

Transitions

Social Justice



Identity

Community



Student Development

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Education

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Advocacy

Journal *of* Student Affairs  
Volume XIX 2010

Colorado State University

Collaboration



# Colorado State University

## *Journal of Student Affairs*

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### **Mission Statement**

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

### **Goals**

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

## Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*

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Volume XIX, 2009 – 2010

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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

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Jordan E. Alexander, Co-Managing Editor, Training and Development  
Kinsey M. Holloway, Co-Managing Editor, Content  
Joseph D. Levy, Co-Managing Editor, Technical  
Nicole R. Scheer, Co-Managing Editor, Coordination

The *Journal of Student Affairs* is celebrating its 19th year of annual publications. The *Journal* is managed by current students of the Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) program at Colorado State University. We strive to publish a quality journal year after year, selecting articles that contribute to the student affairs field in scholarly research, writing, and critical perspective. It is our aspiration to promote scholarly work and encourage graduate scholarship across the country.

The Editorial Board has been not only an experience of academic scholarship, but also professional development and growth. To highlight examples of our growth this year, we now have complete online accessibility for past volumes, an extended editorial board structure, and have had success with our national article solicitation and outreach efforts. Each of our goals has been expanded or further explored from the previous year as we have strived to broaden participation, improve processes, and increase outreach. First and foremost, as our journals are now available online, we decided it would be increasingly beneficial to have all published *Journal* articles available in library databases. Having accomplished this, students and the general public can now find our authors' articles via research databases, which is an exciting development.

As we have worked to increase efficacy in our operations, it has proven beneficial having an additional Co-Managing Editor for Training and Development on the Editorial Board. Aside from the additional input and leadership that has been greatly appreciated, we now have someone dedicated to recruiting and training a prepared Reader Board, as well as coordinating our annual journal release event. We were pleased to create another opportunity for leadership and exposure to the publication process for a graduate student and have benefited from additional guidance.

National outreach efforts have included extensive networking on the Editorial Board's part, alongside program mailings and student connections across the United States. The Editorial Board was also honored to present at this year's NASPA conference in Chicago, *Encouraging Graduate Student Scholarship*, a presentation that explored options for graduate students searching for publishing opportunities and shared the history and practice of the *Journal*. Through these efforts and continued dedication to the outreach of authors and readership across the United States, we hope to inform student affairs practice and scholarship in our annual publication.

As one of a small handful of graduate student-run journals, we aspire to incorporate a student-centered focus and provide professional development opportunities to all students involved in our publication and scholarship process. Our mission guides us in developing a scholarly publication that reflects current education issues and the professional interests of student affairs practitioners. We are dedicated to producing a peer-reviewed journal of the highest caliber. As managing editors of the *Journal*, it has been an honor to serve in our roles and further the tradition of scholarship. We hope to have made a positive contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of Student Affairs. We truly hope that future students, editors, authors, and readers are further inspired and engaged by the ideas and hard work that rest in these pages.

## Past Leadership

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As we produce the 19th edition of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*, we acknowledge those who have laid the foundation for our success.

### MANAGING EDITORS

2008-2009	Kyle Carpenter, '09, Jeff Rosenberry, '09, and David Vale, '09
2007-2008	Travis Mears, '08, Neal Oliver, '08, and Gretchen Streiff, '08
2006-2007	Craig Beebe, '07, Timothy Cherney, '07, and Yulisa Lin, '07
2005-2006	Kristen Harrell, '06 and Brandon Ice, '06
2004-2005	Marci Colb, '05 and Haley N. Richards, '05
2003-2004	Ann Dawson, '04
2002-2003	Lea Hanson, '03
2001-2002	Jody Jessup, '02
2000-2001	Chris Bryner, '01
1999-2000	Greg Kish, '00
1998-1999	Kirsten Peterson, '99
1997-1998	Beth Yohe, '98
1996-1997	Ray Gasser, '97 and Jocelyn Lowry, '97
1995-1996	DeEtta Jones, '96 and Michael Karpinski, '96
1994-1995	Jeremy Eaves, '95 and Alicia Vik, '95
1993-1994	Mary Frank, '94 and Keith Robinder, '94
1992-1993	Jodi Berman, '93 and Brad Lau, '93
1991-1992	Marie E. Oamek, '92

### FACULTY ADVISORS

2004-2007	Jennifer Williams Mollock, former 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

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The map on the 2010 *Journal of Student Affairs* cover conveys a message of purpose and direction. This year's Editorial Board was diligent and intentional in mapping a new vision and direction for the *Journal*, including increasing authorship beyond Colorado State University and reemphasizing a national and global perspective.

The *Journal of Student Affairs* Editorial Board outlined seven areas of emphases for articles that focus on timely and relevant topics:

- Emerging Trends
- Student Development and Learning
- International and Global Perspectives
- Assessment and Research
- Diverse Populations and Social Justice Initiatives
- Organizational Change and Program Practice
- Law and Governance

The articles in this edition address all these identified topical areas. Although the *Journal* has traditionally published articles on emerging trends, student development and learning, diverse populations and social justice, this year, the Editors actively solicited additional articles with international and global perspectives, and research in assessment. And the *Journal* includes timely articles on organizational change and program practice, and law and governance. Outside authorship includes authors from Kent State University, Penn State University, and San Diego State University.

In addition to publishing a scholarly journal, the Editorial Board served as a great resource facilitating scholarly interest and skills for students in the Student Affairs in Higher Education Master's program. They sponsored a workshop on using the APA Style Manual, encouraged students to write and submit *Journal* articles, and invited student participation on the Journal Board as first-year editors and as second-round article editors. The Editors are adding to their and other graduate students' professional development by presenting a session at the 2010 NASPA Conference on publishing a graduate program journal.

It has been a great opportunity and honor to serve as advisors to the 2010 *Journal of Student Affairs* Editorial Board, and with respect and admiration, we extend congratulations on the successful publication.

Oscar Felix, Executive Director  
The Access Center  
Colorado State University

Andrea Reeve, Director  
Academic Advancement Center  
Colorado State University

## State of the Program

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David A. McKelfresh, Ph.D.  
Program Chair

I am especially pleased to have the opportunity to update you on the state of the Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) Master's Program. The SAHE program has made significant improvements and strides this past year. We have added new faculty, new workshops, and new international experiences. Our alumni report that the program has prepared them exceedingly well for working in the student affairs profession.

The SAHE program is more attractive than ever before. Our applicants continue to come from almost every state in the United States and several countries. This year, the program received 245 applications for the 20 to 22 slots available for the 2010 cohort (a record high).

We have an excellent group of new faculty teaching and advising in the program. Craig Chesson co-teaches the Capstone class with Lisa Miller, Lance Wright begins this year coordinating practicum and internship experiences, Deanna Leone teaches the Advising Student Groups workshop, and Bruce Smith has joined the faculty as a co-advisor.

Two new workshops have been approved by the curriculum committee: A Parent and Family Programs workshop to be taught by Jody Donovan and Kacey Jarnot, and a Leadership and Service workshop to be co-taught by Bobby Kunstman and Jen Johnson.

Oscar Felix and Andrea Reeve have been providing strong leadership for the iSAHE (international) student group. This spring they coordinated an international field experience to Vancouver, British Columbia for 15 students.

The SAHE program continues its strong partnership with the Division of Student Affairs. The division makes major financial and human resource contributions to the program. Graduate assistantships and assistantship supervisors continue to provide excellent experiences for our students.

As in past years the job placement rate for SAHE graduates seeking a position in student affairs continues to be 100%. While the field of Student Affairs is rapidly changing, our SAHE program continues to change with it. Our faculty, staff, assistantship supervisors and alumni have my deepest gratitude and thanks for their time and dedication.

## Acknowledgements

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The Editorial Board wishes to thank the following individuals for their contributions toward the success of the 2009-2010 *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*.
- SAHE Faculty, for preparation and serving many authors and editorial board members as guides in this process.
- 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 19th Annual *Journal of Student Affairs*. Your research, dedication, and quality contributions made it possible to produce this edition.
- Shaun Geisert, Webmaster for the Division of Student Affairs, for his diligent efforts in updating and overseeing the *Journal of Student Affairs* website.
- Carl Kichinko, Communications Specialist for Communications and Creative Services, for commitment in printing professional quality copies of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- Amanda Lubow, graphic designer for Apartment Life 2009-10, for designing the cover of the *Journal of Student Affairs*.
- Merinda McLure, Applied Human Science Librarian and Assistant Professor, and Dawn Bastian Paschal, Coordinator for Digital Repositories Services, for dedicating countless hours toward archiving all 18 years of the *Journal*. Your commitment to this process will open new doors of opportunity and success for the *Journal of Student Affairs*.

## The Importance of a Global Education

Khouri N. Markos  
Colorado State University

### Abstract

*This article examines the importance of preparing post-secondary students for life in a global society. Faculty, administrators, and student affairs professionals must be aware of numerous factors involved in the preparation process. Research findings and recommendations focused around internationalization of the university are offered. These include the importance of leadership, university mission statements, curriculum reform, and education abroad.*

*Keywords:* college campus internationalization, global awareness, global education

Get your passport ready! Colleges and universities in the United States (U.S.) cannot afford to wait any longer to take action toward internationalization. Jane Knight (1994), a leading author in international education defines internationalization as “the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution” (as cited in Olson, 2005, p. 54). Citizens of the 21st century must no longer debate whether it is essential for international courses to be required for graduation, for students to study abroad, or for global perspectives to be developed within the classroom (McRobbie, 2008). “The U.S. cannot conduct itself effectively in a competitive international environment when our most educated citizens lack minimal exposure to, and understanding of the world beyond U.S. borders” (Hamilton & Kean, 2008, p. 5). Higher education institutions in the United States play an integral role in helping students develop into global citizens by providing a global education, which provides an international component in the classroom and internationally focused experiences outside of the classroom. A global education can be accomplished in an environment where students actively engage in learning to understand other cultures and perspectives. “To strengthen our international presence, expand the global literacy of our graduates, and address the challenges for the 21st century” (McRobbie, 2008, p. 25), educators must take a closer look at ways to achieve internationalization on campuses through the mission of the university, curriculum development, and education abroad.

### Mission Statements, Faculty Involvement, and Curriculum

To develop meaningful international initiatives within the classroom, there must be a clear mission supported by the institution’s leadership team, including the president or chancellor (Wood, 2007). When the president strongly supports a mission to develop globally engaged students, faculty will be compelled to think thoughtfully about their own global perspectives and how they will expose their students to different worldviews. Faculty must have the motivation, resources, and incentives to instill a global mindset into the curriculum (Wood, 2007). Courses should “stir...[student] interest in world problems and inspire them to think about solutions from multiple disciplinary angles” (Rubin, 2009, p. 20). Curriculum reform must include an integration of many disciplines that encourages students to focus on thinking from the local to the global. For example, in marketing classes on university campuses, the discussion should not only include how to sell products such as automobiles and appliances in the United States, but also how to market such products in Japan and many other parts of Asia, with consideration to cultural differences.

Internationalizing the curriculum must also focus on reform within general education requirements. Some institutions require students to take a minimum number of internationally related courses as part of their undergraduate experience (Siaya & Hayward, 2003). This is an initial effort in the right direction; however, developing and sustaining global educational goals is not easily accomplished through a few introductory classes. A comprehensive commitment to such goals should include building partnerships with academic affairs to create language learning opportunities, international programs in campus housing, overseas internships and work experiences through career services, and campus-wide programs that support such goals.

Universities throughout the United States are carefully assessing global and international opportunities for students, faculty, and staff. Institutions at the forefront of this movement actively prepare students for global citizenship. For example, Park University president, Beverley Byers-Pevitts (2008), states, “we view international education as a moral imperative and a competitive advantage” (p. 24). The standards of excellence to which the university aspires include multiple possibilities for working toward a global education that engages the entire campus community. Park University participates in the American Council on Education’s (ACE) Internationalization Collaborative, which allows faculty and staff to share information and learn about emerging collaborations on international initiatives. Such endeavors are enhanced by the influence of Park University’s core mission to “prepare learners to serve the global community through lifelong learning” (Byers-Pevitts, 2008, p. 24). By bringing global perspectives into the classroom, faculty at Park University support the mission by creating majors and minors focused on integrating international curriculum into graduation requirements (Byers-Pevitts, 2008).

The University of Delaware (UD) provides another example of commitment from the upper levels of the administration to support globalization efforts (Griffiths & Chieffo, 2007). In 2007, UD received the Andrew Heiskell Award for advancing campus-wide international curriculum development. The impetus for this development stemmed from the UD faculty mission statement, “to develop an international perspective in order to live and work effectively in an increasingly global society” (Griffiths & Chieffo, 2007, para. 3). To implement the mission, University of Delaware’s Center for International Studies recommends a language component for many of the institution’s majors. The Center also promotes an annual grant competition and workshop for faculty to encourage the infusion of their courses with global content (Griffiths & Chieffo, 2007). It is clear that implementing multiple efforts such as a strong mission statement sets the tone for all further international initiatives. These initiatives may include language requirements, faculty incentives for curriculum planning, program development, and overseas internship opportunities. As a result of such initiatives, campus globalization is enhanced and institutions serve as role models for globalization.

In recent years, strategic efforts have been made by higher educational institutions throughout the U.S. to create mission statements and international programs that focus on developing citizens who possess the language and cultural skills necessary to sustain U.S. leadership in the world and be competitive in a global society. Otterbein College of Ohio, for example, has developed an innovative approach to global requirements within the classroom including community-based learning (Rubin, 2009). Such learning combines “ethicality, the public good, and global experiences” (Rubin, 2009, p. 22) and provides the foundational knowledge for learning how to solve world problems both ethically and responsibly. This engages students in active learning both in and outside of the classroom.

Arcadia University is another forward-thinking institution, which offers creative possibilities to increase the number of globally educated students (Rubin, 2009). Students are required

to enroll in two global connections courses, an international experience at home or abroad, and a reflection course. These experiences include working with Latino immigrants and then traveling abroad to better understand the work of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) in an international context (Rubin, 2009). Curriculum development with an international focus is highly encouraged and rewarded with a stipend. This delivers an important message to faculty regarding the level of support for institutional change. However, the development of a strong mission and a globally infused general education curriculum is a long-term intensive process requiring motivation, determination, and persistence among campus leaders, faculty, and staff (Rubin, 2009).

### **Education Abroad**

A successful journey toward a global education is built not only on institutional leadership and academic support, but ultimately the opportunities available for students to fully immerse themselves in another culture through education abroad. To thrive in the present global economy and interconnected world, students must not only have a theoretical foundation but also have opportunities to understand other cultures and global perspectives through direct personal experiences. Many government and private organizations are working to increase the number and diversity of U.S. students who participate in education abroad programs. There is also an effort to provide and promote education abroad opportunities in less traditional locations such as China, India, and the Middle East (Obst, Bhandari, & Witherell, 2007). In 2001, the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs at the U.S. Department of State approved the Gilman Scholarship, designed to produce global citizens through education abroad within a higher education framework (IIE, 2008). The goals of the Gilman scholarship include diversification of destinations, students, and fields of study in order to serve national interests and democratize education abroad (IIE, 2008). In keeping with such goals, the establishment of the Gilman scholarship involves providing comprehensive opportunities for traditional and non-traditional students.

In spite of the significant efforts by the Gilman scholarship and others, the rate of nationwide participation in education abroad programs is less than ideal, according to the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2008). With close to 18 million students taking courses in higher education, only 1% study abroad annually (Goodman, 2009). The Commission of the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program (CALSAF) suggests the profile of students studying abroad does not match the demographic profile of the U.S. undergraduate population. To alleviate such disparity and to increase the number of participants, institutions must create programs which seek out and financially support underrepresented students, non-traditional students, students with disabilities, community college students, and others (CALSAF, 2005).

Availability of financial assistance and timing of education abroad programs are significant factors in determining whether students have the ability to study overseas. The State University of New York (SUNY) at Binghamton takes into account the accessibility of flexible scholarships and programs. President of SUNY-Binghamton, Lois DeFleur (2008), applauded the efforts of the university to make connections with outside corporations and foundations. These third parties have visions aligned with the university and are willing to contribute funds to develop scholarships and internship opportunities throughout the world (DeFleur, 2008). To add strength to such an initiative, SUNY-Binghamton placed a priority on creating programs during summer and winter breaks. These programs particularly assisted engineering and nursing students who typically find it more difficult to fit an education abroad experience into a tightly woven curriculum (DeFleur, 2008). Another distinctive program that provides more options for students is Michigan State University's (MSU) Freshman Seminars Abroad,

a two-week summer program available to all new students. This program takes students in groups, led by MSU professors, to destinations such as Canada, Ireland, South Africa, and Japan (DeFleur, 2008). Kathleen Fairfax, MSU's Director of the Office of Study Abroad, hopes to make international opportunities as available and affordable to as many students as possible (Connell, 2007).

U.S. colleges, universities, and the nation as a whole will benefit greatly from students who transcend boundaries and gain exposure to other cultures. This can only happen when the diversity of study abroad participants is increased, locations are expanded, financial aid is enhanced, and creative programs are developed. For the global economy of the United States to thrive and for students to develop a global perspective, education abroad is an indispensable initiative.

### **Challenges to Global Education**

The U.S. higher educational system must serve as advocates for global education. Colleges and universities must establish partnerships with government and industry to foster an increase in the number of graduates who demonstrate global awareness and competency. As the nation moves from the local to the global, it is of concern to note that only 20% of U.S. citizens hold a passport (CALSA, 2005). A further concern is pointed out by the Lincoln Commission, indicating "just 108 institutions (out of over 4,200 American colleges and universities) account for 50 percent of all the students abroad" (CALSA, 2005, p. 15). Thus, the issue of commitment to global education from most institutions in the United States, including community colleges, remains a challenge.

Additional challenges lie ahead in terms of faculty members who are willing to introduce global perspectives into the curriculum. Hiring new faculty impacts the pace of globalizing general education courses. New faculty hires should demonstrate interdisciplinary competence and innovation (Rubin, 2009). The cost of education abroad, program prices, increases in airfare, and unfavorable exchange rates are major barriers to students who wish to have a study abroad experience (Gutierrez, Auerbach, & Bhandari, 2009). A survey conducted in both March 2005 and March 2009 by the International Association of Universities indicated "most institutions singled out insufficient financial resources as the leading internal obstacle to internationalization. Limited faculty interest and involvement were leading internal constraints in both 2005 and 2009 as were the limited experience and expertise of staff members" (Labi, 2009, A23).

### **Recommendations for the Future**

Looking thoughtfully to the future requires a careful analysis of past practices. A 2006 report by the American Council on Education (ACE) entitled *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses*, acknowledges overall gains in international education efforts on campuses have been uneven. Institutional mission statements possessing strong commitments to internationalization have not increased noticeably in the past five years (DeFleur, 2008). This contrasts with prevailing research, which indicates that strategic mission statements are fundamental to the advancement of international education efforts. Efforts must continue to focus on the importance of leadership, institutional support, and the development of a mission plan to guide the work of universities serious about global education (Green, Luu, & Burris, 2008).

The ACE report also found that colleges and universities with globally infused academic requirements have decreased slightly (Green et al., 2008). Individuals responsible for making recommendations on future global education initiatives must focus on course offerings and their integration into the internationalization goals of the university. The 2006 ACE survey

recognized that 55% of institutions surveyed invested in international opportunities for faculty compared to 46% in 2001. This points to an emerging trend. Intentions with regard to global learning must embrace faculty involvement in the process. Faculty who are supported and encouraged to explore new courses, or provide local to global perspectives in existing courses, will contribute significantly to curriculum reform. Emphasis on faculty participation must be inherent in recommendations for the future of global education.

Globally infused mission statements, internationalizing the curriculum, and providing education abroad opportunities are important recommendations for the future. The ACE survey found the “proportion of institutions offering education abroad opportunities for credit has risen sharply: 91% offered study abroad in 2006, compared with 65% in 2001” (Green et al., 2008, p. 22). However, the numbers are not necessarily reflective of the challenging work ahead. Recommendations for continued development of education abroad are plentiful. For example, international education leaders, in collaboration with government and private organizations, must seek additional funding. Both short-term and long-term study abroad programs must reach the level of inclusiveness that is demanded in the 21st century. Education abroad providers must strive to be credible partners in terms of curriculum integration and must diversify study abroad locations.

As faculty participation and curriculum reform take place, student affairs professionals cannot be left out of the internationalization process. Student affairs professionals must establish partnerships with faculty to provide not only theoretical but practical learning experiences which increase college students’ level of global awareness. For example, programs utilizing international students in panel discussions and presentations can offer hands-on experience and face-to-face interactions with people from other cultures. The admission process for United States students should include information regarding education abroad opportunities. Orientation programs should provide breakout sessions to learn about other cultures, as well as study abroad travel and internship possibilities outside the United States. Residence life staff must embrace the internationalization concept and provide programs and other opportunities to enhance global awareness. Integration of international and U.S. students can take place within living-learning communities or through peer mentorship programs.

In conclusion, the effort to provide a global education is a campus-wide effort. Leadership must be demonstrated at the highest levels of the institution, and mission statements must be global and inclusive. Faculty must engage in curriculum reform to achieve international education objectives. Education abroad must be accessible and affordable to a wider variety of students in a greater number of geographical locations. Action must be taken to provide new strategies and institutional commitments to the important goal of educating citizens for the years ahead (Green et al., 2008). Higher educational institutions must offer students a pathway to success in a world, which is increasingly interconnected and dependent on mutual cooperation and understanding.

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*Khouri N. Markos ('11) is the Assistant Residence Director of Ingersoll Hall at Colorado State University and is a current graduate student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.*

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## The Up and Down Battle for Concealed Carry at Public Universities

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### Abstract

*Recent mass shootings on college campuses have initiated discussions on ways to create a safe and secure campus community and the factors that may help or hinder this objective. Policies concerning concealed carry are one such factor that have become a recent trend on college campuses. Proponents believe the presence of concealed carry increases campus safety, while opponents believe the absence of concealed carry increases campus safety, with no definitive answer in sight. This article discusses the trend of concealed carry on college campuses and explores the methods through which student affairs professionals can support a safe learning environment. The history of concealed carry, as well as its present status and future outlook, are discussed. Suggestions are made for ways in which student affairs professionals can utilize, or develop, campus resources to foster a safe learning community. This article concludes with recommendations for future research and a summary.*

*Keywords:* campus safety, concealed carry, guns, higher education, weapons

The Second Amendment of the Constitution recognizes the right of the American people to keep and bear arms (Constitution of the United States of America, 1787). *Concealed carry* is a body of policies supporting this right by allowing licensed U.S. citizens to carry a handgun in public as long as it is hidden from view. The presence of concealed carry on college and university campuses initiates controversial discussions for students, faculty, staff, rights activists, administrators, campus security officers, student affairs practitioners, and legislators alike. This article examines the concept of concealed carry, including how and why it is relevant on today's college campuses, proponent and opponent arguments, legislative efforts, implications for higher education institutions and student affairs practitioners, recommendations for future research, and a summary of the matter.

Between 2003 and 2009, the number of campuses allowing concealed carry increased from one to twelve (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008a). However, legislation to pass concealed carry laws on public college campuses has been voted down in several states (Lipka, 2008); there is no federal ban on concealed carry for colleges and universities. Instead, the government has left control over to the states, who in turn have given individual university governing boards the power to make decisions on concealed carry at higher education institutions, with mixed results (Paludi, 2008). While most institutions of higher education do not support concealed carry, there are exceptions to the rule including firearms that are "stored in a campus storage facility, guns that are authorized for specific purposes (such as ROTC, rifle team, or a specific educational activity), guns that are registered with the institutions, or guns for which students have received prior authorization" (Paludi, 2008, p. 121). However, these exceptions do not support the needs of students already in possession of a concealed weapons permit.

Today, 24 states prohibit the rights of students to carry a concealed weapon on campus even if the individuals have been approved to receive a concealed handgun license/permit by the state (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008c). However, there are currently 15 Right-to-Carry

states allowing specific universities to create their own individual policy regarding the right of concealed carry (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008c). The trend for allowing concealed carry on college campuses began with Blue Ridge Community College in Weyers Cave, Virginia (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008a). Colorado State University in Fort Collins, Colorado, was the second school to support the measure in 2003 (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008c). Since the fall semester of 2006, nine publicly funded colleges and one technical college in Utah allow licensed students to carry concealed weapons on campus (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008c).

### **Concealed Carry on College Campuses Today**

Each university has its own proponents, opponents, and challenges concerning concealed carry on campus. In March of 2003, a student at Blue Ridge Community College (BRCC) fought with administrators over his right to carry his concealed weapon on campus; one he already had a permit to carry. After the Virginia Attorney General became involved, the campus agreed to allow concealed carry on the campus.

Until November 2009, Colorado State University (CSU) permitted concealed carry for persons age 21 and older who possessed a concealed carry permit through the state of Colorado (D. Kelly, personal communication, September 14, 2009). David Kelly, the leader for Students for Concealed Carry on Campus (SCCC) at CSU explained “there have been no incidents involving theft, use, or threat of use of a gun involving a permit holder” (personal communication, September 14, 2009). However, in December of 2009, the CSU System Board of Governors voted to ban concealed carry on the Fort Collins campuses. Even with a weapons ban in effect, Larimer County Sheriff, Jim Alderden, has stated he will not help enforce the new policy, complicating the issue for school administrators and students alike by questioning the authority of concealed carry bans (Silveira, 2009).

At the University of Utah, students must either keep their firearms on them at all times, or keep them locked in a safe. Of the 5,500 students who live in the residence halls, only one requested a safe for the 2007-2008 school year (Lipka, 2008). Initially, the law was intended to deter crime but some professors said they would resign or retire if the law were passed (Dalton, 2002). Although some faculty do not support the state’s law, anxieties have been reduced due to the fact that there have been no incidents on campus thus far (Lipka, 2008).

### **Proponents**

The tragic events at Virginia Tech on April 16, 2007, in which 32 students and faculty were killed at the hands of a single gunman in an academic building, forever changed the way this country views campus safety (Rasmussen, Johnson, & Compact, 2008). College administrators were explicitly forced to review and revamp their universities’ safety policies as those “who did not... risked accusations of negligence or even malfeasance” (Rasmussen et al., 2008, p. 6). According to a survey completed by the Midwestern Higher Education Compact (MHEC) in May of 2008, “legislation has been proposed in no fewer than 15 states since the events at Virginia Tech to either authorize or require concealed weapons be allowed at public colleges and universities” (Rasmussen et al., p. 27). In addition, the survey reported after the tragedy at Virginia Tech, 19% of respondents stated their campuses were having discussions related to allowing concealed carry on campus (Rasmussen et al., 2008).

One of the biggest supporters of concealed carry was created directly in the wake of the massacre at Virginia Tech. Students for Concealed Carry on Campus (SCCC) was created the day after the shootings as a means “to rally so many like-minded people to this one cause” (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008b, para. 1). This activist organization currently has more

than 40,000 members at over 350 chapters on college campuses across the country (Students for Concealed Carry, 2008a; 2008b). In October 2007, and again in April 2008, members staged a nationwide protest and wore empty holsters to class for a week, silently making their presence known (Free Republic, 2008; Lewis, 2007).

Current efforts to influence state legislation include a recent lawsuit between the SCCC and the University of Colorado at Colorado Springs. Three members of the SCCC went to the state court and filed a complaint against the university's regents, chancellors, and police chiefs (McLelland & Frenkil, 2009), claiming they have the right to defend themselves and that the university's policy is unconstitutional by denying them their Second Amendment rights. Although a judge dismissed the case on April 30, 2009, the students plan to appeal the ruling (Ensslin, 2009), and the outcome is not expected in the near future.

### **Opponents**

Opponents of concealed carry on college campuses are plentiful. A survey published in the *Journal of School Violence* on students' perceptions of the Virginia Tech tragedy found while "students favored gun control before the shootings... after the shootings, they endorsed this belief significantly more so" (Fallahi, Austad, Fallon, & Leishman, 2009, p. 127). There is no doubt the incident at Virginia Tech increased resistance to allowing firearms on college campuses across the nation. Some opponents claim giving those with insufficient training the permission to carry, and potentially use a handgun, would put those people in a high risk situation if a shooting occurred, creating the potential for a gunfire to hit innocent victims (Villahermosa, 2008). Others argue that since bills supporting concealed carry are failing to pass quite frequently, the battle is a losing one and should be put to rest (Lipka, 2008).

One of the biggest opponents of concealed carry on college campuses was created in direct opposition to SCCC. Students for Gun Free Schools (SGFS) is an organization founded on the belief that "colleges and universities are safe sanctuaries for learning, and... would be endangered by the presence of concealed handguns" (SGFS, n.d., para. 5). Brian Hickey, co-administrator for the SGFS Group on Facebook.com, reiterated that "the addition of handguns on campus, especially hidden handguns, would only spur crime in an environment experiencing higher rates of depression and alcohol use than the average population" (personal communication, September 28, 2009). SGFS believes students, stressed from the rigors of college life, are more apt to use weapons inappropriately if they are present on college campuses.

With over 12,000 members, SGFS is working hard to change the policies of the 15 Right-to-Carry states so that college administrators would not have the power to allow concealed carry on college campuses (Facebook, 2009). They support a policy of keeping law enforcement activities in the hands of campus security officers (SGFS, n.d.). Hickey stresses the idea that prevention instead of reaction by campus administrators as a means to deter violence is a far better course of action to reduce the violence, injury, or possible death caused by gun violence (personal communication, September 28, 2009).

### **Legislative Efforts**

In 2009, state legislative sessions saw debate over no less than a dozen bills to allow concealed carry on college campuses, although none were passed (Bradley, 2009). Sen. Jeff Wentworth (TX) petitioned a bill to allow licensed students to carry concealed firearms on Texas campuses in early March (Tinsley, 2009). His explanation on the motivation to initiate the bill was to "make Texas schools safe" (Tinsley, 2009, para 13). This argument saw opposition from students, faculty, school administrators, and campus security officers (Bradley, 2009).

However, a number of legislators endorsed the bill, as it was first approved in the Texas state Senate, but was eventually defeated in the House (Bradley, 2009).

While efforts to pass concealed carry at higher education institutions may fail, such attempts do not decrease in number. In 2008, 11 states saw bills to support concealed carry on college campuses. One attempt in Louisiana, House Bill 27 (Anderson, 2009), was strongly opposed in part because of the notion that “officers wouldn’t know when they rush into a chaotic scene whether someone with a pistol is a suspect or a well-intentioned student trying to defend himself” (Bill to Ok Guns, 2009, para 10). House Bill 27 was eventually defeated, although its chief supporter, Rep. Ernest Wooton (LA) plans to amend the bill and reintroduce it for the next legislative session (Anderson, 2009; Bradley, 2009).

The most recent legislation supporting concealed carry was introduced in the state of Michigan. Again, using the argument that concealed carry would make college campuses safer, Sen. Randy Richardville (MI) is sponsoring Senate Bill 747. If passed, the bill will “remove college campuses from the no-carry zones for concealed weapons” (Michigan State Republicans, 2009, para. 3). No-carry zones currently included residence halls and classrooms at public universities in Michigan. Both the National Rifle Association and Michigan Coalition for Responsible Gun Owners are in favor of the bill. As of early spring 2010, the outcome is pending as the bill is currently being considered by the Senate Judiciary Committee (Michigan State Republicans, 2009).

As legislation pushes forward, opposition to concealed carry at public higher education institutions remains constant. Just a few days after Senate Bill 747 was introduced in Michigan, Campus Safety Magazine (2009) published findings from a July/August survey of employees at colleges and universities on their opinions of concealed weapons on campus. The survey asked if students, faculty, and staff who have legally obtained weapons should be allowed to carry concealed weapons on college campuses (Campus Safety Magazine, 2009). Nearly two-thirds of respondents said they did not believe weapons should be allowed on campuses, 22% were for the measure, and only 14% offered unconditional support (Campus Safety Magazine, 2009).

### **Implications for Higher Education Institutions and Student Affairs Practitioners**

It is clear that both sides in the debate over concealed carry on college campuses have strong convictions, with neither side willing to concede. However, both points of view share the goal of creating a safe campus environment by minimizing acts of violence. In a special supplement to *New Directions for Student Services*, Jablonski (2008) looked at the issue of crisis management on campuses and declared “although there is a role for student affairs professionals to play... none is more important than the role student affairs can and should play in the prevention phase” (p. 9). Whether or not a campus supports concealed carry is a moot point when campus safety is at risk. The ultimate goal of any higher education community is to foster a safe learning environment. To accomplish this, Jablonski (2008) recommended student affairs professionals focus on a variety of initiatives including attention to campus climate and culture, organization and promotion of training and awareness opportunities, and infrastructure and policy changes.

Jablonski (2008) argued a “caring community is less likely to experience such violence and is better able to respond and recover from an incident of violence should one occur” (p. 9). Student affairs professionals can have a positive impact on campus culture through their knowledge of theoretical viewpoints and ability to introduce and implement campus-wide programming. For example, James Madison University developed a Civic Learning Program that has been “helpful in engaging isolated or alienated students in the campus community

in ways that reduce the potential for future incidents of antisocial behavior, including acts of campus violence” (Jablonski, 2008, p. 9). The Civic Learning Program, created as a means to sanction students through the Office of Judicial Affairs, received both the NASPA Excellence Grand Gold Award and ACPA Commission for Assessment and Evaluation Emerging Best Practices in Student Affairs Assessment Award in 2008 (James Madison University, 2009).

Additionally, Jablonski (2008) supported the responsibility of student affairs professionals to develop and facilitate training and awareness opportunities beginning at orientation and regularly refreshed for students, parents and families, faculty, and staff. One way to conduct safety awareness development on college campuses is through gatekeeper training. *Gatekeepers* can be thought of as anyone who has direct contact with students, such as resident advisors, work-study supervisors, and faculty members. Thus, gatekeeper training is a prevention technique utilized by those who reach students on the lowest possible level. As a proactive strategy, the main goal of gatekeeper training is to identify individuals who may be a risk to themselves and/or others, and refer them to appropriate treatment offices (Tompkins & Witt, 2009). Northwestern University created such a program through their Counseling and Psychological Services (CAPS) department in which counselors are assigned to different locations within the campus community (Northwestern University, 2008). CAPS functions as a liaison between students and the campus community and “seeks to support the educational mission of the university through its training program, which continues to enhance and promote the profession of psychology” (Northwestern University, 2008, para 2).

The final means by which student affairs professionals can assist in building a harmonious campus environment is through infrastructure and policy. Changes to policy are more difficult to implement in everyday practice; however, Jablonski (2008) encouraged initiating dialogue with admissions and human resources departments on the feasibility of conducting background checks on students, faculty, and staff. Jablonski also stressed the importance of “not seeking mental health information from applicants before they are admitted to the institution because such a process may incite the possibility of claims of discrimination based on disability” (2008, p. 16). While it is important for student affairs professionals to follow the guidelines set forth by the Federal Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA), two laws protecting the privacy of students’ education and health records, Jablonski reinforced the notion of sharing information about an at-risk student over placing the institution at risk by sharing none.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Although concealed carry is a relatively new topic of debate for college campuses, the issue regarding campus violence is not. Tragedies like those at Virginia Tech spur “renewed discussion and debate about gun safety and weapons regulation, mental health counseling, and the often difficult balance between student privacy and parental and community” (Rasmussen et al., 2008, p. 6) rights to know. Little research has been done regarding the long term effects mass shootings have on members of the campus community and how these acts of violence affect attitudes towards concealed carry. Additional studies on incidents of violence between campuses with concealed carry and those without will help create clarity over the issue and provide support for legislators making decisions on whether to pass or defeat bills relating to concealed carry.

### **Summary**

Without a federal mandate, it may be hard for college campuses to find common ground on the issue of concealed carry, allowing this controversial pattern of discussion to continue indefinitely. However, both sides can agree to disagree as long as the common goal of providing

a safe and harmonious campus environment remains a priority. Incidents of campus violence “exert a powerful impact on the psyche and basic instincts of students, parents, policymakers, and the general public, leading to the understandable questioning of the relative safety of a specific campus” (Rasmussen et al., 2008, p. 6). In response, student affairs professionals have both a responsibility and the authority to implement programs and follow proper procedures to ensure a safe environment conducive to learning surrounds the campus community.

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## To Dream of the Dream Act

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### Abstract

*Legislation has been passed in ten states that allows the children of undocumented workers to attend post-secondary institutions at an in-state tuition level and often receive federal financial aid (Olivas, 2009; Rincon, 2008). These ten states have seen a trend in an increased number of undocumented students and undocumented Latino students attending post-secondary institutions and graduating because of the recent legislative changes. It is important that student affairs professionals understand the historical journey of undocumented students and are knowledgeable about undocumented students' current institutional support systems, or lack thereof.*

*Keywords:* Dream Act, financial aid, higher education, residency, undocumented student

Many people come to the United States in hopes of receiving an education and fulfilling the American dream, holding fast to a common belief that an education is the key to success in the United States. This is not always the case. Higher education is a privilege not all are inherently granted; it is likely that no one understands this better than the undocumented student. For those who come to the United States as illegal immigrants, often as small children, higher education is unattainable because of laws, costs, and provisions that make these children ineligible because they are considered undocumented as citizens. Undocumented students often discover, due to their citizenship status, that no matter how high their grades are in high school, they are ineligible for scholarships and financial aid, therefore making the cost of higher education unattainable. Additionally, undocumented students are often denied admission to colleges and universities, and thus are not granted the possibility of an education.

This may soon be changing as Congress addresses federal legislation called the Development, Relief and Education for Alien Minors (DREAM) Act. This legislation could mean major changes in higher education for student affairs professionals from the financial aid office to admissions (Johnson & Janosik, 2008; Olivas, 2009). Currently, states have the power to determine state benefits regarding residency status and access to federal financial aid. Ten states, including Texas and California, already have legislation that recognizes many undocumented workers as state residents. This allows the children of undocumented workers to attend college at the in-state tuition level and receive certain forms of federal financial aid (Olivas, 2009; Rincon, 2008). The trend of undocumented students attending post-secondary institutions is just beginning and it is important for student affairs professionals to be knowledgeable and aware of these students' fears and needs (Kaushal, 2008). According to research by Kaushal (2008), the number of undocumented students attending post-secondary institutions is increasing and will continue to increase. This article discusses literature on the topic, which includes a history of allowing undocumented children to attend education institutions, implications for the students from the passage of state legislation in Texas, California, and eight other states, and finally, recommendations to institutions of higher education.

For the purpose of this article, *undocumented workers* and *undocumented students* will be used to describe people that are believed by the federal government to be in the United States

without proper paperwork. The words *alien minors*, *undocumented children*, and *illegal immigrants* are occasionally used in quotes and citations. For the purpose of this paper these words should be seen as referring to the same group of people, undocumented students and undocumented workers.

### Literature Review

To best understand the recent increase of undocumented students in higher education, one must first understand the historical context of undocumented students within the history of the higher education system, specifically the struggles of Latino students. Currently, there are approximately 44.7 million Latinos in the United States. Latinos are the fastest growing immigrant population and the population is estimated to grow to 74.5 million by 2050 (Rincon, 2008). While it is nearly impossible to predict the actual number of undocumented immigrants, it is estimated that approximately 12 million people are undocumented (Rincon, 2008). Therefore it is estimated that, “one out of every twenty workers is undocumented” (Rincon, 2008). These workers contribute to society by paying sales tax and payroll tax, all of which help fund education. Money is often taken from their paychecks for social security and undocumented workers are increasingly paying property taxes and are not able to reap the benefits of these taxes (Olivas, 2009; Rincon, 2008). Perhaps one of the more important benefits is access to education. The children of undocumented workers are allowed to attend primary and secondary school, but not necessarily attend institutions of higher education (Olivas, 2009).

In the 1982 Supreme Court case *Plyer v. Doe*, the United States Supreme Court ruled that the children of undocumented workers could attend public schools at no charge (Olivas, 2009). In fact, schools are not allowed to inquire about the immigration status of a student (Rincon, 2008). The Supreme Court noted, “the children of undocumented parents should be taken as future members of society and granted benefits befitting such a status” (Perry, 2006, p. 2). However, because of later legal restrictions, this right has not been extended to higher education.

In 1996, Congress passed the Illegal Immigrant Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act (IIRIR) and the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA) in an effort to control the United State’s borders (Perry, 2006; Olivas, 2008). According to Perry (2006), this act has been conceptualized to mean undocumented immigrants are not citizens and are not recognized as residents. Therefore, the children of undocumented workers are not recognized as residents for tuition purposes and are denied access to financial aid in most states (Olivas, 2009; Perry, 2006). Due to the IIRIR, the states now determine residency and access to financial aid. Since 2001, some states have been making changes to allow undocumented students to attend college at an in-state tuition rate and to apply for certain forms of federal financial aid (Rincon, 2008). Texas was the first to pass legislation, followed by California, Utah, New York and other states (Rincon, 2008). Currently, there are ten states providing higher education opportunities for the children of undocumented workers (Olivas, 2009; Rincon, 2008). The issue has gained national attention as states enact decisive legislation regarding how colleges and universities assist undocumented students. The Dream Act is a piece of federal legislation that could dramatically impact access to higher education for undocumented students.

The DREAM Act, first introduced in 2001, is similar to state legislation passed in Texas and California. The legislation would allow “alien minors” (Olivas, 2009, p. 408) to start on the path toward permanent residency, citizenship, and eligibility for federal financial aid. This legislation is currently pending in the U. S. Congress, and is considered by some to be much more generous than the legislation previously passed by many states (Olivas, 2009). The Dream

Act would benefit students who meet the following three criteria: “they must have been in the United States more than five years, they must have entered the country at age 15 or younger, and they are able to demonstrate good moral character with no criminal record” (Dervarics, 2008; Rincon, 2008). If these criteria are met, the student is able to apply for conditional citizenship status allowing them residency status. With this status, the student would have up to six years to attend and graduate from a post-secondary institution. This includes community colleges, universities, or service in the U.S. military for two years (Dervarics, 2008; Rincon, 2008). At the conclusion of their experience or six-year period, those who meet the requirements would be granted citizenship (Rincon, 2008). With this legislation pending, it is important for student affairs professionals to be prepared for a potential new influx of students.

Some states are taking action in a different direction. In Georgia, Senate Bill 529 was passed July 1, 2007, stating as of 2008, no undocumented students are allowed to declare residency (Johnson & Janosik, 2008; Olivas, 2009). In Missouri and Virginia, bills have been introduced to ban all undocumented students from public institutions (Olivas, 2009). In 2008, South Carolina and Alabama enacted statutes barring undocumented students from attending state institutions (Olivas, 2009). Finally, Arizona has passed Proposition 300, causing nearly 5,000 students to be removed from resident status (Olivas, 2009).

In addition to legislation, there are other fears and concerns associated with immigration. Some pundits believe that illegal immigrants drain nearly \$45 billion a year in national resources (Johnson & Janosik, 2008). It has been said, “their presence mocks our laws, drains our economy, raises taxes, increases crime, lowers wages, and takes jobs from legal residents” (Kavanagh & Lancaster, 2008, p. 46). Arguments such as these have prevented the Dream Act from passing through Congress in previous years.

### **Trends in Higher Education**

The current reality for undocumented students does not involve an abundance of success stories or the creation of new policies to help guide undocumented students through the higher education system. For now, the story of undocumented students is one of a lack of resources and support systems. The following section explores the trend of increasing numbers of undocumented students seeking college degrees and the few resources and programs that have been developed to guide undocumented students in their journey through higher education.

#### **Increasing Numbers of Undocumented Students**

It is estimated that approximately 65,000 undocumented students graduate from high school each year (Hermes, 2008). Neeraj Kaushal (2008) conducted a study to determine the effects of offering in-state tuition to undocumented students in terms of attainment and enrollment. Kaushal developed methods and criteria to discover the impact seen by the state legislation already enacted throughout the United States. The study reported a 2.5 percentage point (31%) increase in college enrollment, a 3.7 percentage point (37%) increase in the proportion with at least some college education, and a 1.3 percentage point (33%) increase in the proportion of Mexican young adults with a college degree, most of whom were believed to be undocumented (Kaushal, 2008). Furthermore, “the impact of the policy appears to be larger on persons who were potentially exposed to the policy for a longer period of time” (Kaushal, 2008, p. 783). The longer an individual is exposed to the policy the more likely they are to further their education. In addition, Kaushal (2008) did not find any evidence that natives or current citizens were affected adversely by the policy.

## Support Systems for Undocumented Students

In 1986, Michael Olivas published an article about African American and Hispanic access to financial aid and the information inequality in seeking or achieving admission to higher education. Olivas discussed how it was difficult for minority groups in 1986 to navigate the system of higher education. This problem continues today, even with current legislative changes.

Student affairs professionals are in a strong position to play an important role in supporting undocumented students and their transitions to higher education. Their support will influence retention and academic success (Johnson & Janosik, 2008). Some support systems have been developed, but there is room for improvement. For example, Rincon (2008) reported when the laws were initially passed in California there was no money for a statewide educational campaign, and undocumented students were charged out-of-state fees by college administrative staff, one of the areas the state legislation was supposed to have changed.

In addition to physical and tangible supports there are many emotional concerns surrounding undocumented students. According to Dozier (1993) undocumented students have an ongoing fear of deportation. She reports, “[f]ear of deportation appears to be the overwhelming emotion that many of these students are experiencing. This issue appears to be so central to these students that it influences their decision making in almost every aspect of their lives” (Dozier, 1993, p. 3). Dozier describes it as a quiet desperation that affects a student’s health and finances. It may lead to depression, homesickness, and social and emotional loneliness.

## Community Colleges

Many undocumented students attend community colleges which are less expensive and typically do not inquire regarding immigration status (Hermes, 2008). In fact, community colleges have been characterized as, “open admissions institutions that educate a greater majority of underrepresented student population” (Jauregui, Slate, & Brown, 2008). Studies by Jauregui, Slate, and Brown (2008) have found that community colleges attract racially diverse students because of price, location, and remedial education programs. They have also proven that enrollment is increasing for undocumented students in Texas community colleges due to this legislation.

Texas has reported that at community colleges, undocumented students have different experiences than their legal resident student counterparts (Jauregui et al., 2008). Jauregui et al. (2008) report that many students struggle with their cultural identity and acceptance of American culture and society. This creates many problems and conflicts when attempting to navigate the education system (Jauregui et al., 2008). For example, they are fearful of deportation, are experiencing loneliness, and sometimes depression. Furthermore, there are concerns that these students, “having experienced the throes of psychological and emotional distress, may be less apt to seek out college services or may look to establish close relationships with those faculty and staff they can trust with their situation” (Jauregui et al., 2008, p. 347). Student affairs professionals should be aware of these additional problems in order to better understand undocumented students.

## Financial Aid

As a general rule, undocumented workers pay taxes and file tax returns; however, they are ineligible for federal financial aid in all states and territories (Olivas, 2009; Rincon, 2008). Furthermore, scholarship forms often ask about citizenship status, thus making undocumented students ineligible (Strong & Meiners, 2007). Since undocumented workers and families are paying taxes, many argue that their children should be eligible for federal financial aid.

Additionally, financial aid forms are technical and often hard to understand (Olivas, 2009). Furthermore, Olivas (2009) believes it is common for families to be unwilling to share confidential information that would assist their children with these forms, which could negatively affect the amount of aid the student is able to receive. Factoring in these elements, there are a number of barriers to financial aid for undocumented students and families.

States have made very few efforts to help students and families navigate the process. However, Texas and New Mexico have developed special forms to help undocumented students apply for admissions and financial aid (Olivas, 2009). In Texas, it is referred to as the Texas Application for Student Financial Aid (TASFA). This form decreases fears of deportation, and allows students to apply for aid (Rincon, 2008). However, more needs to be done. Navigating the system for undocumented students is a tremendous challenge. “The interactions among financial aid regulation, statutory immigration terms, and Internal Revenue Code provisions are not clear, and the exact same terms mean different things under the three different legal regimes” (Olivas, 2009, p. 413). Few resources have been developed to help students navigate these complicated forms.

The College Access Network Center for Higher Education Policy Network in Southern California created *The College and Financial Aid Guide* in 2006 to help undocumented students. Oftentimes, as in the case of this document, advocacy networks outside the institutions are helping undocumented students (Rincon, 2008). *The College and Financial Aid Guide* (2006) is a guide specific to undocumented students in California. The guide outlines laws, history, legislation, definitions, resources, applying for scholarships, timelines for applying to college, information about California admissions policies, and how to troubleshoot various situations. *The College and Financial Aid Guide* is comprehensive and explains how an undocumented student should go about finding work after graduation.

### **Recommendations**

Johnson and Janosik (2008) study the institutional policies around the legislation. They predict that should the Dream Act pass, “university officials can anticipate the effects of a lack of clearly defined policies on all levels of the university” (Johnson & Janosik, 2008, p. 33). As mentioned earlier, an undocumented student was charged out-of-state fees after the California legislation was passed. Johnson and Janosik (2008) are particularly concerned about registrar offices, which will enforce residency laws, financial aid offers, as well as admissions offers. They recommend that university officials adopt a risk management stance by, “taking measure to identify risk and to develop strategies prior to the onset of legal disputes” (Johnson & Janosik, 2008, p. 33). Furthermore, Jauregui, Slate, and Brown (2008) believe, “researchers have yet to examine holistically undocumented student enrollment within the state of Texas” (p. 33). Texas was the first state to pass this legislation and the true effects are still somewhat unknown.

There are many areas that need improvement in order to help the undocumented student transition to postsecondary education. Strong and Meiners (2007) discuss that in addition to the immigration status, undocumented students face the added stress of financial resources and psychological stress. Olivas recommends, “financial aid and admissions professionals should designate a staff member, preferably one who is bilingual in the appropriate language, in their campus office to review these issues and to provide technical assistance to the applicants and parents” (Olivas, 2009, p. 413). It will be important that admissions officials know the laws and can explain them to parents, students and families.

### Conclusion

It can be rather difficult for undocumented students to attain access to higher education, let alone complete a degree. According to research, however, the number of undocumented students attending post-secondary institutions is rising and will continue to increase (Kaushal, 2008). It is important that student affairs professionals are aware of the fears of undocumented students and the support systems (or lack thereof) inside and outside of higher education that can help these students attain their goals. There is more work to be done in order for undocumented students to take full advantage of the legislation and reach their full potential. Documents produced by outside advocacy groups, such as *The College and Financial Aid Guide*, are a start, but there is more work that needs to be done. These students came to America to fulfill the *American dream*, but the dreams will only become reality with the Dream Act. Let us give them a chance to dream.

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## The Curriculum at Higher Education Institutions Is Turning Green

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### Abstract

*This article examines sustainability in higher education as a recent trend. Sustainability is defined as practices or behaviors that do not jeopardize the well-being of future generations. Many higher education institutions have been integrating sustainable practices in their daily functions (e.g. recycling programs). Specifically, there is a growing trend to incorporate education for sustainable development into the curriculum. This article identifies the barriers to implementing education for sustainable development, as well as suggestions for sustaining this growing trend. This article also highlights institutions of higher education that currently implement educational programs about sustainability. Implications for student affairs professionals and future studies conclude the article.*

*Keywords:* curriculum, education for sustainable development, sustainability

Methods of sustainability can be seen throughout the world. *Sustainability* is defined as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Pitt & Lubben, 2009, p. 168). Sustainability can also be thought of as practices or behaviors that do not jeopardize the well-being of future generations. Across the country, people are thinking of ways to promote sustainable practices and reduce their negative environmental impact. Businesses are greening their practices, the government is offering incentives to corporations, and universities are greening their campuses (Galbraith, 2009; Le Beau, 2008). Many people are going green. To keep up with the times, schools looking to fill the demands of industry are developing and implementing curriculum addressing the green movement. A number of schools have been teaching or incorporating ideas revolving around sustainability for over a decade, but the big push toward sustainability in education has only recently found firm ground in higher education institutions.

Sustainability can be broken down into three interdependent categories: environmental, social, and economic (Pitt & Lubben, 2009). Environmental sustainability is reflected when people take shorter showers, install energy-efficient light bulbs, and bike to work instead of driving. People can practice sustainability when they lessen their use of non-renewable resources like water and fossil fuels, and decrease their negative impact on the environment. Socially, sustainable practices include making clean drinking water, healthy foods, and viable living conditions available for all people. Economically, people can support sustainability by purchasing food from nearby farms instead of buying fruit or vegetables shipped from hundreds of miles away. Ultimately, sustainability can be found in all aspects of living (Alexander & Fisher, 2009).

This article explores the recent phenomenon of sustainability in higher education curricula and reviews how sustainability is being taught in varying levels of education across the United States (U.S.). The article then reviews the process of implementing *education for sustainable development* (Harpe & Thomas, 2009; Jones, Trier, & Richards, 2008; Kawaga, 2007) into curricula by examining barriers affecting such changes. Education for sustainable development is the recent trend to integrate lessons about sustainability into college and university courses.

Methods suggested to effectively implement education for sustainable development are examined and several curriculum examples are highlighted. The article also emphasizes the significance of sustainability as a trend in higher education by reviewing key implications that may affect student affairs administrators and professionals. Finally, this article addresses the need for continued education on sustainability for life after college, and concludes with a discussion on recommendations for future studies concerning sustainability.

### **Education for Sustainable Development as a Trend**

Many college students have been able to see their campuses make efforts to become more environmentally friendly by implementing recycling programs, retrofitting buildings, and incorporating other, more energy-efficient practices. Campus leaders can provide a working example of sustainable living for students by incorporating environmentally conscious practices into various facets of the institution. Higher education institutions have been greening their campuses in many ways, but only recently have schools placed more emphasis on integrating sustainable concepts into the curriculum (Harpe & Thomas, 2009; Junyent & Geli de Ciurana, 2008; Tilbury & Wortman, 2008).

When implementing education for sustainable development in the curriculum, several barriers need to be addressed. The first barrier is the mindset of the faculty. Each department needs to change the way they think about sustainability. Higher education institutions must adopt sustainability as a mindset (Pitt & Lubben, 2009) in order to effectively implement sustainability into the curriculum. Junyent and Geli de Ciurana (2008) suggest that schools “raise environmental awareness of the community by creating dialogue between administrators, faculty, and students” (p. 765). Through discussion, all members of a higher education institution will be able to come to a consensus on what the students would like to learn and how administrators and faculty can help facilitate these changes within the curriculum.

Harpe and Thomas (2009) suggest faculty members need to understand the need for changes in the curriculum, which leads to the second barrier: the reason for change in the curriculum. It is not that pedagogical approaches and practices need to change so much as the need to incorporate education for sustainability into the content of the curriculum (Jones et al., 2008). One faculty concern is that existing content will be cut out of courses to make room for lessons on sustainability (Jones et al., 2008). While this may be true, conversations should occur between faculty members, department heads, and administrators surrounding the need to evaluate courses on their ability to prepare students for the work force. Students should graduate from school prepared to meet the challenges of new careers. While it is important for students to gain background knowledge within their disciplines, it also is important for students to know how to apply the content to a larger context. Providing real-life examples, like decreasing energy consumption or building relationships with local cooperatives, could serve as one way to do this. Once faculty members understand the need for change within the curriculum, implementing education for sustainable development should develop more naturally.

The third barrier inhibiting the implementation of education for sustainable development into the curriculum is a lack of consensus of what sustainability is. Tilbury and Wortman (2008) write “understandings and interpretations of the term sustainability and the idea of learning sustainability vary widely across higher education” (p. 5). Gough and Scott (2001) express similar concern pertaining to the ideas of what education for sustainable development in the curriculum means. There seems to be discord on ideas of sustainability between faculty members and ways in which education about sustainability can be integrated into varying disciplines. Open dialogue between key stakeholders on campus could help clarify the meaning

of sustainability in higher education and address ways to prepare students to continue the conversation of sustainable living post-graduation.

Despite the barriers described, suggestions have been made to effectively incorporate education for sustainable development into the curriculum. One suggestion is to take a whole-university approach. Kawaga (2007) suggests targeting the curriculum, campus, community, and culture of the institution. By examining each component of the university, students will get exposure to sustainable practices on multiple levels of their learning. Academically, students will learn about sustainability in the classroom. Practically, students will observe sustainable practices occurring on or around campus. Socially, students will develop a sense of culture for sustainability and adopt a sustainable mindset or new outlook on how to live more sustainably.

Many schools across the U.S. have found ways to meet students' needs and desires for curriculum about sustainability by creating academic programs spanning all levels of higher education. Arizona State University is a large public institution that offers a doctoral degree in sustainability. Students enrolled in the program examine the concepts of sustainability, develop management strategies on the local and global level, and design policies to support sustainable development (Arizona State University, 2009). Northern Arizona University is a large public school that offers a Master's degree in a program called Master of Arts in Sustainable Communities. Upon enrollment, students take courses across many disciplines, including business, education, environmental science, political science, religion, and technology (Northern Arizona University, 2009). Students leave the program well-versed in how sustainable practices can be incorporated in many fields.

Baldwin-Wallace College is a small, private liberal arts school that offers a Bachelor's of Arts in Sustainability. This four-year degree is inter-disciplinary because it incorporates science, humanities, and business administration (Baldwin-Wallace College, 2009). Students are able to gain theoretical and practical experience with an internship component, capstone course, and professional guidance from a mentor who works in the field. The University of New Mexico is a large, public school that offers a minor in Sustainability Studies. Students pursuing this minor take courses that offer experiential, research, and service-learning opportunities that will enable them to design, implement, and critique programs around sustainable practices (University of New Mexico, 2009).

Green Mountain College is a small, four-year liberal arts school that offers Renewable Energy EcoDesign (REED) certification. The REED certificate prepares students to test for Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) certification by giving students hands-on practicum experience and discussing sustainability issues in the classroom (Green Mountain College, 2009). Students are able to supplement their major with the REED certification, enhancing their knowledge and experience about sustainability.

All of these programs are similar in that they provide opportunities to learn about sustainability and ways in which sustainable practices can be incorporated into the work force. Students are able to take theoretical concepts about sustainability into practical, real-world situations. Since sustainability in education is relatively new, many programs allow students to dictate their educational journey, spanning many fields. The importance of sustainability in the curriculum has implications for student affairs professionals.

### **Implications for Student Affairs Professionals**

Professionals at all levels of a higher education institution must recognize the need to practice sustainability. A holistic approach must be taken if a higher education institution expects to integrate sustainability throughout its institution (Jones et al., 2008). Like faculty, student affairs

professionals need to adopt a mindset for sustainability. Not only should professionals adopt a new mode of thinking, but they should practice sustainability in their work as well. Student affairs professionals should act as models for sustainable practices. They can do so by turning off their computer monitors when they are not being used, recycling office paper, and biking or walking to work. Professionals can model sustainable practices they expect from students.

Sustainability is not an issue left solely for faculty members. Student affairs professionals need to participate in the larger dialogue that should be taking place between faculty members and administrators concerning education for sustainability. Their voices should be heard in administrative and faculty meetings because they can provide valuable insights about students with whom they work. Student affairs professionals can also offer their experiences from working with students by making suggestions about how students' learning can be supplemented outside the classroom.

Student affairs practitioners should aid faculty in educating students about sustainability. Preez and Mohr-Swart (2004) suggest taking an active approach to supplement students' education. Practitioners can work with faculty to help supplement students' education. Student affairs practitioners can expand on concepts taught in the classroom by having students conduct projects related to learned material. For example, students can coordinate service-learning projects that have little to no negative impact on the environment. Working with faculty members, student affairs practitioners can help supplement students' education.

Student affairs practitioners can also teach students alternative ways of being green. For example, at fraternity meetings, minutes are taken by a secretary. An alternative, green way of distributing the minutes to all the attendees would be to email the minutes to them instead of printing and passing out hard copies of the minutes. This method saves paper, ink, and time spent producing and distributing the copies.

Student affairs professionals need to take advantage of opportunities to present connections between education for sustainable development and employment (Jones et al., 2008). According to Le Beau (2008), in 2006, there were 5.3 million new jobs directly related to sustainability, and by 2020, there will be 6.9 million jobs related to sustainability. A report published by the United Nations Environment Programme confirms the projection that the number of jobs directly related to sustainability will continue to grow well into the future (Renner, Sweeney, & Kubit, 2008). Student affairs professionals need to help students prepare for a changing job market.

Professionals can help by holding workshops before career fairs which train students about the transferability of their educations on sustainability and skill sets into the job market. Students can participate in mock interviews answering questions they may hear from potential employers about sustainable development. Professionals can also encourage students to get their résumés critiqued and show them how to use appropriate verbiage that will highlight their knowledge and experiences pertaining to sustainability. Since more industries are looking for ways to incorporate sustainable practices into their work environments, students have many opportunities to showcase their knowledge and skills about sustainability. Students need to know how to market themselves to future employers, and student affairs professionals can help them prepare.

### **Recommendations**

Many articles have been published surrounding education for sustainable development outside the United States (Harpe & Thomas, 2009; Jones et al., 2008; Kawaga, 2007; Pitt & Lubben, 2009). Although there was good coverage of sustainable practices at American higher education institutions in newspapers and magazines, there appeared to be a lack of empirical

research done in the United States about how education for sustainable development is being integrated into the curriculum at the university level. More research should be conducted to examine how education for sustainable development is being implemented in higher education institutions.

Database searches showed a seemingly insufficient amount of research relating to empirical studies about education for sustainable development. A lack of information can result in gaps in knowledge about how to best implement strategies to incorporate education for sustainability into the curriculum. The methods used to search for information could be reason enough for a lack of results. Literature searches could be done differently, using alternative search techniques. For example, different search words could be used to be more inclusive of studies that may have not used terms like *education for sustainable development* in their publications.

Studies could also be conducted to identify best practices used by student affairs professionals to incorporate sustainable practices in their jobs. Research can be conducted to show if student affairs practitioners have supplemented students' learning experiences by holding workshops, seminars, and bringing in speakers related to sustainability. Finally, studies could be conducted to show if practitioners have presented students with opportunities to practice sustainability. More extensive research still needs to be conducted in order to provide a more holistic view of sustainability in higher education.

### **Conclusion**

Education for sustainable development is a trend present in many higher education institutions. This article explored the phenomenon of sustainability in higher education curricula and examined barriers hindering the implementation of education for sustainable development in the curriculum. It also discussed methods that could be taken by institutions to effectively implement education for sustainable development in the curriculum and reviewed significant implications for student affairs professionals. The article addressed the need for education for sustainable development as it pertains to the demands of the job market and concluded with a discussion on recommendations for future studies. Although education for sustainability has been in some education programs for over a decade, student affairs professionals should place more emphasis on educating students about sustainable practices, from doctoral programs to vocational training programs. Sustainability may affect all people and all places and will remain a pressing issue for what may very well be the rest of human existence (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2009). With a wide array of education options, students will be prepared to create a sustainable world for future generations.

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## New Friend Request: The Relationship between Web 2.0 and Higher Education

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### Abstract

*The use of Web 2.0 technologies is a growing trend in higher education. Research has shown that Web 2.0 technologies might be effective in engaging students in their educational experience and helping them feel more ownership for their learning process. This article reviews the current literature on the use of Web 2.0 technologies in both academic and student affairs. It also explores ways Web 2.0 technologies can be applied to divisions seeking to better connect with current and prospective students. It concludes with implications for the field as a whole and recommendations for future use of Web 2.0 at colleges and universities.*

*Keywords:* blog, course management, Facebook, student engagement, Web 2.0

Tweeting, podcasting, and tagging; whether newly invented words or existing words with tweaked meanings, new vocabulary has recently entered the public discourse. This new jargon represents a growing trend in technology and information sharing that is rapidly altering the way people view, share, and access information. It is especially pervasive on college campuses, which are filled with students who engage with and create these technologies. This phenomenon is known as Web 2.0.

Web 2.0 can be defined as a two-way exchange of information that relies on the active participation of its users (Thompson, 2007). Using Web 2.0, people become creators of knowledge and material instead of passive readers or consumers. This differs from the experience of Web 1.0, which was mostly a read-only format in which users interacted with websites much like they would with a book. Web 2.0 developed out of Web 1.0 around 2007 as the Internet became more technologically advanced and people became more familiar with its offerings. Web 2.0 is often considered a more open and accessible medium than Web 1.0 because engaging in Web 2.0 does not require any specific knowledge of computer programming or web design (Thompson, 2007).

This article addresses the usage of Web 2.0 in higher education. First, current trends in student Internet and social media use are described. A review of current usage of Web 2.0 both in and out of the classroom follows, with examples from leading schools in the field. The implications of Web 2.0 use on student life are then explored and possible future directions and recommendations are discussed.

### Literature Review

The user-created nature of Web 2.0 means its forms change rapidly. However, a few forms of Web 2.0 have proven their staying power. Two such examples are blogging and social networking websites. *Blogging*, short for web-logging, is a type of online publication similar to an online journal. In an educational context, blogs can be used to get feedback from instructors and peers, develop ideas before producing a final product, and think reflectively (Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008).

*Social networking* websites allow members to build community by sharing information about themselves through photos, videos, and text. Examples include Facebook, which had over 100 million registered users in 2008, and MySpace, which has most recently been used as a vehicle for music groups to promote their work (Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008). A review of the current literature about the use of Web 2.0 at colleges and universities demonstrates that students are interested in using social networking sites as more than a social platform; they also would like to use these tools to interact with their educational institutions (Joly, 2007; Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008; Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009; Thompson, 2007).

### **A Profile of Current Students**

Traditional students currently entering colleges and universities are typically considered digital natives, meaning they have spent their whole lives in an environment in which digital communication was expected (Thompson, 2007). They have also been dubbed “the Social-Networking Generation” (Joly, 2007, p. 71), due to their extensive participation in interactive Web 2.0 communities. Other statistics concerning students’ use of Web 2.0 suggest that they are frequently engaged in social networking activities. According to Schroeder and Greenbowe (2009), a Kansas State University (KSU) study found that the typical student reads eight books per year, and in the same time frame will view over 2,300 web pages and 1,281 Facebook profiles. Similarly, a 2007 survey indicated that students access their online profiles and friends’ profiles as much as they watched television (Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009).

Students are increasingly coming to college with the expectation that Web 2.0 technologies will and should be used to engage them in their educational experiences. One recent survey found that 68% of students surveyed prefer moderate or extensive use of information technology by their college or university faculty and staff (Thompson, 2007). The same enthusiasm can be seen in prospective students. When asked about specific types of Web 2.0 technologies, 72% of prospective university students stated that they would be interested in instant messaging with an admissions counselor, 64% were interested in reading blogs written by faculty members, and 63% were interested in reading online profiles or blogs written by current students at the institution (Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008). Clearly, many students would like faculty, staff, and students to use Web 2.0 technologies in order to better meet their needs.

### **Web 2.0 Use at Higher Education Institutions**

**Academic affairs.** Whether intentionally using the knowledge provided in student surveys or intuitively adopting popular trends, college and university faculty are turning to Web 2.0 in an attempt to better engage students in the educational process. These efforts are found at a wide variety of institutions and reflect the current trend of Web 2.0 use within higher education. In the realm of academic affairs, many professors and faculty members have begun to explore the possibility of using Web 2.0 technologies within curricula. Some faculty hope that it makes them more accessible to students or that it helps students with different learning styles to be successful (Li & Pitts, 2009; Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008; Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009). The following are some innovative uses currently found at colleges and universities.

In introductory chemistry classes at Iowa State University (ISU), the course management tool WebCT is frequently used as a way for students to gain more information and discuss concepts with one another. Faculty hoped this course management tool would become a virtual classroom and discussion forum for students (Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009). However, chemistry professors at ISU noticed a lack of participation on WebCT and wondered if a more student-friendly platform might encourage more discussion. A sample of students (N = 128) was selected to participate in classes that offered Facebook discussion groups moderated by an instructor in addition to the WebCT discussion platform (Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009).

A significant difference was found between WebCT and Facebook use. The Facebook discussion group had 400% more posts than WebCT, fellow students answered questions more frequently, and posts tended to display more complex patterns of communication and more detailed replies (Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009). The researchers surmised that this might have occurred because students were already on Facebook for personal reasons and they checked the group while doing so. In this case, Facebook was found to be an effective method of interaction for students (Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009).

Other researchers and faculty members have also been interested in the potential of using Facebook as a way to engage students, since it is a medium with which many students are familiar and comfortable. For instance, a southeastern public university investigated the use of Facebook's chat feature as a form of virtual office hours. Both traditional and non-traditional students participated in the study, which found that students were more satisfied with the office hours of professors who offered virtual office hours via Facebook chat than with professors who only offered traditional face-to-face office hours (Li & Pitts, 2009). Again, support is seen for the use of interactive, Web 2.0-based technologies in the classroom.

Facebook is not the only Web 2.0 medium used by academic affairs staff and faculty to engage their students. The staff of the library at the University of Minnesota originally developed UThink, a blogging platform, as a way to solicit student opinions on library usage (Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008). Eventually, it developed into a way to supplement classroom learning, and is frequently used by instructors in the arts and humanities departments (Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008). Student blogging at the University of Minnesota has anecdotally been found most effective when both instructors and students share the responsibility of managing and editing the blog (Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008). Students seem to be more engaged in their learning and display more reflective thinking and writing when they and their instructors interact in the blogosphere (Nackerud & Scaletta, 2008). Overall, it seems the use of Web 2.0 in academic affairs has positively benefited the students who participate.

**Student affairs.** Student affairs professionals' attitudes toward Web 2.0 have been called into question because of the amount of time many spend reacting to inappropriate uses of technology (Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008). For instance, many student affairs professionals have become concerned about students' and staff members' portrayals of themselves on social networking sites (Read, 2007). While it is important to maintain a professional image on the Internet, focusing large amounts of time and energy reacting to these poor choices might be short-changing students. Perhaps time would be better spent developing new ways to capitalize on the opportunities Web 2.0 affords colleges and universities. Fortunately, many student affairs practitioners have taken this approach and are experimenting with Web 2.0, using it in inventive ways (Joly, 2009; Thompson, 2007; Villano & Gullen, 2009).

At some colleges and universities, Web 2.0 is used to offer students more control over their experiences in on-campus student housing. For instance, students at Tulane University and the University of Arizona can choose to use RoommateClick, a social network that allows students to post profiles and find prospective roommates (Villano & Gullen, 2009). Of the 1,600 incoming freshman at Tulane, 40% used this service in the 2008-2009 school year. Housing officials at the University of Arizona found that students who requested to live together were much more likely to attempt to resolve roommate conflict on their own than to feel it was the university's responsibility to help mediate the problem (Villano & Gullen, 2009).

Other institutions like Marywood University, Purdue University, and Berkeley College are using Web 2.0 methods to create more interactive dining experiences for their students (Thompson, 2007). At kiosks in the dining halls, students can check nutritional facts, find

out their meal plan balances, and see menus for upcoming meals and various dining halls. In addition, these schools have developed an application that allows students to create nutritional charts based upon their food intake throughout the day. At these schools, Web 2.0 allows students the instant and interactive feedback their generation tends to expect (Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008).

Many higher education institutions use Web 2.0 as a way to market their services to students. For example, admissions representatives from Buffalo State College are available to chat with potential students via Instant Messenger, and these prospective students can subscribe to new information via the school's Really Simple Syndication (RSS) feed (Thompson, 2007). For these prospective students, Buffalo State College's commitment to staying abreast of developments in technology and providing students the most up-to-date information may be a huge selling point.

Divisions of Student Affairs at Middlebury College, Mars Hill College, Ithaca College, and the University of Florida have all used Facebook groups and/or pages to market their brand (Joly, 2007; Villano & Gullon, 2009). At the Middlebury College student bookstore, marketing on its Facebook page has led to a 327% increase in sales (Villano & Gullon, 2009). Graduate programs at the University of Florida are promoted through a Facebook group in which current students and faculty answer questions from prospective students. The university set goals to gain additional applicants, which have been met since this method has been employed (Joly, 2007). It seems that Web 2.0 platforms, especially Facebook, are effective marketing tools, particularly for the current generation of traditionally aged college and university students. Though less quantitative research has been done on Web 2.0 use in student affairs, it seems students are receptive to its use.

### **Implications**

The success of Web 2.0 use in higher education to date has widespread implications for faculty, staff, and the students. Two of the largest benefits students can reap from participating in learning environments supplemented by Web 2.0 are greater access to resources and increased new media literacy. With more access and engagement between students and faculty and better preparedness for the workforce, the face of higher education could change enormously.

Many students have responded favorably to the use of Web 2.0 on college and university campuses (Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008; Thompson, 2007). Using Web 2.0, faculty and staff can interact with and adapt to the changing needs and preferences of incoming generations of students. Researchers believe using Web 2.0 technologies will open up modes of discourse to students who may not be comfortable participating in traditional methods of classroom dialogue and instruction (Eijkman, 2009). Whereas Web 1.0 tends to mirror the standard instructional style of the instructor as the expert, Web 2.0 places emphasis on the students' ability to co-create their own knowledge "based on open communication, a decentralization of authority, and a freedom to share and reuse content" (Eijkman, 2009, p. 248). For some students, traditional styles of teaching and learning may not create an optimal learning environment. Allowing these students to experiment with new styles of expression that vary from standard methods may encourage them to participate and engage in their learning more fully.

Web 2.0 is not just a phenomenon within the academy. Practice with Web 2.0 platforms while at a college or university allows students to develop skills that will be useful to them in the workforce. In the quickly changing world of today's technology, perhaps "being literate in a real-world sense means being able to read and write using the media forms of the day, whatever they may be" (Ohler, 2009, p. 30). Web 2.0 may well be called today's media form,

and students who are technologically literate with Web 2.0 skills and experience may have an advantage when searching for post-graduation employment opportunities. Colleges and universities should actively create opportunities for their students to practice these skills and prepare for the working world.

An outstanding example of this type of preparation is currently in place in the secondary education master's program at the University of Alaska Southeast. There, students are required to develop *blogfolios*, personal websites that serve as an electronic portfolio documenting their work throughout the program (Ohler, 2009). Not only does this serve as an educational opportunity with respect to Web 2.0, but it also creates a product that can be of use when students begin looking for jobs in the field. Students from the University of Alaska Southeast can include a link to their blogfolio on their resumes or curriculum vitae, and prospective employers can see credentials as well as their ability to develop engaging Web 2.0 platforms.

Practice using blogs, social networking sites, and other Web 2.0 platforms can help students prepare themselves for a workforce that value these types of communication skills. This, in turn, can help a higher education institution prepare its students for success in their future careers. Combining communication methods that students expect and desire, guided development of real-world skills, and opportunities for students with different learning styles, the use of Web 2.0 at higher education institutions provides today's students with unprecedented benefits before entering the real world (Eijkman, 2009; Joly, 2007; Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008; Ohler, 2009; Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009; Thompson, 2007).

### Recommendations

The use of Web 2.0 in higher education can lead to many benefits for students, staff, and faculty. To fully support these conclusions, however, Web 2.0 platforms must be implemented on a wider scale and better researched. Many colleges and universities are still trying to navigate what the process of joining Web 2.0 will look like for them (Joly, 2007; Young, 2009). It will be particularly important for future research to consider non-traditional student populations and what their needs will be in conjunction with technology and information sharing.

Though claims have been made that Web 2.0 supports the access of students whose voices are not typically heard within higher education, it remains to be seen if Web 2.0 and other digital methods of communication will fully welcome the perspectives of these students. There is fear that for some students, Web 2.0 might set up further obstacles to classroom participation and learning (Eijkman, 2009). Non-traditional students, especially older students who are not digital natives (but rather, *digital immigrants*), may feel excluded from the learning environment by technology that is difficult for them to navigate. In addition, disparities in socioeconomic status may play a role in the lack of access some students may have to Web 2.0 technologies. If students do not own a computer or have home access to the Internet, they may be at a distinct disadvantage. More research must be done on these populations to determine how Web 2.0 can best be used for all students to get the most out of their educational experience.

Current research shows that use of Web 2.0 technologies engages students and provides them with a more accommodating experience (Joly, 2007; Junco & Cole-Avent, 2008; Li & Pitts, 2009; Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009; Thompson, 2007). No matter what platform is chosen, higher education institutions have much to gain from adopting the use of Web 2.0 in academic and student affairs. Colleges and universities should develop Web 2.0 strategies that suit the institution and implement them quickly in order to provide students the contact they expect and desire. There is huge potential for growth in the relationship of Web 2.0 and student affairs in functional areas as diverse as orientation, health services, career services, and

residence life. Student affairs professionals need to be creative and seek out student opinions to begin building cutting-edge Web 2.0 communities that will engage their current students and attract more prospective students to their institution.

### **Conclusion**

This article presented current trends in the use of Web 2.0 in higher education. A review of current use of Web 2.0 in student and academic affairs demonstrated that faculty and staff have a variety of new opportunities to interact with students. Exploring the potential implications of Web 2.0 use, it is clear that students can benefit from the use of this kind of technology, and faculty and staff should embrace this opportunity. Clearly, web-based technologies are quickly changing, and it remains to be seen if faculty and staff in academic and student affairs will continue using methods like Facebook or create innovative platforms that benefit students of all ages and backgrounds. For the time being, one thing is certain: students can benefit from being co-creators of knowledge, discourse, and learning, and Web 2.0 is one powerful way to engage them in this process.

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## College Senior Transition Programs: Transitioning from College to the Workplace

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### Abstract

*The recent trend of senior transition programs was examined to find effective ways to support seniors in the transition from college to work. These programs were a result of the complaints of employers and recent graduates that students were inadequately prepared to succeed in a work environment after college. Over the years, transition programs have taken on many forms, including senior capstone classes, workshops, and conferences. Skills addressed in transition programs include: work skills, personal life skills, and emotional skills to deal with the changes associated with transition. Although career services runs many transition programs, all student affairs professionals can work together in a collaboration of academic affairs with student affairs to help college seniors with their transition to the work place. Senior transition programs can benefit students, employers, and the institution itself by building credibility for the university's care of students' well-being after college.*

*Keywords:* career services, seniors, student affairs, transition programs

At this point in time, students and employers are unhappy with the preparation for recent graduates' transition into the workplace (Wood, 2004). Over half of recent graduates leave their first job within two years (Gardner & Lambert, 1993; Holton, 1998). Furthermore, studies show a direct correlation with new employees' adjustment and the turnover rate in companies (Holton, 1998; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2004). For recent college graduates to be satisfied in their new jobs, they need to have the skills to make a successful transition. Therefore, colleges and universities are starting transition programs to help college graduates be more prepared when they enter the workplace. Although the actual execution of transition programs falls mainly with academic departments and offices such as career services that specifically help seniors with the career process, all student affairs professionals can help aid in providing a smooth and successful transition for college seniors by being cognizant of the skills graduates need, and intentionally nurturing those skills in the programs they create.

One main reason students attend college is to further their careers (Holton, 1998; Wood, 2004) and therefore, it is important for student affairs staff and faculty to be concerned with how graduates transition into the work force. Holton expressed, "the academic model must be extended to encompass - as a central part of the institution's mission - providing the full range of skills necessary for the transition to work and early career success" (1998, p. 115). In order to support graduates through their sometimes difficult transitions, colleges and universities have recently begun implementing senior transition programs. These programs come in many forms including senior seminars and capstones, a variety of programs, and celebratory events for seniors. Programs can include optional workshops, retreats, conferences, or lecture series that are sponsored by student affairs offices such as career services or alumni services.

This article first addresses current literature about senior transition programs. It reviews the literature on the need for transition programs because of a lack of work skills, life skills, and

false expectations about the workplace. Next, it covers origins, goals, and various types of current transition programs. Then the article includes an evaluation of the implications of senior transition programs and how students, employers, and institutions benefit from these programs. Lastly, further considerations are given for the improvement of senior transition programs in the future.

## Literature Review

### Need for Transition Programs

Students are not learning the skills necessary for the working world by merely sitting in class (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008; Wood, 2004). Therefore, transition programs aid students in understanding what skills they still need to refine. *Learning Reconsidered* emphasizes that student affairs has a role in helping students gain the skills that may not be taught in the classroom to provide holistic learning (Keeling, 2004). Therefore, student affairs professionals can help refine skills such as teamwork, communication, leadership, and initiative with students in events, workshops, retreats, or lecture series that they coordinate (Henscheid, 2008). If student affairs professionals can infuse these skills throughout students' years in college, the transition may be less difficult.

The transition from college to work is different than previous transitions because it shifts the very fundamentals of purpose from being a consumer (of education) to being a producer. Students, who have typically been the primary focus in their school for 18 years are suddenly thrown into a context where information has become the focus, leaving them to generate information instead of simply soaking it in (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). Employers have different expectations than professors, and graduating students need help with this process of change.

Employers continually see a lack of skills in their recent college graduate employees (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008; Wood, 2004). The main skills reported missing are communication (both written and verbal), time management, problem-solving, flexibility/adaptability, teamwork, and initiative (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008; Wood, 2004). Also, many life skills are missing in some recent graduates. These young adults must learn how to do many things for the first time, such as manage a budget, choose insurance, and start a mortgage (Cuseo, 1998). Recent graduates may also be unfamiliar with how to interpret their human resource packages and may feel uncomfortable dealing with salary and benefits issues (Holton, 1998). These issues can be intimidating, and without a support system in place, graduates do not know how to access resources to answer their questions.

Another major need for transition programs is that many students are drastically undereducated in what to expect in their new work setting (Holton, 1998). Often, recent graduates expect to have constant feedback and structure with individual evaluations similar to what they received in college (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Other unexpected challenges include a change from flexible to rigid schedules, a loss of independence in work settings, and less personal support (Holton, 1998). All of these changes make it crucial to have a system to help educate graduates on the changes that will occur in their new environment. It was only a few decades ago that colleges and universities began to notice these challenges after employers and alumni came back and complained about how ill-prepared graduates were to begin work.

### Start of Senior Transition Programs

The first movement that recognized the benefit of senior transition programs occurred in the late 1980s (Wood, 2004). The National Resource Center at the University of South Carolina sponsored a conference for freshmen in transition in 1982. The organization later realized that

college seniors also undergo a transition from college to the workplace. This recognition was in part due to complaints from students and employers that the undergraduate experience had not fully prepared students for work (Wood, 2004). Employers offered feedback that outlined the skills missing from their recent graduate employees, which cued universities to give more attention to these skills (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998).

A conference called The Senior Year Experience was thus created by the National Resource Center, which brought together college educators from around the nation to dialogue about what seniors needed to make a healthy transition (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). The conference began to force colleges and universities to think about what they were doing to specifically help seniors. These educators came up with a list of questions about what a senior experience should be like, and goals of how to support seniors (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). From this conference, colleges and universities began to recognize what seniors needed and to make small changes to incorporate the goals they created at this conference into workshops, events, conferences.

### **Goals and Implementation of Transition Programs**

Cuseo (1998) identified several goals of senior transition programs, including developing competencies needed for the work place, aiding in adjustment and career preparation, promoting practical life planning, and following up with seniors in their unification with alumni. These goals can occur in any type of transition program, and can be addressed by both faculty and student affairs staff. Academic affairs and student affairs must come together to collaborate on many of these goals so that students have these skills instilled in them by graduation.

Developing competencies needed for the workplace occurs throughout the college career, and should be addressed in all college courses (Cuseo, 1998). Work skills will not be internalized in students unless the skills are incorporated into classroom settings, as well as workshops and events that student affairs professionals facilitate. Incorporating social learning by assigning group work should be prevalent in classes because it is most similar to a work environment. Many work environments have supervisors who are hands-off and expect employees to initiate projects and find answers on their own. Therefore, professors and student affairs professionals can aid in the process of self-directed learning by not having as much structure or specific guidelines, and allowing students to problem-solve and create their own structure in classes and programs (Holton, 1998). Built into the curriculum should be experiential learning opportunities, such as internships and practicum experiences, so students can learn hands-on what kind of situations they may encounter in work (Graham & McKenzie, 1995; Maistre & Pare, 2004; Smith, 1998). Holton stated, "Ideally, the curriculum should evolve so that students become comfortable in work environments by graduation" (1998, p. 110).

Student affairs professionals can help students gain skills employers are looking for that have not been fully developed in academic settings. Therefore, student affairs professionals should be aware of the skills that need to be refined so that all areas of student affairs can direct their programs towards helping students develop these skills needed for work. Student affairs professionals working within advising, career services, and alumni services are practical partners who can co-teach with faculty in capstones to provide different perspectives (Cuseo, 1998).

Aiding in adjustment issues and helping with career preparation is another primary goal of senior transition programs. This goal includes more holistic reflecting and goal-setting. In any setting of a transition program, the atmosphere must be conducive for exercises that allow students to reflect on who they are, where they have been, and where they want to go (Wood, 2004). It is important for students to have a safe place to process feelings and thoughts about

transition, including anxiety or struggles they anticipate (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Issues such as insecurity, how to work in diverse settings, and what it means to work for a boss are all examples of group discussions that can foster processing (Graham & McKenzie, 1995). Guest speakers, such as alumni and employers, can teach these classes or serve on career panels so students obtain accurate and relevant information (Cuseo, 1998). The University of Colorado at Boulder provides regular career panels for students to learn from the experts about what to expect in the work place (University of Colorado Career Services, 2010).

Senior transition programs are also used to address practical life planning skills. Learning how to buy a house, set a financial budget, prepare for future partner and parent relationships, and become a responsible and engaged community member are all skills expected from adults stepping into the work world (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). However, many undergraduates are unfamiliar with resources to help them learn these skills. A capstone class or a transition workshop can provide some of these fundamental life skills in a non-threatening environment (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008).

The last piece of transition programs is often forgotten, but it is vitally important. Transition programs should follow-up with graduates once they have started their new job and make sure they feel a part of the alumni body (Graham & McKenzie, 1995). Issues will arise in a job for which the graduates are not prepared. The recent graduates should have a place to ask questions, ask for advice, or talk about unexpected struggles. This follow-up may also involve employers. Student affairs professionals working within career services can remind employers of recent graduates' need for patience and guidance as they start out in a new job (Graham & McKenzie, 1995; Maistre & Pare, 2004).

### **Types of Transition Programs**

Just as there are many different goals of transition programs, there are many different types of transition programs identified by Henscheid (2008). These include senior seminar or capstone courses, programs that prepare students for their career, programs that provide an opportunity for students to make connections and apply their learned knowledge, and celebratory senior events. Although each of these types of programs have a different focus, they can all be used to help students reflect and learn about transition issues.

Traditionally, capstones, or senior seminars interchangeably, are a curriculum requirement that bridge the coursework of the entire college experience (Henscheid, 2008). There are many senior capstones that incorporate a practical final project in their field or include activities such as mock interviewing and career panels (Cuseo, 1998). For example, at the University of South Carolina, all journalism majors have a senior seminar where they produce a weekly newspaper, so that they are prepared for the real world of work in that profession (Cuseo, 1998). Although capstone classes would be ideal atmospheres for implementing transition issues, unfortunately some colleges do not have capstone classes, and of those institutions that do, some do not focus on any of the personal adjustment transition issues with the students in capstone classes (Henscheid, 2008). Student affairs professionals can help change this by collaborating with faculty members to co-teach capstone classes and bring in knowledge of the adjustment issues graduates face.

Programs that specifically focus on career issues have the advantage of discussing more of the practical and emotional issues around transitions. Typically career services or alumni services provide senior transition workshops, conferences, or events as a safe place to facilitate discussions to engage seniors in thinking through their transition. These events and programs are also an opportunity to inform graduates of what they need to know before they start applying for jobs. Minnesota State University Moorhead offers optional programs where

students can learn about workplace ethics, wellness, personal finances, etiquette, dressing for success, and leadership as part of the senior year experience (Henscheid, 2008).

Programs that provide opportunity for students to make connections and apply their knowledge do not necessarily have to be associated with senior transition programs. These programs could be a part of any student affairs office. For example, leadership programs on campus, student activities, or even student organizations could specifically aim to help students make connections with their academic knowledge. This aids in the transition process, because students are learning how to apply what they learn in classes to the non-academic world (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008).

The last type of transition programs are celebratory senior events, such as senior dinners or banquets and senior retreats. These events are primarily meant to celebrate the achievements seniors have made. However, they can also be used to help seniors process through their transition and hear some of the changes that are about to occur (Henscheid, 2008). At the University of Notre Dame, a senior retreat is provided as a celebration for seniors. The retreat is also an opportunity for students to reflect on their years at college and to discuss fears and anxieties about their future and how to overcome and deal with the issues in transitions (University of Notre Dame Office of Campus Ministry, 2007).

### **Implications of Senior Transition Programs**

#### **Satisfied Students and Alumni**

Senior transition programs can provide students with necessary skills to make a successful transition from college to work. Students achieve a well-rounded experience as they gain work skills in their classrooms, in internships, and through programs at the university. With a partnership between academic and student affairs for a unified goal of helping graduates transition into the work place, students see consistent goals and are able to implement and practice work skills in any campus setting.

When students feel confident in their skills and have knowledge to perform work tasks, they will most likely be more satisfied in their respective positions (Graham & McKenzie, 1995). Also, when employees are given tools in preparation for changing communities, making new friends, and successfully starting life on their own, there is more likelihood they will be happy in their new lives. The combination of these two things could result in content employees who choose to stay in their first job longer because they were prepared for the transition. Graham and McKenzie said that when the transition is handled well, “the staff turnover can be decreased, [as well as] the time taken to reach the desired level of performance” (1995, p. 5).

If students recognize their university cares about their well-being after college and they had a positive experience as a student, they could become more active alumni. Alumni are a valuable source of mentors, guest speakers, recruiters, and donors that aid the university for a lifetime. If alumni have positive things to tell others about the university’s care for students’ well-being after college, more students will be encouraged to attend. Alumni who have positive experiences with a senior transition program are more likely to pass on their knowledge and expertise in future senior transition programs (Cuseo, 1998). Also, they might be willing to speak positively about the university and recruit others, as well as provide generous fiscal support (Cuseo, 1998).

#### **Satisfied Employers**

Employers often choose to recruit from certain colleges and universities based on previous experience with employees. If certain universities or colleges continually produce highly skilled students ready to enter the workforce, employers will continue to recruit at those

schools. Employees who can easily adjust to the work culture are more likely to stay with a company, which saves employers money, time, and energy (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Time spent in training is also saved when employees come to a company with work skills such as communication, flexibility, and teamwork already acquired.

Universities rely partly on businesses as fiscal support for internships and scholarships (Cuseo, 1998). When businesses are pleased with the graduates they hire, employers will more likely offer funding to the university in these areas (Cuseo, 1998). Employer relations improve when businesses trust universities for educating their future hires.

### **Further Considerations**

The literature states that academic and student affairs must work together to ensure seniors have transferable work skills (Cuseo, 1998). Because some argue college is run more like a business than for the sole purpose of attaining knowledge, there could be some resistance to a vocational focus by faculty and staff (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). Yet, when asked the primary reason college students attend college, students answered, “to get a good job” (Wood, 2004, p. 71). Therefore, research must assess how the mission of a university can incorporate the development of work-related skills without losing the primary goal of “academic learning” (Holton, 1998, p. 96). Also, more research must be done to see if transition programs are addressing all of the issues graduates face in the workplace, or if there are skills that are still missing. It is not known which types of transition programs work best, so it is important to assess the outcomes of the different formats of transition programs.

Research about the transition from college to work has been highlighted much more than the transition from undergraduate to graduate school. Perhaps unique issues occur in the transition of seeking a higher degree that have not yet been revealed. This transition may require skills untouched by the senior transition programs in place, and therefore more research is needed to understand the needs of seniors furthering their education as well.

### **Conclusion**

Senior transition programs offer a solution to the increasing problem of students being unprepared for the work world after college. These programs can take many forms, including senior capstones, workshops, and conferences. They cover topics such as work skills, life skills, and processing through the transition process. The implications of senior transition programs include more satisfied students and employers who are willing to contribute to the university. Further research is needed to assess what other needs seniors have for their transition to the work place, and if there are better ways to implement senior transition programs. Although college seniors had been overlooked in their transition out of college in the past, the recent trend for senior transition programs is helping bridge the gap between college and career and is helping prepare graduates to be successful and confident in the work place.

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## Continuing the Support: Programs for Second-Year College Students

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### Abstract

*College students face unique challenges as they transition to their second year of college (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008). In their second year, students generally have to make significant decisions such as choosing a major and future career. While many services exist to support students through their first year of college, only recently have programs been developed to address the second year (Tobolowsky, 2008). Second-year programs address not only the academic needs of students, but also aid in increasing student involvement, developing community, and the creation of meaningful relationships (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009; Colorado State University, 2008; Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; National Resource Center, 2008; Tobolowsky, 2008). This article examines unique issues among second-year students, current initiatives for second-year programs, implications for student affairs, and recommendations for future implementation of second-year programs.*

*Keywords:* higher education, second-year programs, second-year students, transitions

On most university campuses, significant attention is given to first-year students transitioning into college life. Resources for first-year students, such as orientation and welcome programs, are readily available and accessible at many institutions. While the transition for first-year students in college is difficult, it is important to acknowledge that significant transitions occur for students throughout their college education, not just in their first year. Research often focuses on students in their first and last years of college, however little research has been conducted on students during their middle years (Tobolowsky, 2008). Recently, universities have begun reaching beyond the first year and have seen the value in providing programs specific to the needs of second-year students (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009; Colorado State University, 2008; Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; National Resource Center, 2008; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008). Second-year students have needs that are different from the needs of many first-year students. For example, second-year students are often challenged to develop future plans and aspirations such as choosing a major and exploring and solidifying career options (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008). Without the proper supports, second-year students may feel dissatisfaction, leading to poor academic performance (Graunke & Woosley, 2005). Because second-year students encounter issues different from those in their first year, it is important to develop programs specific to their needs. This article examines unique issues among second-year students, current initiatives for second-year programs, the implications for student affairs, and recommendations for future implementation of second-year programs.

### Issues Among Second Year Students

During the second year of college, most students face issues and make decisions that will significantly influence the rest of their college experience, as well as their lives after college

(Tobolowsky, 2008). For many students, this means exploring and committing to a future career, making decisions about declaring a major, and beginning to take classes specific to their major (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008). For students who are not ready to make these substantial decisions, such as students who have not narrowed a major, the second year can be especially difficult (Tobolowsky, 2008). A study conducted by Graunke and Woosley (2005) showed that dissatisfaction with their major and lack of quality interactions with faculty can lead to lowered grade point averages (GPA) among second-year students. Outside of the academic realm, second-year students confront challenges regarding the formation and dissolution of relationships (Schaller, 2005). Students in Schaller's study described the process of forming relationships as being easy in their first year because people were willing to make friends and, on residential campuses, lived in close proximity to one another. Many students in their second year described these early relationships as "superficial or harmful" (Schaller, 2005, p. 22) and struggled to form new and meaningful relationships.

Schaller (2005) developed a series of stages common to students in their middle years of college. These stages include: random exploration, focused exploration, tentative choices, and commitment. The first stage, random exploration, is characterized by a lack of self-reflection and a time of new experiences for students (Schaller, 2005). According to Schaller, many first-year students are in random exploration as they explore their new identities as college students. As students move into their second year, they experience focused exploration. Students in this stage spend a substantial amount of time in self-reflection (Schaller, 2005). In focused exploration, many second-year students discover career possibilities and gravitate towards specific majors or interests (Schaller, 2005). During their second year, students often move through focused exploration into tentative choices. In this stage, students use their self-reflective skills gained in focused exploration to make independent, responsible decisions about their future (Schaller, 2005). Schaller's final stage, commitment, is characterized by a student possessing clear plans for the future and working toward those plans. Few second-year students are in the commitment stage. As students self-reflect and narrow future interests and aspirations, they move into commitment.

### **Current Programs for Second-Year Students**

Programs for second-year students largely began at private colleges and universities (Tobolowsky, 2008). Beloit College and Colorado College are two of the leading institutions in second-year programming (Tobolowsky, 2008). While second-year programs offer a wide array of opportunities, many address the common needs of second-year students such as career and major exploration (National Resource Center, 2008).

### **Overall Attributes of Second-Year Programs**

In response to common issues that second-year students face, many second-year programs focus on academic and career services (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009; Colorado State University, 2008; Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; National Resource Center, 2008; Tobolowsky, 2008). According to a survey conducted by the National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience and Students in Transition (2008), the most common initiatives for schools with second-year programs include: career planning, leadership development, academic advising, class-related events, and online resources. Other opportunities include residence life, study abroad, and service-learning.

### **Programs for Second-Year Students at Specific Institutions**

**Beloit College.** Beloit College, in Wisconsin, was among the first universities to develop programs for second-year students (Tobolowsky, 2008). Beloit's Sophomore-Year Initiative focuses on creating a successful transition from the first to the second year. In addition, the

program seeks to develop a sense of community for second-year students (Beloit College, 2009). The Sophomore-Year Initiative also provides opportunities for second-year students to develop relationships among other students, faculty, and staff. Students also learn how to utilize campus resources. The program begins during the summer when families and students receive information about the sophomore slump, available resources on campus, and information about the Sophomore-Year Initiative (Beloit College, 2008). Once students return to campus, Beloit hosts a Welcome Back dinner, which not only reunites students with their First Year Experience seminar, but also introduces campus resources such as Career Services and the Office of International Education (Beloit College, 2009). Each fall, second-year students are invited to the Sophomore Retreat which aids in the creation of social connections and community building among students. In addition, the retreat offers Sophomore Activities, Opportunities, and Resources (SOAR) sessions which, as the name implies, includes information about resources and other support services on campus (Beloit College, 2009). In order to support their future planning, second year students participate in their own academic planning by completing My Academic Plan (MAP) (Beloit College, 2009). The MAP gives students a clear idea of their goals and a sense of direction as they complete their undergraduate program (Beloit College, 2009). By offering both social and academic support, Beloit's Sophomore-Year Initiative provides the opportunity for a successful transition for second-year students.

**Colorado College.** Like Beloit College, Colorado College is a leading institution in forming programs for second-year students (Tobolowsky, 2008). Colorado College's Sophomore Jump program (2009) includes extensive programming exclusively for sophomore students. Sophomore Jump highlights campus resources and encouraging community among second-year students. Programs for the students include career, major, and graduate school exploration, off-campus student information, a faculty-student dinner series, and service opportunities. Sophomore Jump also provides social events such as the Sophomore Luau, Sophomore Skate, and the Sophomore Odyssey Outdoor Exploration Trip (Colorado College, 2009). Students also have access to the Sophomore Connection, a publication providing information and resources specific to second-year students (Colorado College, 2009). The Sophomore Year website also includes links to assist in exploring majors, study abroad opportunities, and the career center. These resources are therefore highly visible and accessible to second-year students (Colorado College, 2009). The Sophomore Jump provides students with extensive resources especially focusing on career and major exploration, assisting students with these important decisions that they often face during their second year (Colorado College, 2009; Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008).

**Colorado State University.** According to Keith Lopez, Coordinator for First and Second Year Programs at Colorado State University (CSU), CSU has recently worked to develop programs to promote the success of second year students (K. Lopez, personal communication, September 15, 2009). CSU's program begins in the second semester of students' first year with Getting to Year 2 @ CSU. This is a conference-style program providing students with resources as they transition to their second year. This is a unique part of CSU's program that proactively addresses the needs and concerns of first-year students before their second year begins (K. Lopez, personal communication, September 15, 2009). Over the summer, students receive a brochure for the various programs being offered for second-year students (K. Lopez, personal communication, September 15, 2009). The year begins with Ram Welcome Back, a weekend of activities reorienting students with the campus, including an official welcome for second-year students (Colorado State University, 2008). CSU focuses on re-marketing existing programs to second-year students, such as the Involvement Expo and the Career Fair. CSU's website for

second-year students also provides information about involvement opportunities, career and major exploration, study abroad, and retreat opportunities (Colorado State University, 2008).

### **Implications for Student Affairs**

The addition of second-year programs at colleges and universities could have a wide array of implications for Student Affairs and student affairs professionals. Second-year programs vary among institutions. For example, Beloit College and Colorado College have added a large amount of new programs specifically targeted to second year students (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009). Other larger institutions may focus on marketing existing resources specifically to second year students, such as study abroad or leadership opportunities (National Resource Center, 2008).

Most research shows that second-year students need support in making decisions relating to their futures. These decisions include exploring and committing to a future career and making decisions about declaring a major (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; Schaller, 2005; Tobolowsky, 2008). Many existing programs for second-year students target major and career exploration (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009; Colorado State University, 2008; Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; National Resource Center, 2008; Tobolowsky, 2008). Professionals working in these functional areas of Student Affairs may experience increased demands in their programs and services with the implementation of second-year programs. Professionals in career services, major exploration, and academic advising may need to develop new approaches in order to support second-year students through their decision-making process. For example, Beloit College's Sophomore Retreat focuses a significant amount of time on major and career exploration, reaching a large number of second-year students (Beloit College, 2009). CSU also markets major-focused workshops and a career fair to second-year students (Colorado State University, 2008). Student affairs professionals in career and major exploration may experience changes in job expectations and programs with the implementation of second-year programming.

Implications vary as much as the programs offered when addressing the vast needs of second-year students. For example, universities implementing a second year of required on-campus living as part of their second year program would have to consider space, cost, and staffing. This would also include hiring and training staff specifically to support the needs of second-year students living on-campus. Schools offering social activities such as retreats would have to consider cost and accessibility of their events. For a smaller school, a retreat may be more feasible than working at a larger university with a class of 5,000 second-year students. For institutions offering programs to work with faculty, such as the programs at Beloit College and Colorado College, second-year programs may be an effective strategy of bridging academic and student affairs. Collaboration across campus offices will be important in the implementation of second-year programs as multiple offices may work together to meet the needs of second year students. Implications may vary depending on the specific programs implemented at colleges and universities for second-year students.

### **Recommendations**

Much of the literature on second-year programs recommends that when implementing these programs, institutions should collaborate across campus and expand existing programs (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006; K. Lopez, personal communication, September 15, 2009; National Resource Center, 2008; Tobolowsky, 2008). For example, CSU's Ram Welcome Back for second-year students builds upon a similar program for incoming first year students, but offers specific programs targeted at second-year students (Colorado State University, 2008). Study abroad, retreat opportunities, and service-learning opportunities are all resources that

most campuses offer. These programs could easily be adapted to fit the needs of second-year students, rather than creating entirely new programs (Gahagan & Hunter, 2006).

To meet the needs of second-year students who require extra support in decision-making about careers and majors (Tobolowsky, 2008), providing major and career exploration should be a significant part of second-year programs. Of institutions already offering second-year programs, over 70% offer support in either career, major, or academic advising (National Resource Center, 2008). Major and career exploration can occur individually, in small groups, or in large groups as long as students are able to fulfill their needs with future major and career decisions. In addition to meeting with students individually within academic advising or career counseling, colleges and universities may host group workshops or exploration days.

As universities expand on current services targeted toward second-year students, universities should work on creating a sense of community among second-year students. Some colleges and universities provide dinner series, retreats, and other social events to assist second year students in developing relationships within their peer group (Beloit College, 2009; Colorado College, 2009; Colorado State University, 2008; National Resource Center, 2008). Community building among second-year students can offer support, meaningful relationships, and a sense of belonging for these students.

### Conclusion

While many resources are offered to first-year students in their transition to college, significantly less research and programs are available to address the needs of second-year students (Tobolowsky, 2008). In their second year, students are expected to make decisions that significantly impact the rest of their college experience as well as their experience after college. Second-year students are often pressured to choose their major and career direction and begin taking classes in their major program (Tobolowsky, 2008). Second-year students may also desire involvement in campus activities as well as form new, meaningful relationships (Schaller, 2005).

Recently, colleges and universities have begun developing programs specifically addressing the needs of second-year students. While private institutions largely lead the field in the development of second-year programs (National Resource Center, 2008; Tobolowsky, 2008), a diverse pool of institutions are beginning to develop and build on existing programs. Many programs offer academic and career services for students. Others offer leadership opportunities, service-learning, and on-campus living (National Resource Center, 2008). With the development of new programs for second-year students, universities may experience collaboration and expansion among campus services. As colleges and universities begin to develop programs for second-year students, it is important to maintain these collaborative relationships and build upon existing programs to meet the needs of these students. Students face unique challenges within their second year of college. Second-year programs provide academic and social support for students to achieve success in their second year and beyond. Colleges and universities should continue to develop and implement second-year programs in order to address challenges and provide support for second-year students while creating a foundation for success throughout their college experience.

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## On-Campus Employment: A Form of Engagement?

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### Abstract

*A look at part time student employment as a form of student engagement, this article reviews the current research surrounding on-campus student-employment followed by a description of the methodology and research outcomes of the Student-Employee Quality of Work Life Survey. This survey aims to understand the beliefs, values, and attitudes of student-employees in one western university student center.*

*Keywords:* higher education, engagement, student employment, quality of work life

The percentage of college students engaged in full or part-time work in addition to school has been steadily increasing over the years; a recent study puts the rate at 68% (Pike, Kuh, & Massa-McKinley, 2008). The student affairs profession has long touted the benefits of learning outside the classroom and its effect on student development. Astin (1993) provides seminal research that shows students regularly engaged with their peers, the faculty, and staffs of an institution are more likely to graduate. In order to retain working students, colleges and universities must create ways to connect these students' experiences back to the institution and the students' learning goals. This article seeks to explore the following research questions: What are student-employees' attitudes surrounding the quality of their work life? Do student-employees find meaning in the work they do while in school? Can they identify and articulate the outcomes they are receiving from the work experience? Are they able to connect the skills they are currently developing to their long-term career goals?

The remainder of this article provides a review of the current literature, followed by a description of the methodology and research outcomes of the Student-Employee Quality of Work Life Survey. With supporting data related to these questions student affairs practitioners can develop an intentional employment program that would meet three goals: 1) allow student-employees to develop both personally and professionally, 2) provide improved services to the campus community, and 3) create a "sense of community" in the workplace similar to that established through more traditional student involvement objectives.

### Literature Review

The current research focuses on work's influence on four primary areas: 1) persistence, 2) academic achievement, 3) balance, and 4) institutional integration. Looking at the data from each of these outcomes allows a holistic review of the current research. Conspicuously missing from this literature review is any research focusing on work's influence on identity development, as well as any significant findings drawn from career choice and on-campus work choices. Clearly, much research is still needed.

### Persistence

Beeson and Wessel (2002) posit students working part-time on-campus will persist and graduate at a higher rate than students who do not work. Their longitudinal study followed freshmen students from 1991 throughout their college careers. The population consisted of 3,578 entering freshman with a subsequent division into two groups. Students who worked

on-campus were the first group, which included 477 students. The second group consisted of 3,101 students who did not work on-campus. The students in this second group may have worked off-campus. Data on the student's personal information, persistence, and employment status came from the university's databases. The findings from this study show that students who worked on-campus in their initial semester did persist and graduate at slightly higher rates than those students who did not work on-campus. However, the study did not take into consideration a myriad of other factors that could influence persistence and retention. Therefore, generalization of the data is not possible. Beeson and Wessel (2002) suggested future research to include these factors.

In 2004, Lundberg conducted a similar type of quantitative, longitudinal study taking some of the suggested variables into consideration. The goal of this research was to determine what impact employment had on involvement with peers, faculty, and learning outcomes. This study's findings mirror those of past research (Furr & Elling, 2000) in determining a negative relationship between students working off-campus and engagement with peers and faculty. However, working students appear to compensate for the reduced engagement in some way, which does not influence their learning outcomes. The study does not identify how this phenomenon occurs. Furr and Elling's (2000) study shows a direct correlation between the number of hours a student works and the increased negative impact on engagement.

### **Academic Achievement**

The ability of a working student to achieve high academic marks has been a major concern for higher education from the onset of this trend. Much research has shown a negative influence between work and grades (Austin, 1993; Fjortoft, 1995; Tinto, 1993). A recent study conducted by Pike, Kuh, and Massa-McKinley (2008), seeks to find the tipping point. Using data collected by the 2000 and 2004 National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), the researchers questioned whether the direct relationship between grades and work is dependent on working more or less than 20 hours per week and whether the work is on or off campus. According to Pike, Kuh and Massa-McKinley (as cited in NSSE 2000 & 2004), the NSSE findings indicate there is a direct correlation between working less than 20 hours per week on campus and higher self-reported grades for first-year students. These results are not surprising and provide solid data to support the ongoing efforts of institutions to provide part-time, on campus work experiences for students. However, all students are not equally prepared to work.

### **Balance**

The concern over job stress led to the creation of a survey tool that measures adult stress related to working conditions, job environments, and personal feelings toward work. In a study conducted by Hey, Calderon, and Seabert (2003), the Job Stress Measures for College Students (JSM-CS) was applied to a sample of 275 college students to understand the students' characteristics and factors affecting student life. Factors such as higher paying jobs, having a job unrelated to the academic major, and having a job off campus all lead to increased levels of stress for students. The resulting stress can lead to increased levels of exhaustion and significant interference with academic pursuits (Hey, Calderon, & Seabert, 2003). This is vital information for student affairs professionals to share with all constituents in an effort to recruit and retain students who will ultimately become a part of the institutional community and reach graduation.

### **Institutional Integration**

The key concept of a study conducted by Cheng and Alcantara (2007) is to understand the influence employment has on students' college experience. The methodology for this research

uses grounded theory, which begins with data collection – in this case, focus group discussions – and works toward a theory related to the data collected. The target population for this study was 1,001 respondents of an annual student survey who self-reported working while attending school. From this pool, researchers identified a random sample, which included 14 students. Findings fell into two broad categories: 1) student work experience, perceptions, and motivations, and 2) the impact of work on college life. Cheng and Alcantara learned that students worked an average of 13 hours per week. Students who worked in positions that offered meaningful experiences, related to their academic endeavors or to community development, noted this as insufficient time to make the desired level of contribution to the work environment. Students working in less challenging positions perceived their roles as a means to improve student life and mentioned the benefit of being able to study during slow times on the job. The participants stated motivations for work including: 1) income to meet monthly expenses, 2) on-the-job learning, 3) opportunities to interact with others in the context of employment, 4) improved opportunity for summer employment, 5) the possibility of permanent employment after graduation, and 6) an important supplement to their academic experiences.

Related to the impact of work on college life, researchers mentioned only one negative student comment; the hours of most jobs competed with course schedules (Cheng & Alcantara, 2007). Otherwise, students reported that the workload did not interfere with their academic performance and even helped to bring structure to their schedules and develop time management skills that surpassed their peers who did not work. Students noted that they often trade free time, sleep, or time socializing with friends in order to work.

Researchers recommend a partnership between career centers and the student affairs division to design student employment programs that are educationally purposeful, build on long-term career goals and support the community. Additionally, interactions between student employees and faculty members, which are primarily left to chance, could be planned with more purpose (Cheng & Alcantara, 2007). These outcomes, while helpful, seem elementary in their conclusion.

The purpose of this literature review was to compare existing studies with the hypothesis that on-campus student employment is beneficial and supports persistence. The wide availability of research on this subject prompts deeper research of the subject to examine if on-campus student employment opportunities can effectively replace other involvement activities in acclimating to college life. Questions surrounding the student-employees' perceptions of the quality of work life are a logical starting place to understand the subject. Do student-employees view part-time work as a building block to career development or simply as a means to an end? What types of relationships develop while on the job? Can college administrators design and implement a program of student employment that effectively promotes retention, engages students with peers, faculty and staff, and is cost effective?

## **Methodology**

### **Context & Activity Setting**

Student employment can take many forms and lead to the development of a myriad of skills. Within the student union for example, students are employed in offices, food service operations, custodial services, conference services, technical assistant, programming, and more. All of these roles could be connected to students' academic pursuits at this institution based on the diverse program offerings. For example, a student working in the food court could be enrolled in the Restaurant and Resort Management program, while a student in custodial services might be working toward a degree in Project Management.

This study was undertaken at a mountain west, land-grant university with a total student population of approximately 25,000. The population is primarily white, with 13.3% of domestic students identifying as persons of color. Women make up 52% of the total student population, and undergraduate students are the overwhelming majority at 83%. As a land-grant institution, one aspect of the mission is to provide educational opportunity for the citizenry of the state. This mission leads to an increase in diversity of the student population from all demographic areas including socioeconomic status (SES). Many of these students are required to work while attending school.

### **Participants**

The instrument was provided to approximately 3,000 students working in a variety of departments within the Division of Student Affairs. Student employees responded to the survey via the Internet during a three-week period of the spring semester of 2009. Employees at the student center were provided with computers and 30 minutes of work time in which to complete the survey. Students throughout the Division of Student Affairs provided responses (N = 534), 171 came from the student center.

The demographic information for these students mirrors that of the institution as a whole, with 65% reporting as female and 80.25% as white. Undergraduate students were represented by 96% of the respondents and 94% were between 18–25 years of age. The specific purpose of this research is to gather information regarding attitudes of students working in the student center; therefore, the outcomes will focus on those 171 responses only. The Division has planned to collect this data on a rotating schedule; therefore, some students may have the opportunity to provide feedback multiple times during employment.

### **Study Design**

An indirect assessment of self-reported experiences and attitudes is the most effective way to collect the needed data because it allows participants to share real experiences. During the interpretation phase, it is critical to keep in mind the diversity of roles within the student center; making a direct comparison is difficult. When the year-to-year data becomes available, it would be most appropriate for department heads to compare results from one year to the past. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data collected in this survey allows for a deeper understanding of respondents attitudes specific to the varying sections of the tool.

Results of indirect assessment tend to follow the 80, 15, 5 rule as explained by Dr. David McKelfresh (personal communication, February 19, 2009). This rule states that 80% of the findings will reinforce assumptions already held, but will now provide data to prove them; 15% of the results will be somewhat surprising and will help to refine thinking, and 5% of the results will influence long held beliefs. One major challenge in the design of this instrument was length, which in turn affects outcomes. For future versions, the number of questions will be limited as much as possible. The goal of this research is to challenge long held beliefs of supervisors and managers in the student center.

### **Researcher's Role**

The researcher comes into this project with a strong belief that student-employees do not appreciate or are not able to articulate the benefits they are earning by participating in part-time work while in school. This belief may have solidified in past employment. The researcher's background includes seven years of career services work within an institution of higher education. In this role, she worked closely with students employed in similar positions who were working toward degrees that were not in direct correlation to their jobs. Frequently, student-employees would comment about the "dead-end" nature of the position and a lack of opportunity to develop transferable skills.

In her previous role, the researcher worked directly with supervisors of student employees to provide initial orientation and professional development opportunities to student-employees. It is the impression of the researcher that supervisors in the student center undervalue these opportunities for student-employees. The reasons for this undervaluing could include the transitory nature of the employment relationship. Based on long standing beliefs and interactions with supervisors, the researcher believes that supervisors could better influence a student-employee's development through employment while in school.

### **Outcomes**

The Student-Employee Quality of Work Life Survey was available for all student-employees in the Division of Student Affairs from February 20 - March 13, 2009. The survey was administered online; computers and work time were made available to student employees in an effort to increase the number of participants. The total sample of respondents was 534. One hundred seventy one responses came from Student Center student-employees. The survey consisted of approximately 80 questions that student-employees were to rate on a 5-point scale. An additional 11 short-answer questions allow for comments on each of the following areas:

- School and Work Balance;
- Communication;
- Community Development;
- Respect and Fairness;
- Feedback Process;
- Departmental Change Involvement;
- Rewards and Recognition;
- Quality of Work and Productivity;
- Safety/Health and Work Environment;
- Customer/Student Relations; and
- Empowerment and Leadership.

Mean score was the primary tool utilized to evaluate the approximately 80 questions that were rated on the 5-point scale. A review of the findings includes analysis of the top and bottom 10 questions and analysis of those sections that meet the 15 and 5 percent influence mark. Tables 1 and 2 represent the top and bottom 10 questions respectively.

### **Top-10 & Bottom-10 Questions**

An analysis of the top 10 questions (questions with the highest mean score) reveals students working in the student center are connected to other students in the work environment and that their job tasks are connected to the department's goals. They take significant pride in their work and help other employees when work piles up. They care about their work units and co-workers and feel what is asked of them on the job is reasonable. They agree the student center's leadership believes in providing high-quality customer service. This data supports the idea that student employment may be another form of involvement on campus aiding in student retention (see Table 1).

A similar review of the bottom 10 questions (questions with the lowest mean score) shows that employees do not feel the pay they are receiving is fair, do not feel their current work relates to their long-term career goals, and do not believe they are developing skills that will benefit them later in life. Additionally, they do not feel included in change processes or encouraged by their supervisors to take on leadership roles. A review of the qualitative comments provided in the "empowerment and leadership" section support this data: "I don't feel like there is much room to grow in my job," "... this is a student job ... not something I plan on making

a career out of,” and “not many leadership opportunities.” However, some locations appear to be providing the type of experience that students are looking for as a career – “I think I am defiantly [*sic*] gaining real work experiences that apply to my long term goals... such as leadership and managerial experience” (see Table 2).

A comparison of the student center’s top and bottom 10 questions reveals employees in the student center are not unique in their feelings and attitudes; only one question differs between the student center and the division as a whole. This provides a reflection of organizational culture in addition to student employee attitudes. Unique to the student center’s top-10 list is a belief that job responsibilities are tied to departmental goals. On the bottom-10 list, students do not feel their supervisor encourages them in taking on leadership opportunities.

### **Empowerment/Leadership**

This section provides significant insight into the views of student-employees at the student center. In an environment where staff is focused on providing those types of opportunities for students, a first glance at the numbers is not reflective of that intention. As stated above, many comments support the notion that the objective is not being reached. On closer inspection the data reveal that the operations department’s mean scores bring down the overall mean for the student center.

Operations includes custodial and maintenance staff. It makes sense that due to the nature of this work, those employees would feel less empowered. However, if management believes that leadership can take place from any role within an organization, goals to increase leadership opportunities within the role can be developed. For instance, the implementation of a shift diary would allow employees to document decision-making during their shift. Other staff that read these may emulate decisions they felt were sound. This diary could become a valuable guide to direct training efforts, provide a resource to student-employees in articulating skills, and provide a valuable history of the facility.

### **Community Development**

The goal of these questions was to determine if students were developing a sense of community within the work environment. While the results from these questions are not conclusive to the hypothesis that part-time work could replace other types of involvement on campus, it supports this idea. More research related to engagement or involvement is needed to make this connection stronger. It is interesting to note that the question about having a friend at work scored the highest of all 81 questions on the survey. Initially this question was considered unusual, but was included because it is a clear representation of community. Creating a sense of community can be achieved in many ways including planning formal and informal group activities outside of work hours, peer recognition programs, and contests to improve performance in a specific area.

### **Conclusion**

The initial goal of collecting this attitudinal information was to understand how student-employees interpret their work life. The intention is to complete the same (or very similar) survey every other year, therefore making this baseline data. Initial results have been shared with department heads at the student center and throughout the Division of Student Affairs. Further exploration and display of the data with relevance to specific departments has been offered. Additionally, interpretation support is available to the managers to share the information with their student staffs. The critical step is sharing the findings with student-employees. Management must provide feedback to employees about what was learned from the survey and include student-employees in discussing what actions might be taken to make

improvements while maintaining practices that are working well. A failure to take this step could result in students' feeling that their voices are not valued. Additionally, a reduction in participation is likely if the results are not shared with current student employees.

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Table 1

**Top 10 Questions**

**Student Center Top 10 Questions**

26. I have at least one friend at work.	4.53
72. Leadership recognizes the importance of our customers.	4.48
37. Different cultures/ethnicities are respected by the department	4.45
67. The department provides a safe work environment.	4.45
43. The level of performance expected of me is reasonable.	4.44
33. I help when work piles up for others.	4.43
58. I am proud of the quality of my work.	4.42
32. I care about my work unit.	4.40
28. I care about my co-workers.	4.38
45. My job responsibilities are clearly linked to the department's goals.	4.38

**Division of Student Affairs Top 10 Questions**

26. I have at least one friend at work.	4.53
33. I help when work piles up for others.	4.45
37. Different cultures/ethnicities are respected by the department.	4.42
67. The department provides a safe work environment.	4.41
28. I care about my co-workers.	4.39
58. I am proud of the quality of my work.	4.37
43. The level of performance expected of me is reasonable.	4.36
32. I care about my work unit.	4.33
72. Leadership recognizes the importance of our customers.	4.33
69. Individuals follow safety policies.	4.29

Table 2

**Bottom 10 Questions****Student Center Bottom 10 Questions**

11. I am able to study during quiet times on the job.	2.71
77. My work relates to my long-term career plans.	2.89
56. There is a clear path for advancement within my job that has been shared with me.	3.00
53. I am paid fairly.	3.44
50. I participate in making the change.	3.77
78. I am developing skills that I will use after graduation.	3.80
74. I am given opportunities to use my talents to the fullest.	3.81
76. My job is enhancing my leadership skills.	3.87
12. The number of hours that I work each week allows me to meet both my course load and earning needs.	3.88
75. My supervisor encourages me to assume formal and informal leadership roles.	3.90

**Division of Student Affairs Bottom 10 Questions**

11. I am able to study during quiet times on the job.	2.81
77. My work relates to my long-term career plans.	2.94
56. There is a clear path for advancement within my job that has been shared with me.	3.23
53. I am paid fairly.	3.58
50. I participate in making the change.	3.69
74. I am given opportunities to use my talents to the fullest.	3.75
12. The number of hours that I work each week allows me to meet both my course load and earning needs.	3.77
78. I am developing skills that I will use after graduation.	3.79
49. During times of change, I understand “how” the change will affect me.	3.83
76. My job is enhancing my leadership skills.	3.83

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# Detox Tent Program Evaluation

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## Abstract

*The Detoxification Tent (Detox Tent) is one of the programs Colorado State University has developed in order to address issues of alcohol abuse at home football games. This program evaluation assessed two Detox Tent program objectives: alcohol deterrence in future football games and program values of the Detox Tent. The purpose of this evaluation was to determine the program's worth and the merit of the Detox Tent. The data was collected using qualitative research methods in the form of questionnaires, observations and questions asked during conduct hearings in order to assess intoxicated students' attitude, level of intoxication and behavior while at the tent. The results indicated the program will deter participants' future alcohol consumption at football games and the main program values identified by participants were safety and assistance.*

*Keywords:* alcohol abuse, alcohol deterrence, Detox Tent, program evaluation, program values

## Introduction and Background

Alcohol abuse among undergraduate students and its numerous negative consequences have been a concern for many university officials in higher education institutions across the United States. According to the Alcohol Abuse and Dependence among US College Students Study, 31% of college students can be formally diagnosed as alcohol abusers (about 1 in 3 college students) and 6.3% of students as alcohol dependent (Wechsler et al., 2002). This article addresses relevant epidemiology regarding alcohol abuse, national binge drinking statistics at universities, motivational factors related to alcohol abuse and Colorado State University (CSU) alcohol prevention programs. The purpose of this article is to report the CSU Detoxification Tent (Detox Tent) program evaluation findings and its implications.

## Binge Drinking Trends

In order to better understand alcohol abuse, binge drinking trends and their impact on college campuses need to be examined. The definition of *binge drinking* is the consumption of five or more consecutive drinks for men and four or more consecutive drinks for women during one sitting (Wechsler, Lee, Kuo, & Lee, 2000). The binge drinking classifications were set this way due to health concerns and consequences (Vicary & Karshin, 2002). After surveying 119 colleges, Harvard School of Public Health College Alcohol Study found that between 1993 and 2001 an increase was observed in the binge drinking rate at 62 institutions (52%), however a decrease in binge-drinking at 57 institutions (48%) was also found (Wechsler et al., 2002).

In a survey conducted in 2001, students reported being more exposed to alcohol education programs compared to a similar study in 1993 (Wechsler et al., 2002). More than half of the students also reported that their schools provided more information about alcohol policies and sanctions for breaking those rules (Wechsler et al., 2002). However, there is little evidence to support that such programs and policies have had strong impact reducing the overall binge drinking in colleges (Wechsler & Davenport, 1994).

Many personal factors were identified among college students as reasons they drink and why they drink in excess. Consistent with several of the factors identified, alcohol abuse has been linked with poor academic performance, higher rates of property damage, driving while intoxicated, interpersonal relationships difficulties, unprotected and unpleasant sex, alcohol-related sexual assault, a higher increase in aggressive behavior and a greater chance of being a victim of violence (Giancola, 2002; Johnson, O'Malley, & Bachman, 1996). Drinking is also associated with attempting to manage emotions, the euphoric expectancies for alcohol use (e.g. beliefs regarding alcohol effects) and to enhance social behavior (McKay, Murphy, Maisto, & Rivinus, 1992).

### **Alcohol Abuse and Colorado State University**

At Colorado State University, binge drinking has also become a concern among college students. In a survey conducted at CSU in 2003 and 2005, there was a significant decrease in the alcohol consumption among students. In the survey, 2% of the participants said that they consume alcohol almost every day and 1% said everyday in 2003. Those numbers decreased reaching 0% in 2005. Moreover, in 2003, 39% of students surveyed did not consume alcohol and in 2005 the number increased to 43% (Colorado State University, 2009a). In 2002, 455 students were arrested for liquor law violations. This number decreased to 291 in 2004. Also, the total number of abusive conduct related to alcohol overdose in 2002-2003 was 76 compared to 40 in 2004-2005 (Colorado State University, 2009b). According to these statistics, the numbers of alcohol abusers and incidents related to alcohol have significantly decreased in the past few past CSU.

CSU has developed many strategies and proactive programs to prevent incidents related to alcohol abuse on its campus. One of the programs CSU has created is the Back on TRAC (Treatment, Responsibility & Accountability on Campus) program, which is a collaborative treatment model among various departments on campus. This program was designed for students who are facing separation from the University due to alcohol abuse or drug use. The Back on TRAC program is voluntary to students who otherwise would have been expelled from the university due to conduct issues related to alcohol or drugs. The primary objectives of the program are development of the students' cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal skills (Miller, 2009).

### **Program Description**

According to Paul Osincup, Assistant Director of Conflict Resolution and Student Conduct Services and Coordinator of the Detox Tent, CSU had a highly publicized alcohol-related death along with riots and frequent alcohol-related incidents in 2004 (personal communication, September 17, 2009). Due to these occurrences, the university created an alcohol task force that recommended the creation of the Detox Tent program. The Detox Tent is an intentional and organized effort to assist intoxicated fans at football games, to prevent future tragedies and to identify possible students with high-risk behaviors (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009). It also provided the opportunity for Conflict Resolution and Student Conduct Services to work closely with police in order to obtain immediate information on the students. The Detox Tent not only serves CSU students but any intoxicated fans at a CSU football game (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009).

### **Process**

Police officers identify students who seem to have had high levels of alcohol consumption in conjunction with inappropriate behavior. In some cases, intoxicated students are brought to the Detox Tent by friends who are concerned with the student's condition and in rare cases intoxicated students walk themselves to the Detox Tent to access the services. Next, staff at

the Detox Tent take the students' information (name, student identification number, address, etc.) and help them sit down in a chair or lay on a cot. In addition, the CSUPD officer asks students to blow in a portable breathalyzer and the practicum Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate student staffing the tent will record the students' attitude and demeanor (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009). Then, the CSU Health Network staff sit with the intoxicated students to help calm them down and provide water, crackers, a bucket for vomit, and help keep the student as clean as possible. After the student is stabilized, the staff will begin to assess what they should do with that student (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009). The options are for the student to leave with a sober friend who is willing to take care of them, go to Poudre Valley Hospital or a detoxification facility for treatment, or get a ride home with the Positive Impact student group. The student will not be allowed to go back to watch the game and they must leave the stadium (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009).

## **Evaluation**

### **Focus of the Evaluation**

The Detox Tent serves the entire community, although it was created primarily for the traditional college student (18-24 year old) at Colorado State University (P. Osincup, personal communication, September 17, 2009). The Detox Tent is scheduled to be operational at all six home CSU football games each fall. The main purposes of Detox Tent are to create an environment so that no alcohol-related tragedies happen during the football games and to coordinate the efforts of CSU staff to figure out the best place to take students when intoxicated (hospital, home, etc). The focus of the program evaluation is centered in one type of audience: the intoxicated students who came to the Detox Tent. To fit the evaluation criteria and be part of the intoxicated student audience, students must have gone to the Detox Tent. The evaluation standard is that they must be intoxicated and behave improperly at football games.

### **Program Objectives**

The main objectives of this program evaluation are to answer the following questions.

- Does the Detox Tent deter irresponsible alcohol use at football games?
- What value(s) does the Detox Tent serve at football games?

The Detox Tent is a relatively new program that has never been evaluated before. The purpose of this evaluation is to determine the program effectiveness of deterring irresponsible alcohol consumption at football games and to assess students who were at the tent about their perceived value of the program.

### **Evaluation Design and Methodology**

A summative program evaluation was conducted to evaluate the Detox Tent program during Fall 2009. The summative program evaluation is used to seek information to assist in making judgments of the worth and future continuation of the Detox Tent program. The focus of this evaluation is outcome based, and the approach used is an objectives-oriented design to determine the attainment of the program's objectives. A portion of this evaluation uses a participant-oriented approach, which focuses on the experience of participants to measure attainment of program objectives. The design used in this evaluation is non-experimental, where there is only one audience/group and only one assessment conducted after the program/intervention.

## Form of Data

The evaluator collected the data through qualitative research methods in the form of questionnaires, observations and questions asked during conduct hearings in order to assess intoxicated students' attitude, level of intoxication and behavior while at the tent. The intoxicated students' assessment happened days after the students' Detox Tent experience. A more formal systematic set of questionnaires were given to students shortly after they met with a hearing officer. Students filled out the questionnaires, which were collected by the front desk staff member at the Conflict Resolution & Student Conduct Office. Lastly, during conduct hearings students were asked three questions related to the objectives of this evaluation.

This program evaluation used appropriate methods in order to determine the worth and merit of the Detox Tent program and at the same time protected and respected the welfare of all of those involved and affected. In order to increase accuracy, three instruments were used to collect the data: open-ended questionnaires, questions asked during conduct hearings, and observations.

## Data Analysis and Findings

In the six football home games, 24 intoxicated students came through the Detox Tent, however only 11 responded to the questionnaires. The total breakdown of female and male students who came to the Detox Tent was nine and 15, respectively. Out of the 11 participants who filled out the questionnaires, eight were female and three males. Also, eight out of the 11 participants did not know about the Detox Tent program, compared to three who knew about the program before coming to the tent.

### Quantitative Analysis

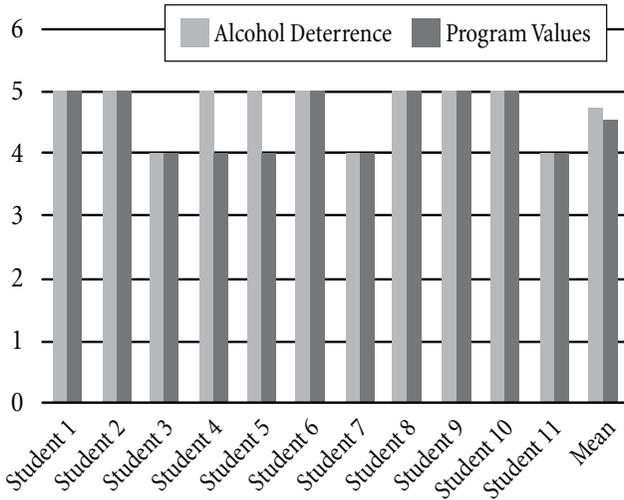
To quantify the qualitative data provided from an open-ended questionnaire about the alcohol deterrence and students' perceived values of the Detox Tent, deterrence and program values scales were developed. In the deterrence scale, *one* means after being at the Detox Tent, the students' Detox Tent experience will not deter the student's alcohol consumption in future football games and *five* means that after being at the Detox Tent, this program experience will deter student's alcohol consumption in future football games. In the program values scale, *one* means the student does not see any value of having the Detox Tent at football games and *five* means that it is necessary to have the Detox Tent at football games and that the student understands the purpose of the program.

The evaluator assigned a number in the deterrence scale according to key words extracted from the questionnaires. Students who said it would deter alcohol consumption in future games and provided a plan or compelling reasons to decrease alcohol consumption were given a five. Students who said the program would deter their alcohol consumption but did not provide good justification or a plan were given a four.

For the program values scale, a five was given to students who actually wrote down the values they think the Detox Tent has and a four was given to students who wrote positive things about the program, but did not write down the values (e.g. safety). All 11 students answered the questions about deterrence and program values in the questionnaire. After plotting the values, Figure 1 shows all 11 participants and the values derived from the questions answered. The mean of alcohol deterrence scale derived from the questionnaire is 4.73 and the mean for the program values scale is 4.55.

**Figure 1**

Student’s quantitative answers from the questionnaires about deterrence and values scales and the means.

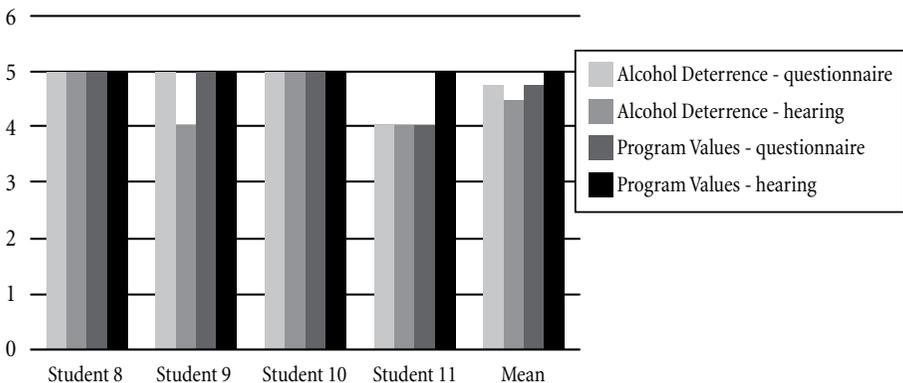


**Triangulation Analysis**

After the evaluator started the data collection, a third indicator was introduced into the evaluation to add validity and reliability of the data. The introduction of the third indicator provided a triangulation method in which the same information was asked in different ways. The purpose of using mixed methods is to prove that from whatever angle the evaluator stands, the same findings are found. The introduction of the indicator happened during four conduct hearings. The evaluator looked for any discrepancies between the answers provided from the questionnaires and conduct hearings. According to the data plotted in Figure 2, the evaluator did not find any discrepancies. Both answers were consistent with each other.

**Figure 2**

The results of the questionnaire and questions asked during conduct hearings from the last four participants



The comparison and connection between Figure 1 and 2 are made through the mean of each graph since the number of participants on each graph is uneven. The mean from Table 3 for the deterrence scale derived from the questions asked at conduct hearing is 4.5 and the deterrence scale derived from questionnaire is 4.75. The mean of the program values derived from conduct hearings is 5 and the mean derived from the questionnaire is 4.75 on a scale of five. Comparing both answers, the means are very close to each other, proving that the data is reliable and consistent. The means from Figure 1 (deterrence – 4.73 and Values – 4.55) are very close to the means found in Figure 2. According to the quantitative data analysis above, the Detox Tent deters alcohol consumption at football games. Intoxicated students who participate in the program also understand the concept of the Detox Tent and the values of having the program.

### **Qualitative Analysis**

The questionnaire consisted of four questions given at the end of the conduct hearings. The answers given during the conduct hearing are also included in the qualitative analysis. The answers were transcribed and coded into themes/categories. Three levels of coding were used: level I – open coding, level II – categories, and level III – selective coding.

The reasons given by students in this study that may deter irresponsible alcohol behavior at football games are related to embarrassment of being intoxicated in front of other people, deprivation of not being able to watch the game, consequences that will follow for being intoxicated (e.g. conduct hearings, taken to the hospital), and trauma suffered for having to talk to paramedics and police officers leading to a motivating realization to change erratic alcohol consumption behavior. In order to decrease alcohol consumption, students need to be responsible and have knowledge of their limits. Students who participated in the program acknowledged the efficacy of strategies to deter alcohol consumption at football games. Some of the strategies are to plan ahead, decrease overall alcohol intake, watch duration of alcohol consumption, not mix drinks, avoid peer pressure, eat more, drink slower or abstain from drinking. Students who participated in this program are likely to denounce actions and consequences of irresponsible drinking at football games to their friends and peers according to the responses collected through the questionnaires and in conduct hearings.

Safety and assistance are the main program values identified by the students who participated in the program evaluation. The reasons, as stated by students, to have the Detox Tent are concern for safety of students and community members and care for the intoxicated student. The Detox Tent provides reassurance to students that they will be okay.

Lastly, students' behavior (cooperative vs. uncooperative) and attitude (positive vs. negative) were also observed. All responses of this study were participants who were cooperative and had positive attitude while at the tent. Since the questionnaire was on a voluntary basis, not every participant wanted to fill one out, therefore this evaluation could not capture the responses from uncooperative students or students who had a negative attitude. The only correlation that can be made is about students who were cooperative and also had a positive attitude with greater alcohol deterrence and understanding of the positive values of the programs. However, it is unknown how other students who had a different behavior and attitude would have answered the questionnaire and questions during conduct hearings.

### **Conclusion**

The evaluator proposes a few recommendations for future program evaluation of the Detox Tent. First, the design and methodology should be clarified at the beginning of the program before data collection. Because the data of this program has specific time constraints,

later indicators introduced may not fully represent the overall data. Second, this program evaluation only addressed two goals and objectives (alcohol deterrence and program values) of the Detox Tent program. To make a judgment of the worth and merit of the Detox Tent, another program evaluation needs to be conducted to assess the objectives of the program as a whole. Fourth, the evaluator suggests demographic information of participants be collected for a better understanding of the population of students who participate in the program and to analyze if any correlations can be inferred. Lastly, focus groups and follow up interviews should be included in future evaluations to provide richer information related to the objectives of the evaluation. Context and environment considerations should also be taken into account in future evaluations.

In conclusion, the Detox Tent deters irresponsible alcohol behavior in future football games and demonstrates positive program values of participants who were cooperative and had positive attitudes while at the tent. The quantitative data analysis indicates that the program deters alcohol behavior and qualitative data provides reasons for alcohol deterrence and strategies that students will follow when coming to future football games. The Detox Tent program evaluation provides vital information about the program's effectiveness. A similar program evaluation can be applied to other programs on campus to better understand the impact and efficacy of alcohol related services have on students. Universities who sell alcohol beverages at football games should consider a similar program model tailored to its population to address alcohol abuse at stadiums. The Detox Tent program evaluation findings illustrate the transformative experiences that shaped participants' alcohol consumption decision-making after going through the program. As fiscal stewardship with financial support has become increasingly difficult, student affairs professionals need to understand if program objectives are met in order to make improvements or reallocate funding to programs that will have greater impact on students.

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## The Phenomenon of Regionally-Accredited For-Profit Institutions: A Case for Change

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### Abstract

*In the past 35 years there has been an explosive growth in the student population at for-profit colleges and universities. Presently for-profit colleges are able to become regionally accredited in the same manner as not-for-profit institutions. The purpose of this article is to inform institutions and their employees of this trend. This article argues that the inclusion of for-profit colleges in regional accrediting bodies reduces the value of accreditation to its member schools. Additionally the paper argues that because of the need for a for-profit institution to serve their stockholders, they cannot use all resources towards improving student learning.*

*Keywords:* accreditation, for-profit institution, proprietary, student-learning

As colleges and universities continue to seek a path of self-improvement through accreditation, and hold accreditation as the standard bearer for quality and validity, it is more important than ever that the administration in charge of accreditation focus on improving the standards and selectivity of accrediting bodies. As for-profit institutions continue to receive accreditation by regional accrediting bodies, the value of such accreditation comes into question. In order to understand how this has occurred, one must examine the history of for-profit institutions and their role in the educational marketplace, accreditation, including transferability of credit and faculty roles and responsibilities, regionally accredited for-profit colleges and universities, The Higher Learning Commission of North Central Colleges and Schools and finally reasons to end regional accreditation for for-profit colleges and universities.

### History of For-Profits

Although academia has seen a resurgence of for-profit education in the past 35 years, for-profit education is centuries old. In fact, from 500 to 300 BC in Greece, anyone could start a private school (Coleman & Vedder, 2008). In contrast, it was not until the early 20th century that supporters were able to successfully make a case that education was a business of the state by arguing in part that people were not responsible enough to take care of their own education (Coleman & Vedder, 2008). From 1890 to 1972, for-profit educational institutions claimed less and less of the market share (Cook, 1998). However, in 1972, Congress reauthorized the Higher Education Act, which increased the amount of government student aid available to for-profit institutions (Cook, 1998). In order for a school to receive federal student aid, three criteria were required: institutional accreditation by any accrediting body recognized by the United States (U.S.) Department of Education, determination of eligibility from the U.S. Department of Education, and recognition of the right to operate in the state in which the school is located (Cook, 1998). Since 1972, there has been explosive growth of for-profit education. According to Bhatia, & Shagets (2009), for-profit colleges have 9% of the market share of students, or about 1.5 million students, and are expected to hold 14% of the market share within the next 10 years.

### **Accreditation**

The U.S. Department of Education recognizes six regional and over thirty national accrediting bodies (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). Regional and national accrediting bodies have many similar attributes. Both regional and national accrediting bodies require a voluntary detailed review of their programs and how they intend to facilitate learning, and both types are not-for-profit organizations. One other major standard both must meet is that no accrediting body is a federal government organization (eLearners, 2010). Historically, regional accrediting bodies have accredited schools within a geographic region (this no longer remains true), while national accrediting bodies were available to any type of institution (Kinser, 2005). Furthermore, regional accrediting bodies started as traditional colleges and universities with similar interests, while national accrediting bodies started as groupings of institutions with common themes and served many institutions which were neither colleges nor universities. However, today the main discussion of their differences revolves around two main topics: transferability of credit and faculty governance structure (eLearners, 2010).

### **Credit Transfer**

Typically, regionally-accredited institutions accept degrees and credits earned at other regionally-accredited institutions; however, each institution is autonomous and may choose whether to accept or decline credits or degrees earned from a member institution (Basken, 2008). As a whole, for-profit institutions complain their students face unfair credit transfer policies when they attempt to transfer credits to traditional colleges and universities (Basken, 2008). Therefore, the benefit of transferability of credit among regionally-accredited institutions may be null in a for-profit environment.

### **Faculty Governance and Roles**

The second discussion revolves around faculty. Now more than ever, for-profit institutions are being admitted to regional accrediting associations. These institutions by nature have a centralized curriculum. For-profit colleges and universities traditionally have very few full-time faculty and much less faculty governance structure than traditional colleges and universities (Tierney & Hentschke, 2007). Because of the way in which a decentralized university system such as DeVry University operates, central academics define curriculum, instructional methods, and policies (Overbye, Cherif, Stefurak, & Aron, 2006). According to Tierney and Hentschke (2007), for-profit colleges and universities create a structure that is similar in name only to traditional colleges in universities. Full-time staff members oversee curriculum development, instructional oversight, and recruitment and dismissal of faculty, acting more like assistant deans at other traditional universities and colleges. Generally speaking, only full-time employees are on faculty governance boards, creating the illusion of faculty governance. In reality, it is a board of administrators (Tierney & Hentschke, 2007). For-profit institutions should not have the ability to be regionally accredited because these institutions' faculty governance structures are simply façades, a renaming of administrators as faculty.

Faculty at for-profit institutions are not given the freedom to pursue research and teaching interests (Tierney and Hentschke, 2007). At for-profit colleges and universities, research has never been a part of the academic work of teaching students. Faculty at not-for-profit institutions have the dual responsibility of the generation (research) and dissemination (teaching) of knowledge. The roles of teacher and researcher do not occur independently of one another. At not-for-profit institutions, faculty are actively involved in research which informs teaching, makes real world, present day connections for students, and keeps a faculty member current in his or her field of study. Tenure provides for a process of peer review to ensure that an individual faculty member has developed an acceptable level of scholarship

and teaching. According to Tierney and Hentschke (2007), “The bottom line is that for-profits want their faculty to teach, and their assumption is that tenure is unnecessary at best, and a serious impediment at worst, for achieving the goals of the organization” (p. 100). While some non-profit institutions may have a class with the same title being taught throughout the system by multiple faculty members, no one would expect the syllabi, assignments, and grading rubrics to be identical from classroom to classroom. The opposite is true in a decentralized system such as DeVry that seeks uniformity in coursework throughout all of its campuses nationwide.

Such standardized uniformity in a non-profit institution would be seen as impinging on the idea of academic freedom, which could affect student learning. While a departmental curriculum committee may set the curriculum for one course, the individual faculty members are free to choose assignments and texts for the class (Standler, 2000). Brown, Bull, and Pendlebury (1997) suggested that the way a student acquires knowledge can enhance or inhibit student learning. Furthermore, Dewey (1997) suggested people make meaningful connections through their experiences in order to acquire knowledge. The inability of a faculty member to choose the right readings and assignments for each class that he or she teaches could inhibit student learning. Generalizing the curriculum assumes that each group of learners are the same. For-profit universities seek uniformity which prohibits faculty from teaching to each group of learners using the best resources for that group and could inhibit the learning of the individual student.

### **Regionally Accredited For-Profit Colleges and Universities**

In one study, Bender (1991) cross-referenced the 1990 Higher Education Directory and the Internal Revenue Service tax records and found that 62 for-profit colleges and universities have achieved regional accreditation. By 2001, that number had risen to only 65 (Kinser, 2005). It is important to note that of these 65 regionally accredited institutions, many have several campuses that are individually accredited. If each campus was an individual institution, there would be 241 separate institutions (Kinser, 2005). The 65 regionally-accredited institutions represent 2% of the total number of schools accredited by regional organizations (Kinser, 2005). Every commission except for the New England Association of Schools and Colleges Commission on Institutions of Higher Education has a for-profit college or university it accredits (Kinser, 2005). The Western State University College of Law was the first for-profit institution to be accredited by a regional accrediting body, The Western Association of Colleges and Schools – Senior Colleges and Universities (WASC-Sr) in 1976 (Kinser, 2005). By the end of the 1970s, there were 10 for-profit institutions accredited by regional accrediting bodies with an additional 19 in the 1980s, 23 in the 1990s and 13 in the 2000s (Kinser, 2005). Nine publicly traded companies own 29 of the regionally accredited institutions of higher education (Kinser, 2005). For some of the larger publicly traded institutions, only a portion of the schools owned are regionally accredited (Kinser, 2005).

### **The Higher Learning Commission of North Central Colleges and Schools**

While nearly all regionally-accrediting bodies accredit for-profit institutions, the types of institutions which they accredit are clearly different. The Higher Learning Commission of North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (HLC) accredits virtual universities, or online universities without a physical campus, and over half of the institutions which have major distance education programs (Kinser, 2005). Of the 392 regionally accredited institutions which have campuses in other geographic regions, HLC accredits 68% of them (Kinser, 2005). They are the only regional accrediting body which accredits a disaggregated faculty model, or one in which curriculum is designed by an outside consultant and

most instruction is from part time staff. Additionally, HLC is the only body that accredits institutions with alternative school calendars that do not follow the traditional agrarian or agricultural model of spring, summer, and fall (Kinser, 2005). Because of this, every region has regionally-accredited schools with disaggregated faculty models and alternative calendars even if the region accredits no other similar institution. Owners of institutions who wish to gain regional accreditation have found it makes good sense to move their corporate offices to the North Central region, which is more accepting of non-traditional learning models. A few such examples include the University of Phoenix, Walden University, and Argosy Education Group, which were purchased by Education Management Corporation (Kinser, 2005).

The differences in history, role in the educational marketplace, faculty roles and responsibilities, curriculum, and the purpose of accreditation lead to the question: should for-profit institutions be able to receive regional accreditation? In order to provide an answer, universities and practitioners should review the criteria for accreditation as they apply to for-profit institutions. Because the HLC is the largest accreditor of for-profit colleges and universities, it may be helpful to look at the some of the accrediting body's criterion for accreditation.

The first criterion of HLC is mission and integrity, which states that an institution must be true to its mission and values (The Higher Learning Commission, 2007). The mission or purpose of DeVry Inc., regionally-accredited through HLC, includes providing market-driven, career-oriented undergraduate education and practitioner-oriented graduate education (DeVry Inc., 2009b). In addition, DeVry seeks to promote teaching excellence, provide an interactive and collaborative teaching environment, offer student services that assist in education, and provide employers with career trained individuals (DeVry Inc., 2009b). In the discussion of DeVry's mission, there is no mention of the underlying purpose of the institution, which is to make a profit. However, conveniently located in the upper right-hand corner of the DeVry Inc website are statistics that report the current stock value, change up or down, and the percent of change in stock price (DeVry Inc., 2009a). Quite simply, the mission of this for-profit institution appears to serve stockholders first and students second. By not being forthright about the priorities of for-profit institutions, these institutions may have compromised their integrity.

The second criterion of the HLC is preparing for the future through allocation of funding, evaluation of education, improvement in the quality of education, and responses to future challenges and opportunities (The Higher Learning Commission, 2007). All parts of criterion two are hindered or at conflict with the organizational mission of for-profit institutions, which is clearly to make a profit. Additionally, improving the quality of education requires participation of the faculty in an active research agenda.

While for-profit colleges may be able to effectively demonstrate student learning, HLC's third criterion, for-profit institutions would be unable to demonstrate the HLC's fourth criterion, which requires the discovery and application of knowledge and promotion of lifelong learning for its faculty (The Higher Learning Commission, 2007). The promotion of a standardized syllabus, the lack of faculty generating new knowledge, and the inability for students and faculty to make meaning together through the selection of textbooks, readings, and assignments are all examples showing for-profit institutions in opposition to the values the HLC should hold most dear.

### **Reasons to End Regional Accreditation of For-Profit Institutions**

As university administrators and practitioners looking at the differences between for-profit and not-for-profit institutions, the major consideration should be whether regional accrediting bodies should accredit for-profit institutions. An overview of the available literature

suggests not. For-profit universities are historically different and have different roles in the marketplace; they have different faculty governance structures, different curriculum models than not-for-profit colleges and universities. Additionally for-profit universities do not seem to meet the criteria of the largest accreditation body of for-profit colleges and universities, the HLC. Not-for-profit status is not just a tax status, Internal Revenue Code (IRC) Section 115 and 501 (c) (3) (Internal Revenue Service, 2009), but a belief that every dollar earned will directly or indirectly benefit the students. The true stakeholders of a for-profit institution are the stockholders, not the students. This is true for a variety of reasons but is defined most simply based upon the mission of the institution. Not-for-profit institutions' missions are the generation and dissemination of knowledge (CWURU Internationalization Task Force, 2008), whereas the mission of a for-profit entity is just that – to make a profit. The intent is as important as the result. Funds earned should be used to line the walls with books rather than to line the pockets of stockholders.

Accreditation is a stamp of approval for many. It is one of the means by which schools compare themselves to one another. Additionally, it is one of the means by which universities approve or decline transferability of credit. If regional accrediting bodies continue to extend accreditation to for-profit institutions, they pose an inherent risk to not-for-profit universities.

As student affairs professionals, we must be concerned with the process of accreditation and the growth of for-profit institutions. The customer service model of education (Diacon, 2008) by which many for-profit institutions operate is a dangerous and slippery slope. The development of a college student does not just occur in the classroom, but in the libraries, advising offices, and student lounges throughout campus. This experiential learning occurs in a not-for-profit institution as well as a for-profit institution. The environment in which we teach our students affects not only their student learning, but their perception of higher education. The student affairs professional should understand that the learning taking place in a not-for-profit institution is different because of the environment and the intent of the organization. Specifically, the danger of not-for-profit schools is that, by accepting similar accreditation, they allow themselves to be judged upon a similar rubric as for-profit institutions and unintentionally give credence to the educational structure and degrees gained at these institutions.

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## Understanding Barriers to Student Affairs Professionals' Engagement in Outcomes-Based Assessment of Student Learning and Development

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### Abstract

*Through the use of a grounded theory approach, this article identifies dimensions that describe why some student affairs/services professionals do not fully engage in implementing outcomes-based assessment of student learning and development in their programs. Many of the reasons for non-engagement may be remedied through professional development; however, the perception of a lack of collaboration within a Division of Student Affairs and across an institution may require more intervention than just professional development.*

*Keywords:* assessment, professional development, student learning theory

Outcomes-based assessment in Student Affairs has been in existence for several years (Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). While student affairs professionals have access to research about how well their work contributes to overall academic success (Astin, 1993; Hurtado, Engberg, & Ponjuan, 2003; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2005; Mentkowski, 2000; National Research Council (NRC), 2001; Pascarella, 2006; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), many student affairs professionals have had their specific contributions to student learning and development overlooked (Bensimon, 2007). The contributions of individual programs to improving student learning and development have not been systematically documented; therefore, those contributions have not received recognition within or outside the institution. Thus, some student affairs professionals have recognized the need to evaluate their contributions to student learning and development. The purpose of this study is to explore the reasons that 13 institutions, whose senior student affairs officers had voiced institutional commitment to systematically engage in outcomes-based assessment, still find the majority of their student affairs practitioners struggling with implementing outcomes-based assessment.

Research illustrates common barriers to implementing outcomes-based assessment. The findings are often classified into three categories: understanding of assessment, time, and resources (Banta, 2002; Bresciani, 2006; Bresciani, Zelna, & Anderson, 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). As these categories are further defined and explored more in depth, the complexity of each category is realized.

Because many practitioners enter the field of student affairs from various professions and disciplines, they come with varying degrees of understanding of outcomes-based assessment. Confusion about the purpose for outcomes-based assessment is one of the primary reasons many faculty and administrators do not invest time or resources in it (Bresciani, 2006; Maki, 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). Many professionals are also confused as to whether they are engaging in research or assessment (Astin, 1991; Kuh et al., 2005). Furthermore, some student affairs practitioners are concerned that programmatic or policy decisions will be made based on their engagement in outcomes-based assessment. These practitioners do not necessarily feel the research rigor they employed is sufficient for such overarching decisions (Astin & Lee, 2003).

Research illustrates the allocation of time to specific work tasks is influenced by one's values (Argyris & Donald, 1996; Sandeen, 1985). This, in essence, means professionals, regardless of their profession, will allocate their time on tasks based on what they value or what they are told to value. Typically, those who are responsible for evaluating their job performance will provide direction to professionals with regard to how they should spend their time (Argyris & Donald, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The allocation of resources is another commonly cited barrier to implementing outcomes-based assessment (Bresciani, 2006; Maki, 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). The reference to resources here includes the a) cost of providing professional development for staff to learn how to engage in quality outcomes-based assessment, b) cost of the time re-allocated for evaluating services rather than delivering services, and c) cost of providing retreats so staff can reflect on what the outcomes-based assessment data is telling them about how they can improve the delivery of their program. Then there is the cost of the administration and analysis of the evaluation tools used in outcomes-based assessment. Additional costs include those incurred while implementing the recommended program improvements as suggested by the data (Bresciani, 2006; Bresciani et al., 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996).

### **Method**

The purpose of this study is to explore the reasons that institutions that are committed to implementing outcomes-based assessment still find the majority of their student affairs practitioners struggling with the implementation of outcomes-based assessment. Thirteen institutions were selected because their senior student affairs officers had voiced institutional commitment to systematically engage in outcomes-based assessment, yet improvement was not evident. One primary research question guided this analysis: When institutional leaders believe they have addressed the three common barriers to engaging in outcomes-based assessment of student learning and development, why do some of their student affairs professionals still struggle with the assessment process?

Thirteen institutions were purposefully selected (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) based on senior student affairs leaders reporting their institutions had a strong commitment to implementing outcomes-based assessment including provision of the resources to do so. The sample included four community colleges, three public research extensive universities, four public comprehensive universities, and two private colleges. Following the selection of the sample, the researcher conducted a site visit and interviewed senior student affairs officers. The researcher also conveniently selected mid-level professionals, new professionals, and various assessment committee members, if such a committee existed. Since the scope of this research was to gain a broad understanding of the divisional barriers to assessment, the analysis was conducted by institution, rather than by these variables within institution. The researcher observed practitioners engaged in outcomes-based assessment during a 6-7 hour facilitated workshop. The researcher conducted a document analysis of assessment plans, meeting minutes, planning procedures for implementing outcomes-based assessment, as well as mission and vision statements for the division.

The grounded theory method of qualitative research was utilized to uncover meaning (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) in order to better understand why student affairs professionals struggle with assessment. The researcher conducted cross-institutional case analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which allowed for the development of properties across cases. Such properties were analyzed and compared to the barriers derived from the literature (Bresciani, 2006; Bresciani

et al., 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). Properties within a core category emerged using Strauss and Corbin's (1990) axial, open, and selective coding.

To check for trustworthiness of the researcher's summary of findings for each institution, each division's institutional assessment leader or coordinator was provided a verbal summary of the researcher's general findings following the site visit. The findings shared with each institutional assessment leader only included the discoveries relevant to that particular institution. Any additional information gathered from the member check, a process recommended by Creswell (2009) to verify the trustworthiness of data collected, was incorporated into the overall analysis.

### **Findings and Discussion**

In order to best illustrate the complexity of findings from this grounded theory study, a reflective coding matrix is presented in Table 1. The core category emerging from this study is the Lack of Understanding of the Student Learning and Development Theories that Inform the Practice. Understanding student learning and development theories to purposefully plan the services and programming within Student Affairs is essential to the profession (Blimling & Whitt, 1999; King, 2003; Kuh et al., 2005; Love & Estanek, 2004). A lack of this understanding affects the manner in which the services and programs are evaluated (Blake, 2007; Pascarella, 2006; Torres, Baxter Magolda, King, Jones, Pope & Renn, 2003). Thus, student affairs practitioners will find it difficult to provide evidence to help them improve student learning and development (Kuh et al., 2005; Mentkowski, 2000; Pascarella, 2006).

**Table 1**  
 Barriers to Engaging in Outcomes-Based Assessment  
 for Student Affairs/Services Professionals

<b>Core Category</b>	Lack of Understanding of the Student Learning and Development Theories that Informs the Practice		
<b>Properties</b>	Formal Education	Professional Development	Application to Practice
<b>Process</b>	Professional Preparation	On-going Professional Development and Re-Tooling	Designing the Delivery Mechanism such as Workshops, Programs, Activities, and Curriculum
<b>Dimensions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* professional preparation did not include an introduction to student learning and development</li> <li>* little understanding of what other colleagues' and faculty know about student learning and development theories</li> <li>* no preparation to evaluate how well their work contributes to student learning and development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* professional development opportunities did not include an introduction to student learning and development</li> <li>* no expectation at point of hire or at point of personnel evaluation to know student learning and development theories</li> <li>* professional development opportunities do not integrate knowledge of student learning and development with the assessment of its application</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* unable to articulate application of theories to practice</li> <li>* unable to design the delivery mechanism such as activities, workshops, and programs that will embody the appropriate theory</li> <li>* unable to recognize that the delivery mechanism does not provide an opportunity for students to learn and develop as intended</li> </ul>
<b>Contexts</b>	Allocation of Time to Engage in Formal Education	Allocation of Time to Engage in on-going Professional Development	Allocation of Time to Design Delivery Mechanisms for Student Learning and Development

Application to Evaluation Methods	Application to Planning	Practicing in Isolation
Assessment or Research	Reflection	Collaboration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* confusion about research and assessment</li> <li>* unsure of whether to conduct research or assessment</li> <li>* lack of confidence in ability to conduct quality research and assessment</li> <li>* confusion between outcomes-based assessment and other forms of assessment</li> <li>* attempting to apply Astin's IEO to one program as opposed to the entire collegiate experience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* do not know how to reflect</li> <li>* unable to reflect on the meaning of the evidence brought forth by the evaluation methods in order to plan for improved contributions to student learning and development</li> <li>* evidence from assessment does not inform planning as results are too far removed from the method of delivery</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* do not know how to collaborate with each other</li> <li>* do not understand how to work with faculty to collaboratively plan the program and the assessment process</li> <li>* there are no systematic or formalized means in which to collaborate across departments and within the division, nor across divisions</li> <li>* no expectation at point of personnel evaluation to be evaluated on collaborative ability</li> <li>* inconsistencies as to where the responsibility for application of student development and learning theories resides</li> </ul>
Allocation of Time to Engage in Meaningful Outcomes-based Assessment	Allocation of Time to Reflect and Make Decisions	Allocation of Time to Instill Formal Collaborations

## **Understanding Student Learning and Development Theories**

As the meaning of this core category is explored, it is apparent the barriers of time, resources, and understanding are embedded within the findings (Bresciani, 2006; Bresciani et al., 2004; Palomba & Banta, 1999; Suskie, 2004; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). This is not necessarily in regards to assessment as a practice in and of itself. Rather, the common barriers were related to these practitioners' inability to understand the theories that inform their practice. Those student affairs professionals who understand the nature of their profession (e.g., the theories that underlie their work) were able to more effectively engage in outcomes-based assessment and identify how their programs contribute to student learning and development. Without an understanding of theories, others were having difficulty evaluating their programs, even though they had a general understanding of how to implement outcomes-based assessment.

## **Lack of Formal Education and Professional Development**

As opposed to the earlier finding of a lack of understanding in student learning and development theory, some student affairs professionals were not able to articulate or evaluate outcomes because they still did not understand outcomes-based assessment. The reason for this could be that the institutional administrators were not as committed as they said they were, the staff had not attended the professional development opportunities offered, or the practitioners attended professional development opportunities and still did not understand. Other practitioners could not identify how what they did on a daily basis contributed to student learning and development.

The challenge of clarifying whether assessment is not occurring because of a lack of understanding of outcomes-based assessment or because of a lack of student development theory may be further exasperated by the way in which we hire and evaluate student affairs professionals. When examining the position descriptions for student affairs professionals at these institutions, very few of the position descriptions required knowledge of student learning and development. Yet many of the position descriptions required professionals to conduct outcomes-based assessment (Herdlein, 2004). Few institutions included the evaluation of both of these practices in their employee performance reviews.

## **Application to Practice and Planning: Student Learning and Development Delivery Mechanisms**

The majority of programs in this study typically had three methods of delivering their services and providing opportunities for students to learn: outreach (e.g., workshops), one-on-one sessions, and informational sources (e.g., websites). In these methods of delivery, the ability to design programs and services where contributions to student learning and development can be evaluated appeared to reside primarily in the outreach programming areas. Those practitioners who were cognizant of the theories that inform their practice were more readily able to identify why they were designing their outreach activity. As a result, they could articulate the intended outcomes, plan the program to deliver those outcomes, and evaluate the extent to which the outcomes had been reached. In addition, the feedback from the assessment process informed decisions to improve the programs for the next time they were offered.

## **Application to Evaluation Methods and Planning: Confusion about Assessment and Research**

There were many instances when understanding the differences between assessment and research also played into student affairs professionals' inability to move forward with their work. A common example was that practitioners were not able to implement their assessment plans because they were concerned about the rigor of their sampling methodology or evaluation methods. There was an apparent misunderstanding that assessment is informed

by an epistemology of situational constructivist learning, rather than an attempt to gather data to generalize to a larger population.

Those practitioners who are knowledgeable about student learning and development utilize research to design their programs (Kuh et al., 2005; Mentkowski, 2000; NRC, 2001). In so doing, some may feel pressured to use the same rigor to determine whether their practice contributed to the intended outcomes. If practitioners ascribe to Papert's (1991) situational constructionist learning, they realize they are not conducting research that will inform other institutions' programmatic decisions. They are only becoming involved in the improvement of their own program and students.

### **Collaboration with Faculty**

The majority of the professionals within the divisions of Student Affairs in this study had not systematically involved their faculty colleagues in the planning of their programs, the delivery of the programs, the assessment, or in the discussion of the results. Where such collaborations existed, the nature of the collaborations was reported by those engaged in the collaborations to be strong but residing solely on individual personal or professional relationships. In all cases, participants reported there were no formal collaborative structures in place.

Several examples of isolated practice among administrators within the divisions of Student Affairs were discussed. References to isolated practice were mentioned more than were examples of a lack of collaboration with their faculty colleagues. When colleagues came together to discuss how they believed they were contributing to student learning and development, they discovered several connections and opportunities to partner with each other to enhance delivery mechanisms and evaluation means.

### **Implications for Practice**

The implications of these findings on the practice of student affairs may be used to inform professional development opportunities within divisions and across the profession of student affairs. There appears to be either a lack of understanding of student leadership and development theories, or in the very least, a lack of intentionality in the purposeful planning of activities, workshops, and curriculum that reflect student learning and development theories. As such, practitioners may want to be more intentional in the manner in which they embed student development and learning theories into their planning and assessment practices.

Student affairs professionals may want to examine the professional development opportunities already provided. Such examination may help to determine whether administrators are building on their formal education or needing to pursue additional learning opportunities. Further examination may also help to differentiate whether the professional development needed involves learning about outcomes-based assessment, understanding the content of student development and learning theories, or understanding the application of the theories to the practice. It may be of further assistance to offer professional development opportunities that couple outcomes-based assessment with student learning and development theories. Doing so may reinforce the application of theory to practice and reinforce the evaluation of the application of theory via assessment.

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## **Class of 2010**

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The following is a list of the members of the SAHE Class of 2010:

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Brett Rundle  
Nicole R. Scheer  
Katharine Wormus

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

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### *Purpose*

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

The Editorial Board invites submissions of the following types of articles:

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

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

### *Procedure*

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

### *Guidelines for Writing*

1. Prepare the manuscript, including title page and reference page, in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Sixth Edition.
2. Include an article abstract and brief description of the author, including professional title and institutional affiliation. The abstract should clearly state the purpose of the article and be concise and specific, ranging from 150-250 words. Refer to page 25 of the Publication Manual for assistance.
3. Double-space all portions of the manuscript, including references, tables, and figures.
4. Avoid bias in language; refer to page 70 of the Publication Manual for assistance.
5. Do not use footnotes; incorporate the information into the text.
6. Use the active voice as much as possible.
7. Check subject/verb agreement.
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 and citations before submitting your draft.
10. Use Microsoft Word (2000) or higher so that editors may utilize the “insert comment” function.
11. Never submit manuscripts under consideration by another publication.
12. Lengthy quotations (a total of 300 or more words from one source) require written

permission from the copyright holder for reproduction. Adaptation of tables and figures also requires such approval. The author is responsible for securing such permission. A copy of the publisher's written permission must be provided to the editors immediately upon acceptance of the article for publication.

13. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures. Authors should make sure these are complete and correct.

\* Adapted from the *Journal of College Student Development's* "Submission Instructions."

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