Colorado State University

JOURNAL
of
STUDENT
AFFAIRS

Volume XVII, *2007-2008*

Colorado State University

Colorado State University
Journal of Student Affairs

Mission Statement

The mission of the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs* is to develop and produce a scholarly publication that reflects current education issues and the professional interests of student affairs practitioners. Specifically, the *Journal* provides an opportunity for the publication of articles by current students, alumni, faculty, and associates of the Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program at Colorado State University.

Goals

- The *Journal* promotes scholarly work, reflecting the importance of professional and academic writing in higher education.

- The Editorial Board of the *Journal* offers opportunities for students to develop editorial skills, critical thinking, and writing skills while producing a professional publication.

- The *Journal* serves as a communication tool to alumni and other professionals regarding updates and the status of Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program at Colorado State University.

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This year the *Journal of Student Affairs* is celebrating its 17th Anniversary. The *Journal* continues to promote scholarly work, offer opportunities for current students to develop critical research skills, and serve as a communication tool for alumni and other professionals in Student Affairs.

In past years the *Journal* has only been available through print, but has never been available online. This year one of the major changes facilitated by the editorial board is the ability to access past editions of the Journal of Student Affairs online through the Colorado State University Library. These articles will be searchable through the web as well.

In addition to this change, future issues of the *Journal* will enable professionals and students outside of Colorado State University the opportunity to submit articles. In the past, submissions have only been accepted from students, alumni, and faculty of the SAHE program. The editorial board believes that this change will make the *Journal* an even greater resource for practitioners by having the opportunity to learn more about current trends and best practices within the field of student affairs. We believe that these changes will aid in the growth, development, and future success of the *Journal*.

During the fall, article submissions are reviewed by the editorial board, which consists of three managing editors and five associate editors. In addition, the submitted articles are edited by a technical and content reader board made up of current SAHE graduate students. The third major change to the *Journal* pertains to the process of its publication. This year the editorial board maintained close contact with authors of the selected journal articles all the way through the editorial process. We believed this additional guidance would help each author navigate the editorial process more easily. Our goal was to have each author feel supported throughout the editorial process to publication.

With all the changes, we still strive to meet our mission of creating an educational journal production process that is entirely student focused. Involvement from students in this process comes in many different forms, including reading, writing, and serving on the editorial board. Additionally, we encourage individuals to submit articles that provide relevant information and research for our students, alumni, colleagues, faculty, and friends. Our success as a student produced journal continues to grow. We know that the *Journal* will continue to improve and we look forward to its future achievements.

Past Leadership

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

MANAGING EDITORS

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

FACULTY ADVISORS

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

Advisors' Perspective

Oscar Felix and Andrea Takemoto Reeve, Advisors

The essence of a quality graduate school experience is often defined by unique opportunities that reinforce and expand academic development. The Colorado State University Student Affairs in Higher Education program includes a unique opportunity for graduate students to publish the *Journal of Student Affairs.*

This year's *Journal* reflects the high level of energy, creativity and passion of the *Journal* editorial board members. From the spring board retreat through completion of the *Journal*, they have been well organized and focused on producing a professional publication that informs student affairs practice. And, by incorporating innovation with past tradition, the 2007-2008 *Journal* will mark the beginning of electronic access to seventeen years of the *Journal of Student Affairs.* The Colorado State University Libraries will provide article indexing, allowing researchers and practitioners to search the library catalog for authors, subject areas and article titles.

Serving as the faculty advisors has been both rewarding and a learning experience for us. We are fortunate to work with this group of graduate students who exemplify the best of student affairs leadership qualities and who understand the important role of research in enhancing professional practice. We hope that you enjoy this year's *Journal* and that the articles inform your practice.

State of the Program

Linda Kuk, Ph.D
Program Chair

SAHE Yesterday and Tomorrow

This is the 40th anniversary of the SAHE/ CSPA program and the 17th edition of the *Student Affairs Journal*. Both the program and the *Journal* have come a long way since their inception. The *Journal* is a vibrant example of the quality and dedication of the faculty, students and friends of the program. Over the years many different people have contributed to this publication and every year the publication is enriched and expands its focus and its contributors. Other programs have or are trying to emulate this scholarly process, but only one other student edited publication has the tradition that marks this journal.

The program too has a strong legacy to be proud of and continues to be enriched and expand every year. It continues to attract exceptional students who go on to assume leadership roles in student affairs and other professions across the United States, Canada and the world. This past fall 22 new SAHE students were enrolled in the 2007 cohort and they are truly reflective of the current and future SAHE. They are diverse, strong, and intelligent and dedicated to becoming competent student affairs practitioners. They actively seek challenges and at the same time have supported each other through the rollercoaster ride of transitioning into graduate school. The second year students, now 14 strong, have started the process of looking beyond the program to their new professional ventures. They too reflect the promise of the future. They are intelligent and focused, varied in ideas and perspectives and determined to make a difference in the world. They are clearly on the road to becoming great student affairs practitioners.

As we begin our 41st year, the SAHE program is strong and well positioned for another 40 years. The program has successfully moved its administration to the School of Education where it has received a warm and collaborative welcome. A new distance cohort focused doctoral program in Educational Leadership, focused on higher education and student affairs administration has been launched. The program will begin in the summer, 2008. The masters program has once again received well in excess of 180 applications for the 20-22 slots for the 2008 fall cohort.

The program continues to evolve and adapt to changing needs within the student affairs profession and it continues to receive strong support from its faculty and from colleagues across the university who provide exceptional learning opportunities for students both in the classroom and in the field. Nearly every day someone stops to let me know how much they like, admire and love teaching the SAHE students and how much they appreciate having this program in the School of Education and as part of the university.

As alumni and friends of this program you should be proud of your role in making this program such a pillar in the professional preparation program field and so highly regarded on the Colorado State University campus. I hope we can count on your continued support in the future. We are proud of our past and we are even more excited about our future. Thank you so much for doing your part!

Acknowledgements

Student Organizations and Their Relationship to the Institution: A Dynamic Framework

Linda Kuk, David Thomas, & James Banning

Abstract

Student organizations play an important role in the development of students within the collegiate experience. The history of student organizations and their relationship to the institutions in which they exist has been plagued by strained and legalistic relationships, limiting their development as organizations. The literature reveals that these groups have not received the attention they deserve and it is unclear to what extent they serve as agents that promote and advance the goals of the institution. This article introduces a new typology model that views student organizations within the context of place and agency. The intent of this model is to provide a framework for assessing the relationship between student organizations and their affiliating institutions, and also to serve as a means for understanding and promoting student organizations' roles in enhancing student development and success.

Student organizations have been part of the fabric of the American collegiate experience since the inception of higher education in the United States. Over the years the relationships between various student groups and the collegiate institutions with which they are affiliated have undergone considerable transformation. They have also experienced considerable adjudication related to freedom of speech and freedom of association issues. This history has resulted in somewhat strained, legalistic, and administratively focused relationships between student organizations and collegiate institutions. This type of relationship, unfortunately, does not effectively utilize the connective and educational attributes of these organizations to foster the learning and student development goals of the institution. Nor does this relationship provide for the development of each student organization's own capacity for organizational development. This article is intended to explore the literature related to student organizations and to propose a new model for understanding and orchestrating the relationship between student organizations and their affiliated institutions. The authors suggest that this new model could promote more positive, collaborative, and mutually enhancing opportunities for organizations and their institutions to achieve their mission and goals.

History of Student Organizations

Student organizations' presence on college campuses in an organized and sanctioned form became visible at the beginning of the 20th century (Milani & Johnson, 1992). Early forms of these organized groups included: literary societies, social and dining clubs, athletic teams, and fraternal organizations. Student associations and affiliations whether it was for social, residential, athletic, recreational, intellectual, political, cultural, religious, professional, or networking purposes have played a major role in defining the extracurricular life of the college experience.

Throughout the evolution of these groups there has been an ongoing attempt to define their relationships to their institutions. These efforts generally focused on issues of censorship, control, affiliation, and image: resulting in years of litigation and a somewhat contentious, narrow, and legalistic approach to defining these relationships. In the late 1960's, attempts were made to draft statements that addressed these relationship issues. The *Joint Statement*

on Rights and Freedoms of Students (1967) stated, "[Students] should be free to organize and join associations to promote their common interests" (American Association of University Professors [AAUP], p. 366). This statement goes on to state that:

Students and student organizations should be free to examine and discuss all questions of interest to them and to express opinions publicly and privately. They should always be free to support causes by orderly means which do not disrupt the regular and essential operations of the institution. At the same time, it should be made clear to the academic and the larger community that in their public expression or demonstrations students or student organizations speak only for themselves. (AAUP, 1967, pp. 366-367)

Since the Joint Statement's creation, many, if not most, institutions have used this statement as the guideline for policy formation regarding their relationship to students and student organizations (Bryant & Mullendore, 1992). As a result of court decisions in favor of these stated principles, institutions have generally fostered an "arms-length," somewhat legalistic, posture toward student organizations.

Today we find hundreds of different types of student organizations in existence on college campuses, and they act as a significant part of the co-curricular experience for many college students (Reisberg, 2000). It would be safe to say that most students establish their formal and informal connections with their peers and with the institution through their affiliation with some form of student organization. The report, the *Study Group on Excellence in American Higher Education* (1994) called *involvement* the most important condition for improving undergraduate education, and noted that student organizations are a key way students become involved in education. Academic programs and professional associations have also fostered the development of such groups as a means of linking students to their professional experiences and careers (Nadler, 1997; Norvilitis, 2000).

For the most part, institutional attention to campus student organizations has primarily focused on their general behavior within the context of the campus environment, as well as their internal organizational structures, dynamics, and financial operations. To this day, most student organizations are defined and classified in their relationship to the institution by simple labels such as service, social, academic, recreational, et cetera. As long as a student group registers and follows institutional policies and procedures that apply to their organizational classification, they are considered in good standing with the institution, and generally receive little involvement or interference from the institution.

A number of important issues related to student organizations' relationship to the larger institution have not been adequately addressed. It remains unclear to what extent student organizations, as entities, are nurtured by the larger institution. It is also unclear to what extent institutions seek to partner with student organizations to enhance student member connection to the institutions, or develop the potential of the organization as agents responsible for the betterment of the larger community in which they exist.

Current Student Organization Research

Research related to student organizations has primarily focused on the relationship between participation in organizations and the development of a variety of psychosocial and learning development goals in individual students. The results of this research consistently supported the values of participating in student organizations and measured student gains in the areas of social and interpersonal skills development (Marsh, 1987; Schuh & Laverty, 1983), improved educational aspiration (Marsh, 1987; Williams & Winston, 1985), academic achievement (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Marsh & Parker,1984), satisfaction with the academic experience

(Abrahamowicz), enhanced career and life planning (Williams & Winston), greater self-confidence (Marsh & Parker), better relationships with faculty (Abrahamowicz), and student retention and satisfaction with the college experience (Pace, 1984).

Most of the research regarding student organizations over the last 20 years has focused on specific organizational types such as athletics and Greeks (Pascarella & Terrenzini, 1991, 2005) and multicultural and gay, lesbian, bi-sexual, and transgender (GLBT) organizations (Mallory, 1997; McRee & Cooper, 1998; Rodriguez, 1997; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001). The results of these studies have been mixed regarding the contributions of these organizations toward the development of students and supporting their social and academic success.

Very little recent research has been found regarding student organizations. Astin (1993) found that election to student offices, and attributes such as public speaking, leadership ability, and interpersonal skills correlated with the number of hours spent participating in student groups. Involvement in clubs and organizations has been found to be strongly correlated with several areas of psychosocial development including: developing purpose, educational involvement, career planning, lifestyle planning, cultural participation, and developing academic autonomy (Cooper, Healy & Simpson, 1994; Foubert & Grainger, 2006). Patrick, Niles, Margetiak, and Cunning (1993) found a relationship between involvement in a student organization and satisfaction with college majors.

The Concept of Involvement

Over the last 20 years, there has been considerable research regarding student involvement with peers and with the broadly defined co-curricular experience (Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lowell, 1999; Pascarella & Terrenzini, 2005). Much of this research was closely focused on the concept of *involvement,* as fostered by the work of Astin (1977, 1984, 1993, 1996). In his work, *What Matters in College? Four Critical Years Revisited,* Astin (1993) suggests that "the student peer group is the single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years" (p. 398). Astin also stipulates that the influence has both psychological and social or group dimensions. This concept of involvement included participation in student organizations and its impact on the student collegiate experience.

Involvement with peers has been found to be a key factor in a variety of student success dimensions of the college experience. Evidence suggests that peer interactions, particularly those experiences that extend and reinforce what happens in academic programs, appear to positively influence learning (Arnold, Kuh, Vesper, & Shuh, 1993; Astin 1993; Cabrera, Nora, Terenzini, Pascarella, & Hagedorn, 1999; Kuh, Arnold, & Vesper, 1991; Volkwein & Carbone, 1994; Watson & Kuh, 1996). Students' peers have been found to play a substantial role in their general cognitive growth and intellectual development and may actually be an even greater influence than students' in-class experiences (Astin, 1993; Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella, & Nora, 1995; Terenzini, Springer, Yaeger, Pascarella, & Nora, 1994). A number of studies have found peer interactions to be more influential than interactions with faculty in the development of interpersonal skills (Grayson, 1999), in the development of leadership skills (Astin, 1992), and overall personal development (Arnold et al., 1993; Kuh & Hu, 2001; MacKay & Kuh, 1994). Values held by peers have been found to have an influence on civic and community attitudes, humanistic attitudes (Berger, 2000; Sax, 2000), and socio-political attitudes (Astin, 1993; Dey, 1996, 1997; Sax, 2000; Sax & Astin, 1998). Casual interaction with members of racial and ethnic groups different from a student's own group may have positive effects on attitudes and values regarding racial-ethnic awareness and engagement (Antonio, 2000, 2001; Asada, Swank, & Goldey, 2003; Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002).

Research on student involvement in campus activities during the college experience indicates a number of positive outcomes for students. Student co-curricular involvement, including clubs and organizations, may have positive implications for cognitive development and foster critical thinking (Baxter Magolda, 1992a; 1992b; Inman & Pascarella, 1998). Student experiences in college are more powerful predictors of leadership development than an institution's characteristics (Astin, 1993; Sax & Astin, 1998; Smart, 1997; Smart, Ethington, Riggs, & Thompson, 2002). Gains in students' positive academic and social self-concepts have been linked to involvement in co-curricular activities (Berger, 2002; Kezar & Moriarity, 2000) and involvement in leadership experiences (Whitt, 1994). Studies related to the effects of participation in extra-curricular activities indicate a positive influence on students' sense of autonomy (Cooper et al., 1994; Taub, 1995).

Although the value of student involvement in the undergraduate collegiate experience has been established, the application of research related to the concept of involvement, especially as it relates to student clubs and organizations, remains vague. This is because the term *involvement* is too broad and needs to be more specifically defined if it is going to effectively inform practice (Cooper et al., 1994; Gellin, 2003; Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lowell, 1999). What needs to be more clearly defined is how student organizations promote student development and success, and how student organizations can maximize their organizational attributes to better serve the academic and social needs of their members.

Additionally, it is assumed that student organizations share attributes and characteristics that are distinct from those of individual members and other organizations. At any given time, each student organization is at a distinct level of organizational maturity and espoused values and behaviors. Models are needed to provide practitioners with tools that can help advance student organizations' development and contribute to a richer understanding of the relationships between student organizations and the institutions with which they are associated.

What is called for is research and models that address the following questions: (1) How do student clubs and organizations specifically work to promote the goal related to student development and learning? (2) What are distinct organizational attributes associated with the general notion of student involvement? (3) What aspects of student involvement in student organizations serve to promote positive growth and development of both the individual members and the organization? (4) How might student affairs practitioners utilize this knowledge to foster student organizational development?

This article presents a more dynamic framework for understanding the relationships between campus student organizations and the institution. It is built on the foundation of the ecological perspective (Banning & Kaiser, 1974) and the organizational/place model and typology presented by Thomas (2004) and Thomas and Cross (2007). It is offered as a model to help foster a way of understanding and enhancing the relationship between student organizations and the institutions in which they exist. It provides an initial way of helping student organizations begin to assess their attributes and values to foster positive organizational development.

The Campus Ecology Perspective

The ecological perspective in summary is presented by Banning and Kuk (2005): The concept of campus ecology is defined as the study of the campus as an ecological system made up of three components. The first is the *organisms/inhabitant component* which includes students, faculty, staff, visitors, and others associated with the campus. The second component is the *setting/environments component*, and it includes both the social environment (the curriculum,

the co-curriculum, the extra-curricular, and other social functions) and the physical environment (buildings, landscapes, walkways, and other natural and constructed features of the environment). The third component is the *activities/behaviors component* (learning, research, personal development, and other outcomes specific to higher education) (Banning & Kuk, 2005, p. 9). Student Organizations are made up of all three of these environmental components and serve as agents for the interaction of individual students with the institution.

One advantage of using an ecology perspective is that it can serve as a heuristic device in thinking about traditional biology/ecology concepts as metaphors and analogies to apply to the college and university campus environment. Banning (1984) outlined many of these possible linkages, but when thinking about student organizations and their relationship to the institution a link that has yet to be utilized is the concept of "niche width."

Out of traditional biology/ecology, the concept of niche width is defined in its simplest form as the sum total of the different resources exploited by an organism (Pianka, 1975). Both in the field of biology/ecology and more recently, sociology, the concept of niche width has become very sophisticated. A simple definition of niche width will provide a window from which to view the relationship between student organizations and campuses in a more dynamic perspective. For example, what campus resources are utilized or exploited by campus organizations? The other side of the question is what resources are provided to the institution by the different student organizations. This framework, building off the concept of niche width, sets up the dynamic that some student organizations may use up far more institutional resources than they replace. On the other hand, some student organizations may provide more resources to the institution than they use. Still other organizations may have different configurations of utilization of resources and the provision of resources. To the extent that this framework regarding the dynamics between "resources used" and "resources given" by the student organization is applicable in relation to the host institution, the organizational/place framework developed by Thomas (2004) and Thomas and Cross (2007) holds promise for the development of student organizations within the campus environment.

Student Organizational Types – Institutional Relationships

Thomas (2004) and Thomas and Cross (2007) in their study of the relationship between business organizations and the host communities in which they were embedded, suggested four major types of relationships. This typology was used to foster a deeper understanding of the relationship between business and the greater community as a means of fostering community development. While this typology was designed to describe corporate organizations, the authors believe it has useful applications with regard to student organizations in a collegiate setting. These organizational relationship descriptions can be translated to inform the dynamics between student organizations and the institutions of higher education in which they function.

Thomas and Cross (2007) framed this organizational typology within the context of two key concepts. First, the idea that organizations act as "place builders" within the context of both the physical and social environment in which they exist; and second that organizations act as "agents" related to the meaning that they give to place. The combination of these two sets of characteristics influence the organization's goals, the organization's contributions to place as a form of social responsibility, and to their varied organizational behaviors (Thomas & Cross, 2007).

Organizations are construed as "place builders" based on how they value place and as a result how they contribute to or detract from the social construction of place. An organization's agent perspective distinguishes between two distinctive viewpoints held by an organization: one

that conceptualizes their success as interdependent with the well-being of place and another that conceptualizes its success as independent of place. Organizations with an interdependent perspective view themselves as integral members of the larger community in which they exist and view their relationship to place as interdependent. Organizations that are viewed from the independent perspective view themselves as occupants of place and view the realms of place as resources to satisfy the organization's internal needs (Thomas & Cross, 2007).

Organizational Typology

Four distinct place agent typologies have been identified: *transformational, contributive, contingent,* and *exploitative* (Thomas, 2004). These identities reveal how organizations conceptualize themselves as social actors/agents in relation to the place in which they are located. They differ in how they conceptualize themselves as agents, the values they assign to the realms of place, their organizational culture, and their strategies and behaviors.

Transformational Organizations

Transformational organizations view themselves as critical agents for change in a community. They hold an interdependent perspective regarding their organization and its relationship to the institution. They also have organizational missions which focus on improving life and creating positive change for both the organization and the institution in which they are located. The organizational culture is highly focused on team learning, collaboration with other organizations, openness to change, and building partnerships across student groups and with the leadership of the institution. Members of a transformational organization have developed the skills and mindsets that embrace the organization's philosophy and attitudes related to learning, teaching, and outreach beyond their organization. The organization values place as a cultural and environmental entity made up of unique social relationships, material relationships and natural resources, and characteristics. The organization collectively views itself as a member of the place, not separate from it.

Because transformational organizations see themselves as part of an interdependent system, their success contributes to the success of the place, and vice versa. They practice an integrative strategy that focuses on creating and orchestrating a shared vision for the community and the organization that holds itself accountable to the community for the quality and content of its contributions to place. Transformational strategies and behaviors include initiating new policies and organizational practices for protecting the natural environment, enhancing the campus environment and its culture, promoting the cultural heritage and campus traditions, promoting the safety and well-being of the campus, and supporting and sustaining the shared use of environmental resources.

Contributive Organizations

Contributive organizations view themselves as members of a network of campus organizations and leaders who share a common ideology about the campus and the community. Their identity as a campus organization is affirmed by engaging in collaborative partnerships with other campus organizations and philanthropic and community service activities that give back to place (Chaskin, Brown, Venkatesh & Vidal, 2001; Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo, 1996). In contrast to transformational organizations that view themselves as responsible for the well-being of place, a contributive organization views itself as a contributor to the well being of place. The organizational culture is focused on giving back and conforming to local norms and values.

Contributive organizations value place first for its social relationships and second for organizational growth opportunities. The natural world is just the setting or geographical

location of their organizations. These organizations need a place that needs them; part of the value of place is that it provides a niche for these organizations to simultaneously prosper and give back to place. They practice an integrative strategy that cultivates and promotes its role as a key player/contributor in the community. Contributive organizations value each of the three realms of place for what that realm provides for the campus and the organization: nature for its natural resources that make the campus (place) unique; material environment for its community infrastructure and its access to organizational resources; and the social realm for the networks of individuals and social connections that facilitate its philanthropic and social membership activities.

Contingent Organizations

Contingent organizations view themselves as disassociated and autonomous organizations. They narrowly define social and community responsibility as obeying existing laws, campus policies and ethical codes, but they make a concerted effort to act accordingly. Rather than view themselves as interdependent with place (transformational) or key members of place (contributive) they view themselves as control and compliance agents. The organizations' culture appears structured and internally focused. The contingent organization practices a separatist strategy that distinguishes the organization in terms of its unique characteristics and its status power. They view their status as competitive rather than collaborative with other organizations. They value each of the three realms of place for what the realm provides for the organization: nature for its ability to attract and retain members, as well as the natural resources used by the organization; the material environment for the campus infrastructure; and the social realm for its social connections. They practice philanthropy and community service only as a means for advancing their own causes, not out of an intrinsic commitment to place. Their principle contribution is their visible self promoting, economic/philanthropic contribution, and adherence to laws and campus/community policies and procedures.

Exploitative Organizations

Exploitative organizations view themselves as occupants of place. They are isolated with respect to the traditions and values of the campus community. These organizations argue for organizational rights in the context where organizations are afforded the rights and legal protections typically afforded only to individual citizens (Vogel, 2005). These organizations plan and organize their control over place. Organizational success and/or the short term gains of individual members trump any campus or community needs (Thomas, 2004). Exploitative organizations value place as a commodity where each of the three realms of place is valued for what the realms can provide the organization. These organizations are active users of financial, cultural, social, and political resources within the campus community, which they utilize to their organizations' benefit (Rodman, 1992; Sagoff, 1996).

Exploitative organizations practice a separatist strategy, focusing their mission on maximizing the personal gains from within the organization. They deliberately target certain places for the potential to extract resources without accountability and without regard for the risks or harm posed to the campus or greater community. While some exploitative organizations may at times appear to contribute to the campus, these organizations are not invested in ways that contribute consistently to place well-being. Exploitative organizations are likely to leave a place or disaffiliate if they determine they do not fit, or if they are asked to change their behavior to comport with institutional expectations or policies. Social and community responsibility are not values that exploitative organizations espouse, or focus their collective energy on achieving.

Conclusions

As noted previously, this typology can be used to classify campus student organizations as belonging to a distinct type. This classification typology process provides a more dynamic view of student organizations than what has been used historically. The typology becomes even more useful when the types are re-cast as variables in a fuzzy set (Ragin, 2000).

A fuzzy set framework frees the campus student organization from needing to be classified in one and only one of the typology's categories. Instead, each of the categories become a variable and allows each student organization a certain degree of membership in each of the four categories and variables. This framework then permits both the organization and the institution to engage in strategies that might help the organization change specific aspects of the organization. For example, a student organization could be engaged in a set of behaviors that would give it a strong membership in "transformational," while other behaviors of the organization might place it in a low membership in "contributive" and perhaps medium membership in the "contingent" and "exploitative" categories/variables. By using the fuzzy set approach, the complexity of individual campus student organization's behavioral patterns can be captured. The organization can use this information to build organizational development strategies that would enable it to frame goals and strategies that develop closer and more effective working relationships with advisors, other campus organizations, and institutional leaders.

This additional complexity in the application of the typology to student organizations would allow important questions to be addressed. For example, what pattern across the four variables best describes a mature campus student organization? How does this mature pattern compare to the pattern or profile of a newly organized campus group? What might a student organization do to address issues of organizational growth based on shared strategies from other organizations?

When designing an organizational development intervention with a campus group, the group's typology pattern across the four variables could be very useful. Advisors and organizational leaders could use these typologies to help their organization change its values and behaviors. For example, a student organization could be high in making contributions to the campus, but certain annual events in the life of the organization also place the organization high in the exploitative category. Understanding the pattern would provide an opportunity to build on strengths within the student organization, as well as target behaviors that are exploitative and detrimental to the organization and its relationship to the institution. The fuzzy set conception of the typology allows for a myriad of descriptions and applications.

The use of this *place/agent typology* can help campuses work more directly with student organizations to build a closer relationship with the institution, as well as provide an avenue for the institution to assist student organizations to become stronger, community-focused organizations. It also provides an avenue for enhanced engagement of student organizations in the goals of the institution and strengthening the student organization's role in the overall development of student success.

Linda Kuk ('73) is a Professor of Education at Colorado State University and the Program Chair of the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.

David Thomas is an Associate Professor of Business at the University of Northern Colorado.

James H. Banning is a Professor of Education at Colorado State University.

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An Emerging Population in Higher Education:
Students with Asperger Syndrome

Richard Okamoto
Seattle University

Abstract

New student populations in higher education emerge and evolve over the course of a student affairs career. Keeping up to date on the characteristics of emerging student groups can be a challenge. The author addresses the characteristics and challenges for university students with Asperger Syndrome. This newly identified group of students, though not large in number, can have a profound impact on various programs in student affairs and in the classroom. The author provides an overview of Asperger Syndrome and discusses some of the issues this neurological condition causes for college and university students with Asperger's.

It is the beginning of the fall semester at a small liberal arts university in the Midwest. The leaves are turning and a new group of students is attending an orientation session that Rashida is leading. As she begins to discuss issues on academic advising one student raises her hand. She asks Rashida if she is aware of the names of several of the trees outside the session's classroom. Being the good orientation coordinator that she is, she admits that she does not know and indicates that she will check with the grounds crew and get back to the student later. Before Rashida can continue into the rest of her session the student gives the genus and species name of the trees and describes why they are native to that region. After thanking the student for her information, Rashida resumes her talk. The student raises her hand again, which Rashida chooses to ignore. The student who commented on the trees then blurts out that there are 20 different varieties of trees on the campus and that this was the reason she had chosen to study biology and proceeds to give the genus name of each of the trees and describes whether each is an evergreen or deciduous. Rashida manages to cut into the student's lecture and politely tells the student that her knowledge of trees sounds vast, but that is not the subject of her talk and that she would appreciate talking with the student after the session about the trees on campus. By this time, Rashida notices other students' non-verbal reactions and notices they clearly are irritated with this student and they are no longer paying attention to her.

The above was a fictionalized account of one student affairs professional's encounter with a student with Asperger Syndrome. The account highlights several characteristics that are common to students with this particular neurobiological condition. They often have difficulties with reading social situations, and are often not aware of the non-verbal cues of their peers (Attwood, 2007). These students may resort to talking about subjects that they are familiar with or other forms of self-stimulation like the incessant questions in the scenario as a way to reduce their anxiety. These students often possess the ability to hyper-focus on subjects for which they take a personal interest. While this characteristic may be distracting to peers, it can help them be successful in college.

Student affairs professionals are often consulted as the experts about students on campuses. Students with Asperger Syndrome are an emerging group of students whose disability can bring new challenges for administrators and faculty alike. Oftentimes these students are misunderstood because their disability affects their abilities to interact socially with others. Despite research on autism and specifically Asperger Syndrome being more available, much of it is focused on students' primary and secondary educational experiences and not those in higher education. It is the intent of this author to inform the general student affairs professional about the challenges that this group of students face. This paper is divided into five sections, the history and background of this diagnosis, the symptoms of Asperger Syndrome, the challenges students with this diagnosis face when they reach college, suggestions from the field, and summary.

History and Background

Autism and other Autism spectrum disorders were assumed to be rare conditions affecting two to four children of 10,000, but in the early 1990's studies came out reporting rates of 60 per 10,000 children (Wing & Potter, 2002). This rise in the incidence, according to Wing and Potter, was due in part to changes in diagnostic criteria and increasing awareness of Autism spectrum disorders by the American Psychological Association. According to Attwood (2007), depending on the criteria used, Asperger Syndrome may occur as frequently as 1 in 280 children.

In 1944 Austrian psychiatrist, Hans Asperger, originally described the syndrome. Just before he published his paper on what he called *autistic psychopathy*, a colleague, Leo Kanner published his paper on infantile autism. While Kanner's work on autism in children became widely known around the world (Wing, 1981), Asperger's work was largely unknown. Asperger's work described a pattern of behavior and abilities that predominantly occurred in boys. This pattern included a lack of empathy, little ability to form friendships, one-sided conversations, intense absorption in a special interest, and clumsy movement (Attwood, 1998).

Wing (1981) was one of the first researchers to use the term Asperger Syndrome to describe these autistic-like symptoms. Uta Frith, a colleague of Wing's, would later translate Asperger's original paper in 1991, causing increased awareness of this condition arousing a great amount of interest in children who were higher functioning yet displayed similar symptoms as children who were diagnosed with autism (Wing, 2005). The American Psychological Association (APA) would later include this diagnosis in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) in 1994 (Farrell, 2004). The purpose of this brief introduction of the history of Asperger Syndrome is to underscore that this condition is a very recently discovered one.

Symptoms of Asperger Syndrome

According to Bashe & Kirby (2005) Asperger Syndrome is a neurobiological condition. Asperger Syndrome falls within a group of disorders described in the current version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fourth Addition Text Revision (DSM-IVR) as pervasive developmental disorders (National Institute of Mental Health, 2007). Another name used to describe this group of disorders is *autism spectrum disorders* (ASD). Researchers such as Frith (2004) and Attwood (2007) consider Asperger Syndrome to be a diagnosis with fairly fluid boundaries that presently invites further investigation. In spite of this fluidity in diagnosis, the following are some of the more commonly observed behaviors of this group of students.

Asperger Syndrome (AS) does not describe a single behavior or deficit, but a specific combination of symptoms (Bashe & Kirby, 2005). Table 1 describes the primary and secondary symptoms that may be found in different combinations for students with AS (Table 1 – Asperger Syndrome Combinations).

Table 1
Asperger Syndrome Primary and Secondary Combinations (Bashe & Kirby)

Primary Symptoms:

1. Preoccupation with a special interest
2. Stiff, pedantic, one-sided conversational style
3. Problems in the social use of language
4. Inability to correctly interpret or express nonverbal communication
5. Lack of empathy regarding feelings of others
6. Negativistic worldview
7. Difficulty relating socially with others, particularly same-age peers

Secondary symptoms:

1. General anxiety
2. Sensory integration problems
3. Auditory integration problems
4. Motor clumsiness
5. Atypical responses to stimuli
6. Uni-tasking
7. Problems with organization

Attwood, one of the world's leading researchers on Asperger Syndrome, describes children with Asperger Syndrome as having the following characteristics (Table 2) based on what he has observed through his clinical practice (Table 2 – Asperger Syndrome Characteristics).

Table 2
Asperger Syndrome Characteristics (Attwood, 2007, p. 33)

1. Delayed social maturity and social reasoning
2. Immature empathy
3. Difficulty making friends
4. Difficulty with communication and control of emotions
5. Unusual language abilities that include advanced vocabulary and syntax, but delayed conversation skills
6. A fascination with a topic that is unusual in intensity or focus
7. Difficulty maintaining focus in a classroom
8. An unusual profile of learning abilities
9. A need for some assistance with some self-help and organizational skills
10. Clumsiness in terms of gait and coordination

The author has observed many of these same characteristics in students with this diagnosis who receive services through the Disabilities Services Office at Seattle University. Additionally, although these students exhibit the most common symptoms, none of them are like each other in personality or the challenges they face in the university setting.

The author has observed that students with AS seem to have difficulties and challenges that place them along a spectrum, which seems to revolve around their ability to blend in socially, and also includes their ability to develop a *theory of mind*. *Theory of mind* was described by Baron-Cohen (1995) and Attwood (2007) to be the ability to recognize the thoughts, beliefs, and intentions of other people in order to make sense of their behavior and predict what they will do next. On the author's campus, he has observed that there are students who seem able to hide their symptoms from other students and people with whom they interact. These people are completely unaware that students with AS are different in any way. There are students with AS who are extremely anxious because they cannot read the other students around them and others who do not give any more thought to other students then they would the furniture in the classroom. Despite these challenges, the author has observed that these same students seem to improve in their social interactions over the course of time in college. After gaining an understanding of the incidence, history, and common symptoms of Asperger Syndrome, the next section presents the challenges these students experience in college.

Challenges for Students with Asperger Syndrome in College
This section is divided into two distinct parts. The first part examines common issues as discussed by three college graduates with Asperger Syndrome. The second part includes issues that were discussed by clinicians.

Temple Grandin was first diagnosed with Autism back in 1950 and was one of the first individuals to give the general public a view of what it was like to have Autism. If she was diagnosed today she might be put in the same group with those students with Asperger Syndrome. Grandin described her life with Autism in two quite fascinating accounts, *Emergence* (2005) and *Thinking in Pictures* (2006). She received support from her family and had private schooling before reaching college. She then attended college near her high school and main support system. She would later complete a doctoral degree and become one of this country's leading experts on humane livestock handling and much traveled speaker on Autism. Despite successfully finishing a bachelor's degree with honors, she also described a very challenging time when she started her graduate degree. In *Emergence* she describes this time:

> In September I moved to Arizona and began graduate school in the psychology program. This should have been my time for self-approval and self-praise. After all, I had come a long way from the non-verbal, tantrum-throwing, peer-hitting child. Instead, I was filled with self-doubts and a sense of worthlessness. The fixation to find meaning in my life drove me relentlessly. This fixation fueled by the panic anxiety attacks consumed me. (Grandin, 2005, p. 121)

She continued to struggle with thoughts of worthlessness and obsess about cattle chutes. Then she came to a realization.

> A few days later I realized that I was suffering from the same old syndrome-the lack of familiar surroundings, familiar students and teachers, familiar classes. I wasn't worthless; I was simply reacting, as a typical Autistic individual, to a new environment, new people and new courses of study. (Grandin, 2005, p. 125)

This particular incident in Grandin's college experience is very illustrative of the types of difficulties that many of the students with AS have with transitions.

Students with AS may experience intense anxiety when starting at a new university during orientation or after moving into the residence halls. They may also experience this when starting a new term with new classes and a new routine. In this same vein, Liane Holliday Willey describes similar difficulties she had with finding her way around a large university.

> The confusing, rambling, crowded and expansive campus assaulted my limited sense of direction, making it extremely difficult for me to find my way -literally and figuratively-around campus. I remember leaving a class totally unable to discern which way I needed to go in order to follow the most direct path to my next class. The crowds of students would fill the doorways and the halls, giving me little time to grab hold of my thoughts so that usually I would just follow the wave of students out of the buildings, as if I knew where I was going. (Willey, 1999, p. 48)

Willey would later move past these difficulties to obtain her doctorate, similar to Grandin, and would go on to be a writer and researcher in psycholinguistics. In both of these accounts, Grandin and Willey found ways to move past these challenges and to find academic success. Stephen Shore in the following account did not have the same fortune.

Farrell (2004) describes one doctoral student's tragic story. Stephen Shore had been a double major in accounting and music. Despite having taught himself every instrument in band, as a junior at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, he was stumped by an assignment in his Physics of Music class. He was only given vague instructions in his syllabus and was stopped by the lack of specificity about the assignment. He was able to persist and graduated with honors. Upon entering the doctoral program in music at Boston University he had to pass exams on different genres of music. He found he could not explain the music of the romantic

period due to the apparent lack of structure and patterns that he was able to recognize in the others. He requested that questions be reworded to allow him to compensate for his literal way of thinking. He was denied this accommodation and ended up having to leave the program. Shore's situation does illustrate the difficulties disabilities services offices encounter when working with these students. Many do not fully understand the scope and nature of this condition. The disabilities services director's comments underscore this. "Ms. Wolf says she would have handled the situation 'with more compassion' had she known more about the disorder at the time" (Farrell, 2004, A35). She has since developed a better understanding of AS and now gives talks about the disorder with Mr. Shore.

These three accounts discussed different individuals who encountered struggles when they entered college. In this next part, the author presents issues for assisting students with AS as they transition to the college setting based on clinical research.

Adreon and Durocher (2007) reviewed the literature on transitions into college for students with Asperger Syndrome. Table 3 is a summary of the most common transition issues for students with AS (Table 3 – Transition Issues For Students With Asperger Syndrome).

Table 3
Transition Issues For Students With Asperger Syndrome (Adreon & Durocher, 2007, p. 274)

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1. Deciding what type and size of college to attend and where the student is going to live
2. Assessing/teaching independent living skills
3. Discussing when and how to disclose one's disability
4. Identifying appropriate academic supports and accommodations
5. Identifying necessary social supports
6. Identifying strategies to assist in adjusting to the college environment

Safran (2005) identified some of the same issues and several others in her discussion of issues for students with AS at the secondary level. According to Safran, these students are emerging from one of the more challenging developmental periods for any young adolescent. In one of the only studies looking at social functioning of students with AS the researchers found that young people with AS showed significantly more social impairment than their same age peers (Safran, 2005). Students with AS often behave oddly, have difficulties keeping up with their peers' slang, possess deficits in conversation style and self-regulation. These characteristics can lead to social isolation, being bullied, and increased risk for depression, generalized anxiety, and even suicide. Issues of transition into each school year, structuring and creating routines, activating academic accommodations, promoting learning through their strengths, carefully selecting extracurricular activities and community service, receiving coaching in social skills, and collaborating with parents all seem to address some of the above issues at the secondary level.

With the numerous challenges for students with AS, the challenge for student affairs staff is that these vary greatly from student to student. In the following section, the author presents approaches and suggestions that have been used in helping these students make the transition into college.

Suggestions from the Field

Students with AS enter college with a variety of challenges ranging from social skill deficits and academic planning issues to adjusting to quarterly changes in their schedules. In this section, suggestions and approaches on how to address some of the issues for students with AS are discussed. Ozonoff, Dawson, and McPartland (2002) address their suggestions to parents of students with AS. They discuss whether to disclose, setting up a structured course and study schedule, choosing professors who are flexible, registering for classes that play to their strengths when first enrolling, taking a reduced academic load, and establishing social outlets through participation in clubs and organizations. They also suggest that parents consider if their student(s) are able to do routine functions of independent living with little supervision such as housekeeping, paying bills, personal hygiene, cooking, shopping, and transportation prior to choosing a living option.

Prince-Hughes (2002) asked nine individuals about their experiences in college, and included her own personal account in her book *Aquamarine Blue 5.* Prince-Hughes is also an individual with AS who finished her doctorate and has published several books about her own experiences with Autism. While Table 3 is a summary of the most common transition issues for students with AS, Table 4 provides a summary of some of the suggestions and challenges Prince-Hughes recognized through her own and other students' experiences (Table 4 – Asperger Syndrome Identifiers and Recommended Actions).

Table 4
Asperger Syndrome Identifiers and Recommended Actions (Prince-Hughes, 2002)

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1. People with Autism are often misdiagnosed with other disorders. It is important for university counselors to learn more about Autism and the many conditions associated with it.

2. Be aware that talking therapy does not cure Autism.

3. Students may not be able to maintain a full load of classes. They also often need longer time to finish exams and projects due to taking longer to figure out instructions and getting fixated on them.

4. Clubs that focus on a student's area of interest can help them meet others and to develop social skills. These students function better when they can establish routines. They may need to carry "odd" objects to class and around campus with them. These can help the student feel anchored.

5. Allow students to live in a private room because they have greater needs for privacy.

6. Some of these students do have peculiar tics like rocking, or grimacing. These often are behaviors used by these students to calm down and focus.

7. Professors should have these types of behaviors explained to them.

8. Students in the class may need to have these explained to them as well.

Prince-Hughes (2002) notes these challenges and her recommendations call for institutions to be much more intentional in how these students transition to college. More specific attention needs to be paid to how these students are housed, advised, oriented, and introduced to campus.

Dillon (2007) suggests that services be flexible given the variable nature of students with AS needs and challenges. He also observes that there is a change in the way services are administered at the university level. In high school, services are guided by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). This law requires more supports and measures that are effective for graduating the student. While in college, these services are guided by the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and Section 504. He points out that in higher education the primary foci of these laws are accessibility and anti-discrimination. He suggests that given the specialized nature of students with AS that collaboration among the student, the college and rehabilitation agency might be one way to improve services. Rehabilitation agencies like the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation that are typically funded by federal dollars, have caseworkers who are skilled and trained in models of support for students with disabilities. Whereas the university can provide the educational opportunities, the rehabilitation agency can provide some of the other supports that the university may not be able to offer to ensure the student's success. Dillon's approach suggests utilizing existing networks of expertise to supplement those services that universities do not possess, but there are challenges for these types of governmental and institutional partnerships. Clear expectations need to be laid out by both sides. Also, the funding and staffing of various rehabilitation agencies do differ from state to state. Considering this type of relationship may depend on the nature of the agencies in the university's state.

Welkowitz and Baker (2005) describe a very different type of program. They describe a peer-mentor program that is overseen by their department of psychology. The peer-mentors earn an hourly wage and course credit. Students with AS who indicate a need or interest in being mentored are assigned a peer-mentor who is trained and supervised by the faculty on how to work with students with this type of disability. The peer-mentors offer social support and coaching on college life. The program at Keene State College seems to be a very effective way of offering students with AS support and peer mentors the opportunity for service and learning. The challenge for this type of program is having the staffing and campus commitment to establish this type of program. This type of inter-campus collaboration should be explored further as one way to support these students.

Summary

It was the intent of the author to better inform student affairs professionals about AS. There are several different approaches for transitioning students with AS but none that seem reproducible in all college settings. Students with AS possess many gifts and bring a different form of diversity to campus. As student affairs professionals, we need to become better educated about these students and utilize cross-campus collaborations to ensure a better transition and to ensure support for students with AS. Our faculty members and other students also need to be better informed about students with AS. Student affairs professionals can play a big part in making this happen by being informed themselves.

Richard Okamato is a Disabilities Specialist at Seattle University.

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Breaking Down Barriers:
Examining the Effects of Race and Ability on Study Abroad Participation

Cynthia Scarpa
Colorado State University

Abstract

Studying abroad provides undergraduate students with an opportunity to gain the intercultural competency necessary to participate in a global society. However, the majority of study abroad students are White, non-disabled females. This article examines the barriers of race and ability, and their impacts on today's college students when deciding to go abroad.

Fourteen million students are currently enrolled in higher education, yet only 223,534 students studied abroad during the 2005-2006 year (Institute of International Education, 2007b). This comprises "less than one percent of all students enrolled in U.S higher education system" (Obst, Bhandari,& Witherell, 2007, p. 6). Students involved in study abroad programs gain the intercultural competence necessary to participate in an ever increasing global society. The United States government is recognizing the need for more students to take part in educational overseas programs, so they can succeed in an ever shrinking world (Obst et al., 2007). One measure taken to address this disparity was a resolution passed by the U.S. Senate that enacted 2006 as the *Year of Study Abroad*, "ensuring that the citizens of the United States are globally literate" (S. Res. 308, 2005). In 2001, President George W. Bush spoke on the importance of undergraduate students becoming global actors, when he said, "We must…reaffirm our commitment to promote educational opportunities that enable American students to study abroad" (NAFSA, 2005, p. 11). Another government program, The Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program (2005), provides a powerful overview of why America should be sending students abroad:

> On the international stage, what nations don't know can hurt them…[W]hether the issue involves diplomacy, foreign affairs, national security, or commerce and finance – what nations do not know exacts a heavy toll. The stakes involved in study abroad are that simple, that straightforward, and that important...Greater engagement of American undergraduates with the world around them is vital to the nation's well-being. (p. 5)

Even with the support of the U.S. government, study abroad officials find it difficult to increase the participation of students from underrepresented populations (Dessoff, 2006). The decision for a student to study abroad is affected by what a student perceives to be a barrier, including race and ability. Dessoff notes these barriers prevent underrepresented students from even considering the opportunity to study abroad.

President of the Institute of International Education, Allan E. Goodman, stated that students who study abroad should be a representation of the diverse make up of the students currently enrolled in the U.S. collegiate system (Dessoff, 2006). Yet the profile of students deciding to go abroad has remained relatively unchanged during the twelve year period on record from 1994 to 2006 (Institute of International Education, 2007b). According to the Open Doors Report, females have outnumbered males by a ratio of approximately 2:1 every year during this twelve year period. Also White students have traditionally represented between 83.9-86.4% of all students studying overseas (Institute of International Education).

Understanding the issues students face when deciding to study abroad helps educators and government officials identify the reasons for such drastic gaps in the diversity of participants choosing to go overseas. This article examines racial minority students' and disabled students' participation in study abroad programs. It also discusses the barriers each of these underrepresented groups face when deciding whether or not to study abroad. Recommendations for increasing participation of these underrepresented groups are provided, based on examples of current initiatives from study abroad programs across the nation.

Racial Minorities

Only 17% of students who studied abroad in the 2004-2005 year were minority students (Obst et al., 2007). Of those 17%, African American students represented 3.5%, Hispanic/Latino students represented 5.4% and Asian/Pacific Islander students represented 6.3% (Institute of International Education, 2007b). It is important to recognize that students of ethnic and racial minorities face unique challenges when deciding whether or not to study overseas, yet "previous research offers only limited points of comparison for understanding how race…affect[s] students abroad" (Talburt, & Stewart, 1999, p. 172). Some of the assumed factors include: financial issues, skewed personal and family perceptions, and racism (Dessoff, 2006). The factors which affect student's perceptions and desires to go abroad may feel like hurdles when being weighed by students of color. Before educators can encourage minority students to study abroad, they must first understand the context of the barriers these students encounter.

Lack of financial aid is often cited as the number one barrier for minority students making the decision against studying abroad (Dessoff, 2006). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2007) during the 2003-2004 academic year, Black students received the most financial aid of any racial group, followed by Hispanic students. Approximately 98.2% of full time undergraduate Black students and 80.7% of full time Hispanic students received some form of financial aid, compared to 74.0% of White students (Institute of Education Sciences, 2004). Since such a high proportion of minority students depend on financial aid, it is imperative that study abroad officials are sensitive to the needs of these populations.

Some minority students and their families struggle to overcome skewed perceptions about studying abroad and its worth. The misperceptions held by the students and family members may ultimately discourage the student from going abroad. Dessoff (2006) explained that both minority students and their families might view the prospect of going abroad as "an elusive opportunity, utterly out of reach and even inappropriate" (p. 24). This perception is then reinforced by the false notion that spending time in another country is not beneficial to students' professional plans. In some minority communities, the term studying abroad is viewed as being a lavish vacation, having little value to the student (Dessoff). These misconceptions are even held by administrators at minority-serving institutions. Margery A. Ganz, director of study abroad at Spelman College, a Historically Black College in Atlanta, Georgia explained that the option to study overseas is "more [of] a luxury than an enhancement in your education" (Dessoff, 2006, p. 24).

Another concern for minority students is the fear or perception that they will experience racism while abroad (Dessoff, 2006). Talburt and Stewart (1999) documented a young African American woman named Misheila and her experiences abroad in Spain. Misheila stated she did not expect to face racism while abroad, but in reality she had to deal with being singled out every day in Spain because of the color of her skin (Talburt & Stewart). On the other end of the spectrum, many minority students who travel to the land of their ancestors' origin often

feel that they are viewed as solely Americans without having to adhere to the title of African American, Asian American, Hispanic American, et cetera (Plato Project, 2007).

Disability

In 2004, Mobility of International USA (MIUSA) noted while disabled student participation in study abroad programs is on the rise, it is not increasing at the same rate as their non-disabled peers (Dessoff, 2006). Students who face both physical and mental disabilities have a different set of challenges when deciding whether or not to study abroad. Accessibility issues for students who are not able-bodied, counseling for those who need services, and finding interpreters for deaf students are just some of the obstacles disabled students may face. Other challenges students with disabilities may encounter are an overall lack of support by family, friends, and university staff, as well as the limitations of resources at the study abroad site being able to accommodate the disabled student (Johnson, 2000).

Disabled students who study abroad must be prepared to handle that particular country's perceptions about their disability. Every country has its own beliefs and practices about persons with disabilities, and each handle them very differently (Building Bridges, 2000). In some countries, disabled persons might be viewed as less valuable contributors to society. Other countries may be overly accommodating to disabled persons. In South America, "it is considered acceptable for someone using a wheelchair to be carried up a flight of stairs" (Johnson, 2000, p. 46). Students must be willing to research the cultural norms in the country to which they are deciding to travel, to be better prepared for how they will be received, and how they will make their way in the new environment.

It is important to note that there is conflicting information about whether the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) or the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 protect students participating in programs outside the United States. According to MIUSA, "The ADA requires U.S. exchange organizations to make appropriate accommodations for people with disabilities" (Rights and Responsibilities, 2005). In 2001, Arizona State University found itself in a court battle with a deaf student who wished to have an interpreter accompany him on a study abroad program to Ireland. The U.S. Education Department's Office for Civil Rights ruled in favor of the university, because "the protections for students under those laws do not extend outside of the United States" (Hebel, 2002, p. 31).

Students should also be aware of the laws each country has affecting those with disabilities. In Australia, the Australian Migration Act of 1958 states that if a foreign student fails to disclose a known disability, it could result in the rejection or cancellation of that student's visa (Mclean, Heagney & Garder, 2003). This law is in place because Australia requires a medical exam for a disabled student in order to show the level of financial burden that the potential foreign student might be on the Australian community (Mclean et al.). Once a student is permitted access into Australia, The Federal Disability Discrimination Act of 1992 protects the international student as it would any of its national citizens (Mclean et al.). Because of the varied and unique laws of each country, disabled students wishing to study overseas have the added burden of researching the legal policies of their country of interest.

Recommendations

Minority students are burdened with many barriers when deciding to go abroad that many of them forfeit the idea. It is important for study abroad officials and multicultural offices to work together in promoting study abroad to minorities, as well as highlighting those who have taken the challenge and can speak to its benefits. Study abroad officials should work closely with minority students and their families to help dispel some of the myths and fears they may

face (Dessoff, 2006). The Project for Learning Abroad, Training, and Outreach (PLATO, 2007) is a resource which targets underrepresented students in hopes of increasing their involvement in study abroad programs. On its website, the PLATO project outlines the top ten reasons for students to study abroad and how to cope with facing discrimination. Some of these reasons include: fighting stereotypes, improving economic standing, and gaining new perspectives (PLATO).

Funding opportunities for minority students are on the rise, and study abroad officials should stay current on the newest initiatives. Minority students who cited that money was their number one barrier in going abroad and are eligible for the Pell Grant, now have another option of funding their experience. The Benjamin A. Gilman International Scholarship Program is an additional funding option serving strictly low income students who want to study abroad (Institute of International Education, 2007a). Organizations such as the American Indian College Fund, the Hispanic Scholarship Fund, and the United Negro College Fund also offer study abroad scholarships to the minority groups they serve. The Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Foundation Act was proposed in 2005 to increase study abroad participation to at least one million students per year and also to encourage underrepresented groups to study abroad. The Act would also provide $80 million to offset program costs each year (NAFSA, 2005). The Act has been signed by the House of Representatives and is currently awaiting Senate approval (H.R. 1469, 110th Cong., 2007). If passed, minority students facing financial barriers might have one less obstacle to overcome.

To provide disabled students wishing to study abroad with a comprehensive overview, it is important that collaboration takes place between all the necessary offices on campus (Dessoff, 2006). Some of the key offices to be involved are the study abroad office, the disability services office, and even the counseling center. This type of relationship between campus offices can be an encouraging and supportive factor for disabled students. Collaborative programs are currently being modeled at schools such as the University of California-Berkeley (Rights and Responsibilities, 2005), and the Ohio State University with their Campus Collaboration Campaign (Johnson, 2000, p. 48). The University of Minnesota hosts *Access Abroad* which is one of the most comprehensive websites for students with disabilities to research all facets of studying abroad, including accommodating programs, overcoming challenges and presenting personal success stories (University of Minnesota, 2007). Once university officials begin to collaborate more, they can more effectively work with host institutions to fully meet the needs of disabled students.

Study abroad officials can encourage disabled student participation in their programs by using positive examples of disabled students in their marketing campaigns. This can be as simple as including a photograph of a disabled person in a program brochure or having a disabled returnee available to answer questions. The University of Pittsburgh has taken a huge step in promoting disabled students in study abroad programs with their new initiative *Making It Happen* (2005). The university created a DVD and booklet highlighting the experiences of students facing an array of disabilities who are studying across the globe. The sixteen students talked about their challenges, what they wish they would have known, as well as why they would do their experience over again (Making It Happen, 2005).

For students with disabilities, the best advice is to plan in advance, be aware of limitations and keep a light-hearted attitude about unexpected situations that may arise. The best practices for study abroad officials are to listen to the needs of students, collaborate with disability and/or counseling offices and provide as many resources to students as possible. Study abroad advisors also have a multitude of websites at their fingertips dedicated to encouraging disabled

student participation in overseas programs. Finally, it is always a great idea for students and offices to work together to develop their own initiatives.

Conclusion

Understanding the barriers that today's college student faces when deciding whether or not to study abroad is essential in increasing participation from underrepresented groups. Collaboration between university offices, empowering underrepresented students as advocates and showing former underrepresented study abroad students in advertising materials are all great practices that any study abroad office can easily implement. Providing students with adequate funding information is also imperative to increasing study abroad participation. The internet is a great resource for both underrepresented groups as well as practitioners to learn more about navigating study abroad opportunities for all people. Lastly, it is important for students and professionals to communicate with each other to dispel fears, understand challenges, and develop successful programs.

Cynthia Scarpa ('09) is the Associate Manager of University Village at Colorado State University and is a current graduate student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.

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A Holistic Approach to Addressing Men's Issues in Higher Education through Chickering's Student Development Theory

Alejandro Covarrubias
Colorado State University

Abstract

Many college men are struggling with the holistic issues of intellectual awareness of masculinity, physical health, emotional development, and spiritual growth. This paper discusses the social causes of each of these issues and relates them to Chickering's student development theory. It presents current and future implications for men within higher education. Finally, this paper establishes the need for further research and suggests programs student affairs professionals can use to address men's issues in higher education.

Historically, higher education has been dominated by men, but in the past thirty years men have dropped from 52% to 42.9% of all people in higher education (Lederman, 2007). This could be due to greater access to higher education for women. However, there has been a reduction in men attending college. Men attending colleges and universities continue to struggle during their college years. Generally, college men, like many men in society, are engaging in more high risk behaviors than women, are less emotionally developed, are lacking interpersonal skills, feel spiritually empty, and are in danger of losing their identity as men.

One of the founding values of higher education and student affairs is the development of the whole student (Komives & Woodard, 2003). Student affairs has developed services to support women; students of color; students identifying as gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered; and other underrepresented groups that exist on college campuses. Men, especially white, middle class, straight men, have been the majority in higher education for most of its history (Komives & Woodard). As a result, men have benefited from systems that unknowingly support their privilege, but these systems do not address the pressing issues that men face today. The reality is today's college men should be challenged and supported in new ways which will help them reflect on their own masculinity and identity as men. Student affairs has the unique opportunity to remain true to its founding value and develop college men as whole persons.

This article discusses various elements of the holistic view of men's issues in higher education. It focuses on men's physical health, emotional development, intellectual awareness of masculinity as part of identity development, and finally, spiritual growth. It addresses the importance of these issues through the framework of Chickering's student developmental theory. The article concludes with recommendations for future programs to address men's issues in higher education.

There are few studies about men as gendered persons and there is little belief in the need to study men as a population. Within higher education women's and ethnic studies programs have emerged over the last thirty years helping to empower these groups significantly (Capraro, 2004). Feminist theorists and critical race theorists have criticized traditionally taught theories in all academic arenas, specifically the social sciences, for using only a white male perspective and predominately white men as subjects. This is undeniably true when the research methods and subject selection of Erickson, Kohlberg and other conventional theorists in the social sciences are analyzed (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Although

the research was done with male subjects, the issue for men is that subjects were not studied as gendered males. Kimmel (1993) described this as the "invisible masculinity of men" (p.28). Men are victims of their own privilege because they are invisible in research and have never been critically researched as men. This invisibility is not the same for women and people of color because these groups often do not exist at all in research. Rather, men are invisible because their identities and gender do not exist in the research (Kimmel). As a result, there is a lack of research and literature which specifically addresses how gender influences the way men experience transitions, relationships, emotions, and all other aspects of their identity formation.

Chickering's Vectors

Developing Competencies

The first vector of Chickering's theory is gaining physical, intellectual, and interpersonal competencies (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Student affairs professionals can begin by addressing the physical health needs of men on college campuses. Without the support of programs and services, college men will continue to remain stagnant in Chickering's first vector and never completely establish a healthy identity.

Men are taught by parents and peers to be physical beings and are socialized to believe their indestructibility. As a result of this upbringing, men engage in more risky behaviors than women and have worse health habits (Courtenay, 1998). Men are more likely to have sex when intoxicated, are less educated about sexually transmitted diseases, and are more likely to have ten or more sexual partners in their lifetime (Courtenay). Men are more likely than women to not wear seat belts, drive while intoxicated, and are more likely to cause auto accidents due to reckless driving (Courtenay). Further studies show men exercise less, eat fattier food, and are significantly less likely to perform self exams to identify early signs of cancer (Courtenay). Men drink more frequently, drink larger amounts, and are more likely to become ill from drinking than women (Courtenay). There are many more examples of health risks taken by college men, and perhaps the most significant statistic to illustrate these risks is three out of four deaths among people age 15 to 24 are men (Courtenay).

These deaths are often a result of the risky behaviors listed above. The issue causing a dilemma for men is when surveyed, they believe they are living healthy lives and believe their behaviors around alcohol, sex, and tobacco are healthy (Courtenay, 1998). Socialization is a large contributor to men's lack of healthy living. At an early age, men are taught to be aggressive athletes and to play through the pain of injuries. As a result, men learn the lesson that 'real men' do not ask for help and that admitting to pain is wrong and they will be mocked by other men (Real, 1997). Therefore, even if men are aware of unhealthy behaviors, they are rarely willing to ask for the help they may need to change behaviors.

Managing Emotions

Chickering's second vector is managing emotions, which includes emotional awareness, appropriate expression, and acting responsibly (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). College men struggle with managing emotions, which limits their ability to form full identities.

When personal tragedy strikes, a good man is described as stoic or the silent rock on which others depend. In reality, most men remain silent during tragedy because they do not understand the emotions they are experiencing or know how to express them. This silence is closely linked to men's inability to ask for help when they are physically hurt. Real (1997) found men are taught by their fathers and other men not to show any emotions linked to vulnerability or to ever show weakness physically or emotionally. Levant (1997) coined

the term "normative male alexithymia" (p. 9) to describe men's inability to name or even understand their emotions. This is an immense wall for college men to overcome because they face life-changing transitions during college and are exploring what they want to do with their lives. This kind of exploration and reflection often produces powerful emotions of vulnerability, depression, and uncertainty. Men repress these powerful emotions, which often manifest in inappropriate ways such as binge drinking and violence (Ludeman, 2004).

Establishing Identity

According to Chickering's theory, the third vector is establishing identity, which includes gender (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). It is crucial for men to reflect on their identity as gendered beings to form their identity. Yet how many colleges are willing to spare precious resources for such programs? More importantly, how do colleges persuade male students to become interested in attending courses they do not believe they should take?

Student affairs cannot begin to address male identity formation until more research has been conducted. This is an issue for many men because they have never been taught to critically reflect on who they are as men. They have traditionally been encouraged to solve math problems, build bridges and think logically, but not how to introspectively develop based on gender. The recent emergence of men's studies programs, which is the study of "men's experience, identity, and development throughout the life course" (Capraro, 2004, p.23), may provide a forum for men to begin to critically and academically reflect on their own masculinity.

Spiritual Development

Chickering, Dalton, and Stamm (2007) revisited Chickering's original theory and stated that spirituality is an important component to establishing identity and student affairs organizations must address students' need for spiritual development. Colleges need to create a safe space for men to explore their spirituality and provide opportunities for prayer, meditation, and other forms of worship (Chickering et al.). Longwood, Muesse, and Schipper (2004) found that men describe themselves as less spiritual than women, attend religious services less often, and are less willing to explore the spiritual aspects of their lives. Most colleges, specifically public institutions, do not foster the spiritual growth of students. This lack of spiritual discourse is most evident in the hard science departments dominated by male students and male faculty (Longwood et al.). College men often do not have an arena to explore their spiritual lives and often run the risk of being ridiculed for bringing it up in class discussions. There is very little written about college male spirituality, which creates an emergent need for further research to aid in the holistic approach to male development.

College men face many obstacles in their development and are in danger of never developing a healthy sense of male identity. From the lens of Chickering's model, men are failing to move forward in the first two vectors of developing competencies and managing emotions. They have not been taught to critically reflect on their gender. Therefore, men are unable to completely establish their identity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). It is logical to assume if men are experiencing normative male alexithymia and are afraid to ask for help, they are unable to develop mature relationships, which is the fourth vector. The men's issues discussed cannot be taken as individual issues, rather viewed as an integrated and holistic struggle for college male development.

Implications for the Profession

The implications of college male development are seen in the overrepresentation of men in conduct hearings. Harper, Harris and Mmeje (2005) found men greatly outnumber women

in violations of policy often involving violence, alcohol, vandalism, and other destructive behaviors. Ludeman (2004) found that men are more likely to commit sexual assaults and domestic violence, be victims of violence, commit hate crimes, and commit physical assaults. Anecdotally, the perpetrators of the death of Matthew Shepherd, who was viciously killed because he was homosexual, and the classroom killings at Columbine high school and Virginia Tech were all men. Men are socialized to portray the appearance of strength and power, when in reality they struggle to understand their identity in terms of gender, culture, sexual orientation and other critical components of identity. This struggle creates anxious feelings of being lost and afraid. The very core of male socialization indicates showing this vulnerability is wrong and should be deeply internalized. The resulting frustration is most often violent and destructive behavior which may ruin the lives of many people. Residence hall staffs do not want bulletin boards torn down in a drunken rage by male students. In addition, police officers are tired of arresting male students for urinating on the sides of buildings (Ludeman). These irritating behaviors are symptomatic of the emptiness and loneliness men are experiencing.

An important purpose of student affairs is to identify students in need and provide services. As detailed above, destructive behaviors by men should be viewed as a cry for help and a call to action. For too long student affairs professionals have let men's issues go unnoticed and undocumented. The current trend for male college students is self destruction and student affairs professionals have a responsibility to challenge and support men to become healthier and more fully developed people. However, the implications of exposing these issues are not completely bleak.

A positive implication emerges as student affairs professionals address the needs of men. College graduates often become influential leaders of society, as well as advocates for change. Men will develop holistically as higher education provides better services and will move forward in Chickering's developmental vectors towards purpose and integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). From a social justice perspective, the hope is that men will develop a healthy identity, recognize their privilege, and begin to behave differently. Men will be less violent towards each other and less violent toward women. Men will take better care of themselves and engage in healthier behaviors.

Another hope is that these well-rounded men will make an impact in the greater society and be role models for their peers. Bly (1990) wrote about the loss of mentorship and initiation into adulthood for men in American society. He believed there are not enough well developed men in society to initiate and guide younger men into manhood. Who better to be the mentors of the next generation of men, than men who are well educated not only in their profession, but also in their own understanding of masculinity. These male mentors will encourage young men to pursue higher education and develop a positive male identity.

Recommendations for Future Programs and Research

New services should be created to address the holistic spectrum of college men's issues. The development of men's studies programs and creative marketing for classes provides men a safe environment to develop and question an intellectual understanding of masculinity. These programs may also foster research of men's issues vital for student affairs to effectively address male development.

Courtenay (1998) recommends outreach programs for health education and risk behavior assessment specifically focused on men that would address socialization of masculinity. He also recommends incorporating firsthand accounts by men who have faced male-related health issues, such as testicular cancer, to promote awareness among men. The use of health

competitions to keep men engaged in healthy eating and exercise routines may be another option (Courtenay).

Similar strategies should be used to design outreach programs for counseling centers to address the emotional repression of many men. Universities could require mandatory sessions for male students during freshman orientation. These sessions would address common emotions experienced by first year male students and how they may manifest during their transition into college. The sessions should be facilitated by well-rounded men and be a mix of peers and professionals. Conduct sanctions specifically addressing masculinity and stereotypical emotions leading to destructive behavior may address men's lack of emotional awareness and could reduce acts of violence and vandalism on campus.

St. John's University in Minnesota has formed men's spirituality groups to address the need for men's spiritual development (Longwood et al., 2004). These groups are offered during the first year through senior year and are voluntary. The groups create trust between the men and provide a space for men to experiment with expressing vulnerability, exploring spirituality, and reflecting on personal definitions of masculinity (Longwood, et al).

These are just a few recommendations for addressing men's issues and there are many more opportunities to collaborate with fraternities, multicultural and advocacy offices, and other campus resources to address the needs of college men.

Conclusion

This article provided an overview of the many issues men face in higher education. Utilizing Chickering's student development theory, we are able to identify where college men are struggling in self-care and personal development. College men need to be challenged and supported in a holistic way. The challenge is set for student affairs and higher education to address the needs of college men with quality research and innovative programs. Ultimately, the enduring hope is college men will access these services, become well-rounded, and empower other men to do the same in the future.

Alejandro Covarrubias ('09) is the Associate Manager of the Lory Apartments at Colorado State University and is a current graduate student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.

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Comprehensive Affirmative Action:
An Alternative Perspective on Racial and Socio-Economic Admission Policies

Kyle Carpenter
Colorado State University

Abstract

This article evaluates current trends of affirmative action as they relate to admission practices in higher education. The study compares race-based and class-based affirmative action in admission policies. Historical events and legal precedents are summarized, and current literature surrounding race-based affirmative action in higher education admission is analyzed. The implications of class-based affirmative action as a current trend in higher education admission are assessed. Alternative recommendations for college and university admission practices conclude the article.

Affirmative action has been a heated debate in higher education since President Lyndon B. Johnson introduced the concept in 1965 (Bowen & Bok, 1998). Affirmative action is a policy that provides preference to individuals who identify as underrepresented minorities, such as people of color or women. Some view race-based affirmative action used in college admission as a practical way to level the playing field for minority students as well as a necessary means for establishing a racially diverse student population. Others see affirmative action as an unfair advantage that robs qualified individuals of opportunities and ignores poor non-minority students who may not have access to higher education. This fundamental disagreement has fueled the ongoing legal and political battle over the use of affirmative action in college and university admission practices. As a result, many institutions have begun to reconsider their admission standards in order to continue the achievement of their educational goals regarding diversity.

Colleges and universities historically have utilized race-based affirmative action admission strategies but due to current political controversy surrounding the issue all of that is changing. Given the close relationship between race and socioeconomic status, the admissions trend for many colleges and universities has been the use of class-based affirmative action to provide educational access to disadvantaged students. Economic affirmative action is an admission strategy that provides preference to students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. While successfully providing opportunities to underprivileged students, class-based affirmative action does not intentionally establish a racially diverse student population (Carnevale & Rose, 2004). Likewise, race-based affirmative action does not necessarily account for low-income students. Therefore, in order for higher education institutions to create diversity, promote upward socioeconomic mobility, and remain in the legal framework of the constitution, higher education admission policies must provide preference to students from low socioeconomic backgrounds while purposefully selecting racial minorities among the academically qualified applicants.

The purpose of this article is to evaluate affirmative action as it relates to admissions practices at selective institutions of higher education. The focus is to compare class-based and race-based affirmative action. Taking into account the historical contexts and legal milestones associated with affirmative action, this article analyzes the current literature surrounding

race-based affirmative action in higher education admissions, assesses the implications of class-based affirmative action as a current trend in higher education admissions, and provides alternative recommendations for college and university admissions practices.

Race-based Affirmative Action

The concept of affirmative action emerged in the United States during the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960's. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 sought to end discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin (Weber, Myron, & Simpson, 2005). President Lyndon B. Johnson expanded this initiative and formally introduced affirmative action as a policy in the 1965 Executive Order 11246, which mandated all federal contractors to hire without the consideration of race (Weber et al.). These measures were reactionary mechanisms intended to counter the overt oppression experienced by these minority groups over the course of history. While Title VII applies to employment practices, today, race-based affirmative action is understood beyond the workplace with aims to intentionally select minority candidates in many realms.

Through the use of affirmative action in admission policies, higher education institutions have played a crucial role in fostering social justice. Research indicates that attaining a college degree from a selective institution increases one's likelihood of upward social mobility (Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Davis, 2007; Kahlenberg, 2003). A college education from a selective university increases graduation rates to 86 % at top-tier schools from 71%, 61%, and 54% at less selective institutions (Carnevale & Rose). A degree from a selective college increases wage premiums between 5% and 20% (Carnevale & Rose). By providing racial preference in admission policies, selective colleges and universities create opportunities for disadvantaged minority students to reap the benefits of a top-tier education.

In addition to creating social justice, utilizing affirmative action is desirable for institutions of higher education because it assists in the establishment of racial diversity. Various studies have shown that a diverse campus environment improves the overall educational experience for all students by fostering relationships, initiating conversations, and developing a mutual understanding among individuals from different backgrounds (Astin, 1993; Bowen et al., 1998; Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Kahlenberg, 2006; Shuford, 1998). Educational experiences in diverse environments increase students' cultural awareness, racial understanding, and overall cognitive development (Astin). Students benefit from diversity because it teaches them the skills of living in a diverse nation and prepares them to become global citizens in a world that is continually shrinking (Kahlenberg). By utilizing race-based affirmative action, higher education institutions have been able to establish a diverse environment for the benefit of all students.

Despite the various benefits of race-based affirmative action, the use of these policies in college and university admission has been politically contentious. Many see racial affirmative action policies in college admission as being outdated and providing an entitlement to racial minorities that was never intended (Weber et al., 2005). Race-based affirmative action is considered unfair because it provides preference to racial minorities who may be less qualified than other non-minority students. Many people believe these admission policies assume a sense of victimhood for racial minorities and force these individuals to become reliant upon affirmative action for opportunity and access (Weber et al.). Others see affirmative action as placing an unnecessary blemish on the achievements of racial minorities who may have been given unneeded admission preference (Weber et al.). As a result of the various views on this issue, many state and federal courts have intervened to determine the legality of race-based affirmative action in college and university admissions practices.

The Legal Battle

The Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution affirms that "[n]o state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law" (United States Constitution, 1868). The controversial interpretation of this statement, known as the Equal Protection Clause, has triggered many legal debates relating to affirmative action in higher education admission practices. The significant historical landmarks of affirmative action law range from the *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* Supreme Court case of 1978 to the *Grutter v. Bollinger* Supreme Court case of 2003 and the reactionary proposals by individual states to ban affirmative action through state constitutional amendments. These cases and state proposals have come to shape the current trend of affirmative action for college and university admission in the United States.

The first definitive precedent on the use of affirmative action in higher education came in 1978. Allan Bakke, a white male applicant to the University of California at Davis Medical School, had been denied admission and sued the school on grounds of equal protection (Weber et al., 2005). According to Bakke, the use of affirmative action in UC Davis' admission practices was discriminatory because other applicants with lower credentials and test scores were admitted over him strictly based on skin color. In *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in favor of Bakke claiming that the use of racial preference in college and university admission practices does indeed violate the Equal Protection Clause (Weber et al.). The Court declared that although achieving a diverse student body was a compelling reason to use race-based affirmative action, it is unnecessary to use special admission processes, such as quotas and separate set-asides, to accomplish this end and therefore constitutionally suspect (Weber et al., 2005). Until recently, the Bakke case has been considered the most significant legal precedent regarding the use of racial affirmative action in higher education admission.

In June of 2003, the U.S. Supreme Court made another landmark decision regarding the constitutionality of race-based affirmative action in higher education. In *Grutter v. Bollinger*, a white female applicant to the University of Michigan School of Law was denied admittance and filed a suit on the basis of racial discrimination. The court ruled that the University of Michigan had a compelling educational interest to establish a diverse student population (Davis, 2007). The ruling was based on the notion that diverse experiences in and outside the classroom have profound benefits for students. While the pursuit of a diverse *critical mass* was acceptable according to the court, automatic preference could not be given to minorities in order to fill diversity quotas (Davis). According to the Supreme Court, the use of affirmative action in college admission is constitutional so long as race is not the sole factor in establishing a diverse student body (Davis). Thus, the *Grutter v. Bollinger* decision became a significant ruling because it allowed for the use of affirmative action admission policies in order to establish a diverse campus environment while restricting colleges and universities in their approach.

The legal battle did not end with this case however, as more and more states pass constitutional amendments that prohibit the use of racial preference in state funded educational outreach programs such as Bridge, or federally funded programs such as Upward Bound that focuses on socioeconomic preference. In 1996, a legislative amendment to the California State Constitution was passed that banned the use of any affirmative action policies by state-funded programs. Proposition 209, as it was known, stated that the state could not discriminate against, or provide preferential treatment to, any individual or group on the basis of race,

sex, color, ethnicity, or national origin (Shuford, 1998). Following the approval of this law in California, similar proposals were issued in Florida, Washington, and Michigan. These legal and constitutional challenges have forced many higher education institutions to reconsider how to establish a racially diverse student body without the use of race-based admission standards.

Class-based Affirmative Action

Despite the value placed on diverse student populations by higher education institutions, admission policies must stay within the bounds of the law. Race-based affirmative action may be legally suspect according to the courts, but there are other means of establishing diversity while providing opportunities for educational access. Research indicates that a popular trend in race-neutral admissions standards is class-based affirmative action (Bowen et al., 1998; Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Davis, 2007; Gose, 2005; Kahlenberg, 2003, 2004; Roach, 2003; Shuford, 1998). Class-based affirmative action provides preference to students from low socio-economic backgrounds that have demonstrated academic achievement (Roach). Since low socio-economic status and race are closely related, using class-based admission policies may simultaneously provide educational opportunities for disadvantaged students and create a diverse campus environment.

Although racial minorities are underrepresented at institutions of higher education, students from low socio-economic backgrounds are represented even less. More than 22% of students at selective universities belong to minority groups, but just 3% of students come from the lowest socio-economic quartile (Carnevale & Rose, 2004). Only 10% of these students are from the bottom half of the socio-economic ladder (Carnevale & Rose). Due to severe disadvantage, low-income students face extreme obstacles en route to higher education, such as poor schools, few resources, limited support, and nearly no representative voice in higher education (Gose, 2005). Low-income families are more likely to have low-parental education as well as decreased educational expectations (Carnevale & Rose). Once low-income students are able to overcome these obstacles, they are usually forced to attend less selective colleges because these institutions are more affordable (Carnevale & Rose). These findings indicate that students from low-socioeconomic backgrounds need preferential assistance just as much, if not more, than minority students in order to overcome the social and economic barriers that stand between them and higher education.

Implications

The use of class-based affirmative action in college and university admission produces several benefits. By providing preference to students from low-economic backgrounds, the percentage of students from the bottom half of the socio-economic scale at selective colleges and universities would increase from 10% to 38% (Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Kahlenberg, 2004). Due to educational quality, graduation rates for low socio-economic students enrolled at selective colleges and universities would increase from 86% to 90% (Carnevale & Rose; Kahlenberg). Moreover, class-based affirmative action is completely legal according to the U.S. Supreme Court on the basis of strict legal scrutiny (Kahlenberg, 2003). The idea of economic affirmative action is also more popular among Americans than race-based policies. Sixty-three percent of people feel that a low-income student should have preference over an equally qualified high-income student (Carnevale & Rose). These findings indicate that socio-economic preference in admission may be a practical alternative to race-based affirmative action.

Admission strategies based on socio-economic affirmative action also have drawbacks. The main argument against economic affirmative action is that it does not produce the same amount of racial diversity as race-based admission policies (Bowen et al., 1998; Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Davis, 2007; Gose, 2005; Kahlenberg, 2003, 2004; Roach, 2003). African American and Latino enrollment in selective universities is 12% with race-based admission standards, but only 10% with economic affirmative action (Carnevale & Rose). While class-based affirmative action admission produce some levels of diversity, "income-based policies are not effective substitutes for racial and ethnic enrollment goals, unless low-income African Americans and Hispanics can be chosen disproportionately from the qualified pool of low [socioeconomic status] students" (Carnevale & Rose, 2004, p. 59). Thus, socio-economic preference is not solely sufficient in the pursuit of all higher education goals concerning diversity.

Recommendations

Research has shown that admission practices which implement exclusively race or class-based affirmative action policies have both positive and negative results. Racial admission preference achieves diversity, but is legally and politically controversial. Socio-economic affirmative action provides opportunities to underprivileged students on solid legal ground, but does not establish high levels of racial diversity. In order to establish a racially diverse student population, institutions must provide educational access to underprivileged students, stay within the limits of the law, and combine racial and socio-economic affirmative action in admission policies (Carnevale & Rose, 2004; Bowen et al., 1998). Using economic preference to account for qualified disadvantaged students, colleges and universities could then intentionally select racial minorities from that pool (Carnevale & Rose). Since students would be admitted based on several criteria, a combined racial and economic affirmative action policy would not violate legal statutes according to the *Grutter v. Bollinger* ruling (Carnevale & Rose). This selection process would simultaneously contribute to the creation of a racially diverse campus community, provide access to low-income students, and avoid legal complications.

Conclusion

Beginning with the Civil Rights Act of 1965, affirmative action policies have aimed to end discrimination and give opportunities to underrepresented groups. Institutions of higher education have implemented race-based affirmative action admission strategies in order to establish diverse student populations and provide access to disadvantaged students. Historically, these practices have been politically and legally disputed by the Supreme Court and state legislatures. As a result, college and university admission practices have turned to class-based affirmative action. While racial and socio-economic admission standards have advantages and disadvantages, the best way for institutions to achieve goals of racial diversity, provide access to disadvantaged students, and ensure legality is to comprehensively combine the two admission policies of racial and economic affirmative action.

Kyle L. Carpenter ('09) is the Assistant Residence Director of Allison Hall at Colorado State University and is a current graduate student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.

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A Zero-Sum Game?
The Popular Media and Gender Gap in Higher Education

Chris Linder
University of Northern Colorado
Colorado State University

Abstract

A well-documented gender gap exists in higher education today: women make up 57% of college students on U.S. campuses. Educators and policy makers disagree about the significance and implications associated with this gap. Some argue men are in crisis, while others argue only specific men - men of color and men from working class families – are in crisis. Developing solutions for equal educational opportunities requires policy makers and educators to understand the implications of the intersections of race, class and gender. This paper summarizes the history of gender in higher education, analyzes the media representation of gender and education, outlines theoretical perspectives related to the gender gap in higher education, and explores implications for access to higher education.

In 2006, the American Council on Education published a report highlighting the trends around gender and higher education attendance. Fifty-seven percent of those attending institutions of higher education today identify as women, and the number of women on college campuses has steadily increased over the past several decades (King, 2006). The popular media portrays the increase in the number of women attending college as a crisis in masculinity and frames gender in education as a zero-sum game in which women are succeeding at the expense of men (Brooks, 2005; Conlin, 2003; Fonda, 2000; Lewin, 2006; Marklein, 2005; North, 2005; Poe, 2004; Sommers, 2000; Tyre, 2006). A more complex analysis of these trends points to the intersection of race, class and gender as a significant factor in access to higher education.

Gender discrepancies are more pronounced in traditionally marginalized populations, including students of color, students from working class families, and students who are older than traditional college age. For students 24 and younger, the gender gap is significantly influenced by race and ethnicity: men make up 40% of African American students; 43% of Hispanic students; and 44% of American Indian students (King, 2006). Men from working class families are at a clear disadvantage compared to men from other income levels: in the lowest income quartile, 44% of people who attend college are men, compared with 52% of people from the highest quartile. Of students 25 and older, men constitute only 38% (King).

These statistics challenge educators and policy makers to ask questions about the gender gap in higher education: Are boys and men in crisis? Which ones? What can educators and policy makers do to create access to higher education for more people in the U.S.? Education professionals need to end the zero-sum discourse around gender in higher education, and address access as related to race, class and gender, rather than simplifying it to a boy crisis and placing blame on the feminist movement. This paper summarizes a history of gender in higher education, analyzes coverage of the gender gap in popular and educational media, synthesizes theoretical understandings of the gender gap in higher education, and argues for the inclusion of a critical perspective and understanding of the intersections of race, class and gender in addressing access to higher education.

History of Gender and Higher Education

Higher education in the U.S. dates back to 1636 with the founding of Harvard College (Komives, Woodard, & Associates, 2003). Institutions of higher education provided education for elite, white men to become doctors, lawyers and clergy. In the early 1800's, white women began attending college ultimately to provide education to their children and learn to be better domesticians. By 1870, women made up 21% of students on college campuses; and by 1890, that number rose to 35% (Graham, 1978).

The need for more teachers in the early 1800's led to the inclusion of more white women in higher education. Female boarding schools, academies and seminaries provided opportunities for women to attend school to improve their skills as wives and mothers, and, if needed, to become teachers in elementary, secondary and post-secondary institutions. In 1837, Oberlin College in Ohio became the first U.S. coeducational institution, admitting four white women who needed to complete a special ladies course prior to pursuing the traditional baccalaureate degree (Rentz, 1996).

The passage of the Morrill Act in 1862 provided states with incentives to set up public colleges designed to serve the needs of the people of the state (Komives et al., 2003). The movement toward a larger number of public coeducational colleges provided opportunities for women and men, mostly white, to attend college together, and became the norm by the 1870's (Schwartz, 1997). While coeducation was considered standard, women and men were not treated the same; the types of education that a woman could pursue were limited to domestic science and teaching (Guido-DiBrito, 2002). Racial segregation was alive and well in the U.S. during this time, and the Morrill-McMomas Act of 1890 provided several states money to establish historically black colleges and universities in the U.S., leading to an increase in the numbers of black men and women in institutions of higher education (Harris & Worthen, 2004).

In 1920, women represented 47% of those attending college (Graham, 1978). During the 1930's and 1940's, the Great Depression and World War II took national attention away from education, and fewer people had opportunities to attend college (Komives et al., 2003). The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, passed in 1944, provided incentive for men returning from war to attend institutions of higher education, resulting in a significant shift in the percentages of men and women in college. Women constituted only 21% of total enrollment on college campuses by the 1950's, resulting in a change in the attitude towards women in this controlled environment (Schwartz, 1997). Increasingly, women were perceived as attending college to meet a husband and were treated with indifference, patronization, and hostility (Schwartz). The Civil Rights and Feminist Movements of the 1960's and 1970's provided more opportunities for women and other marginalized groups in higher education, steadily increasing the numbers of women and people of color. By 2004, women made up 57% of students on college campuses (King, 2006).

The Popular Media and the Zero-Sum Game

The popular media has created a zero-sum rhetoric around the subject of gender in education, specifically higher education. Most popular media outlets, when addressing the subject of gender in education, highlight the ways feminism and the women's movement have succeeded and are no longer necessary because women outnumber men on college campuses (Brooks, 2005; Conlin, 2003; Fonda, 2000; Lewin, 2006; Marklein, 2005; North, 2005; Poe, 2004; Sommers, 2000; Tyre, 2006). The stories highlight the numbers of women who attend institutions of higher education, without further exploring other complexities related to gender on campus. While women may be the majority in terms of numbers on a college

campus, they still lack equity in terms of power and representation in business, engineering, sciences, law, and non-educational doctorates (King, 2006).

A rainstorm of articles published between 2000 and 2007 in *Newsweek*, *Time Magazine*, the *New York Times* and other popular media outlets highlighted the gender gap in higher education, accenting the percentages of overall men and women who attend institutions of higher education and framing it as a "boy crisis" (Brooks, 2005; Conlin, 2003; Fonda, 2000; Lewin, 2006; Marklein, 2005; North, 2005; Poe, 2004; Sommers, 2000; Tyre, 2006). The language used in many of the articles in the mainstream media perpetuates the zero-sum mentality, framing the issue as though girls' success automatically leads to the demise of boys. It also suggests more colleges should consider affirmative action for men and close attention paid to women in the past several decades has caused boys to fall behind in school (Brooks; Conlin; Marklein). Some articles extensively quoted Mortenson, a senior scholar at the Pell Institute for the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education (Conlin; Marklein), who asserts that the success of girls is detrimental to boys, using language like "girls are on a tear," "gender takeover," "scholastic Roman Empire" and "languishing Greece" (Conlin, p. 1). Other language perpetuates the zero-sum mentality by indicating that women "drew even" and are "pulling away at a phenomenal rate" (Brooks, p. 12).

Other outlets have addressed the issue of the gender gap in higher education as a crisis in masculinity, highlighting a culture of anti-intellectualism in masculinity and a dearth of male role models as teachers (Fonda, 2000; Sommers, 2000). Sommers and Fonda advocate for a return to traditional gender roles to allow boys and men to succeed academically and in the workplace, failing to acknowledge the damage patriarchy and hegemonic masculinity do to everyone – including boys.

The *New York Times* has consistently published both opinion and news articles on the topic of the gender gap in higher education and has come the closest to making the issue a complex one, addressing discrepancies in race and class as associated with this inequity. Gender socialization has also been acknowledged as a contributing factor to the gender gap by highlighting issues around men's entitlement to higher education and high paying jobs as a factor in the lack of engagement by men in college (Lewin, 2006).

As the popular media portrays the boy crisis as the fault of feminists and their allies, media outlets specific to education are debating the issue, speculating on the causes and possible solutions to the issue of women outnumbering men in college (Malveaux, 2002, 2005; Wilson, 2007). Contrary to more mainstream media, the perspectives in educational media are mixed. Some publications portray the gender gap as a zero-sum game in which women are winning (Wilson). Others address it as a problem with the larger system of education, acknowledging the discrepancy between various groups of men and women based on race and class (Malveaux).

The Chronicle of Higher Education published several shorter articles between 2000 and 2006, and in January 2007, the cover story highlighted the gender gap in higher education, starting the story with a description of an honors classroom at Elon University (Wilson, 2007). The article portrayed the problem of the lack of engagement of college men, while perpetuating the stereotype of college women as giggly school girls, rather than portraying them as serious scholars (Wilson). This article demonstrated the reasons why the numbers of women in higher education tell only part of the story about equality in higher education. If journalists cannot portray women as serious scholars, others cannot begin to see them as such.

Black Issues in Higher Education addresses the lack of black men in college is an issue for society at large, rather than a zero-sum game (Malveaux, 2002). When more black men have the opportunity to attend college, everyone benefits through enhanced opportunities for learning from peers during college and a more educated society (Malveaux). In addition, readers are challenged to think about the contradiction present in the current conversations about affirmative action. Many advocates for men are arguing for affirmative action when it comes to men, but are resistant to the idea when it comes to addressing inequities around race (Malveaux, 2005).

Explanations for the Gender Gap in Higher Education

Many academics have attempted to explain the shifting gender gap in higher education, by citing such theories as the construction of hegemonic masculinity and male gender socialization as related to education, racial implications for men related to education, male entitlement, the increased purchasing power for women associated with a college education, and parental influences (Davis, 2003, 2006; DiPrete and Buchmann, 2006; Jacob, 2002; Smith and Fleming, 2006; Smith, 1995; Tinklin, 2003; Warrington, Younger, & Williams, 2000). While no theory provides a comprehensive explanation for the gender gap in higher education, they all provide a framework to better understand the complexity of the issue.

The shift in the numbers of men in college and university settings may be directly related to male gender socialization, or the perception that it is not masculine to succeed academically (Clayton, Hewitt, & Gaffney, 2004; Davis, 2003, 2006; Smith, 1995; Tinklin, 2003; Warrington & Younger, 2000). The construction of hegemonic masculinity in our society creates a climate in which boys and men must subscribe to a very narrow definition of what it means to be a man. Specifically, they must be tough and strong, not ask for help, and not appear "feminine" in any way (Smith). Studies show girls and women take education more seriously than boys, and in turn, succeed in greater numbers (Tinklin; Warrington & Younger). Because the construction of hegemonic masculinity forces boys to shun any feminine behavior, they experience ridicule among their peers for succeeding academically, as it is perceived as feminine, or at the very least, un-masculine (Tinklin).

Racism's function in our society also provides an explanation to the expanding gender gap in higher education. The gender gap is most prevalent among African American, Latino, and American Indian students (King, 2006). Academic engagement and achievement are measured by a European American standard, which perpetuates stereotypes about ability and creates a climate in which students of color work to disassociate their self-esteem from academics to focus on other areas. This disassociation often leads to a lack of engagement and success by ethnic minorities in academics, which, in turn, leads to lower numbers of minority students enrolling in institutions of higher education (McMillan, 2004).

For some African American men, the performance of hegemonic masculinity is often used to gain control of their lives, which are often dominated by racial oppression in the larger society (Davis, 2006). In many schools, African American boys' behaviors are seen as "defiant, aggressive and intimidating" (Davis, p. 298) by female teachers, leading to increased punishment and disengagement at school from a very young age (Davis). One study of a group of African American men in a school-to-work program indicated that their primary motivation in life was survival: they were thinking of making it to the next day, not making it through high school to college (Davis). The men in the study described critical incidents in their families that led them to "premature manhood," forcing them to help financially provide

for their families at a very young age (Davis, p. 296). While one cannot assume that all African American men are attempting to survive expectations of premature manhood, it does play a substantial role in the socialization process of many (Davis).

The sense of entitlement boys and men feel related to their earning potential provides another explanation for the gender gap in educational attainment. Young students describe boys putting less effort into school because boys "have less to prove than girls" (Warrington et al., 2000, p. 401). Girls feel more pressure to prove they can be more than a housewife and a mother, while many boys know that they can get good jobs no matter how well they do in school because they have seen men succeed in the workplace in large numbers and many have jobs lined up in the workforce (Warrington et al.).

This theory of entitlement is also supported in recent studies of classroom climates as related to privileged identities. Studies show that teachers in primary, secondary and post-secondary classrooms spend more time responding to the disruptive behavior of boys, and that boys and men still dominate classroom discussions at all levels (Tisdell, 1993; Warrington & Younger, 2000). Girls report alienation from traditionally male-dominated fields and frustration with their male peers in classroom environments and group projects (Warrington & Younger). Boys' behavior requires teachers to spend time trying to control them, and girls indicate they feel like they are not getting the most out of their school experience (Warrington & Younger). Girls also shared that boys in group projects created more work because they just "messed around, made sexist comments and made fun of those who worked" (Warrington & Younger, p. 501). Further, some research indicates the alienation felt by girls and women in education leads to lower self-esteem, negative self-perception, and poor coping mechanisms (Katz, Joiner, & Kwon, 2002; Lawrence, Ashford, & Dent, 2006).

Closely related to the male entitlement theory is the increase in earning power related to a college degree for women. Women with a college degree increase their earning potential at a greater rate than men with a college degree (DiPrete & Buchmann, 2006). Traditionally male-dominated fields provide jobs for men immediately out of high school with significantly higher earning power than female-dominated fields. Furthermore, with the cost of higher education significantly rising, the purchasing power becomes less and less for men (Clayton et al., 2004). For women, higher education provides insurance against living in poverty through higher wages and lower risk of divorce (DiPrete & Buchmann). Some researchers cite the higher relative monetary value of higher education for women as a primary motivating factor for going to college (DiPrete & Buchmann).

Parental influences on students' choices to attend institutions of higher education are also significant. Parental income levels and educational attainment significantly influence children's degree attainment (Smith & Fleming, 2006). White children are more significantly influenced by their fathers, and black and Latino children are more significantly influenced by their mothers (Smith & Fleming). Boys whose fathers were absent from their lives or educated at the high school level or less had the lowest rates of college completion (Buchmann & DiPrete, 2006). College completion rates increased for females whose fathers had a high school diploma or less, or were absent from the families (Buchmann & DiPrete). This signals potential support for the earlier hypothesis of females choosing to attend institutions of higher education as insurance against poverty later in life (Buchmann & DiPrete).

Parents may unintentionally contribute to the gender gap in higher education for African American students by trying to cope with the racism prevalent in U.S. society. By focusing on helping sons survive and stay out of trouble with the law and feeling relieved when they finish

high school, African American parents may send the message to their sons that college is not important (Smith & Fleming, 2006). Similarly, by creating an expectation for their daughters to attend college as a way to ensure that they would not be reliant on a man for financial support may provide greater expectations for their daughters to attend college than for their sons (Smith & Fleming, 2006).

Implications for College and University Educators

As many people learned from the early women's movement in the U.S., focusing solely on gender in anti-discrimination and oppression struggles is not enough. Discussing other identities, including race and class, is crucial as professionals and advocates struggle with questions around access to higher education. By simplifying the issue of access to higher education as one of gender, marginalized groups may be further alienated, and people with privilege in the U.S. may unintentionally receive greater benefits. Using power and privilege to challenge and influence both the popular media and less mainstream educational media to end the zero-sum rhetoric around the gender gap in education will encourage a more complex conversation. Raising questions by writing letters to the editor, submitting opinion-editorial pieces, and providing additional facts at any opportunity, including professional association meetings, helps to expand the issues around gender to include the intersections of other identities, which will provide more inclusive solutions related to access to higher education.

On campuses, creating environments that allow and encourage men to explore the construction of masculinities as related to power and privilege assist in the retention of male students (Barone, Wolgemuth & Linder, 2007). While most college men will not join a group promoted as one that challenges hegemonic masculinity, many will get involved to help end violence against women. After the men are involved with such groups, leaders help them deconstruct hegemonic masculinity, and better understand how it hurts men, as well as other people in society. Evaluations of programs, such as these, show promising results, including individual participant change in attitudes towards sexism, an increase in self-esteem, and a greater understanding of systemic oppression (Barone et al.; Hong, 2000).

When K-12 educators better understand the complicated constructions of masculinities and femininities, and help students deconstruct these ideologies, they help children to better understand and challenge the expectations placed on them by U.S. society. By reaching boys at a younger age, they may be less likely to see education and academics as un-masculine and be more likely to pursue education beyond high school (Smith, 1995). In addition to K-12 teachers understanding the construction of masculinities and femininities, it is crucial that teachers explore the intersections of race and class with gender. By helping teachers understand the racism experienced by boys and men of color, teachers can help to empower boys of color to take control over their own lives in ways specific to their experiences. In the same way that some boys and men experience racism, others struggle with classism daily. Currently, K-12 educators struggle with challenging socioeconomic issues in the classroom more than any other identity (Krafchick, 2007). Helping teachers develop skills to address socioeconomic status in the classroom provides opportunity for success for all students, specifically for students from working class families.

College and university educators have a unique opportunity to reach out to parents to help them with this process when their children are as young as middle school age. Working with parents to develop programs that help them better understand the college admissions process earlier increases access to higher education. By creating opportunities for parents to explore

racism and classism as related to raising both sons and daughters, educators create supportive environments that allow parents to learn from each other and feel less alone in the process of raising children to pursue higher education.

Conclusion

Finding ways to address concerns around the gender gap in higher education in a constructive manner that does not detract from the success gained for women in higher education over the past 75 years proves challenging for college and university educators. The challenge lies in both engaging college men in meaningful ways to retain them until graduation and in providing opportunities and encouragement for men to attend institutions of higher education in the first place. The current zero-sum rhetoric around the gender gap in higher education does not allow educators to address the intersections of multiple identities. By expanding the conversation to include race and class, educators increase access to higher education for all men at the same time as improving campus climates for women and other marginalized populations.

Chris Linder is the Director of Women's Programs and Studies at Colorado State University and a PhD candidate in the Higher Education and Student Affairs Leadership program at the University of Northern Colorado.

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When Corporate Meets College:
Corporate Sponsorship in Higher Education

Danielle Martinez
Colorado State University

Abstract

The number of partnerships between corporations and colleges is increasing. Corporations provide funding and programmatic support and, in return, gain exposure to target audiences and advertising opportunities, as well as establish a positive image. Staff, faculty, and students have both positive and negative attitudes about the results of corporate sponsorship. The results of corporate sponsorship include a change in campus climate that may impact students' development.

During her first few days of school, Sarah joins the other first year students and walks to the student union where a large banner greets the incoming class. It says, "Ford presents: Welcome Weekend." Later in the dining hall, Sarah gets a Pepsi and then heads to the first football game where she receives a Nike t-Shirt for showing her student identification card, which has a Bank of America logo on the back. During class, Sarah uses a Dell computer to complete her lab assignment and then walks to her residence hall to watch television using the Comcast cable provided by university housing. All of these images are products of corporate sponsorship in higher education.

As colleges' and universities' budget needs increase and financial support from sources such as the government, alumni, or other donors decrease, institutions turn to corporate sponsorships to support the needs of the academy and growing student population (Cornforth & Simpson, 1999). The partnerships have benefits for both institutions and corporations. Institutions receive the monetary, product, and programmatic support needed for continued or expanded operations and corporations receive exposure to large populations of target market consumers (Cornforth & Simpson). As a result of these partnerships, corporate marketing has become a part of the campus climate. These marketing tactics send messages to students about the values of the corporation or product (Meenaghan, 2001b). Do these corporate images or messages affect Sarah's student development positively or negatively? This article offers definitions of sponsorship, the role of corporate partnerships within higher education, and the attitudes of individuals toward corporate sponsorship. In addition, it addresses the results of sponsorship on the campus' climate and taxonomy and the implication and recommendations for the future.

Definition and Role of Sponsorship

Sponsorship does not have a single definition, rather numerous definitions that are based on companies' or individual's goals and objectives. Often there is a multi-layered approach to the definition of sponsorship. Within each layer are specific objectives and goals to understand the definition and purpose of corporate sponsorship. These goals and objectives may include the amount of attention or recognition a company will receive in return for partnership, access to key audiences, and control of organizations' activities (Conforth & Simpson, 1999; Thjomoe, Olson, & Bronn, 2002).

The first level of sponsorship is the attention received by a donor giving money to an organization (Thjomoe et al., 2002). Through this donation, corporations can receive brand exposure

and build a positive image to the general public (Thjomoe et al.). Corporate sponsorship is perceived as subtle and beneficial. This form of recognition is a disguised intent to persuade audiences the company is community-oriented and unselfish. The first level of sponsorship is also known as the goodwill factor in commercial sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2001b).

The second level of sponsorship is defined as the sponsor's desire for a return on the partnership, therefore establishing more specific objectives and goals (Thjomoe et al., 2002). These include the opportunity to advertise at events, conduct research within the organization, or have the company's name associated with the organization. The benefits of this level of sponsorship include direct exposure and interaction with the company's target market (Cornforth & Simpson, 1999).

In the third level of sponsorship, the company becomes more energetic about the partnership. As a result, the company provides input or gains control of activity within the organization (Thjomoe et al., 2002). This level of the sponsorship provides the company not only with recognition and exposure to various markets, but the opportunity to create change within the organization for their benefit (Thjomoe et al., 2002).

Sponsorship is also called "lifestyle, event, and sports marketing" (Meenaghan, 2001a, p. 191). The goal of sponsorship is for corporations to strategically market their products and services through connections with other organizations (Cornforth & Simpson, 1999). Sponsorship is one of the fastest growing forms of advertising (Meenaghan). In 2002, it is estimated nearly $8.7 billion was spent on corporate sponsorship, and in 1999, all types of sponsorship totaled over $23.16 billion (Meenaghan). Money spent on sponsorship relates directly to the goal of receiving a return. These returns include the positive image associated with philanthropic giving or corporate sponsorship, implicit and explicit brand recognition, company recognition from consumers, company involvement, and sales and marketing effects (Meenaghan, 2001b). The role of sponsorship varies dramatically based on the venue and type of corporate sponsorship, but each includes specific objectives and goals for the return (Thjomoe et al., 2002).

Sponsorship in Higher Education

Sponsorship in higher education is growing and becoming a part of campus climates in the United States (Washburn, 2005). Corporations are partnering with many of the functional areas within the academy (Bok, 2003). For example, Georgetown University has an exclusive contract with Coca-Cola for $6.5 million. This guarantees Georgetown will sell Coca-Cola products in all dining facilities, vending machines, student union, and athletic events. In return, Georgetown receives monies for campus programming ("Coke is Winning," 1998).

Institutions benefit from corporate sponsorship by receiving funds, products, and services (Cornforth & Simpson, 1999). Corporations gain from the partnership with colleges and universities through the image gained from the mission of the institution, the opportunity to research and reach new markets and exposure to large segments of the company's target market, students (Cornforth & Simpson).

Sponsorship adds to the level of commercialism in schools by adding four types of marketing within the school: product sales, direct advertising, indirect advertising, and marketing research (Bok, 2003; Larson, 2002). These marketing techniques often appear as multiples; "product sales such as exclusive vending contracts with soft drink bottlers [may be] accompanied by the display of a corporate logo on vending machines" (Larson, p. 2). The vending machine represents product sales and the logo on the machine represents a form of direct advertising (Larson). Contracts such as Pepsi's exclusive $57.7 million contract with the University of Maryland ("Coke is Winning," 1998) or the partnership between Nike and The Ohio State University

Athletic Division (Covell, 2001) resulted in the placement of logos as indirect advertising and direct advertisements on various areas of the campus ("Coke is Winning,"; Covell, 2001).

Student affairs departments, academic programs, scholarships, and research also are funded through corporate sponsorship. For example, at the University of Maryland – Baltimore County utilizes $85 million in corporate sponsorships out of the $318 million budget for academic progress and research (Fain, 2007). These exclusive contracts with soft drinks, research equipment, and apparel add to the brand advertising present in schools (Larson, 2002).

Attitudes Towards Corporate Sponsorship

Attitudes regarding corporate sponsorship vary greatly among members of the academy. Supporters of corporate sponsorship view the revenue gained from these partnerships as a positive educational opportunity for students (Bok, 2003). The money and products gained from corporations allow institutions to purchase new equipment, provide the latest technology and fund research. These incentives can provide students with a unique educational experience (Bok; Jibrell, 1990). Individuals in support of corporate sponsorship indicate the educational benefits for students outweigh the negative stigma related to corporate marketing (Jibrell).

In contrast, other institutional members oppose the alliances higher education is making with large corporations (Bok, 2003). One argument against sponsorship in higher education is the disapproval of company's practices and policies. In the case of Boise State University (BSU), students, staff and faculty opposed the name change of the BSU indoor sports arena from The Pavilion to the Taco Bell Arena. Campus community members resisted the change due to Taco Bell's lack of support for local farmers (Fain, 2005). Other reasons for disapproval include the promotion of unhealthy food items in schools, the negative impact on popular culture images and the consumer behavior, such as credit card misuse, and the debt resulting from viewing school sponsored advertisements (Molnar, 2003).

A recent example of disputed corporate sponsorship was the prospective partnership between a student affairs professional organization and Abercrombie & Fitch, a clothing company. On September 5, 2007, an email from the NASPA, Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education Executive Director announced a new partnership between the professional organization and Abercrombie & Fitch. The prospective monetary support would be coupled with changes made to Abercrombie & Fitch's business practices (G. J. Dungy, personal communication, September 5, 2007). NASPA decided not to continue with the partnership when members of the organization opposed the joint venture with the specific company due to differences in values relating to diversity (G. J. Dungy, personal communication, September 10, 2007).

Implicit and Explicit Effects on Consumer Behavior

As a result of corporate sponsorship, the marketing and advertisements have explicit and implicit effects on college students. These effects most commonly occur as changes in students' consumer behavior. Explicit memory is when an individual recognizes an event and can later consciously recall the event. Implicit memory is the memory of a specific event without the intentional consciousness (Yang, Roskos-Ewoldsen, Dinu, & Arpan, 2006). Implicit memory can affect the perceptions or interpretations of subsequent events and choice behavior based on the initial event (Yang et al., 2006). For example, a Pepsi logo may affect a student's implicit memory. By viewing a Pepsi logo on campus each day, a student may internalize the message sent by the Pepsi advertisements and create a brand relationship with Pepsi. Implicit memory is not based or influenced by the initial processed information. Also, it survives longer than explicit memory (Yang & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2007). Therefore, constant exposure to a Pepsi

logo could affect students' consumer behavior in the future. Students' implicit memory is affected by the utilization of product, logo, and advertisement placement (Yang et al.). Yang and Roskos-Edwolden (2007) stated, "Implicit attitudes have been demonstrated to be a good predictor of related behavior" (p. 475).

The implicit and explicit messages may be sent both intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsic messages are based on the physical product being advertised, such as amount, size, or quality. Extrinsic messages are based on product attributes and tend to be intangible, like price and brand name (Dean, 1999). Extrinsic messages are sent to the consumer through third party endorsement, brand popularity, and event sponsorship. These cues affect consumers' implicit memory, therefore changing their product attitude or consumer behavior (Dean). The change in attitude or consumer behavior could be viewed as the goal of corporate sponsorship in higher education, as college students are a large target market for retailers, spending a total $47.3 billion in retail merchandise in 2007 (York, 2007).

Corporate Sponsorship Effects on Campus Culture

Corporate sponsorship may affect an institutions' campus culture. As corporate sponsorship increases, posters, logos, and other advertisements will appear throughout the campus environment. These physical artifacts relay information about the values and beliefs of the institution (Banning, 1997). These artifacts can express attitudes towards gender, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation and disability. Such attitudes send messages to students about belonging, safety, equality and roles (Banning & Bartles, 1997).

Stereotypical roles about gender may be conveyed through corporate advertisements as well. Men are portrayed as strong and powerful in many advertisements, while women are not present in these messages (Banning & Bartles, 1997). Apple Corporation's most recent advertisement features two males debating about technology and the use of Apple computers versus Personal Computers. These advertisements send implicit messages to women about their sense of belonging in scientific careers (Banning & Bartles). It reinforces society's stereotypical views that women are not suitable to engage in scientific-related fields (Banning & Bartles).

Artifacts such as advertisements and posters might also communicate heteronormative messages (Banning & Bartles, 1997). Advertisements from companies like Abercrombie & Fitch feature men and women in various sexual scenarios. Visual artifacts such as these advertisements are not welcoming to students in the gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender community (Banning & Bartels, 1997).

Implications

Based on the present research, individuals can deduce a correlation exists between corporate sponsorship on college campuses and college students' attitudes and behaviors. As more explicit and implicit messages are established, consumer attitudes and behavior are affected. The advertising students see on college campuses as a result of corporate sponsorship can have either negative or positive effect on students' explicit and implicit memory, consumer behavior, attitudes, and sense of belonging.

As students transition and develop in college, the implicit and explicit messages can have a greater affect on student development. For example, alcohol-based advertisements can impact students' implicit memory. These visual images send the message that it is necessary for students to drink to have fun and feel connected to other students and that the university may be in support of alcohol-related habits. A positive example is a Nike campaign showcasing a

strong female athlete may promote a healthy lifestyle and create a realistic body image. These prospective attitudes can affect interactions with peers, performance in class, participation in the community, and image of self. As students internalize messages from corporate sponsorship and advertising, the environment is being influenced by outside factors which may adversely alter student development.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Although more research is emerging about the effects of corporate advertising on college students, there is still much to learn. Many articles exist regarding the effects of marketing on children, elementary and secondary students, and post-graduate adults. To date, very little literature or research has been published about the effects of marketing on college and university students. Research on how advertising affects college students will provide student affairs professionals with a clear vision on how marketing can influence student development.

Research is needed to establish whether or not there are correlations between advertising and other trends in college students. Does advertising affect students' body image, gender and sex roles, cultural and ethnicity perceptions and alcohol and drug misuse? Research should explore these areas to provide information for higher education administrators. With the rise of corporate sponsorship on college campuses, it is important for student affairs professionals to recognize the messages that are sent and the possible implications they have on student development. Student affairs professionals should consider the influence of corporate advertising on college students before deciding to enter into corporate sponsorships.

Literature shows an increasing number of high schools in the United States participate in corporate sponsorship (Larson, 2002). Research should also be completed about the influences of sponsor-related events on high school students' transition into higher education. In addition, if corporate sponsors vary at different institutions, does this change the attitudes and behaviors of students? Does a campus without alcohol-related sponsorship have fewer problems than a campus with that sponsorship? Is the effect different for transfer or non-traditional students?

Further research will provide more information to higher education staff and faculty about students' attitudes, perceptions, and development. Current faculty, administrators, and student affairs professionals need to be aware of the implicit messages sent by visual artifacts (Banning & Bartels, 1997). Professionals also must remain cautious when entering into a partnership with corporations who give funds and products in return for advertisement space on campus. This may result in the creation or review of policies and procedures to ensure the well being of students.

Corporate sponsorship in higher education is a growing phenomenon. There are benefits to corporate sponsorship on campuses, such as more resources for students. Corporate sponsorship can also have a negative effect on development and must be considered by student affairs professionals. More research is needed on this subject and caution should be taken by administrators when entering into corporate sponsorship contracts.

Danielle L. Martinez ('09) is the Assistant Residence Director of Parmelee Hall at Colorado State University and is a current graduate student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program.

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Class of 2007

The following is a list of the members of the Class of 2007.

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Tim Cherney

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Jimmy Ellis

Clint Galloway

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Cody Hudson

Mike Jaramillo

Jessica Klingsmith

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Keith Lopez

Cassie Luke

Joslyn McGriff

Tae Nosaka

Emily Seems

Lauren Streitfeld

Karlen Suga

Elizabeth Terry

Becky Villalpando

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

Purpose

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

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

- Quantitative, Qualitative, or Emancipatory Research Articles ⋆

- Editorial Articles

- Historical Articles

- Opinion/Position Pieces

- Book Reviews

- *Research articles for the Journal should stress the underlying issues or problem that stimulated the research. Treat the methodology concisely; and most importantly, offer a full discussion of the results, implications, and conclusions.*

Procedure

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

Suggestions for Writing

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

2. Include an article abstract and brief description of the author. The abstract should clearly state the purpose of the article and be concise and specific, limited to 120 words. Refer to page 12 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

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

4. Avoid bias in language; refer to page 61 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

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

6. Use the active voice as much as possible.

7. Check subject/verb agreement, singular/plural.

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

9. Proofread and double-check all references/citations before submitting your draft.

10. Use Microsoft Word 2003 or higher, PC version whenever possible.

11. Any article under consideration for publication in a nationally distributed journal may not be submitted to the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*.

*Adapted from the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

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