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Journal *of* Student Affairs

Volume XVIII 2009

Support
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Colorado State University

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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 education issues and the professional interests of student affairs practitioners. Specifically, the *Journal* provides an opportunity for the publication of articles by current students, alumni, faculty, and associates of the Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program at Colorado State University.

Goals

- The *Journal* promotes scholarly work, reflecting the importance of professional and academic writing in higher education.
- The Editorial Board of the *Journal* offers opportunities for students to develop editorial skills, critical thinking, and writing skills while producing a professional publication.
- The *Journal* serves as a communication tool to alumni and other professionals regarding updates and the status of Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program at Colorado State University.

Colorado State University
Journal of Student Affairs

Volume XVIII, 2008 – 2009

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The *Journal* can be found on the World Wide Web at: http://www.sahe.colostate.edu

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Managing Editors' Perspective

Kyle L. Carpenter, Co-Managing Editor, Content
Jeff W. Rosenberry, Co-Managing Editor, Coordination
David M. Vale, Co-Managing Editor, Technical

The *Journal of Student Affairs* is pleased to celebrate its 18th anniversary this year, as we continue to provide opportunities for current students and professionals to develop critical research skills, and promote scholarly work in the field of student affairs across the country.

Serving on the Editorial Board has been an amazing experience over the past two years, especially with new and exciting changes taking place that sets the *Journal* ahead of scholarly works throughout the country. Three major changes occurred this year as we further developed and improved the *Journal*. First, greater effort went into recruiting professionals from outside Colorado State University, in the hope of gaining a larger number of article submissions for the 18th edition of the *Journal*. By opening the *Journal* to individuals outside of our program we saw a tremendous increase in the number of articles submitted for consideration, showing there are many great professionals and students doing wonderful things with student development across the country. We hope the widespread communication with Student Affairs professionals and programs across the country will continue with future editions of the *Journal*. It is our hope that the increased inclusion of external articles will advance diversification of the issues and topics presented, increase exposure of the *Journal* and its content to a larger audience, and benefit student and professionals within Student Affairs.

Second, we restructured the Editorial Board to include one Managing Editor and two Associate Editors for Development and Training for next year's staff. In the past, the Associate Editors for Development and Training were from the second-year cohort. By adding a position, open to a member of the first-year cohort, we hope to have a more fluid transition for future individuals in these positions. Furthermore, the Managing Editor and Associate Editors for Development and Training will have more specific responsibilities in order to better allocate production efforts and energies. Additionally, this opportunity opens the door for involving more students in the process and increases the amount of exposure to leadership positions than in years past.

Third, this year concludes the diligent work cataloging the past 17 editions of the *Journal of Student Affairs*, resulting in an online digital repository with every edition and all articles available online. As technology has improved, so has the access to the *Journal*, thanks to passion and drive from our entire Editorial Board and members of the Colorado State University community. A link to the digital repository is available by visiting www.sahe.colostate.edu. Supporting Colorado State University's going-green initiative; the website is available for ordering a copy of the *Journal* to reduce unnecessary preordering of hard copies.

Even with all the great changes to the *Journal* this year, our final product is one we share with great pride with the student affairs field. We continue to strive to meet our mission of creating an educational journal production process that is entirely student focused. Involvement from students in this process comes in many different forms, including reading, writing, and serving on the Editorial Board. Our success as a student-produced journal continues to grow and we know that the *Journal* will only continue to improve and we look forward to its future achievements. As the Managing Editors, it has been our pleasure to serve this distinguished *Journal* and we are forever grateful for the experiences and challenges we have encountered.

While we don't know what the future will bring this student-focused experience, we know that the *Journal* will continue to serve as a catalyst for students and professionals to share their experiences and research with the entire student affairs community.

Thank you for the opportunity to serve you in our roles, and may this continue to be a motivating and inspiring process for those in the future.

Past Leadership

As we produce the 18th edition of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*, we want to acknowledge those who have laid the foundation for our success.

MANAGING EDITORS

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 Miser, former Vice President for Student Affairs, Colorado State University.

Advisors' Perspective

The cover of this year's Student Affairs in Higher Education *Journal of Student Affairs* edition includes many words that describe the SAHE student experience. This diversity of experiences also was present in the work that the SAHE Journal Board accomplished. The dedicated and hard-working editors and reviewers have produced a high-quality, compelling, and instructive research journal.

Among the many accomplishments, this year's Journal Board expanded SAHE graduate student participation with more first-year students contributing to production. And, the Board increased its outreach efforts to solicit article submissions resulting in twelve articles covering a broad spectrum of student affairs topics.

In a move to go "green" and to increase access to the SAHE *Journal*, readers will have the choice to request the *Journal* in print form or to access it electronically through the Colorado State University Library. These options will serve both hard-copy traditionalists and online format fans. The Journal Board has worked diligently for the past two years with the CSU Library staff to transfer the past 17 editions of the SAHE *Journal* into the CSU Library Digital Repository, Research and Scholarship of CSU Faculty and Students [http://digitool.library.colostate.edu/R?RN=15577170, click on CSU Journal Publications].

As Advisors, we are again grateful and proud to be associated with this group of bright, fun, and dedicated SAHE students.

Oscar Felix, Executive Director
The Access Center
Colorado State University

Andrea Reeve, Director
Academic Advancement Center
Colorado State University

State of the Program

David A. McKelfresh, Ph.D.
Program Chair

It is with excitement and pride that I take this opportunity to update you on the "state of the program." The SAHE program continues to make significant improvements and strides as is exemplified in the changes in the SAHE *Journal of Student Affairs* with the move to a digital repository. The School of Education recognized the SAHE program for undergoing its first Council on the Advancement of Standards (CAS) Self-Study professional review this past year. The SOE annual newsletter stated "although there are no accreditation organizations within Student Affairs, this is the closest process to such a review."

The SAHE program is more popular than ever. Our applicants come from almost every state in the United States and from several countries. This year, the program received 196 applications for the 20 to 22 slots available for the 2009 cohort (a record high).

Our faculty continues to transition and thanks go to Dr. Linda Kuk for her dedication to teaching and advising in the program as well as for her service as Program Chair. We have a select group of new faculty accepting the challenge of teaching in the program and for that I am most appreciative. Paul Thayer and Judi Bryant co-teach the Trends, Issues, and Assessment course, Mari Strombom and Lorie Smith co-teach the Organizational Behavior course, Allison Dineen teaches the Finance in Higher Education course, Judy Muenchow teaches the portfolio course for first-year and second-year students, and Jack McGrew will join me to co-teach the Higher Education Administration course. Chris Linder joins the faculty to teach the Gender in Higher Education workshop, and the Access and Opportunity workshop is co-taught by Oscar Felix and Andrea Reeve.

The SAHE program maintains a strong partnership with the Division of Student Affairs. The Division contributes more than $1 million through the 45 graduate assistantships available for SAHE students, while graduate assistantships and assistantship supervisors continue to provide excellent experiences for students. The assistantship process continues to be well-coordinated by Jody Donovan.

This year the Division of Student Affairs and the SAHE program will host and recognize Grant Sherwood at the annual NASPA conference in Seattle, Wash., and promote the Grant P. Sherwood SAHE Scholarship. Many of you will recall that Grant served as the Director of Housing and Dining, Interim Vice President of Student Affairs, Assistant Vice President of Student Affairs, and SAHE Program Chair from 1990-2005.

The field of student affairs is rapidly changing and our program is evolving to meet the challenges. The job placement rate for SAHE graduates seeking a position in student affairs continues to be 100 percent. I would like to thank our faculty, staff, assistantship supervisors, and alumni who all combine to provide a high-quality experience for students.

Acknowledgements

The Editorial Board wishes to thank the following individuals for their contributions toward the success of the 2008-2009 *Journal of Student Affairs*:

- Andrea Takemoto Reeve, Director of the Academic Advancement Center and SAHE faculty member at Colorado State University, for commitment to making this year's *Journal of Student Affairs* a quality publication, for sharing her experience with professional journals with us, for encouraging the editorial board to broaden the accessibility of the journal, and for her guidance in implementing a more successful editorial process.
- Dr. Oscar Felix, Executive Director of the Access Center and SAHE faculty member at Colorado State University, for providing the *Journal of Student Affairs* with a professional perspective, a supportive approach, and a willingness to improve the *Journal* and all who contribute to its success.
- Dr. David McKelfresh, Program Chair for the SAHE program at Colorado State University, for being so supportive and encouraging for those who participate in the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- Members of the Editorial Board for dedicating a tremendous level of professionalism and passion to the success of the *Journal of Student Affairs*, and for their commitment to making the *Journal* a better and more available publication than ever been before.
- Members of the Reader Board for their hard work and dedication to editing and analyzing articles.
- Those authors and contributors who chose to submit articles to the 18th Annual *Journal of Student Affairs*. Your research, dedication, and quality contributions made it possible to produce this edition.
- Jen Garvey, Information Technology Coordinator for Web Development, for her diligent efforts in updating and overseeing the *Journal of Student Affairs* website.
- Carl Kichinko, Communications Specialist for Communications and Creative Services, for commitment in printing professional quality copies of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- Nancy Maxwell, graphic designer for Apartment Life 2008-09, for designing the cover of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- Merinda McLure, Applied Human Science Librarian, and Dawn Bastian Paschal, Library Coordinator for the Digital Repository, for dedicating countless hours toward archiving all 17 years of the *Journal*. Your commitment to this process will open new doors of opportunity and success for the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- The 2009 and 2010 SAHE Cohorts for providing the Editorial Board with words representing the field of Student Affairs, which appear on the inside covers of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

Understanding Reentry of the Modern-Day Student-Veteran through Vietnam-Era Theory

Kinsey M. Holloway
Colorado State University

Abstract

The student-veteran population embodies unique needs and intersecting identities. The shift from military culture to that of a campus culture is a transformative and challenging experience; mutually beneficial for the campus community and student-veterans alike. The passing of the new GI Bill, coupled with uncertainty in the military's international involvement, usher new challenges for universities facilitating the homecoming of veterans. Uneasy Homecoming (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977), a Vietnam-era theory, is utilized to examine the transitional experience through a modern-day student-veteran lens. This paper weaves student testimony, survey, and literature to expound upon, validate, and critique central themes of the theory. Suggestions are made for additional research, implications for student affairs practitioners' work, and systemic policy/advocacy in higher education institutions.

History is not the precedent for the future; history lends itself to influence and inform but not dictate. Historical conflicts can impact current understanding and response. The Iraq War and other modern-day conflicts are very different from the Vietnam War, and yet there are stark and startling similarities that must be acknowledged. The waning popularity of both conflicts and mounting deaths are two of many similarities that both wars have exhibited. Thousands of student-veterans find themselves on U.S. college campuses and student affairs professionals are facing new and complicated challenges around issues that affect this unique population. The transition from a military culture to a campus culture is a unique experience and transforms student-veterans' lives due to the dramatic changes juxtaposed in one's experiences. Recent articles abound in the higher education literature about this new, invisible student population; however, student-veterans have been entering the educational system since the service's induction, most notably after conflict or war. The influx of student-veterans entering higher education systems after conflict is not a new trend; however, the number of student-veterans returning from conflict in the Middle East in recent years has grown. These student-veterans are dealing with unprecedented concerns as they adjust to the collegiate environment and cope with post-wartime stress and/or reverse culture shock.

The most notable wartime homecoming of the century was guided by the passing of the GI Bill in 1944, which sent veterans back to universities in larger numbers. It was a revolutionary move that expanded educational access and served as a catalyst for upward mobility and creation of a middle class (Greenberg, 2008). The new GI Bill will continue to support troops returning from conflict, but its focus is to award education in return for a soldier's service. In contrast, the 1944 bill served as a nation's grateful repayment (Greenberg). Over the next few years, the new law's impact will be felt to the fullest extent, and higher education institutions as well as student affairs professionals must be prepared for what may come (Greenberg, 2008). The political climate, combined with an uncertain outlook on future military involvement in foreign affairs, could greatly impact the numbers of young veterans returning home who enter institutions of higher education.

With a crescive community of student-veterans on campuses across the nation, largely due to the GI Bill, it is imperative for student affairs professionals to explore the experience of the modern-day veteran. Student-veterans have a multitude of experiences, with active duty taking them around the country and the world. This diversity of experience is reflected in the stories of three very different student-veterans interviewed about their homecoming transitions. Dan Stevens, Jenna Nash, and Clark James are the pseudonyms of three student-veterans attending Colorado State University (CSU) who shared their accounts of transition. Dan is 23 years old and served in the Army as a mental-health specialist in Iraq for a period of 12½ months He has been stateside two years now. Jenna is a 29-year-old transfer student from Maui Community College of Hawaii. She has returned from active duty, a tour that traversed stateside posts and took her around the world. Clark, the third veteran interviewed, is 38 years old and served as an Air Force officer in the Persian Gulf War. Active duty took him to Saudi Arabia and Iraq. Dan, Jenna, and Clark each have unique circumstances that have impacted and shaped their experiences and transition. Their stories are interwoven with the Uneasy Homecoming theory (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977) to provide authentic perspective and explore the theory.

Various theoretical paradigms help us to chart and understand the student-veteran's experience, though no other theorist has made explicit observations regarding the veteran population like Faulkner and McGaw. This article examines the article Uneasy homecoming: Stages in the reentry transition of Vietnam veterans and applies its theories. "Although the process of reentry transition to be discussed here will focus on Vietnam veterans, the general relevance of the process of homecoming for a variety of roles will be pointed out" (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977, p. 105). The diverse experiences encountered by Colorado State University students, the Student Veteran Survey posed by CSU's new Student Veteran Office, and current literature on the subject of returning student-veterans explore, validate, and challenge the transferable nature of this theory. Finally, further areas of exploration on the topic of student-veterans are suggested and implications for higher education institutions are made.

Uneasy Homecoming: a theory in reentry transition

Faulkner and McGaw's (1977) article, Uneasy homecoming: Stages in the reentry transition of Vietnam veterans, culls various writings of the Vietnam War and personal interviews in an effort to shape a model of reentry for veterans. Many of the men interviewed had recently returned to American society and were enrolled in a major university on the East Coast. Of the 20 men in the study, six were injured. Interactionist lenses guided Faulkner and McGaw's exploration of the experiences, critical stages and turning points in the reentry process for these men. Three interrelated stages, modeled from Glaser and Strauss's (1971) Status Passage theory, emerge as phases of reentry for veterans, including: "1) disengagement and the process of moving from the war, 2) reentry and the process of moving back into 'The World,' and 3) reintegration and the concern with moving toward the consolidation of social involvement and binding separations" (Faulkner & McGaw, p. 108). Figure 1 depicts the three homecoming stages that encapsulate the veteran experience. Additionally, Figure 1 embodies the stages of crisis and identity formation that categorize the transition experience. These three stages of the Uneasy Homecoming theory are applied to examine student-veteran experiences and other aforementioned sources.

Moving from the War	**Moving Back into the World**	**Moving Toward Reintegration**
1. Loss of Time 2. Loss of Self 3. Loss of Others	1. Discontinuity in systems of relevance. 2. Unsharability of the war experience. 3. Various forms of exclusion by the "home" society.	1. Refocusing of energies. 2. Educational-occupational and family-friendship separations.. 3. Reconstruction of self.

Figure 1
Uneasy homecoming: Stages in the reentry transition of Vietnam veterans

Moving from the War

The first stage of the model, Moving from the War, is characterized by loss; what was left behind is the locus for reflection on the war experience and allows one to successfully disengage. The loss, or abandoned experiences, shape the transition and guide departure from the previous environment (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977). Faulkner and McGaw developed the theme of identity in terms of loss; more specifically, it is the identity from which the individual is transitioning that is in need of most critical examination. Loss of time, self, and others facilitate the struggle with a transient identity of civilian to solider back to readjusted civilian. Clark experienced a similar loss associated with a changing identity. "I missed the friends I made, the camaraderie. I was glad to be back at the same time, but there were a lot of emotions, you know, and the adrenaline was flowing. So coming back was, in a way, very anticlimactic" (C. James, personal communication, October 16, 2008). While Clark grieved the lost companionship that was gained in his experience, he also missed the experience itself by describing his homecoming from the Gulf War as anticlimactic. Divesting from a previous life experience is a primary action in the reacquisition and creation of a new life (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977). Dan disengaged as a necessary step in transitioning to his new circumstances. "I know I needed time alone, I took about a month and just didn't want to talk or anything" (D. Stevens, personal communication, October 17, 2008). The time Dan took allowed him the personal space necessary to process his previous experience and adjust to his new reality. Detachment is a belaboring but necessary process for many that can be very difficult and different depending on the individual.

Transition can feel stagnant and the anticipation can be intense; "in limbo" was the phrase used to depict such a phase (Faulkner & McGaw, p. 111). While being "in limbo" specifically relates to coming home, it is common of the military experience as a whole. Dan's experience in a military family relates to the "in limbo" experience that was referenced. "A military family is definitely different than a civilian family because they're prepared to pick up and leave for like, a year or year and a half and so that definitely gives you a different outlook" (D. Stevens, personal communication, October 17, 2008). Being "in limbo" is not uniquely part of the transition process but, in a broader understanding of military life, part of military culture.

Some central features of this transition can be noted: a) the acquisition of new goals and purposes while in the service, and the newly discovered means to realize them; b) a primacy of self-interest, but one often combined with deep bonds to one's closest friends in the military; c) a shared meaning of the war experience among these friends; and d) a loss of something valuable. (Faulkner & McGaw, p. 108)

Dan, Clark, and Jenna all expressed loss in this stage; loss of friends with shared experiences and loss of a way of life. The ability to let go and make meaning of their war experiences is a key outcome of this primary stage.

Moving Back into the World

Negotiating military culture with that of U.S. culture and a vibrant campus culture is very challenging for many student-veterans. Three issues make the second stage of the model, Moving Back into the World, difficult for student-veterans: "1) a discontinuity in the systems of relevance, 2) the unsharability of the war experience, and 3) various forms of exclusion by the 'home' society" (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977, p.108). Jenna and Dan reported feeling a disconnect with fellow students at CSU, citing a lack of appreciation and knowledge of a broader world experience from other students. Both used the term "high school" to describe the mindset of their fellow students, and characterized their peers as ignorant about the war in Iraq and the military in general. "I think that the students, particularly in my 100-level classes, are pretty much naïve to what the whole world is about" (J. Nash, personal communication, October 16, 2008). These accounts demonstrate that an anomic war culture is a massive shock to mitigate in a student-veteran's reentry experience. For some returnees, expressing feelings in a safe, productive, and socially acceptable manner is difficult (Borus, 1975). It is important that student-veterans have a support network in place to ease the transition, a network that can be difficult to cultivate in the university setting.

In a survey of how 62 student-veterans at CSU deal with stress, 56 percent said they exercise, 29 percent said they talk with family, friends, or a counselor, and 15 percent said they used alcohol, drugs, or sleeping pills (Student Veteran Survey, 2008). Students demonstrate a perceived inability to communicate or be understood by peers. Some CSU interviewees reported exclusion upon returning home, similar to those Vietnam veterans interviewed in Faulkner and McGaw's study (1977). For example, Dan cited isolation due to maturity and differing life experiences when he stated the following:

Like, stories that you tell people, I wouldn't go into anything graphic – but that's just kinda [sic] how it was, I wasn't doing it for shock value or anything. And so they'll think, like, you're traumatized, and so they, like, almost force tramatization [sic] on you. (D. Stevens, personal communication, October 17, 2008)

This account demonstrates that Dan is not connecting with peers and that he feels a projection of trauma upon him from others. While Dan's sentiment is valid, it could also be noted that strength and composure are at the core of military culture. Not only is there interpersonal isolation, a societal disengagement can exist for veterans of the Iraq War much like it did for those returning from Vietnam. "Public citizen denial and projection of responsibility for the war in Vietnam has been a distressing phenomenon, leading to significant scapegoating of veterans and the military" (Borus, 1975, p. 42). One student responded in the CSU survey by saying, "My friends are positive toward it (my participation in the war). I have had students call me harsh nicknames because of it though. Such as baby killer, war monger, Nazi and so on" (Student Veteran Survey, 2008). That experience is on one end of the spectrum while Dan experienced a fanfare homecoming with "fire trucks spraying the plane" and "people saying thank you for your service" (D. Stevens, personal communication, October 17, 2008). These general characteristics of the Moving Back into the World stage seemed to resonate with the three interviewees and were represented by the participants' feedback in the CSU Student Veteran Survey.

Moving Toward Reintegration

Moving Toward Reintegration is a stage that is forward-focused with an emphasis on the reconstruction of identity; this stage emphasizes growth in relationships and the student-veteran's relation to their surrounding environment. Success in the occupational and educational realms of a student-veteran's life can positively impact his/her transition.

(Faulkner & McGaw, 1977). "I'm here for a degree and I am going to take that degree and go to med school. I'm motivated and I see that goal and I just gotta (sic) do this thing before I get there" (J. Nash, personal communication, October 16, 2008). Jenna's motivations for her educational and professional careers are clearly defined, and her goals have been shaped from her experiences in the military. She is excited to work as an emergency doctor because there is still an element of suspense that she appreciated while on active duty. Jenna made meaning of those experiences and refocused them on her future, while negotiating her educational and professional surroundings in the process. The ability to move forward is the impetus for ameliorating feelings of loss, injustice, and maladjustment (Faulkner & McGaw).

Maintaining relationships with those outside of the war culture have proven to be positive anchors for veterans, tethering them to grounded reality in the host-culture and the life they left behind. Clark felt grounded by his family and relationship with his wife stating, "We've been together 17 years in February, dating since high school. Things weren't the way I left 'em but I had to get a grip and move on, you know" (C. James, personal communication, October 16, 2008). Clark's experiences with his family brought him a sense of reality upon return and helped him refocus and disengage from the warzone mindset. Unsharability is a recurring issue, but friends, family, and spouses can ground veterans and provide support in the transition (Faulkner & McGaw). Another relation-based support in reintegration is peer groups. "Peer group relationships provide an excellent opportunity for the reconstruction of self" (Faulkner & McGaw, 1977, p. 115). Dan found a peer group on campus with the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), networking with fellow Iraq student-veterans and other student officers (D. Stevens, personal communication, October 17, 2008). When asked what would specifically help meet their needs, veterans responded with suggestions of a "meeting place" or group gatherings of some sort (Student Veteran Survey, 2008). Peer groups are an excellent way for students to debrief military experiences, discuss the military/campus culture shock and network with student-veterans with similar experiences (Borus, 1975; DiRamio, Ackerman, Mitchell, 2008; Faulkner & McGaw; 1977).

Student-Veteran Intersections in a Pluralistic Modern World

Paramount in student-veteran development and scarcely mentioned in Uneasy Homecoming are the intersection of identities in this population. For example, veteran experience varies drastically as it relates to whether the veteran was on active duty or not. Men and women veterans had different experiences. Faulkner and McGaw's (1977) theory is based on men's experiences – mid to upper 20s, middle class and well-educated, and cannot be applied to explain the development of women veterans. Women-veterans have distinct experiences in the military, which should be investigated. "Two important subthemes emerged from talking with women veterans: financial strain and sexual violence" (DiRamio, et al., p. 96). Maintaining relationships prior to service were cited as having a grounding effect, but the complexities of familial status, parenthood, and relationships were hardly addressed.

Multicultural veterans have a pluralistic identity and different experiences from their fellow patriots. For example, many tribes supported the efforts of American Indian involvement in the Vietnam War through elaborate celebrations and powwows, which affirmed their warriors' experiences and reentry. "They had to kill people who looked like them and their most beloved family members" (Gross, 2007, p. 389). Whether the opposing side bears resemblance or not, such experiences are unique, challenging, and should be acknowledged in our modern-day minority warriors and student-veterans.

Veteran disability also shapes a student's experience and contributes to his or her identity development. The number of student-veterans with disabilities is disproportionately high due to injury in combat and such an intersection should be explored. Being of the military is a culture in and of itself, and those who participate in it have a militarily influenced component of their identities that should neither be ignored nor overshadow the myriad elements of the individual's self. Acknowledging the student-veterans' multiple identities is authentic to the student and true to the student affairs holistic approach.

Another limitation that should be considered is how the theory relating to Vietnam reentry could be different from Iraq/Afghanistan reentry. It seems like the two eras are very different and the difference in conflicts could constitute a difference in identity development.

Implications for Higher Education Institutions and Student Affairs Practitioners

On an interpersonal level, the interviewees all revealed a disconnect in their interactions with other students. Student affairs professionals must work to moderate that disconnect. Combat experience, finances, and family dynamics may set these students apart from their non-veteran peers, but much can be done to bridge the gap. Student-veterans offer great perspective to their civilian counterparts, and vice versa (Byman, 2007). Those mutual perspectives can profoundly affect student affairs professionals making policy decisions.

On a systemic level, higher education institutions must put in place policies to streamline the process of enrollment, financial aid, and orientation for student-veterans. "'Do an assessment of how you're doing with programs and services for service members and veterans. You won't find a pretty picture,' says Chancellor Charles Reed of California State University" (Wright, 2008, p. 18). Reed cited that university offices working with veterans are limited to processing GI Bill payments and seldom interact with student-veterans beyond that purpose. Apart from a registrar's position to field questions regarding student-veterans, programmatic offices must be designed to serve this population. A network of student-veteran advocates in various offices across campus must be realized for this student population to receive services unique to their needs. Systemic development of student-veteran programming should be done in collaboration with military contacts, allowing a valuable interchange to take place that can mutually guide program development.

In fact, the military has been better able to plan for the truly idiosyncratic event than for the expectable stressful situations undergone by a large number of its personnel, such as preparing soldiers in advance for the changes to be expected in their reassignment to a new combat post and role. (Borus, 1975, p. 30)

The extent to which the military should intervene or promote readjustment and coping mechanisms in transition is unclear. Recent reports indicate that student-veteran suicide is on the rise; Dr. Ira Katz, Veteran's Affairs' head of mental health, says there "are about 18 suicides per day among America's 25 million veterans" (VA hid suicide risk, 2008, p. 1). These statistics are indicative of a greater problem, warrant further investigation, and necessitate the attention of student affairs professionals working with this student population.

Historical Precedents Guide Modern-Day Reflection and Action

This article began by focusing on the veterans returning from the Middle East. A wise student warned against such tunnel vision for those exploring student-veteran issues (Student Veteran Survey, 2008). Many distinct wartime experiences characterize the realities of student-veterans, experiences that must not be discounted nor diminished. Jenna, Dan, and Clark had very different experiences abroad, but had some parallel experiences when transitioning home. Various intersecting identities create a complex lens for each of these individuals regarding their experiences abroad, their transition process, and their reintegration. Those identities must be honored and further exploration is imperative to gain greater understanding about the pluralistic student-veteran experience. Colleges and universities must continue to form advocacy offices and services for student-veterans as this population continues to grow. The Vietnam War is a historical moment in U.S. history. History does not treat society's response to the war, or its veterans, very kindly. History may repeat itself time and again, but student affairs' response must diverge and incorporate lessons learned.

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Considering Students with Families in Higher Education

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Abstract

Nontraditional students with families are an ever-growing population on college campuses today. Unfortunately, many of them wrestle with the role conflict of balancing academics with family life. This paper discusses how marital satisfaction and academic persistence are often mutually exclusive, forcing the student to make a choice between the two. It also details how specific efforts in higher education can alleviate this dichotomy and provide holistic support for students with families.

The profile of the average college student is changing. In 2000, 73 percent of the U.S. college undergraduate population was considered 'nontraditional' (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2002). Nontraditional (also referred to here as 'adult' or 'independent') has been defined in many ways, but the most common characteristics of a nontraditional student include delayed enrollment, part-time attendance, financial independence, full-time employment, marriage, parenthood, single parenthood, and absence of a high school diploma (NCES, 2002; Chartrand, 1992; Komives & Woodard, 2003). Often, these characteristics overlap. Marriage and parenthood can coincide with part-time attendance and absence of a high-school diploma or full-time employment may be the reason for delayed enrollment. The increased numbers of nontraditional students indicate that students are coming to campus with much more to focus on than only academics.

Family responsibilities indicate a growing aspect of nontraditional student demographics. Of independent undergraduates, 70 percent have family responsibilities related to a spouse, to children, or to both (NCES, 2002). More than 46 percent of independent undergraduates are married (NCES, 2002). Kasworm (2003) found that 53 percent of students entering college are married, divorced, or single parents. Even though this is a significantly large portion of the college population, research and planning around variables affecting the success of these students has not kept pace with their increasing numbers.

Students with families is a contradiction of terms. They are subject to a constant and conflicting paradox of two factors: the stress on the family due to scholastic obligations and the stress on academic success due to family obligations. In one arena, the student risks his/her education when family burdens become too intense (Hagedorn, 1993; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994). In the other arena, the student risks losing family or family satisfaction because of the demands of higher education (Gold, 2006a, 2006b; Kirby, Biever, Martinez, & Gomez, 2002; Legako & Sorensen, 2000). Through the history of the research on students with families, studies have been conducted to assess these two factors in their relationship to each other. Research methods were primarily qualitative interviews of selected nontraditional student populations. Almost all tests showed some level of dissatisfaction in either arena (Gold, 2006a, 2006b; Hagedorn, 1993; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Home, Hinds, Malenfant, & Boisjoli, 1995, Home, 1998; Legako & Sorensen, 2000)

The conflicting roles of student, spouse, parent, and employee place tremendous stress on an individual as he/she tries to succeed in all roles simultaneously. This is called 'role conflict' and it is the primary source of both dropout rates and marital dissatisfaction among students with families (Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Home, 1998; Tian, 1996). Home (1998) expanded prior studies on role strain in three areas: role conflict (multiple, opposing, concurrent roles); role overload (too many demands at one time); and role contagion (thinking about one role while carrying out another). She also noted that "perceived intensity of student demands was the strongest predictor of conflict" (Home, 1998, p. 1). This has significant implications for student-service providers and faculty who are in the best position to mitigate the academic demands on students experiencing role conflict.

Understanding the unique hardships faced by married students in higher education will enable student affairs personnel to respond to their needs and to foster an environment which supports the persistence of students with families. This article sheds light on the challenges and pressures felt by the growing population of students with families, giving specific attention to the dichotomy of role conflict between family life and student life. The conclusion of this article provides recommendations for institutional inclusiveness and programming ideas that support student families in higher education.

Review of the Literature

Marital Satisfaction

Research on student families began around World War II. The first wave of married students on college campuses took place when veterans encouraged by the GI Bill in 1944 returned to the United States and to their studies. (Kirkendall, 1956; Komives & Woodard, 2003). Kirkendall (1956) remarked, "The arrival of WWII veterans on campuses shattered almost overnight the tradition that an undergraduate college student body should be composed almost exclusively of unmarried students" (p. 54). The research on married college students during this era introduced the two ideas that were seminal to future research on role conflict: marital satisfaction is challenged by the changing roles (Kirkendall, 1956); and marital satisfaction has an effect on academic success (Falk, 1964).

At the time, research was quite inconclusive and vague regarding marital adjustment. Comparisons were made using grade point average, but the data appeared to show no clear correlation between marital adjustment and academic success (Falk, 1964). Grade point average itself did not reflect overall how comfortable the students were with their academics or within their families. Kirkendall (1956) noted during this time that a solid body of research regarding married students had yet to be developed even while campuses were experiencing a spike in married student enrollment.

The next wave of research began to ameliorate the lack of psychological consideration of factors influencing married student adjustment. The majority of research took place in fields such as psychology, sociology, and family counseling (Berkove, 1976; Falk, 1964; Giles, 1983). Out of these fields came a variety of tools developed to measure marital adjustment, such as the Dyadic Adjustment Scale used by Spanier in 1976, the 1963 Locke & Wallace Marital Adjustment Test, and the Marital Satisfaction Inventory-Revised (Gold, 2006b). Such tests measured marital satisfaction through a series of questions regarding problem-solving, time together, child-rearing, communication, sexual satisfaction, and disagreement about finances (Gold, 2006b; Legako & Sorensen, 2000).

While a few marriages showed signs of improvement during college, most marital satisfaction tests proved that higher education did indeed affect family life in a negative way (Galvin, 2006; Gold, 2006b; Kirby et al., 2002; Legako & Sorensen, 2000). In Gold's study, both male and female partners reported problems in levels of global distress, time together, and disagreement about finances (2006b). They noted that schooling interfered with "couple time" and doctoral students reported "significant levels of relationship conflict, frequent arguments, and difficulties in resolving those differences" (Gold, 2006b, p. 492). From an optimistic perspective, when female participants in Berkove's study were asked what positive effects school had on themselves and their families, 90 percent reported positive effects on personal growth and 50 percent reported that their husbands showed greater appreciation, satisfaction, and pride in their wives (Berkove, 1976). It is clear that there exists a strong correlation between marriage, family, and college success. Whether that correlation is positive or negative remains the central question.

Implications of these results should be of concern to student affairs practitioners when considering the large number of students on campus who experience distress in their home lives. Students often underestimate the impact college has on marital relationships and are therefore unprepared to handle the ensuing strain on their family role (Berkove, 1976; Gold, 2006a, 2006b; Home, 1998). The effects on the individual's psychological adjustment may lead to guilt, depression, poor health, and academic failure (Berkove, 1976; Gold, 2006a; Home, Hinds, Malenfant, & Boisjoli, 1995; Home, 1998). The worst case scenario for the couple would be dissolution of the marriage. Unfortunately, there is insufficient research regarding divorce rates among college students to provide evidence of a trend. In her comprehensive literature review on this topic, Galvin (2006) reported that the research was "surprisingly missing" and remarked, "I could not locate research articles that directly discussed or explored the issues of divorce among postsecondary, nontraditional students who are in the process of completing their education" (p. 422). One consideration for this gap in literature might be that, in the battle between marriage and school, marriage is winning. In the face of either marital dissolution or academic collapse, students prefer to discontinue their college education to keep their families.

Academic Persistence

One study of female graduate students predicted that being married increased the probability of premature withdrawal by 83.4 percent (Hagedorn, 1993). Among the nontraditional population, those who drop out often cite family issues as their primary reason for discontinuing their studies (Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Kerka, 1995). The presence of role conflict and role overload has significant impact on academic persistence for students with families (Berkove, 1976; Galvin, 2006; Gold, 2006a, 2006b; Hagedorn, 1993; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Home, Hinds, Malenfant, & Boisjoli, 1995; Home, 1998; Kasworm, 2003; Kerka, 1995). Compared to unmarried students, studies show conflicting role demands mean married students are less likely to finish a degree (Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994).

The foundational research on student persistence is based on landmark studies conducted by Tinto (1987) who examined the effect of the level of student integration on campus as a major prevention for withdrawal (Hanniford & Sangaria, 1994). The study did not include variables of potentially larger importance to students with families, such as circumstances outside of school. Also at this time, researchers such as Bean & Metzner adapted Tinto's methods and began to examine factors influencing dropouts among nontraditional students (Chartrand, 1992; Hagedorn, 1993; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Kerka, 1995). The Adult Persistence in Learning Model, developed by MacKinnon-Slaney, (1994) combined personal and social/environmental aspects to academic aspects of participation among these students (Kerka, 1995). Even though the research has become increasingly targeted, gaps still exist. In collecting factors pertaining to varied roles, researchers have not been consistent in including demographics such as ethnicity, class, age, or influences such as financial factors, academic integration, and choice of major. One common criticism was that few studies were longitudinal and therefore were unable to examine cause-effect relationships, which would offer predictions of married student withdrawal (Gold, 2006a; Hagedorn, 1993; Home, 1998).

The surprising correlation researchers did discover is the primary determinant for success for students with families is not integration on campus, but rather level of support from family and friends (Chartrand, 1992; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Home, Hinds, Malenfant, & Boisjoli, 1995; Home, 1998; Kirby et al., 2002). Incorporating earlier student adjustment models, Chartrand (1992) found that social support was crucial in reducing the amount of stress and fostering intentions to stay in school for these students. The spouse in particular provides several levels of support such as financial, emotional/psychological, academic, and basic needs support (Giles, 1983). Berkove's (1976) study indicated that students who dropped out received less functional support than those who stayed enrolled. Lack of support from spouses could be both a cause and result of marital dissatisfaction. If a spouse refuses to back the student's education, the student may resent the spouse and tension emerges within the relationship. If there is substantial marital strain because of time spent on academics, the spouse may not feel compelled to provide support. Compiled with other structural elements, such as increased workload or scheduling conflicts, lack of support exacts further pressure on the student to choose family over school (Berkove, 1976).

Retention and attrition are constant concerns of student affairs professionals. Students with families have unique obstacles to persistence. Knowing where these obstacles originate can help professionals create targeted retention programs aimed at this population. Traditional retention models may not apply if they do not consider the role of family in the student's education. The sobering results of Hagedorn's (1993) study illustrate this dilemma: "The factor most predictive of persistence was not being married" (p. 14).

Women, Men, and Divorce

Two recent trends deserve specific attention in the discussion of students with families: the difference between women and men as students with families and the effects of divorce on student enrollment.

Since the Women's Rights Movement, enrollment of women in higher education has not only increased, but has surpassed the number of men on college campuses (Hagedorn, 1993; NCES, 2002; Tian, 1996). Today, 60 percent of independent undergraduate students are women (NCES, 2002) and female adult enrollments have increased by almost 60 percent compared to 40 percent for male adults (Kasworm, 2003). However, the education expansion of women has not been mirrored by a decrease in the pressure of women's roles at home. More women than men fall victim to role conflict and, consequently, discontinue their education (Hagedorn, 1993; Hanniford & Sagaria, 1994; Home, 1998; Tian, 1996). There is a paradox between academic persistence for men and women who are married. While marriage is shown to encourage academic success for men, it has a detrimental effect on women (Giles, 1983; Hagedorn; 1993; Tian, 1996).

Divorce rates reflect the dichotomy between male-female student persistence. Increased divorce rates actually cause an increase in female college enrolleent (Tian, 1996). When a woman is divorced, her status as homemaker is threatened by the need to get a job and provide for her family. Tian (1996) explains that following a divorce, women often experience economic insecurity, which may lead them to pursue alternative opportunities in higher education. The opposite holds true for men, especially at the graduate level. Overall, Tian's study shows "both married men and divorced women were much more committed and had much better academic performances than divorced men, who were marked with lack of commitment and less satisfactory academic performances" (Tian, 1996, p.14).

Recommendations

Since married students first arrived on U.S. campuses more than 50 years ago, the same question has been on the minds of student affairs professionals: how do we support students with families? The recommendations are clear and are echoed among researchers across the disciplines.

Support the Student

Students with families need certain resources that differ from those utilized by traditional students. Universities and colleges would be wise to incorporate structural as well as social and academic supports for this population. The following supports were identified to have a positive effect on the retention of students with families.

Structural supports, such as married student housing, computer labs, lounge areas, day care centers, and meal plans increase the student's integration into campus (Giles, 1983; Home et al., 1995; Home, 1998). These resources aid the students academically and allow them to spend more time on campus. Day care centers and family housing specifically support families, bringing them in proximity to the school and freeing the students to focus on schoolwork. In addition to physical structures, educational resources also lead to student success. Education about stressors, time management, and study skills increases academic efficiency and relieves role overload (Chartrand, 1992; Home, 1998; Kirby et al., 2002). Distance education and part-time study give students more opportunity and flexibility to balance their schedules. Married students are the primary demographic in online classes (Halsne & Gatta, 2002) and distance education is the only tangible support that has proven to reduce role contagion (Home, 1998). Students with families also need social support, which may not be as accessible to them as it is to traditional students. Networking through online chat rooms, peer mentors, and support groups benefit the students' emotional and social adjustment and heightens their motivation to persist (Hagedorn, 1993; Home, Hinds, Malenfant, & Boisjoli, 1995; Home, 1998; Kerka, 1995). Schools can also devote one qualified staff member for coordinating outreach to student families. Equally important is to train faculty and staff to be sensitive to, and accommodating of, the needs of these students. Accommodations such as allowing students to bring children to class, to miss class for family illness, or to have extensions on assignments help foster retention. Overall, special programs and accommodations create a sense of belonging, which helps nontraditional students feel connected to the university and thus feel a stronger desire to remain in their programs.

Support the Spouse who Supports the Student

Given the substantial impact of support from friends and family on student persistence, it is crucial that these significant others be included in the student's education. Researchers offer several specific action points for student-service providers. Including spouses and children in extracurricular activities whenever possible is a fun, easy way to involve the whole family in the student's college experience (Hagedorn, 1993). Activities for families can be built into already existing programs such as nontraditional student week celebrations or added into the services provided by offices for adult learners. Families are more capable of being supportive when they understand the larger university system and requirements. This can be facilitated by designing orientations for families and encouraging students to attend with spouses (Gold, 2006a; Kerka,1995; Kirby et al., 2002). In addition to understanding the system, it is important for families to realize how the specific demands of college will affect the student and, in turn, the family. Universities can prepare students and families through special information sessions directed at educating students about the stress of college on the relationship and the importance of family support (Home et al., 1995; Home, 1998). Finally, students and families need to know where to turn when the rigors of college become overwhelming to family life. Providing family development and counseling resources for the student and spouse can alleviate the worst of role conflict and foster academic and personal persistence (Chartrand, 1992; Gold, 2006a, 2006b; Kirkendall, 1956).

The student affairs profession is designed to provide necessary services to support the development of the whole individual, the unique individual, and the experiencing individual (Komives & Woodard, 2003). Perhaps it is the term individual that is misleading. Students with families, by definition, bring more to their college experiences than their own individual needs. Gold (2006a) says when any one family member pursues higher education, it "becomes a family task rather than an individual endeavor" (p. 417). He continues by explaining how education requires the entire family to realign priorities of time, energy, commitment, and financial resources which ideally serves to "strengthen the family unit, as all members are involved in the striving and success of the student" (Gold, 2006a, p. 417). Professionals need to explore ways to provide support to the family unit as an extension of the married student. To strengthen the family is to strengthen the student.

Conclusion

Adopting a holistic view when working with students with families allows the student affairs professional to identify the essential components to their success. It is crucial to not only see the immediate demands of academics on these students, but also the additional external pressures on their lives. As the number of students with families increases, so will the need for structural supports such as housing, day care, and distance education. More important will be the emotional supports often provided by student affairs professionals: counseling, education, programming, and overall compassion for the difficulties of family life on college students. If this fragile population is to thrive both personally and academically, higher education must prepare itself to welcome the families with the students.

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Distance Learning: The Struggle for Satisfaction

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Abstract

Distance learning is a growing educational avenue in higher education. As more diverse students enroll for classes, institutions should be responsive to increasingly diversifying student needs. The research on distance learning primarily focuses on comparing its components to the traditional classroom experience. Studies fall short, however, in drawing concrete conclusions around academic success and overall satisfaction for students and faculty involved in distance learning. In addition to recommendations for further research, this article identifies a number of variables influencing student success and satisfaction, as well as promotes the combination of distance learning with traditional education programs. Suggestions are also provided for administrators to design distance learning formats around students' learning styles, rather than conforming to technology.

In a time of hand-held computers, phones with e-mail access, and a societal desire for instant gratification, technology is rapidly changing the way people think and interact. The realm of academia is also covered with technological fingerprints. Advances in technological support provide avenues for educational services previously not thought possible. For many colleges and universities, there are a number of growing opportunities for online courses, videoconferencing, and other methods of distance learning.

Distance learning is rapidly growing due to the needs of students. Because higher education has become accessible for people of varying ages and backgrounds, there is a need to accommodate the preferences and circumstances of every student. From commuter students to adult learners, distance learning provides the opportunity for students to learn and study on a flexible schedule without being on campus or in a classroom (Sharp & Cox, 2003).

With an increasing number of programs and student services, there has been an intentional effort to study the implications distance learning may have for students and institutions (Kochman & Maddux, 2001; Pérez-Prado & Thirunarayanan, 2002; Sharp & Cox, 2003; Summers, Waigandt, & Whittaker, 2005; Xie, Lin, & Zhang, 2001). There are a number of factors regarding distance learning: student needs, faculty adaptation to a foreign format, identifying which courses or programs should be offered, and general challenges of transition if these programs are introduced or expanded (Diaz & Cartnal, 1999; Restauri, King, & Nelson, 2001; Rivera, McAlister, & Rice, 2002; Summers et al., 2005; Xie et al., 2001). Colleges and universities are left to interpret the literature and research to see if alternatives to traditional learning are worth the effort and investment of resources.

This article addresses the current issue facing many colleges and universities in determining whether distance learning is an equal and acceptable alternative offered to students. Additionally, this article addresses comparisons to traditional classroom learning with regards to student and faculty success and satisfaction, as well as the challenge of adapting courses to online or television formats. Implications are made as to why this issue is relevant to colleges and universities, as well as identifying gaps or misnomers in the research and literature. This article concludes with recommendations for further areas to research, along with educational suggestions for institutions to consider.

Distance Learning vs. Traditional Instruction

Academic success. The majority of the literature on distance learning focuses on comparing distance learning, primarily online or videoconference formats, to the traditional classroom approach (del Corral, Guevara, Luquin, Peña, & Otero, 2006; Kochman & Maddux, 2001; Koenig, 2007; Pérez-Prado & Thirunarayanan, 2002; Sharp & Cox, 2003). The immediate focus of most studies is centered on academic success and how a student enrolled in distance learning would compare to a similar student in a traditional classroom. While this concern is paramount, the majority of literature (del Corral et al., 2006; Pérez-Prado & Thirunarayanan, 2002; Sharp & Cox, 2003; Xie et al., 2001) suggests, "off-campus students did not suffer academically" (Sharp & Cox, 2003, ¶ 25). In fact, research by del Corral et al. indicated online students learned more.

To understand these results, it is important to highlight the variables considered in the studies. Precautions were taken by del Corral et al. (2006) to account for incoming knowledge of students tested; online pretests were administered at the beginning of the semester to ensure the end of the semester's test scores reflected an accurate knowledge increase. Sharp and Cox (2003) tested on- and off-campus students from a finance course and a principalship course, respectively. With both courses, off-campus students achieved higher final grades. It should be noted that both studies examined different aspects of distance learning: del Corral et al. (2006) studied online courses, while Sharp and Cox (2003) studied videoconferencing or live-televised courses. With similar courses, instructors, and degree programs for the students studied, the results were strongly in favor of distance learning being equal, if not better, than traditional course instruction (del Corral et al., 2006; Sharp & Cox, 2003).

There is a caveat to these findings, however. Sharp and Cox (2003) admitted not all courses are ideal for distance learning. In a similar distance learning study, Kochman and Maddux (2001) cited concerns that, "the type of content being delivered over interactive televised distance learning affects student outcomes" (p. 89). Offering a more concrete explanation for web-based learning specifically, Pérez-Prado and Thirunarayanan (2002) concluded, "courses that require students to develop empathy or other affective orientations may not be suitable candidates for web-based distance education" (p. 200). With academic success possibly hinging on the discipline or course material, this is certainly an area of distance learning in need of further research.

Student and faculty satisfaction. While academic success may unofficially be leaning in favor of distance learning, overall satisfaction for students and faculty is not as conclusive. Regarding positive student satisfaction, a study by Xie et al. (2001) found an overwhelming majority of students felt distance learning courses were "more convenient" and students were "more active" (p. 289) than they would have been in a physical classroom setting. Moreover, Restauri et al. (2001) found students in both online and videoconferencing forms of distance learning prefer, "organization of class … student/instructor interaction … concept acquisition … and … variety of media" (p. 10-11) over traditional classroom instruction.

Outright dissatisfaction came with distance learning, as well. Summers et al. (2005) found online learning benefited students with frequent, unrestricted, access to course materials, but this benefit applied only to students who are already self-disciplined. The students who struggle with lack of structure or discipline to work contributed to giving, "online courses … much higher rates of attrition than face-to-face courses" (p. 236) due to their dissatisfaction.

Dropouts aside, Rivera et al. (2002) found students in the web-based course had the largest split of opinion on overall course satisfaction as compared to traditional or hybrid course students; they also had the most overall reports of dissatisfaction.

Technology and curriculum. Coinciding with satisfaction, a major factor for both students and faculty is learning to adapt to the medium of distance learning. Several studies (Koenig, 2007; Summerset al., 2005; Xie et al., 2001) emphasized the importance of student comfort in using the technology for the course, as well as the faculty's ability to adapt course materials to the designated learning format. Restauri, King, and Nelson (2001) expanded this notion to emphasize the necessity of faculty and staff being properly trained with the software or technology for the course. Faculty must be comfortable navigating course technology or they will inevitably reduce student confidence in the course due to an inability to deliver materials or provide timely feedback to student questions and concerns (Rivera et al., 2002).

From the literature, there were a variety of conclusions drawn for recommendations or solutions to concerns. Koenig (2007) felt hybrid courses, in-class experiences with online components, "combine the best of the classroom with the best that distance learning has to offer" (p. 98). Similarly, Rivera et al. (2002) found students in a hybrid course had a similar rate of course satisfaction as students in a traditional setting, while strictly web-based students had significant dissatisfaction.

For Diaz and Cartnal (1999), the issue is not necessarily finding the best method of course delivery, but more so understanding students' learning styles. Preference or learning style might better be thought of as the umbrella that contains a student's preference for course delivery. In support of this idea, Xie et al. (2001) found even within a study comparing on-campus and off-campus students enrolled in distance learning, there was a significant difference of learning styles that necessitated different teaching strategies.

Implications of Distance Learning

The issue of distance learning is relevant to student affairs professionals for reasons beyond technological advances. Enrollments for institutions now includes more diverse populations including older adults who have prompted universities to provide instruction in ways unheard of in previous years (Sharp & Cox, 2003). To address students' increasing needs and circumstances of students juggling various family and work responsibilities, as well as commuting long distances to attend classes, necessary technology has been adapted by colleges and universities (Anderson & Mercer, 2004). If distance learning programs prove a successful and worthy addition to traditional curriculum, educational conventions and methodology could be entirely reshaped.

Satisfaction and learning preference. In general, research for distance learning has proven relatively inconclusive. Academic success in distance learning has been proven for certain kinds of courses to be equal or better for students than traditional-style courses (del Corral et al., 2006; Sharp & Cox, 2003). However, there has been consistent data confirming a dissatisfaction or frustration of students and faculty with distance learning formats (Rivera et al., 2002; Summers et al., 2005). Success is present, but does that outweigh the fact that students and faculty are not enjoying the experience?

Perhaps Diaz and Cartnal (1999) were correct in exploring students' learning styles as the key to gaining understanding for distance education. Their study classifying students' learning styles – independent and conceptual learning style or a social and conceptual learning style – found social and conceptual students tended to do worse with online courses because they suffered without the face-to-face interaction of a traditional class. As previously stated, Xie et al. (2001) showed that even when students select a distance learning course, they had differing learning styles or preferences that affected their opinions of satisfaction, stress, and connectivity with their learning community.

Faculty members recognize the importance of catering to student learning styles. In a study by Pérez-Prado and Thirunarayanan (2002), a professor expressed concerns that students using online distance learning, "did not work together as well as did those grouped in class because she was not there to 'guide them'" (p. 200). The professor's concern stems from knowledge that some students will experience frustration for lack of regular interaction and structure of an online class. Because in-class experiences can be influential and essential for understanding the bigger picture of the material, not all courses and subjects are best for distance learning.

Designated disciplines. With regards to distance learning being applicable only to certain disciplines of study, it is important to note several studies (del Corral et al., 2006; Sharp & Cox, 2003; Xie et al., 2001) found academic success with distance learning. While those conclusions are not refuted, there are questions raised as to whether all subjects or disciplines produce similar results. Sharp and Cox (2003), as well as Pérez-Prado and Thirunarayanan (2002), agree that distance learning should be limited to specific programs. In both studies, examples were cited when both students and faculty expressed concerns that some programs or courses would lose integral components of the educational experience if adapted for distance learning.

A study by Kochman and Maddux (2001) provides inadvertent data which could support the idea of course material playing an important role when contemplating transition to distance learning formats. Their data measured the difference in initial and final grade point average (GPA) of students enrolled in traditional courses versus distance learning. While the overall results point to distance learning achieving superior academic success, disciplines differed significantly in their results: science courses had an average GPA difference of .54 in favor of distance learning, while education courses had a GPA difference of only .31. The GPA differences in the education courses could be argued to support Sharp and Cox's (2003) notion that, "not all courses are ideal for distance learning" (¶ 2). Perhaps the fact-based nature of the science course made it easier to adapt and be successful in distance learning than a more subjective discipline, such as education. More research is needed to validate this, however.

Recommendations for Distance Learning Student Services

Additional research. The area of distance learning certainly has room for more research to be conducted. While this article dealt with distance learning as a whole, Restauri et al. (2001) highlighted differing opinions and preferences within the different forms of distance learning. Additional studies could help identify variables regarding distance learning and illuminate new connections and implications for students and the institutions providing the programs. Student affairs professionals should be involved in such studies in order to better know students' needs and preferences, as well as gain clarity and understanding of how distance learning fits into student development.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) calls for "regular assessment and evaluations" (Miller, 2003, p. 150) performed by distance learning programs. While there has been a significant amount of research conducted, "few studies have examined online learning from a qualitative perspective" (Pérez-Prado & Thirunarayanan, 2002, p. 196). Qualitative research could allow for more understanding with interconnections of student satisfaction and success, as well as a clearer articulation of concerns with distance learning. While qualitative data of opinions might be harder to compare and interpret with quantitative data of grades and scores, setting the factors with which to measure student satisfaction could introduce new perspectives to consider in the assessment of distance learning.

Continuing with the idea of expanding research, it may prove beneficial to study the relationship of success and satisfaction rates of certain academic disciplines versus others in distance learning. There is certainly a gap in the research since studies acknowledge student success with distance learning, but qualify those results by stating they may not be typical of all disciplines (Sharp & Cox, 2003; Pérez-Prado & Thirunarayanan, 2002). Pérez-Prado and Thirunarayanan found that both students and faculty acknowledge an experiential component for some courses is far more influential if students are engaged face-to-face in a traditional class setting. Focusing the research on these components in different disciplines could perhaps underline why some material is easier to adapt for distance learning than others.

Faculty and staff troubleshooting. An option for institutions not ready to fully embrace distance learning could be the introduction of hybrid courses. Data from studies (Koenig, 2007; Rivera et al., 2002) have shown hybrid courses to have consistent positive success and satisfaction rates of students. Hybrid courses are combinations of traditional class instruction or meeting times with distance learning components such as Internet, telephone, or video-based discussions, assignments, or projects. Some courses are more distance learning based, only physically meeting a limited number of times a semester, versus courses with a heavier traditional course base and few distance learning components (Rivera et al., 2002).

Integrating distance learning components into traditional-style courses would allow institutions to assess student reception with technology and educational services without fully transitioning to a foreign format. Likewise, an integration of formats allow for faculty and staff to better adapt to the technology or new demands of instruction with the distance learning component (Rivera et al., 2002). Student affairs professionals can also experiment with hybrid service or resource components to adapt to technological advances. Much consideration should be given to distance components to account for differences in learning environment and student development. Careful integration of new methodologies across disciplines, divisions, and services could help identify important factors – positive and negative – of distance learning experiences for students.

Thinking proactively, the competency of faculty with the technology of distance learning is definitely an area to improve. In the majority of studies (del Corral et al., 2006; Koenig, 2007; Rivera et al., 2002; Summers et al., 2005;), overall satisfaction with a distance learning course was hindered by technical problems and frustrations. Summers et al. goes on to recommend that faculty members take time to, "establish a pedagogical framework before course development" (p. 246). Such preparatory efforts could help eliminate the struggle to make course materials conform to technology. Rivera et al. (2002) found familiarization of faculty and staff with technology also allows for more overall support for distance learning troubleshooting and improvements. Likewise, if students are receiving technological support and assistance in other areas, student affairs professionals should be familiar with technological advancements in order to understand the pressures and demands placed on students' technological competencies.

The CAS professional standards for distance learning make faculty and staff professionals aware of future challenges presented with distance learning (Miller, 2003). First, professionals are charged with keeping "congruency of mission and programs" (Miller, p. 140) of distance learning formats with those of traditional institutional courses. Consequently, the second charge for professionals is being aware of the culture change which could result from successful distance learning programs. While faculty members adapt technology competencies and course materials to distance learning formats, student affairs professionals should actively brainstorm methods to provide resources and services to distance learning students who may not be present on campus (Miller, 2003). Student affairs professionals can help communicate and maintain consistency among departments and offices involved with students' overall college experience.

Finally, both student affairs and academic affairs professionals must strive to ensure distance learning resources and programs are "provided on a fair and equitable basis" (Miller, p. 145), so as not to limit or inhibit student participation with issues of accessibility. Unfair benefits or access opportunities not available to distance learning students should be taken into consideration both inside and outside of the classroom, again implicating the integral involvement of student affairs professionals. These elements are beneficial for faculty, staff, and administrators to work proactively in serving students' needs and building successful distance learning programs.

Conclusion

This article explored the factors and implications regarding distance learning. It delved into literature and research demonstrating conditional academic success of distance learning when compared to traditional-style instruction. Likewise, the implications of both student and faculty satisfaction and struggles with distance learning formats were explored. Having identified gaps in the research, student affairs administrators, advisors, and faculty should be aware that some courses may not be best suited for distance learning. It is essential to keep students' learning styles in mind when thinking of introducing and experimenting with distance learning. Faculty and staff also need to be familiar with the technology and formats they are introducing to students. These professionals should also work proactively to address future challenges and culture changes resulting from successful distance learning programs. A safe guideline for future distance learning development and success could be to make sure information technology conforms to fit the needs of the student, not the other way around.

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Requiring Study Abroad for a Bachelor's Degree: A New Trend in Higher Education

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Abstract

This article examines the trend of including study abroad as part of a required core curriculum at a growing number of higher education institutions. This article discusses the foundational reasons for the trend (i.e. global competence, psychosocial and cognitive development, increasing and diversifying access to study abroad) and the models currently in use for implementation. The impacts of this trend on student affairs professionals and recommendations to support the requiring study abroad for undergraduate students conclude the article.

In today's world of instant, global communication, multinational corporations, economic interdependence, and concerns about international security, the demand for college graduates with an interest in and understanding of international issues is quickly rising. Leaders in business, government, and education (Brustein, n.d.; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program [CALSAP], 2005; Hayword, 2000; Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; Johnson, 2008) agree that educating students to rise to these new challenges and demands is essential and has led to a campus internationalization trend in higher education. Within this trend, a smaller, but still very powerful trend is taking hold, especially among small liberal arts colleges. In only the past couple of years, several of these colleges have begun to require an off-campus cross-cultural or study abroad experience as part of undergraduate core curriculums (Arcadia University, n.d.a; CALSAP, 2005; Fisher, 2008; Goucher College, n.d.; Susquehanna University, n.d.). Each college has, so far, approached the logistics of sending an entire student body abroad differently, but all profess a deep desire to graduate students with a strong global awareness.

As more institutions consider implementing similar curricular changes, it is essential to examine both the reasons behind and the consequences of this trend. This article examines the reasons behind this new trend, describes specific examples of the ways this trend is being implemented and explores the effects this is having at individual institutions. This article also reviews the varied effects that this trend may have on student affairs professionals. The article concludes with recommendations for future work toward a more globally educated workforce.

Benefits of Study Abroad

Major changes to curricula, such as the addition of a study abroad component, which may demand extensive financial support, are not made lightly. Requiring study abroad is not a simple way to appear to be a more internationalized institution. Nor is it typically a ploy to attract more applicants. Institutions that have or are considering instituting a required global learning experience do so because of significant evidence indicating the benefits of such an experience in today's world (Brustein, 2007; CALSAP, 2005; Fischer, 2008; Hayword, 2000; Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; Johnson, 2008; Obst, Bhandari &Witherell, 2007; Stecker, n.d.; Stuart, 2007)

One of the most widely cited reasons for encouraging or even requiring students to study abroad is some variation of helping students achieve global competence (Brustein, 2007;

CALSAP, 2005; Fischer, 2008; Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; Johnson, 2008). Hunter, White & Godbey (2006) defined global competence as "having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and expectations of others, leveraging this gained knowledge to interact, communicate, and work effectively outside one's environment" (p. 277). Global competence is becoming increasingly important as a qualification for many jobs, especially those involving leadership or national security (CALSAP, 2005). Standford J. Ungar, the current president of Goucher College, argues that in today's interconnected world, students without a degree of global competency cannot be considered fully educated (Fischer, 2008). Global competence is not, however, the only reason institutions are considering requiring students to have international experiences.

Personal and academic development are also enhanced by studying abroad. Researcher Emily Stecker (n.d.) asserts that "if colleges want to take seriously the task of fostering the psychosocial and cognitive development of undergraduates, they should develop, promote, and fund study abroad programs for the entire student population" (¶7). Not only do students report that study abroad increased their interest in academic work (CALSAP, 2005), but the University of Minnesota reports a higher graduation rate among students who studied abroad (Stuart, 2007). However, these advantages have historically been available only to those students with sufficient financial support to fund costly study abroad programs.

Professionals (Fischer, 2008; Hayword, 2000; Obst, Bhandari, & Witherell, 2007; Scarpa, 2007) cite disparities in access and opportunity for study abroad as an excellent reason to further encourage or even require study abroad. While studies indicate that 90 percent of the American public believe that knowledge about international issues will be important for the careers of younger people (Obst et al., 2007) and 55 percent of college-bound high school seniors believe they will study abroad (Fischer, 2008), only 3 percent of students actually study abroad during their time in college (Hayword, 2000). Even fewer students of color, lower socioeconomic status, or who are considered nontraditional students study abroad, making them vastly underrepresented in study abroad programs (Stuart, 2007). By requiring students to study abroad and providing the necessary supports for this to occur, colleges and universities are hoping to increase the diversity and number of U.S. students studying abroad.

Current Practices

While the trend may have its roots in earlier attempts to create incentives for studying abroad or to increase access to study abroad opportunities, requiring students to study abroad is a relatively new phenomenon. The first university to make study abroad a requirement for an undergraduate degree was Goucher College in Maryland (Fischer, 2008). Goucher instituted this requirement beginning with the class of 2010, those students who entered school in the fall of 2006. Goucher students can complete this requirement through either short, three-week or semester-long study abroad programs. About 57 percent of Goucher students complete the requirement through short-term programs. The college has also seen a 70 percent increase in students studying abroad for a semester or a year (Fischer, 2008). On its way to becoming what it calls a 21st-century liberal-arts college, Goucher is in the process of raising over $31 million to continue its voucher program. This program provides $1,200 travel vouchers to every Goucher student to defray the costs of traveling to pursue a global education (Goucher College, n.d.). Early critics suggested this requirement might be a deterrent to applicants, but Goucher has seen a 35 percent increase in applications since instituting the policy (Fischer, 2008). Further research would be required to determine if this increase is a direct result of the policy and if it is similarly increasing diversity among Goucher's study abroad populations. Other universities are certainly taking notice.

Arcadia University's undergraduate class of 2012, matriculating during the fall of 2008 are required to complete a Global Experience and Reflection as a part of the undergraduate degree (Arcadia University, n.d.a). This requirement can be fulfilled through either long- or short-term study abroad, as well as certain service learning and university exchange programs throughout the United States (Arcadia University, n.d.a). Arcadia supports students to be able to study abroad through pathways to study abroad, discipline-specific documents that identify the most advantageous times and places that a student in each specific major might study abroad in order to most enhance the learning experience (Arcadia University, n.d.a). Because the programs are all run by Arcadia's Center for Education Abroad, tuition, fees, room, and board are all the same cost to students studying abroad as to students studying on the main campus. Additionally, all financial aid except work-study and resident assistant stipends is applied (Arcadia University, n.d.a). Furthermore, Arcadia subsidizes a freshman preview program during spring break to allow students to experience a short, international educational experience in various European locations for less than $500 for the weeklong trip and accompanying credits. This opportunity means that over 87 percent of Arcadia students participate in international learning experiences in the freshman year alone (Arcadia University, n.d.a).

Other institutions of higher education that have made studying abroad a requirement include Lee University, Soka University of America, and Susquehanna University (Fischer, 2008; Susquehanna University, n.d.). Other universities, such as Lafayette College, have not gone so far as to make study abroad required, but have created requirements to learn about foreign cultures. Certain public research institutions, such as the University of Minnesota and San Francisco State University, have announced plans to send at least 50 percent of their students abroad in the near future (CALSAP, 2005). It may seem to be a fairly small list of institutions, but for this much significant curricular change to have occurred in only the past two years, there is evidence this trend is just beginning to take hold.

The way these requirements are implemented varies from institution to institution. Some simply require one or two credits to be taken abroad, while others require pre- and post- study seminars, reflections, and other assignments. Hunter, White, and Godbey (2006) noted that these supportive curricular activities are essential to enhance global competency, especially in cases where students attend short-term abroad programs because these short programs do not sufficiently lead to global competence.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

Though relatively recent, the trend of requiring study abroad for undergraduate students is likely to have a profound impact on most students and student affairs professionals. Although requiring study abroad is not yet practical for many institutions, such as community colleges with large populations of working students, or universities without the funds to make study abroad financially viable for its students, the greater trend of internationalizing campuses will be felt throughout the United States. However, for those professionals at schools that are implementing or considering implementing policies requiring study abroad, the consequences will be even more striking.

One of the effects this trend will have on those working in higher education will be the need for securing more funding. Study abroad advocates, both in higher education and in state and national legislatures, are working on improving governmental funding for study abroad (CALSAP, 2005) but institutions of higher education are likely to bear the brunt of the financial burden. This may result in greater development efforts as well as budget reallocations in some cases. Student affairs professionals need to be ready to meet changing financial needs of their institutions and of their students.

In addition to addressing the needs of those students for whom study abroad is a financial hardship, student affairs professionals and their colleagues throughout the university must be prepared to aid those students who, due to medical considerations, work situations, or familial obligations, will find study abroad to be a significant obstacle. Finding and supporting certain domestic cross-cultural experiences, short-term experiences, and unique programs designed for these students traditionally underrepresented in the study abroad experience will be an essential duty of student affairs professionals as institutions embrace studying abroad as an essential part of the undergraduate curriculum. In response to these needs and the growing needs of the general population, offices supporting studying abroad will have increased needs for professionals as well.

A larger population of students studying abroad will require an adjustment of the way that many things are done to accommodate more students leaving and returning to campus each semester. For example, this may complicate the way housing is determined each year on campuses that provide housing for upperclassmen, as well as the hiring model for Resident Assistants (RAs) when many RAs will not be able to commit to full-year terms (Justin Price, personal communication, November 12, 2008). Student organizations that depend on consistent student leadership will need to re-evaluate leadership models to accommodate growing study abroad numbers.

As larger groups of students at a given time are returning to campus and going through often difficult readjustments to the campus (Scarpa, 2007), student affairs staff must be aware of this transition and actively support students as they deal with these transitions. Elon University has already begun to prepare its staff for this task by sending staff on short study abroad trips to help them understand the significance of studying abroad in students' lives (Schock, 2007). Student affairs professionals throughout different functional areas can also be expected to aid in the development of programming that supports the new global missions of institutions and adds meaning to off-campus study. Just as student affairs has traditionally enhanced both the academic mission of institutions and the personal development of its students, professionals must continue to support this even as changes in institutional missions toward a more global focus significantly change the way professionals must approach their positions.

Recommendations

Institutions of higher education that have the resources to help all students study abroad should consider making it a graduation requirement and increasing support to students. An effort should be made to help all students to study abroad. Requiring study abroad is not the only way to internationalize an education, and it cannot internationalize an education on its own. Institutions should commit to programs that enhance international experiences both in and outside of the classroom while weaving questions of international influence into all parts of the curriculum. Further research into the benefits of study abroad and ways to mitigate obstacles to studying abroad, especially in underrepresented groups of students studying abroad, is also an essential step forward. The more information the field of student affairs has, the better institutions will be able to support students to take advantage of study abroad.

Legislators and others with influence on lawmaking should support bills that increase funding and access to study abroad such as the Senator Paul Simon bill advocating funding to allow the United States to send 1 million students abroad annually by the year 2016 (CALSAP, 2005). Without funding to offset costs, institutions will not be able to provide study abroad opportunities for most of their students.

Conclusion

Over the past decade, many Americans have realized that an international education is essential for the future business, government, and social leaders of the United States (Brustein, n.d.). In a world that is more and more closely connected through instant communication, free trade, and travel, it is essential to have citizens who are globally aware (Brustein, n.d.; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program [CALSAP], 2005; Hayword, 2000; Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; Johnson, 2008). In response to this need, universities and colleges are attempting to internationalize campuses through programming and curriculum. Within this movement is a small movement of colleges starting to require study abroad as a graduation requirement. Based on a belief that global competency is an essential part of education, and in recognition of both cognitive and personal development benefits of studying abroad, this requirement attempts to enhance education while increasing access to study abroad opportunities for underrepresented students. While not yet widespread, this trend could have a profound impact on student affairs professionals and the way they do their jobs. Individual student affairs professionals, institutions of higher education, and U.S. legislators should continue to support this trend both programmatically and financially to increase the global competency of American college graduates.

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Parent and Family Institutional Philosophy and On-Campus Partners

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Literature indicates the trend of working with parents and families to navigate the university system began increasing in the 1990s (Austin, 1993; Gold, 1995; Harris & Jones, 1996; Pearson & Dellmann-Jenkins, 1997). A growing expectation for customer service in universities, coupled with the idea that "[p]arents who understand how the institution functions, who meet and interact with resource people, and who are committed to developing effective communication patterns with their students can become institutional advocates and positive retention agents" brought parent and family programs to life (Mullendore, 1998, p. 58). Based on this understanding, institutions have created programs that meet the individualized needs of the parents and families of their students.

Many institutions use any combination of five staple services as a foundation for parent and family program services: an orientation program, a handbook, a newsletter, a website, and a parent association (Saul & Honor, 2005). These programs provide targeted information to parents and families through crucial avenues. Orientation programs help parents and families in their transitioning role and create an avenue for the institution to provide information about the university and dispel myths a parent or family member might have about the college environment (Ward-Roof, 2005). A handbook serves as a resource for parents and families to all things related to the university. Handbooks can cover anything from pertinent contact information, to important dates or institution processes, to developmental needs of college-aged students. A newsletter, sent either via e-mail or postal mail, is a way to communicate university happenings to parents and families. The use of newsletters provides an informal way to update parents and families on current issues, such as mental health and off-campus noise violations. Newsletters can also contain information on fundraising, provide insight into what a student's day might contain, and suggest appropriate ways for parents and families to be involved and engaged in their student's experience. A section of an institution's website dedicated to parents and families helps higher education leaders provide an all-inclusive information resource. Links to contact information, student organizations, the registrar, and financial aid from one page helps parents and families more easily navigate an expansive university. Finally, a parent and family association helps higher education leaders shape their program to best tailor it to current parent and family needs. These associations can meet monthly, quarterly, or by semester to give input and feedback to the institution. A review of peer institutions, as determined by the Office of Institutional Research at Colorado State University, as well as a review of the well-established parent program at the University of Minnesota, helps determine normalized levels of service (Colorado State University, 2008).

Lack of Literature

Because the idea of institutions embracing parents and families is relatively new, existing literature is focused on colleges helping parents and families effectively parent college-aged students and successfully making the transition from high school to college (Bridges, 2004; Savage, 2003). The compilation of services provided by Dicke & Phillips (2005) is the seminal source of published information on individual institution parent and family services. Other information can be found on individual institution websites and brochures. Lack of literature on individual institutions severely limits the scope of this evaluation.

University of Minnesota Parent Program

The University of Minnesota's Parent Program uses newsletters, parent orientation, a dedicated website, and the Minnesota Parents Association to engage parents and families of students (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). The hard copy newsletter focuses on pertinent institutional information, while bi-weekly optional e-mail updates provide timely deadline reminders, involvement opportunities, and campuswide updates (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). The Office of First-Year Programs manages Parent Orientation. Once a student registers for classes, Parent Programs takes responsibility for maintaining interactions with parents and families (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). The parent website boasts information on typical student issues, survey questions, and in-depth information on student programs to provide more information to parents and families (Dicke & Phillips, 2005; Parent Communications, 2008). The final component to the University of Minnesota's Parent Program is the Minnesota Parents Association. Partnering with the Alumni Association, the goal of the program is to create a community of parents to strengthen the university (Minnesota Parents Association, 2008). Membership costs $55 annually and makes the parents members of the Alumni Association. While all parents are eligible to receive specific services from the Parent Program, association members receive additional benefits and discounts.

Iowa State University Parents' Association

Iowa State University's Parents' Association utilizes all five staple services: an orientation program, a handbook, a newsletter, a website, and a parent association. The Family Handbook provides information on orientation, the Family Education Rights to Privacy Act (FERPA), campus resources, and university traditions and history (Family Handbook, 2009). The institution's quarterly online newsletter, Relatively Speaking, focuses on current issues, frequently asked questions, information on winning a semester's tuition through a raffle organized by the Parents' Association, and Parents' Association member spotlights (Iowa State University Parents' Association, 2008). The website focuses on the Parents' Association including programs, resources, and methods of donating to the Parents' Association. The association's main focus is fundraising, as evidenced by showing success as percent of programs funded on the Parents' Association Programs (2009) website.

North Carolina State University Parents and Families Services

North Carolina State University's Parents and Families Services provide an orientation program, a handbook, a newsletter, a website, and a parent association. Parents' Orientation is designed to coordinate with student orientation (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). The Parents' Handbook is available only to parents and families who join the Parent and Family Association (Parents and Families Association, 2008). The newsletter, PACKParents, is mailed twice per year and contains information on campus resources, important dates, and Parents' Fund information (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). All parents and families receive a copy of the newsletter, regardless of membership status with the association. The website focuses on programs and services, information on the association discount program, directory information, and current weather conditions (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). Membership in the Parent and Family Association requires a one-time fee of $55. Created to communicate with parents and families and encourage involvement in their student's experience, membership in the association provides benefits such as the discount program and additional resources to those families willing to pay (Parents and Families Association, 2008). Basic parent and family services, such as the newsletter and frequently asked questions, are still provided to all parents and families of students.

University of Colorado at Boulder Office of Parent Relations

The University of Colorado at Boulder's Office of Parent Relations, in conjunction with the University of Colorado Parents Association, hosts an orientation dinner, a newsletter, and a website for parents (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). The University of Colorado Parents Association hosts nine orientation dinners in union with student orientation to welcome new parents (Dicke & Phillips, 2005). In addition, the association produces a quarterly newsletter on current campus issues, activities, and information. The newsletter can also be found on the website. The website is dedicated to association issues. Because the association focuses heavily on fundraising, the website is a place to house information on available scholarships and grants, as well as donation opportunities (Parent Programs, 2008).

Program Philosophy

As reviewed in the information above, each institution shapes its model for working with parents and families with a program philosophy based on their needs and requests. For example, two institutions could produce a periodical newsletter informing parents and families of important issues and happenings on campus. Newsletters of programs that are development-based, such as Iowa State University, may focus on utilization of parents and families as donors, highlighting raffle opportunities and cost-per-person events to benefit the greater university community. Newsletters from an institution with a services-based philosophy, such as the University of Minnesota, will likely focus on student issues and engaging parents and families in their students' college experience in an appropriate manner.

Colorado State University Parent and Family Programs

Colorado State University (CSU) provides all five staple services to parents and families: an orientation program, concurrent with student orientation; a handbook in the form of a calendar with student developmental milestones; a monthly electronic newsletter, the RAMFAM newsletter; a Parent and Family website, linked directly to CSU's homepage; and a parent association, the RAMFAM Association, as well as other pieces to supplement these items. With this level of services, the program director is interested in ensuring the University is sending the same messages about the role of parents and families within and across the institution.

History of Colorado State University Parent and Family Programs. Parent and Family Programs began in the early 1990s at Colorado State University. As a land-grant institution, it was important to the program founder to include inclusive language in the program title. "The traditional nuclear family is simply one of many family structures, as students may have a single parent, a guardian, a member of the extended family, or someone else as their primary support network" (Keppler, Mullendore, & Carey, 2005, p. xi), thus CSU created Parent and Family Programs. As with most programs, CSU's program philosophy did not develop "through an intentional, cognitive process" (Mullendore, Banahan, & Ramsey, 2005, p. 6), rather a person was appointed to handle all happenings with parents and families which developed into a program with a mission.

With humble beginnings in providing information to families, assisting families in student deaths, and helping families navigate FERPA, Parent and Family Programs at CSU are grounded in providing a central location for parental calls and concerns (Donovan, 2008). Providing this service makes it important for staff members working with Parent and Family Programs to develop working relationships with people across campus (Donovan, 2008). They should also possess "compassion, knowledge, and relationships across campus, both in and out of [the Division of] Student Affairs" (Donovan, 2008, p. 2).

Working with on-campus partners. After philosophy, programs and services have been established, the next step is to publicize and educate staff across campus to either competently handle an interaction with a parent or family member or to refer the parent or family member to an appropriate representative within Parent and Family Programs (Mullendore, Banahan, & Ramsey, 2005). A small amount of literature is available on working with on-campus partners to ensure they are giving the same message and service attitudes that Parent and Family Programs offer. It has been suggested that lack of sharing this message results in "inconsistent interactions … from office to office on the same campus" (Daniel, Evans, & Scott, 2001, p. 4). Coburn (2007) indicates regular communication with campus partners to "[s]treamline messages to parents" (p. 2) helps present a unified institutional voice. It is important to reach out to campus partners to discover the frequency of interaction and topics discussed with parents and families, measure their understanding of the purpose and services of Parent and Family Programs, and learn about campus partners' unmet needs.

A Framework for Measuring Success with Educating On-Campus Partners

Parent and Family Programs at CSU are designed to meet the needs of current parents and families. Intended to be fluid and educational, Parent and Family Programs must connect with on-campus partners to ensure the services and programs provided meet the needs of offices on campus as well as educate members of the campus community on parents and families. The measurable objectives that frame the basis of this evaluation include:

1) Defining interaction between on-campus partners and parents and families to determine the number of contacts between the two, as well as the topics covered during the contact.
2) Identifying the top five offices with the most parent and family contact to determine the variety of perspectives and contacts with parents and families.
3) Measuring the knowledge level of Parent and Family Program services to determine how well the campus community knows services offered through Parent and Family Programs.
4) Determining the types of interactions offices are having with parents and families to ensure information provided by Parent and Family Programs is current and relevant.
5) Identifying trends and education needs not currently addressed by Parent and Family Programs in order to update or offer new programs and services to meet the needs of on-campus partners.

Management-Oriented Approach

Viewing this evaluation from a management perspective, it is important to develop a baseline for the number of contacts with parents and families that on-campus partners are handling on a weekly basis. Once this baseline is established, determining topics covered in these conversations allows Parent and Family Programs to ascertain if outreach efforts are appropriate. It also determines additional topics that should be covered. It is a strategic way for program management to evaluate services. The final piece of the cycle is to get feedback from on-campus partners to determine avenues to improve Parent and Family Programs.

The management-oriented approach focuses on information most useful to the program director (Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004). It provides direct feedback to determine what services on-campus partners are aware of, as well as what additional topics should be addressed to assist these partners in working with parents and families. It is a systematic approach in which participants provide feedback and suggestions for improvement (Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004).

Evaluation Design Framework

Parent and Family Programs have been in existence at Colorado State University since the early 1990s. As the program has evolved, one recurring objective has been to ensure on-campus partners are well-educated on programs and services provided to parents and families. Because a pretest was not given when the program was initiated, a formative evaluation of the success of an existing program to educate on-campus partners requires a non-experimental evaluation design to measure adequacy. Specifically, a one-group, post-test only, nonexperimental design will frame this evaluation.

Quasi-experimental design could also be used for this evaluation; however, it might be difficult to find a comparison group with the same qualifications and backgrounds of the experimental group who would not be aware of Parent and Family Programs on campus. Additionally, the focus of the evaluation is to measure adequacy by determining on-campus partner knowledge of Parent and Family Programs and topics not addressed by the current program structure; no test is given to necessitate a comparison group. Therefore, a nonexperimental design with a post-test allows the director to determine knowledge of current programs and services and will direct further program development. Indicators to measure performance include provision, utilization, and coverage, as identified below in Table 1.

Type of Evaluation: Performance Evaluation	**Provision**	**Utilization**	**Coverage**	**Impact**
Adequacy	Are Parent and Family services available, accessible, and adequate?	Are Parent and Family Services being used at CSU?	Are on-campus partners being reached?	Not applicable due to lack of pretest

Table 1
Design Diagram

Evaluation Design Limitations

The limitations of a nonexperimental design with a post-test are many. First, measuring adequacy is not a scientific approach and does not require controls. This design cannot measure the impact of the program from beginning to end, due to lack of a pretest. Second, there is no instrument to measure growth of knowledge directly related to Parent and Family Program outreach when using a post-test only format. Finally, selecting the offices on campus with the most exposure to parents and families is a targeted assessment, rather than using a random sample to gauge a cross-section of on-campus partners.

Methodology

For objective indicators, data will be collected through a survey instrument. Using an online questionnaire allows offices across campus to identify contact with parents and families and knowledge of Parent and Family Program services. For subjective indicators, participants will share data through a self-reporting process or focus group. Data collection methods can be found by objective in Table 2.

Objective	Data Collection Method
Define interaction	Survey of offices on campus
Select top five offices with the most parent and family contact	Survey results
Measure Office Knowledge of Parent and Family Services	List all services in a survey and ask on-campus offices to select the services they are aware of
Determine types of interactions offices are having with parents and families	Office Focus Groups
Deduce trends and happenings not addressed by parent and family programs	Office Focus Groups

Table 2
Data Collection Methods

Methodology Limitations

The purpose of this study is to determine the needs of on-campus partners working with current students, therefore offices working with prospective students have not been included. For example, using current students in the definition of on-campus partners eliminates partners such as the Office of Admissions. Although Parent and Family Programs partners closely with the Office of Admissions, the Office of Admissions works primarily with prospective students rather than current students. This limits the scope of the project by not including offices which provide important information for on-campus partners in future years. In addition, faculty members were not included in this evaluation. The on-campus partners identified in this evaluation were offices on campus with an easily identifiable person working with parents and families. This person was identified by the office to receive the evaluation. Because faculty members across campus cannot be narrowed down to one faculty per department who works most closely with parents and families, faculty members were excluded from this evaluation. Excluding needs and issues of faculty members limits the scope of this project.

Data Collection and Results

Defining the term on-campus partner ensures consistency throughout the project. For the purpose of this study, on-campus partners are defined as all of the units within the Division of Student Affairs, as well as selected partners outside of the Division of Student Affairs serving current students. For a complete list of selected on-campus partners, see Appendix 1.

After defining the terms and identifying project participants, the selected on-campus partners received an online questionnaire to answer the first three objectives of the project (Appendix 2). Offices across campus identified contacts with parents and families in a range from no contact to multiple contacts in a given week. In addition, on-campus partners identified the topics discussed in contacts with parents and families. Finally, survey participants identified the level of knowledge of current programs offered by Parent and Family Programs.

Using information collected in the survey, five of the offices with the most frequent contact with parents and families agreed to participate in a focus group discussion on the types of interactions on-campus partners are having with parents and families, as well as trends not currently addressed by Parent and Family Programs. Focus groups were held individually with each of the five offices identifying as having the most frequent contact with parent and families.

Survey Results

The survey instrument was sent electronically to 45 offices. Twenty-eight offices responded to the request for participation, a 62 percent response rate. Of the 28 offices responding to the survey, 12 identified as having at least 4-7 contacts per week with parents and families. Results are found in Table 3.

According to respondents, the topics discussed with parents and families range from student employment to academic advising. On-campus partners mostly speak to parents and family members about academic issues and housing issues (with eight responses from the 28 participants). On-campus partners rarely speak about Greek life with parent and family members (with one response from the 28 participants). The span of topics covered and frequency of topic are shown in Figure 1.

Finally, participants were asked two questions: 1) are they aware of Parent and Family Programs at CSU; and 2) which services are they aware of that are provided by Parent and Family Programs. All 28 participants are aware of Parent and Family Programs and the knowledge of services offered by Parent and Family Programs differs by office. All participants are aware of larger universitywide events, such as Homecoming and Family Weekend and Ram Welcome, but only 11 of the 28 participants are aware of the RAMFAM Association. Results on knowledge of programs and services are in Figure 2.

Number of Contacts	**On-Campus Partner**
1-3	Academic Advancement Center, Apartment Life, Black Student Services, Business Services, Center for Advising and Student Achievement, CSU Police Department, Off-Campus Student Services/Resources for Adult Learners, Pingree Park, Student Leadership, Involvement & Community Engagement (2 responses), Student Legal Services, Office of Women's Programs and Studies
4-7	Career Center, Conflict Resolution and Student Conduct Services, Greek Life, Hartshorn Health/University Counseling, Student Employment
8-10	Alumni Association, El Centro Student Services, Housing and Dining Services Operations Management, Residence Life
11-13	Athletics
14-16	Student Financial Services
17-20	None
Other	Campus Recreation, GLBT Student Services, International Programs, Off-Campus Student Services/Resources for Adult Learners, University ID and Vending

Table 3
Number of Contacts per Week with Parents and Families per On-Campus Partner

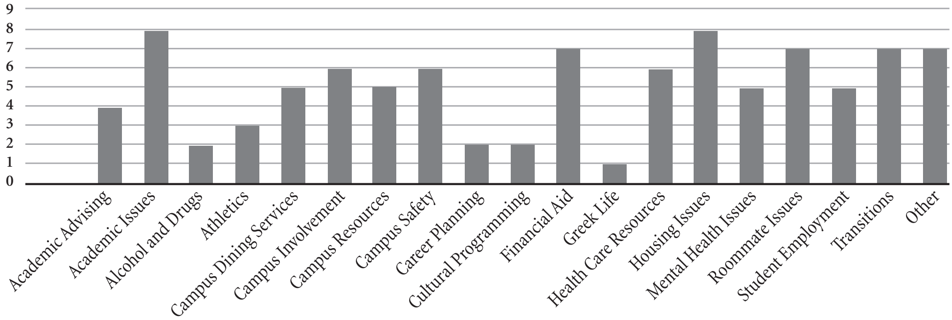

Figure 1
Issues Covered During Contact with Parents and Families

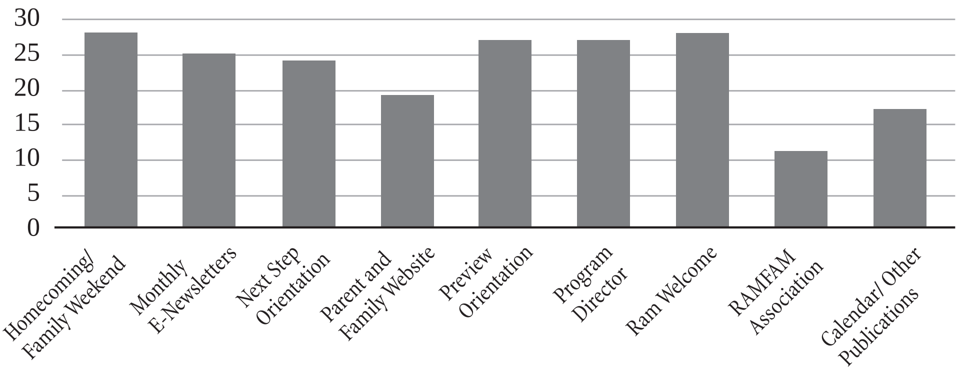

Figure 2
Knowledge of Parent and Family Programs Services

Based on information gathered in the questionnaire, the participants with the highest number of contacts per week were isolated. Of the six on-campus partners with at least 8-10 parent and family contacts per week, five indicated they would be willing to participate in an hourlong focus group discussion to further discuss the topics and trends they are seeing with regard to parent and family contact. Using information collected in the survey, the five offices identified as having the most frequent contact with parent and family programs and agreeing to participate in a focus group discussion are found in Table 4.

Number of Contacts	On-Campus Partner
8-10	Alumni Association, El Centro Student Services, Residence Life
11-13	Athletics
14-16	Student Financial Services

Table 4
Number of Contacts per Week with Parents and Families
per On-Campus Partner Office Agreeing to Participate in Focus Group Discussions

Three of the five on-campus partners with the highest parent and family contact per week who participated in the survey are partners outside of the Division of Student Affairs: the Alumni Association, Athletics, and Student Financial Services. Residence Life should be in the top five on-campus partners, considering housing issues is one of the most widely discussed topics between on-campus partners and parents and families.

Focus Group Results

Of the five offices identified as having the most frequent contact with parents and families who also agreed to participate in a focus group discussion, only two responded to the requests to participate in a focus group: Student Financial Services and El Centro Student Services. The benefit of working with these particular on-campus partners in a focus group capacity is the difference in perspective. Student Financial Services is an on-campus partner outside of the Division of Student Affairs and El Centro Student Services is housed within the Division of Student Affairs. Although the focus group numbers are small, the program director is able to see, at a minimum level, the types of interaction both inside and outside of the Division of Student Affairs and trends and issues not currently addressed.

The focus groups were held with each office, respectively. The groups discussed a range of issues and philosophies and found trends or issues to be addressed or enhanced by parent and family programs. The questions guiding the focus groups can be found in Appendix 3.

Student financial services interactions with parents and families.

Student Financial Services (SFS) staff communicates with parents and families through multiple avenues. Parents and family members primarily contact SFS by phone or e-mail to communicate with a financial aid counselor. Staff indicates parents and family members send faxes or letters when they cannot reach someone in the office, most often during peak financial aid times in a semester. The staff conversations with parents and families focus primarily on financial aid issues, but staff members work with parents and families on issues ranging from residence life costs to personal issues that impact financial aid, such as a medical emergency or loss of a job. Counselors are trained to work with parents and families proactively. They are instructed to not only answer the surface question, but to scan the student's file and address all outstanding issues to provide better customer service to parents and families. Financial aid counselors have the ultimate goal of explaining the process well enough to allow students, parents, and family members to manage their own financial aid services.

Staff members indicate individual strengths enhance conversations with parents and families. Whether the financial aid counselor is an alumnus of CSU, or a parent of a college-aged student, counselors utilize personal experiences to help answer questions for parents and families. Staff also indicates the student-counselors have been very effective in working with their peers on financial aid issues. Peer-to-peer interaction helps student-customers feel as if the counselor relates to his or her experience.

Student Financial Services solicits help from Parent and Family Programs for difficult topics. Examples of these topics include parents or family members feeling unsure their student is still on campus or has been attending classes. The staff sees the Director of Parent and Family Programs as an escalation point to refer parents and families to have their concerns heard and handled in one place. Student Financial Services also sees Parent and Family Programs as an ally in helping parents and family members appropriately parent college students. As SFS helps students manage their own financial aid responsibilities, it has become apparent there is a need for guest access to the online financial system in RAMweb. Counselors have found parents and family members log on to their student's account to ensure the student has followed all of the steps necessary for financial aid. Parents and family members using student login information to ensure support from financial aid has caused problems in terms of parents and family members accepting loans in students' names because they have access to the information.

Student Financial Services parent and family needs not currently addressed.

The major theme of unmet needs for Student Financial Services is guest access to RAMweb. Counselors indicate guest access would create an avenue to pay the university bill without parents and families misrepresenting their identities. Counselors advocate for students to manage their own accounts on RAMweb. Guest access will allow parents and families information on attendance costs and the amount still outstanding for the semester. The second major issue not currently addressed relates to the tuition and fee release date. Financial aid counselors work with parents and families throughout the year to plan for a certain level of costs for attendance, but the tuition and fee figures are not released until midsummer. It is difficult for SFS staff to tell parents and family members to plan for a certain level of expense when that cost has not been finalized.

El Centro Student Services interactions with parents and families.

El Centro Student Services (ECSS) staff indicates the office communicates with parents and families at every opportunity through all means available. Staff members meet with parents and family members during CSU Visit Days and orientation sessions. The other main avenues of communication are via phone calls and e-mails. Phone calls are the predominant form of communication. Conversations with parents and families tackle a variety of issues, including financial aid, familial pressures, campus climate for Latinos in terms of representation on campus and racism in the community, Chicano/Latino studies courses, and opportunities for students to continue speaking Spanish.

To date, ECSS has not referred anyone to Parent and Family Programs for help. Staff members are comfortable speaking with parents and families about services and programs at CSU. Even with tough issues such as balancing familial pressures, staff members who have more than 20 years of experience working with Latino students are able to handle the issues and refer students to the appropriate resources on campus for assistance. A scenario for referral to Parent and Family Programs would be a student death.

El Centro student services parent and family needs not currently addressed.

The major struggle for ECSS staff in working with students, parents, and families relates to the family dynamic of a family with a student in college. Staff spends a great amount of time working with students to help them balance family expectations with their academic goals. From a cultural perspective, many students must navigate choosing their own paths without disrespecting or disappointing their families by not choosing the path laid out for them in terms of major selected or career path chosen. El Centro Student Services also finds communicating to parents and family members that CSU is an extended family for the student, providing supports and resources as needed, is an unmet need.

Limitations of Focus Group Results

Narrowing the number of focus groups to the top five on-campus partners with parent and family contact eliminates the voices of many partners across campus. A larger sample of focus groups would provide more in-depth information to serve the Director of Parent and Family

Programs in making changes to the program. Also, voices of the offices with fewer parent and family contacts may reveal more or different needs or issues not currently addressed. Finally, with less than half of the targeted focus groups completed for this evaluation, the findings are limited. Additional focus groups are necessary to provide helpful information.

Recommendations

At the conclusion of the survey and focus groups, many issues and services have been discussed. Based on the results from the questionnaire and the focus groups, six recommendations are apparent. The recommendations are straightforward and can be easily implemented in Parent and Family Programs.

The first recommendation is to conduct additional focus group discussions with on-campus partners. Of the 28 respondents to the online questionnaire, 23 indicated a willingness to participate in an hourlong focus group. Collecting the information offered in focus groups of multiple on-campus partners provides a more complete picture for improving parent and family programs and services.

Additionally, based on survey results, Parent and Family Programs need to better advertise lesser known parent and family initiatives. Based on survey results, many offices are aware of universitywide programs, such as Homecoming and Family Weekend and Ram Welcome; however, many of the more specialized programs for parents and families are not as well known. For example, fewer than half of the respondents are aware of the RAMFAM Association, CSU's parent and family association, and only 19 of the on-campus partners are aware of CSU's Parent and Family website. Parent and Family Programs should work to make all of the programs visible to parents and families, as well as on-campus partners. An easy way to advertise Parent and Family Programs services is to send an e-mail to all on-campus partners to introduce the relatively new RAMFAM Association and include a link to the Parent and Family website, which hosts additional information on the RAMFAM Association. Also, meetings with on-campus partners to share more information about the philosophy and services provided will assist in making on-campus partners aware of programs and services. This will help on-campus partners identify situations where they can use Parent and Family Program staff assistance, as well as make them more aware of current services and programs.

Next, focus groups indicated partnering with Parent and Family Programs on large projects or difficult subjects helps to achieve a positive result. Working with on-campus partners to eliminate barriers in their work with parents and families could be an overlooked service of Parent and Family Programs. Working with Student Financial Services to create guest access in RAMweb and working with El Centro Student Services to help students navigate familial pressures do not have anything in common on the surface. However, both scenarios provide opportunities for the institution to help parents and family members appropriately parent college-aged students by allowing students to advocate for themselves. Having students manage their own financial aid and work with their families to determine a mutually acceptable plan for college creates an opportunity for the student to construct a college experience they want for themselves. Parent and Family Programs should continue to work with on-campus partners to provide the institutional support to allow students to advocate for themselves.

The next recommendation for Parent and Family Programs relates to developing a program to train student workers in on-campus partner offices. A program to help students think about how to work with parents and families will help them be more effective in their positions. Student Financial Services indicates the strength of student workers lies in having very current information and current perspectives on processes. By training these students, Parent and Family Programs can tap into student energy and help them coach parent and family members to appropriately parent. Overall, students can use their individual experiences to help parents and families, whether through personal testimony or working with parents and families to help their students be more responsible. As a direct result of the focus group with Student Financial Services, the fifth recommendation is to work with on-campus partners to provide exemplary customer service. Student Financial Services counselors are trained to go beyond the presenting question asked by a parent or family member to address all of the potential underlying issues at hand. On-campus partners being proactive in their approach to working with parents and families will alleviate many parent concerns on the front end. This approach is better than handling one issue at a time, forcing parents and families to make multiple calls or send multiple e-mails to resolve an issue. It provides a better service to parents and families of CSU students and helps them understand the institutional philosophy in working with parents and families.

Finally, Parent and Family Programs can use existing resources to help bridge the issues not currently addressed between family expectations and students choosing their own paths. If parents and family members expect the student to choose one major, for example, and the student has a greater interest in another major, the dissonance can cause great strain in a familial relationship. Using the RAMFAM newsletter as the voices of parents and students, the director can solicit articles from both a student and a student's parent or family member to show the struggle from each perspective. In addition, students and their families can write about avenues to resolve differences or make concessions to make college work for the student and the family. Articles of this depth will allow readers the opportunity to see how different families have resolved issues. As noted in the Student Financial Services focus group, peer-to-peer learning is very beneficial. Having parents and family members, together with their students, share their stories may be of help to parents and families in similar situations.

Future Studies

Future studies should consider offices with many parent and family contacts could have resources available to handle difficult questions. Maybe smaller offices reporting less frequent contact with parents and families would provide a different perspective for needs of on-campus partners. A second study focusing on faculty as on-campus partners to determine their specific needs and issues provides another lens through which to view working with parents and families. Finally, future studies on the needs of prospective students' parents and family members would assist in changing Parent and Family Programs to meet the needs of future CSU students.

Conclusion

This evaluation reviewed the number of parent and family contacts per on-campus partner per week, topics covered during these contacts, campus community knowledge of Parent and Family Programs, types of interactions with parents and families to ensure relevant information is provided, and identification of trends and educational issues not currently addressed by Parent and Family Programs. Twenty-eight on-campus partners participated in the online questionnaire and five of the offices with the most parent and family contact agreed to participate in focus groups. Office responses to the questionnaire varied on topics of discussion with parents and families, as well as with knowledge of Parent and Family Programs. When solicited, two of the top five offices participated in focus groups. Results of the focus groups show a need for additional services for on-campus partners related to revised technology and balancing familial pressure with students' choices for their future. Future studies around different entities as focus groups, such as faculty members and parents and family members of future students, will enhance the data found in this study.

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Implications for Student Affairs of Negative Campus Climates for Transgender Students

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Currently, there is no precise measure of the number of transgender students present in colleges and universities (Beemyn, 2005a). It is difficult to obtain an accurate count due to the inadequacy of traditional demographic measurement tools (i.e. admissions forms which specify only "male" and "female" options) and student reluctance to disclose gender identity. What has been suggested through direct observation and anecdotal evidence is that students who do not fit stereotypical notions of "female" and "male" are enrolling in higher numbers on college and university campuses (Beemyn, 2005a).

As transgender students become more visible, their unique needs become more apparent and need to be addressed. While these students attempt to develop identity and live life as they are most comfortable, more often than not they are met with hostility from peers, insensitivity from faculty and staff who lack training and education regarding their needs, as well as institutions who overlook transgender students because they do not fit into the traditional gender binary (Beemyn, 2005d). This paper provides useful terms and definitions, then discusses the impact transgender students' experiences have on the Division of Student Affairs, and concludes with recommendations for campuses to improve climate and enhance transgender students' college experience.

Terms and Definitions

Bias-Incidents: Any violence motivated by a system of oppression (homophobia, racism, sexism, etc.) (University of Vermont, 2008).

Cross-Dressing: Refers to the adoption of clothing normally identified as belonging to the opposite sex. (University of Vermont, 2008).

Gender: Expressed in terms of masculinity or femininity. Largely culturally determined, it is how people perceive themselves and expect others to behave. It involves assigned gender (gender designated at birth), gender roles (how one is expected to behave based on gender), gender attribution (how others perceive someone's gender) and gender identity (how an individual defines their gender). (University of Vermont, 2008; Beemyn, Pettit, & Marciano, 2006).

Gender-Blind or Gender-Neutral Housing: Options for student housing that allow students to room with whomever they choose regardless of the students' biological sex or chosen gender.

Gender Identity: An individual's internal self-awareness of being male or female, feminine or masculine, or something in between (Hudson's FTM Resource Guide, n.d.).

Gender Variant: Alternative terms for transgender, meaning one who varies from traditional "masculine" and "feminine" gender roles (Beemyn, Pettit, & Marciano, 2006).

Hormone Therapy: Used by transsexuals to change some secondary sex characteristics including breast size, weight distribution, voice tone, and hair growth (University of Vermont, 2008).

Sex: Being male or female, as determined by chromosomes and body chemistry.

Sexual Orientation: Refers to whom one is affectionately attracted, usually based on gender and sex characteristics (University of Vermont, 2008).

Transgender: An umbrella term for individuals whose gender expression and/or identity is different from traditional expectations based on the individual's sex. The term transgender includes identities such as: transsexuals, cross-dressers, gender variant individuals, and more (Beemyn, Pettit, & Marciano,2006)

Transition: The act of changing from one sex to the other and/or the act of changing one's body and/or appearance as part of the sex change. (Hudson's FTM Resource Guide, n.d.)

Transsexual: An individual whose gender identity does not match their assigned sex. Many transsexuals seek hormonal and/or surgical treatment in order to align their bodies with their gender identities (Beemyn, Pettit, & Marciano, 2006)

Literature Review

Bias-incidents and ignorance regarding transgender student issues occur on college campuses across the nation (Beemyn, 2005a). Research conducted by Rankin (2005) has shown that in general, college campuses have not been accepting of, and in some cases have been hostile toward transgender or gender variant students. Rankin's studies show that transgender students, as well as lesbian, gay, and bisexual students are more frequently targeted for harassment and violence than students who are not lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT). LGBT students are more likely to rate campus climate less favorably than their non-LGBT peers, (Brown, Clarke, Gortmaker, & Robinson-Keilig 2004 as cited in Rankin) suggesting that campuses are less accepting of students who identify as LGBT. Rankin's research also suggests that non-LGBT students are often insensitive of the issues that face LGBT students.

Rankin (2005) stated "although non-transgender LGB men and women (28 percent) reported experiencing harassment, a significantly higher proportion of transgender respondents (41 percent) reported experiences of harassment" (p. 20). This harassment included derogatory remarks, spoken harassment or threats, anti-transgender graffiti, and pressure to hide one's gender identity. Most of this harassment came from student peers (Rankin, 2005). In addition, Evans (2005) asserted other specific forms of harassment such as derogatory remarks or threats on answering machines, defacement of transgender-related materials on posters or bulletin boards and minimization of transgender students' concerns by their peers. In Rankin's study, the majority of students, administrators, faculty, and staff described their campuses as unsafe for transgender students whereas, conversely, for non-transgender and non-LGB students, they perceived it as friendly, concerned, and respectful.

Many of the current policies at colleges and universities inadvertently discriminate against transgender or gender variant students. Beemyn (2005b) states that by assuming students identify only as male or female, housing policies fail to serve transgender students, particularly those in the process of transitioning or those who do not identify as either dominant gender. Requiring students to identify as only male or female "not only fails to recognize the full complexity of gender identity but also provides insufficient information for roommate assignments" (Beemyn, 2005b, p. 52). Bleiberg states "same-sex roommate pairings can be particularly distressing for transgender students" (2004, p. 5) because they are forced to list their biological sex with which they do not identify on their housing forms. Bleiberg states the discomfort transgender students feel with roommates of the same sex is similar to some non-transgender students' discomfort with a roommate of the opposite sex.

Many colleges and universities offer only male or female gender options on housing forms, leaving transgender students without a comfortable choice. If they are forced to identify with a gender with which they are uncomfortable, transgender students may feel violated and unwelcomed at their college (Bleiberg, 2004).

Other areas of campus that may discriminate against gender variant students include locker rooms and bathrooms. These facilities are often designated "male" and "female" and have no accommodations for those who do not identify with either gender. Beemyn (2005a) acknowledges this concern stating "the 'bathroom issue' is particularly a problem for transsexual women" (p.119) who are often chastised for using women's restrooms because of their biological sex (male). It is also true that some residence halls were constructed in a time when floors or buildings were segregated by gender, thus it is possible, for example, that transsexual men would not be able to find a suitable bathroom on their floor or entire building if it were designated for females only (Coalition for Queer Action in Beemyn, 2005c).

Currently, many college health care and counseling programs do not provide adequate services for, and are not properly educated on how to meet the unique needs of transgender students (Beemyn, 2005c). Thus, transgender students seeking informed and sensitive counseling and health services often struggle in college. As transgender students develop their identities, they encounter specific difficulties different from their non-transgender peers. These issues include how to disclose identity to friends and family, navigating environments organized by gender, intimate relationship difficulties, dealing with discrimination and harassment, adjusting to their new identity, and the decision of whether or not to transition physically with surgery and hormone therapy (Ettner & Brown, 1999). Additionally, a significant proportion of transgender students withhold parts of their gender expression to avoid ridicule and discrimination (Rankin, 2005). Because of the enormity and complexity of this issue, transgender students may feel isolated and alone, which can often lead to other problems such as adjustment disorders, depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress, substance abuse, suicide ideation, and self-harm (Beemyn, 2005c).

It is not uncommon for transgender students to be denied health care because of their transgender status. A study in Los Angeles of transgender men shows that more than half of the respondents were denied health care because they were transgender (FTM Alliance of Los Angeles in Beemyn, 2005). When care was received, a majority of respondents were dissatisfied with the level of knowledge the provider held regarding transgender issues. Though this study was not conducted on a college campus, it mirrors the health care provided by colleges and universities. Students often find healthcare is inadequate and it is necessary to educate health care professionals on campus (Beemyn, 2005c). Beemyn (2005c) states insurance plans provided by schools rarely cover the types of services transgender students need, such as hormone therapy, transgender men seeking pap smears, and transgender women seeking prostate exams.

Much of the literature published in the past few decades has grouped together LGBT students as one demographic with similar issues and needs. Despite such a common grouping, the needs of each of these identities vary, particularly between lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) students and transgender students (Beemyn, 2005a). While it is true that transgender students can benefit from some of the programming and policies put into place for LGB students, gender variant students have needs unique to their population and even to the individuals within this group.

This misconception leads student affairs professionals as well as college administrators to be misguided about the transgender community. As Beemyn asserts:

> There is a common belief, for example, that almost [all] transgender students are lesbian, gay, or bisexual, or are transsexuals planning to undergo sex reassignment surgery. This results in campus programs and services that fail to acknowledge

> heterosexual transpeople, cross-dressers, and individuals who remain outside the categories 'male' or 'female'. (2005a, p.113)

Though mistakes of this nature are not as severe as some of the harassment transgender students may encounter, they send the message that transgender students have no place in higher education.

Implications for Student Affairs

Higher education institutions should be inclusive of all students regardless of their gender expression so that they are comfortable in their community and are able to reach their highest potential. Research (Beemyn 2005a; Rankin, 2005) implies there is a population of students who are feeling unwelcomed by, and at times afraid of, national campus climates. As the diversity of transgender communities continues to grow on college campuses, student affairs professionals will have increased contact with individuals who may not fit into the traditional gender binary and may not fit traditional models of student development. A reorganization of the institutional thought will be necessary, from programming and education regarding transgender issues to the aspects of college that operate on the basis of traditional gender categories, such as bathrooms and institutional forms.

Much of the negativity on campuses comes from inadequate or nonexistent education on transgender topics (Rankin, 2005). To change this, college administrators and student affairs professionals need to be intentional about implementing training sessions and educational programs for students, faculty, and staff to inform them of the needs and issues facing transgender students on campus. Such programs are particularly important for those in residential life, police services, and health services (Beemyn 2005b). These training sessions should include information on what it means to be transgender in order to dispel assumptions and differentiate between definitions of transgender and LGB identities. Particularly for health services professionals, sensitivity training may help them recognize that the needs of a transgender student may not be traditional, i.e. a pap smear for a transgender man. Also, police officers can benefit from sensitivity training since they will most likely be the first responders in a case of harassment or assault. Establishing a resource center that focuses on these transgender initiatives will be extremely advantageous to these efforts.

Residential life is perhaps one of the most important concerns when it comes to making transgender students feel welcomed on campus. There is a strong need for staff education, from the director of residential life, to the resident assistants who live with students in residence halls. It will be then possible to identify those in residential life who are knowledgeable and sensitive to the needs of transgender students (Beemyn 2005b). Consequently, this will also enable residential life to provide programming for all of the students living in the residence halls, thus increasing awareness and understanding of transgender students (Beemyn 2005b). Evans (2005) noted transgender students are often more accepted in halls where interaction among students is encouraged through positive programming and activities. Rankin's (2005) research suggested that resident assistants are often more sensitive to transgender students' issues and concerns than other members of general staff and faculty. This further suggests that these students are more apt to be sensitive with further education about transgender issues; they will better support and advocate for the transgender community.

Housing policies also need attention and revision if college administrators are meeting the needs of transgender students and contributing to a positive environment for all students (Evans, 2005). Procedures that recognize diverse expressions of gender identity are necessary (Beemyn, 2005a). The options for gender identification on housing forms should be expanded, to include more options for gender identity, (i.e. "Male", "Female," and "Self-identify":____) or leave it as an open-ended question (i.e. "Your gender is":__________) (Beemyn, 2005a; Beemyn 2005c). Departments of Residential Life should also be considering gender-neutral, sometimes called gender-blind, housing options as well. This would allow two students to consent to living together regardless of gender identity. It would eliminate the feelings of discomfort transgender students feel when placed with a roommate of the same sex, but different gender, and create a welcoming environment for such students.

Along with this, the institution should create a simple process for name and gender changes on records. This process and the person conducting it should be publicized to the campus to make it easier for transgender students to access (Beemyn, 2005b). Students should be able to request new identification cards with their preferred name even if it has not been legally changed (Beemyn, 2005b). By establishing procedures for name and gender changes, gender variant students will feel supported by the institution and be able to avoid harassment when others access their information (Beemyn, 2005a).

It is important for student affairs divisions to recognize and support student groups that create community and advocate for transgender students' rights. Oftentimes, transgender students feel isolated and lack positive role models who can help them find a sense of belonging on campus (Beemyn, 2005a). If transgender students belonged to a group in which they could find acceptance to express personal gender identity, they may be less likely to feel alienated from college and more likely to feel a sense of self-worth.

Institutions should re-evaluate the labeling of locker rooms and bathrooms in public areas. Such facilities which are single stall and lockable should be relabeled as gender-neutral if currently labeled men and women. If suitable accommodations do not exist, they should be provided. It also must be recognized that transgender students should not be admonished, by university personnel or by students for using the bathroom in which they are comfortable. A recent school court case has ruled that "prejudice does not supersede the basic right of a transgender person to use a public restroom" (Beemyn, 2005a).

Health care and counseling initiatives also require closer attention. All college students need and deserve appropriate health care to stay healthy and productive in college (Beemyn 2005c). It is imperative that campus health services are aware of the needs of transgender students and provide appropriate care. In order to be able to provide competent and supportive care, the staff should be trained on transgender health needs (Beemyn, 2005c). If the required transgender services are not available on campus, the health center should refer students to friendly, affordable, and appropriate off-campus services (Beemyn, 2005c). Finally, insurance plans provided by the school should be expanded to cover services transgender students require.

To reduce the amount of transgender harassment and assault, consistent zero-tolerance policies must be initiated. The administration must develop specific policies to address transphobic violence, as well as set up procedures for handling such cases (Beemyn, 2005a). The addition of the words "gender identity or expression" to the institution's nondiscrimination policy also gives transgender students some legal rights to rely on in situations of violence or harassment (Beemyn, 2005a).

Along with these changes in structure and policy, there must be a shift in the institution's attitude toward and assumptions about transgender students. Rankin (2005) notes "as participants in institutions of power, higher education faculty and staff are part of systems of relations that can silence those who are not in positions of power" (p. 21). As gender variant students become more prevalent on campus, their voices will become louder. It is the responsibility of student affairs professionals to support them in their demand for equality by engaging the campus community in dialogue and action around these issues (Rankin).

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High-Conflict Stages of Racial Identity Development: Facilitating Dialogue in Residence Halls between African American and White College Students

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Abstract

In this article, the author provides a brief overview of Cross' (1991) Model of Psychological Nigrescence and Helms' (1992) Model of White Identity Development and discusses how they can be used together. The various stages in each model are accompanied by specific emotions, attitudes, and characteristics in the individuals they describe. The author identifies the stages of both models which cause the most severe conflict, frustration, and misunderstanding between African American students and White students in college, specifically in residence halls. Implications are suggested for how student affairs practitioners can foster dialogue in residence halls between students who identify with each group to help them achieve a higher level of multicultural understanding and competence.

As Helms (1990) notes, being a White person in the United States not only means being a member of a "numerical majority," but of a "socioeconomically and politically dominant group" (p. 54). She also states that, as a White person:

> …it is still possible to exist without ever having to acknowledge that reality [of Whites being in a dominant position]. In fact, it is only when Whites come in contact with the idea of Blacks (or other racial/ethnic groups) that Whiteness becomes a potential issue. (p. 54)

This is a common issue on college campuses that manifests itself through interpersonal racial conflict. Studies have shown that racial tension can affect students' sense of belonging, satisfaction with college, and academic performance (D'Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Fischer, 2007; Tinto, 1993). On any campus, regardless of the heterogeneity of the student population, practitioners are likely to encounter instances in which a misunderstanding about race has caused considerable disdain among students, specifically in residence halls.

Shroeder and Jackson (1987) found that, "residents spend approximately 70 percent of their college experience in residence halls" (as cited in Johnson, 2003, p. 116), leaving students open to many opportunities for racial conflict in the place where they live. This, coupled with the fact that these tensions can have negative effects on students' education outside of the halls, is reason for practitioners to help facilitate educational dialogue with students before, during, and after times of conflict due to where students are in their racial identity development. Residence halls are invaluable loci in which to facilitate dialogue since, as Pike (2002) notes, they "allow for intergroup contact, which can lead to an openness of students to diverse perspectives and their willingness to be challenged" (as cited in Johnson, 2003, p. 116). Before facilitating such dialogue, one must have a working knowledge of racial identity development models.

These models can be used to help student affairs practitioners understand the behavior, thoughts, attitudes, and emotional characteristics of individuals in different racial groups (Torres, Howard-Hamilton, & Cooper, 2003). They are used to aid an understanding of what individuals may be experiencing as they develop their unique racial identities. Typically, these models describe individuals at particular points in their development. This article, however, intends to utilize two of these models in conjunction with one another to better understand interactions between African American students and White students. In order to do this, the author will summarize Cross' Model of Psychological Nigrescence (1991) and Helms' Model of White Identity Development (1992). The purpose of this article is to discuss the stages in African American identity development and White identity development that cause the most conflict and misunderstanding between individuals identifying with these racial identities. Additionally, the author intends to use Cross' Model and Helms' Model together to find these high-conflict stages and to outline implications for student affairs practitioners facilitating healthy and open dialogue between African American students and White students in college residence halls.

Cross' Model of Psychological Nigrescence

To begin the process of investigating high-conflict stages, an understanding of each model is necessary. Cross (1991) suggests five stages that African American individuals experience throughout the development of their identities. In the Pre-Encounter stage, an individual begins "to transform a preexisting identity (a non-Afrocentric identity) into one that is Afrocentric" (Cross, p. 190). This first stage is accompanied by attitudes of low salience where race is not an important factor for the individual in day-to-day life, or conversely, oversensitivity to the fact that many White people believe in negative racial stereotypes (Cross).

The Encounter stage of Cross' (1991) Model focuses on a time in the individual's life when his or her existing worldview and perception of his or her identity is shattered. The Encounter stage can stir up many emotions including guilt, anger, and anxiety (Cross). Although this stage can create inner turmoil for an individual, it is a necessary step toward redefining one's racial identity.

Divided into two phases, the Immersion-Emersion stage says that the individual is willing and committed to redefining what it means to be African American. The "demonizing" (Cross, 1991, p. 202) of White people and White culture is a significant action during this stage along with a sense of superiority in all things African American (Cross).

In the Immersion phase, the person immerses one's self in his or her race which could be by attending events specifically relating to African American issues or by watching movies that focus only on African American characters (Cross). Typically, this phase is "energized by rage …, guilt …, and a developing sense of pride" (Cross, 1991, p. 203).

In the Emersion phase, the person regains control of their emotions and intellect, seeking a way to overcome the intense emotions of the Immersion phase. These individuals may retreat "from membership in organizations whose activities seem designed to 'help one feel immersed in Blackness' and toward" (Cross, 1991, p. 207) alignment with groups or peers who show a deeper understanding of and commitment to African American issues.

In the Internalization stage, the new identity that the individual has adopted is internalized and reflected in the "everyday psychology" (Cross, 1991, p. 210) of the person where Blackness is of high salience for them. A sense of inner security is developed from abandoning anti-White feelings and replacing them with nonracist sentiments and controlled anger at institutionalized racist and systemically oppressive systems (Cross).

The last stage is the Internalization-Commitment stage. In this stage "the individual replaces an 'I' or egocentric perspective with a 'we' or group perspective" (Evans, Forney, & Guido DiBrito, 1998, p. 76). The person's sense of racial identity turns into a plan for action and a sense of commitment to creating healthy communities for people of all races (Cross, 1991).

In contrast to African American racial identity development, Helms (1992) suggests that a healthy White identity develops through a two-phase process: abandoning racism, and then forming a nonracist identity as a White person. Each phase is broken down into three statuses as termed by Helms (1992).

Helms' White Identity Development Model

Phase I: Abandonment of racism. If the individual is even thinking of race in the Contact status, he or she may not think of himself or herself as White. He or she may also believe that other White people do not see themselves as being White. This status is primarily characterized with denial of responsibility for matters of race (Helms, 1992).

In the Disintegration status, he or she begins to be confused about what the individual has grown up to believe about race. They begin to consider the advantages that come with being White, the most prominent being a feeling of entitlement to being treated better if one is White. Helms (1992) argues that this person might want to be respected and loved by other White people, but to receive these sentiments, he or she must participate in immoral practices that deny many people of color the opportunity to be considered fully human.

In the Reintegration status, the individual now recognizes he or she is White and also considers Whites to be superior to other races. Without a commitment to forming a nonracist identity, this is a comfortable status in which to remain. Moving past this status generally takes a major event or disruption to change this state of being (Helms, 1992).

Phase II: Defining a nonracist White identity. At this point, a White person begins to transform their identity into one that is actively nonracist. Beginning with the Pseudo-Independence status, a White individual no longer wants to maintain the belief in the inferiority of other races. The individual begins to recognize the power that Whites carry, but either does not admit or denies the responsibility of Whites in developing a nonracist world (Helms, 1992).

In the Immersion-Emersion status, Whites begin replacing racial stereotypes with more accurate information surrounding the experience of the White person in the United States. The individual starts to assume personal responsibility for racism and reflects on the privileges associated with being White (Helms, 1992). People in the last status of Helms' Model (1992), Autonomy, begin to display active confrontation of racism. The individual begins to take a humanitarian approach to these issues and abandons a charitable standpoint, meanwhile feeling secure with his or her identity and the role that race plays in our society (Helms, 1992).

"High-Conflict" Stages

Without using these models together to understand the underlying causes of a conflict situation, it is unlikely that practitioners can fully understand the underlying causes for these instances. When two or more students are at different places in their respective racial identity development, it is likely they may experience interpersonal conflict as a result of this. For example, a White student in the Contact status of Helms' Model (1992) may not have any basis for understanding the anger exhibited by an African American student who is in the Encounter stage of Cross' Model (1991). Conflict arises because the White student is completely unaware of race being an issue.

The stages in Cross' Model (1991) where practitioners are likely to see the highest frequency and intensity of conflict among students are the Encounter and the Immersion-Emersion stages. For African Americans, Cross (1991) posits that each of these stages is accompanied by a heightened awareness of racial issues, as well as anger toward White people. Consequently, this situation can create a high probability of tension between the two races, regardless of which status the White student lies within Helms' Model (1992). The individual feelings of resentment and/or rage toward White people result from an increased awareness of race and an understanding of how racism has affected the United States and the individuals who experience the raw, negative effects of it (Cross, 1991). Practitioners must understand the viewpoint of students in these stages as the root for conflict in many cases. In the stages that subsequently follow in Cross' Model, the feelings of anger from African American individuals are directed less at individual White people and more at racist systems and institutions. Therefore, individual conflict may begin to subside toward the end of the Immersion-Emersion phase (Cross). Still, African American students in the later stages of Cross' Model may be triggered by the blatant racism of White students who are early in Helms' Model (1992). Residence hall practitioners need to be aware of individuals' status in their racial identity development to understand what may be contributing to the conflict.

As opposed to an increased awareness of racial issues, the statuses in Helms' Model (1992) that create the most conflict tend to result from denial, closed-mindedness, and misunderstanding on the part of the White person. These statuses are Contact, Disintegration, Reintegration, and Pseudo-Independence. The underlying cause for conflict and misunderstanding varies across different statuses of Helms' Model, but each is due to a lack of knowledge about issues of race. After these high-conflict statuses, the racist ideologies are replaced with ones that are nonracist and there is acknowledgement of the responsibility that White people have in ending racism. Additionally, there is subsequently less confusion and misunderstanding when interacting with African American students (Helms). White students in these stages must begin to acknowledge the pervasiveness of racism and how they contribute to it before they are able to move away from the conflict their behavior and ideologies may create with African American students.

Conflict may arise in various forms. Bias-related incidents toward African American students are the most visible manifestations of racial tension. These incidents might show up in residence halls, public free speech zones, bathroom walls, or on student vehicles. Graffiti using pejorative language written by a White student on an African American student's dry erase board in their residence hall is one example of these bias-related incidents. It is likely that the White student writing derogatory remarks on someone's dry erase board is either in the Contact status, the Disintegration status, or the Reintegration status of Helms' Model (1992). While in these stages, White individuals may participate in immoral and harmful activities against people of other races. This incident could stir up emotions for an African American student in any of the stages outlined in Cross' Model (1991). African American students in the Encounter stage or the Immersion-Emersion stage, however, may exhibit the most outspoken and emotional responses to an incident such as this due to having little support during this stage.

Conflict can also emerge through individual acts of physical or verbal violence against another person or group. For example, in 2007 some White students at a fraternity party at Ole Miss (the University of Mississippi) called an African American student the "n-word" (Burns, 2007, p. 1) then threw a beer can at him and pushed him down the stairs (Burns). The White students involved were most likely in the Disintegration status of Helms' Model (1992) because they were actively participating in immoral activities against an African American.

Instances that are likely to cause tension between African American students and White students are not always of such ferocity, or even of bad intentions. Perhaps, more often now than ever, subtle interactions that individuals from each group may experience can cause misunderstanding and conflict. In *Why are all the black kids sitting together in the cafeteria*, Beverly Tatum (1997) provides an example of a situation where:

> a young Black woman … was encouraged by a teacher to attend the upcoming school dance. … The young woman indicated that she wasn't planning to come. The well-intentioned teacher was persistent. Finally the teacher said, "Oh come on, I know you people love to dance." (p. 59)

Not only does this perpetuate a stereotype about African Americans, it forces the young woman into a set of interests based solely on her assumed racial identity. These assumptions may be accompanied by anger or frustration toward the White teacher resulting from the ignorance of this comment. This teacher is likely in either the Disintegration status or the Reintegration status. They may not have meant this as a negative comment, but the intent does not always match the impact of interpreting such a statement. This circumstance is a reality that White individuals must acknowledge in order to form a nonracist identity. An African American student who is in the Encounter stage or the Immersion-Emersion stage is likely to react quite negatively to this teacher's comment or they may internalize this anger and exert no physical emotion.

Limitations

A limitation of Cross' (1991) and Helms' (1992) Models is the impact of having a multiracial identity. Multiracial students may or may not be described accurately by Cross' and/or Helms' models and may struggle with feeling the need to choose which racial group they identify with and with which group they are accepted (Torres, Howard-Hamilton, & Cooper, 2003). Student affairs practitioners must understand the added impact of a student having a multiracial identity on the complexity of students' development and potential for interracial conflict. Additionally, Cross' Model is somewhat dated and may not reflect some of the changes in racial identity development that have occurred since it was first developed.

Implications for Student Affairs Practitioners Working in Residence Halls

It is important for higher education and student affairs practitioners to have a solid working knowledge of Cross' (1991) and Helms' (1992) Models and which stages are most likely to cause the most misunderstanding between African American students and White students. Practitioners who work in residence halls need to utilize these models together in an attempt to understand intergroup conflict as a result of students being in various stages of their identities. During the times of the most contention between students, practitioners must be prepared for facilitating dialogue around these issues in order to move students to racial identities and relationships that allow them to better thrive in a society consisting of many races. By using these models together in order to better understand interracial conflict, residence hall practitioners can facilitate conversation that focuses on each student's individual stage in their racial identity development.

This is not to say that a White individual and an African American individual must be in the Autonomy and the Internalization-Commitment stages, respectively, to engage in a healthy dialogue about race. In fact, it may be more important for practitioners to engage students in structured conversation when they are each in earlier stages of either Model. This is where these opportunities can have the most impact on students since they are earlier in their development as racial individuals. There are many ways to help invoke change in the way White students interact with African American students and vice versa.

Residence halls are locations where many of these conflict situations are likely to occur. With a working knowledge of both Cross' (1991) and Helms' (1992) Models, Residence Directors and other practitioners in residence halls can have a deeper understanding of the underlying issues that may be the cause when students of different racial identities are in conflict. It is also important for residence hall administrators to proactively establish programs for conversation to begin early on. Showing a movie in the residence hall that involves race as a factor for interpersonal conflict then facilitating a discussion and analysis afterwards is a simple way of creating a space to talk about these issues in a structured way. Awareness weeks and special events focusing on racial issues create a time and place for discussion. Black History Month is an example of this as a series of programs utilizing guest speakers, film showings, and focused discussions around race that can be publicized and implemented in residence halls.

As a specific example of an institution with a structured model for creating these conversations, the Department of Residential Life at the University of Vermont utilizes a six-part social justice curriculum to shape programming in the residence halls during the spring semester. The six parts are (1) self discovery, (2) privilege and power, (3) isms and systematic oppression, (4) inclusive language and hate/bias-related incidents, (5) action and becoming an ally/advocate, (6) and continued action. Resident Advisors shape their programming around this six-part Model throughout the semester in order to create spaces for conversation and learning around issues of social justice. The Resident Advisor team in each hall is also required to create, develop, and facilitate a social justice theme week (University of Vermont, 2007). Structural and programmatic requirements such as these standardize social justice conversation in the residence halls.

Johnson (2003) posits "programs that sensitize residents and hall staff to cultural diversity could contribute greatly to positive cultural relations in residence halls" (p. 130). Practitioners should strive to have multicultural competence and be able to successfully program around issues of diversity and inclusion so these conversations can begin, or continue, to happen in residence halls. Residence hall practitioners have the opportunity to assist in encouraging and facilitating discussion on matters of race, so they must use this to inform programming models and practice when working with students. Without having an understanding of the intersections of each student's racial identity and facilitating conversation among students of different races, racial conflict is likely to continue in unhealthy ways. Cross' (1991) and Helms' (1992) Models, when used together, can help inform these conversations and models of practice.

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Heteroflexibility: Bending the Existing Label Triangle

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Abstract

This article brings awareness to student affairs professionals of a newly named heteroflexible sexual identity mainly enacted by females. This label describes women who do not adhere to an identity included in the existing triangle: heterosexual, bisexual, and lesbian. The history of women's sexuality is discussed, followed by the recognition of new language and the experiences of heteroflexible females. The role of the media is addressed as both a positive and negative variable in the lives of questioning straight women. After examining the influential role of the media, the sexual identity's implications on student affairs are explored. Information on how to act as a beneficial resource for women who may identify as heteroflexible is recognized and recommendations are offered for further exploration of the topic and the heteroflexible identity.

"I kissed a girl, just to try it; I hope my boyfriend don't mind it. It felt so wrong; it felt so right. Don't mean I'm in love tonight. I kissed a girl and I liked it" (Perry, 2008). In 2008, Katy Perry entered the music scene. Her music has infiltrated the ears of the millennial generation with her hit song "I Kissed a Girl." Despite its controversy, the song is popular and can be heard on radio stations and music television channels. Is the song popular because of the catchy tune or because it appeals to the increasing number of college females who steer away from the road of strict heterosexuality and choose a curvier path of heteroflexibility? The heteroflexible sexual identity describes women who emotionally and sexually explore with other women, but do not self-identify with any of the three identities included in the existing label triangle: heterosexual, bisexual, and lesbian. Women who are "hinting at or experimenting with same-sex sexuality" are referred to as heteroflexible (Diamond, 2005, p. 105). Thompson and Morgan (2008) recognize this female phenomenon as being mostly straight; the terms heteroflexible and mostly straight are used interchangeably. The trend of heteroflexibility within the female college population and how it relates to student affairs is the focus of this article.

Within the past decade, the climate and discussion around sexuality has changed. Eliason's 1997 research reported college students were less accepting of individuals with fluid sexualities (i.e. bisexuals) than people who identified specifically as gay or lesbian. Now there is research on individuals who are heteroflexible or who simply choose not to adhere to a label (Diamond, 2005; Garnets & Peplau, 2000; Thompson & Morgan, 2008). This heteroflexible phenomenon as occurring more frequently within the female college population has been labeled by researchers as "chic" (Rust, 2000, p. 207) or "trendy" (Thompson & Morgan, 2008, p. 20). It is important to recognize the difference between the two components of this new identification: true identity exploration versus socialized sexual identity roles. This socialization plays into the "male interloper fantasy" – or the fantasy that men may be invited to engage in sexual acts with two women (Diamond, 2005, p. 105). The first component of heteroflexible identity exploration is discussed while the socialization of female sexuality necessitates additional attention in the recommendations.

This paper examines many components of the heteroflexible phenomenon. First, a review of the literature includes a brief history of the development of the phenomenon, recognizing the place of student affairs and where the issue currently stands. The experience of heteroflexible or mostly straight women is investigated, in addition to new language surrounding this topic (Thompson & Morgan, 2008). The role of the media will be covered in the literature review. Next, a section focusing on the implications of this topic and how it directly relates to student affairs is discussed, followed by recommendations for future exploration.

History and Background

The heteroflexible phenomenon is evolutionary when a historic look is taken at female sexuality. The 1800s marked the first recognition, when women were thought to be asexual, unless stimulated by a man (Bem, 1993). Over the next hundred years, it became apparent that some women were attracted to other women; these individuals were not thought to be "real" women (Ellis, 1928; Krafft-Ebing, 1950). In the 1900s, Freud entered the psychological arena challenging the idea that sexual orientation is biologically determined. Through this theory, homosexuality reflected a biological abnormality; however, Freud argued it was a socialization factor developed in early childhood. Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin, and Gebbard (1953) and Masters and Johnson (1966) further developed the research, addressing the issue of women's sexuality. These researchers recognized women are not asexual and stated sexual intercourse is one of the many fulfilling forms of sexuality for women.

Over the past two decades, professionals and researchers began to recognize homosexuality as a natural variant (Garnets & Peplau, 2000). Student affairs professionals and institutions should continuously assess methods to better support and enrich the learning experiences and development of students who do not identify as heterosexual. What does this mean for females who grapple with the area between heterosexuality and homosexuality? How can the campus support the identity exploration becoming more apparent within college environments? The answers to these questions are covered more thoroughly later in the article, but first an understanding of the mostly straight experience and the language which surrounds it is necessary.

Language and Experience of Mostly Straight Females

As student affairs professionals strive to be more inclusive of diverse populations, new research continuously penetrates the current understanding of sexual orientation and gender identity. Essig (2000) describes the term heteroflexible as semantically disrespectful to the socially accepted classifications and to the political struggle which came before the term was captured by a new, younger generation. Even with this seemingly negative view of the classification by Essig (2000), the evolution of language in society must be recognized and understood by student affairs professionals. As the social climate changes, it is imperative for professionals to be aware of students' current experiences. Student affairs asserts its commitment to the changing sociological climate by recognizing the evolution of language and developing new practices and programs (Ritchies & Banning, 2001).

Thompson and Morgan (2008) distinguish labels used by women negotiating their own identity clarifications. The three acceptable labels for women which comprise the referenced label triangle are heterosexual (i.e. straight), homosexual (i.e. lesbian), or bisexual. The following identifiers defy previously utilized terms, thereby bending the label triangle as it is currently known. Women "who choose an alternative to heterosexuality" (Thompson & Morgan, 2008, p. 15) identify with the following terms: heteroflexible and mostly straight. These women have characteristics of bisexuality, but do not equally divide experiences or desires between the binary sexes; these are females who are still exploring and who choose not to commit to a static term. Both classifications are fluid and changing, meaning they can evolve at any time depending on where a woman is on her identity journey. The previously defined terms are often unknown by women who experience accompanying emotions. Uncertainty exists when women internally struggle to find an appropriate label. One woman in the Thompson and Morgan study described being "drawn toward my best friend. … That's when I first began to question whether I was gay or straight. The thought that there could be an in-between never occurred to me" (2008, p. 19). Garnets and Peplau (2000) recognize feelings and experiences of women often defy the accepted, static classification schemes society has come to accept. When women become aware of the available labels, which experiences help her identify as heteroflexible?

Thompson and Morgan's (2008) comprehensive research on the mostly straight identity in women offers a profile of the females who associate with these alternative categories of classification. Their quantitative analysis of the behaviors and experiences of heteroflexible females in relation to lesbians, bisexual women, and straight women legitimized the mostly straight identity. It was recognized in regards to attraction, "mostly straight women were more same-sex oriented than exclusively straight women and less same-sex oriented than bisexual women [and] lesbians" (Thompson & Morgan, p. 18). This quote supports the idea that heteroflexibility falls somewhere on the continuum between heterosexuality and homosexuality. This concept is further discussed in the section on implications. Mostly straight women's sexual fantasies were significantly more same-sex oriented than exclusively straight women's fantasies (Thompson & Morgan). Mostly straight women typically have limited experience with romantic same-sex relationships, which is surmised to have "more to do with a lack of opportunity than desire" (Thompson & Morgan, p. 19). Women's opportunity to see the heteroflexible identity enacted is limited in general, especially in the media. However, the media presence of nonheterosexual identities representations may shape the way society and heteroflexible women view themselves. Next, media portrayals are examined as well as the role the media plays in the framing of the heteroflexible identity.

The Role of the Media: Friend or Foe?

It is important to recognize the breadth of this section pertains to the socialization of the male interloper fantasy (Diamond, 2005) because of the portrayal of oversexualized same-sex female relationships in the media. However, it is necessary to recognize the impact of the media on women who are truly exploring their sexuality and identity. In 2003, the shock of the Britney Spears/Madonna kiss on the MTV Music Awards swept the nation ("Madonna smooches with Britney and Christina," 2003). While Diamond (2005) recognizes this as "a powerful positive influence on young women by countering stereotypes of lesbians as unattractive, masculine, and hostile" (p. 105), it also supports many common male fantasies. Spears and Madonna are not lesbians; however, they do appear to be sexually fluid.

Other popular movies and television shows have questioning female characters who explore alternative sexual identities (Diamond). Usually, the characters find their way back to a mainstream, straight lifestyle. Diamond states, "young women consuming media images of heteroflexibility will come away with the notion that this outcome was an entirely personal choice based on their 'natural' predispositions, rather than a heterosexist sociopolitical context" (p. 109). However, in a 2008 episode of the popular television show *Grey's Anatomy*, two main characters have a heated exchange which implicitly supports one character's heteroflexibility. Erica Hann states, "There's right, and there's wrong. And this, was wrong. And illegal. There is no gray area here. You can't kind of think this is OK. You can't kind of side with Izzie Stevens. And you can't be kind of a lesbian," to which Dr. Callie Torres responds, "Yes, I can" (*Grey's Anatomy*, 2008). This media representation is viewed as very positive, having nothing to do with the involvement of male fantasy. Unfortunately, television shows such as The Girls Next Door (2009) capitalize on males' desires to see two women together sexually; Holly Madison, one of Hugh Hefner's three current girlfriends, described an erotic bachelorette party in the following quote: "There was so much gay this weekend, girls making out with girls; even Bridgette and I tried to get a marriage license" (*The Girls Next Door*, 2009). A main objective of the show is to sexually entice men; one way this is done is through same-sex female sexuality. The media plays an important role for women who look for societal acceptance.

With more awareness and acceptance of difference, how do professionals in a learning environment help women critically evaluate themselves and self-author their own identities (Baxter-Magolda, 2008)? How do student affairs programs support the exploration of an identity that can be real, exciting, and enjoyable while minimizing the impact of the media and the male fantasy?

The Implications of Heteroflexibility on Student Affairs

For many women, claiming heteroflexibility is a comfortable compromise to the identity debate within themselves. Some women may choose to identify with heterosexuality and are thereby exempted from the oppression experienced by many lesbians or bisexuals (Rust, 2000). While there is internal struggle to understand one's own identity, heteroflexibility tends to be apolitical and safe due to the privilege that may still be claimed. Because of these factors, supporting students' identities may be a difficult job for those in the student affairs profession. Assessing the accessibility of student affairs professionals and provided services to those who desire support and understanding is a significant challenge.

Before supporting a population, one must gain an understanding of the population. Shepard, Yeskel, Outcalt, and the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (1995) suggest distributing a campuswide survey to know who will be served by the programs and efforts of the staff. This could be distributed by the campus gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgender (GLBT) resource center or a diversity office. Individuals' reports of campus life can be collected if a campuswide survey is not possible (Shepard, et. al, 2005). Alternative sexualities have redefined the campus climate, which means the diversity of the population looks different from what student affairs professionals have previously been accustomed; campus staff must familiarize themselves with the new face of diversity.

After assessing the student body, institutional staff must find innovative ways to reach a sub-population who might not be receptive to available resources. For those who have a desire to learn more about the development of self, identity, and sexual orientation, the appropriate resources must be available. It should be the responsibility and commitment of the institution to provide tools and space for individuals to develop the "whole person" (Nuss, 2003, p. 65). Passive programming such as fliers and billboards may suffice. Students who are "closeted" or might not realize the resource center applies to them "might not be comfortable coming into the center and meeting with a staff person, but they might be able to walk by the center after hours and pore over a bulletin board" (Shepard, et. al, 2005, p. 28). This tactic may work to catch the eye of a curious heteroflexible woman. Another method would be to hold workshops. Talking through the diverse theories of identity development may benefit the students. Such theories include Cass's (1984) homosexual identity development theory and Chickering and Riesser's (1993) student development theory discussing the vectors of creating a personal identity. After the workshop, supportive resources for each topic should be available through student affairs offices. A GLBT-friendly counseling center could be utilized by individuals seeking support or understanding of self (Ritchie & Banning, 2001). These are just two research-based suggestions to assist the heteroflexible population in a campus community.

Recognizing an evolving sociological culture, student affairs can assert its commitment to change with the incoming generation. Awareness within institutions around the differences between terms and sexuality classifications needs to be visible to students. Embracing the diversity of identities within a GLBT resource center is imperative if the center is to live up to its service-providing potential (Shepard, et. al, 2005). Increasing awareness of the differences between how students choose to utilize the resources and support will allow the institution to more effectively serve different populations. Heteroflexible females may or may not choose to obtain more information or share their experiences with a fellow student going through a similar experience. Whether or not she chooses to do so, student affairs professionals must be prepared, willing, and understanding.

Recommendations for Future Study and Exploration

The purpose of this article is to make student affairs professionals aware of the knowledge related to openness around women's sexuality. Like the heteroflexible identity itself, the studies conducted on this sexual orientation are still exploratory (Thompson & Morgan, 2008). There is still much to be learned about women who comprise this category of sexuality. The research recognizes the implications of class status and race. The general population of women who participated in the research were "highly educated, young, white women currently in supportive and liberal sexual environments" (Thompson & Morgan, p. 20). Much work can be done around the area of privilege and the ability to explore a more fluent identity without negative societal repercussions. More research must also include the experience of heteroflexibility in regards to men.

Would it be possible for college males to slip into a different identity for awhile, just to see how it feels? The issue of whether or not it would be a similar experience for men, in terms of negative societal repercussions, would be a beneficial study. Within a higher education setting, the question is repeatedly asked how students can recognize the sociological factors that impact every facet of life. Another area of study would be to address the role male interloper fantasy plays on the behaviors and actions of college females. A final possible study revolves around the role of men and how education, power dynamics, and sexual identity interrelate.

The heteroflexible identity is not commonly regarded as accepted or even legitimate. Through this article, along with past and future research, the classification or fluidity of female sexuality should be recognized within the broader population, including subpopulations of the often ambiguous gay and straight communities. Acknowledging alternative identities rather than subjecting the female population to a three-point triangle of labels will benefit women searching for self-understanding. Student affairs professionals can assist this exploration.

Conclusion

Katy Perry's song elicits reactions from the majority population, much like the discussion around female sexuality in general. Heteroflexibility must join the GLBT identity debate as a legitimate identity. This article addressed the history of women's sexuality and presented new language along with experiences of heteroflexible females. As the history progresses, more examples of nonheterosexual depictions are seen in the media. Depending on the context, the role of the media can be a positive or negative variable in the lives of questioning/mostly straight women. After looking at the media factors, the implications of the identity were explored through the lens of student affairs professionals; the importance of gaining understanding on how to act as an utilizable resource was recognized. Recommendations for further exploration of the topic and the identity will continue to further the conversation around alternative, fluid identities. Ultimately, "in a cultural context that prizes self-exploration and open-mindedness, [heteroflexibility] is a more appealing and legitimate way to establish one's heterosexual credentials than to reject the idea of same-sex sexuality out of hand" (Diamond, 2005, p. 106). For some, this may be true and thus honored. For women seeking understanding of a newfound identity, the higher education culture must be ready.

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The Bigger the Better: Muscle Dysmorphia

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In the online depths of a chat forum on bodybuilding.com, men post comment after comment scrutinizing the nuances of bigorexia and whether or not they have it. "Kinda weird, I think I do have a problem cause no matter how large or lean I get, I still feel small and chubby. …" (gymratluke, 2006). "Not big enough yet so I don't have it" (3doz, 2006). "We all have it [thumbs up icon]" (mike d, 2006). "That doesn't seem like an 'illness' to me. … Oh yeah!!! It's called bodybuilding. … OBSESSED is just a word the LAZY use to describe the DEDICATED" (ProWrestler, 2006). In this forum, almost all of the members have images of their best bodybuilding pose on their profile including one with a picture of a flexed bicep with a tape measure wrapped around the muscle. Welcome to the world of muscle dysmorphia.

Although body image disorders are commonly thought to be associated with women, more and more men are becoming victims of this condition. It is a disorder which permeates college campuses and as student affairs professionals it is important to become aware of this issue, spread awareness to others, and take steps to alleviate it. In order to increase awareness of muscle dysmorphia and ultimately counteract it, one must first understand what the concept is, what the symptoms and behaviors are, how media influences this disorder, and what can be done to reduce and ultimately prevent it.

Muscle Dysmorphia

Commonly known as the Adonis Complex or bigorexia (Pope, Phillips, & Olivardia, 2000), muscle dysmorphia is "a collection of attitudes and behaviors that are characteristic of an extreme desire to gain body mass. Attitudes include a dislike of one's current body shape and a strong desire to change it through an increased muscle mass" (Grieve, 2007, p. 64). Muscle dysmorphia is a derivative of body dysmorphic disorder, of obsessive compulsive disorder, and a parallel of eating disorders (Grieve, 2007). For example, in one study, college men were asked to identify an ideal body image for men. Overwhelmingly, they chose an image with about 28 more pounds of muscle than an average male body (Pope, Phillips, & Olivardia, 2000). They also reported believing women prefer a male body with 30 pounds more muscle than they currently possessed. Yet an accompanying study indicated women actually preferred an ordinary male body without added muscle (Pope et al., 2000).

Symptoms and Behaviors

Many of these symptoms manifest in a variety of ways. Men who suffer from muscle dysmorphia are prone to obsessively adhere to strict workout and weightlifting regimens, may spend more than four hours per day at the gym, consume protein shakes that may replace meals, and have extremely restrictive diets. They may also have a history of or currently have bulimia, take mass-increasing supplements such as Creotine, and may use or have used anabolic steroids. Other symptoms include performing excessive body checking (by compulsively looking at themselves in the mirror or wherever they see their reflection, excessive weighing of themselves, and constant measuring of their proportions using tape measure) and a strained relationship with family or friends (Clark, 2007; Grieve, 2007; and Muller, Dennis, Schneider, & Joyner, 2004). Men who suffer from muscle dysmorphia also have an increase in social anxiety and dislike situations where their bodies are exposed, such as going to the beach. These symptoms stem from the feeling that they are smaller than they actually are or should be in muscle mass (Grieve, 2007).

The last symptom or behavior of muscle dysmorphia is excessive weightlifting or bodybuilding. This particular habit is particularly prevalent on college campuses. According to a recent article, “22 percent of college men report that they currently lift weights three times or more per week and 53 percent report that they have lifted at this rate at some point in their lives” (Grieve, 2007, p. 69).

The manifestation of many of these symptoms and behaviors are further supported by Muscle Bound! a presentation hosted by Colorado State University. (Feldman, 2008). It was a performance which featured monologue performances, supplemented by clips of a documentary. During this presentation, many of the monologues and video clips portrayed men with many, if not all, of the symptoms of muscle dysmorphia. One video clip showed a man who said he missed his best friend’s birthday dinner because he had not gone to the gym that day. Instead of going out to celebrate with friends, he kept to his workout routine regardless of the invitation. Another monologue depicted two women having an intimate conversation. One woman confessed to the other that her relationship with her boyfriend was strained. During this conversation, the woman whispered to her friend that her boyfriend had rejected her for sex that morning because he was going to the gym in an hour and did not want to waste his energy on her (Feldman, 2008). Both of these instances illustrate the harsh effect muscle dysmorphia can have on the relationships of those who suffer from this disease.

Media Influence

One of the largest influences related to muscle dysmorphia, as with eating disorders and other body dysmorphic disorders, is the influence of the media. Similar to women portrayed in the media, the body images of portrayed men are becoming more unattainable and unrealistic. The standard for culturally-based aesthetic perfection is constantly being raised. For example, Playgirl centerfolds and action figure toys are becoming more muscular and dense now than they were 30 years ago (Pope, Olivardia, Gruber, & Boroweicki, 1999). Not only is the cultural standard becoming more difficult to attain, but the level of exposure is increasing as evidenced by the increased number of men’s fitness magazines and male models being featured in advertising (Pope, Olivardia, Boroweicki, & Cohane, 2001).

Perhaps it is the emphasis on women reaching an ideal body size that has led to the counterbalance of men reaching for a respective ideal, or perhaps it is the knowledge that corporations can also profit from men striving for this ideal; whatever the reason, there has definitely been an increase in advertising fat-loss/muscle gain products for men. Early on, weight-loss pills were marketed mainly towards women. However, in recent years, marketing has shifted to target both men and women equally. An example of this can be seen in the Nutri-System weight-loss food program. Initially, this product was aimed explicitly at women, but now there is a bombardment of advertisements for the Nutri-System for men. This advertising emphasizes that the food is filling enough for a man, yet promotes fat loss and muscle gain (Nutri-System television commercial, viewed March 13, 2008).

Although muscle dysmorphia affects boys as young as 6 (when they start developing what an ideal male body image is), college-aged men are the largest single group with symptoms of muscle dysmorphia (Grieve, 2007). Prevalent factors in college men include their exposure to sports which perpetuate what body type is desirable, perceptions of what college women supposedly find attractive, and their mass exposure to media such as television, movies, magazines, and video games. One study illustrates the symptoms of muscle dysmorphia in college men. During this study, college men were asked to view a variety of advertisements. One group viewed ads with male models, most of whom were partially naked. The other group viewed advertisements of products without models involved. Not surprisingly, the group that viewed the ads with male models reported a higher level of body dissatisfaction after the activity (Grieve, 2007).

Recommendations

One way body dissatisfaction in women has been addressed is through media inoculation, which uses activities to promote positive body image and inform participants of the realities of unattainable images. Through a series of control groups and active groups, the study was able to conclude that women who actively participated in the inoculation consisting of support groups and informative sessions had better self-perceptions that those in the control group (Forsberg, 1998). A similar activity is likely to have comparable effects on men. Previous studies have shown the influence media has on male image, so education on the false realities of the image could be greatly beneficial (Grieve, 2007). Along with media inoculation, more education on general health, wellness, and nutrition could be marketed towards men. In the realm of student affairs, positive body image for men and women should specifically be reinforced in college gyms and residence halls through realistic body portrayals. It is also important for student affairs professionals to be aware of the realities of muscle dysmorphia and its symptoms. Similarly to the way professionals would recommend resources to women showing signs of eating disorders, student affairs professionals need to be more comfortable making the same recommendations to men who illustrate signs of muscle dysmorphia.

Conclusion

On a larger scale, we, as a society, need to shift our paradigm of eating disorders and body dissatisfaction issues from focusing only on women to reflect both genders. The idea that men need to be big and strong, the providers and protectors of women, and of humanity in general, only perpetuates the false idea of men's muscularity and masculinity. Strict body regimens are seen as desirable for men. If a woman practices excessive exercise habits it is seen as a red flag for possible problems. However, if a man exhibits the same habits, he is seen as disciplined, focused and hard-working. Everything from the Abercrombie models seen in advertisements, the hero visible in video games, the bodybuilding Mr. Universe competition, and the many commercials for home weight-training systems, all reiterate to society what men should look like. Instead, the idea of a truly healthy body image for both men and women needs to be reinforced in all the ways possible in our society and culture.

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Addressing High-Risk Drinking at the University Level: Back on TRAC

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Abstract

Substance abuse at universities is a serious problem requiring swift and thorough interventions to reduce the likelihood of severe consequences. Students who suffer personal, academic, and legal consequences due to their alcohol and/or drug (AOD) use may find themselves in a range of interventions. Back on TRAC (BOT) is the first university-based campus drug court program in the United States. This comprehensive intervention program addresses substance abuse, mental health, social, academic, and relational problems. This article gives an overview of the program as well as a summary of data from the first four years of the program. Results indicate that the program was significantly more beneficial for some students than others, and that the program did have a positive effect on a number of characteristics such as academic achievement.

Those in the profession of student affairs hardly need to be reminded of the serious nature of on-campus drinking and drug use. It seems as though there are nearly daily reports of binge drinking at tailgate parties, fraternity and sorority events, organization hazing, and underground underage parties. According to National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) reports on young adults between the ages of 18-24 (2007):

- There are more than 1,700 college students who die each year from alcohol-related injuries (Hingson, Heeren, Winter, & Weschler, 2005).
- Approximately 600,000 students are unintentionally injured under the influence of alcohol (Hingson, et al., 2005).
- Nearly 700,000 students are assaulted by another student who has been drinking (Hingson et al., 2005).
- More than 97,000 students are victims of alcohol-related sexual assaults or date rape (Hingson et al., 2005).
- Over the past decade, researchers estimate up to 25 percent of college students experience negative academic consequences from their drinking and drug use, including missing class, falling behind, doing poorly on exams or papers, and lower grade point averages (GPAs) (Engs, Diebold, & Hanson, 1996; Presley, Meilman, Cashin, & Lyerla, 1996; Wechsler, Lee, Kuo, Seibring, Nelson, & Lee, 2002).
- Thirty-one percent of college students met criteria for a diagnosis of alcohol abuse and 6 percent for a diagnosis of alcohol dependency in 2001-02 (Knight, Weschler, Kuo, Seibring, Weitzman, & Schuckit, 2002).
- The number of college students who report having had a DWI has increased since 1998 from 2.3 million to 2.8 million (NIAAA, 2007).

Not all the news is bad, however. According to Johnston and colleagues (2008), the percentage of college students who report having consumed alcohol in the past year has declined from 88.3 percent in 1991 to 80.9 percent in 2007. Those who report having been drunk in the past year has gone down from 69.1 percent in 1991 to 64.8 percent in 2007. Universities have made a serious effort to address the campus drinking problems by instituting awareness programs, more stringent university regulations, and substance abuse treatment programs.

Back on TRAC

Back on TRAC (BOT) is the first university-based campus drug court program in the United States Developed at Colorado State University beginning in 2002, Back on TRAC stands for Treatment, Responsibility, & Accountability on Campus. This comprehensive intervention program addresses substance abuse, mental health, social, academic, and relational problems. BOT provides a powerful system for giving substance-abusing students the structure to reorient, focus, mature, and succeed (Monchick & Gehrig, 2006). The program was designed to mimic the community drug court programs that have been in existence since the late 1980s. Additionally, the program incorporates a student development framework to treat the whole student.

Figure 1 shows the typical referral process that enables some students to choose the BOT program over university dismissal. Depending on the severity of the substance abuse or of the legal and ethical situation, students can be referred to the program by residence hall directors, campus police, student conduct services, as a repeat offender, or by the local police department.

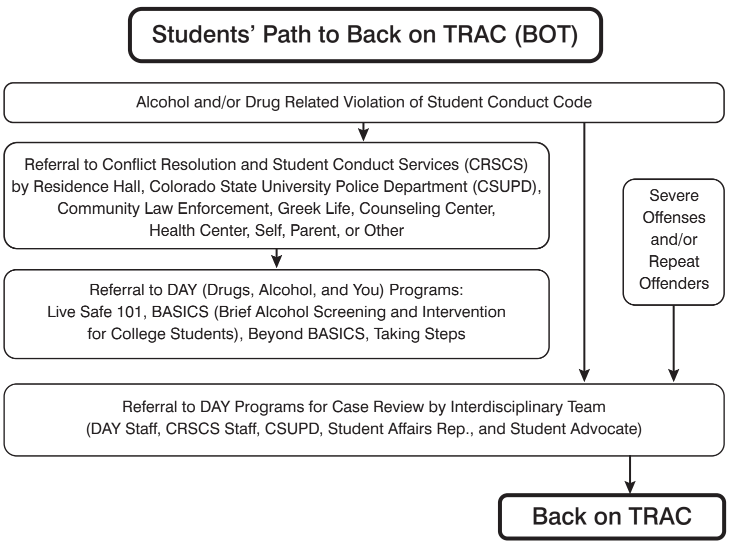

Figure 1
Process for students to be admitted to Back on TRAC

Research Problem

Researchers set out to investigate which variables predict or influence successful completion of the BOT program and a student's GPA. Key independent variables included: gender, grade level, report of previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression, depression as measured on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-Version 2 (MMPI-2), and the Quality of Life Inventory (QOLI) (Frisch, Cornell, Villanueva, & Retzlaff, 1992). Variables that were treated as either independent or dependent depending on the research question included whether the student successfully completed the BOT program or not, GPA at intake, GPA at the end of first semester, GPA at the end of second semester, and GPA at discharge.

Description of Participants

The population of this study was 174 clients who had completed, been dismissed, or withdrew from the BOT program between 2002 and mid-2006. The sample consisted of 83 percent male and 17 percent female students. The class level distribution was 54 percent freshmen, 28 percent sophomores, and 18 percent upper-class students (junior, senior, and graduate combined). Eighty-three percent of participants reported that they had used more than one substance, and 22 percent of participants had an indication of dual diagnosis (e.g. depression, drug addiction). Twenty-nine percent of the participants had been prescribed medications, either previously or during the program.

Description of Data

Data were collected by BOT staff for clinical purposes during each client's time in the BOT program. The time period of study was from 2002 through July 2006. Most of the data were collected by the clients themselves at intake, while some other variables were collected by staff in the course or end of treatment. The data were entered into a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) database for analysis.

In order to determine some of the predictors of program outcome, the researchers focused on the QOLI, the MMPI-2, BOT program outcome, and GPA. Both the QOLI and the MMPI-2 are valid, reliable measures. The QOLI is a 17-item measure that focuses on 17 areas of life, and scores can be from -6 (extreme dissatisfaction) to +6 (extreme satisfaction) (Frisch, Clark, Rouse, Rudd, Paweleck, Greenstone, & Kopplin, 2005). Some of the items ask the client's level of satisfaction with things such as health, learning, recreation, and community. The QOLI was given to college students who were known to have a substance abuse problem, and the mean score for that clinical population pretreatment was 1.07. The QOLI had a mean score of 48.5 with a maximum of 74 and minimum of 6. The MMPI-2 is also a reliable and valid measure (Strassberg, 1997). It contains multiple scales, and we used the depression scale (DEP) for this analysis. The mean score on the MMPI-2 scales for adult populations is 50, though the higher the score, the more depressed a person is. The mean MMPI-2 DEP score for the current BOT sample was 51.34 with a high score of 94 and a low score of 34. Measured on self-report, approximately 37 percent of students had previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression. The percentage of participants who successfully completed the BOT program and subsequently remained enrolled at the university was 57 percent (see Figure 2).

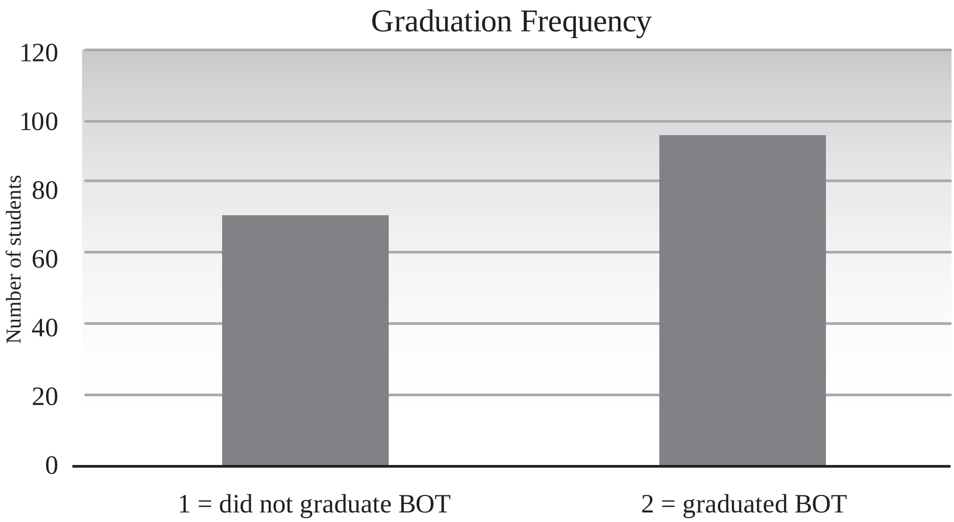

Figure 2
Numbers of students who completed or did not complete BOT

Students' GPA was collected by BOT staff throughout the time the client was in the program; at intake (M = 2.30), at the end of their first semester (M = 2.38), second semester (M = 2.40), and at discharge (M = 2.49). Figure 3 illustrates a distribution of students' GPA at intake by grade level. The table shows that some freshmen entered the program with a GPA of 0.00. This means they may have entered the program during their first semester at the university and did not yet have a calculated GPA.

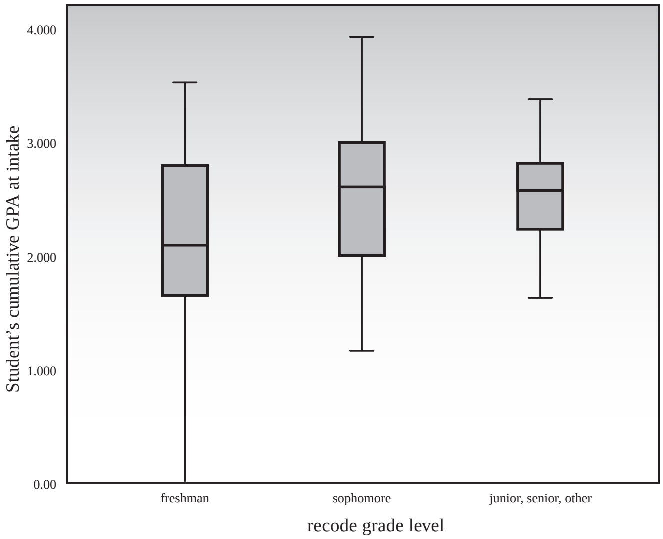

Figure 3
Box and whisker plots for GPA by grade level

We investigated whether females and males differed on BOT program outcome. Results indicate that females and males were significantly different on whether or not they completed BOT, with females being significantly less likely than males to complete BOT. In addition, students who reported previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression were significantly different on whether or not they completed BOT. Students who reported previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression were more likely to successfully complete BOT than those who did not report previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression.

We explored whether students differed on program completion status based on grade level. The variable grade level had three levels: freshmen, sophomores, and upper-class students (juniors, seniors, and graduate students combined). Results indicate that students in different grade levels were significantly different on whether or not they completed BOT. Freshmen were less likely to complete BOT than both sophomores and upper-class students. As students moved through the collegiate grade structure, their BOT program completion rates increased. Freshmen had a 47 percent completion rate; while sophomores and upper-class students both had 70 percent completion rates (see Figure 4).

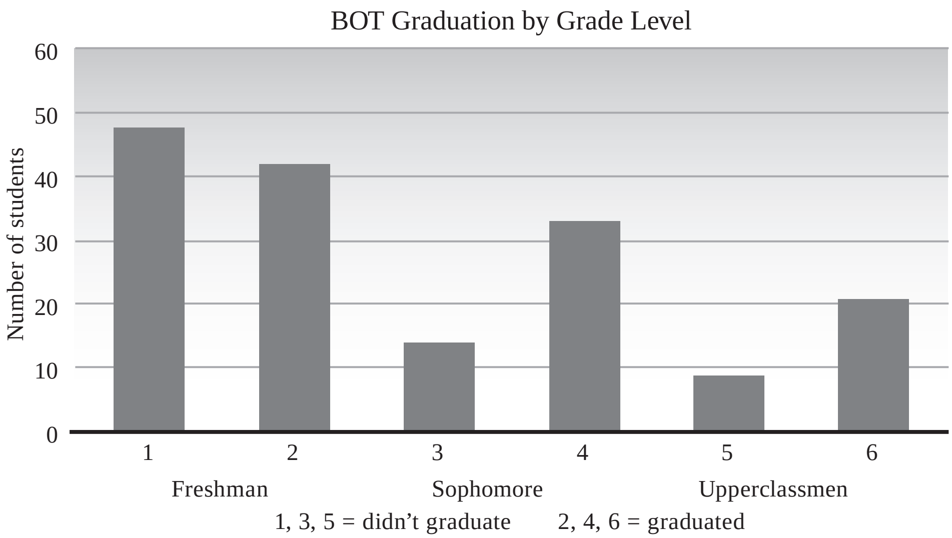

Figure 4
Grade level by BOT completion rates

In terms of any differences between the students' GPA at intake, GPA at first Semester, GPA at second semester, and GPA at program completion, there were no significant differences found. This lack of statistical difference may be explained by the fact that, as students move through the BOT Program, the lower-achieving students are either dismissed or withdraw on their own to address their substance abuse issues.

Researchers investigated whether there was a difference between students' GPA and whether they completed BOT or not. At the end of their second semester in the program and at program discharge, no significant difference was found between the GPA of students who completed BOT and those who did not complete the program. However, for GPA at intake and at the end of their first semester, there was a significant difference with medium effect sizes. Students who completed BOT tended to have a significantly higher GPA at intake and at the end of their first semester than those who did not complete BOT.

The research team reviewed a variety of correlations between variables in the dataset. The strongest negative correlation was between the QOLI and MMPI-2 DEP. This strong negative correlation means students who scored relatively high on the QOLI were very likely to score low on the MMPI-2 DEP. There was also a negative correlation between GPA at intake and MMPI-2 DEP. This means students who had a low GPA at intake tended to have a relatively higher score on MMPI-2 DEP.

There were strong positive correlations between GPA at intake and GPA at the end of a student's first semester, second semester, and at discharge. There was also a strong positive correlation between GPA at first semester and GPA at second semester. While these correlations may also seem interesting, it is not surprising that these correlations were so high due to their collinear relationship.

Researchers investigated the differences between the three levels of students' grade level and GPA at intake, at the end of their first semester, second semester, and at discharge. A statistically significant difference was found between the three grade levels on students' GPA at intake and on GPA at the end of their first semester in the program. At intake, freshmen had a mean GPA of 2.07; sophomores, 2.52; and upper-class students, 2.54. Likewise, at the end of their first semester in the program, freshmen had a GPA of 2.19; sophomores, 2.42; and upper-class students, 2.78. Results indicate that freshmen and sophomores differed significantly in their grades at intake as did freshmen and upper class people. Also, freshmen and upper class people differed significantly in their grades at the end of their first semester in BOT.

The researchers investigated whether there were differences in grade level, BOT program completion status, GPA at intake, GPA at the end of their first semester, second semester, and at program discharge. There was not a significant interaction with grade level and program completion to GPA; however, there was significant main effect of grade level to GPA. The highest increase in GPA was among freshmen who completed the program. In fact, this group had the highest GPA of all the groups at the time they completed BOT. Since the largest sample size was the group of freshmen, this suggests BOT did aid the students in strengthening their study skills and self-efficacy toward their academic career. Freshmen who did not complete BOT had a consistently low GPA. Note that the upper-class students who completed BOT attained the second highest GPA at program completion. This group also had the most consistent GPA throughout BOT. Sophomores, for reasons we cannot explain, bucked this trend and those who did not complete BOT did have academic success.

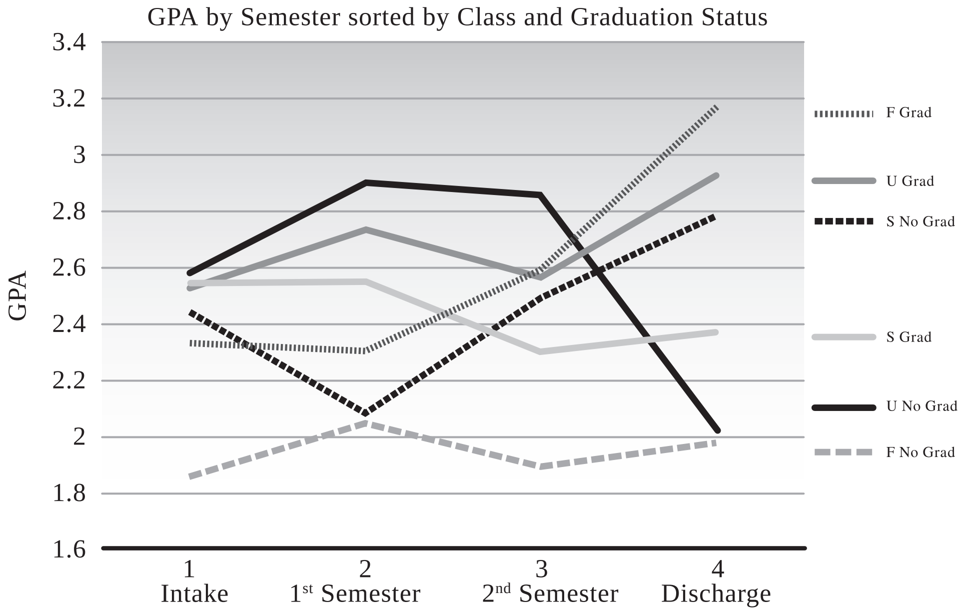

Figure 5
Positive impact of BOT program completion

We investigated whether there was an association between MMPI-2 DEP and GPA based on program completion. Students who completed BOT and scored higher GPAs were more likely to have lower MMPI-2 DEP. Students who completed BOT and scored lower GPAs were more likely to have higher MMPI-2 DEP. For those who did not complete BOT, a lower GPA was associated with a higher MMPI-2 DEP. This does not necessarily tell us much since we know from previous tests that MMPI-2 DEP and GPA were negatively correlated. What it does tell us is that a lower MMPI-2 DEP may help the intake evaluators to better predict the outcome GPA of students entering the program. In general, GPAs tended to go up as a student moved through the program, but as lower-achieving students drop out or are dismissed from BOT, their GPAs are removed from the data file. In this case, mean GPA would naturally increase without the students who remain in the program having to necessarily improve their GPAs drastically.

We investigated whether students who reported using one substance versus more than one substance differed on GPA. No significant difference was found between the two groups' GPA at the end of their first semester, second semester, and program completion; however, at intake there was a significant difference. Students who reported using more than one substance entered the program with a significantly lower GPA than those who reported using only one substance. This finding reflects that students who are using multiple substances have lower GPAs.

Discussion

A number of interesting findings from this study may help inform those who provide substance abuse interventions to college students. First, the small sample size of females in the BOT program and their subsequent low program completion rate raises questions that will require more focused research. Reasons for such a low sample size of females in BOT may be due to one or more factors. For a person to be admitted to BOT, they must first have committed a violation of the student conduct code, be caught in that violation, be reported for that violation, and be found responsible by a hearing officer. Typically for freshmen, this violation involves having prohibited substances in their residence hall room or having others in their residence hall rooms who are drinking or using drugs. One reason females may be represented in smaller numbers compared to males in BOT may be because females tend to be more covert in their AOD use behavior while males tend to be more overt. Males, for example, may drink alcohol more publicly and in higher quantities; whereas females may engage in other forms of drug use that are harder to detect, and more private. In addition, males and females may differ in the amount of attention they command by authorities while under the influence of AODs. Risk-taking behaviors, therefore, might not be noticed and/or reported by authorities at the same rate for females as males. Actual code of conduct infractions may be reported for males at a higher rate than females. In addition, authorities may perceive infractions by females as less severe, egregious, or troublesome, and may assume a female's drinking behavior is less likely to lead to severe, long-term negative consequences. Another explanation could be that females at Colorado State University do not engage in risky AOD use behaviors as often as their male counterparts.

The program completion rate of female clients (31 percent) is also of concern. Since the BOT Program has such a high proportion of males compared to females, at times with only one female in the program, females may have lacked the peer support that may be helpful for program completion. This might contribute to a sense of isolation and to a lower level of personal investment in BOT for females.

Those who reported previous treatment for or a diagnosis of depression had a higher rate of success in completing BOT. One explanation for this finding is that students who reported previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression may have experience, skills, or medication that aided them in successfully completing BOT. For some, their depression may have been successfully treated in the past, thereby allowing them to focus on their substance abuse treatment. It is also possible that the previous counseling raised their self-awareness of their AOD use problem and, in turn, encouraged them to be more open to addressing the problem during their participation in BOT. On the other hand, this result could indicate that some students with prior counseling may become treatment savvy from their experience. This may give them more skill in completing the program without raising concern of the case manager or therapist, while eschewing any real personal investment to work on their AOD use issues.

Grade level seems be an indicator of both GPA and whether a student completed BOT. Sophomores and upper-class students entered the program with a higher GPA and also had a higher rate of program completion. Since data collection ended for this project, there appears to be higher rates of juniors, seniors, and graduate students who are admitted to BOT, and this additional data will help solidify these findings. In any event, as students progress through college, they appear to have better life and coping skills to assist them in completing BOT.

Students who enter the program with higher GPA scores have a better chance of completing BOT. However, there are many other factors that contribute to GPA, and this makes it difficult to use this criterion as a sole predictor of success in BOT. Students who reported having used more than one substance had lower GPA scores. It isn't surprising, for example, that a student who reported using marijuana, alcohol, and prescription drugs is most likely to have low academic performance. Although the program completion rate on this criterion was not statistically significant, poly-substance use does have an effect on GPA, which has been shown to be a predictor of the likelihood of success in BOT.

The finding that QOLI was negatively correlated with the MMPI-2 DEP indicates that a person who reports a lower quality of life also is more likely to score higher on the MMPI-2 DEP. This means that, in general, those who reported being depressed also reported a low quality of life. Considering the fact that nearly all students were referred to BOT after being found responsible for violating the CSU code of conduct and have been found to meet the criteria for a substance abuse or dependency, it is not surprising that they are experiencing both low quality of life and some symptoms of depression.

Conclusion

Predicting the likelihood of success a student might have in BOT, like all other treatment modalities, is challenging. Mechanisms of change and treatment effects have proven extremely complex because there are so many variables involved and because it is such an individual experience. Factors in this study that seem to predict success in BOT are: gender, grade level, GPA at intake and at the end of a client's first semester in BOT, report of previous treatment for or diagnosis of depression, and whether the student reported using more than one substance.

This information may be useful to BOT staff for better predicting whether a student will complete BOT. We hope this study, combined with future studies, will help BOT staff alter certain program components to better fit students with certain characteristics that have been found to be risks for program noncompletion. For example, students with the lowest GPAs may need additional academic support and a higher level of study hours per week. To provide the most targeted suggestions for BOT program improvements and modifications, further quantitative and qualitative research is needed from clients to better understand how and why these characteristics are so important to program completion.

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The Modern Role of Diversity and Cultural-Awareness Programs in Response to Increasing Campus Diversification: A Literature Review

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Abstract

The number of underrepresented populations attending colleges and universities in the United States rose 50 percent between 1993 and 2003 to 4.7 million (American Council on Education [ACE], 2006). The rapid diversification of college campuses and the role of institutional support in fostering positive student learning outcomes within these campuses are analyzed. Research which assesses the effects of diversity on student development, the theoretical foundations of intergroup contact, and the role of diversity and cultural-awareness programming as facilitators of positive student learning is discussed. Implications of the research findings on student affairs professionals, faculty, institutions, and on future research are examined. Recommendations for future practice are also presented.

On June 23, 2003, during the deliberation of Grutter v. Bollinger (2003), the United States Supreme Court accorded guidance for college campuses' increased efforts to enhance diversity. In its opinion, the Court stated, "effective participation by members of all racial and ethnic groups in the civil life of our Nation is essential if the dream of one Nation, indivisible, is to be realized" (Grutter v. Bollinger, 2003, p. 19). The Justices' opinion articulates the philosophical foundation for the current trend of U.S. institutions injecting the overarching values of diversity and multiculturalism into their admission policies, curriculums, and programs. The growing value placed on diversity in higher education has led to restructured learning philosophies focused on aggressive diversity initiatives (Harris, 2003). Such initiatives have led to the rapid influx of racial minorities into previously homogeneous university communities.

Research conducted over the past 10 years generally supports that such modern diversity initiatives are philosophically and theoretically on the right track; asserting that students exposed to and immersed in diverse campus populations will have more positive views of diversity in society (Astin, 1993a; Chang, 2001; P. Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin, 2003; P. Gurin & Nagda, 2006; Korgen, 2003; Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedom, and Terenzini, 1996; Smith and Schonfield, 2000). However, another body of research warns that these aggressive initiatives may be practically off-track, citing that simply adding more racial minorities to college campuses without the necessary programs in place to foster positive student development can actually reignite segregation, causing a tipping effect (Chang, 2001; Korgen, 2003). A tipping effect is said to occur when the lack of support in fostering a diverse community causes members of that community to retreat to comfortable cultural spaces. Students in a campus community develop their primary relationships with others of similar identity, and as a result, a different form of segregation may arise (Korgen, 2003). The idea of a tipping effect demonstrates the need for a firm understanding of the various theories and literature, which discuss the role that diversity programs must play in facilitating these communities.

Smith and Schonfield (2000) stated, "The impact for interaction between and among student groups cannot be underestimated" (p. 18). This paper examines the recent rapid diversification of campus communities and the role that diversity and cultural-awareness programming play in student development and negating a possible tipping effect. The word programming in this article is meant to describe any structured event for students where student learning outcomes focused on diversity can be facilitated. By reviewing recent literature on the effects of diversity on students' learning outcomes and the theoretical foundations of effective diversity programming, this article examines the implications of increasing diversity without adequate programming on campus communities. This article also offers recommendations for institutions, student affairs professionals, faculty, and researchers on how to effectively foster positive student development within increasingly diverse campus environments.

The review of the literature begins with a statistical summary of the increase in campus diversity. This is followed by an analysis of recent research which demonstrates the positive effects of a diverse environment on a student's overall learning outcomes. Finally, the review concludes with a theoretical overview of the intergroup contact model as a foundation for diversity and cultural awareness programs, the role of such programs, and an example of a successful program currently in practice.

Effects of Diversity on Students' Learning Outcomes

According to the ACE (2006), the enrollment of minorities in U.S. colleges and universities climbed by more than 50 percent between 1993 and 2003. The number of minority students enrolled in colleges and universities has risen to 4.7 million with 27.8 percent of the total students enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States being students of color (ACE, 2006). A growing body of research has emerged which analyzed the effects of such diversification on a student's learning.

The foundation for many recent studies on campus diversity and its effects are derived from Astin's (1993b) Input-Environment-Output model. Astin studied the role that various environmental factors played on student outcomes to determine whether emphasizing or not emphasizing diversity issues on college campuses have any real consequences (1993). Astin studied whether there was a correlation between students attending a cultural/racial awareness workshop, taking a women's studies course, discussing racial or ethnic issues, taking ethnic studies courses, or socializing with someone from another ethnic group with that student's increased cultural-awareness and commitment to promoting racial/ethnic justice (1993). According to Astin, the two most positive outcomes of students who engaged in such activities were "increased cultural awareness" and the "desire to promote racial understanding" (Astin, 1993, p. 323). Astin also found that when institutions emphasized and sponsored diversity programs, it led to positive effects on student leadership, the student's overall satisfaction with the college experience, and undergraduate retention (1993).

A large body of more recent research has moved beyond Astin's (1993b) Input-Environment-Output model by studying students in various contexts. The research concludes that students engaged in direct and sustained contact with a different group than their own had more positive learning outcomes (Korgen, 2003; Meader, 1998; Morrow, Burris, and Der-Karabetian, 2000; P. Gurin, et al., 2003; P. Gurin & Nagda, 2006; Rose & Bylander, 2007). Recently, researchers have studied more specifically the role of communication between college students in addition to Astin's environmental factors (Berryman-Fink, 2006; McCauley & Wright, 2000; P.Gurin & Nagda, 2006; Springer, Palmer, Terenzini, and Pascarella, 1996). P. Gurin and Nagda (2006) created the intergroup dialogue model, which stated that students exposed directly to different people from different populations, "learn from each other more, appreciate their different life experiences and perspectives, gain skills to work with and across differences, and actively promote inclusion and social justice" (p. 24). However, P. Gurin and Nagda also concluded that these positive learning outcomes were more prevalent when students interacted with peers of different perspectives outside of the classroom, thus underscoring the growing importance of campus programming focused on diversity and increased cultural contact (2006).

The Role of Diversity and Cultural Awareness Programs: Intergroup Contact

The theoretical base for understanding the benefits of intergroup contact that well-planned diversity and cultural-awareness programs can offer students was first pioneered by Allport (1958). Allport theorized that the reduction of prejudice can be accomplished if majority and minority groups have positive contact with each other in the pursuit of common goals and with institutional support (1958). Today, this theory has inspired research into the roles of positive intergroup contact on college campuses in response to the increased diversification of these communities in the last 15 years (Berryman-Fink, 2006; Longerbeam & Sedlacek, 2006; P. Gurin & Nagda, 2006; Rose & Bylander, 2007). When creating the intergroup dialogue model, P. Gurin and Nagda (2006) focused on the participation of students in common intergroup encounters. They found that intergroup collaboration and the development of a "shared identity as just people" fostered the students' understanding of "both commonalities and differences between groups" (P. Gurin & Nagda, 2006, p. 22). Berryman-Fink's (2006) findings support the intergroup dialogue model:

> Colleges must couple institutional support for diversity with opportunities for different students to interact in cooperative tasks and to form meaningful and rewarding relationships with each other. Such efforts must go beyond initial orientation activities. Whether it is through ongoing student activities and organizations or through regular classroom-based collaborative work, colleges must structure contact so that students of different races, sexes, and sexual orientation develop positive attitudes toward individuals from these groups and respect for these groups generally. (p. 513)

Structured contact in the form of diversity and cultural-awareness programs is a relatively young effort of institutions previously focused on simply attracting diverse applicants to campus (Springer, et al., 1996). Longerbeam and Sedlacek (2006), in their study on living-learning communities as a form of diversity programming, found that colleges in the United States, with their increasingly diverse student bodies, now have the opportunity and potential to enhance learning by developing intentional diversity and cultural-awareness programs. Longerbeam and Sedlacek also note that as diversity and cultural-awareness programs become more prevalent, it is necessary to begin research on the effects of such programs.

Rose and Bylander (2007) describe an example of an effective program at Dickinson College in Pennsylvania. The Crossing Borders program motivates culturally diverse students to live, work and study together in various environments throughout a school year. The program brings together 20 students from historically black institutions and predominately white institutions to spend four weeks studying in West Africa. The group of students then studies for one semester at a historically black Institution, then for the next semester at a predominately white institution. Rose and Bylander described that sustainable dialogue, a commitment to racial justice, and a noticeable heightened cultural awareness were evident when observing student dialogues (2007). Rose and Bylander state, "Such growth and meaningful exchange doesn't happen on its own. It requires thoughtful, deliberate planning – a space within which meaningful and sustained dialogue can take place – but it is well worth the effort" (p. 263).

Implications for Institutions

It may be the modern institution's responsibility to create this space where meaningful and sustained dialogue can take place. Research indicates that when this space is not intentionally created on a college campus, the development of students' multicultural competence is in jeopardy. By using the research on intergroup contact as a foundation within a university's programs, colleges and universities can begin holding themselves accountable for student learning outcomes in the area of diversity awareness.

Research has shown that a multifarious campus community enhances students' overall experience with and perceptions of diversity, their commitment to racial/ethnic justice, increased cultural awareness, and better undergraduate retention (Smith & Schonfield, 2000). However, modern research explores and tests Allport's (1958) theory that healthy institutional support is a prerequisite for positive outcomes in race relations (Chang, 2001; Korgen, 2003; Rose and Bylander, 2007). While the modern college and university may experience abundant success in simply increasing minority numbers on campus into the next decade, it must not forget its role as a facilitator of holistic learning. If this is absent within the modern trend of rapidly diversifying campuses, then colleges and universities may encounter what Korgen (2003) refers to as a tipping effect, and harmful resegregation may be the most prevalent theme driving educational researchers into the next decade; it will be the students who miss out. Smith and Schonfield (2000) find:

Campuses have the ability to set up the conditions under which significant benefits to the campus, its individuals, and society can be achieved. Intergroup relations theories provide colleges and universities with a blueprint for developing programs and initiatives that will allow the benefits of diversity to be garnered by all members of the community. (p. 21)

With ability comes responsibility, and while institutions may be quick to acknowledge how much diversity is present on campus, they must be just as quick in recognizing how to capitalize on diversity to further enhance student learning. While this paper does not focus on retention and graduation rates, the recent low national retention and graduation rates of African American students (ACE, 2006) may reveal that institutions have not been doing a very sound job of comprehensively serving students in recent years.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals and Faculty

Research on the benefits of diversity coupled with the trend of rapid diversification has significant implications for student affairs professionals working at institutions. If the historical foundations of the student affairs profession assert that the education of the whole individual is at the profession's core (Komives & Woodard, 2003), then today's student affairs professional must serve as the catalyst for initiating intentional programming to give each student the accessible opportunity to explore the diverse community with which they are learning. Personnel at these institutions who are responsible for garnering funds for specific programs must ask what their institutions' ideological and financial commitment is to facilitating and supporting programs that have the theories of intergroup contact at their core. It is also necessary to ensure faculty are attuned to the modern research and issues of diversity. In order to encourage students to engage in diversity programs outside of the classroom, faculty must model the institution's commitment to diversity within their curricula. Smith and Schonfield (2000) stated, "… diversity also has the potential to facilitate great collaboration and interdependence between student affairs and academic affairs" (p. 21).

Implications for Research

While there has been and will be a definite increase in the number of diversity and cultural awareness programs, there is still little modern research which accurately assesses these types of programs' actual effects on students (McCauley & Wright, 2000). Longerbeam and Sedlacek (2006) found that it is difficult to assess the change in students' attitudes before and after a diversity program. They recommend, "… research should be designed with the intention to capture specifically delineated changes in diversity attitudes" (p. 51). This would allow for more accurate recommendations to be made for how to improve programming in the future. The previous literature has maintained a focus on how to create diversity programs based only upon theoretical recommendations. As Longerbeam and Sedlacek (2006) discuss, there is a lack of research designed which is based on how to assess the effects of diversity on a campus community. Researchers should begin to be concerned with student outcomes and develop meaningful measures to assess these outcomes.

Recommendations

A clear distinction in higher education needs to be made between creating a diverse community through admissions goals and fostering a diverse community through the intentional design of programs and services to create a space to facilitate student development in relation to diversity; creating a cohesive learning community rather than a divisive one. Based on research assessing the effects of diverse communities and programs on students, it seems difficult to have one without the other. Institutions, and more specifically, the people who work within these institutions, must continually be flexible in the years ahead by evolving their practices to meet the needs of each student. They must ensure that these individuals have equal access to the positive developmental effects that intentionally planned diversity and cultural-awareness programming can have. In Ten core ingredients for fostering campus diversity success (2007), authors Wade-Golden and Matlock outline recommendations for modern colleges to foster the success of their diverse communities. They assert that leaders on campus, within administration, academic affairs, student affairs, and among student leaders, must be visible supporters of fostering diversity in all the programs they sponsor (2007). These campus leaders must make the time and resources available to examine funding, policies, and programming to ensure that all student populations have the access and opportunity to experience the benefits of inter-group contact (2007).

The Crossing Borders program discussed in the literature review and assessed by Smith and Schonfield (2000) is an example of how intergroup contact can serve as the foundation for a program's design. The program has the theoretical base of Gurin and Nagda's (2003) intergroup contact model. By intentionally creating an educational space where people of different cultural backgrounds can interact with each other over a long period of time, sustained dialogue is created. On smaller scales, within programs across campus, campus leaders can begin to intentionally create this educational space by being aware of the positive learning outcomes that can result. Practitioners must educate and understand theories about how diverse communities influence learning outcomes.

On smaller scales, university programmers can ensure the tenets of inter-group contact exist in many ways. First, taking the time to carefully select and recruit diverse groups of student leaders on campus is key. When the teams of student leaders who are creating programs for students, such as Residence Life staff or Orientation staffs, have been provided the space to interact with those who are different from themselves, then their programs and interactions with the general student body can model the community the university hopes to create. Programmers can also include faculty members. In classes, faculty can be intentional in how teams of students are created for group projects. By guiding students to these spaces for intergroup contact, dialogue and the positive outcomes of intergroup contact can be facilitated. These are small ways to make a big difference. Everyone on college campuses must be looked at as programmers, and everyone must take an active role in facilitating these outcomes (Wade-Golden and Matlock, 2007).

Wade-Golden and Matlock (2007) further argue that institutions must stop obsessing over numbers and start focusing on creating campuses that facilitate the development of culturally aware individuals. Institutions must become better at assessing student attitudes toward campus climate in order to more intentionally develop programs that correlate with student needs, especially in this decade of rapid diversification.

Conclusion

In a Special Message to the Congress on Education (1961), John F. Kennedy stated, "Our progress as a nation can be no swifter than our progress in education" (¶1). As the diversification of college campuses rapidly increases, student affairs professionals must acknowledge the difference between creating diverse environments and fostering diverse communities, and strive to do both. Institutions must also focus on the extensive research on intergroup relations theory and the benefits of diversity on student development to intentionally plan and sponsor structured diversity and cultural-awareness programming, and further develop the assessment of these programs. Universities have the responsibility to develop students who are culturally aware. Fostering diversity is essential within U.S. colleges and universities if indeed the "… dream of one Nation, indivisible, is to be realized" (Grutter v. Bollinger, 2003, p. 19).

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Enhancing Student Organizations as Agents for Community Development and Civic Engagement

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Abstract

The concept of community has become an important component of the learning process on most college campuses. However, campus-based student organizations have not been effectively integrated into these initiatives. This article presents a new typology to develop student organizations as agents for community development, civic engagement, and organizational development on college campuses. This typology presents a way of conceptualizing student organizations as agents that can promote student learning and civic engagement, and enhance relationships with the greater community in which they exist. The authors utilized a focus group approach to explore the application of this new typology to student affairs practitioners' work with student organizations as the first step in the application of this model.

The concept of community has become a focus for student engagement and student learning within colleges and universities (Baxter Magolda & King, 2004; Blimling, Whitt & Associates, 1999; Boyer, 1990; Cheng, 2004). The establishment of residential and learning communities, the focus on service learning based curriculum, and civic engagement and leadership development activities have been central to the effort to create community within higher education institutions (Baxter Magolda & King, 2004; Cheng, 2004; Jacoby, 2003; Komives, Longerbeam, Owens, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006). These efforts have redirected educational efforts toward student learning and have re-energized the concept of social and community development.

However, campus-based student organizations have not been effectively integrated in the surge of activity to build communities in residence halls, create learning communities inside and outside of the classroom, and develop service-learning and civic-engagement efforts in the greater community. There is almost no mention of student organizations in most of the writing and research related to these efforts, and little research related to student organizations over the past two decades. While student organizations function at the core of student life, collegiate institutions generally have not viewed or developed these organizations as effective agents for building community and civic responsibility (Cheng, 2004; Kuk, Thomas & Banning, 2008). Student organizations as components of student involvement have great potential for more extensive integration into community-building and civic-engagement efforts within collegiate institutions. (Kuk, Thomas & Banning, 2008; Rowan-Kenyon, Soldner & Inkelas, 2007).

This article presents a place/agent typology model for student organizations that was initially developed by Thomas (2004) and Thomas and Cross (2007) for use with business organizations, and advanced for application with student organizations by Kuk, Thomas, and Banning (2008). The article briefly explains the typology, and through the use of a professional focus group, provides a discussion of potential uses of the conceptual model in the development of community within student organizations. This model has the potential to serve as an effective tool in promoting community building, civic responsibility and student engagement among collegiate student organizations.

Background for the Importance of the Model

Three established findings from student organization literature serve as background for the introduction and discussion of the place/agent typology model. First, there has been considerable research regarding student involvement with peers and with the broadly defined co-curricular experience. Much of this research has focused on the concept of Involvement, as fostered by the work of Astin (1977, 1984, 1993, & 1996). In his work, What matters in college? Four critical years revisited, Astin (1993) states that "the student peer group is the single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years" (p. 398).

The second finding serving as background for this study is that over the years, student affairs professionals who work with student groups have not provided significant attention to the development of student organizations as organizations (Delve & Rice, 1990; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). They have, however, focused extensively on the leadership development of individual students and this has served as a means of interacting with student groups and fostering student involvement (Delve & Rice, 1990; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). Although student leadership development is an important aspect of student life, so is the development of student organizations into effective, sustainable organizations (Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004).

Third, student organizations exert a powerful influence on their members and may serve as a primary connection with campus life and the noncurricular aspects of the collegiate experience (Pavela, 1995; Whipple & Associates, 1998). The place/agency model builds on these three foundational considerations: student involvement is important to student success, student organizations need to be viewed from an organizational perspective, not just from a leadership perspective, and student organizations have powerful influences on individual student behavior.

A New Typology for Creating Community Development within Student Organizations

This place/agency model is built on the foundation of the organizational/place model and typology presented by Thomas (2004) and Thomas and Cross (2007). It is offered as a model to help foster a way of understanding and enhancing community development, social responsibility and connections within the greater community in which student organizations exist.

Thomas and Cross (2007) framed their initial organizational typology within the context of two key concepts. First, the idea that organizations act as place builders, where place building is defined as constructing a relationship between themselves and the community, within the context of both the physical and social environment of the community in which they exist. Second that organizations act as agents, where agent is defined as the constructor of the meaning of the relationship that is given to place and community. The combination of these two sets of characteristics influence the organization's goals, contributions to place as a form of social responsibility, and also contribute to their varied organizational behaviors.

Within this typology, organizations are construed as place builders based on how they value place and community, and as a result, how they contribute to or detract from the social construction of place. This model considers the dimension of place and community in the context of three environments: the natural environment, the material environment, and the social environment. Each of these environments can be used to understand how the organization values place from the perspective of how the organization interacts and engages with each of these environments.

An organization's agent perspective distinguishes between two distinctive viewpoints held by the organization, one that conceptualizes its success as interdependent with the well-being of place, and another that conceptualizes its success as independent of place. Organizations with an interdependent perspective view themselves as integral members of the larger community in which they exist and view their relationship to place and community as interdependent. Organizations that are viewed from an independent perspective view themselves as occupants of place and view the realms of place as resources to satisfy the organizations' internal needs with little regard to the broader community in which they exist (Thomas & Cross, p. 10).

Briefly stated, the model presents four organizational constructs/typologies, based on the interaction of these perspectives along a continuum. These typologies focus on creating and/or moving student organizations developmentally toward transformational functioning and building community within the context of place. The following modified descriptions related to the four place-related organizational constructs are taken from Kuk, Thomas, and Banning (2008).

Organizational Place/Agent Typology

Four distinct place/agent typologies have been identified: transformational, contributive, contingent, and exploitative (Thomas, 2004).

Transformational organizations. Transformational organizations view themselves as critical agents for change in a community. They hold an interdependent perspective regarding their organization and its relationship to the greater community. They have organizational missions which focus on improving life and creating positive change for both the organization and the greater community in which they are located. The organizational culture is highly focused on team learning, collaboration with other organizations, openness to change, and building partnerships and developing community across and among student groups and with the leadership of the institution. Members of a transformational organization have developed the skills and mind-sets that embrace the organization's philosophy and attitudes related to learning, teaching and outreach beyond their organization. The organization collectively views itself as a member of the place and central to the concept of community, not separate from it.

A student organization at this level of development would exhibit qualities of campus leadership that transcend the organization and be viewed as a role model and leader among other student organizations. These organizations would model exceptional teamwork, cross organizational collaboration, organizational learning, and community-centered values. Their members would model campus leadership in both academic and community engagement and publicly reflect the organization's integrated connection to the institution and the greater community.

Contributive organizations. Contributive organizations view themselves as a contributing member of a network of campus organizations and leaders who share a common ideology about the campus and the community. In contrast to transformational organizations that view themselves as responsible for the well-being of place and central to the development of community, a contributive organization views itself as a contributor to the well-being of place.

Contributive student organizations are truly engaged in the greater community and serve as active participants in both academic and co-curricular involvements, but the organizational focus is clearly internal. They view the greater community as a place to be engaged, to socialize, and to secure members, but they do not view themselves as being integrated into the community.

Contingent organizations. Contingent organizations view themselves as disassociated and autonomous organizations. These groups narrowly define social and community responsibility as obeying existing laws, campus policies, and ethical codes, and they make a concerted effort to act accordingly. Rather than view themselves as interdependent with place (transformational) or key members of place (contributive) they view themselves as control and compliance agents, not external community developers. The organization's culture appears structured and internally focused.

These types of student organizations essentially exist as independent student groups with little connection to, and focus on, the greater community. They pride themselves on their unique characteristics. Their leadership focus is internal and they often act in a competitive manner toward other groups. Although they are willing to engage in volunteer and community activities they do so as a means of self-promotion and competition. Their view of community engagement is focused on obeying rules and regulations and not on enhancing or building community. They would prefer to be left alone and do not value collaboration with other student organizations. They seek to exist as independent entities and have little real connection with community other than to exist within it.

Exploitative organizations. Exploitative organizations view themselves as occupants of place. They are isolated with respect to the traditions and values of the campus community. These organizations plan and organize their control over place with little if any regard for the greater community. Organizational success and/or the gains of individual members trump any campus or community needs (Thomas, 2004). Exploitative organizations value place as a commodity where each of the three environments of place is valued for what that environment can provide the organizations.

Exploitative organizations practice a separatist strategy. Their missions focus on maximizing the personal gains of individuals from within the organizations, and that determines the exploitative organizations' strategy. They deliberately target certain places without regard for the risk or harm to the campus or greater community, or the potential to extract resources without accountability. While some exploitative organizations may, at times, appear to contribute to the campus, these organizations are not invested in ways that contribute consistently to place or community well-being. Exploitative organizations are likely to leave a place or disaffiliate if they determine they do not fit, or if they are asked to change their behavior to comport with institutional or the greater community's expectations or policies. In some cases, they may act contrary to existing norms and values as acts of defiance or to exhibit their independent and unique characteristics.

The Application of the Student Organization Place/Agent Typology

This student organization place/agent typology can be used in a variety of ways to foster student organizational development regardless of the nature and purpose of the group. As a first step to applying the typology model to student organization development and community building, the authors convened a focus group of student affairs practitioners. The authors wanted to understand the potential utility of this model in the development of student organizations and to secure feedback on the development of tools that could be utilized in the training and assessment process. Grounding the typology in the actual workings of student organizations was a necessary step to maximizing the full use of the topology.

The focus group consisted of 12 student affairs practitioners who provided feedback regarding the typology, its application to student organization development, and community building. The professional practitioners who contributed to this review were from a variety of student affairs offices at a research university. These offices included: student activities and student organizations, student recreation and club sports, student leadership and civic engagement, and Greek life. Most of the participants had worked with student organizations at a number of collegiate institutions during their professional careers.

The typology model was presented to the focus group was discussed, with responses recorded and later analyzed by the authors. The practitioner-participants provided a number of insights and suggestions on the use of the typology/agent model in the development of student organizations. The authors organized the results of these discussions into themes and recommendations for use. These ideas will be used to further develop the typology for use with student groups and to foster the development of tools for its use in organizational assessment and development.

Viewing student organizations within a new paradigm, as agents for community development

The focus group provided a new way of thinking about the participants' work with student organizations. A number of the professionals commented that the typology helped them to recognize the possibility of a new way of thinking about and working with student organizations. One practitioner stated, "we've never really talked about or thought about organizations this way" (focus group participant, personal communication, December 6, 2007). A director-level practitioner acknowledged that most of the work with student organizations was done through the development of organizational leaders and in working with the organization's advisor. She acknowledged that they had no idea of how much of their office's leadership development efforts reached into the organization itself. Collectively, the group acknowledged their frustration with the "roller coaster" lives of student organizations as they struggled from year to year to be effective, to find continuity, and to realize organizational goals.

The group discussed how student organizations varied in their ability to be successful based on how much they knew and how developed their skills were in accessing the institutional processes and resources. They presented examples of student organizations that were largely successful because they had leaders who knew how to "get things done" within the institution, or who were persistent in accessing advisors and student affairs staff who could provide them with answers on how to accomplish their goals. They shared a concern that the depth of leadership within an organization was generally unknown and had not been a major focus within leadership development activities.

Throughout the discussion, the conversation focused largely on skill-building and not on instilling organizational or institutional values within organizations or their members. The participants generally indicated that they had not done much work in developing the members of the organization or in approaching organizations from the perspectives presented in the model. They acknowledged that the model had a number of potential uses in working with student organizations across a broad spectrum of student groups. They generally thought the new approach could be developmental for a number of student groups, as well as for their leaders.

Organizations can be viewed developmentally along a continuum regarding their values and identification with place/community

The participants recognized and provided examples of how this typology could be useful in the development of student organizations. They envisioned the typology's continuum of organizational attributes and values as being valuable indices for engaging students in discussions and serving as the bases for goal-setting, planning, and organizational assessment. They expressed concern about boxing groups into categories or using labels to name their organizations. They felt the typology could be valuable in stimulating discussion, but the categories should not be attached as organizational labels in an administrative sense.

The focus group participants expressed concern that almost no student organizations were at the transformational level, however a few organizations had the potential to achieve this level. They were not certain that all student organizations could become transformational and they also were not certain that all organizations would have the ability to do so. They thought some organizations did exist for the sole purpose of providing benefits to their members, and that this was not necessarily a bad mission. An example was given of a ski club that existed solely to provide low-cost skiing opportunities to its members. This could be viewed as exploitative behavior. At the same time, they thought the basic concepts and the continuum of organizational development along the values and behaviors expressed by the model would be beneficial in discussions with most student organizations. The model could be used as a framework for advancing organizational development within a new paradigm that went beyond exclusive leadership development.

Initial implementation. Participants spent considerable time discussing the role of an organization's advisor and the critical nature of this role in providing for organizational success and ongoing continuity. They discussed the lack of sufficient resources available for organizational development and how they, as practitioners, relied on an organization's advisor as the key person who provided continuity within the organization's structure and culture. They readily acknowledged the large disparity that often occurred among organizational advisors and their individual ability to positively influence organizations. They expressed how difficult it was to ensure that advisors were providing the level of involvement needed to effectively serve the organization. The participants repeatedly stressed the lack of institutional support for appropriately rewarding faculty and staff who served in these roles. They indicated that training of practitioner staff and faculty advisors regarding the use of the new model with student organizations would be a critical first step in utilizing it effectively. They emphasized helping staff and faculty advisors understand how to help organizations develop along the model's values and behavior continuum. For example, although the ski club might organize for the purpose of obtaining discount tickets for its members, the model suggests that through discussion and awareness they could decide to move up the developmental typology by starting a ski lesson program for kids in campus family housing or organizing ski opportunities for members of the greater community. The model holds that every organization, no matter what its purpose or mission, could decide to enhance its connection with place and its social responsibility to the community in which it exists. The group also suggested its use as a formative and nonlabeling process for growth and community building would be critical for its effectiveness.

Help individual members explore their relationship to the organization. Participants suggested that within organizations the members see their relationships to their organizations very differently. Individual members never may have thought about their role and responsibility to promote community development within their group. Focus group participants shared a belief that it had been the role of the organizational leadership to promote such understanding. They acknowledged that many organizational leaders do not have the skills or maturity needed to effectively manage this process, especially in the face of membership resistance. The group concurred that the model could help frame a more intentional consciousness regarding students' roles within the organization and help student members understand how they as individuals either contribute to, or detract from the organization's success. One participant of the focus group expressed that "few people want to be viewed as exploitive, but individually members may not fully comprehend the relationship between their individual behaviors and the collective actions that are associated with their organizations"(focus group participant, personal communication, November 15, 2007).

Organizational perceptions. Participants discussed their belief that many organizations do not understand how they are perceived in the larger community. The group expressed strong agreement that having this knowledge might assist members in their desire to change negative perceptions and develop more positive perceptions about their group. Using the model to promote reflective discussions can demonstrate how an organization, through its collective behavior, might act more intentionally to present and integrate a desired image. These types of discussions might help leaders gain a stronger hand in utilizing peer pressure to convert the resistors in the group to become more community-focused.

Building collaboration across student organizations. The group discussed viewing the model as a tool for building collaboration and community between student organizations and increasing organizations' connections to the institutions. They expressed excitement for the possibility of the model serving as a means of increasing collaboration and organizational commitment to activities that might not be initially apparent to students or their advisors. Participants saw the model as creating windows for discussion around organizational beliefs and/or perspectives that may have served as wedges and/or sources of antagonism in the past. The group provided examples of how collaborations and understanding between organizations such as Campus Crusade for Christ and the GLBT organization of politically divergent international organizations, might be fostered through the use of the perspectives and values promoted within the model. For example, fostering dialogues between such groups using the model and focusing on their joint commitment to commonly held values about place could help each group develop a understanding and greater appreciation of the "other" and foster a means for finding common ground and possible community-centered collaboration.

The Typology Model as a Tool for Developing Student Organizations and Building Community

Participants of the focus group acknowledged that the organizational typology presented a new way of viewing student organizations and their work with them. They saw the new typology as a developmental framework that could foster greater collaboration within and among student organizations. From the advisor perspective, participants thought the model provided a way of initiating discussions regarding the role and purpose of student groups in relation to place and community and their own organizations' development.

The focus group confirmed the assumption held by the authors that there were a number of possible and varied applications for the typology with student organizations. The participants were in strong agreement that the typology provided a conceptual framework and the language to view student organizations' relationship to the community. The typology also showed promise for use across a wide spectrum of organizational types. Although it was stipulated that use of the typology might differ depending on the nature and goals of an organization, its potential uses as training, planning, and assessment tools within organizations were the central and unanimous finding of the group's contributions.

The following potential applications for the use of this conceptual framework were developed from the results of the focus group discussion:

1. The typology has great potential to serve as a training tool for student affairs practitioners in their work in advising student organizations. The tool could assist advisors and peer trainers in fostering student organizations as community builders within the campus environment. It could set the foundation for extending a current focus on student leadership development to a new role of helping develop the organization's members as well as the organization itself. The model should not be used for administrative purposes or for labeling or categorizing organizations. The model has great potential as an awareness and thought-provoking tool. Utilizing the model as a discussion tool could promote a less rule-oriented, less authoritative, role for advisors and organizational leaders within their organizations.

2. The typology could serve as the basis for student organizational development within student organizations. The model provides a new set of paradigms for viewing the roles of student groups as agents of organizational development, as well as member development. The typology model can foster organizational development by proving a conceptual framework and language from which to view different levels of student organization relationships to the community. It presents the idea that organizations can grow and change developmentally along a continuum of agency that fosters organizational development by connecting individual members and the group to the idea of community and their connection to it. Based on their experience in working with student organizations, the professional participants and the authors believe that most student groups want to ensure their organizational leadership into the future. While every student organizations' goals and purpose may not necessitate their aspiring to become transformational organizations, most student groups want to sustain themselves over time and to foster the development of their organization. This model can serve as a means of fostering organizational sustainability and helping organizations understand that one aspect of sustainability is related to their connection to place and community. Enhancing awareness of their connection to place can help organizational members understand how their individual and collective behavior contributes to both the well-being of their organization, as well as the greater community in which they exist. As an assessment and planning tool, the model can be used to enhance the organizations' collective understanding of how to obtain their goals and how to enable the members to make informed choices about the future of their organizations.
3. The typology can serve as a means of promoting discussion among individual members regarding their individual and collective values and perceptions related to community, social responsibility, and commitment. As an assessment and training tool, the model can serve as a vehicle for helping promote an understanding of the value of social responsibility and commitment to the greater community. It can serve as a vehicle for organizations to understand their image within the greater community and to work more intentionally to change this image when such change is called for. It can provide organizational leaders with a tool to help convert resistor members to more active, positive engagement within the organization. Most importantly, this model provides a vehicle for helping students understand how they can contribute to community engagement by promoting the mission and purpose of their student organizations. Through exploring the model in relation to the purpose, goals and values of the organization the members can determine how they want to intentionally relate to each other and to be engaged with the greater community in which it exists.
4. The typology shows great promise as a basis for organizational assessment and as a means of promoting organizational growth and change. Most student organizations exist in a vacuum of understanding regarding their relationship to place and community. For many, it is not an issue that they have contemplated or intentionally addressed. Through the use of this developmental model, an organization can assess the congruence between their organizational values, mission, and purpose. They can intentionally decide where they want their organization to be in relationship to place and determine to what extent they want to move their organization toward growth and sustainability. This model provides a powerful lens for viewing and discussing critical community-related issues.

5. The typology can be used to foster greater collaboration and understanding among various student organizations, especially among those that may have experienced disagreement or antagonism related to beliefs or past behaviors. It can help promote organizational networks across student groups that can foster greater understanding and a stronger sense of community among all students. By using the model in joint discussions across various organizations, especially those where conflict may exist, the model can be used to explore common interests and concerns, shared values and ways the groups can seek to collaborate in spite of their differences.

Summary and Future Considerations

Community development and a focus on service, leadership and civic responsibility, have become strong tools for fostering student learning and student success within higher education institutions. Student organizations have not been readily included in these initiatives despite their significant role in student involvement and their potential to foster individual and community development. The future holds much promise for the use of the organizational place/agency typology in the development of student organizations. It provides a framework for viewing and developing student organizations as agents of community building and organizational development within the greater collegiate community.

The practitioner focus group provided a first step in assessing the usefulness of this typology model for working with student organizations as agents of community and member development on college campuses. The next step in the use of this typology will require the development of specific strategies and tools for its application to student organizational development. These tools might include a survey instrument for assessing organizational status along the typology's organizational continuum, and training tools for its use in leader and member organizational development training. It will also be necessary to pilot assessment instruments and training tools and to gauge their effectiveness.

These initial steps in the model's application development process have provided a critical link to the development of this new typology in working with student organizations. It has introduced a new way of viewing student organizations within the context of community, social, and civic engagement and has the potential to serve as an effective new tool for advancing community development within campus life.

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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. Treat the methodology concisely; and most importantly, 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 prior to submission.

Suggestions for Writing

1. Prepare the manuscript, including title page and reference page, in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Fifth Edition.
2. Include an article abstract and brief description of the author. The abstract should clearly state the purpose of the article and be concise and specific, limited to 120 words. Refer to page 12 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 61 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.
7. Check subject/verb agreement, singular/plural.
8. Use verb tense appropriately: past tense for the literature review and description of procedures, and present tense for the results and discussion.
9. Proofread and double-check all references/citations before submitting your draft.
10. Use Microsoft Word 2003 or higher, PC version whenever possible.
11. Any article under consideration for publication in a nationally distributed journal may not be submitted to the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*.

* Adapted from the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

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