocumented students to receive state resident tuition through the IIRIRA and Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Act (PRWORA) (TEX. EDUC. CODE ANN. §54.052). Numerous states followed suit, and have enacted or revised various statutes to support undocumented students' pursuit of higher education. Texas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico are some of the only states allowing residency for in-state tuition as well as state financial aid for undocumented students (Drachman, 2006).

The DREAM Act has been perceived by some as creating a massive independent amnesty by developing a wide path to citizenship for any undocumented immigrant (Kobach, 2006). Many states have opposed the DREAM Act by enacting statutes or policies to prevent undocumented students from receiving resident tuition, and a few states have completely prohibited their enrollment (e.g., Alabama, Indiana, and Ohio) (Olivas, 2012). In June 2008, South Carolina became the first state to pass state legislation that banned undocumented students from attending public colleges (S.C. CODE ANN. § 59-103-430, 2009).

Future Implications for Higher Education and Society

Undocumented students encounter numerous challenges and obstacles during their pursuit of higher education. They often experience the "triple minority status" which encompasses lack of documentation, ethnic origin, and economic disadvantages (Albrecht, Kim, & Rincon, 2006). Undocumented students often feel marginalized and experience life as a "hidden member" of society (Bernal & Chuan-Ru Chen, 2004). The primary obstacle for a college-bound undocumented student is financially-based on current government policies. Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 prohibits undocumented students from receiving federal aid for postsecondary education (Drachman, 2006). Without financial aid, the costs of enrolling in postsecondary education can become prohibitive for undocumented students and

their families. Undocumented students are often referred to as an "invisible" group because they rarely receive services targeted towards their specific needs (Albrecht et al., 2006).

Student affairs professionals can tailor their practices to meet undocumented students' needs by becoming more informed and prepared about state and federal legislation and institutional policies. Practitioners should become scholars and share their knowledge with others by challenging colleagues to look at multiple sides of the issue. In addition, practitioners should become culturally competent and avoid using offensive, rude, or insensitive terminology regarding undocumented students (Undocumented students, n.d.). Practitioners can identify allies both on campus and in the community to assist undocumented students and families. Student affairs professionals can encourage students to establish organizations, safe zones, or forums to serve as resource for undocumented students and their allies. Because of the political nature of the status of undocumented students, practitioners should work to avoid politics and simply strive to include and support this unique population.

Student affairs professionals can become advocates for undocumented students' legal and political rights to enroll in postsecondary education. Undocumented students are protected under the federal law regarding student records. Practitioners should be aware that the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) require that educational student records be kept confidential (Bernal & Chuan-Ru Chen, 2010). Information that may be in school records regarding a student's undocumented status must be kept confidential. Disclosure should be made only after parental consent or based upon express authority provided under FERPA.

Undocumented students continue to only have access to K-12 education; however, they have not received a pathway to enroll in higher education. Numerous states have enacted statutes to qualify undocumented students for in-state tuition, but this is only a partial solution to the larger problem. Salsbury (2003) reaffirmed, "the removal of educational barriers for college-bound undocumented students is not complete without financial aid, work authorization and immigration relief" (p. 490). These barriers exist primarily at the federal level, thus states can only do so much to support access to higher education for undocumented students. Governments must now determine whether a college education is necessary in today's world as basic literacy was in 1982 when Plyler v. Doe was decided (Drachman, 2006).

Student affairs practitioners should be invested in the education and development of all students. Student affairs practitioners should understand the policies and laws that influence undocumented students' experiences. Increasing access to higher education for undocumented students is "the key to providing future opportunities, success, and stability to both undocumented students and the communities in which they live" (Salsbury, 2003, p. 490). Along with these policies and laws, student affairs practitioners should be cognizant of admission, tuition, and financial aid policies at the institutional, state, and federal levels. Lastly, institutional missions need to reinforce social justice ideas to communicate clearly to faculty, staff, and students that serving undocumented students' academic and social needs are components of achieving equity in higher education (Huber & Malagon, 2007).

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U.S. Const. art. VI, cl. 2.

Disruptive Behavior Disorders: Precursors to Problems for College Students

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Abstract

This paper provides an overview of Disruptive Behavior Disorders (DBD) in the context of higher education. Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) and Conduct Disorder (CD) comprise DBDs, and are fairly common diagnoses in children and young adults. High comorbidity rates exist between DBDs and other disorders commonly seen at institutions of higher education, including ADHD, anxiety, and depression. The paper concludes with implications for student affairs professionals. Although DBDs are not commonly diagnosed for traditional college-aged students, a better understanding of DBDs and their effect on students' past and current struggles will help student affairs professionals to better serve students.

Keywords: Conduct Disorder (CD), Disruptive Behavior Disorders (DBD), Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD)

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) and Conduct Disorder (CD) make up the family of disorders known as Disruptive Behavior Disorders (DBD). The two diagnoses share very similar symptoms, and can lead to similar outcomes when left untreated. They are also found to occur at high comorbidity rates with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), depression, and anxiety disorders. While these are two diagnoses most commonly reserved for children and adolescents and may seem irrelevant when considering the typical age of a college student, these disorders can be significant indicators of future concerns for students once they reach college. Additionally, their high comorbidity rates with other mental health disorders common for college students makes recognition of DBDs extremely important in learning how to best work with and serve the student. Studies have shown that "symptoms of ODC [ODD]…may disrupt the formation of key relationships with employers, romantic partners, and friends" (Leadbeater, Thompson, & Gruppuso, 2012, p. 720). Students with DBDs may also struggle to retain knowledge and skills from their primary education necessary to their success in higher education, basic skills that are introduced and developed throughout primary and secondary school. This again makes awareness of DBDs important for student affairs professionals in understanding students' academic, as well as personal, struggles.

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD)

ODD is fairly common as a diagnosis for children and adolescents, and is "one of the most prevalent disorders of childhood and one of the most common reasons for referral of young children to mental health clinics" (Keenan, 2012, p. 352). Along with having symptoms of its own, ODD has high comorbidity with other common disorders like ADHD, anxiety, depression, mood disorders, and learning disabilities (Poulton, 2010; Fritz, 2012; Leadbeater et al., 2012). While ODD can occur on its own, studies have shown it most frequently appears as a comorbid condition, particularly with ADHD. As many as 80% of children diagnosed with ODD also fit the diagnostic criteria for ADHD, making it particularly relevant when we think of students coming to college with ADHD who may also have past negative experiences

with authority exacerbated by their hyperactivity (Poulton, 2010). Leadbeater et al. (2012) also conducted a study on how anxiety, depression, and ODD develop in the transition from adolescence to adulthood. The study found a particular strength in the relationship between ODD and depression, a common ailment on campuses nationwide that affects not only the individual suffering from depression, but those around them as well. While ODD is most commonly researched in its comorbidity relationship to other disorders, it has its own set of distinct symptoms.

Symptoms

The symptoms of ODD include a long list of potential behavioral and emotional issues. These symptoms are part of a pattern of defiant and hostile behavior directed against authority figures (Fritz, 2012). The pattern must occur for a six month period of time and must interfere with the individual's ability to function on a daily basis to reach an ODD diagnosis. The symptoms can be distinguished as emotional and behavioral in nature. Symptoms may include expressions of anger, irritability, spitefulness, and resentment, as evidenced by temper tantrums, being easily annoyed by others, frequent anger and resentment, mean and hateful speech, and a generally spiteful attitude (Fritz, 2012). Behavioral symptoms manifest as constant arguing, particularly with adults, active defiance of rules, blaming others for his or her own mistakes, and revenge-seeking behavior (Fritz, 2012). These symptoms may be particularly noticeable at home or in school, but will generally interfere with a child or adolescent's social life in most capacities.

Conduct Disorder (CD)

While ODD is mostly associated with younger children, CD is often considered the next step in the natural progression of ODD if it remains untreated or continues to worsen in spite of treatment. Rowe (2010) described CD as "a pattern of antisocial behavior in which the individuals fail to respect the rights of others or major societal norms" (p. 195). It may be considered a more serious or damaging form of ODD, in which individuals frequently get in trouble and have a hard time establishing positive relationships, often playing the role of the bully at school (Rowe, 2012). Most research has shown that CD is difficult to successfully treat. Due to the way the symptoms manifest and the often-violent behavior associated with the disorder, many individuals diagnosed with CD become involved in the legal system at an early age. This has great implications for society, as 40% of children with CD develop antisocial personality disorder as adults, a disorder strongly associated with criminal behavior (Rowe, 2012).

Symptoms

Some symptoms of CD have already been mentioned – bullying and inability to develop positive social relations. While CD can share many of the symptoms of ODD, it is typically much more behavioral in nature, and is marked by "more severe conduct problems that emerge later in development than ODD" (Humphreys, Aguirre, & Lee, 2012, p. 370). The diagnosis of CD depends on four main criteria: "aggression to people or animals, destruction of property, deceitful behavior, and rule-breaking or defiance" (Jeter, 2010, p. 32). The symptoms, which may fall under any one of the aforementioned categories, must occur in multiple settings on a consistent basis for twelve months in order to successfully diagnose the condition. In general, individuals with CD can be described as cruel, hostile, and/or manipulative, and while many of the emotional components may be similar to ODD, the emotional aspects of the disorder are not considered when it comes to diagnosis.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

While both of these disorders are diagnosed before a student ever enters college, the research demonstrates the great impact DBDs have on students' ability to succeed and transition to college socially, emotionally, academically, and otherwise. DBDs are powerful predictors of future psychiatric conditions – Keenan (2012) cites a study that found the presence of ODD in children and adolescents predicted depression in adults better than depression in children and adolescents. Another study concluded that "ODD and conduct disorder (CD) were the only childhood disorders that predicted every adult disorder" (Keenan, p. 352). DBDs' comorbidity with depression is also extremely relevant as we interact with and work to support students struggling with depression. ADHD clearly affects the many students who come to college already on stimulant medication as part of their treatment plan, and academically, it has some startling implications. Not only does it affect students' ability to cope with the challenges brought on by their DBD in a college setting, but research has shown that ADHD and ODD impair working and long-term memory (Rhodes, Park, Seth, & Coghill, 2012). All of these factors demonstrate that a better understanding of DBDs could only serve to benefit student affairs professionals as they strive to better serve their students, particularly those who are struggling with mental health issues.

ODD as a Predictor of Depression

An understanding of ODD as a reliable predictor of adult issues would allow student affairs professionals valuable insight into the histories of students and how they may have arrived at their current situation. Keenan (2012) states "childhood ODD is stable and predictive of poor psychiatric outcomes" and even goes on to say "ODD is a gateway to many forms of adolescent and adult psychopathology" (p. 352). The serious mental health concerns student affairs practitioners face on their campuses include depression and anxiety, both of which are strongly predicted in adults by ODD (Leadbeater et al., 2012).

According to the study by Leadbeater et al. (2012), ODD during the transition from adolescence to adulthood is fueled by depression and vice versa, as individuals struggle to socially acclimate due to their disruptive and defiant behaviors. In a cyclical manner, "increases in the levels of depressive symptoms were associated with increases in symptom levels of both anxiety and ODS [ODD] in young adulthood" (Leadbeater et al., 2012, p. 727). While DBDs themselves can be mental health concerns as students enter higher education, they also act as strong predictors and exacerbators of other serious conditions. As such, a basic understanding of DBDs can be indispensable when addressing any number of other disorders.

Comorbidity of DBDs and Anxiety

Anxiety is a common disorder that often arises for college students due to new social and academic circumstances. While we know these factors to be contributors, understanding DBDs as past and current contributors can provide a more comprehensive understanding of a student's situation. In childhood, ODD and anxiety are strongly linked and forms of externalizing problems – manifesting often as ODD or CD – frequently precede adult anxiety (Leadbeater et al., 2012). These two disorders may interact in different ways depending on individual variation from student to student, but the study points out that "anxiety may fuel symptoms of ODS [ODD] … as they [youth] resist increased demands for independent actions that are expected in this period of development" (Leadbeater et al., p. 727-28).

As students come to college, they often experience anxiety around decision-making and may feel pressure from family, peers, and other authority figures. On top of these transitional

struggles, a study conducted on the comorbidity of DBDs, anxiety, and ADHD revealed youth who experience ADHD and anxiety simultaneously are much more likely to demonstrate higher rates of DBDs (Humphreys et al., 2012). Acknowledging the relationship DBDs may have with other serious disorders is vital to understanding them, but it is perhaps even more important to recognize DBDs for the implications they may have on some of the more chronic and widespread disorders found on college campuses. By better understanding DBDs, student affairs professionals may discover more effective and comprehensive ways to address anxiety, depression, ADHD, and other disorders.

DBDs and ADHD in Academic Success

While not enough is known about the relationship between DBDs and ADHD, a strong relationship between the two has been clearly established. DBDs are the most commonly diagnosed comorbid conditions in individuals with ADHD (Rhodes et al., 2012). It is known that ADHD affects an individual's ability to focus in the classroom, and DBDs can be strongly correlated to the hyperactivity component of ADHD and an inability to control impulses. On a fairly basic level, these two disorders can create a challenging academic experience for a student. However, one study found "ADHD and ODD have an additive effect on memory functioning...those with ADHD+ODD will also be more consistently, and more severely, impaired" (Rhodes et al., 2012, p. 135). That is to say, to have ADHD alone affects memory, but to have ADHD and ODD concurrently creates a memory impairment that is even worse. If only acknowledging ADHD, a student affairs professional would only understand part of the struggle of that given student.

The aforementioned study confirms the true significance of awareness of DBDs by demonstrating the fact that understanding ADHD alone is not enough to fully comprehend the experience of a student. The comorbidity of these two disorders has a cumulative effect that actually impairs the working and long-term memory of a student. Not only will this inhibit a student's ability to succeed as an active participant in a college classroom, but it is also indicative of the amount of knowledge and number of skills the student is able to retain from previous education. Without those skills, it becomes increasingly difficult for students to fully succeed in an institute of higher education. This may even impact how we view test-taking and what is considered when admitting students to colleges and universities. Students with ADHD can often receive helpful accommodations if they are able to create a learning plan with their primary schools. However, recognizing that DBDs combine with ADHD to create a significantly more inhibitive situation for a student may affect the way tests are administered, or perhaps even the way test scores are read and understood.

Conclusion

Students' transitions to and through college can be trying. Those years comprise a "particularly important time of life when mental health and behavioral problems can disrupt stage-salient transitions in education, employment, and romantic relationships" (Leadbeater et al., 2012, p. 719). According to Kitzrow (2003), 5% of college students drop out due to psychiatric disorders, with an estimated additional 4.29 million people who may have graduated if not otherwise dealing with psychiatric issues. There are four types of disorders that are considered "significant predictors of failure," and CD is one of them (Kitzrow, 2003, p. 170). In looking at the symptoms of each disorder and how they manifest, it is easy to see how students with DBDs coming to college may struggle in particular to adjust to the new requirements and stresses of college life.

Increasing awareness of DBDs in the student affairs profession would improve the quality of services provided on campus. Further research on the impact of ODD and CD on the college student experience would provide more insight into exactly how the disorders may affect students' ability to succeed. Additionally, awareness of ODD, along with other common mental health disorders like ADHD and anxiety disorders, should be incorporated into trainings and professional development opportunities. Although current research does not inform our understanding of the importance of DBDs on current college students' experiences, we can understand the effect on past academic experience as it relates to academic, and emotional, preparedness for the transition to college.

Even if they have managed to successfully recover from the disorder by the time they reach the university setting, ODD and CD have major impacts on students. Without an understanding of DBDs and their effect on other disorders as well as the development of students, student affairs professionals will not be able to see the entire picture, and are then themselves inhibited from fully serving students to the best of their ability. Mental health disorders and students' need for assistance has skyrocketed in recent years, and if student affairs practitioners wish to continue to act as the foremost authority on students, they must learn more about mental health disorders and how they impact students in their daily lives. Only then will student affairs practitioners be able to see the full picture of what it means to understand and serve students.

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Examining the Influence of Residential College Participation on Student Academic Success and Persistence

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Abstract

This study explored the effects of participation in a residential college living/ learning program as well as a themed-floor living/learning program at a large research, private, urban institution on students' cumulative GPAs at graduation and likelihood of earning a degree from the institution. The two residential living/learning program models studied varied in size, programmatic structure, curricular integration, amount and types of faculty presence in community, frequency of study-faculty interactions, and staff/ faculty training and development. After controlling for covariates, a statistical trend was noted for students in the residential college program being more likely to have higher cumulative GPAs at graduation than students not participating in any residential living/learning program; themed-floor participants were significantly more likely to obtain higher cumulative GPAs at graduation than students who did not participate in any residential living/learning program. Furthermore, students who participated in the residential college program had statistically greater odds of receiving a degree from the institution in four years than students who did not participate in any residential living/ learning program. No statistical differences were found between themed-floor participants and those who did not participate in a residential living/learning program on the odds of receiving a degree from the institution in four years. Implications for practice and research are discussed.

Keywords: academic success, college student success, faculty, persistence, residence hall, residential college, residential life, retention

Over the past three decades, colleges and universities have been called upon to overhaul the educational experience of undergraduate students. Several reports, such as Reinventing Undergraduate Education (1998), An American Imperative (1993), and The Student Learning Imperative (1994) have been sharply critical of higher education institutions for failing to develop the whole student and not providing holistic learning experiences in and out of the classroom. Citing grim measurements of nationally-declining college student success rates (e.g., persistence/retention rates, student learning, critical thinking skills, personal development, satisfaction with institution, etc.), these reports urged higher education leaders to swiftly devise innovative interventions to address these problems.

In response, institutional leaders sought to create seamless learning environments for students. The underlying premise: by creating engaging on-campus residential experiences, built around partnerships between faculty and student affairs professionals, students would make connections with faculty and peers during in-class and out-of-class learning experiences and thereby thrive. And the theory was borne out: in numerous studies at institution after institution, researchers found that residential living/learning programs enhanced students' academic performance (GPA) (Blimling, 1988; Blimling & Schuh, 1981; Kanoy & Bruhn,

1996), critical thinking skills (Kuh, 1996; Lenning & Ebbers, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1981) and the development of communication and time management skills (Kuh, 1996; Lenning & Ebbers, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1981; Pike, Schroeder, & Berry, 1996). Furthermore, students and faculty were found to interact more both in and out of the classroom on campuses with these programs, important factors in academic achievement and student-retention (Kanoy & Bruhn, 1996; Lenning & Ebbers, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1981; Pike, Schroeder, & Berry, 1996; Tinto & Goodsell-Love, 1993).

Among the most innovative of initiatives designed to help student success is the residential college. Within a residential college, faculty deliver instruction and reside in on-campus housing among their students, which provides a distinctive context for increasing the frequency and quality of student-faculty interaction-two important factors in helping students succeed (Blimling, 1988; Kanoy & Bruhn, 1996). Theoretically, the residential college is believed to have an impact on these dimensions by creating a niche community in which students live and learn alongside faculty and participate together in a shared educational experience (Hawkins, 1999; Hirt, 2006; Inkelas, Zeller, Murphy, & Hummel, 2006; Kuh et al., 2005; Michalak & Robert, 1981).

Previous studies show students who participate in residential living/learning programs, like the residential college examined for this study, demonstrated better academic performance, even after controlling for past performance and aptitude (e.g., Blimling, 1988; Kanoy & Bruhn, 1996). Furthermore, evidence has consistently shown that these programs demonstrate positive impact on other dimensions relevant to degree attainment, such as higher levels of interactions with faculty, peer interactions, academic integration; overall academic self-efficacy; level of involvement in beneficial college activities; academic transition to college; enjoyment of academic challenges; openness to different perspectives; satisfaction with residential living; time spent on academic work; and level of involvement in community service (Pike, Schroeder, & Berry, 1996).

Method

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of participating in a residential college on cumulative grade point average and four-year degree attainment. The quasi-experimental research design included a treatment group (i.e., residential college participants), a comparison group (i.e., non-residential college participants who participated in another living-learning community) and a control group (i.e., participants who neither participate in the residential college nor in another living-learning community) of all first-year residential students from the 2007-2008 school year at a large research, private, urban university. Members of both the treatment and comparison group applied to both programs using the same application, allowing the study's design to account for self-selection.

It was expected student characteristics (i.e., race; gender; parent income; SAT score; high school GPA; and major) would exert influence on cumulative grade point average and four-year degree attainment (Johnson, 1994; Mallette & Cabrera, 1991; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). For this reason, the researcher included these variables to isolate the amount of variance explained by living environment on cumulative grade point average and four-year degree attainment, respectively. These data were not self-reported by students; permissions were obtained to access these data from institutional records.

Context of the Study

The residential college model used for this study was implemented at a large research, private, urban institution. Starting in 2003, the institution began offering a residential living/learning

program called "Explorations" which featured interdisciplinary, interest-based themed floor communities located throughout its various first-year residence halls. Each themed Explorations floor is comprised of approximately 30 students and has a designated full-time faculty affiliate, who plans bimonthly program excursions and has frequent informal interactions with the students on the floor; faculty affiliates are selected for the role based on their desire to work with a themed floor of particular interest. Once the Explorations themed-floor program was well established, the institution then expanded its residential living/learning programs to include a "residential college" option in a designated residence hall. The residential college is situated in the university's smallest residence hall where all 221 residents are participants of the program. To gain admittance into the residential college, or onto an Explorations themed floor, incoming first-year students submit a common, web-based application consisting of general short-answer essays describing the student's potential contributions to residential community development along with a ranking of his or her interest in available themed Explorations floors. The application for the residential college and Explorations program is one-in-the-same, and nearly all students who apply to be in the residential college also apply to be on one, or several, Explorations floors; in cases of overlapping applications, priority is given to placement in the residential college.

Although the application process is similar for residential college students and Explorations students, the experiences of residential college participants vary greatly from those of their Explorations counterparts. Particular differences include accountability for participation in the residential college as well in the sheer volume of programmatic offerings, academic resources, and contact with faculty inside and outside of the classroom that residential college students actually experience. Once admitted, residential college students agree to be active participants in the program and to be assessed each semester a zero-credit Pass/Fail grade reflected on their academic transcripts for successfully meeting program requirements. Each semester, students receive a syllabus that outlines requirements for receiving a passing grade; passing consists of demonstrating active participation in a minimum number of faculty-planned activities, as well as several community service events and general social programs.

Analytic Sample

The analytic sample consisted of 2,722 participants. Thirty-six percent were male and 64% were female. Racial demographics were: 54% White; 23% Asian; 8% Hispanic of any race; 4% Black or African American; less than 1% American Indian or Alaska Native; less than 1% two or more races; and 10% race and ethnicity unknown. The median adjusted family income was $108,891; with the mean score reaching $139,164 (SD=$123,961). The mean high school GPA was 3.60; (SD=.28) while the median SAT score reached 1340 with a mean score of 1331 (SD=111).

Sixteen percent of respondents participated in the Explorations program; 6% participated in the Residential College program; and 78% participated in neither program. The median cumulative GPA at graduation was 3.56; with a mean of 3.52 (SD=.27). Seventy-eight percent of participants were awarded a degree from the institution within four years (SD=.41).

Variables

A series of analytic decisions were made, due to small cell counts that could possibly threaten stability. First, with cell counts of 8 and 3, students who identified as American Indian/Alaska Native and students who identified with two or more races, respectively, were excluded from analyses. Second, due to low cell counts for treatment by identified major, the researcher collapsed the variable for college major into two categories, with "0" = not Arts and Science and "1" = Arts and Science. In addition to these decisions, all continuous variables were

standardized so that estimates could be interpreted as effect sizes. A one-unit change in the independent variable yielded a "b" standard deviation change in the dependent variable.

Analyses

For each analysis, descriptive and exploratory analyses were performed. Of particular note was the low, albeit significant, correlation between high school grade point average and SAT score. Residual diagnostics confirmed that these variables did not share too much explanatory power in predicting each criterion: cumulative grade point average and four-year degree attainment, respectively.

For cumulative grade point average, an ordinary least-squares (linear) regression was conducted using the outcome variable, standardized cumulative GPA at graduation. Independent variables included type of residential learning environment (i.e., residential college participation, Explorations participation, and no participation) and the control variables, including gender; race; standardized family income; standardized high school GPA; standardized SAT score; and major. Residual diagnostics were performed to ensure that regression assumptions were met.

For four-year degree attainment, a binary logistic regression was performed with the outcome variable degree receipt (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Independent variables included type of residential learning environment (i.e., residential college participation, Explorations participation, and no participation) and the control variables, including gender; race; standardized family income; standardized high school GPA; standardized SAT score; and major. In accordance with Hosmer and Lemeshow (2000), residual diagnostics were performed to ensure that statistical assumptions were met.

Results

This study attempted to determine what impact participation in the residential college program had on students' cumulative GPA at graduation as well as on the likelihood of receiving a degree in four years.

Cumulative Grade Point Average

When controlling for all variables , a statistical trend was noted for students in the residential college when compared to students who did not participate in any residential living/learning program such that residential college students reported higher cumulative GPAs at graduation ($B = .151$, $p < .076$). Furthermore, Explorations students were significantly more likely to have higher cumulative GPAs at graduation than students in the control group ($B = .125$, $p < .05$).

Four-year Degree Attainment

When controlling for all variables, the odds of receiving a degree within four years from the institution were significantly greater for students in the residential college than for non-participants ($B = .555$, $p < .05$). No significant difference in four-year degree achievement was found for Explorations students when compared to non-participants. See Table 1 for detailed regression results.

Limitations

Drawing generalizable conclusions from this data may be problematic because of the limitations of the study. This study focused on one large, private, urban institution, and findings may not be duplicable at other institutions. Additionally, analysis of only one graduated cohort was possible at the time the study was conducted; similar analysis of subsequent cohorts that have since graduated could help validate findings. Students in both the residential college program and the Explorations program self-selected to be in these learning communities. Caution

must be taken when comparing students in either of these programs with non-participants as students who choose to live in residential learning communities may be more apt to display higher levels of participation and satisfaction, and be more motivated overall as students.

Discussion

Broadly, this study attempted to address a problem of historical importance to American higher education, with the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of a specific residential college program. The growing demand for institutional accountability calls for more and different types of evidence of the benefits of educational programs, especially in the context of diminishing resources. Many institutions have either already invested substantially into residential colleges or are currently considering whether to focus resources on these programs as a means of maximizing student success (Hawkins, 1999; Hirt, 2006; Inkelas, Zeller, Murphy, & Hummel, 2006; Kuh et al., 2005; Michalak & Robert, 1981; Ryan, 1992). The current study adds to the discourse regarding the efficacy of these efforts by investigating residence college participation and its relationship with academic success indicators through the implementation of a quasi-experimental research design that utilized institutional records.

Results of this study indicate favorable outcomes for both types of residential living/learning programs analyzed, especially for the residential college model. A statistical trend was found with regard to residential college students having higher cumulative GPAs at graduation as well as being significantly more likely to receive a degree from the institution in four years than were their peers. The findings of this research are consistent with previous studies that show residential colleges and themed-floor communities create opportunities for students to become more academically and socially integrated into their institution (e.g., Blimling, 1988; Kanoy & Bruhn, 1996).

It is interesting to consider that, in this study, the findings for residential college students only approached significance with regard to cumulative GPA at graduation, but reached significance for degree attainment, and that cumulative GPA at graduation findings for Explorations students did reach significance while findings for degree attainment did not. These differences in findings for each program demonstrate that the two programs are positively impacting students in different ways (i.e., GPA vs. four-year degree attainment). While further investigation is warranted to determine what specific differences between these programs are influencing these different outcomes, administrators and faculty should be encouraged that both programs are achieving success in different ways – perhaps any residential living/learning program on a campus is better than none at all.

Residential colleges are becoming popular responses to institutional issues such as needing to improve retention, student satisfaction, and academic success. This study supports earlier findings that residential learning programs do positively impact students' GPAs and likelihood to receive a degree and that residential colleges, in particular, create environments favorable for positively influencing student retention. Participation in this residential college program was found to have a statistically trending impact on cumulative GPA at graduation and a significant impact on the likelihood of being awarded a degree from the institution within four years, suggesting positive effects of this particular program on students' academic and social integration into the institution.

The findings of this study encourage institutions to continue to consider a residential college as one possible intervention when attempting to address issues of student retention and academic success. Furthermore, when limited campus resources might not permit the implementation of this more advanced model, institutions should still be encouraged by the

promising impact of themed learning communities and other types of residential learning programs that still facilitate student and academic affairs collaboration and out-of-classroom interactions between and among students and faculty. Regardless of what level of program sophistication is permissible, practitioners and faculty should develop multiple ways to collaborate to assess these complicated social environments to determine program influence and constantly make adjustments to maximize impact. With mounting pressure to deliver on learning outcomes, the results of this study indicate that higher education institutions can assist students academically and positively impact retention by focusing on creating residential colleges and other learning communities that are denoted for deliberate facilitation of faculty and student interactions outside of class.

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Battlefields and Book Bags: Campus Ecology's Effect on Student Veterans

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Abstract

Veteran students are not a new population on United States college campuses and universities; however, their presence is becoming more recognized and appreciated as wars in Iraq and Afghanistan come to an end. This paper analyzes concepts from campus ecology to understand the importance of implementing veteran-friendly practices and what implications those practices have on the student veteran population. These practices are important for student affairs professionals to consider because the number of veterans on campus will continue to increase with the accessibility of the Post 9/11 GI Bill. Student affairs professionals must be prepared to assess campus practices and address needs by making changes to student services. Campus ecology provides a useful lens to explore how colleges and universities serve veterans because it reflects how students interact with their environment and how the environment affects development of students. Implementing veteran-friendly practices is one way to create a more conducive environment for the success of veteran students.

Keywords: best practices, campus ecology, student affairs, veteran-friendly, veterans

It is Brandon's first day of the next big step of his life. He has completely moved into his new "home," registered for classes, and purchased his books. Generally, Brandon has an idea of what major he wants to pursue and understands what he has to do to achieve his goal. He has even connected with a couple of people before the first day. The time has come to take his first step on campus; but to his dismay, Brandon feels lost, alone, and confused by the whole concept of college life. He has an incredible capacity to lead, serve, and navigate, but the college campus proves to be another battlefield, a university community. Brandon is a war veteran of the United States Army, one of the hundreds on campus. Many veterans step foot on college campuses to seek new purposes and to change the course of their lives-the same lives that were significantly altered by the effects of war (Branker, 2009). Emotionally mature, goal-oriented, mission-driven veterans are one of the United States' most available human resources and are critical to the collegiate environment (Lighthall, 2013).

As wars come to an end and the military downsizes, military veterans will flood campuses across the United States, leaving universities with the challenge of properly serving the unique needs of this population (Windome, Gulden, Laska, Fu, & Lusk, 2011). As the student veteran population becomes more recognized, campus ecology becomes increasingly important to consider. Campus ecology explains how students interact with their environment and provides a distinct foundation as to why veteran-friendly best practices are essential for student affairs professionals to incorporate into any university environment serving the United States' military personnel (Banning, 1978).

This paper connects concepts from campus ecology to the importance of implementing veteran-friendly practices on university and college campuses. First, an overview of the

characteristics of veteran students is introduced, as well as the benefits and challenges this population brings with them to campuses. The discussion continues by providing a brief introduction to the foundations of campus ecology, which explains the implications of considering veteran-friendly practices. Further discussion considers the impact student affairs professionals can have on student veterans' success and development in university life.

Student Veterans Overview

To serve veterans, it is important to know who they are, what they bring to campus, and what challenges they face. According to Brown and Gross (2011), a military student is "a student who is either a member of the active duty, reserves, National Guard, or retired military population, or spouse or primary dependent of one of these students" (p. 46). Compared to many college students, veterans are a distinct population. As most people will never understand the conditions veterans previously experienced-witnessing the death of comrades, being shot at, and lengthy deployments away from family (Branker, 2009)-it is important for universities to consider veteran student demographics. By definition, veterans are older adult students. They are typically transfer students, first generation, non-white, male, and usually suffer from physical or mental health issues (O'Herrin, 2011). Unlike many other student groups, veterans have vast experiences with living abroad, interacting with diverse populations, and overcoming intense adversity (O'Herrin, 2011).

The challenges veterans face daily on college campuses and in their personal lives are extensive. For example, they must be ready for deployment at all times, lack a coherent social network, suffer mental health issues, and often feel invisible (Brown & Gross, 2011). They are students from every race, gender, and socioeconomic status, making "student veteran" yet another complex, intersecting identity layer for student affairs professionals to consider. Accounting for the structured, regimented environment of the military, veterans find themselves struggling with the fluidity of college, lack of academic challenge in lower level courses (DiRamino, Ackerman, & Mitchell, 2008), and managing impatience with less mature peers in the classroom (Brown & Gross, 2011).

Many of today's veterans are also returning home having survived physical injuries from Operation Enduring Freedom and Operation Iraqi Freedom (Church, 2009). These conflicts leave them with the often invisible injuries of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) (Church, 2009). These medical conditions present themselves in various ways and differ greatly among individuals. Attention and concentration difficulties, information processing challenges, and sluggish reasoning are only a sample of the effects of PTSD and TBI, which make navigating the college atmosphere perplexing to many veterans (American Council on Education, 2009). Additionally, veterans who experience more combat exposure tend to show more PTSD symptoms and are thus more likely to be isolated on campus (Elliot, Gonzalez, & Larson, 2011). Typically, these veterans feel invisible (Lokken, Pfeffer, AcAuley, & Strong, 2009), seeking to blend in or take a quiet, neutral stance in the classroom (DiRamino et al., 2008). Furthermore, veterans are less likely to live on campus, get involved in campus activities, and ask for help when struggling (Livingston, Havice, Cawthon, & Flemming, 2011), which becomes increasingly troublesome when considering the increase in suicide rates among veterans (Church, 2009). With these numerous challenges, college campuses must respond in an efficient and effective way to promote the success of student veterans.

Campus Ecology

Every moment of every day, students are interacting with and perceiving the campus environment, which informs how they will behave in any given area. Fortunately, universities have some control over that environment by understanding the tenets of campus ecology (Banning, 1978). According to Banning and Kaiser (1974), campus ecology is "the study of the relationship between the student and the environment" which "incorporates the influence of environments on students and students on environments" (p. 4). This perspective considers a combination of psychological and physical elements to allow for the construction of spaces for optimal student growth and development (Strange & Banning, 2001; Walsh, 1978).

Campus ecology relies on six theoretical foundations to achieve the goals of safety, inclusion, involvement, and community building (Banning, 1978). The first tenet is behavior setting theory, which explains how "people tend to behave in highly similar ways in specific environments, regardless of their individual differences as a person" (Barker, 1968, p. 7). Secondly, the subculture approach proposes people will join subgroups aligning with their values and personal characteristics (Walsh, 1978). Next, personality types contribute by considering person-environment matches for proper student development (Walsh, 1978). Fourth, Need x Press = Culture theory explains how behavior is a result of the relationship between individuals and their environment (Stern, 1970). The fifth consideration is the social ecological approach. This suggests each environment has a unique and individual personality, just like people (Moos, 1979). Lastly, the transactional approach provides the perspective that people will seek the environments that will ultimately assist in achieving their ideal self (Pervin, 1968). Each approach provides a different lens to explain student veterans' interactions with their environment, and also explains the impact of veteran-friendly practices on student success.

The responsibility of academic and student affairs professionals, then, is to design specific environments so each student is able to find a place to call home on campus (Banning, 1980). Many of today's colleges and universities are designed with the traditional student in mind, excluding the many needs of a significant number of student populations, including student veterans (Emmer, 2013). In many instances, veterans are being told to fit in with the traditional college student mindset. In other words, veterans must translate their ways of understanding in order to participate in university life (Emmer, 2013). The benefit of a campus ecology approach is it allows colleges to adapt to students instead of the other way around (Banning & Kaiser, 1974).

Campus Ecology's Effect on Veterans

Because veterans have multiple intersecting identities and varying life experiences, many recommendations have been provided to serve student veterans' needs. Recently, more consideration has been given to veteran affairs on college campuses (Emmer, 2013; Livingston et al., 2009; McBain, Kim, Cook, & Shead, 2012), essentially explaining the foundations of campus ecology. Specific veteran-friendly practices have provided student affairs and academic professionals more guidance to improve their practice. The veteran-friendly distinction marks the "efforts made by individual campuses to identify and remove barriers to the educational goals of veterans, to create smooth transitions from military life to college, and to provide information about available benefits and services" (Lokken et al., 2009, p. 46). Unfortunately, many campus professionals are unaware of the number of veterans being served, and support from universities has come with much resistance, directly affecting veterans' perceptions of their college experience (Livingston et al., 2009; McBain et al., 2012). Many of the best

practices, however, can be executed with few outside resources, yet have a considerable impact on how veterans interact with the university environment.

According to the American Council on Education (2010), there are a significant number of best practices universities can incorporate into the campus environment. For example, campuses should train faculty and staff on veteran issues to increase the awareness of the unique issues possible while working with student veterans (McBain et al., 2012). It is not widely understood that veterans will rarely desire special attention or accommodations. Many would rather have faculty and staff appreciate their life circumstances (DiRamino et al., 2008), directly justifying the personality trait tenet of campus ecology (Walsh, 1978). When faculty and staff learn how to serve student veterans, the environment becomes more conducive to attend to veterans' character trait needs.

Subculture approach validates providing veterans with opportunities to connect with each other through veteran-specific organizations (Walsh, 1978). These organizations give an avenue for veterans to meet others with similar backgrounds, values, and goals, have a single point of contact, and participate in service opportunities (American Council on Education, 2010). Veterans often feel isolated on campus, thus providing social integration through peer mentoring, student organizations, or learning communities proves to be a beneficial addition to veteran services (American Council on Education, 2010).

Additionally, allowing veterans a designated space to feel comfortable to interact how they choose rationalizes the transactional approach to campus ecology (Pervin, 1968). The purposes of veteran centers are extensive and often have unparalleled benefits, like higher satisfaction, less dissonance, and the ability to move toward a more ideal self (Lokken et al., 2009; Pervin, 1968). These spaces serve as central locations for veterans to retrieve information, services, and resources, seek referrals to appropriate locations, and to interact with other veterans with similar circumstances (Branker, 2009). Furthermore, understanding the behavior setting approach ensures veterans have opportunities to succeed because behavior happening within a veteran center space can be better predicted (Barker, 1968).

Universities might also consider changing the name of their disability services office. Subculture approach of campus ecology supports this to help veterans identify with the assistance offered by connecting with their description of their personal characteristics (Walsh, 1978). While many campuses offer services to veteran students with disabilities, service members are less likely to seek accommodations to which they are entitled for numerous reasons, like language use (American Council on Education, 2010). Often veterans identify their injuries from war differently than how universities classify them. Most veterans will identify with the term "wounded" but not with the word "disabled," and many do not see mental health issues associated with PTSD, stress, and anxiety as a disability (Windome et al., 2011).

Significance to Student Affairs Professionals

Veteran-friendly best practices' impact on student veteran success is not clearly understood by many, because only a small percentage of the nation's population experience wartime (McBain et al., 2012). One critical aspect to consider when serving the nation's heroes is environmental fit. Integration into university life is directly related to how veterans feel in their surroundings, often due to connectedness to and significance of peer groups ("What Matters to Veterans," 2011). Peer groups coupled with a university striving to offer an intentional and holistic education for them, student veterans have the ability to make significant contributions to society by enhancing their own lives and the lives of those around them (Branker, 2009).

Student affairs professionals contribute to developing skills, abilities, and confidence of the student veteran population of student leaders through their practice.

Student affairs professionals are fundamental constituents to implementing veteran friendly practices, giving voices to veteran students, and continually customizing services based on veterans' needs. According to Reason and Broido (2011), there are seven values vital to the profession, two of which are altruism and human dignity. Student affairs professionals must be concerned with the welfare of others and the uniqueness of each individual. Considering campus ecology to support veteran-friendly practices is crucial to caring for the uniqueness of the veteran population. Additionally, providing and creating community is valued in the profession, which can be achieved through veteran organizations and designated spaces (Reason & Broido, 2011). Universities have the opportunity to facilitate veteran student development by considering the tenets of campus ecology, ultimately leading to a changed society (Church, 2009). Professionals who understand the importance of campus ecology can better understand the significance of implementing veteran-friendly practices and can more clearly articulate the practices' necessity to others within a campus community.

Conclusion

Few peers, faculty, and campus administrators understand exactly what Brandon experienced on his first day at college. Coming from constant threats of uncertainty in the middle of the battlefield, he should not have to experience a different kind of threat on his college campus due to poor design and culture (Branker, 2009). Understanding how students interact with their environment and the effects on students' perceptions of university culture has significant implications for student affairs professionals. Campus ecology provides a framework for understanding the usefulness of integrating veteran-friendly practices as a regular, yet critical part of the function of any veteran-serving university. The multiple identities of veteran students are extremely complex. Serving those who have served has the capacity to change lives and change the world.

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Effects of Gender and Facebook Use on the Development of Mature Interpersonal Relationships

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Abstract

Social media is ubiquitous, particularly with today's college students. How the use of various social media platforms impacts student development remains a largely under-researched area. Little is known about how men's and women's use of programs like Facebook impact their psychosocial development; in particular, their development of mature interpersonal relationships. This study analyzed the effects of gender and the intensity of Facebook use on college students' development of mature interpersonal relationships at a large Midwestern university. Small, significant negative relationships existed between the development of mature interpersonal relationships and Facebook use intensity, with slightly more negative correlations found when only peer relationships were considered. A two-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of both gender and Facebook use intensity on the development of mature interpersonal relationships. A significant difference was found between heavy and light Facebook users, with students who use Facebook more intensely having less developed mature interpersonal relationships than those who do not. Results are discussed regarding the potential negative influence Facebook use has on mature interpersonal relationships.

Keywords: Chickering, Facebook, gender, mature interpersonal relationships, peer relationships, social media

The early 21st century saw the dawn of a new era of information sharing on the Internet: social media (O'Reiley, 2007). Rather than focusing on news or other industry-generated information, social media is focused on the generation of content created by users, more commonly referred to as User Generated Content or UGC (Lee, Miller, & Newnham, 2009). Its vitality is dependent on a continued stream of people uploading, commenting, sharing, tagging, and creating content within their portals to the Internet.

College students between the ages of 18-24 have largely accepted social media into their lives (Ellison, Lampe, & Steinfield, 2008; Strayhorn, 2012). Social networking sites such as Facebook have become ubiquitous in the college environment; likewise, many colleges are integrating social media into their classrooms and campuses (Munoz & Towner, 2009; Trescott, 2009). A concern arises whether social media is positively impacting college students, their development, and the university environment (Strayhorn, 2012).

The experience of social networking likely touches many pathways of college student development; among them is psychosocial development, an area in which gender differences are often evident (Foubert, Nixon, Sisson & Barnes, 2005; Utterback, Spooner, Barbieri, & Fox, 1995). The present study will help build a knowledge base regarding Facebook and social

media and examine the role it plays in a college student's development. Specifically, this study seeks to assess students' usage of Facebook and how it impacts students' development of mature interpersonal relationships as conceptualized by Chickering and Reisser (1993).

Chickering and Reisser (1993) offer a comprehensive theory of the psychosocial development of college students. Over time, this theory has been revised, mostly validated, and reconfigured by numerous authors (Foubert et al., 2005; Martin, 2000; Reisser, 1995). Chickering and Reisser explained development through a series of vectors, a term used to convey direction and magnitude. These vectors consist of developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Reisser, 1995).

The developing mature interpersonal relationships vector consists primarily of being tolerant and appreciative of differences along with having a capacity for healthy, honest intimacy with others (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Participation in Facebook helps students establish commonalities with others expeditiously (Ellison et al., 2008; Ellison, Lampe, & Steinfield, 2007). The connections students make can allow for tailored conversations or engagement tactics to best suit relationships in the physical world (O'Neill, 2011).

The mature interpersonal relationships vector is a gendered construct. For example, early research showed that relative to men, women develop a much greater capacity for intimacy (Straub, 1987). Intimacy is a major component in Chickering and Reisser's (1993) mature interpersonal relationships vector. In their updated second edition, Chickering and Reisser (1993) noted that women move along the mature interpersonal relationships vector earlier than men. Later research on this theory showed that women are particularly advanced in this vector's subtask of tolerance. In fact, women begin college with higher tolerance scores than men achieve at the end of college (Foubert et al., 2005). Thus, in the present study the authors selected gender as a key variable of interest.

Chickering and Reisser's (1993) development of mature interpersonal relationships vector has a logical connection to Facebook use. Students in high school might have had limited exposure to diverse populations, and most college environments present new types of people for the student to experience. Through the exercise of adding new Facebook "friends", a student is able to build the groundwork for new, potentially long-lasting relationships.

This study has been developed to examine the influence of male and female college students' use of Facebook on the development of their interpersonal relationships. Through the utilization of the Student Development Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, 2010) in tandem with the Facebook Intensity scale (Ellison et al., 2007), this study will determine whether there is a connection between students' use of social media and the development of their interpersonal relationships.

Research Questions

Our study focused on two major research questions. First, we wanted to determine whether Facebook usage impacted college students' development of mature interpersonal relationships. Secondly, we wanted to determine whether there were joint effects of gender and intensity of Facebook use on mature interpersonal relationships.

Method

Sample and Participant Selection

This study surveyed 200 participants from a sample of students from a variety of different organizations on a large public campus in the Midwestern United States. This convenience sample (Creswell, 2013) was constructed through referencing the institution's database of student organizations and selecting several organizations that we reasonably hypothesized would establish a representative sample of the campus population. The demographics of participants matched the population demographics on campus for gender and for race with the exception of a higher number of African American students in the sample and slightly fewer Caucasian students than in the general population.

The sample consisted of 32 completed responses from a social fraternity (80% of those present when data was collected and 43% of 74 active members registered with the University); 31 completed responses from a social sorority (52% of those present and 19% of 161 active members); 79 completed responses from the Residence Hall Association (88% completed surveys; 79% of the total organization membership); and 17 responses from The Off-Campus Student Organization, with 17 present during survey administration and 19 registered members (100% response, 89% of total membership). Responses also came from 27 students from the African American Student Organization, with 45 present during survey administration and 31 registered members (60% response; over 100% of the number of registered members responding, including some attendees who regularly took part in organization activities but had not yet registered as members of the organization); six completed responses from graduate students in a higher education course, with eight students present and nine registered in the class (75% present response, 66% overall group response); 6 responses were from undergraduate students solicited by personal interaction with residence life staff members in a building with a 100% percent response rate, and 2 completed responses from a College of Education volunteer human subjects pool. Participants completed paper and pencil surveys in regularly scheduled organizational meetings under standard testing conditions. The overall response rate for those present during survey administration was 75% (200/268).

Of this sample, there were 91 males and 109 females; a mean age of 21 (SD = 2.7). Class years were 75 freshman, 43 sophomores, 47 juniors, 19 seniors, and 15 other; 119 lived on campus, 1 at home with parents, 3 at home with spouse or partner, 9 in an on campus apartment, trailer, or house (not with parents), 29 in an off campus apartment, trailer, or house (not with parents), and 37 in a fraternity/sorority house. The racial background of participants as indicated by survey responses was 70% Caucasian, 17% Black or African American, 1.5% Hispanic, Latino, Latina, or Mexican American, 2% Asian or Pacific Islander, 4% Native American, 3% bi-racial or multicultural, and 1% other. One participant was removed per specifications from the SDTLA Technical Manual (Winston, et al., 1999), due to a high response bias score. These demographics matched population demographics with the exception of more African Americans in the sample and fewer Caucasians than on the campus.

Materials

Participants completed questions from the Student Development Task and Lifestyle Assessment Mature Interpersonal Relationship Task (Winston, 1999). This questionnaire measures participants' tolerance toward others and their capacity for intimacy. This questionnaire consists of 47 questions addressing two subtasks: peer relationships and tolerance. The peer relationships subtask examines the quality of each participant's peer relationships, while the tolerance subtask questions the level of tolerance that each participant has for those with

different characteristics (race, background, beliefs, cultures, appearance, etc.) around them. Test-retest reliability of the SDTLA is .8; alpha coefficients are reported between .62 and .88 (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). The validity data specifically for the Mature Interpersonal Relationships Task and Subtasks was correlated with the total score for the Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MGEIM) (Phinney, 1992). The correlations are listed in the SDTLA Technical Manual (Winston, et al., 1999).

Participants also completed the Facebook Intensity Scale, which was designed to measure how engaged participants were with Facebook, how emotionally connected the individual was to Facebook, and how much a part of daily activities Facebook was for the individual (Ellison et al., 2007). Authors report a Chronbach's alpha of .83. This portion of the survey consisted of six questions with responses on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The seventh and eighth questions determined how many "friends" each participant had on Facebook and how much time each participant spent daily on Facebook, respectively. The overall Facebook intensity score was found by computing the mean of all items on the scale.

Procedure

The data was collected through the administration of a survey consisting of 61 items. The surveys were administered under normal testing procedures to several groups of participants. Participants were each given an instructional packet including the statement of informed consent, our survey, and a Scantron answer sheet.

Results

Correlation of Mature Interpersonal Relationships and Facebook Intensity

A small, significant negative correlation between mature interpersonal relationships and Facebook use intensity exists ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$). As Facebook use intensity increases, the development of mature interpersonal relationships decreases. When measuring the correlation between the peer relationships task of the Mature Interpersonal Relationships Task with the Facebook Intensity scale, a stronger relationship is evident, ($r = -.244$, $p =. 01$). The peer relationships subtask measures open, honest, and trusting relationships with peers balancing dependence and self-assured independence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Gender Differences

We explored whether there was a difference in the impact of Facebook use on the development of mature interpersonal relationships between females and males. For females, there was no significant correlation between Facebook use and development of mature interpersonal relationships, as defined by Chickering and Reisser (1993). However, there was a significant negative correlation between peer relationships among females and Facebook intensity ($r = -.234$, $p < .05$), such that females who had more healthy peer relationships used Facebook less intensely. The same held true with males. Mature interpersonal relationships as a whole and Facebook intensity were not related; however, peer relationships (a subset of mature interpersonal relationships) and Facebook intensity were significantly correlated ($r = -.268$, $p < .05$). Those who had healthier more healthy peer relationships reported using Facebook less intensely.

ANOVA Test Between Gender and Light and Heavy Users

We also explored whether heavy or light Facebook use impacted the development of interpersonal relationships. The top 25% and bottom 25% of respondents on the Facebook intensity scale were isolated for analysis of heavy and light users, respectively. Analysis of variance revealed a significant difference for heavy and light Facebook usage where $F_{(1, 99)}$

= 6.867, p < .01 with a medium effect size (d = .46). In addition, a significant difference emerged for gender F(1, 99) = 3.805, p = .05 with a low to medium effect size (d = .33). No interaction resulted (p >.05). Thus, in both cases, heavy Facebook use yields lower scores in the Mature Interpersonal Relationships task and lighter scores yield higher Mature Interpersonal Relationships scores.

Discussion

We found a small, significant negative correlation between Facebook use and mature interpersonal relationships. Those who use Facebook more intensely report a lower quality of interpersonal relationships than those who does not use Facebook as intensely. The lower quality of relationships corresponding with higher Facebook use was particularly evident regarding peer relationships. If there had been a higher correlation coefficient, it would likely be cause for greater concern about whether Facebook has a negative association with the quality of college students peer relationships; however, a correlation of -.150 when the entire Mature Interpersonal Relationships Task is taken into consideration and up to -.244 when only the Peer Relationships Subtask does not seem to arouse concern.

Among those who use social media, the majority of their interpersonal interactions with those they know take place face-to-face, with only a lesser percentage online (Baym, Zhang, & Lynn, 2004). Previous literature and present results suggest that Facebook use may partially take the place of time spent with email, chat and instant messaging (Ellison et al., 2007; Hicks, 2010).

When examining the effect size differences between the influences of gender versus the influence of heavy and light Facebook usage, one can see heavy and light Facebook usage is associated with greater developmental difference than is gender. This finding demonstrates that although gender has an influence in mature interpersonal relationships, it is less important than some experiential factors; in this case, intensity of Facebook use.

This study supported the assertion that Facebook influences development along Chickering and Reisser's (1993) fourth vector of mature interpersonal relationships. While the results displayed a small significant, negative correlation between Facebook use intensity and the development of mature interpersonal relationships, of particular interest is the increased Facebook use yielding a significant difference in the development of mature interpersonal relationships, with a stronger effect than the gender of the student. As time unfolds and use of social media becomes further ingrained into the culture, it will be interesting to follow the trend of college students' Facebook use intensity and how such use impacts developmental variables.

This study's results were primarily based upon a convenience sample. While this convenience sample was intentionally constructed to provide a comprehensive snapshot of the institution where the study took place, it is limited by participants who were not selected from a large random sample. While the SDTLA is a reliable and valid instrument, it originated in before the advent of social media, proving to be another limitation. Had the SDTLA been developed after the insertion of social media into culture, it is likely that the instrument would have included measures of online interaction in its conceptualization. With this piece not in the current SDTLA, a significant part of student interaction is left unconsidered.

Implications for Research

This study provides a number of implications for future research. Given our finding that 6% of the variance accounted for in mature interpersonal relationships is due to intensity of Facebook use, it may be time to start taking this effect into account when considering student development. Chickering and Reisser (1993) and many other foundational theorists had few

indications of the internet and social media, let alone how these technologies would impact student development. As student populations continue to evolve, theories describing them should be written to include considerations for these new facets of students' lives.

One final consideration for future research is the inclusion of other social networks or forms of social media. Twitter has been shown to have an influence on student engagement both in and beyond the academic setting (Junco, Heibergert, & Loken, 2010), and some institutions are using LinkedIn to maintain connections with their alumni (Hall, 2011; Roblyer, McDaniel, Webb, Herman, & Witty, 2010). Studies on social media should be conducted to analyze how students might make use of various platforms and what impact each may have on developmental variables.

Implication for Practice

This research poses both opportunities and challenges for student affairs professionals and their respective departments or divisions. Because students are using Facebook more intensely, they may not be engaging with the real world as much as in the past. For college student educators, this could mean a change in tactics for reaching out to students, placing additional emphasis on social media channels as a means of engagement. Departments and divisions limiting themselves to using social media merely as a means to disseminate information are doomed to be viewed as an outdated message board (Nester & Daniels, 2011; Stoller, 2011). Institutions and departments should seek to engage and connect through these channels rather than simply using them as one-way communication devices. If there is no two-way communication occurring, information is less likely to reach desired audiences. With institutions seeking to cut costs and be more efficient than ever while maintaining effectiveness (McCaffery, 2010), using social media as a tool for engagement, education and development might prove to be one of the solutions to this difficult task. Fortunately, social media appears to be where the students are; institutions may plug in and take advantage of all of the possibilities available to them through this ever-evolving channel of communication.

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Helping Honors Students Choose College Majors

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Abstract

Choosing a college major can be difficult for any first-year student, but honors students have additional challenges and factors that impact decision-making. Honors programs hoping to support their students in choosing an appropriate major must be aware of how honors students select majors and what kinds of supports can be helpful. Multipotentiality, the idea that a student will be successful in many different majors or career areas, is a widely debated concept in regard to high achieving students and major choice. Much of this debate centers on the differing definitions of multipotentiality found in quantitative and qualitative studies. Quantitative studies consider multipotentiality to be present when a student has equally high abilities in multiple subjects on accurate assessments, whereas qualitative studies say a multipotentialed individual is anybody who has the ability and interest to pursue many areas of study or careers. Although both quantitative and qualitative perspectives are important to consider, qualitative literature has found more evidence for students experiencing and coping with multipotentiality. This paper covers honors students' experiences of choosing a college major, the impact of multipotentiality, and implications for student affairs professionals wishing to serve these students.

Keywords: honors student, major choice, multipotentiality

The choice of college major is a complex and sometimes difficult decision for many first- and second-year students (Carduner, 2011). A major is generally a starting point for a future career, and there is a sense of pressure for students to make the right choice for themselves, even if they do not yet know what type of career they want (Carduner, 2011). High achieving students and students that were identified as gifted and talented in high school, often found in university honors programs, may have different priorities and approaches to choosing a major because of their higher academic motivation and their perceived self efficacy in many different careers (Carduner, 2011; Sajjadi, Rejskind, & Shore, 2001).

Honors departments and programs should be interested in how to best serve these students when helping them decide on majors and future career paths. Not all students in honors programs will need additional services to make their decision; however, current and past literature reveals reasons why incoming first-year honors college students may have a particularly difficult time deciding on their majors. Research has shown similar trends on this topic over the past 30 years, demonstrating this problem has been persisting on college campuses for some time (Carduner, 2011; Marshall, 1981). High-achieving and gifted students are found to take more factors into account when making their major decisions (Carduner, 2011; Emmett & Minor, 1993). Multipotentiality, the ability for an individual to succeed in many different fields, is one common factor that can affect students' major decisions, and can be more salient for honors students (Carduner, 2011; Sajjadi et al., 2001). To best serve undecided honors students, student affairs professionals must understand more about how students enrolled in honors programs choose their majors and be aware of how honors

departments can support their students' endeavors through services and programming offered at the university level.

This paper will discuss the path honors students generally take when making a choice of college major and how that differs from other students on campus. The topic of multipotentiality, a large component in the decision-making process, is then explored, with an emphasis on how multipotentiality is represented in the literature about deciding college majors. The paper ends with a description of the implications for student affairs professionals involved in the college major choices of honors students.

The Honors Experience of Choosing a Major

It is important to first appreciate how an honors student may be fundamentally different from other students on campus. Often educators assume high-achieving or gifted and talented students are capable of guiding themselves because of an intelligence score or a history of high grades (Emmett & Minor, 1993). However, many of these students do not have much career knowledge or experience with career realities and are still in need of guidance (Emmett & Minor, 1993).

Additionally, highly talented students are found to be less certain about major choice and more likely to be drawn to many different college majors in which they feel they would fit well (Kerr & Colangelo, 1988). In fact, when high ability students were asked about their satisfaction with career services, many of them said they needed more guidance and were uncomfortable simply being left to their own devices (Carduner, 2011). Honors students often experience intense pressures because they tend to seek perfectionism in many of their activities (Carduner, 2011), and when combined with an important decision like major choice, this can create a situation that is difficult for them to resolve on their own. This demonstrates that honors students are often in need of help when choosing a major, but may encounter few resources when they step onto a college campus.

While honors students may have some inherently different needs, most students have a great deal in common when selecting college majors, including strategies for choosing and support needed. One way many college students, honors or not, make their decision is reminiscent of Parsons' trait-and-factor model (Parsons, 1909). The Rational Choice Model (RCM) is similar to Parsons' model in that it includes exploration of self, exploration of majors, making a decision, and implementation (Carduner, 2011). Using RCM is often a methodical process that takes into account the student's interests, skills, and previous accomplishments. This is also the model traditionally associated with career counseling and professional college major guidance (Creager & Deacon, 2012). Other students choose to use alternative models, which factor in emotions, intuition, and passion for subjects (Carduner, 2011). Alternative models can be combined with RCM, and this is often necessary when the traditional trait-and-factor approach has given a student many majors that "fit" with the student's talents and interests (Carduner, 2011).

Honors students generally gravitate toward alternative models, but can have additional issues arise and sometimes incorporate more aspects into the decision-making process. For example, while many students choose majors for the expected future income, honors students consistently choose happiness over money or even job availability in their future career (Carduner, 2011). Honors students were also found to be much more sensitive to the expectations of others, especially when those expectations are high (Emmett & Minor, 1993). Influences can include family, peers, teachers, counselors, advisors, or a variety of other social

ties, meaning honors students may be balancing many competing ideas about where they will best fit or succeed.

On top of the additional factors many honors students consider, there are some general challenges many high achieving and gifted students face when deciding on a major. Most of these revolve around the concept of multipotentiality, which may be one of the most important factors in deciding a major because high achieving and gifted students are particularly concerned with keeping options open. Honors students sometimes express narrowing a subject of study is the most difficult part of major choice (Emmett & Minor, 1993).

Qualitative literature has determined multipotentiality can affect high ability students in a variety of ways. It most commonly has negative effects for students who do not understand how to incorporate their many academic interests into their career path (Sajjadi et al., 2001). Sajjadi et al. (2001) also noted students may perceive that by choosing a major, they are abandoning all other academic areas in which they are interested. To some extent this is true, because a student generally cannot focus intently on three or four different subjects. This perspective of abandoning subjects can either lead students to feel guilt about picking favorites or lose focus on their major, and a subsequent career edge, because they are trying to concentrate on too many things (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986). In fact, one of the most common coping strategies for multipotentiality is students double- or triple-majoring in a continued attempt to keep their options open (Carduner, 2011). Despite the wide range of options many honors students have, some also feel added pressure to not "waste" their talents on less challenging majors, even if that major is a subject about which they are passionate, which can increase later regret and guilt (Emmett & Minor, 1993).

Additional consequences of multipotentiality are arbitrarily narrowing career fields because the list is too overwhelming, a sometimes paralyzing fear of failure, and feeling "stuck" with a decision if the student has already invested academic resources into a career or major path (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986; Carduner, 2011; Emmett & Minor, 1993). Clearly, for an undecided honors student in his or her first year of college, there is much to be taken into account and worked through, and the student may not have the resources to manage this on his or her own.

Multipotentiality in the Literature

There is current debate about the definition of multipotentiality and the reality of it causing severe problems for high achieving and gifted students. The topic has been explored within both qualitative and quantitative literature; however, these approaches have different assumptions and give very different impressions of what multipotentiality is. Qualitative literature comes from a constructivist approach, and assumes reality is created through individual experiences and the interaction of individuals with society (Creswell, 2005). Quantitative literature emerged from the objective perspective, and assumes there is an absolute truth already existing to be uncovered through scientific inquiry (Creswell, 2005). Given the paradigmatic differences of these two research methods, it is understandable that literature on this topic does not agree on the definition and nature of multipotentiality. For a student affairs professional wanting to serve honors students, it is important to understand both sides of this debate.

The idea of multipotentiality grew qualitatively from the observation that high ability students had a great deal of difficulty settling on just one subject of study (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986). Although there is still not a universally accepted qualitative definition, the concept is a multipotentialed individual has two or more viable options and has difficulty narrowing

down these options to move forward with his or her major or career plans (Sajjadi et al., 2001). Qualitative literature has collected considerable evidence of students unable to make a definite choice of major and falling behind in their career or experiencing resultant distress (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986; Carduner, 2011; Emmett & Minor, 1993; Greene, 2006; Kerr & Colangelo, 1988; Sajjadi et al., 2001). Thus, there has been a focus from the qualitative literature on how to help students who encounter this dilemma.

Alternatively, quantitative literature has yet to find a problem. Quantitative definitions of multipotentiality are fundamentally different from qualitative definitions, and generally conclude that to be defined as multipotentialed, a person must be able to score at equally high levels in many different subjects on accurate achievement and aptitude tests (Achter, Benbow & Lubinski, 1997). As Acter et al. (1997) showed, quantitative literature challenges the notion that students experience an authentic academic pull in two or more directions unless they conform to a certain pattern of test scores. This idea has merit, and is important to consider when searching for empirical evidence of programs or resources that may help these individuals. Specifically, Achter et al. (1997) argued the idea of multipotentiality may be skewed by high-flat results of ability and achievement inventories that do not have high enough ceilings and are therefore inaccurate. This would cause two scores to both appear equally high. For example, a student may have scored in the 99th percentile for both English and math on a grade-level aptitude test. Upon use of an appropriate inventory that can accurately measure talent levels, perhaps one intended for older students, one may see the student's English score is significantly higher than the math score, and the individual does not have the same aptitude for both subjects (Achter et al., 1997). The key point of the quantitative perspective is very few individuals are actually multipotentialed once aptitudes or skills are accurately measured.

An additional argument quantitative literature makes is that high ability students often end up clustered into one of three major categories: engineering, health professions, and physical sciences (Kerr & Colangelo, 1988). Achter et al. (1997) argued this phenomenon does not follow the concept that students have difficulty choosing from too many majors. Therefore, quantitative literature asserts multipotentiality is not a problem for honors students because most are not defined as multipotentialed by their test scores and many end up in a small group of majors anyway.

The quantitative perspective is valuable for its emphasis on empirical data. However, the argument can be made that for multipotentiality, the qualitative definition is more useful for helping students cope with their stressful situations. Qualitative literature highlights what readily appears to be a problem for many students, and if examining this can provide help (measured qualitatively) for students, there is merit in paying attention to the effects of multipotentiality. The quantitative definition may not give an accurate picture of what students actually experience.

For example, even though high ability students do tend to choose majors within three areas of study, this does not mean the process of actually making the choice was smooth, and it does not mean students in those majors do not harbor regrets or guilt because they did not choose something else. Additionally, the argument for multipotentiality being skewed based on inaccurate assessments might be considered irrelevant in the qualitative perspective. A student may show higher aptitude in English than math using an accurate assessment, but this does not mean the student will not express interest in majors using math, especially if he or she still has a high math aptitude. Given these responses to quantitative arguments, the concept of multipotentiality is still important when considering how to best help honors students in a university setting. Problems associated with multipotentiality are indeed commonly

experienced among honors students and qualitative literature has suggestions on what forms of assistance professionals can provide.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

Qualitative literature has many suggestions for student affairs professionals who want to assist honors students in choosing their major. In addition to university career counseling services, honors programs can provide services like individual meetings, group programming, and honors-specific advising to assist in addressing the additional needs and concerns of high ability students. One suggestion that can help many multipotentialed and undecided students is increasing knowledge of majors that are widely applicable to many career options to help students feel they are keeping doors open, such as a liberal arts degree (Emmett & Minor, 1993). By choosing a major that can lead to many career opportunities, students can feel less pressure to pick a 'perfect' path for themselves their first or second year of college. This information can be shared by academic advisors in one-on-one situations or in group workshops designed specifically for students who have difficulty narrowing options.

Another suggestion is helping students develop a larger purpose for their future (Greene, 2006). Greene (2006) wrote that major choice can be difficult when a student is narrowly focused on career tracks, but by facilitating the student's process of deciding the type of person he or she wants to be in the future, it may help decrease the stress felt about the single decision of major choice. Again, this guidance can occur through various means, including advisors, honors classes, or other programming through the honors department.

Alternatively, students who arbitrarily limit options may need awareness of other types of majors and careers that can follow. Student affairs staff can help increase these honors students' knowledge of a wide variety of majors beyond the three groups most commonly chosen (Kerr & Colangelo, 1988). The conversation can continue with tools to help students decide what they are looking for in a college major.

It is also vital to remember that although honors students may have already chosen a major, this does not mean they are comfortable within that major or are not still thinking about switching (Carduner, 2011). In an effort to respect autonomy and render support when needed, it may be useful to survey honors students about their confidence in their major choice and offer to provide services for those who are still unsure.

Conclusion

Given the needs of undecided honors students covered in the literature, student affairs professionals must be aware of what issues can arise and what types of campus services can be helpful during college major choice for this group of students. Multipotentiality in particular is a concept commonly surfacing with undecided honors first year students and must be understood both from the qualitative and quantitative research perspectives to give the broadest view of what a high ability student may experience. While the factors that go into major decisions are widely understood for general college students, honors students often have different perspectives and hurdles, and can benefit from additional resources and guidance.

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Depression and Suicide Prevention in Indian Country

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Abstract

Mental health topics are becoming more prevalent in conversations around supporting students in higher education. This article discusses issues of depression and suicide prevention among Native American students and how supporting this population of students may differ from their peers knowing the experience for underrepresented students in higher education can be very different from students who come from a Western cultural lens. Among students who are challenged the most to adjust and persist in higher education are Native American students (Hunt & Harrington, 2008). Student affairs professionals are charged with the task of meeting the needs of all students, which includes understanding how different identities influence how students show up and move through their daily lives. The responsibility of meeting the needs of all students includes their physical, emotional, and mental health. This article identifies general themes and recommendations for supporting Native American students who may be struggling with depression or suicidal thoughts, and how to incorporate methods that are not from a Western medical lens. The implications for student affairs work are also discussed.

Keywords: mental health, Native American students, retention, student affairs

All across the country, the conversations around mental health have started to change and people seem more open to talk about these issues. However, in Indian Country, these conversations have been happening for quite a while, especially around the youth and young adults and preserving the culture; suicide rates decrease significantly after early adulthood in contrast to the overall U.S. population rates, which increases with age (Suicide Prevention Resource Center, 2013). The youth and young adults are the people in a culture that are the center of survival and preservation of the people and culture; without them, the history and the hope for a future diminishes. There are many things that have contributed to depression and suicide amongst all Native American people. The discussions around how to break the cycle and continue to reach out to put into place preventative measures to fight depression and suicide have been happening for a while within Native communities. This paper discusses the issue of depression and suicide with respect to Indigenous populations, specifically the frightening statistics focused on young adults. This paper also addresses recommendations and methods used to work with communities and individuals with respect to higher education and the implications of this information within student affairs.

For the purpose of this article, the broad terms Indian, Native American, Indigenous and American Indian will be used interchangeably. However, it should be noted, these words are social constructs, which were ways of re-defining and stereotyping an entire culture in Colonial America. Therefore, seeking out individual identifiers, such as tribal affiliation or personal preference when working with students, is more inclusive to all tribes and cultures. It is better to not assume any of the above terms are comprehensive of all cultures and people who were indigenous to this land.

Historical Legacies Contributing to Current Status of Native American Students

It is important to discuss depression and suicide from a Western medical lens and use this lens to apply how these mental health issues can be related to a specific community. According to the United States (U.S.) National Library of Medicine (2012) depression is defined and described as feeling sad, blue, unhappy, miserable, or down in the dumps; this can lead to true clinical depression, which is a mood disorder in which feelings of sadness, loss, anger, or frustration interfere with everyday life for weeks or longer. For some, depression is a feeling that may only last a short amount of time (U.S. National Library of Medicine, 2012). Depression can negatively affect everyday life and may lead to a distortion of the way students see themselves, their lives and those around them. Some common symptoms of depression are agitation, restlessness, irritability, difficulty concentrating, feeling hopelessness and helplessness, feeling worthless, a loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities, and thoughts of death or suicide (U.S. National Library of Medicine, 2012). When the depression becomes so overwhelming, some people may consider suicide. Suicide and suicidal behaviors usually occur in people with previous history of other mental health disorders such as bipolar disorder, drug or alcohol dependency, and major depression. Some warning signs or symptoms for an individual who might be considering suicide are giving away belongings, a drastic change in behavior, losing interest in activities they once enjoyed, talking about feeling hopeless or guilty, and actually talking about arranging ways to take their own life (U.S. National Library of Medicine, 2012b).

To tie the health issues of depression and suicide to the Native American population, it is important to first understand the population and some statistics related to Native American communities. Currently, there are 565 federally recognized tribes in 35 states in the United States, and according to the U.S. Census Bureau Statistics, roughly 1.5% of the U.S. population, an estimated 4.5 million people, identify as American Indian or Alaska Native (AI/AN). Of this estimated 4.5 million people, more than 38% of AI/ANs are under the age of 19 and another 23% are between the ages of 20 and 34 (Center for Native American Youth at the Aspen Institute, 2011a). In total, American Indian and Alaskan Native youth and young adults make up 61% of all Native populations (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). Even though the American Indian and Alaskan Native population only comprise a small percentage of the population in the United Sates, AI/AN youth and young adults have the highest suicide rate of any cultural or ethnic group in the United States (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). These statistics are not only startling, they are very disturbing knowing a large majority of one of the smallest populations has the highest suicide rate. This is also very alarming for student affairs professionals, as the age groups with whom they work each day at institutions of higher education are at the greatest risk for depression and suicide.

Western Philosophies of Depression and Suicide

An essential factor to begin to understand the differences for Native American students when facing depression or suicidal thoughts is traditional ways of healing versus Western medicine. Western medicine has an individualistic approach, which is very different from most Indigenous cultures which center around community and collective perspectives (Urban Indian Health Institute, 2012). For instance, the Urban Indian Health Institute (2012) explains American Indians may recognize an imbalance caused by external forces or lack of harmony when it comes to mental health whereas Western medicine focuses on internal and individual factors such as genetics, or other biologically based determinants. Mental health services may not be viewed as relevant by American Indians, especially since these services are focused on the individual and do not involve families, community, or spiritual healers (Urban Indian Health Institute, Seattle Indian Health Board, 2012). Some other cultural barriers that

were presented by the Urban Indian Health Institute (2012) are lack of trust in the provider and health care system, privacy concerns, cultural stigma regarding mental health services and cultural norms of politeness and respect that may result in not directly discussing signs of depression even informally among family or friends. Cultural preferences for restoring well-being may be in contrast with the Western mental health treatment model and may be another reason American Indians in general do not seek medical or therapeutic treatment for depression or suicidal thoughts (Urban Indian Health Institute, 2012).

Role of Student Affairs Professionals

As student affairs professionals become more aware of the issues faced by Native American students, which include mental health issues, they can begin to understand and utilize culturally appropriate interventions, particularly when working around the topic of depression and suicide. According to the publication *Native American Youth 101: Information on the Historical Context and Current Status of Indian Country and Native American Youth* published by the Center for Native American Youth at the Aspen Institute (The Aspen Institute) (2011b), a priority for Native American youth and young adults is health promotion, while suicide prevention is listed as the highest health promotion, which coincides with the commonly used *Medicine Wheel*. The Medicine Wheel represents balance, harmony and interrelatedness of the physical, the mental, the emotional and the spiritual aspects of life; while contradictory, the Western mental health approaches typically use a more categorical, segmented, and individualistic view of mental and physical health (Urban Indian Health Institute, 2012). The Aspen Institute publication also points out that suicide is the second leading cause of death for American Indian and Alaskan Native youth ages 15-24 and the suicide rate is 3.5 times higher than the national average. The definition of depression and suicide are very important to understand; however, it is just as useful, if not more, to better understand the history and cultural practices of what many tribal communities still use in order to help Native American students through these difficult times.

To put into perspective, an example might be helpful. For example, the Native American students at Colorado State University with Indian Health Services (IHS) coverage would have to travel to Albuquerque, New Mexico because this is the closest clinic that offers behavioral health facilities (Indian Health Services, 2013). Indian Health Services is a federally funded program that lies within the Department of Health and Human Services that was created to carry out the federal government's trust responsibility to provide federal health care services to American Indians and Alaskan Natives (Indian Health Services, 2013). Indian Health Services serves 566 federally recognized tribes and roughly 2.1 million American Indians and Alaska Natives residing on or near reservations (Indian Health Services, 2013). If a student is enrolled in one of the federally recognized tribes that IHS serves, and his or her family cannot afford other health insurance, IHS may be his or her only health care option. If a student does not trust the health center on their campus, or know there are no employees that can provide spiritual and tribal healing, the closest clinic is 500 miles away or a trip home to their tribal community. That, on top of being a student and any other commitments they may have, can place an enormous burden on the student. If a student knows there is a mentor on campus who can at least begin to understand their cultural practices or need for spiritual healing, it may be the difference between an attempted suicide or no suicidal thoughts at all.

Recommendations for Practitioners

For student affairs professionals, working with students who may be experiencing health issues such as depression or suicidal thoughts may be a daily occurrence; however, the way practitioners work with Native American students is different and unique than how they

might work with other students. Because of the historical legacies that have been left in American Indian communities, there are many more factors that influence the community and the ways Native American students might respond to student affairs professionals. It is very important for practitioners to take it upon themselves to learn about the community and the individual to begin to understand how the culture and history affect these students. For example, it may possible in many instances, students are not attending a school that is located on or near their tribal land, so it is potentially hard to reach out to tribal elders and community members. In this situation, it becomes even more important for practitioners to understand the community in order to begin to make progress with a student who is experiencing depression or suicidal thoughts.

As a Native American woman, I can relate to the world of living in a culture that is not represented in the dominant student body of an institution, and I can see the importance of student affairs professionals understanding a minority perspective in order to be a valuable resource for all students and support all students. In many situations, the ways Western medicine teaches practitioners to treat depression and suicide will suffice when working with many students. However, in specific situations there are alternative or more effective ways to work with the American Indian and Alaskan Native populations that may be more culturally appropriate and beneficial. The National Indian Child Welfare Association (2012) created an extensive toolkit for professionals who work in many areas, such as education and social work, who might work with Native American youth and young adults in cases relating to depression and suicide prevention. Many of their recommendations are similar to those that may be recommended in training related to working with college aged students, such as referral conversations and simply inviting the student in for a conversation.

However, more specific recommendations were made that are particular to working with American Indian and Alaskan Native students. The cultural activities listed that are known to contribute to resilience are family and gender roles such as participating in the family's culture, learning about the family structure, hearing family stories, and searching for connection with relatives or Native Ancestry (The National Indian Child Welfare Association, 2012, p. 28-19). This can also include tribal arts and crafts: making shawls, quilts, weaving baskets, making jewelry or beading; tribal clothing: making or wearing traditional attire/regalia for pow wows or other special occasions; subsistence, food or medicine: participating in hunting/gather related ceremonies, learning and knowing about traditional medicines and ceremonies; music, dance and pow wows: attending, dancing, singing, drumming and learning the history behind traditional music and powwow (The National Indian Child Welfare Association, 2012, p. 28-19). The recommendations continue with ceremony, rituals and protocol: learning, participating and knowing rituals, talking circles, traditional ceremonies, healers and understanding the interconnectedness with the natural world; history/cultural knowledge and cultural skills: knowing tribal history, law, rights, reservations, sovereignty, speaking their language and an overall understanding of tribal practices and spirituality; and finally, traditional forms of living: telling tribal stories and legends and taking care of Mother Earth (The National Indian Child Welfare Association, 2012, p. 28-19). This extensive list is important for student affairs professionals to be educated in and aware of to understand the unique situation Native American students face. By beginning to understand the implications of the issues tribal communities face, professionals can begin to understand the unique perspective and needs of Native American students.

With all of this information, one may begin to feel very overwhelmed and not know where to start. A recommendation is doing widespread research to better understand the history of the individual with whom one may be working. The general technique of getting to know a

student and trying to understand why he or she is experiencing feelings of depression or suicide is important with all students; with Native American students, it is even more important to understand how to help them using both Western medicine and spiritual healing from other tribal people if the student wishes to incorporate it. It is also important to recognize many tribal communities are putting into place various community action and suicide prevention and intervention methods and programs (Urban Indian Health Institute, 2012). This knowledge provides a useful resource to be able to reach out to a local tribal community and engage in those conversations to build relationships and help one another in the fight to end youth and young adult suicide (The National Indian Child Welfare Association, 2012, p. 37-38).

Overall, depression and suicide are a growing issue with all young people and understanding the individual is very important for student affairs professionals to be able to talk with students, and build positive relationships in order to help students through these times (Downs & Eisenberg, 2012). For Native American students, it is important to understand alternative methods so those can be incorporated for a comprehensive understanding of that individual, with the hope of fully helping them through the issues of depression and suicide. Thankfully, many campuses now have some sort of Multicultural center, a Native American Student Center, or a Native American Studies department that can be great allies in the education around these issues and can be used for guidance in the approach to working with this population. As student affairs practitioners, we aim to work with the individual and not assume that one size fits all. Some initial steps practitioners can take are to ask, "What do I know about the Native American population on my campus?" "How can I find out about the student population on my campus so culturally appropriate services can be identified?" "Who/How can I consult with appropriate resources when designing programs to serve Native American students?" The suggestions in this paper are just a beginning guide to the work that can be done with Native American students around issues of mental health, as it is such an important and life-threatening issue. This paper aims to bring foundational approaches and clarification to those working with these students and engage campus professionals in the conversations around mental health and support for Native American students.

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Exploring the Use of Evidence in Resource Allocation: Towards a Framework for Practice

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Abstract

Higher education administrators face increasing demands to demonstrate the impact of their programs on students. In this paper, the researchers use existing outcomes-based assessment (OBA) literature to construct a framework for use of assessment results to inform resource allocation (RA) decision-making. A survey of senior student affairs officers was conducted to identify how student affairs leaders used OBA results to inform RAs. Survey results showed a disconnect between the use of OBA results and RA decisions. The findings illustrate how the existing OBA framework can be modified to include RA and re-allocation.

Keywords: resource allocation, outcomes-based assessment, assessment, student affairs

In an era of shrinking investment and increasing costs, higher education institutions are faced with broad challenges to their financial stability (Clark & d'Ambrosio, 2006). Colleges and universities are frequently called upon to strike a balance between two competing ideals: a desire to reduce costs, and a need to enhance revenue. Recent budget contractions due to declining economic conditions and erosion of revenue sources worsen institutions' hardship by further depleting already waning public investment in higher education (Meisinger, 1994).

In this retrenched environment, higher education leaders are under pressure to justify institutional resource allocations (RA) to their stakeholders. Additionally, RA decisions carry greater weight in years of need (Meisinger, 1994). Past research has noted that institutions rarely engage in broad consideration of allocation priorities except in times of retrenchment. As such, scholars have recognized the need to formulate what Meisinger describes as "a

framework of program priorities" (p. 160). And regional accreditors have expectations that institutions use evidence to inform RA decisions.

Literature Review

In many organizations, leadership sets institutional priorities and then allocates resources to the favored initiatives (Barr & McClellan, 2010; Bresciani, 2010; Goldstein, 2005; Sherlock, 2009; Stewart & Williams, 2010). To advance the organization's prioritized initiatives, leadership will call for evaluation of how well the resources are being utilized to achieve stated goals. If an initiative is failing, additional resources may be allocated or re-allocated to that initiative so that it can become more successful or discontinued.

This survey study explored how higher education leaders used outcomes-based assessment (OBA) results to inform RAs and re-allocations for student learning and development programming and services. The findings were used to refine a proposed framework that could be used to allocate and re-allocate resources in alignment with stated priorities informed by evidence gathered from OBA. To clarify RA, the researchers propose a definition.

When most people conceptualize the term RA, they think of money. Indeed, RA is a far more inclusive term than budgeting, which refers only to money. Instead, RA can include such non-monetary capital as human resources, information technology, and time. In this way, RA is a process that occurs daily, at all levels of the institution. A review of literature revealed that past studies constrained themselves almost exclusively to discussions of college and university budgeting (e.g. Barr & McClellan (2010); Goldstein, 2005; Sherlock, 2009; Stewart, & Williams, 2010). The researchers therefore briefly review the budgeting literature and highlight general dynamics of RA embedded within.

Budgeting as a Form of RA

Given the many differences between institutions, past research on RA processes has focused on the general budgeting schemes that individual campuses adapt to their own use. Certainly, the general principles embedded in this body of work are applicable to the broader topic of RA, but the fact that budgeting is a practitioner-driven enterprise without a comprehensive framework of "best practices" (see Meisinger, 1994), makes knowledge on the topic diffuse. In general, institutional budget processes are able to interface with funding sources, direct revenues, service debt, and generate capital. Budgeting processes are also used to make and implement judgments between alternative programs or services. These decisions represent the link between budgeting and RA. To understand these decisions, however, one must first gain a cursory understanding of their antecedents.

Numerous funding sources provide revenue to higher education institutions. Among them are (1) auxiliary enterprises, (2) fees for service, (3) student fees/tuition, (4) government appropriations, and (5) endowment income. Understanding the interplay of these funding sources provides preliminary insight into conceptualizing RA decision-making. Certain revenue sources, namely auxiliary enterprises (e.g., food services) are self-sustaining and therefore generate revenue by selling goods or services to students (Mills and Barr, 1990). Tuition, which accounts for a substantial proportion of campus budgets, has risen steadily over the past 15 years (College Board, 2011). Decisions related to student tuition rates are made by senior institutional executives or oversight authorities, depending on the type of institution (Mills and Barr, 1990). Finally, endowment income and gifts supplement student fees and frequently require adherence to donors' wishes.

Given the fact that the majority of institutions draw funds from all of these sources, budgeting is "not an isolated set of processes" (Mills and Barr, 1990, p. 25). Instead, numerous internal and external factors influence how budgets are formulated, and resources are allocated within the institutions, including: (1) the economic environment, (2) prevailing political realities, and (3) organizational structure. Therefore, budgeting is a tool institutions can use to set and refine priorities, make meaning of organizational missions, and shape the future of the institution.

To maximize the utility of this study, the researchers elected to focus our analysis around an existing framework: the OBA. The framework, proposed by Bresciani (2006), strives to align services and student learning with articulated organizational values (see Figure 1). Moreover, the framework requires organizations to "define criteria for quality" (Bresciani, 2006) within the context of those values, before identifying and implementing methods of assessment to determine if the agreed upon criteria have been met. After gathering data and determining with whom the decision resides, Bresciani's framework (BF) requires administrators to "allocate or re-allocate resources to improve outcomes," within their locus of control, and bearing in mind their "capacity for quality." Therefore, BF is applicable to all levels of the organization.

The researchers selected the BF for several reasons. First, the purpose of the BF is continuous program improvement (Bresciani, 2006). This purpose is highly consistent with the institutional RA process. Senior leaders, assuming they are rational actors, are motivated to allocate resources in ways that improve their institutions and divisions (Paulsen & Smart, 2001). Second, the BF is an iterative process. As such, it is highly comparable to the RA processes utilized by institutions because the allocation of resources within the academy is also an iterative process. Budgets, staffing, capital improvement, and many other allocation processes, occur perpetually and on a fixed-term basis (e.g., annually). In this way, the BF has the potential to influence RA processes in "real time." Finally, the researchers chose the BF for its flexibility. Institutions have different priorities, operate in different ways, and thus make different RA decisions. The BF is highly adaptable to the broad organizational diversity of American higher education. Because the researchers intend the results of this project to be useful to a wide range of practitioners, the researchers judged the flexibility of the BF to be especially fortuitous.

In this study, the methodology is designed to allow examination of the fit between the BF and the processes institutional leaders use to allocate resources for student learning and development. To date, few researchers have considered the use of assessment results, which can "...change and improve how a program, department, division, or institution contributes to student learning" (Bresciani, et al., 2009, p. 16). The study also answers basic questions related to how division and institutional leadership use outcomes-based program review results during times of budget cuts, reduction in revenues, and higher demand for services.

Methodology

Several hypotheses served as the foundation for this survey study. Hypothesis 1 (H1): The manner in which institutions are funded is related to the way institutional leadership use OBA results to inform RAs and re-allocations for student learning and development. Hypothesis 2 (H2): The timeframe used by institutional leadership to allocate and re-allocate resources for influences how OBA results are used to inform that allocation. Hypothesis 3 (H3): The budgeting framework used by institutional leadership to allocate and re-allocate resources impacts use of OBA results to inform allocation. Hypothesis 4 (H4): The manner in which institutional leadership engages in strategic planning influences use of OBA results to

inform the allocation and re-allocation of resources for student learning and development. Hypothesis 5 (H5): The manner in which institutional leadership engages in program review influences use of OBA results to inform the RA and re-allocation of resources for student learning and development.

Sampling and Selection Criteria

The survey sample of institutions was drawn from the institutional member list of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). The researchers stratified the pool of potential participants by institution type, size, and NASPA regional division. A random sample was then taken of each stratum, resulting in a sample of 257 institutions. Researchers identified the senior student affairs officer for each selected institution and then utilized Campus Labs to administer the electronic survey the selected senior student affairs officers.

A total of 55 participants completed the survey (response rate=21.4%). Diversity of institution type and size were achieved by the stratified randomized sampling technique, as described in Table 1, though the final sample included a modest overrepresentation of private 4-year liberal arts colleges.

Table 1

Respondent Demographics		
Institution Type	**N**	**%**
Public 2-year	8	14.6
Public 4-year comprehensive	11	20.0
Public 4-year Research University	7	12.7
Private 4-year Research University	5	9.1
Private 4-year Liberal Arts	20	36.4
Proprietary 4-year	2	3.6
Other	2	3.6
Institution Size	**N**	**%**
Less than 4,000	20	36.4
4,001-8,000	13	23.6
8,001-15,000	7	12.7
15,001-25,000	11	20.0
25,001-35,000	2	3.6
35,001 or more	2	3.6

Instrument

A 25-question survey that took approximately 30 minutes to complete was divided into three sections. In the first section, participants were asked whether they utilized (a) OBA, (b) program review, (c) annual reports, and/or (d) strategic planning to inform the budget and RA process. Participants were also asked to describe any other evidence-based decision processes that they used to inform the budget and RA and re-allocation process. The second section of the survey dealt with institutional/divisional leadership practices and asked about the process used by their respective institutions to allocate and re-allocate resources for student learning and development programs. The third section of the survey consisted of institutional demographics.

In addition to the survey questions, two participants provided documents that allowed the researchers to gather additional qualitative data on campus' RA processes. Both of these institutions were also asked to participate in a one-on-one interview; one institution agreed to participate, and a thirty-minute interview was conducted.

Limitations

Several limitations are present in this study. First, because the researchers used a self-administered survey, the respondents did not have to provide any documentation to corroborate their responses. As a result, the researchers could not triangulate data for the majority of respondent institutions.

A total of 55 of an invited 257 senior student affairs officers completed the survey (response rate was 21.4%). The resultant sample size inhibits our ability to extrapolate the findings of this study, though the exploratory results remain instructive,. Most notably, χ^2 analyses suffered from low expected cell values, with several hypotheses having expected values less than five. Therefore, our findings violate one of the assumptions of the χ^2 test. Moreover, our analysis for Hypothesis 1 suffered from inflated probability of Type I error due to an uncorrected family-wise error rate.

Results

Overall, 29.4% (n=30) of respondents reported using OBA for RA at the institutional level, and a slightly higher proportion, 36.3% (n=37) of respondents, reported using OBA results for RA at the divisional level. The differing proportions reflect that the overlap between institutional and division OBA use was imperfect. More precisely, the correlation between institutional use of OBA results and divisional use of OBA results was modest though statistically significant, $R^2=.471$ (N=44), p<.01.

Hypothesis 1

A chi-square test was performed to measure the relationship between funding sources and use of OBA results in RA decision-making. Respondents were grouped into seven categories by funding source: (1) public funding only; (2) private funding only, which included tuition and donations; (3) institutional funding which included auxiliary services revenue; (4) private and public funding; (5) private and institutional funding; (6) public and institutional funding; and finally (7) public, private, and institutional funding. Only one funding source yielded a statistically significant difference with regards to assessment results use: the private funding only category was positively related to institutional use of OBA results, χ^2 (1, N=45) =7.99, p<.01.

Hypothesis 2

When comparing institutions according to their budgeting timeframes, a chi-square test was used to determine whether there were significant differences in the proportions that used outcomes-based assessment results in resource allocation decision-making. For this hypothesis, respondents were grouped into two binary categories based on the timeframe of institutional budgeting processes: (1) annual budgeting, and (2) non-annual budgeting. Each category was cross-tabulated by whether the institution or division utilized outcomes-based assessment results to inform resource allocation and χ^2 statistics were calculated. No statistically significant differences were detected, owing perhaps to lack of variation in the data.

Hypothesis 3

Respondents were grouped into two binary categories based on institutional budgeting framework: (1) incremental budgeting, and (2) non-incremental budgeting. Each category was cross-tabulated by whether the institution utilized outcomes-based assessment results to inform resource allocation and χ^2 statistics were calculated. Finding no statistically significant differences, the researchers repeated the analyses but cross-tabulated the budgeting framework with *divisional* use of outcomes-based assessment results. Again, no significant differences were detected.

Hypothesis 4

Respondents were grouped into three categories based on the manner institutions used strategic planning processes for resource allocation: (1) strategic planning plays no role in institutional resource allocation, (2) strategic planning plays some role in institutional resource allocation, and (3) strategic planning plays a large role in institutional resource allocation. Each category was cross-tabulated by whether the institution or the division utilized outcomes-based assessment results to inform resource allocation and χ^2 statistics were calculated. The analyses detected no significant differences between groups.

Hypothesis 5

Respondents were grouped into three categories based on the manner of institutional use of program review for RA: (1) program review plays no role, (2) program review plays some role, and (3) program review plays a large role. The analyses detected no significant differences between groups. Researchers repeated the analyses with divisional categories: (1) divisional program review plays no role, (2) plays some role, and (3) plays a large role. Cross-tabulation with institutional and divisional use of OBA results yielded one statistically significant finding: program review playing a large role in divisional RA was positively related to divisional use of OBA results to make RA decisions, χ^2 (2, N=48) =6.53, p<.05.

Discussion

In this study, the researchers sought to address a gap in the literature by exploring the manner in which institutions use OBA results for RA or re-allocation. The results described in the previous section paint a perplexing picture of both use and non-use of assessment data for RA.

While it appeared certain institutions that receive private funding do use OBA to inform RAs, budgeting time frames, budgeting frameworks, and strategic planning did not. The researchers wondered whether private funds influenced the use of evidence-based decision making for RA. It is conceivable that those providing the private funds would have an expectation to see evidence of their investment and that the use of evidence is required to link those funds to their allocation. It is also possible that this expectation would hold true for the use of

private funds to inform strategic planning, yet, at the time of their receipt, they may already be allocated to specific initiatives and thus the connection of allocation of private funds does not inform strategic planning. Still, strategic planning could inform which private funds need to be sought and from where. As with the existing literature on the topic, these questions remain unanswered by this study.

The study also revealed that full engagement in divisional program review influences the use of OBA results in informing the allocation and re-allocation of resources. This finding emphasizes how important outcomes-based program review is and in what ways program review can be utilized to inform RA (Banta, Jones, & Black, 2009; Bresciani, 2006; Bresciani, 2010; Bresciani, et al., 2009).

From this analysis, the researchers acknowledged that institutional budget frameworks, and budgeting timeframes have no influence on the use of OBA to inform RAs. Thus, a need to refine the Bresciani (2010) framework to clearly communicate the inclusion of these steps into the framework and remove the assumption that revenue source and budget timeframes influence the selection of a budgeting framework. Further clarification is needed to communicate how strategic planning interacts with OBA program review and RA, as the connection is not readily identifiable from these results.

The researchers were encouraged to discover that revenue received from private funding is related to the use of OBA results to inform RA. Since many institutions appear to be practicing this aspect of the framework, the researchers question the disconnect in the use of evidence for other types of RA. Is it because the receipt of those funds is already targeted for specific types of initiatives that do not require evidence? Or is it because those funds are expected and therefore evidence is not needed in order to continue receiving those funds? Or perhaps it is because there has not yet been an expectation that evidence needs to be produced to secure these types of funds. Clearly additional research is needed.

Recommendations

Based on these findings, the researchers propose that the allocation of resources be made clearer in the Bresciani (2010) framework and thus propose the following framework, which demonstrates several modifications informed by this research study.

First, these findings demonstrate that a clearer connection for the role of strategic planning needs to be communicated. It is difficult to portray this framework in the non-linear manner in which it is most likely implemented, thus, the researchers display the framework in a series of steps that are expected to display several feedback loops where refinements in documentation and decision-making would occur. To implement a framework where results generated from OBA would inform RAs, leadership would take the following steps:

1. Identify and articulate values and/or strategic initiatives generated from strategic planning.

2. Prioritize values and/or strategic initiatives as they are generated from strategic planning.

3. Receive revenue on an annual, bi-annual, or tri-annual basis.

4. Allocate revenue and other resources such as time, according to the prioritized values and/or strategic initiatives.

5. Ensure the alignment of all programmatic outcomes (that are appropriate to align) to the prioritized values and/or strategic initiatives.

6. Define the criteria for quality within the context of the values and identify capacity for meeting the criteria of quality for each expressed value and/or strategic initiative.

7. Implement OBA program review for the programs that have outcomes that align to each value and/or strategic initiative.

8. Gather the results and determine at which level (program, department, college/division, or institution) the decision for resource re-allocation or allocation resides (Remember that allocation of time is also a resource.)

9. Allocate or re-allocate resources to improve your outcomes within your context and capacity for quality and in alignment with your values and/or strategic initiatives.

10. Communicate resource needs back up to the place where institutional priorities and values are chosen and refine strategic planning, if necessary.

11. Communicate the expected results of continued limitations or abundance for RAs based on this framework and the institutional values and priorities.

In addition to refining this framework, the researchers encourage organizational leadership to explore answers to the following questions: a) How well do your resource budgeting and allocation processes align? b) How much do you utilize planning and assessment processes to allocate or re-allocate resources to refine your priorities? c) How well does the framework proposed in this study offer practical value for your division/institution? And d) What are some immediate next steps that you can implement to clarify your organizational priorities, align your programming to those priorities, implement OBA, and use the evidence to re-allocate resources so that you can better achieve your organizational priorities.

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The Transgender Student: Struggles Presented by a College Experience

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Abstract

Transgender students represent a demographic of students that colleges across the nation struggle to address on their campuses. Though substantial research and literature about transgender students and their experiences has surfaced in the past decade, colleges and universities remain mostly unaffected in both responsive structure and policy. This paper examines and defines transgender identities and experiences, highlighting the problems faced by these students on today's college campus. Additionally, the paper will present the range of effects from continued exposure to the dominant system of the gender dichotomy, including the negative interactions transgender students can have during their college experience. There is a need for greater support of transgender students on campuses related to campus facilities, transition support, and safety. The implications for student affairs practitioners are discussed as they relate to alleviating some of these students' struggles, including suggestions for enhancing future practice.

Keywords: campus climate, gender identity, transgender students

Today's colleges and universities are experiencing an influx of students of diverse backgrounds, particularly those who identify on the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, and questioning (LGBTQ) spectrum. Transgender students make up a large percentage of those students who are more regularly coming out on college campuses today (Beemyn, Curtis, Davis, & Tubbs, 2005; Negrete, 2007). As this population continues to make themselves known, college professionals must acknowledge these students' experiences and provide them greater support.

As students enter college, they experience many formative transitions. They must navigate the academic world and attain direction for their post-graduate lives, engage in meaningful co-curricular experiences through student activities, all the while working to define themselves for the greater world (Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011). In a world driven by the dichotomy of male and female gender dynamics, transgender people feel at odds with a core dynamic of how external forces define and often suppress a transgender individual's gender identity. College often provides the first opportunities for these students to explore their transgender identity and establish a sense of authenticity in their lives (Finger, 2010). Transgender students require support from their universities to navigate the college experience. Classroom interactions, residence hall facilities, records and documentations, and general safety on campus pose challenges and threats to transgender students. Colleges must address these issues by creating intentional responses, systems, and policies to improve the experiences of transgender students.

Terminology

Transgender is an all-inclusive term that defines individuals who identify as having some sense of dissonance with their biological sex and assigned gender at birth (Effrig et al., 2011; Negrete, 2007). Because of this dissonance, transgender individuals can feel excluded by

current gender-normative pronouns: he and she, him/his and her. More inclusive pronouns have begun to surface, including ze, the singular and possessive replacement for he/his and she/hers, and hir, the plural replacement for him and her (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2012). Often they, their, or them function as viable gender-neutral alternatives that can encompass both conforming and non-conforming gender identities. Many transgender individuals prefer to be referred to with these inclusive pronouns, while others prefer the use of conforming pronouns; this could be correlated to some individual's preference to claim their transgender identity while others prefer to "leave their previous lives behind them" (Beemyn et al., 2005). Negrete (2007) elaborated on the inclusiveness of terminology by stating, "the term transgender deconstructs the gender binary, encompassing those who identify as gender variant or gender queer" (p. 28).

Further identifications may include cross-dresser, gender performer, gender non-conforming, or transsexual (Beemyn et al., 2005; Effrig et al., 2011; Negrete, 2007). Green (2004) stressed the importance of distinguishing between the terms transgender and transsexual; "to use 'transgender' and 'transsexual' interchangeably is to erase both individual experience and the very different social needs of these diverse categories" (p. 14). The primary distinction in defining transsexuals as a subset of transgender individuals is in the desire to "change the sexual characteristics of their body to bring their gender and their body into alignment" (Green, 2004, p. 14). This process can be defined as a transition, or the process of living either partially or completely as a gender other than that which the individual was assigned (Beemyn et al., 2005). It is especially important to note not all transgender individuals have the desire for immediate or eventual physical intervention, and may instead express their transition through a variety of means (Effrig et al., 2011).

Effrig et al. (2011) notes regardless of desire for physical transition, many transgender students to some degree have a desire to pass to peers or strangers. Passing refers to being identified and perceived by others as the gender with which the individual identifies (Effrig et al., 2011; Negrete, 2007). This can be achieved through mannerisms and clothing choices, or may involve androgynous haircuts and styles, or intentional vocal manipulation in speech (Beemyn et al., 2005; Effrig et al., 2011). Passing successfully can be a mark of great esteem for a transgender individual, often validating one's experiences by interacting with the world as desired and from a new place of "wholeness" (Beemyn et al., 2005).

Student Profile

Transgender students are connected by their common experience of re-defining gender identity and experimenting with gender expression; this may be the only common factor between transgender students. These students differ in race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, and age (Beemyn et al., 2005). As Beemyn et al. (2005) indicated, some students enter college with an acceptance and expression of their transgender identity, other students may be aware of their identity but do feel the need to disclose the information publicly, and still others are completely unaware of their identities but will discover them throughout their college experience. These varying experiences and levels of expression pose many difficulties for practitioners who wish to provide support but are unable to identify these students as a homogenous group, depending on various levels of awareness or acknowledgement of transgender identity.

Conway (2001), a trans-identified researcher and professional in higher education, conducted an intensive study that identified prevalence of transgender individuals who attempt physical transition, indicating this number to be one in 500 people. This statistic was found to be "in sharp contrast to the value of prevalence so often-quoted by 'expert authorities' in the U.S.

psychiatric community" (Conway, 2001, para. 78), which indicated a previous statistic of one in 30,000 people (American Psychological Association, 2000). Despite this disparity, it can be deduced that at least a handful of students will exist in a state of transition on a campus, depending on total population size (Negrete, 2007). Negrete (2007) illustrated further implications regarding the size of transgender student populations, indicating as much as an additional 3% of students are seriously questioning their gender identity on most campuses. With this data, it is evident transgender individuals can no longer be ignored as an important student population.

Transgender-Specific Concerns on College Campuses

The issues transgender students encounter on college campuses are numerous and varied, but can be categorized into concerns for facilities, classroom experiences, involvement, records and documentation, and safety. The effects of these experiences are vast and impactful on students' development during their college experience.

Campus Facilities

Campus facilities in this review can be defined as residence halls and housing facilities, as well as restrooms and locker rooms. These types of facilities are almost universally constructed on the assumption of student identity as only male or female (Beemyn et al., 2005). This is a significant problem, particularly at residential colleges, as the lack of gender-neutral facilities affects the transgender students' experience with rest, personal relief, interaction with peers and strangers, and much more. "Wanting to feel safe and accepted in campus housing" (Negrete, 2007, p. 34) is a legitimate desire of transgender students, though it is hard to come by these feelings at most colleges and universities. A common example is that of a trans-identified female-bodied student who lives in an all-female residence hall, and wants to transition to a male gender identity. Not only is the continued use of female facilities an uncomfortable and self-degrading experience for the student, but it can also pose problems for female peers who begin perceiving the student as male and feel violated by the male presence in the facilities. Even if this student has acquired a single-occupancy room, using community restrooms can still induce severe amounts of anxiety as is frequently the case in any gender-specific restroom on campus (Negrete, 2007). The student runs the risk of being rejected from public restrooms and locker rooms, or even reported to campus security for behavior deemed as inappropriate. This is a best-case scenario for most, as physical violence is a more frequent fear for transgender students (Beemyn et al., 2005; Finger, 2010).

Recognizing these issues, some colleges and universities have begun to make changes in their facilities. The Transgender Law and Policy Institute provides an extensive list of institutions that have adopted inclusive policies, and track accommodations publicly indicated by these institutions for transgender students (Transgender Law and Policy Institute [TLPI], 2009). The University of Michigan, for example, allows residential students to have a roommate of any gender, thus allowing students to choose the gender with which they feel most comfortable living (TLPI, 2009). The University of Michigan is one of 88 colleges and universities that currently offer gender-inclusive housing (TLPI, 2009).

Transition Support

For transgender students who are considering a transition, many venues of resources and support are needed to successfully achieve proper reflection of their gender identity. Harry Benjamin's Standards of Care document exists for health professionals, and campus health professionals are no exception (Harry Benjamin International Gender Dysphoria Association,

2002), but few policies guide other resources necessary to address the needs of transgender students.

Records and documentation. Student identification cards, registrar documents, and transcripts often require the use of the student's legal name and birth gender; class rosters usually require the name identified on these documents, but can occasionally be changed by contacting the professor for the specific course. For a student who passes regularly or is attempting to transition, not having documentation that reflects gender expression and identity can be detrimental to the transition experience (Beemyn et al., 2005). Beemyn et al., (2005) illustrated:

Not only does having the appropriate name and gender reflect and validate their identities, but it may also prevent transgender students from being placed into uncomfortable and dangerous situations where they would have to explain why they use a name different from their birth name and why their appearance does not match a photo or gender designation on an identification card. (p. 58)

Additionally, students are often not provided resources to navigate the legal system to get the proper changes made to these name and gender markers (Beemyn et al., 2005). These students are left to fend for themselves in a system that can be confusing even for seasoned professionals, which further adds to the stress and anxiety experienced by these students throughout a transition.

Health services. For many transgender students, a great deal of speculation exists regarding the trustworthiness and professionalism of health care services, for fear of being denied care or judged because of a transgender identity (Beemyn et al., 2005). Though research is limited, one study completed by McKinney (2005) reflected the experiences of graduate students at various colleges, which indicated over half of the students surveyed reported limited to non-existent support from their respective campus health care services. McKinney concluded these providers not only failed to provide adequate resources but often seemed unwilling to even try.

Per industry standards of care, counseling services are almost always necessary in order to receive health care support for a physical transition (Harry Benjamin International Gender Dysphoria Association, 2002). Unfortunately, significant struggles may exist in seeking these services on campus (Beemyn et al., 2005; McKinney, 2005). As Beemyn et al. explained, "culturally appropriate counseling can provide a safe, nonjudgmental place for students to explore their developing identities and address college-related challenges" (2005, p. 56). Further, letters from counseling professionals stating their relationship with the student and services provided-minimally, one year of service is required-are necessary in order to pursue surgical intervention in a physical transition (Harry Benjamin International Gender Dysphoria Association, 2002). If these services are not available to students, not only will the struggle to transition be greater, but potential mental health issues of these students may also be passed over (Beemyn et al., 2005).

Safety

Safety largely ties all these campus experiences together, but also represents a separate and legitimate hindrance to the transgender student experience. Fears of attacks, such as verbal harassment or physical violence, are a reality for transgender students (Finger, 2010; Negrete, 2007) as are the increased statistics of suicidal tendencies in these individuals (Effrig et al., 2011). Negrete (2007) explained, "safe campuses enable students to have an empowering experience with minimal fear that their safety will be compromised" (p. 32), but unfortunately

that is not the case for most transgender students. Transgender students are constantly aware of their surroundings so they can assess the safety of any given location or situation (Negrete, 2007). This usually amounts to students removing themselves from various situations in attempts to protect themselves, when even the mere act of walking across campus can be anxiety-inducing. Whether this threat to transgender students' safety is actual or perceived, Effrig et al. (2011) found that distress rates are significantly higher for transgender students as opposed to their peers who identify with their assigned genders. In addition, Effrig et al. (2011) found significant data to indicate that higher rates of victimization are experienced by transgender students, further justifying the students' fear of violence.

Recommendations for Best Practices

While many implications can be drawn from reflection on transgender student struggles, the underlying causes and solutions of these issues can be linked to the education of campus faculty, administrators, and staff. Student affairs practitioners need to review, develop, and implement programming that is safe and inviting for transgender students. In addition, practitioners should develop and revise policies that would support transgender students. Without inclusive policies in place, these students will never feel fully protected in the event that any detrimental experience occurs. This includes policies for admissions, human resources, financial support, academics, participation in athletics, and anti-discrimination support in all settings, to name a few considerations.

For residence directors and practitioners in housing services, updating application processes to include designations for transgender students and gender preferences would make a significant difference in safe and inclusive assignments. Additional policies and standards to address safety concerns specific to residence halls and roommate conflicts would add value to any program and relay further support to the students. These amended applications and policies could model the way across campus to encourage updates to admissions applications, job applications for student employment, or even entrance forms for health and counseling services. Diversity offices should create or enhance SafeZone (Gay Alliance, 2012) or other similar educational and training programs to encourage inclusive spaces for transgender students and maintain competence amongst professionals supporting these students. Because this issue extends beyond the division of student affairs, it is important to provide resources for all campus officials, faculty, and staff, to become better educated on the issues these students face. Health educators must remain knowledgeable of current practices and services necessary for transgender students, particularly for those students questioning or desiring physical transitions. Supportive policies for addressing transition experiences, including standards for name and gender changes would be impactful for these students. Not only would this allow for a supportive campus climate, it would also help the student navigate the complicated legal issues involved in this process. Perhaps most important are the implications for addressing a student's safety, including anti-discrimination policies and practices that address and would allow action against trans-phobic individuals on campus.

Utilizing benchmark comparisons to similar colleges and universities can provide examples of what other institutions are implementing to address this student population. The Transgender Law and Policy Institute (2009) is an excellent resource showing progress in many universities across the nation, and it is important for colleges to aim to set and maintain standards of inclusivity and support. Remaining ahead of the curve will not only provide students with a better on-campus experience but will also entice future generations to seek education from an openly supportive institution.

Conclusion

Transgender students have a unique experience on college campuses and are a growing population that should not be ignored. At an estimated 3% of student populations (Negrete, 2007), it is more important now than ever to make transgender students feel important and supported. Current literature indicates the need for support and resources provided to these students, but further research is needed to measure the outcomes of these services. It is evident that change is necessary, and there is no better time than now for higher education institutions to set a standard for supporting this marginalized population. As a profession devoted to the support and development of all students, it is time for student affairs practitioners to put significant effort toward and lead the charge for supporting this demographic as equally as other student populations.

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Examining the Roles of Seniority and Hierarchy in Perceived Leadership Competence and Confidence in Undergraduate Student Organizations

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Abstract

Given the rising importance of studying college student leadership development, this research examined Registered Student Organizations (RSOs) and the effects of seniority (for example, longevity within the organization) and organizational position on self-reported and peer leadership competence. The measures utilized included the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) and the Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale (LEF), both popular measures within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). Neither seniority nor organizational position significantly predicted self-reported leadership scores, while seniority emerged as a significant predictor of peer leadership assessment. Gender also emerged as a significant variable: both women and men ranked women higher on both scales of leadership. These results suggest organizational position may not be as significant to the perception of leadership competence as it is sometimes considered in the business world, while seniority may continue to influence how students perceive the leadership effectiveness of their peers.

Keywords: leadership, leadership assessment, student leadership, student organizations

In the last fifteen years, the study and measurement of leadership has become increasingly important in collegiate and professional environments (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Not only do colleges possess significant responsibility in producing effective leaders; their training meaningfully impacts students' professional futures (Astin & Astin, 2000). As fewer companies organize their work around structured hierarchies (Friedman, 2007), teaching college students leadership capacities such as forming trusting relationships, developing social and emotional competence, and learning to challenge and support students become integral to professional success (Rosch, Anderson, & Jordan, 2012). While many college campuses employ structured leadership development programs that seek to teach these skills, almost half of these programs in student affairs report their status as "new" or "emerging" in regards to providing broad-based services to students (Owen, 2012). This paper will examine the current state of leadership capacity in today's college students, assisting programs that seek to grow and assess their impact. We utilize the following definition of leadership described within a popular leadership studies textbook: "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3).

Many students have their first substantive leadership experience through Registered Student Organization (RSO) involvement in college (Foubert & Grainger, 2006). While those who join RSOs are diverse in terms of personality, grade point average (GPA), and personal backgrounds (Busseri & Rose-Krasnor, 2008; Foubert & Grainger, 2006), research shows participating in extracurricular activities results in an increase in interactions with other students, faculty, and the campus community, as well as higher levels of perceived educational quality and involvement than if students were not involved (Abrahamowicz, 1988). Student leaders in

RSOs show significant personal and professional growth through "developmental gains in interpersonal competence, practical competence, cognitive complexity, and humanitarianism" (Foubert & Grainger, 2006, p. 169). Through extracurricular participation, students report increased intellectual and interpersonal growth; specifically, studies show significant increases in autonomy, self-awareness, self-confidence, and leadership skills (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Thus, the leadership skills and perceived efficacy gained from RSO involvement inform how students continue to lead throughout their professional endeavors. In 1993, Astin conducted longitudinal research examining how college influences development. While Astin identified several factors that tend to increase leadership development (peer interaction, living on or off campus, number of years of college completed, etc.), his study admitted two significant limitations. First, election to a student leadership position was the major definition of student leadership for the study. While a clear indicator of positional leadership, this narrow definition ignores the large population of students who have substantial leadership experiences without formal titles. Secondly, the study revealed the processes and outcomes of leadership development program were vastly understudied, despite the overwhelming number of existing college leadership programs. By studying self and peer perceptions of leadership, this study intends to evaluate leadership in terms of both individual and group perceptions in the context of how businesses often evaluate their employees own leadership development.

In particular, our research focuses on how organizational position predicts peers' perceived competence and confidence, and how seniority (for example, longevity within the organization) may affect such prediction. In addition, we examined how gender might affect results, as it has long been shown as a predictor of evaluation of leadership effectiveness (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). The effects of organizational position have been curiously understudied within the literature on student leadership development (Rosch & Coers, 2013), given its ubiquity both on the college campus and within professional environments. While student leaders within RSOs are associated with higher levels of self-management, educational involvement, and cultural participation (Foubert and Grainger, 2006), their leadership development as a function of position and longevity of involvement has yet to be examined. Thus, leadership development may operate independently or causally from students' personal attributes and/or campus involvement.

Research Questions

Given the importance of the topics discussed above, our research focused on the following questions:

1. Does the level of a student's title/position within their Registered Student Organization (RSO) predict students' and peers' assessment of the student's leadership competence and confidence?

2. Do gender and seniority (e.g. longevity within the organization) moderate such effects, if found?

Methods

To examine our research questions, we designed a study utilizing undergraduate students who were all involved in RSOs on campus.

Population and Sample

Participating students were all matriculated undergraduate students at a large, public, highly selective university in the Midwestern United States. Selected RSOs were identified by the

research team, chosen due to their size (n > 20) and organizational structure that included a single select decision-maker (i.e. president), an executive board, committee heads, and general body members. These RSOs ranged in mission including service to the community, providing professional development to members, and creating opportunity for social engagement for students. A total of 92 students participated in the study from six RSOs during the Spring and Fall 2012 semesters, rating themselves and a total of 342 peers. The mean number of peers rated per student was 3.7. Approximately 65% (n=60) students identified as female. Five students listed their position as "president," 20 as "executive board member," 8 as "committee chair," and 59 as "general body member." Almost 60% (n=55) had been a member of the organization for one year or less; 17% (n=16) for two years; 14% (n=13) for three years; and 7% (n=6) reported being involved for four years.

Instrumentation

To assess leadership competence, students completed the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, Version 2-Revised (SRLS) (Slack, 2006), a 68-item measure aligned with the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). The SCM represents a popular model of modern leadership capacity taught on college campuses, and the SRLS is used to measure leadership capacity within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), an international and ongoing study of student leadership development. All items possessed a 5-point Likert-scale response set ranging from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree." A sample item within the SRLS is, "I participate in activities that contribute to the common good."

Confidence in leadership was measured using the Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE) scale, a 4-item measure designed to assess one's confidence in engaging in leadership behaviors. The LSE possesses a 4-item response set ranging from "Very confident" to "Not at all confident" and includes items such as, "I can organize a group's tasks to accomplish a goal." Both the SRLS and the LSE are included measures within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), an international leadership study of college students focused on their leadership development.

Data Collection

Members of the research team visited participating RSOs, where members completed the research instrument for themselves and up to five other RSO members, where items on the "observer" version of the instruments were changed from "I can..." to "This person can..." To connect self-reported responses to observer-reported responses, students listed their names and the names of each RSO member they chose to evaluate. Students were also asked to list their gender, number of semesters they have been a member of the organization, their position within the organization, and the positions of each member they chose to evaluate. After the meeting, the research team member sent an email to members of the RSO with a link to an electronic version of the survey, so students who were not present at the meeting could participate if they chose.

Data Analysis

Once all self-reported responses were connected to observer-reported responses, all names were deleted to preserve the anonymity of students. Means and dispersion statistics were calculated by overall self and observer populations. We then conducted a regression analysis on both SRLS and LEF scores to determine the effects of gender, seniority, and longevity in predicting self-reported measures.

To measure the significance of observer rank in assessing the leadership competence of others, observer data was then divided into three groups: a group where all observers were ranked lower than the students they evaluated, a group where all observers were ranked higher than the students they evaluated, and a group were the ranking of students matched who they were evaluating. We then measured means and dispersion from these groups and conducted t-tests for both scale scores to determine if any differences emerged as significant.

Lastly, we evaluated the effect of gender on scores by conducting an analysis similar to that of rank, where we placed students in three groups: male-evaluating female, female-evaluating male, and same-gender evaluations. We then conducted t-tests for both scales to determine if differences found were significant.

Results

The overall self-reported SRLS and LEF scores were lower and less dispersed than observer scores. In regards to the SRLS, the self-reported mean and standard deviation were 4.07 and .34, respectively, while the observer mean and standard deviation were 4.25 and .54. With respect to the LEF, students scored themselves at a mean of 3.26 (SD = .58) while observers scored them at a mean of 3.32 (SD = .58).

Effects of Position and Longevity on Leader Competence Assessment

We conducted two multiple regression analyses – one using the SRLS and one using the LEF scores – to determine the degree that longevity and organizational position predicted self-reported leadership score. Neither variable served as a significant predictor within the SRLS analysis, although longevity (i.e. the number of semesters of involvement) emerged as a marginal predictor ($p < .10$). Longevity also emerged as a significant predictor of LEF score ($p<.001$). When controlling for longevity, organizational position did not possess predictive qualities for either self-reported leadership scale score.

A total of 121 observer ratings were collected where the observer was ranked lower than the student being evaluated. A total of 141 evaluations were collected from students ranked at the same organizational level, and 55 from students ranked higher than those they evaluated. Peers who evaluated students at a higher level than themselves scored these students higher both on the SRLS and the LEF than peers who evaluated students at a lower level to them. SRLS means for both groups were 4.32 (.48) for lower-evaluating-higher, and 4.26 (.52) for higher-evaluating-lower. Curiously, peers evaluating students at the same level scored them lowest, at 4.18 (.57). Results were similar with regard to the LEF: the lower-evaluating-higher score was 3.47 (.55), while the higher-evaluating-lower was 3.32 (.60), with the lowest score found in peers evaluating at the same level, at 3.19 (.59). Using data from students who evaluated members at different organizational levels, t-tests on both SRLS and LEF mean scores demonstrated that organizational rank did not predict either scale score ($p=.57$ for the SRLS, $p=.12$ for the LEF).

Effect of Gender on Assessment of Leader Competence

On scores of leader competence, men tended to rate themselves lower than women rated themselves. Men averaged 3.93 on the SRLS and 3.18 on the LEF, while mean scores for women were 4.15 and 3.30, respectively. This finding represents a significant difference in mean SRLS score, $t(88) = 3.0$; $p=.003$, but not LEF score. A total of 54 observations were collected from men evaluating women, and 47 observations from women evaluating men. In general, men tended to rate women higher than women rated men. Men rated women at a mean of 4.24 on the SRLS and 3.49 on the LEF, while women rated men at 4.10 and 3.28,

respectively. This represented a significant difference on the LEF scale, $t(99) = 1.94$, p=.05, but not on the SRLS scale.

Discussion

Our research focused on the effects of organizational rank on perceived leadership competence, and how longevity and gender may interact with these perceived effects. Our results showed that organizational rank played little role in how students evaluated both themselves and their peers. Our data showed that presidents rated entry-level members as being as skilled and confident in their leadership capabilities as entry-level members rated presidents. This counterintuitive finding suggests organizational rank, seen as significant in the business world in evaluating employees, may not possess similar predictive power in higher education. Longevity within the organization seemed to be viewed by students as more significant than rank, as students' self-evaluation scores could be predicted, in part, by this variable. Moreover, those who retained membership for longer in the organization perceived their newer peers' leadership self-efficacy as lower than newer students perceived the leadership self-efficacy of more senior members. Our research also suggested that gender continues to play a key role in perceived leadership competence. These findings, while contradicting older research (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), reinforces more recent efforts (Dugan & Komives, 2010), that suggest women may be beginning to surpass their male peers in leadership skill and competence.

Several important implications may be drawn from what our results suggest. The role of organizational position within student organizations, seen as relevant to a college student's self-image as a leader in past research (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004), may not be as important as continued involvement. This may, to some extent, be related to the degree to which student affairs leadership educators are training students involved in organizations on more non-hierarchical models of leadership currently popular on college campuses (Owen, 2012). Continued focus on leadership as a process rather than a position may be in order. Moreover, leadership educators might benefit from creating broader pathways to longitudinal involvement for less-experienced students. Greek-letter organizations, for example, often include class-related leadership boards, so that newer students have ways to practice leadership.

However, our results continue to reinforce a gender gap in leadership related to perceived competency. Men and women scored women higher and men lower related both to skill and confidence. Some researchers attribute the gap to the possibility that feminine styles of leadership are more strongly aligned than masculine styles with non-hierarchical leadership models (Haber, 2011). As future research in this area informs our practice, student affairs professionals should continue to be cognizant of gender and gendered styles of leading, so that their male students are not left behind. These educators might consider leadership programs targeted specifically to men to help them bridge their current understanding of leadership and themselves as leaders to what is required in contemporary society.

These findings are limited, however, in that they were collected from non-random samples of involved students at a single institution. Moreover, the study limited its understanding of leadership competence to measures of Social Change Model-oriented skill and self-efficacy. Subsequent research should include more diverse groups of students and more comprehensive conceptualizations of leadership. In addition, future research could examine non-hierarchical teams and organizations such as classroom project teams, or focus data collection on measuring if differences exist across types of RSOs.

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The First-Year Commuter:
Impacts of Residency and Involvement on the University Transition

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Abstract

While often constructed as a homogenous group within higher education discourse, overall experiences of university life differ greatly between subsections of commuter students. This paper seeks to examine how one subsection of the commuter population – traditionally aged, first-year students living with their parent(s) – experiences the transition to university as a direct correlation of their ability to become involved. This paper determines a number of barriers exist for these students in their attempts to become involved. These barriers include living arrangements, multiple life roles, insufficient opportunities for interaction with peers and faculty, and the myth that all students experience the transition to university in the same way. Strategies to support commuter students both prior to and during their transition to university are discussed, highlighting the need to help commuter students connect with their campus through involvement.

Keywords: commuter student, involvement, living arrangement, parents, transition

While often identified as a singular group within the realm of student affairs research, commuter students actually form a considerably heterogeneous community within U.S. higher education (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). Although there are a number of common challenges commuter students experience, this paper seeks to explore one facet of the differentiated experiences that exist between subsections of this population. The paper examines how traditionally aged, first-year commuter students' involvement during the transition to university is impacted by living at home. Traditionally aged, first-year commuter students living with their parent(s) experience a relatively more challenging transition to university than their peers living in residence halls (Smith, 1989) due to the barriers they face when attempting to become involved in the campus community (Astin, 1999; Jacoby & Garland, 2004). This paper begins by introducing the concepts of the commuter student, transition, and involvement, before framing each of these concepts' importance within the context of this discussion. The barriers to involvement faced by traditionally aged, first-year students living with their parent(s) are assessed, ultimately providing context as to why their involvement must be understood by student affairs professionals for this community to be best served.

Defining the Commuter Student

Prior to analyzing the transition experiences of traditionally aged, first-year commuter students, it is useful to develop a concept of what the term commuter student means. Generally, this term refers to students who do not live in institution-owned accommodations on campus (Jacoby, 1989). The commuter population includes full-time and part-time students, learners of all ages, and individuals who reside in a variety of living arrangements, including family homes and off-campus apartments (Jacoby & Garland, 2004).

Significance of Commuter Student Populations

While the population encompassed within the term commuter student is diverse, the concept itself is important. When considering all institutional types, commuter students comprise more than 85% of the overall U.S. college student body (Horn & Nevill, 2006). The commuting process is a significant element informing these students' experiences on college campuses. Jacoby (2000) noted that despite the differences that exist among commuter students, "the fact that they commute to college profoundly influences the nature of their educational experience. For residential students, home and campus are synonymous; for commuter students, the campus is a place to visit, sometimes for very short periods" (p. 6). As commuting significantly informs their campus experiences, commuter students share a number of core concerns, including transportation issues and developing a sense of belonging within the community (Jacoby, 2000). Additionally, Astin (2001) reported commuting is generally negatively correlated with completion of a bachelor's degree and enrollment in graduate or professional education. As a population, commuter students not only represent a substantial majority of university students, but are also attached to lower retention rates and a set of shared challenges in navigating university life (Astin, 2001; Jacoby, 2000). It is therefore important for student affairs professionals to gain an understanding of what impacts these students' experience, and develop interventions and support services to address the needs of this population.

Significance of Traditionally Aged, First-Year Commuter Students

Traditionally aged, first-year commuter students living with their parent(s) represent one commuter subpopulation whose concerns require further examination. This subsection is comprised of all students entering college between the ages of 18 and 23 who live at home with their parent(s) (Justice & Dornan, 2001). According to the 2011 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Study, first-time, full-time freshmen students who live with family or other relatives (98.7% of whom are less than 20 years old) make up 15% of incoming students at all baccalaureate institutions (Pryor, DeAngelo, Palucki Blake, Hurtado, & Tran, 2011). While this group is thus sizeable, it is often overlooked when discussing the variables impacting student success within the transition to university. As Jacoby and Garland (2004) noted, that these students are overlooked may be a result of the incorrect assumption that "what works for traditional on-campus residential students works equally well for commuter students" (p. 63). Understanding how this transition is different and what is needed to facilitate a successful transition among commuter students is important in ensuring these students acquire the competencies necessary to successfully complete the transition to university and achieve their degrees (Kuh, Gonyea, & Palmer, 2001).

The Impacts of Transitioning to University

Much has been written about the impact of students' transition to college. When an individual chooses to attend university, he or she may experience a significant transition, which is often defined as "any event, or non-event, that results in changed relationships, routines, assumptions and roles" (Goodman, Schlossberg, & Anderson, 2006, p. 33). Theorists and researchers identified the transition to university as one that may lead to significant growth in terms of the competencies, knowledge, and skillsets gained (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

The potential for positive development as a result of the university transition has been expressly identified amongst traditionally aged undergraduate attendees. As Smith (1989) noted, "the traditional 18- to 21-year-old college student experiences a radical reformation of his or her identity, values, and beliefs during the first two years of college" (p. 47). When compared with their peers aged 25 or older, traditionally aged students entering university have fewer prior

"life-world experiences" (Justice & Dornan, 2001, p. 237), and less fully formed adult identities (Jordyn & Byrd, 2003). The transition to university is thus a key opportunity to develop further experiences, engage in identity-formation, and continue psychosocial development.

In spite of the positive possibilities for growth, transitions may also yield stagnation or decline within individuals' development. Smith (1989) identified the same literature focused on the positive impact of the university transition as much less encouraging when addressing the experiences of commuter students within the same age range, especially in the "areas of self-concept, autonomy, and social and academic integration" (p. 47). The lack of positive literature about commuter students' transition is troubling because students are most likely to depart early in their college careers (Levin & Levin, 1991). Identifying what differences impact this transition is key in understanding how to retain commuter students and ensure their success.

Why Involvement Matters

While there are a significant number of factors that inform the transition experience, involvement has been identified across higher education literature as a key component in the successful transition to university (Astin, 1999; Jacoby & Garland, 2004). Student involvement can be understood as the ways students spend time and expend effort in relation to academic pursuits (Astin, 1999). Researchers have concluded that involvement on campus has a substantial impact on retention (Astin, 1999). Further studies demonstrated early involvement with faculty and students also influences persistence (Milem & Berger, 1997). From these findings, it appears involvement is significant because it facilitates social and academic integration, thus expediting students' transition to university life and promoting persistence.

Challenges to Involvement for Commuter Students

With a sense of the potential implications of involvement in place, it is necessary to assess what challenges and supports traditionally aged, first-year commuter students living with their parent(s) experience when becoming involved. While attempts to devote energy to the academic experience are informed by a number of factors, living arrangements may be chief among the factors that contribute to involvement. Commuter students are inherently less likely to experience immersed involvement than their peers in residence as a direct result of their living arrangements (Astin, 1999). Astin (1999) noted this impact in his own theory on student development and involvement, asserting students living in residence halls experience greater convenience than their off-campus peers when attempting to become involved in campus life, both in terms of time and opportunity. He affirmed that by "eating, sleeping, and spending their waking hours on the college campus, residential students have a better chance [...] of developing a strong identification and attachment to undergraduate life" (Astin, 1999, p. 523). Living off-campus means commuter students are not immersed in campus culture to the same extent as those students living in on-campus residence halls.

As a result of spending less time on campus, traditionally aged commuter students are not only less likely to become immersed in campus culture, but also less likely to engage in social involvements contributing to retention. Engagement, as defined by Kuh (2009), "represents the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college and what institutions do to induce students to participate in these activities" (p. 683). Commuter students are more likely to concentrate their classes in blocks and spend less free-time on campus (Jacoby & Garland, 2004), thereby limiting their opportunities for engagement. Reduced active engagement keeps commuter students from developing the student-student and student-faculty social interactions positively correlated with student

effort, effective learning, and persistence (Krause, 2007; Tinto, 1993). They are therefore less likely to build on-campus support networks, especially when there are insufficient opportunities to develop relationships with faculty and peers (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). While it is unclear from the research whether commuter students' lack of adequate opportunities for social involvement is in any way a result of self-exclusion, institutions have a significant role to play in ensuring commuter students not only see the benefit of further immersing themselves within the campus community, but also opportunities through which to do so.

While living off-campus means commuter students are inherently less likely to have access to the same involvement opportunities as their peers, living with one's family provides an additional layer of complexity to the relationship between living arrangement and involvement. Students who live with family are not simply living off-campus; these students also find themselves managing roles which may not be recognized by the academy as having significant impacts on their time. For traditionally aged commuter students "being a student is only one of several important and time-consuming roles" (Jacoby & Garland, 2004, p. 64). Traditionally aged students living with their parent(s) continue their family roles as children and siblings who may be expected to take on responsibilities within the home (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). These responsibilities, when coupled with the time associated with the physical transportation involved in commuting, make evident the fact that time is a finite resource (Astin, 1999). Astin (1999) noted time is a "zero-sum game" (p. 523) in which the time invested in outside activities represents less time a student can focus on involvements that benefit his or her academic experience. For commuter students, time becomes a "critical and limited resource that directly impacts their ability to engage in academic and co-curricular activities" (Jacoby & Garland, 2004, p. 64). Students whose multiple life roles are more evident as a result of their living arrangements must select their campus involvements carefully as competing priorities demand time be split amongst them.

Involvement Supports for Commuter Students

While living at home presents a number of barriers in terms of traditionally aged commuter students' ability to become involved, the benefits of living with parent(s) should not be overlooked. While literature regarding the positive impacts of living at home on involvement during transition is sparse, living with one's parent(s) during the transition to university may not only provide students with access to a live-in social support network (Jacoby & Garland, 2004), but may also provide the financial reprieve necessary to allow students to spend time and energy on their academics, rather than on work. Overall, the lack of literature identifying familial supports for commuter student involvement suggests limits to this support.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

The transition to university is important to retention and to the continued holistic development of students. Students who experience barriers to involvement, whether as a result of institutional organization or individual constraints, may be less likely to experience both a successful transition to the university and the psychosocial development required to prosper after graduation. It is thus necessary for student affairs professionals to move past assumptions that programming which supports the transition of first-year students living in the residence halls will be sufficient to ensure the success of all incoming students. In gaining further understanding of what factors impact incoming commuter students' experiences, practitioners can develop interventions and support services to specifically address the needs of this population.

Student affairs professionals should work to support traditionally aged commuter students who live with their parent(s) in preparing for the transition process. While little research

has been done on this population in particular, orientation programs are a valuable tool in ensuring that all new students feel welcome on campus (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). New student orientation programs that intentionally address the concerns of commuter students are very useful, especially when they provide opportunities for commuter students to interact with other students, and work with advisors to establish the educational goals and the campus opportunities that will most benefit students (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). Family orientations assist parents in supporting their students through the transition process, and in understanding why students are "strongly encouraged to spend (...) time on campus and to become involved in activities that do not seem to relate directly to their classes" (Jacoby & Garland, 2004, p. 72). Orientation programs therefore provide traditionally aged commuter students with initial opportunities to become involved, and teach parents the significance of involvement.

Student affairs professionals can also assist traditionally aged commuter students transitioning to university process by providing avenues for involvement during the school year. Student affairs professionals must be cognizant of the barriers that exist to commuter students' involvement and participation, and seek to institute policies and practices that limit the impacts of these barriers (Jacoby & Garland, 2004). Effective strategies for reducing obstacles to involvement include establishing non-residential learning communities, developing co-curricular programs scheduled at various times to accommodate students' schedules (Jacoby & Garland, 2004), and linking students to peer mentors who can provide on-campus support (Wilson, 2003). Student affairs professionals must facilitate opportunities for commuter students to engage more fully with the institution, while remaining cognizant of the ways students' life roles and time resources inform their conceptions of meaningful involvement.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper sought to make evident the fact that traditionally aged, first-year commuter students living with their parent(s) experience a relatively challenging transition to university. Significant barriers this particular group faces when attempting to become involved in the campus community include living arrangements, inadequate opportunities for social interaction, and multiple life roles. Perhaps the biggest institutional barrier these students face is the myth they have the same transitional needs as their first-year peers living in residence halls, and commuter students in general. Student affairs professionals must therefore become more aware of the aforementioned obstacles to implement and facilitate meaningful opportunities for these students to connect to the campus through involvement. To ensure best practices are enacted, however, further research on the transition experience of this specific subpopulation of commuter students must be completed. Recommendations for this research include identifying intrapersonal barriers to involvement faced by members of this group and understanding how this population determines which involvement opportunities are most worthy of their time and effort. This research will be useful in developing the next steps necessary for practitioners to best support traditionally aged, first-year students in their transition.

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Circular Framing:
A Model for Applying Bolman and Deal's Four Frames in Student Affairs Administration

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Abstract

Administrators in student affairs navigate bureaucracies, manage staff, advocate for resources, and lead with purpose (Sermersheim & Keim, 2005). Nonetheless, scholars note research concerning student affairs management and leadership remains underemphasized in the current literature (Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Carpenter & Stimpson, 2007). Few models in student affairs exist to help translate theory to practice. Bolman and Deal's (2013) four frames encourage leaders to view organizations through structural, human resource, political, and symbolic lenses. The four frames synthesize decades of literature on organizational theory and are frequently cited in higher education and student affairs publications. Previous scholarship, however, does not provide a model for applying the frames in student affairs administration. This paper proposes the Circular Framing Model-a model for administrative practice combining Bolman and Deal's four frames with Birnbaum's (1988) ideas of thinking in systems and circles. This model helps student affairs professionals critically evaluate their environments to lead and manage more effectively.

Keywords: circular framing, four frames, student affairs administration

Management and administration are vital components to the work of student affairs professionals, but they are also some of the most complex duties, requiring particular skills and knowledge (Tull, 2006). It was once believed student affairs administrators needed little more than counseling skills for effective practice. However, administrative and management skills are now considered essential (Cuyjet, Longwell-Grice, & Molina, 2009; Lovell & Kosten, 2000). Those in student affairs leadership roles have the potential to change the nature of the field by facilitating individual growth of staff and improving programs, policies, and environments for college students. However, to promote these changes, leadership within student affairs must be reconceptualized (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). Part of such a reconceptualization is helping student affairs professionals better utilize theoretical frameworks in their day-to-day practice (Patton & Harper, 2009). One framework is Bolman and Deal's four frames (2013), which calls leaders to simultaneously view their organizations as factories, families, jungles, and theaters. The Circular Framing Model presented here helps student affairs administrators by suggesting how to apply the four frames based upon the context of the environment.

Exposure to models relevant to leadership and management should be a continuous part of any student affairs professional position (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). Models help translate theory to practice in an increasingly complex world (Fried, 2002; Upcraft, 1994). However, Fried (2002) noted models typically used in social science research are designed for controlled environments and generally do not fit the needs of student affairs. Likewise, Stock-Ward

and Javorek (2003) argued that current management models do not promote professional development or acknowledge human diversity. Scholar-practitioners in student affairs need to conduct the scholarship of integration-taking the time to ask what previous research about organization means in the current context of higher education and student affairs (Fried, 2002). Resulting models will not only improve practice, but also possibly reduce the attrition of new professionals in the field (Tull, 2006).

Bolman and Deal's Four Frames as a Model for Student Affairs Administration

Bolman and Deal (2013) have speculated that one of the most common fallacies of those who lead and manage is seeing an incomplete or distorted picture as a result of overlooking or misinterpreting important situations. They offer a four-frame model for interpreting organizational problems and analyzing decisions accordingly. Bolman and Deal (2013) choose the word *frame* to represent the theory that an individual uses to discern a problem and solution for a particular circumstance. Channeling insights from both research and practice, Bolman and Deal present four frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Each frame is grounded in literature stemming from organizational theory and psychology. Leaders may naturally adhere to one frame and attempt to resolve all organizational issues from that single frame, but Bolman and Deal suggest that the most effective administrators are those who can reframe – understanding how to artfully employ each of the four frames to varying degrees depending upon the situation.

The Structural Frame

The individual using the structural frame views the organization as a factory, made up of interconnecting parts that work together seamlessly (Bolman & Deal, 2013). The intellectual roots of the structural frame come from Frederick Taylor (1911) and Max Weber (1947). The structural frame underscores order, direction, and efficiency by emphasizing authority in decision-making. Higher education leaders are effective when they are architects who monitor specific data through systems they design (Birnbaum, 1988).

The Human Resource Frame

The professional using the human resource frame thinks of an organization as a family of people who care for and support one another (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Building on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, McGregor (1960) argued that managers create a self-fulfilling prophecy with their employees. If a manager possesses a *Theory X* assumption (McGregor, 1960), he or she believes employees are naturally lazy and they therefore need controls to keep them efficient. *Theory Y* (McGregor, 1960), by contrast, advocates that organizations should align their goals with the goals of employees, creating a paradigm whereby what is good for the individual is also good for the group. The student affairs professional viewing his or her world with the human resource frame focuses on individual growth and participation. Leaders are effective through cultivating talent and performance, and processes excel when leaders emphasize support, empowerment, and self-actualization (Argyris, 1957).

The Political Frame

An organization is a battleground with limited resources and divergent interests, according to those who utilize the political frame (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Groups funnel into subgroups, or coalitions, based upon common goals and the need to gain power through alliances. Those who utilize the political frame understand that decisions must be made between competing goods (Cyert & March, 1963). The ability to influence and bargain are vital characteristics

of the political frame, and student affairs leaders are effective when they provide arenas for constructive conflict and act as negotiators between subgroups (Kezar, 2011).

The Symbolic Frame

The professional using the symbolic frame views the organization as a theatre made up of stories with heroes and villains (Bolman & Deal, 2013). What something means is more important than what it actually is, and anecdotes are more powerful than data in this frame. The symbolic frame captures meaning, purpose, and values in an organization, dimensions that have been historically underemphasized in administration (Kezar, 2011; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). Colleges thrive on the symbolic frame with their traditions, symbols, fight songs, mascots, and sports teams. Leaders are most effective when they are artists who infuse meaning into otherwise mundane processes.

Reframing as an Act of Interdisciplinary Integration

The importance of the four frames is their capacity to allow for reframing – a process in which individuals must view a particular decision through four different lenses before selecting the best approach (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Bolman and Deal (2013) argue that those who can reframe situations will be most successful. Although any administrator will be more inclined to see the world through one or two of the frames, no one frame is better than any other; all four are needed for effective leadership and management in higher education (Bensimon, 1989; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Bolman & Gallos, 2011).

The Need for a Model for Applying the Four Frames

Bolman and Deal's (2013) four frames are cited often in student affairs literature. Some scholars reference the four frames in the context of power, suggesting that student affairs administrators can gain and use power through symbolic, political, and human resource means when they do not possess it structurally (Love & Estanek, 2004; Taylor, 2003). Others use the four frames to emphasize the importance of symbolism (Jackson, Moneta, & Nelson, 2009; Rogers, 2003; Young, 2003), politics (Stringer, 2009), and relationships (Ellis, 2009) in student affairs administration and management (Komives, 2011). Finally, some scholars describe the four frames while emphasizing how organizational theory is important to student affairs practice (Jones & Abes, 2011; Kezar, 2011; Kuh, 2003; Kuk, 2009; Patton & Harper, 2009; Stringer, 2009).

Although scholars consistently affirm the value of the four frames, no model is offered for how to apply the frames in practice. As Fried (2002) argued, "we have engaged extensively in the scholarship of discovery, less extensively in the scholarship of application, and have skipped the scholarship of integration" (p. 120). Student affairs administration provides an opportunity to integrate seemingly contrasting ideas into workable models that provide a foundation for effective leadership and management. Higher education leaders often fail at complex analysis because they lack awareness about the environmental subsystems that operate within their institutions (Kezar, 2011). A model is needed that helps student affairs professionals utilize the four frames within their campus subsystems, thereby giving administrators a pathway for determining how to begin the process of reframing.

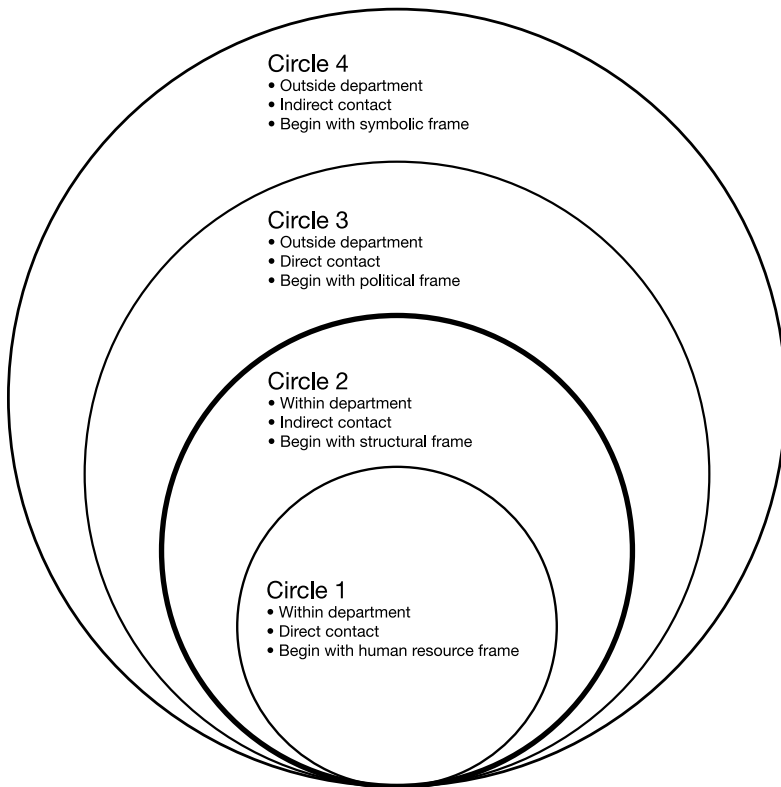## The Circular Framing Model

Understanding how a particular college functions requires looking beyond specific characteristics and analyzing it instead through systems and circles (Birnbaum, 1988). A system is an organized unit that has interdependent parts and is separated from its environment by a boundary. Systems exist throughout a college in the form of departments, areas, and divisions.

Decisions and outcomes in a system are circular, rather than linear; an outcome can influence a decision as much as a decision can influence an outcome (Birnbaum, 1988). Therefore, student affairs professionals need a nonlinear (circular) approach to understanding their environments. By interpreting their work environment as multiple circles with interconnecting boundaries, student affairs professionals can more effectively apply Bolman and Deal's (2013) four frames to analyze complicated organizational problems.

The proposed Circular Framing Model combines systems thinking, circular thinking (Birnbaum, 1988), and the four frames (Bolman & Deal, 2013) into a strategic approach to leadership. To begin, one can conceptualize an internal system as individuals who are within the department and an *external system* as those who are outside the department. Furthermore, within both the internal and external systems, student affairs professionals have a group of people with whom they have consistent, direct interaction, and a group of people with whom they have inconsistent, indirect interaction. When combined, administrators can imagine themselves in the middle of four circles that comprise the Circular Framing Model (see Figure 1). Each circle lends itself to a particular frame with which student affairs leaders can begin the process of reframing.

Figure 1.

Circle 4
• Outside department
• Indirect contact
• Begin with symbolic frame

Circle 3
• Outside department
• Direct contact
• Begin with political frame

Circle 2
• Within department
• Indirect contact
• Begin with structural frame

Circle 1
• Within department
• Direct contact
• Begin with human resource frame

Circle 1: Using the Human Resource Frame to be a Mentor

When utilizing the frames in student affairs practice, an administrator should begin with those he or she directly supervises. Such people are within the department and are in frequent, direct contact, so it is best to employ the human resource frame by helping employees feel like equals (Birnbaum, 1988). In this circle, the primary objective is to garner input, ideas, and opinions for the purpose of building consensus regarding common objectives and appropriate decisions to reach those objectives. The human resource frame encourages one to care not just about getting things done, but about the people who look to the manager as a role model and mentor (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

Circle 2: Using the Structural Frame to be a Boss

Ideally, consensus on decisions should include the entire department, but decentralization, departmental size, and the rapid pace of the college environment do not always allow for consensus of this magnitude. In larger units, attempting to build consensus among one's direct reports and *their* direct reports can cause rifts and confusion when people in different parts of the hierarchical structure disagree. There comes a time when it is necessary to be a boss, and this is especially important for the people who ultimately report to an administrator with whom they may have limited contact. For this circle, making decisions and expecting compliance are vital for the success of the entire staff. Here, the structural frame gives credence to the fact that decisions must be made, authority must be respected, roles must be delegated, and results must matter.

Circle 3: Using the Political Frame to be a Negotiator

In a world of limited resources and influence, politics provides a means for choosing between divergent interests and garnering the resources to accomplish goals (Birnbaum, 1988). Circle 3 represents an administrator's peers who are outside of the department but who report to the same supervisor. By becoming a negotiator in this circle, an administrator will begin to not only advocate for resources for his or her own area, but to also seek commonalities and partnerships among the divergent interests represented. In the end, learning how to use the political frame will allow an administrator to discern when it is best to partner and when it is best to compete (Stringer, 2009).

Circle 4: Using the Symbolic Frame to be a Storyteller

With so many departments, programs, and activities simultaneously existing on a single campus, student affairs is in competition with other divisions for the attention of college leaders (Schuh, 2009). While data can and should be used for such advocacy, it is easy to underestimate the importance of storytelling to communicate the positive impact of an administrator's area. The symbolic frame is often more important than the structural frame with those outside an administrator's department and division for two reasons. First, while people outside the department may demand numerical data, they rarely have the time to actually analyze the data and subsequently make meaning from it. Therefore, they will rely at least in part on the administrator's own interpretation and sensemaking (Weick et al., 2005). Second, stories move people, and the effect of well-designed anecdotal evidence can powerfully shape the way departmental outsiders in the college community view the work of student affairs.

Discussion and Implications of the Model

The art of leading and managing as a student affairs professional requires mastery of mentoring, bossing, negotiating, and storytelling. All four roles are needed, forcing administrators to see things differently (Love & Estanek, 2004). The Circular Framing Model encourages use of the context of the environmental subsystem as a guide for how to begin this process of reframing (see Table 1).

Table 1

Thinking in Circles					
Internal or External to Department?	**Direct or Indirect Contact?**	**Who**	**Beginning Frame**	**Role**	**Goal**
Internal	Direct	The people within your department whom you meet with on a regular basis, such as direct reports	Human Resource	Mentor	Build consensus and emphasize individual needs
Internal	Indirect	The people who ultimately report to you, but with whom you have limited contact	Structural	Boss	
	Make decisions and expect compliance				
External	Direct	The people outside your department, but who are your colleagues/peers who report to the same supervisor as you do	Political	Negotiator	Seek partnerships and advocate for resources
External	Indirect	The people outside of your department with whom you have very limited contact	Symbolic	Storyteller	Communicate successes and sensemaking through stories and rituals

Implications for Current Practice

If student affairs administrators think in systems and circles, their leadership will become more adaptive to the demands of different contexts. By appropriately analyzing the interconnecting circles of the environment, the most effective style of guidance will result from assessing the needs of each unique group. Those in student affairs administration will not only view their work as a continuous act of reframing, but also ascertain which situations call for them to be mentor, boss, negotiator, or storyteller.

The proposed Circular Framing Model provides guidance for where to begin, using organizational contexts to choose a frame from which to reframe. Administrators should be careful not to adhere to one frame exclusively, as a singular context could require the use of any particular frame. One of the best ways to navigate complex environments as an administrator is to break down such environments into smaller parts with more discernible contexts (Birnbaum, 1988). The Circular Framing Model divides the collegiate organizational environment into four circles, each with its own starting frame. Utilizing the frames within these four areas lends itself to better applicability and, therefore, more effective management and administration in student affairs.

The challenges of scholarly practice demonstrate that "simple activity and hard work are not enough, nor even close. Only continuous reflection, commitment, learning, and growth are acceptable if we are to be of service to our students and our institutions" (Carpenter & Stimpson, 2007, p. 281). The Circular Framing Model can provide graduate programs in higher education and student affairs another way to teach future professionals how to apply theory to administrative practice.

Implications for Future Research

The proposed Circular Framing Model also has implications for future research. To improve student affairs practice, Fried (2002) suggested that new models be tested and evaluated through feedback from practitioners. The four frames and the Circular Framing Model presented here should undergo such testing and examination. Although researched in other relevant areas, including with college presidents (Bensimon, 1989), no published study has empirically tested the four frames specifically with student affairs professionals. Future research could examine whether student affairs professionals lean toward particular frames and whether effective leaders in student affairs are adept at utilizing multiple frames. Such research will help to further expand and develop this model so that it continually assists professionals in utilizing theory for more effective practice.

Conclusion

Student affairs administrators utilize managerial and administrative skills to produce environments that enhance student development and promote student success. To do so effectively, leaders in student affairs must use theoretical models in their work that aid in making sense of complex environments. Bolman and Deal's (2013) four frames synthesize organizational theory in a manner that becomes translatable to student affairs practice, but no previous model proposes how to use the frames within the student affairs profession. The Circular Framing model helps student affairs administrators analyze the subsystems of their work environments while also providing a beginning frame for each context. The model equips individuals to view their environment in systems and circles, and then empowers the professional to act accordingly as mentor, boss, negotiator, or storyteller.

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The Isomorphic Importance of Amateurism in Intercollegiate Athletics

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Abstract

Historical connections between institutions of higher education and intercollegiate athletics are examined by discussing the ways colleges and universities have attempted to gain institutional prestige through athletic success. Of particular concern is how isomorphic principles encourage institutions of higher education to pursue institutional legitimacy through intercollegiate athletics, as the concrete outcomes of athletic events help define success in an organizational field otherwise dominated by problematic goals and unclear technology. Throughout its history, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has maintained a principle of amateurism, which has benefited colleges and universities in many ways, including the development of a collegiate atmosphere that helps connect external constituents to the campus community. This principle of amateurism is being legally challenged in O'Bannon v. NCAA and the outcome of this legislation could change the way that colleges and universities use intercollegiate athletics as a way of benchmarking and developing institutional prestige.

Keywords: amateurism, benchmarking, higher education, intercollegiate athletics, isomorphism, National Collegiate Athletic Association, prestige

Much of the recent conversation on intercollegiate athletics has focused on if college athletes should be paid for their play. For a period of time, this discussion may have only been salient within athletics and higher education; however, it has since become a mainstream issue, to the point that the September 16, 2013 cover of TIME Magazine featured a picture of Heisman trophy winner Johnny Manziel, stating: "It's Time to Pay College Athletes." This conversation has engulfed Division I football and men's basketball and in doing so, it has overshadowed the larger issue regarding the often-incongruous relationship between intercollegiate athletics and institutions of higher education. This relationship has been both tense and mutually beneficial (Oriard, 2009), and current litigation threatens to change how these two bodies interact in the future. Using the existing literature, this article will examine the history of intercollegiate athletics, how they came to represent a form of prestige for institutions of higher education, and the crucial role of amateurism in these sports. Without speculating on the outcome of this pending litigation, this article will demonstrate that if intercollegiate athletics lose their amateur status, colleges and universities will lose an important benchmarking tool in their search for institutional prestige and legitimacy.

History of Intercollegiate Athletics and the Pursuit of Prestige

Smith (1988) wrote that the commercialization of intercollegiate athletics began with the first crew meet between Harvard and Yale. As spectators traveled to Lake Winnipesaukee in 1852 to watch the crew races, gambling increased among college students and profits rose for the local hotel. Once it became apparent that athletic events could be profitable for the host town, communities began bidding for the right to have crews race on their waters. In

addition to lining the pockets of local businesses, the commercialization of intercollegiate athletics changed the basic principles of the matches. As elements of commercialism and professionalism became early factors in intercollegiate athletics, Smith concluded these sports could never truly be just about participation in a "friendly competition" (p. 34).

Even though athletics started as a way for students to define themselves within their post-Revolutionary War schools, they turned into identity mechanisms for institutions of higher education. After defeating Yale in consecutive races, Harvard decided to start racing other schools from the region through the inception of the Rowing Association of America. In the first race of this new league, Harvard – despite being a heavy favorite – was handily beaten by the Massachusetts Agricultural College of Amherst (Smith, 1988). This race helped reshape the landscape of intercollegiate athletics as it demonstrated institutions with lesser prestige were capable of defeating more prestigious schools. The outcome of this race was two-fold: it slightly diminished the elite status enjoyed by Harvard – which was not supposed to lose to a group of "hay-seeds" (Smith, 1988, p. 43) – and it also demonstrated that a land-grant institution was capable of gaining institutional prestige through athletics. This revelation encouraged other institutions to join future crew races, as "no greater opportunity, curricular or extracurricular, was presented to a college for notoriety and prestige than to win the annual regatta" (Smith, 1988, p. 45). In their efforts to upset the established giants, some of the less elite institutions understood they would have to heavily finance their team's trainings just to have a chance at winning. Many of these schools would knowingly go into debt just to have a chance at taking some of Harvard's prestige for their own (Smith, 1988).

In this new era of intercollegiate athletics, prestige is still gained by defeating the elites of the sport; however, Harvard and Yale are no longer the ones with which everyone is trying to keep pace. In today's game, conference alignments – not individual teams – can help determine the prestige an institution receives. To this point, Suggs (1999) wrote of athletic conferences as being "social clubs, conferring a sense of status on universities much like Carnegie classifications or rankings in college guidebooks" (para. 1). Additionally, just as early teams were willing to risk going into debt so they could row against Harvard and Yale, modern day institutions are still willing to risk losing money just to join a NCAA Division I conference (Wolverton, 2005). Thelin (1994) defined the athletic conference as a "locus where a small group of institutions in voluntary association agree to work together, to compete while showing some sign of mutual respect and comparable academic standards" (p. 129). Oriard (2009) wrote it might be impossible to fully understand the relationship between institutional prestige and intercollegiate athletics; however, the public perception of one institution might depend on that institution's peers within its athletic conference. For example, Oriard theorized some institutions in the Pac-10, which has since become the Pac-12, might benefit from having the University of California and Stanford University as peers, given the prestigious academic reputation of these universities.

Just as intercollegiate athletics presented commercial opportunities in 1852, there are many examples of how commercialism continues to persist and evolve in the modern era. Athletic departments sign exclusive deals with specific athletic apparel companies and, in doing so, "essentially [sell] their names and reputation" (Toma, 2003, p. 263) to these companies. Colleges and universities sell advertising space and stadium naming rights to corporations (Toma, 2003), while coaches' contracts have steadily risen into the multimillions of dollars (Oriard, 2009). The NCAA maintains student-athletes are amateurs, but there are many examples of institutions that violate these policies, notably through the actions of boosters who pay student-athletes beyond any scholarship compensation provided by the college or university. One of the most infamous NCAA violations involving boosters occurred at

Southern Methodist University, in which the institution ultimately received the "death penalty" from the NCAA, which shut down the football program for an entire year (Oriard, 2009). Despite the examples set by institutions like SMU, Oriard suggested many institutions are still willing to risk being caught violating NCAA amateurism regulations if they believe they can eventually build elite athletic programs.

The Role of Isomorphism in Higher Education

Toma (2003) made the argument that many large public institutions are generally indistinguishable from one another, due in part to the nature of their institutional purposes. As these types of schools promote accessibility and must maintain competitive tuition costs, most large public institutions appear similar "in terms of student profile and enrollment, degrees and programs, research and service, governance and organization, and standing and prestige" (Toma, 2003, p. 101). Similarly, Birnbaum (1988) wrote that large, public colleges and universities will often have problematic goals and unclear technology, which can make it harder for these institutions of higher education to measure some of their more intangible goals, such as "power, relative advantage, or prestige" (p. 58). Institutions in this type of organizational field are likely feel the pressures of isomorphism, which DiMaggio and Powell (1983) wrote as being "a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions" (p. 149). DiMaggio and Powell hypothesized that, due to the pressures of mimetic isomorphism, organizations with ambiguous goals are more likely to model themselves off of other organizations that are believed to be successful to project a sense of legitimacy to their constituents. Institutions that do not match this isomorphic standard of legitimacy might begin to feel a sense of perceived identity-reputation discrepancy, which is defined as "the discrepancy between the position assigned to an organization in reputational rankings and the position implied by the organization's identity in the minds of its top managers" (Martins, 2005, p. 703). This discrepancy can lead institutions to change themselves in ways that are inconsistent with their particular values and goals, which might do more harm than good over the course of time (Martins, 2005).

The dilemma that arises here is that the public – including prospective students and their parents, as well as current and prospective donors – often views institutional legitimacy through the values that are "included in the missions of the flagship universities that typically compete in high-profile athletics" (Toma, 2003, p. 115). Despite the fact that different types of institutions serve unique and important functions, in a field such as this where there often are ill-defined organizational goals, "correct appearance and presentation become the prevailing gauge of effectiveness" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 297). At public colleges and universities, where there is a need for public support it is crucial to be externally viewed as a legitimate organization (Toma, 2003). While certain affiliations can project these qualities (Toma, 2003) to the public, it can be challenging to join some of these esteemed groups. For example, it can be challenging for public colleges and universities to improve their rankings in U.S. News and World Reports, as the publication's formula tends to favor private institutions (Ehrenberg, 2005), and it has proved difficult to meet the criteria to be invited into the exclusive Association of American Universities (Fain, 2010). The formula for determining who is the best on any given Saturday, however, has always been as easy as glancing at a game's box score. While one team might have better statistics (e.g., passing yards, interceptions, etc.), athletic events provide a concrete final score that determines which institution won and which institution lost. Toma (2003) theorized, "the absolute measure of institutional prowess at the end of a game or season is part of what makes football so compelling for universities in constant search for indicators of how they stack up" (Toma, 2003, p. 105).

While it might seem counterintuitive to use athletic events as a way of benchmarking an academic institution, Toma (2003) argued this is not an uncommon practice. Given the heavy representation of institutions with strong athletic programs in the Association of American Universities and U.S. News & World Report rankings (Oriard, 2009), one wonders if athletics and academics are both required for an institution to be considered legitimate. If, in fact, academics and athletics are needed for colleges and universities to be considered legitimate-and, as Toma (2003) suggested, it "is nearly impossible" (p. 117) to raise an institution's academic reputation-colleges and universities are left with little choice but to invest in athletics in their search for prestige. To this point, Fisher (2009) wrote that there is some evidence that colleges and universities which have had breakout athletic seasons have experienced immediate rises in their institutional rankings, citing Northwestern University's appearance in the 1995 Rose Bowl. On a broader level, there is other research suggesting institutions that succeed athletically may experience increases in certain types of alumni donations (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007) and increased admissions selectivity (Pope & Pope, 2009), both of which are indicators used by *U.S. News and World Reports* (Morse & Flanigan, 2013). While there is evidence to suggest that athletic success plays an important role in institutional benchmarking, it is just as important the success occurs within the ideal of athletic amateurism.

What is Amateurism and Why Is It Important?

Toma (2003) wrote that institutions of higher education need to promote an ideal of amateurism as it relates to intercollegiate athletics, as this allows for the maintenance of certain tax exemptions and creates a collegiate atmosphere on college and university campuses. The financial necessity of maintaining tax exemptions for intercollegiate athletics is difficult to overstate, as maintaining amateurism in intercollegiate athletics protects "billions in sports revenue from taxation" (Fitt, 2009, p. 572). The financial consequences of amateurism are a compelling subject; however, the focus of this article will remain on the cultural importance of amateurism, and how colleges and universities use spectator sports to develop identity and prestige. Oriard (2009) wrote that, for many students, football has come to epitomize the collegiate lifestyle. Spectator sports are also a way that those who are not directly associated with the university can connect with the campus community. Since colleges and universities rely heavily on support from external donors, the isomorphic nature of higher education pressures these institutions to appear the way their constituents believe they should and maintaining a large and visible athletic program is one of the ways to do this.

The conversation surrounding amateurism in intercollegiate athletics has sparked a debate about whether student-athletes should be paid for their play. According to the 2013-2014 NCAA Division I Manual, the principle of amateurism is defined as:

> Student-athletes shall be amateurs in an intercollegiate sport, and their participation should be motivated primarily by education and by the physical, mental and social benefits to be derived. Student participation in intercollegiate athletics is an avocation, and student-athletes should be protected from exploitation by professional and commercial enterprises. (NCAA Academic and Membership Affairs Staff, 2013, p. 4).

From a pragmatic standpoint, amateurism helps separate intercollegiate athletics from professional sports leagues in the United States of America, such as the National Football League (NFL) and the National Basketball Association (NBA). While the professional leagues clearly have greater depth and better-developed talent than their college counterparts (as

evidenced by the NFL and NBA selecting the top college prospects in their respective annual drafts), they cannot match "the romance of the college game" (Toma, 2003, p. 255). Rather than being paid for their play like professional athletes, Oriard (2009) wrote student-athletes have an implicit contract with their institution, stating they will receive an education in exchange for their athletic contributions to the school. Additionally, Toma (2003) wrote that the notion of amateurism creates a belief that the players play "for the pride of alma mater and the home state" (p. 254). If student-athletes are playing for something bigger than themselves, it can often make external constituents believe that wins and losses by their school's team help define who they are as an institution or state. If colleges and universities are not able to promote their amateur ideal, it is questionable if external constituents would still connect to these spectator sports in the same way, or if they would be viewed as lower quality versions of existing professional sports leagues. If the latter occurred, it could have a dramatic impact on the way that institutions of higher education use intercollegiate athletics as legitimizing agents as well as identity and prestige builders. Oriard wrote that, because "big-time college football was an integral part of American higher education as it developed," (p. 242), there could be severe repercussions if the tenets of amateurism are removed from intercollegiate athletics.

Even in the face of growing commercialization and professionalization of intercollegiate athletics, "the NCAA prohibits student-athletes from receiving any of the financial benefits derived from their fame or the use of their likenesses" (Holthaus, 2010, p. 370). Former intercollegiate athletes legally challenged this standard three times in 2009; however, the challenge in *O'Bannon v. NCAA* has gained the most legal traction and public attention. Ed O'Bannon, a former UCLA basketball player, alleged "the NCAA and [Collegiate Licensing Company] violated federal antitrust laws by conspiring to prevent former collegiate student athletes from receiving compensation for the use of their images" (*O'Bannon v. NCAA*, 2009, p. 3). O'Bannon alleged the NCAA, by profiting from the name and likeness of student-athletes and prohibiting student-athletes from doing the same, has created "an unreasonable restraint on trade" (Holthaus, 2010, p. 376). Holthaus (2010) stated that to prove the existence of restraint of trade the plaintiff must show there is a cognizable market for the commodity in question. Unlike past challenges to the NCAA, Holthaus (2010) wrote this lawsuit is able to prove a cognizable market, "as evidenced by the commercial use of former student athletes' images in video games, sales of replica jerseys featuring the numbers of former star players, and photographs of former student-athletes" (p. 380). In July 2013, current student-athletes were added to *O'Bannon v. NCAA* and the plaintiffs asked to include television revenues to the lawsuit, which is significant because television revenues "account for more than 90 percent of the money at stake in the dispute" (Farrey, 2013, para. 37). It might take up to five years for O'Bannon v. NCAA to close (Grasgreen, 2013), but there are already signs that change is coming to the current structure of intercollegiate athletics, as EA Sports and Collegiate Licensing Company settled in *O'Bannon v. NCAA* for $40 million in September 2013 (Eder, 2013).

Conclusion

While there is debate about the financial and structural changes that would come with a potential O'Bannon win (Grasgreen, 2013), this decision could also fundamentally change the way institutions of higher education use athletics as a way of developing their prestige. Despite the growth in popularity of intercollegiate athletics, particularly football, there has been a conscious effort by those involved to "not step beyond the fourth wall and highlight the professional and commercial aspects of the game and its surrounds" (Toma, 2003, p. 246). Key figures in higher education (Grasgreen, 2013) and the NCAA (Schroeder, 2013) have maintained that amateurism is necessary for intercollegiate sports to remain a part of colleges

and universities. There is reason to believe O'Bannon may win this lawsuit (Grasgreen, 2013); however, one can only speculate right now as to the final verdict and what that decision might mean for higher education. If O'Bannon wins, colleges and universities will need to critically examine the way they use intercollegiate athletics, as these institutions may potentially lose the identity mechanisms and benchmarking capabilities that come from the ideals of athletic amateurism.

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Students with Autism Spectrum Disorders: Examining Symptoms and Implications for Student Affairs Practitioners

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Abstract

Higher education has recently witnessed a significant influx of applications from students with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD), and subsequently, a rise in college students with such diagnoses. Although many are poised to succeed academically, students with ASD often require additional interpersonal support in areas that tend to be the responsibility of student affairs practitioners. Disability Support Services (DSS) are regularly viewed as the primary means for supporting students with ASD. However, as these students are present in all sections of the college campus, student affairs practitioners from other functional areas also hold important support roles. Consequently, it is imperative all professionals within student affairs understand the manifestations and needs of students with ASD. This article will describe the diagnostic criteria and symptoms of ASD, as defined by the most recent edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, apply them to a higher education context, and discuss the implications for student affairs.

Keywords: Autism Spectrum Disorders, disability support services, higher education, student affairs

Colleges and universities have recently witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of applicants with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD), and the number of students with autism enrolling in higher education is expected to continue rising over the next decade (Graetz & Spampinato, 2008; Swift; 2012; Wenzel & Rowley, 2010). While many of these students have exceptional academic ability, they often fail to "achieve their full potential because of inadequate support" (Hansen, 2011, p. 39). As these gaps in provisions often fall under the purview of student affairs, due to the areas in which additional support is needed, it is crucial for practitioners to understand ASD holistically to determine how to best serve all students.

This article will explore the "triad of deficits" (Graetz & Spampinato, 2008, p. 20), characteristic of both previous and current diagnoses of ASD; these include impairments in communication, socialization, and patterns of behavior. The article will apply these symptoms, particularly of individuals with high-functioning ASD, to a higher education context and conclude with a discussion of implications for student affairs practitioners. As individual growth and success of all students is paramount to the mission of student affairs, it is critical such educators are aware of the manifestations of ASD. As a result of such awareness, it would then follow practitioners will be more prepared to provide adequate support to aid in the retention and development of students with ASD (Dillon, 2007).

Symptoms and Diagnostic Criteria

ASDs are characterized as neurodevelopmental social disorders, the causes of which remain unknown (Oda, 2010). According to the American Psychiatric Association (APA) (2013), ASDs are defined by persistent deficits in social communication and social interaction, and restricted, repetitive patterns of behavior, interests, or activities, with onset of symptoms

occurring during the early developmental period of life. ASD symptoms occur on a spectrum, with three levels of severity generally classifying cases, according to the *Fifth Edition of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-5) (APA, 2013).

Definitions of ASDs have changed with the most recent DSM. However, according to the *Fourth Edition of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-IV), ASDs previously included Autistic Disorder, Asperger's Disorder or Syndrome, Pervasive Developmental Disorders – Not Otherwise Specified (PDD-NOS), Rett's Disorder, and Childhood Disintegrative Disorder (Boyse, 2008). The latter two – Rett's Disorder and Childhood Disintegrative Disorder – are very rare and generally not considered when describing individuals with ASD (Adreon & Durocher, 2007). Individuals with these diagnoses are also seldom seen on college campuses and therefore will not be addressed in this paper. Asperger's Disorder, commonly known as Asperger's Syndrome, was typically viewed as a less severe form of ASD (APA, 2000). Asperger's Syndrome includes similar symptoms as Autistic Disorder, yet individuals do not have a significant delay in language, cognitive development, "or in the development of age-appropriate self-help skills, adaptive behavior (other than in social interaction), and curiosity about the environment in childhood" (APA, 2000, p. 70). A DSM-IV diagnosis of *PDD-NOS* required impairment in the development of social interaction, communication, or stereotyped behaviors or interests not meeting the diagnostic criteria of other disorders (APA, 2000). ASD, as the only diagnostic label contained in the DSM-5, would include individuals with previous diagnoses of Autistic Disorder, Asperger's Disorder, and PDD-NOS (APA, 2013).

Given the spectrum classification of ASD, it is unsurprising there is a great deal of diversity in the severity of symptoms of ASD from one individual to another, and even within a single individual over time (Selzter et al., 2003). To account for the vast diversity in symptomology without distinct diagnoses, the DSM-5 describes three levels of severity, numbered Levels 1 through 3 (APA, 2013). Furthermore, many of the symptoms of ASD overlap: while behavioral indicators are categorized as impairments in social communication and social interaction, and restricted, repetitive patterns of behavior, interests, or activities, many of the specific manifestations can fit into both categories (APA, 2013). This overlap of symptoms is important to note, and exemplifies the notion that ASD is a "social disorder of development" (Oda, 2010, p. 165) impacting the many ways individuals interact with one another.

Social Communication and Social Interaction

Generally, deficiencies in social communication and interaction relate to a "lack of responsiveness to other people" (Oda, 2010, p. 165), making it difficult to engage in reciprocal exchanges. According to the DSM-5 (APA, 2013), impairments in social communication and interaction can include deficits in social-emotional reciprocity; deficits in nonverbal communication; and deficiencies in "developing, maintaining, and understanding relationships" (Autism Speaks, 2013, para. 6). Social-emotional reciprocity challenges include behaviors such as abnormal social approaches, reduced sharing of interests or emotions, and failure to initiate or respond to social interactions. Abnormalities in eye contact and body language, lack of understanding of gestures, and limited facial expressions are characteristic of nonverbal communication deficiencies (Autism Speaks, 2013). Finally, relationship difficulties can include limited or lack of ability to engage in imaginative play, difficulty adjusting to social contexts, and an absence of interest in peers (APA, 2013).

The DSM-5 (APA, 2013) delineates levels of severity: Level 1 individuals "require support," Level 2 individuals "require substantial support," and Level 3 individuals "requires very substantial support" (Autism Speaks, 2013). Individuals with a Level 1 diagnosis may show

noticeable impairments and will typically demonstrate odd and unsuccessful attempts to make friends without additional support, but are able to engage in communication. Substantially odd nonverbal communication and significant social impairments, even with support, characterize a Level 2 diagnosis. Lastly, a Level 3 severity indicates severe deficits in verbal and nonverbal social communication skills, very limited initiation of social interactions, and often limited speech (APA, 2013).

For higher functioning individuals, generally those with a Level 1 diagnosis, this set of symptoms can manifest as ignoring or withdrawing from interactions if an individual with ASD does not like another person or if his or her agenda is not fulfilled by the interests of the other person (Oda, 2010). Despite this apparent lack of interest in social interactions, many individuals with ASD report wanting close friendships and romantic relationships. However, they have difficulty establishing such relationships, particularly because of the challenge recognizing and responding to others' emotions and perspectives, as well as trouble deciphering non-verbal cues (Adreon & Durocher, 2007). In a higher education setting, this further complicates social situations and can result in an individual with ASD being teased (Adreon & Durocher, 2007).

Patterns of Behavior, Interests, or Activities

The second sub-section of diagnostic criteria – restricted, repetitive patterns of behavior, interests, or activities, as defined by the DSM-5 (APA, 2013) – is an expansion of "restricted, repetitive, and stereotyped patterns of behavior" of the DSM-IV (APA, 2000, p. 70). These symptoms are typically more pronounced and recognizable in Level 3 diagnoses of ASD, though they are still present in individuals who are higher functioning. Characteristic behaviors of this category can include repetitive physical movements and use of objects, such as repeatedly lining up belongings; stereotyped speech, such as frequent use of unique phrases; an inflexible adherence to routines, evidenced by high levels of stress when even small changes in schedule arise; restricted and fixated interests that are often very intense; and either excessively heightened or diminished responsiveness to sensory input or unusual interests in sensory aspects of the environment, such as to unique sounds, touch, or smells (APA, 2013).

A Level 1 diagnosis may indicate an inflexibility of behavior interfering with functioning in at least one context and a difficulty switching between activities. Frequent and obvious challenges in coping with change and engagement in repetitive behaviors characterizes Level 2. Level 3 severity suggests extreme difficulties in all aspects of life (APA, 2013).

Higher functioning individuals with ASD tend to display more subtle stereotyped and repetitive behaviors, such as shifting from one foot to the other, finger drumming, and excessive eye blinking (Adreon & Durocher, 2007). This symptom-subset may also manifest in obsession with a single interest. For some, these interests may be typical of those of peers, such as video games, leading to a potential social connection. However, for many others, these interests may be in obscure or potentially immature areas, or may be overly intense, furthering isolation (Adreon & Durocher). The difficulty adjusting to changes in one's environment (Oda, 2010) and the need for consistency and predictability (Adreon & Durocher, 2007) are especially significant when considering adjustment to college, highlighting the need for additional co-curricular support in higher education.

Prevalence of ASD

Incidences of ASD are increasing in prevalence, with 1 in 88 children in the United States diagnosed with an ASD in 2012, compared to a diagnosis rate of 1 in 150 children in 2002 (Baio, 2012). ASD affects individuals of all racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups, yet its

prevalence is higher among white individuals than other racial groups. Further, ASDs are approximately five times more common in males than females (Baio, 2012). With regards to intellectual ability, 62% of children with ASD have an IQ greater than 71 and are considered to be high-functioning, and are therefore potential students at institutions of higher education (Baio, 2012). This clarifies the need for student affairs professionals to understand ASD, and take measures to support students entering higher education with such diagnoses.

Implications for Student Affairs

As the prevalence of individuals with high-functioning ASD continues to increase, so does the desire and need to provide opportunities for and within higher education. There are great implications for the field of student affairs, as it is critical for such professionals to understand ASD to respond effectively and appropriately to the social and academic challenges faced by these students. Thus, the provision of services should not be limited to those provided by Disability Support Services (DSSs). Yet, before student affairs professionals can appropriately support students with ASD, these students must be afforded access to college, which may be limited by funding.

Impact of Funding on Access

Attending institutions of higher education is becoming increasingly realistic for individuals with high-functioning ASD. Increased diagnosis and awareness have resulted in "effective support and intervention services" (Nevill & White, 2011, p. 1619) during childhood to help prepare students for college. Changes and increases in funding for students with intellectual disabilities have also played an important role in providing higher education opportunities to individuals with ASD.

First, the Higher Education Opportunities Act (HEOA) was reformed in 2008 to specifically "encourage individuals with intellectual disabilities to pursue higher education" (VanBergeijk & Cavanagh, 2012, p. 2471). Specifically, this included the creation of a category for comprehensive transition and postsecondary (CTP) programs based at universities and colleges allowing students with intellectual disabilities to be eligible for Federal Pell Grants, Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants (FSEOGs), and Federal Work Study programs once enrolled. However, as of January 2012, only 10 of these CTP programs had been granted approval from the U.S. Department of Education (VanBergeijk & Cavanagh, 2012).

Despite current minimal approval of CTP programs, the potential impact of this legislation on students with ASDs, and thus on universities and colleges, is profound. According to VanBergeijk and Cavanagh (2012), there are over 500,000 students with ASD who could take advantage of the new opportunity, with 29,000 students already pursing options to attend colleges or universities.

Additionally, in 2010, a five-year funding program awarded $10.9 million to 27 institutions of higher education to "create opportunities for students with intellectual disabilities to attend and be successful in higher education" (Glickman, 2010). The grants, intended to establish Transition Programs for Students with Intellectual Disabilities (TPSID), provide support and opportunities for students with ASD to be involved in programs focused on academics, social activities, and employment-based experiences (Glickman, 2010).

Although funding is beginning to make higher education more accessible for individuals with high-functioning ASDs, it is still limited and few institutions receive substantial funding benefits. Further, despite new funding initiatives, student affairs departments receive minimal financial support to serve students experiencing greater challenges entering college than

students without ASD. Thus, there remains a lack of college-based support for this student population (VanBergeijk & Cavanagh, 2012). Student affairs professionals, beginning with those working in DSS, must therefore be creative and intentional to best support students with ASD.

Disability Support Services

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and the Rehabilitation Act mandate the provision of services for students with ASD, but this is often limited to academic support (Graetz & Spampinato, 2008). The ADA does require colleges to make "reasonable accommodations" for students with ASD who request them, yet it does not define "reasonable accommodations," and not all students with ASD self-disclose their diagnoses (Hughes, 2009, para. 4). Nevertheless, poor social skills and difficulty establishing and maintaining relationships can prevent a person from successfully using intellectual skills to excel in studies (Dillon, 2007).

Supporting the academic endeavors of students is often a responsibility of DSS, whose staff tend to have knowledge about the needs of and services available to students with ASD. Pertinent to individuals working in this area is the diminishing ability to engage in executive functioning, or connecting past experiences with present activities to aid in tasks such as planning and organizing, displayed by some individuals with ASD (Rosenthal et al., 2013). Because individuals in college are expected to be independent, self-starting, and organized, those with ASD may increasingly struggle. It may be the responsibility of DSS to offer tutoring or study skills workshops to help enhance these skills. Accommodations may also need to be made for assessment based on class participation or requirements for lengthy written assignments, which DSS can help students obtain (Ashby & Causton-Theoharis, 2012). Finally, students with ASD may require assistance speaking to faculty about their needs (Ashby & Causton-Theoharis, 2012). This would necessitate additional programs, and potentially staff, to help students with ASD adjust and progress through higher education. Although the significance of DSS in supporting students with ASD is clear, developing increased awareness and understanding is imperative for all working on college campuses, particularly for student affairs practitioners.

Developing Increased Awareness and Understanding of ASD

Despite increased prevalence and research regarding individuals with ASD, there is still a lack of awareness on college campuses, outside DSS, about the challenges faced by students with high-functioning ASD (Huws & Jones, 2010). John Dewey wrote that the purpose of education is "to enable citizens to participate fully and effectively in" (Reason & Broido, 2011, p. 84) a given democratic society. Student affairs divisions work to uphold this philosophy through the principles and values of the profession, including the creation of inclusive environments for all (Reason & Broido, 2011). To help students with ASD obtain these benefits of higher education and inclusion within the community, it is important for student affairs professionals to have awareness and understanding of the symptoms and challenges faced by this population.

Training on how to accommodate and support individuals with high-functioning ASD on college campuses is imperative to ensure a positive college experience for these students. The offices with the potential to best serve these students are DSS, although they often fail to provide the specific services needed by students with ASD (Zager & Alpern, 2010). They are best equipped to disseminate training to both professional and student staffs, which could be incorporated in annual training programs. Additionally, DSS should continue to be a resource for student affairs personnel and student staffs throughout the year as questions arise.

Specific Campus Supports

Students living in the residence halls experience constantly changing environments, typical of living with another person, which may be excessively difficult for students with ASD. To address the tremendous discomfort and disengagement, the lack of consistency, and the unexpected nuances living in the residence halls may cause students, special accommodations, such as single rooms and specific instructions, may be required (Adreon & Durocher, 2007). Further, students with ASD may benefit immensely from the support of a mentor, such as a Resident Assistant (RA), who must have developed some understanding of ASD through training programs, to help negotiate these situations (Adreon & Durocher, 2007).

Further, according to Nevill and White (2011), attitudes of typically developing individuals toward their peers with ASD are potential moderators of both academic and social success. After connecting with peers, students with ASD express a "deeper sense of belonging and respect" (Ashby & Causton-Theoharis, 2012, p. 271). It falls on student affairs professionals to facilitate communities and environments to educate students without ASD about these disorders and their increased prevalence on college campuses. Student organizations could be used for this education, for example through programming during Autism Awareness Month. This could help decrease negative evaluation of students with ASD and promote peer acceptance, which in turn could benefit the academic and social success of students with ASD (Nevill & White, 2011). Creating inclusive environments promoting positive interactions for students with ASD therefore serves to promote the mission of student affairs, while enhancing the holistic experiences of these students.

Conclusion

The college environment provides exceptional educational stimulation that can be of great benefit to students with ASD (Wenzel & Rowley, 2010). However, funding continues to be a challenge in allowing these students access to higher education (Glickman, 2010; VanBergeijk & Cavanagh, 2012). For students with ASD who are able to enroll in college, despite their intellectual ability, many are unable to succeed due to the changing environment, inability to cope, and lack of support (Hansen, 2011). These challenges to success highlight the need for student affairs practitioners and their student staffs to be well informed of the challenges faced by students with ASD so they may best serve this unique student population. With the newest edition of the DSM only recently published, more research on the population meeting ASD diagnostic criteria in a college setting is required to contribute to a greater understanding of their needs so they may be better supported to succeed in and enjoy the benefits of higher education.

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Academic International Field Experiences in Student Affairs International House New York City and Globalinks Abroad

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Abstract

International field experiences (IFE), short-term experiences abroad, are becoming increasingly prevalent in the field of student affairs (Osfield et al., 2008). Short-term experiences abroad serve to increase students' and practitioners' global awareness and intercultural sensitivity, providing a wider framework from which to approach student learning, development, and engagement (Roberts & Roberts, 2012). Additionally, students matriculating in United States (U.S.) higher education are increasingly more diverse, representing countries and cultures across the globe, thus creating a need for student affairs personnel who are culturally sensitive and competent (Barlow, 2003). This article discusses current trends regarding short-term study abroad in higher education curricula as a whole, as well as student affairs preparatory programs. Furthermore, this article discusses how short-term international field experiences, as a high-impact practice, affect participants' global and intercultural competence (Brownell & Swaner, 2009). Professional associations that address global competence, or have developed field experiences abroad for professionals in student affairs, are also reviewed. Lastly, recommendations for the field of student affairs to increase practitioners' experiences abroad as well as their global competence are made.

Keywords: cross-cultural, global competence, globalization, higher education, intercultural sensitivity, international field experience, short-term study abroad, student affairs preparatory programs

The field of student affairs has an increasing interest in international field experiences (IFEs) which serve to increase global awareness and intercultural sensitivity of graduate students-and later practitioners-in refining their approaches to student learning, development, and engagement (Roberts & Robert, 2012). Since greater intercultural sensitivity creates the potential for greater cultural competence (Bennett, 2004), this is a benefit for participants of IFEs. Student affairs as a profession is becoming more globalized, as important issues to the practice are becoming relevant to practitioners worldwide, such as access to education, the relationship between academic and student affairs, and student housing (Barlow, 2003). Similarly, student populations in higher education are increasingly more diverse, thus necessitating culturally competent and sensitive student affairs professionals (Barlow, 2003).

Since internationalization of the U.S. educational system is an emerging trend and not fully integrated into current practices (Osfield et al., 2008), these academic international opportunities are important for student affairs professionals. Additionally, study abroad

or international exchange experiences can have lifelong impacts on students from various disciplines (Jurgens & McAuliffe, 2008). As researched by George Kuh (2008) and measured by the National Survey of Student Engagement, international experiences deeply affect student learning; this deep approach to learning provides participants with opportunities to learn outside of the classroom, analyze and synthesize diverse perspectives, and understand one's own views and others' potentially different perspectives (Brownell & Swaner, 2009). For this reason, short-term academic field experiences abroad can help students in higher education and student affairs preparatory programs gain a better understanding of the world by increasing their global competencies (Brownell & Swaner, 2009).

This article discusses current trends regarding short-term study abroad in higher education curricula. Next, the article discusses how short-term IFEs affect global and intercultural competence for participants, the essentiality of international experiences for today's student affairs practitioner, and finally, reviews current college and university programs implementing academic IFEs as a means to increase students' global awareness and understanding.

For the purposes of this article, intercultural competence is defined as "a set of cognitive, affective and behavioral skills that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts" (J. Bennett, personal communication, November 6, 2013). Similarly, cultural sensitivity means being aware that cultural differences and similarities exist and have an effect on values, learning, and behavior (Stafford, et. al, 1997). Though many have also provided definitions for multicultural competencies, Bresciani (2008) admits global competencies may not be so easily understood or identified. Perhaps this is why Bresciani spends the entirety of her paper providing elements that help to define global competencies, but never suggests a single definition.

Short-term Education Abroad in a Higher Education Context

The number of students receiving an international education has risen dramatically, especially with the proliferation of short-term study abroad programs (Jackson, 2008). Some of the benefits of short-term field experiences are accessibility, flexibility, and affordability (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubard, 2006). Moreover, these accessible field experiences play a significant role in diversifying the range of U.S. students going abroad for study (Bhandari, R., Obst, D., & Withrel, S., 2007). The aforementioned information both documents the trend and supports the legitimacy of IFEs.

More students are going abroad, and for shorter durations (Allen, 2010). Short-term field experiences abroad aid students in developing global competencies, in theory grooming students to become more competitive in a global job market. These international experiences help participants gain competencies necessary for educational and professional success in today's globalized world (Allen, 2010).

Allen (2010) cautioned that, despite the prevalence of IFEs, research on the linguistic and nonlinguistic benefits of short-term study abroad provide inconclusive results. As a result, student learning outcomes of such programs may vary. Though this is important to note, it is worth mentioning students believe an international field experience will provide personal enrichment, travel opportunity, graduate school acceptance, job procurement, and awareness of global and cultural issues (Langley & Breese, 2005). With these expectations, it can be said short-term international experiences provide students with plenty of valuable growth

opportunities. In higher education and student affairs preparatory programs, IFEs are usually tailor-made supplements to otherwise comprehensive academic and professional preparation experiences for students (Bhandari et al., 2007). Short-term study abroad provides flexible international study opportunities to students who may be unable to attend traditional – semester or yearlong – programs due to financial, academic, personal, or other limitations (Bhandari et al., 2007). As a result, these experiences increase accessibility to reach a broader and more diverse audience.

International Field Experiences, Global Competence, and Intercultural Sensitivity

In a survey of the current state of study abroad programs, results showed many institutions of higher education are implementing academic international field experiences to undergraduate and graduate students' curriculum (Osfield et al., 2008). A study, conducted by the University of Saint Thomas in Minnesota, reviewed an IFE at a medium-sized private university located in the Midwest United States (Anderson, et. al., 2006). The study consisted of twenty-three undergraduate business majors from the U.S., who took a semester-long business course at their home institution, followed by a four-week international field experience to England and Ireland. The purpose of the course was to increase participants' global understanding and intercultural competency to be better equipped entering the international business world. While abroad, students studied the host culture, lived with host families, and visited local businesses. Results from a pre-and-post delivery of the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) showed the IFE had a positive impact on students' intercultural awareness.

Researchers from the University of Queensland in Australia conducted a similar study on students' global awareness and intercultural sensitivity through an IFE (Hutchings, Jackson, & McEllister, 2002). Similar to the project by the University of Saint Thomas, researchers organized a study consisting of fifty undergraduate business majors who participated in an IFE to China. The purpose of the experience was to increase intercultural understanding and global competence among participants (Hutchings, et al., 2002). Participating students were selected based on academic merit, and the majority of the fifty students concentrated their studies in international business. The IFE incorporated a pre-field experience academic preparatory program at the home institution, a three-week study tour to China, and post-experience debriefing sessions. Students studied international issues in business management prior to travel, and while in country visited international companies, and had sessions on local culture and customs (Hutchings, et al., 2002). Prior to travel, students composed research papers on business management in China, and wrote pre-trip reflections. While in country and upon their return home, students wrote reflections on their experiences traveling and learning in China. Results from a pre-and-post assessment of student reflections showed students developed a greater understanding of international business, while also developing intercultural competencies (Hutchings et al., 2002). A similar study on student teacher participation in an IFE was conducted by the Hong Kong Institute for Education (HKIE) evaluating four participants' travels to Australia and Canada (Choi & Tang, 2004). Students participating in the IFE were enrolled in a postgraduate primary education program offered by a university in Hong Kong. Each of the four participants in the study took two academic courses and then traveled on his or her international field experience (Choi & Tang, 2004). Students in the IFE participated in pre-and-post trip in-depth interviews to assess intercultural competence and sensitivity. In comparing participants' pre-and-post interview transcripts, researchers concluded students gained a better understanding of intercultural sensitivity and greater global competency as a result of the IFE (Choi & Tang, 2004).

A group of 17 student teachers in an English Language Teaching postgraduate program participated in a six-week IFE to New Zealand from Hong Kong in another study, (Lee, 2011). The purpose of the experience was to broaden students' cultural awareness and increase global competency. All students were required to participate in academic workshops at their home institution prior to their experience observing primary education institutions in New Zealand (Lee, 2011). Students wrote obligatory daily pre-trip reflections during their workshops, daily reflections in-country, and two post-trip reflections (Lee, 2011).

Of the 17 travelers, 15 participated in the study. Of the participating students, 14 were female, and one was male (Lee, 2011). The study was mostly qualitative in nature, as researchers studied students' reflection journals. The 15 study participants took two post-trip surveys consisting of cultural competency-related questions graded on a four-point Likert Scale (Lee, 2011). Additionally, the fifteen students were interviewed regarding their experience in the IFE. Examining students' reflections, survey responses, and interview material, all participants expressed more open attitudes toward other cultural perspectives, greater cultural awareness, and an overall appreciation of human difference (Lee, 2011).

Developing Global Competencies

Festervand and Tillery (2001) documented the impact of field experiences on business school graduate students and faculty. Their study revealed that a field experience allowed participants to establish a direct connection with another culture, and correct perceptions and biases. This further solidifies Anderson et al.'s (2006) summation that short-term, non-language-based study abroad programs can have a positive impact on intercultural sensitivity. The word competence is often used to evaluate the level at which graduate students or rising professionals are prepared or capable. Moreover, international education is an area that is progressing toward competency-based evaluations and exams to measure the outcomes of the experience (Rundstrom Williams, 2005).

Graduate students in helping professions, including student affairs, hoping to gain global competence may face challenges; the U.S.'s large size and geographic location may sometimes result in a somewhat myopic view of culture (Jurgens & McAuliffe, 2004). According to Jurgens and McAuliffe (2004), courses in which cultural issues are explored provide students of counseling and other helping professions with opportunities to more fully develop cultural competencies, enabling them to work more effectively as helpers in a pluralistic society. Field experiences are often defined by such topics and therefore are a great means for addressing global competence in many areas of study (Osfield et al., 2008).

Rundstrom Williams (2005) concluded students who studied abroad generally showed a greater increase in intercultural communication skills than students who did not study abroad. This is likely because academic experiences abroad often foster further learning about one's own culture and encourage understanding of another culture (Langley & Breese, 2005). These invaluable experiences offer participants opportunities to develop global competence and intercultural sensitivity.

The residual effects of field experiences also have a positive impact on higher education communities. Aside from applying the newly-gained knowledge in academic and professional practice, students returning from an experience abroad become ambassadors who share their experiences abroad with others (Festervand & Tillery, 2001). Even more promising is the extension of this competence learned during field experiences into the domestic operations of returning students. Anderson et al. (2006) explained intercultural awareness is not limited to improving one's understanding and acceptance of cultures outside of the U.S. Rather, by

increasing students' intercultural sensitivity, it is fair to expect they will also be further prepared to address different cultures within the United States, including those on their college campus. This demonstrates yet another reason field experiences, and the opportunity to grow global competence, positively impacts student affairs graduate students.

International Field Experiences and Student Affairs

Jackson (2008) spoke of an experience the world faces today, one that is an unprecedented intensification of cultural, economic, political, and social interconnectedness. This phenomenon is globalization, and has an effect in all forms of the human existence, including higher education. With continued internationalization in higher education, student affairs graduate students and other higher education professionals must develop global competence. Professionals must be prepared to work with an increasingly culturally diverse student, staff, and faculty population. Practitioners must be able to respond to students who study or travel abroad, and the transitional challenges of returning from international experiences. Additionally, professionals will work with a growing population of international undergraduate and graduate students, and must be able to respond to the increasing demands from the federal government and educational associations to internationalize higher education (Jackson, 2008).

Anderson et al. (2006) also stated there is an almost universal call for greater cultural awareness. Later, the authors explained the imperativeness of exploring strategies for moving people to higher levels of intercultural sensitivity. Providing students with the opportunity to partake in field experiences will have the greatest likelihood of producing positive outcomes and global competence (Anderson et al., 2006). For these reasons, it is reasonable to assume global competence is a necessary skill for those entering the field of student affairs.

Student affairs preparatory programs across the U.S. are beginning to incorporate courses specifically targeted to increase participants' global competence and increase intercultural sensitivity and awareness (Roberts & Roberts, 2012). As illustrated in the aforementioned studies, IFEs positively impact individuals' global competence and intercultural sensitivity. Incorporating international components to student affairs graduate curriculum makes programs more comprehensive, inclusive, and marketable to future students. An international component adds value to student affairs graduate programs and provides an opportunity for graduate students to begin to develop global competence.

As a means of educating student affairs graduate students, many institutions of higher education are implementing IFEs as part of graduate curricula (Roberts & Roberts, 2012). Colorado State University (CSU) is currently promoting an academic short-term international field experience, where students partake in a semester-long course, then participate in an IFE. This IFE consists of visits to various institutions of higher education abroad (Colorado State University, 2013), as well as dialogues, conferences, and presentations based on research gathered during the semester. Students in CSU's program have traveled to Canada, Qatar, China, and Mexico (Colorado State University, 2013). Other student affairs preparatory programs, such as Michigan State University, Bowling Green State University, University of Vermont, Miami University of Ohio, University of Maryland College Park, University of Loyola Chicago, and Clemson University also offer short-term academic international field experiences for their student affairs graduate students (studentaffairs.com, 2012). International field experiences offered in these student affairs programs are coupled with an academic course. Student affairs graduates who partake in IFEs are afforded the opportunity to:

- Learn about the history, culture, and diversity of a foreign country
- Be able to identify similarities and differences between U.S. higher education and that of the host country
- Be able to describe the mission and goals of higher education in the host country
- Contrast the international experience with U.S. Higher Education and Student Affairs
- Identify ways in which increased knowledge about working with diverse groups and/or international students can be applied to practice
- Gain knowledge on the collaboration and partnerships across cultural, institutional, community, and international borders

    (Roberts & Roberts, 2012)

International field experiences are one of the strongest ways to improve future student affairs professionals' and current practitioners' global competency and intercultural sensitivity by exposing them to global difference (Roberts & Roberts, 2012).

Furthermore, the governing bodies of student affairs, Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA) and American College Personnel Association (ACPA) have initiated international field experiences for student affairs practitioners through collaborative trips to China and the United Arab Emirates, in which student affairs is surveyed at the international level (NASPA International Student Services, 2013). Another professional organization dedicated to international student affairs and services emerged within the last decade under the name IASAS, International Association of Student Affairs Services (IASAS, 2013). This professional organization is dedicated to strengthening the relationships of student services professionals worldwide, and also serves as a community to help individuals and group members develop a global understanding of student affairs (IASAS, 2013). Professional organizations therefore recognize the importance of global competence and awareness for future and current practitioners.

Conclusion

The field of student affairs has an increasing need to graduate students who are interculturally sensitive and globally competent. Academic international field experiences are a proven way to increase students' global awareness. Based on the success of programs discussed in this review, student affairs preparatory programs should include IFEs in their curriculum to provide students with the opportunity to increase global competency as a way to better support emerging practitioners. There is a prevailing trend toward short-term experiences abroad, also known as international field experiences. This tendency has mainly risen out of the accessibility and affordability of such programs. Next is the ability of such programs to provide learning grounds for participants to develop global competence. Last is the proliferation of the need for global competence in student affairs.

Jackson's (2008) insight recommends educators have the potential and responsibility to empower students to become competent, sensitive global citizens and professionals. Osfield et al. (2008) suggest making global competency a graduation requirement for student affairs preparatory programs in an effort to internationalize student affairs and higher education. In either case, it is clear experts in the field of international education, student affairs, and higher education, have determined the essentiality of global competence. Academic short-

term international field experiences are a tremendously impactful means of developing global competencies and intercultural sensitivity.

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Class of 2014

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Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs* Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

Purpose

Manuscripts should be written for the Student Affairs generalist who has broad responsibility for educational leadership, policy, staff development, and management. Articles with specialized topics, such as harassment, should be written to provide the generalist with an understanding of the importance of the topic to Student Affairs. Such an article should not take the form of one program specialist writing to another program specialist.

The Editorial Board invites submissions of the following types of articles

- Quantitative, Qualitative, or Emancipatory Research Articles
- Editorial Articles
- Historical Articles
- Opinion/Position Pieces
- Book Reviews

Research articles for the Journal should stress the underlying issues or problem that stimulated the research. Explain the methodology in a concise manner, and offer a full discussion of the results, implications, and conclusions.

Procedure

Manuscripts should not exceed 3,000 words (approximately 12 pages of double-spaced, typewritten copy, including references, tables, and figures) and should not be fewer than 1,000 words (approximately four pages). Exceptions should be discussed with the editors at the time of submission.

Guidelines for Writing

1. Prepare the manuscript, including title page and reference page, in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Sixth Edition.

2. Include an article abstract and brief description of the author, including professional title and institutional affiliation. The abstract should clearly state the purpose of the article and be concise and specific, ranging from 150-250 words; refer to page 25 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

3. Double-space all portions of the manuscript, including references, tables, and figures.

4. Avoid bias in language; refer to page 70 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

5. Do not use footnotes; incorporate the information into the text.

6. Use the active voice as much as possible.

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8. Use verb tense appropriately: past tense for the literature review and description of procedures and present tense for the results and discussion.

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