magis

A Student Development Journal

Seattle University
MAGIS: A Student Development Journal
Volume 8—2014

MISSION

MAGIS is the peer-reviewed academic journal for the Student Development Administration (SDA) program at Seattle University. Published annually and entirely student-run, the journal showcases scholarly and reflective writing by SDA students, alumni, faculty, and student affairs professionals. Following the Jesuit tradition of academic inquiry, *MAGIS* is committed to creating the premier forum within Jesuit higher education for dialogue on the theory and practice of student affairs.

VISION

The vision of *MAGIS* is to represent the Seattle University College of Education and Student Development Administration Program as a scholarly and reflective resource for student affairs graduate students and professionals in Jesuit higher education.

Editorial Board and Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

Editors' Note

The culmination of this year long process through the publication of the 8ᵗʰ Edition of *MAGIS: A Student Development Journal* is filled with excitement. Throughout this volume, current issues facing the field of student affairs today are explored from a variety of perspectives. A combination of research, scholarly reflection, and critical review are utilized in an effort to bring awareness and prompt constructive dialogue. We hope that you, as the reader, engage with the content both on and off the pages.

The opportunity to engage in community with our *MAGIS* Editing Teams, *MAGIS* Advisory Board, and Seattle University Student Development Association (SUSDA) has deeply impacted us at the personal and professional levels. It is with deep gratitude that we thank each one of you for your support and encouragement.

Warmly,
Sophie J. Boyer & Eden C. Tullis

Water & Fire, Seattle, WA (2013)—Tracy Phutikanit

Listening to Your Call: A Perspective on Leadership for Social Justice

Jacob L. Diaz, *Seattle University*

> "Vocation at its deepest level is, 'This is something I can't not
> do, for reasons I'm unable to explain to anyone else and don't
> fully understand myself but that are nonetheless compelling.'"
>
> (Palmer, 2000, p. 25)

I am honored to have been asked to submit a reflective piece to this year's *MAGIS*: *A Student Development Journal*. For the purpose of this piece, I offer that we must remain true to our callings if we are to help our institutions behave in a more socially just and inclusive manner. In this spirit, I will share a bit about my own calling.

THE QUESTIONS BEGIN

In my own journey as a Chicano doctoral student, I viewed education as a noble profession steeped in honorable values that I could lean on to support my daily life. Working with students is where I gained much fulfillment and gratification. I had the privilege of being invited into students' lives and hopefully contributing to them in a positive way. Yet, as time went by, and I learned more about the challenges facing students of color in college, I became more doubtful of the glowing feelings I had of education.

I began to question the hidden curriculum, the socializing nature of the process, and the inherent shortfalls in the system itself. I began to see education through a critical lens rather than accepting it at face value. The impetus for my newfound perspective is a continuous process, but I vividly recall the moment that this friction began.

As a first-year doctoral student I enrolled in a course entitled "Grassroots Leadership" led by Dr. Corrine Glesne. Dr. Glesne, a professor of great repute and academic accomplishment, has deep blue eyes and long silver hair. She walks with a confident stroll and is an extremely positive person. In my time as her student and informal advisee, I found that I learned as much from her intellect as I did from the way she carried herself. She did not rest on viewing the world as small but chose to view it as tall with all of its brilliance and its shortcomings. This is why, when the opportunity came to enroll in her course, I seized the chance to work with her. I was already taking another course with her in "Applied Research Methods," so I surmised this would be an excellent opportunity to learn more about how she integrated her intellectual passions with her life as an academic in the university.

In the spring of 2002, Dr. Glesne was planning to take a group of graduate students to Oaxaca, Mexico to learn about and experience non-Western forms of leadership and the role that women have in their respective indigenous communities. I was excited about this opportunity to work with her and visit Oaxaca, Mexico. In many ways, the trip symbolized a return to my Mexican roots. We visited there for nine

days, and in that time, we met with grassroots leaders, legislators, and traditional healers who dedicated their lives to the struggle of protecting and maintaining indigenous ways of life.

One particular individual we met was Señor Gustavo Esteva, a grassroots activist and de-professionalized intellectual. He spoke to our group of educators at his home on a hill in the city of Oaxaca. Surrounded by warm breezes gently passing through the bamboo rooftop and adobe patio with the smell of fresh *maiz* in the air, he shared how he had become involved with the Zapatista Movement.

I listened closely to Señor Esteva's words, wanting to glean as much as possible from his perspectives on education. At one point he shared, "Education cannot be reformed. It is impossible." I sat there both in shock and discomfort because he had just shared words that I had yet to find a language for myself. Was this true? Could it be possible that the field I was now deeply immersed in was incapable of being reformed? If so, was I just a passenger on a ship headed in a predetermined direction? How would I reconcile my own aspirations of being an educational leader with this new perspective? Was it possible for my professional self to reconcile the atrocities education had inflicted upon people with the kernels of good that I had been able to cull from my experience? Esteva and Prakash (1998) further exacerbated these dilemmas in their work, *Escaping Education: Living as Learning within Grassroots Cultures*:

> Schooling remains for millions of young people at the grassroots, a ritual passage, the modern "rain dance." Increasing millions are, however, aware that the passage is blocked. Schools are a road to Nowhere; diplomas guarantee nothing, neither learning nor jobs; neither status nor prestige; rather than correct inequalities, they perpetuate them. (p. 64)

This passage caused me to further question my own aspirations and to reflect upon the disparity between my life as a Chicano from a working-class background and my new life as a member and participant within the college-educated community. The disparity between these two worlds jarred my reality as a doctoral student. I could not seem to reconcile this truth with my own, someone who had believed in the goodness that education could offer. Yet I sat there in Señor Esteva's home, inspired by his words; finally it felt as if someone spoke to my experience of being an insider and outsider at the same time.

This dissonance heavily weighed upon my spirit. I saw the truth in what Señor Esteva had said and agreed with Illich, that my educational process also proved to be a socialization and journey of acculturation. As a Chicano in school, I was tracked into certain courses, evaluated for certain competencies, and graded for my ability to perform to standards set forth by the authorities. In college, I moved from being schooled to being prepared for participation in society. As Esteva and Prakash (1998) pointed out, I was assessed and rewarded for completing a certain amount of credits, and then I was given a diploma that supposedly spoke about my competence as an individual.

The hidden curriculum in college did not appear hidden anymore. With this new perspective, I began to examine education in my life more critically for its impact and not its intention. The more I searched, the

more I found that education is not as innocent a narrative as I had once thought. The moral high ground that I originally had ascribed to the field of education steadily began to crumble in front of me.

I had already questioned my own identity and motivation for pursuing collegiate credentials and now the entire narrative of education began to appear to me with ever-growing holes. I always returned to my own narrative in education and realized that the one I had constructed, the one that had given me meaning, no longer sufficed. It became time to reconstruct a narrative of meaning that could inspire me. This is where I discovered my passion for the work of student development.

DISCOVERING MY CALLING

These critical questions served to complicate my thinking and propel me towards what would eventually become my calling. There is a striking statistic that has served as my reason for making a commitment to the field of student development. It is:

> Beginning with a cohort of 100 students, only 55 Chicanos...will graduate from high school, compared with 83 White students and 72 Blacks. Of the 100, only 22 Chicanos...will enroll in an institution of higher education, compared with 38 Whites and 29 Blacks. Only seven Chicanos...out of 100 will complete college, compared with 23 Whites and 12 Blacks. (de los Santos, as cited in Aguirre and Martinez, 1993, p. 4)

Unfortunately, more recent research describes some improvement in these figures, but the reality remains that a large percentage of Chicanos are not attending college or, if they are, they are not graduating. I introduce this important issue facing higher education because I believe that unless we are authentic and courageous, these kinds of challenges will continue to remain static rather than improve. My invitation to each of you is to consider from where your deepest motivation arises to create a more inclusive environment for the students we serve.

My involvement in leadership positions on campus would provide the seed for what would become my calling in life: a career in student development. Throughout my college experience, I was supported by many administrators and faculty who facilitated the exploration of the many questions of life I had. Once I discovered I could pursue a graduate degree in this field, I became even more drawn to the idea of contributing my part to bettering the collegiate environment for Latino students.

As a fourth-generation Mexican-American, my time in college taught me that education did not reserve a space for everyone who desired it. Rather, I discovered that race and racism in higher education were topics that went undiscussed rather than explored openly, like many other topics. At times, I felt like I was checking a part of me at the doorway before entering class or a meeting with colleagues. This was due to a palpable discomfort that inhibited each of us to talk through difficult subjects. It was not just a concept, but an experience that I identified with personally—it was sorely missing in the discourse.

As my time in graduate school unfolded, this void in the conversation served as an invitation for what would become one of my professional passions. I had a choice to make, and I decided then that I belonged in higher education because I had been provided the opportunity to practice my gifts: a love for learning,

dialogue, and active participation in making our institutions of higher education more inclusive than before.

FOLLOWING THE CALL

As my career has unfolded, my desire to improve the campus climate for every student, faculty, and staff member has strengthened and remained a part of my purpose for living. If I were to describe my life mission, that mission would be to help my fellow human beings succeed. It just so happens that I have been fortunate to find a vocation in the realm of student development. I have the privilege of helping college students succeed at pursuing and achieving their academic and personal dreams. I have a special place in my heart for students who may doubt their abilities, are first generation in college, or who do not see their salient identities represented or discussed fully in the collegiate environment of their choosing.

I wish I could share that my calling is always welcome in the environments I find myself. Yet, more often than not, I have found kindred spirits who complicate my thinking and approach the goal of inclusion and justice with a desire to improve rather than denigrate the goal. What gives me energy is the moment when I meet with a student and look into their eyes to see that they are proud of who they are. Students teach me more about myself than they may realize. As a professor, I am finding a true joy in accompanying graduate students in their pursuit of a graduate degree. Yet, my intuition tells me that within each student resides a profound care for their fellow human being. This inspires me and serves as a reminder to embrace the restlessness that I feel and continue to engage in. Dialogue touches the heart and mind as we journey towards more inclusion rather than less.

CONTINUING THE WORK

A close colleague and mentor of mine asked me one day, "Jake, what is it that you want for your life?" This question gave me pause. What exactly do I want? To this day, my purpose is driven by being in community with others and doing my part to help make it so that every member feels whole and like they matter.

As Jesuit educators, I believe we are positioned well to change our institutions for the better. Imagine if the 28 Jesuit institutions in the continental United States decided to form a collaborative effort aimed at being more inclusive. Imagine the power we would have in our collective voices. I believe that the myriad complex topics you hold in your hand in this year's *MAGIS* journal reflect the world that our students reside in, and those students expect that we create the kind of memorable moments that they can look back upon and say, "I mattered" at my university. I hope you will courageously respond to your call.

References

Aguirre, A., & Martinez, R. O. (1993). *Chicanos in higher education: Issues and dilemmas for the 21st century* (American Association of Higher Education ED RI-88-062014). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Esteva, G., & Prakash, M. (1998). *Escaping education: Living as learning within Grassroots cultures*. New York: Peter Lang.

Palmer, P. (2000). *Let your life speak: Listening for the voice of vocation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Jacob L. Diaz serves as a Visiting Professor and Coordinator of Special Projects at Seattle University. In his career, he has held administrative roles such as Vice President for Student Development, Dean of Students, and Director of the Center for Student Ethics and Standards. He earned his Master's and Doctoral degrees at the University of Vermont and a Bachelors of Arts in English Literature from the University of California, Santa Barbara.

What's Race Really Got to Do With It? Investigating (In)equity in Education Through a Critical Social Lens

Ester Sihite, M.A., *Loyola University Chicago*

In a nation that is increasingly becoming more racially and ethnically diverse, educational literature and practice still lacks critical investigation of how systems have fared in supporting the success of historically marginalized students of color. Through an examination of contemporary literature using a critical framework, this paper presents overviews of key factors contributing to educational inequities in the education pipeline: historical legislation, funding structures, and psychosocial attitudes and paradigms of educators. Discussion of these elements bears implications for policymakers and educators and renders possibilities for critical analysis-driven change that can foster greater opportunities for educational success for students of color.

Keywords: educational equity, critical race theory, education pipeline

I stumbled across issues of access and equity in education in my first full-time job as an admissions counselor. Working at a small, predominantly white, liberal arts college in the Pacific Northwest, I noticed trends in who was represented at the institution and who was not. I noticed that when the admissions staff strategically recruited underrepresented student populations, namely low-income students and urban students of color, there was a disconnect between the institution and the students. There seemed to be a great deal of effort in making the students feel like they "belonged" at the college, but underneath the surface of the campus visits and the conversations with staff and faculty, it was evident that the institutional culture and policies were not created with *these* students in mind. The stakeholders of the college both directly and indirectly communicated the reasons for this disconnect by including the fact that these underrepresented students were academically underprepared and that they did not look like the rest of the student body. There was an abundance of good intention, yet little conversation about whether the *system* should change to support the success of the changing student body; if anything, a few designated staff and faculty were identified to "look after" these students.

Research on what leads to many poor and minority students' access to and experiences in higher education, or lack thereof, unsurprisingly points to dynamics and systems within primary and secondary education. These segments, after all, lay the foundation for whether a student is going to access and succeed in institutions of higher education. Often, discourse on educational inequity in primary and secondary education points to dynamics that lay beyond the scope of the responsibility of educators and the educational institutions. Society, including educators, usually faults students themselves, their families, and the communities from which they come. But what about the education systems themselves? How are we, if at all, looking at our education systems with a critical social lens in assessing their effectiveness in teaching students of color?

Educational attainment levels in the United States must rise in order to remain globally competitive (Bowen, Kurzweil, & Tobin, 2005; Galama & Hosek,

2009; Zumeta, Breneman, Callan, & Finney, 2012). On one hand, while educational attainment and graduation rates in the U.S. have grown slightly in the past 30 years, spending per pupil has doubled, suggesting a "decline in the productivity of spending" (Bowen et al., 2005, p. 233). Moreover, the *least* amount of productivity occurs among students from low-income communities and communities of color, which remain vastly underrepresented in 4-year institutions and among associate and baccalaureate degree recipients (College Board, 2010). To increase educational attainment in the nation, energy must be invested efficiently and wisely in increasing access and success for these underrepresented populations (Bowen et al., 2005; Zumeta, et al., 2012). Citing a need for comprehensive reform, Bowen, et al. (2005) stated:

> Policy changes at the collegiate level alone...will not tap fully the potential of disadvantaged students. There is even more fundamental need for larger, better-prepared pools of applicants from low-[socioeconomic status] and minority backgrounds: improving their college preparedness should be a major objective of national policy. We are persuaded that a comprehensive approach is needed, with consideration given to the sources of the preparedness gap from birth through adolescence and to both schooling and the out-of-school environment. (p. 224)

ROOTS OF THE PROBLEM

Factors of inequities in education are complex and multi-faceted. Internal factors, including motivation, feelings of connectedness to their school, and confidence, can influence student success

(Barker, 2009). Simultaneously, neighborhoods, health, pre-primary education, structural resources, and gang violence are among many of the external factors identified as also bearing weight on students' success, particularly for students of color (Barker, 2009; Bowen et al., 2005). Lest educators feel a sense of despair concerning the aspects of and the cycle of poverty and oppression that seem out of their locus of control, it is important to note that "schooling, all the way from pre-primary programs to the end of high school, can either mitigate or exacerbate non-school influences on children" (Bowen et al., 2005, p. 225). Three problematic aspects of the current system of education within which we are educating our students are: (a) historical legislation and integration which have neither considered nor benefitted the marginally oppressed (read: people of color), (b) funding structures that continue to leave communities of color with less, and (c) psychosocial attitudes and paradigms utilized by educators working with marginalized student populations, including students of color.

Legislation and Integration

In learning about the civil rights movements and "liberating" changes in national legislation spanning the past decades and centuries, most people in the U.S. have been given rose-colored glasses and fail to notice how "civil rights legislation in the U.S. has always benefitted whites (even if it has not always benefitted African Americans)" (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p. 21). Historically, legislation has not had the marginalized and oppressed in mind. Take, for example, the decision of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), the "crown jewel of U.S. Supreme Court jurisprudence" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p.

18), and a case often depicted as the turning point in U.S. history where racism and discrimination would no longer be tolerated. When seen through a critical perspective, however, much evidence suggests that *Brown* did not center on concern about the "immorality of racial inequality" (Bell, 1980, p. 524) but rather on a convergence of interests primarily concerned with the U.S. image among Third World countries in the midst of the Cold War, as well as neutralizing potential backlash from black veterans who had just recently fought in WWII (Bell, 1980; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1999):

> During that period, as well, the United States was locked in the Cold War, a titanic struggle with the forces of international communism for the loyalties of uncommitted emerging nations, most of which were black, brown, or Asian. It would ill serve the U.S. interest if the world press continued to carry stories of lynchings, Klan violence, and racist sheriffs. It was time for the United States to soften its stance toward domestic minorities. The interests of whites and blacks, for a brief moment, converged. (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p. 19)

Years after Bell's (1980) controversial piece was published, legal historian Mary Dudziak conducted extensive research on U.S. government archives, press reports, letters from U.S. ambassadors abroad, and secret cables and memos, confirming Bell's intuition that the U.S. had an interest in legitimizing the country's image to the developing world (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Motive aside, what this integration affected was by no means equity by any reasonable definition. Noting all of the past inequities in the investments in and execution of education in the U.S., Ladson-Billings (1999) posed the question, "But what was necessary to help African Americans to 'catch up' with their white counterparts? Beyond equal treatment was the need to redress past inequities" (p. 18). Ongoing disparities in the financing and delivery of education, as well the educational attainment rates of students by racial and income groups today, suggest that these past inequities have never fully been "redressed."

Funding Structures

I recently visited a high school in a neighborhood of Seattle that is known for having a higher crime rate, poverty rate, and a disproportionately higher percentage of people of color compared to other parts of the city. During this visit, which was facilitated by a partner agency focused on college access, I asked where the nearest water fountain was from the classroom in which I was situated. Surprisingly, I heard that the water was likely not safe to drink from the school's water fountain, due to plumbing that had not been updated in an unknown amount period of time. Seattle is a city that touts its social and environmental responsibility, technological innovation, high education rates, and overall wealth; yet I was told by the staff members at a high school serving children (mostly students of color) that it was not safe to drink water from its water fountains. Something is wrong with this picture.

Throughout most of U.S. history, the funding of schools has been inequitable across communities. A simple explanation of the disparities lies in the fact that public schools have been funded by local property taxes, meaning that "differences in property wealth and in voter tax will translate into disparities in educational resources" (Bowen et al., 2005, p. 231).

Efforts to address this dilemma were made in the 1970s, when many states enacted redistribution plans that were intended to equalize per-pupil spending. Unfortunately, these policies were executed with perverse incentives, leading to a leveling down of spending, and in some states an actual decrease of spending in disadvantaged districts (Bowen et al., 2005). Despite past failures, these authors posit that these finance "equalization" plans *could* lead to measures of equity, though not without complication and regulation (Bowen et al., 2005). Acknowledging that planning of such finance-related policies is complicated, suffice it to say that "additional funding for some inputs has the *potential* [original emphasis] to improve achievement, and where increased spending has been found to help, it has disproportionately helped minority children and those from low-SES backgrounds" (Bowen et al., 2005). It can be argued with clear evidence that the amount of funding an institution, district, or agency receives does not directly foster these outcomes, but "without a commitment to redesign funding formulas [we can] virtually guarantee the reproduction of the status quo" (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p. 21).

Psychosocial Paradigms and Ability to Promote Equity and Diversity

Of the factors discussed in this paper, perhaps the most difficult to measure, quantify, and even broach in discussion are those which relate to the paradigms and skills educators utilize in teaching students of color and other marginalized student populations. Motives of educators are generally noble and admirable; yet, it is worth stating that the current status quo approaches for working with students of color, at best, lack effectiveness and, at worst,

produce harm. Dynamics that contribute to these problematic dispositions include: (a) cultural mismatch in the classroom, (b) lack of preparation of educators (predominantly identifying as white) to serve marginalized student populations effectively, and (c) efforts to develop culturally responsive educators (i.e. "diversity trainings") not being aligned with the understanding of the need and opportunity for collective and organizational change.

It is widely recognized that the proportions of teachers by race in the U.S. do not match those of the students in the U.S. and that this gap is large and growing (Sleeter, 2001). In teacher education programs across the country, "A large proportion of white preservice students anticipate working with children of another cultural background [but] as a whole...bring very little cross-cultural background, knowledge, and experience" (p. 94). Teacher education programs have, problematically, stayed the same over time, even with the changing demographics and needs of the students whom many of them will teach (Ladson-Billings, 1998).

The inclusion of coursework, activities, or immersions in "diversity" and multiculturalism varies but often does not prepare these teachers for work in schools not educating primarily white, upper or middle class children. Teachers-in-training also are found to have stereotypic beliefs of urban children (Vaught & Castagno, 2008) and bring "little awareness or understanding of discrimination, especially racism" (Sleeter, 2001, p. 95). A problematic dichotomy, then, occurs when these predominantly white students are being educated by predominantly white faculty members and then teaching a "growing population of public school

students who are very different from them racially, ethnically, linguistically, and economically" (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 226). In a series of seminars and focus groups sponsored by the College Board (2010), insight into the potential destructiveness of this cultural mismatch was articulated by a community stakeholder regarding educational challenges facing young men of color in the U.S.:

> Sometimes I wonder if we were not better served in a segregated system. Black teachers, male and female, taught our kids. Despite their shortcomings, those schools were affirmative places for our kids. Today's schools are not affirmative for African American boys. Every day these schools let these kids know what's wrong with them. (College Board, 2010, p. 14)

To address this cultural mismatch, often when teachers enter teaching positions in diverse settings, their institutions or districts require or encourage them to participate in workshops or trainings intended to raise multicultural competency. While important professional development work, the ironic part about trying to change individual attitudes is that racial justice and social change requires doing so in collective and institutional contexts, not limited to individual attitudes and practices (Ladson-Billings, 1998, 1999; Vaught & Castagno, 2008). Moreover, Ladson-Billings (1998; 1999) argues that teachers need a sense of how they fit into an institutional system in which they play a role and have the capacity and navigational ability to impact change.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

The implications for policy and practice are related to the factors that inextricably influence students' chances for success, discussed in part in this paper. Firstly, it is imperative that schools invest in communitarian approaches in which parents, teachers, administrators, and students play active roles and feel invested in the school. This not only will develop a wider and more supportive net with which students can thrive, but community-based cultural assets can also play a factor in informing the school's approaches to fostering student success. Secondly, funding structures, as determined by policymakers and constituents, should concentrate resources on historically underserved student populations and communities, because we know that these are the places in which the financial resources can create the greatest impact (Bowen et al., 2005). Thirdly, schools and teacher training programs ought to place greater emphasis on recruiting and cultivating culturally responsive educators, including through the evaluation of how these teacher preparation programs and schools are, if at all, supporting this goal. This includes investigating the curriculum that pervades teacher-training programs, providing historically accurate perspectives on the policies and practices that have shaped disparate educational experiences in the U.S., and better preparing teachers-in-training to serve effectively and reflectively in diverse communities. Lastly, more teachers should be recruited from the very communities and backgrounds that a growing percentage of this country's students identify with: communities of color.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

This paper highlighted factors that have contributed to educational inequity for students in the U.S. educational system. Despite a number of

systemic barriers that have existed for communities of color, we know that more effective policies and practices can exist which can foster students' educational success. These include: having an understanding of past oppressive policies and legislation, reforming funding structures so that historically marginalized communities can have a fair share of resources, as well as increasing the responsiveness of teacher training programs to cultivate teachers who can effectively serve in culturally diverse settings with an orientation toward social justice. If we want to change our future, we must investigate our past and present with critical eyes. This paper articulates a few, salient pieces of the puzzle and demonstrates the need for changing our structures, paradigms, and policies.

REFERENCES

Barker, K. S. (2009). Student success in a high-minority high school. In R. V. Padilla (Ed.), *Student success modeling* (pp. 96-133). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Bell, D. (1980). Brown and the interest-convergence dilemma. *Harvard Law Review, 93,* 518-533.

Bowen, W. G., Kurzweil, M. A., & Tobin, E. M. (2005). *Equity and excellence in American higher education.* Charlottesville, VA: University of Virginia Press.

Brown v. Board of Education, 347. U.S. 483. (1954). College Board. (2010). *The educational crisis facing young men of color.*

Delgado, R. & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical race theory: An introduction.* New York, NY: University Press.

Galama, T. & Hosek, H. (2008). *U.S. competitiveness in science and technology.* Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation. Retrieved from RAND Corporation website: http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand /pubs/monographs/2008/RAND_MG674.pdf

Ladson-Billings, G. (1998). Preparing teachers for diverse student populations: A critical race theory perspective. *Review of Research in Education*, *24,* 211–247.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1999). Just what is critical race theory, and what's it doing in a nice field like education? In L. Parker, D. Deyhle, & S. Villenas (Eds.), *Race is…race isn't: Critical race theory and qualitative studies in education* (pp. 7–30). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Sleeter, C. E. (2001). Preparing teachers for culturally diverse schools: Research and the overwhelming presence of Whiteness. *Journal of Teacher Education, 52*(2), 94–106.

Vaught, S., & Castagno, A. (2008). I don't think I'm a racist: Critical race theory, teacher attitudes, and structural racism. *Race, Ethnicity, and Education*, *11*(2), 95-113.

Zumeta, W., Breneman, D. W., Callan P. M., & Finney J. E. (2012). *Financing American higher education in the era of globalization.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Ester Sihite graduated from the Student Development Administration program in 2012. She is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in Higher Education at Loyola University Chicago.

Angel at Dawn, Bay St. Louis, MS—Bruce B. Mann

Graduate Students and On-Campus Engagement

Lakeisha Jackson, Victoria Navarro Benavides, and Jacqueline Saarenas, *Seattle University*

Research focusing on graduate student attrition, services, and needs is slim. Scholars investigating experiences of graduate students have attributed this gap in research to the limited number of master's- and doctoral-level students who attend universities (Cooke, Sims, & Peyrefitte, 1995). With Seattle University enrolling approximately 2,000 graduate students as of October 2012 and steadily increasing the amount of graduate degrees awarded per academic year since 2008, the university benefits from learning about the diverse needs of this population (Seattle University, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012). The purpose of this quantitative study is to understand graduate student experience at Seattle University. More specifically, this study addresses the following question: In respect to gender and work status, how are graduate students engaged in campus life?

Keywords: State of the Student, graduate students, on-campus engagement, involvement

GRADUATE STUDENTS AND ON-CAMPUS ENGAGEMENT

The number of graduate students attending Seattle University (SU) has steadily increased in the past decade. To best serve these students, it is important that SU understands how graduate students are experiencing the university. Utilizing research focused on graduate student services, attrition, and needs to inform the analysis of graduate student response to the SU's State of the Student (SOS) survey administered during winter quarter 2013, various key findings emerged about graduate student engagement. The purpose of this quantitative study is to learn more about the experience of graduate students and provide recommendations to the university's efforts to serve this post-baccalaureate population.

METHODOLOGY

The graduate school experience is different for each student and varies greatly by graduate program. Core competencies of this unique journey include academic, professional, and social experiences. The SOS survey was a partnership between Student Activities, which is a part of the SU Division of Student Development, and the following student organizations: the Student Government at Seattle University (SGSU), the Graduate School Council (GSC), and the Student Bar Association (SBA).

Data Collection

All students at SU were eligible to participate in the SOS survey. A student leader from SGSU sent emails to the student population with the survey link. Recipients of these emails included all undergraduate, graduate, and law students. Around 1,340 students of the nearly 8,000 enrolled answered the survey. This means the survey results represent about 17% of the overall SU student population. For the purposes of this paper, only graduate students' responses were included in the analysis. There were 385 graduate student respondents to the SOS. This is representative of 19.8% of the graduate student population at SU (Seattle University, 2012).

Data Analysis

The SOS calls for a quantitative analysis by virtue of the survey design and instrument. As indicated in the appendices and findings section of this paper, there are significant relationships between gender, work status, and engagement in campus life. The relationship between these three factors was analyzed to better understand the graduate student experience at SU. Three cross-tabulation projects were previously conducted to investigate the relationship between gender and work, time spent on academics, and interest or involvement in graduate student activities or events. Findings from the cross-tabulation projects revealed that time spent at work and on academics are both significant pieces of the graduate student experience. Taking previous findings into consideration, the group strategically chose questions from the SOS to analyze. Such questions captured the engagement of graduate students. The following questions were analyzed in respect to gender and work status:

- (Q84) Campus Life Experience. Which of the following campus experiences have you participated in as a graduate student at Seattle University? (Check all that apply)

- (Q90) Graduate Student Council (GSC) at Seattle University serves as the voice for all graduate students. In your opinion, what are the most important aspects the GSC should work on to properly represent you?

- (Q87) How likely are you to participate in campus events if you had more time (Check up to three) (SGSU, 2013)

To further analyze the emerging themes from the data collected, a level two analysis was performed.

Gender and work were compared to the respondent's answers to the aforementioned questions. The numerical and percentile findings can be found in Appendix A, Tables A1-A3. The emerging themes from the analysis are explored in the following section.

KEY FINDINGS

Selective Graduate Student Engagement

Many SU graduate student respondents of the SOS participated in selective campus life activities (see Appendix A, Table A1). Of the students who responded to Question 84 on the SOS survey, many highlighted that they participated in campus lectures and speakers as well as graduate student welcome events. Despite gender difference and work status (working and non-working), no less than 40% of the respondents attended such events, with the exception of males who do not work (33%). Attendance at lectures and speakers were as follows: 48% of females who work, 42% of females who do not work, 46% of males who work, 100% of transgender people who work, and 100% of "other."

Participation in graduate student welcome events appeared to be in higher numbers of attendance (56% of females who work, 54% of females who do not work, 40% of males who work, 50% of transgender people who work, and 100% of "other" people who work). It is important to note that for both activities, males who do not work did not attend these events in high numbers; only 33% of men who do not work attended campus lectures and speakers and welcomes.

These findings suggest that graduate students who responded to the survey are participating in select campus activities, but little is known about why

they chose such activities. An inference of the data also suggests that activities like graduate welcome events may be a source of professional or academic development as they are often used to communicate the expectations of graduate school and present the array of services as well as key campus locations for students.

Graduate Student Welcome Events Reach Students

Delving deeper into the statistics about attendance at graduate student welcome events showed that this is a highly attended activity by female (working and non-working), transgender, and "other" identified people. Of the 276 females, 2 transgender, and 1 "other" identified participant, 56% of females who work, 54% of females who do not work, 50% of transgender, and 100% of "other" identified people attended the graduate student welcome events. This finding suggests that graduate student welcome events are more effective in reaching female, transgender, and "other" identified people and not as effective in reaching male identified graduate students.

Graduate Students' Expectations of GSC

Building on the level one analysis that focused solely on gender and work for graduate students who completed the SOS, an additional level of analysis was added for this report (see Appendix A, Table A2). Looking at the role of SU's GSC and what issues graduate students felt were most important in terms of GSC representation, two clear areas emerged: financing graduate school and career advancement.

Graduate Students Are Focused on Money

Expectedly, given the correlations between graduate students who work and their engagement at on-campus events (see Appendix A, Table A1), slightly over fifty percent (52%) of graduate student respondents want GSC to focus on advocating for scholarships. This relates back to the equity issue of monetary aid needed by graduate students to finance their education.

Notably, 37% of the graduate student respondents wanted greater advocacy in the area of financial aid. This is significant because scholarship aid refers to "free" dollars, as opposed to financial aid, which encompasses student loans. Research has shown that this generation of college-educated people has taken out more in student loans than any other generation of college-educated people before them (Sullivan & Freishtat, 2013). This is in large part due to the rising cost of a college education. In turn, this inflates the cost of graduate education, which at many institutions is set by the median salary expectations of qualified professionals in the field who hold that advanced degree (Stringer, 2013).

Given that loan debt per student has increased significantly, it is telling that graduate students—a majority of whom, according to the SOS, work either full or part time—would be willing to take on more student loan debt (Sullivan & Freishtat, 2013). Perhaps more access to financial aid resources for graduate students would allow them the opportunity to work less, as well as study and engage in campus life more frequently.

Graduate Students Want Career Advancement

The other emerging finding in this analysis concerns professional development. Thirty-one percent of graduate student respondents are looking for the GSC to provide opportunities for students to

experience career advancement. Due to the limitation and structure of the SOS, it is not known what type of career development opportunities would appeal to the survey respondents. However, it is notable and not surprising that graduate students would seek out professional enhancement because part of the motivation to attend graduate school is to enhance one's own qualifications for an ever-competitive job market.

Graduate Students' Increased Involvement Given More Time

For many graduate students, not only do they have an academic commitment to school, but they may be employed or have other personal commitments. With studying and class alone, 37% of the graduate student respondents in the SOS reported spending approximately 2-3 hours per week day on studying, which equates to a 10- to 15-hour commitment during the week. In addition, the substantial percentage of graduate students (approximately 46% of the respondents) reported spending two to three hours per week day in class. Taken together, there are approximately 20-30 hours spent every week in an academically related setting for the majority of graduate students. This does not include students who work or have other commitments outside of being a student. With a large majority of time dedicated to academics, a further analysis was conducted to examine the differences between gender and work status and how those two variables affect the willingness of graduate students to engage in on-campus activities.

In response to the question, "How likely are you to participate in campus events if you had more time?", looking specifically at gender, there were certainly specific differences (Seattle University, 2012). In general, females were more likely to identify that they would "definitely" be more likely to participate in on campus activities if provided more time (53%). In contrast, males were less inclined— 35% reported "probably" and 34% reported "definitely. This data showed that men report being less likely than women to participate in on-campus events even if they had more time available.

However, once employment status was included into the gender categories, it revealed that males who also worked were more likely to respond as "definitely" (38.5%). Males who did not work were more likely to respond as being less certain of their participation, choosing "probably" (66.7%). In regard to males who do not work, they were more likely to be hesitant to participate than males who worked, which raises the question of what other responsibilities may influence their response. Regarding females and work status, there were no significant differences, as their responses were similar, as 51.5% of women who worked and 56.9% of females who did not work reported being "definitely" likely to participate if more time were available.

Further analysis supports the idea that more graduate students, provided more time, would be willing to further engage in on-campus activities. Although there are differences in gender and work status with regard to one's willingness to participate in on-campus activities, there is still more assessment that is needed to discover ways to assist graduate students and their needs in order to promote their involvement on campus.

Accounting for Students Who Identify as Transgender or Other

Though the majority of the respondents identified as male or female, the SOS survey received responses from two graduate participants who identified as transgender and one graduate participant who identified as "other." Due to the small number of respondents with these identities, it is difficult to derive any substantial numerical information from the data.

CONNECTIONS TO RESEARCH AND BEST PRACTICES

As the data are analyzed from this study, there are many helpful suggestions in the literature that guide future practice in the area of supporting graduate student engagement on campus. In regards to graduate students being selective about their engagement and time on campus, scholars across the country are documenting the dual socialization process—the development of both academic and professional skills—of graduate students (Coulter, Goin, & Gerard, 2004; Gardner & Barnes, 2007; Polson, 2003; Pontius & Harper, 2006; Poock, 2004). Yet, little is specified about which activities and events attract and meet the needs of these students. Underneath this uncertainty, a best practice in the field describes that singular events should meet multiple areas of development for graduate students. This respects the busy schedules of all parties involved while meeting the university's goals and students' needs (Brandes, 2006; Poock, 2004).

Research scholars assert a need for universities to merge program specific and campus-wide orientation services as a best practice for graduate students (Brandes, 2006; Pontius & Harper, 2006; Poock, 2004). Unfortunately, there remains a gap in research specific to the impacts of work and gender on graduate student welcome events. It is important to note that graduate student welcome events offered at SU often function as graduate orientations. A significant body of research attests to the fact that a comprehensive orientation, which reviews both academic and campus services, should be implemented to enhance the graduate student experience (Coulter, et al., 2004; Gardner & Barnes, 2007; Polson, 2003; Pontius & Harper, 2006; Poock, 2004). These matters all relate back to graduate students' need for more time in order to experience a holistic life.

Considering that graduate students want more career advancement during their course of study, it is important to reference scholarship that investigates the development of confidence and skill sets of a practitioner. For example, there is extensive research that supports the importance of a graduate student's relationship with their professional supervisor during the student's course of study (Hodza, 2007; McGoldrick, Hoyt, & Colander, 2010; Solem, Lee, & Schlemper 2006; Tulane & Beckert, 2011). The empowerment within that experience, or lack thereof, can greatly influence performance and confidence in a graduate student (Solem et al., 2006; Tulane & Beckert, 2011). This leads into a specific best practice of having a documented assessment process where graduate students are given feedback by key stakeholders—site supervisor, graduate assistant (GA) coordinator (if applicable), academic program director, community organization where the GA works or volunteers—to help develop the skill set and employability of the GA at the conclusion of the

program (Ellis & Yattaw, 2007; Perlmutter, 2008; Segrist & Schoonaert, 2006).

There are varying trends by academic program concerning the level of involvement for graduate students in the administrative portion of the school processes. However, research focusing on graduate student attrition, services, and needs is slim. Authors investigating experiences of graduate students have attributed these gaps in research to the limited number of master's- and doctoral-level students who attend universities (Cooke, Sims, & Peyrefitte, 1995). Considering the fact that graduate student enrollment is increasing at SU, graduate students should be included in committees, discussions, and research targeted at graduate students and their needs. Central to these conversations could be the issues around financial aid and program sustainability.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND NEXT STEPS

Collaborative Assessment

In order to discover how graduate students are engaging in campus life, there needs to be a more specific assessment tool to understand the experiences of graduate students and what factors influence their on-campus engagement. It is suggested that the assistant director of Student Activities should meet with the chair of the GSC to work collaboratively on questions to incorporate in a graduate-student-specific assessment so that the needs of graduate students can be voiced. It is also important to be strategic about the assessment. Thus, it is suggested that the assessment be kept concise so that graduate students do not become deterred when answering questions that do not pertain to them. Lastly, the new assessment tool should incorporate qualitative, open-ended questions.

Physical Space

Currently, the only designated physical space for SU graduate students is the McGoldrick Collegium located within the building for Theology and Ministry. Although this is a great space for graduate students to utilize, it is a relatively small space that is secluded at the far end of campus. It is physically one of the farthest collegia from main on-campus eateries and central congregating areas such as the Student Center. Since this space is the only one specifically available to graduate students, there may be a need to integrate more graduate-specific areas on campus or at least make one that is more centrally located so that the graduate student population can feel more integrated into the campus community. Additionally, there is no physical space for the GSC. The lack of space, recognition, and branding of the GSC may contribute to the low rates of campus engagement by graduate students. Therefore, there is a specific need for an intentional space for both the GSC as well as for graduate students to congregate and be recognized and valued by the institution.

Financial Assistance

According to the SOS survey, many graduate students reported working while also going to school, which limits their opportunities to participate in campus activities. To remedy this issue, it is proposed that there be more financial assistance provided to graduate students so that they have the time to participate and engage with others on campus. The proposal would include collaborative efforts from GSC, the provost, the president, Student Activities, the associate vice provost of Graduate Education and Research, and other key personnel in an effort to

highlight the need for financial assistance in attending a private and expensive institution.

Academic Integration

Research has shown that there is a significant connection between graduate students and academic mentorship (Corbett & Paquett, 2011). In the SOS survey, the majority of graduate students reported spending 20-30 hours per week on academically related responsibilities such as studying and attending class. Although the information provided on hours per week dedicated to academics does not necessarily reflect academic mentorship, it does show that there is a connection between the importance of academics and graduate students' time. According to the SOS survey, many graduate students reported attending campus lectures and speaking engagements on campus. This finding may be an indicator that graduate students are likely to attend academically related activities. With this information, we suggest that SU increase the number of academic activities targeted at graduate students to simultaneously increase their campus engagement.

CONCLUSION

This study highlights the experiences of graduate students and illustrates the need to continue to investigate how and why graduate students engage with the SU community. Recognizing that the graduate student population is increasing on this campus, it is crucial that SU proactively respond to their needs.

REFERENCES

Brandes, L. C. O. (2006). Graduate student centers: Building community and involving students. *New Directions for Student Services, 115*, 85-99. doi:10.1002/ss.218

Cooke, D. K., Sims, R. L., & Peyrefitte, J. (1995). The relationship between graduate student attitudes and attrition. *The Journal of Psychology, 129*(6), 677-688.

Corbett, F., & Paquette, K. R. (2011). An investigation of mentorship as perceived by university faculty, teaching associates, and graduate assistants. *Education, 132*(2), 285-295.

Coulter, F. W., Goin, R. P., & Gerard, J. M. (2004). Assessing graduate students' needs: The role of graduate student organizations. *Educational Research Quarterly, 28*(1), 15-26.

Ellis, K. & Yattaw, H. (2007). Collaboration, experience, networking and personal development: Making the most out of your graduate assistantship. *Campus Activities Programming. 40*(5), 12-15.

Gardner, S. K., & Barnes, B. J. (2007). Graduate student involvement: Socialization for the professional role. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(4), 369-387. doi:10.1353/csd.2007.0036

Hodza, F. F. (2007). Managing the student-supervisor relationship for successful postgraduate supervision: A sociological perspective. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 21*(8), 1155-1165.

McGoldrick, K., Hoyt, G., & Colander, D. (2010). The professional development of graduate students for teaching activities: The students' perspective. *Journal of Economic Education, 41*(2), 194-201. doi:10.1080/00220481003613862

Perlmutter, D. D. (2008, June 19). Supervising your graduate assistants. *Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com/article/Supervising-Your-Graduate/45859

Polson, C. J. (2003). Adult graduate students challenge institutions to change. *New Directions for Student Services*, 102, 59-68.

Pontius, J. L., & Harper, S. R. (2006). Principles for good practice in graduate and professional student engagement. *New Directions for Student Services, 115*, 47-58. doi:10.1002/ss.215

Poock, M. C. (2004). Graduate student orientation practices: Results from a national survey. *NASPA Journal, 41*(3), 470-486.

Seattle University. (2009). Common data set 2008-09 [Data file]. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/ir/facts/common-data/

Seattle University. (2010). Common data set 2009-10 [Data file]. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/ir/facts/common-data/

Seattle University. (2011). Common data set 2010-2011 [Data file]. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/ir/facts/common-data/

Seattle University. (2012). Common data set 2011-12 [Data file]. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/ir/facts/common-data/

Segrist, K., & Schoonaert, K. (2006). Skills-building assessment of service-focused wellness assistantships. *Educational Gerontology, 32*(3), 185-201. doi:10.1080/03601270500476854

Solem, M., Lee, J., & Schlemper, B. (2009). Departmental climate and student experiences in graduate geography programs. *Research in Higher Education*, 50(3), 268-292. doi:10.1007/s11162-008-9117-4

Stringer, J. (2013). SDAD 576: Leadership & Governance in Post-Secondary Education WQ 2013 [In-class discussion]. Student Development Administration, Seattle University, Seattle, WA.

Student Government of Seattle University. (2013). State of the Student Survey [Survey].

Sullivan, T., & Freishtat, R. (2013). Extending learning beyond the classroom: Graduate student experiences of online discussions in a hybrid course. *Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 61*(1), 12-22. doi:10.1080/07377363.2013.758555

Tulane, S., & Beckert, T.E. (2011). Perceived utility and knowledge of graduate teaching assistants. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 11*(4), 44-55.

Lakeisha Jackson, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and serves as Coordinator, Off-Campus Student Life (graduate assistantship) in the Office of Student Development at Seattle University.

Victoria Navarro Benavides attends Seattle University and is completing her Master of Arts degree in Student Development Administration in 2014. After her time in Seattle, she will be pursuing a doctoral degree at the University of Arizona in fall of 2014.

Jacqueline (Jackie) Saarenas, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and is currently the Learning Community Coordinator for Housing & Residence Life at Seattle University.

APPENDIX A

Q84: Campus Life experience. Which of the following campus experiences have you participated in as a graduate student at Seattle University? (Check all that apply)

Gender and Work (n=385)	Academic presentation (outside of the classroom)	Athletic event	Campus lecture/speaker	Campus large program/event	Career fair	Graduate Student Welcome	Grads at the Garage	Graduate student social	Campus tree lighting	Academic retreat	Other retreat	Campus social event	Graduation/pinning ceremony	Other (please specify)	None of the above
Males—working (n= 91)	33% (30)	15% (14)	51% (46)	19% (17)	25% (23)	40% (36)	13% (12)	31% (28)	5% (5)	31% (28)	13% (12)	20% (18)	5% (5)	5% (5)	9% (8)
Males—not working (n= 15)	53% (8)	27% (4)	33% (5)	53% (8)	33% (5)	33% (5)	0% (0)	13% (2)	0% (0)	7% (1)	7% (1)	0% (0)	7% (1)	0% (0)	53% (8)
Females—working (n= 204)	30% (61)	16% (32)	48% (97)	19% (38)	18% (37)	56% (114)	11% (22)	23% (46)	6% (13)	15% (30)	14% (29)	23% (47)	8% (17)	5% (10)	9% (19)
Females—not working (n=72)	25% (18)	10% (7)	42% (30)	17% (12)	29% (21)	54% (39)	10% (7)	21% (15)	4% (3)	22% (16)	3% (2)	22% (16)	10% (7)	1% (1)	13% (9)
Transgender—working (n=2)	100% (2)	50% (1)	100% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (1)	50% (1)	50% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Transgender—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other—working (n=1)	100% (1)	100% (1)	100% (1)	100% (1)	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
TOTAL (n= 1138)	**8.2% (93)**	**5.2% (59)**	**15.9% (181)**	**6.7% (76)**	**7.6% (86)**	**17.2% (196)**	**3.7% (42)**	**8.2% (93)**	**1.8% (21)**	**6.6% (75)**	**3.9% (44)**	**7.2% (82)**	**2.6% (30)**	**1.4% (16)**	**3.9% (44)**

TABLE A2

Q90: Graduate Student Council (GSC) at Seattle University serves as the voice for all graduate students. In your opinion, what are the most important aspects the GSC should work on to properly represent you? (Check up to three)

Gender and work (n= 385)	Advocating for increased scholarships	Advocating for increased financial aid	Advocating for increased graduate programs	Representation on campus committees	Representation on the Board of Trustees	Representation on committees for campus-wide initiatives	Serving as ambassadors for new graduate students	Providing opportunities to learn more about campus-wide initiatives	Providing educational events	Providing social events	Mentorship for graduate students	Career advancement	Funding graduate research	Funding conference attendance	Funding graduate presentations at conferences	Funding graduate clubs	Other
Male—working (n=228)	36% (33)	32% (29)	15% (14)	3% (3)	13% (12)	8% (7)	15% (14)	9% (8)	10% (9)	14% (13)	31% (28)	29% (26)	14% (13)	10% (9)	4% (4)	4% (4)	2% (2)
Male—not working (n=39)	53% (8)	47% (7)	7% (1)	7% (1)	20% (3)	7% (1)	13% (2)	7% (1)	7% (1)	13% (2)	13% (2)	33% (5)	13% (2)	7% (1)	7% (1)	0% (0)	7% (1)
Female—working (n=544)	56% (114)	38% (77)	11% (23)	9% (19)	8% (16)	8% (16)	13% (26)	3% (6)	13% (26)	11% (23)	25% (51)	33% (67)	11% (22)	15% (30)	6% (12)	3% (6)	5% (10)
Female—not working (n=186)	61% (44)	42% (30)	14% (10)	<1% (1)	<3% (2)	6% (4)	13% (9)	3% (2)	19% (14)	15% (11)	21% (15)	32% (23)	7% (5)	14% (10)	4% (3)	4% (3)	0% (0)
Transgender—working (n=5)	100% (2)	50% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (1)	50% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Transgender—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other—working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
TOTAL (n=1002)	**52% (201)**	**37% (144)**	**12% (48)**	**6% (24)**	**9% (33)**	**8% (29)**	**13% (51)**	**4% (17)**	**13% (51)**	**13% (49)**	**25% (96)**	**31% (121)**	**11% (43)**	**14% (52)**	**5% (20)**	**3% (13)**	**3% (13)**

TABLE A3

Q87: How likely are you to participate in campus events if you had more time?

Gender and work (n=385)	Definitely Not	Probably Not	Probably	Definitely	No Response
Male—working (n=91)	2.2% (2)	14.3% (13)	41.8% (38)	38.5% (35)	3.3% (3)
Male—not working (n=15)	6.7% (1)	13.3% (2)	66.7% (10)	6.7% (1)	6.7% (1)
Female—working (n=204)	1% (2)	10.3% (21)	35.3% (72)	51.5% (105)	2% (4)
Female—not working (n=72)	1.2% (1)	4% (3)	35% (25)	56.9% (41)	2.8% (2)
Transgender—working (n=2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Transgender—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other—working (n=1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)
Other—not working (n=0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
TOTAL (n=385)	**1.6% (6)**	**10% (39)**	**38% (147)**	**47.5% (183)**	**2.6% (10)**

Adult Basic Education: An Exploration of the Past, Present and Potential Future

Ashley Bradley, *University of Washington Tacoma*

This literature review explores the complex and often marginalized field of adult basic education (ABE). Through a social justice and empowerment lens, it examines the participants and educators engaged in ABE, as well as overarching theoretical orientations that support the field. Through an examination of past, present, and potential future issues of ABE, this analysis uncovers areas of critical focus for adult educators, leaders, and policy makers. Potential future issues discussed include migration and demographic changes in the United States, issues of technological advances and barriers, and the importance of evidence and needs-based programming and assessment. By increasing research in the field, much work can be done to combat systems of inequity and oppression for this special population of adult learners.

Keywords: adult basic education, social justice, empowerment, policy, educational leadership, demographic changes, technological advances and barriers, needs-based programming

INTRODUCTION

Literature on the field of adult basic education (ABE) demonstrates that it is highly complex, diverse, and fragmented in nature (Clair & Belzer, 2010; Cohen & Brawer, 2008). This literature review provides an overview of ABE participants and educators, as well as a discussion surrounding the field's historical context, including current issues and trends. The significance of social justice and empowerment within the field of ABE will be explored, as well as overarching philosophical and theoretical orientations. Drawing upon connections from the above mentioned facets of ABE, this paper will share potential future trends over the next 10 years, specifically focusing on: (a) migration and demographic changes; (b) technological advances and barriers; and (c) the increased need for assessment, accountability, and evidence-based programs. Through an exploration of past, present, and potential future issues in the field of ABE, this literature analysis aims to uncover areas of critical

focus and examination for adult educators, leaders, and policy makers.

PARTICIPANTS AND EDUCATORS

Based on a working definition, Clair and Belzer (2010) defined ABE as, "education provided to people over the age of compulsory schooling to support them in attaining a level of literacy and numeracy engagement appropriate for their needs" (p. 189). ABE programs commonly target adult learners who are below 9th grade reading and writing levels (Jaffee, 2001). Adult learners who are referred to ABE include a widely varying population in age and experience (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Cohen and Brawer (2008) suggested that adult learners who are referred to ABE may include individuals who have done poorly in subject areas in prior formal educational settings, as well as older students who did well in their high school or college studies but whose skills have fallen into disuse. There has also been a recent increase in individuals seeking ABE who are recent "school leavers" (Clair & Belzer, 2010, p. 190). Evidence

demonstrated that these individuals were pushed out of high school for various reasons, leaving many seeking the often "quicker and easier" General Educational Development (GED) test (Clair & Belzer, 2010, p. 190).

Educators and teachers in the field of ABE were also highly diverse in nature, due to a lack of standardization regarding professional development, certification, and qualifications (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Without rigorous or consistent credentialing systems in most locations, practitioners entered the field with a wide range of backgrounds, training, and experience (Clair & Belzer, 2010, p. 190). Clair and Belzer (2010) discussed that such diversity greatly contributed to enrichment in the field; however, it also created hardships when attempting to establish consistency in professional development. Jacobs (2004) raised the issue that ABE programs and courses are often staffed by people who are uninvolved in the college's central activities, which may affect the adult learner's overall engagement.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW, ISSUES, AND TRENDS

ABE has historically focused on literacy and basic skills of the United States population, which has been inherently linked to English learners (Clair & Belzer, 2010; Cohen & Brawer, 2008). According to Larrotta (2010), the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 "authorized instruction toward the elimination of adult illiteracy" (p. 199). Forty years later, due to the large change in the American population, approximately half of the students enrolled in ABE were English learners (Larrotta, 2010). As the United States' foreign-born population continues to increase, the demographic changes are often represented in

ABE and GED classrooms (Larrotta, 2010). Given the richly diverse population of ABE and GED learners, Larrotta (2010) argued, "This ongoing change in student characteristics and their needs calls for a change in adult instruction practices. ABE and GED classrooms can no longer be considered monolingual classrooms" (p. 199). As educators, it is our responsibility to address the literacy, language, and basic skill needs of all students. Educators can design and implement English as a Second Language (ESL) programs that can help adult learners successfully transition from ABE and GED courses to postsecondary educational opportunities (Larrotta, 2010).

In addition to the diversity of adult learners and educators in ABE, the settings and environments where learning takes place can widely vary (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Clair and Belzer (2010) argued that ABE settings can range from "informal community contexts to formal adult high schools and community colleges" (p. 189). Community colleges have complex and comprehensive mission statements, often including a component focused on adult basic education (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Pfahl, McClenney, O'Banion, Sullivan, & Wilson, 2010). As the number of academically underprepared and returning adult learners increased in the community college setting, Pfahl et al. (2010) posited, "intensive learning assessments and strengthened developmental education" must be a focus in higher education (p. 232).

Nevertheless, a debate continues over the "appropriateness of developmental programs that serve adults unprepared for higher education" (Pfahl

et al., 2010, p. 233). Additionally, critics claimed that "college-level remediation covering high school content and skills is inefficient and costly" (Pfahl et al., 2010, p. 233). These ongoing issues in the field clearly demonstrate that the overarching purpose of ABE is highly complex and often controversial.

In efforts to reduce barriers for adult learners in ABE, "college readiness" programs have been created in many communities, which are designed to inspire and support adult learners (Wilson, 2006, p. 25). The Nellie Mae Education Foundation, in partnership with the New England Literacy Resources Center (NELRC), created a grant initiative to support adult basic education-to-college programs (Wilson, 2006). The project is a five-year funding commitment by the foundation to 25 ABE programs, based on their meeting of annual performance goals (Wilson, 2006). The program creates bridges to college for capable but underprepared adult learners (Wilson, 2006). The program can assist adult learners in overcoming barriers including self-doubt, fear, poor academic preparation, and lack of information about college expectations (Wilson, 2006). Even though grant programs must be sustained beyond their period of guaranteed funding, Wilson (2006) argued that the ABE-to-College Transition Project looked promising, as 38 states and four countries have joined the National College Transition Network (NCTN). The NCTN works with leaders from NELRC to holistically support ABE transition programs.

Social Justice and Empowerment

ABE can be viewed through a social justice and empowerment lens, as individuals seek to improve their literacy, language, and basic skills so they can effectively transition to higher education and to the workforce (Larrotta, 2010; Prins & Drayton, 2010). These skills often better enable adult learners to live independently and provide for their families. According to Zacharakis, Steichen, and Sabates (2011), once adult learners decide to return to school, they must be empowered to persist and complete their educational programs, which, in part, depended on the effectiveness of instructional support. It can be argued that ABE programs and courses strive to empower individuals and communities in both the functional and psychological categories (Prins & Drayton, 2010).

Through the functional lens, ABE fosters empowerment by "equipping people with the skills needed to obtain higher wage employment, to improve their health, to help their children succeed academically, and to perform other functional tasks" (Prins & Drayton, 2010, p. 209). Through the psychological approach, ABE strives to give individuals a "voice" and increase their "self-esteem" (Prins & Drayton, 2010, p. 210). The psychological approach connects to the humanist concept of learning in adulthood, where it is believed that learners have the capacity to be self-directed (Hansman & Mott, 2010; Prins & Drayton, 2010; Tisdell & Taylor, 2001). Although self-directedness varies from individual to individual, adult learners can draw upon their richly diverse life experiences in various ABE environments (Hansman & Mott, 2010). Prins and Drayton (2010) cautioned that beyond simply drawing from learners' life experiences, educators needed to understand and combat issues of injustice and inequity that work to continually oppress underrepresented populations.

PHILOSOPHICAL AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS

Three overarching theoretical orientations support the broad field of ABE: (a) skills-based perspective, (b) liberatory approach, and (c) social practice (Clair & Belzer, 2010). In the first theory, individual and skills-based literacy development is emphasized, where learner outcomes can be measured and evaluated (Clair & Belzer, 2010). The second theoretical orientation, the liberatory approach, argues that literacy and numerical education are political in nature (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Clair and Belzer (2010) posited, "Freire argued that literacy and numeracy education were inherently political and that was no such thing as neutral education—education either led to domestication of humans or their liberation through consciousness raising" (p. 192). This orientation parallels Friere's critical-emancipatory philosophical perspective on adult education, which strives to help the learner become an autonomous, critical thinker (Tisdell & Taylor, 2001).

The theory of social practice frames literacy and numerical development as social in nature, where the learner focuses on skills that are relevant to their needs and goals (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Social practice connects to Mezirow's critical/humanist theoretical orientation, which emphasized personal fulfillment, autonomy, and socially responsible thinking through rational thought (Tisdell & Taylor, 2001). Given the variety of philosophical and theoretical orientations in the field of ABE, Clair and Belzer (2010) stressed that there is often a dichotomy between "learner-centered" approaches and "externally derived" approaches. Such literature demonstrates that increased research on theoretical orientations in the field of ABE could positively impact ABE participant experiences, as well as the field as a whole.

POTENTIAL FUTURE

Given the complexity of ABE, there are bound to be numerous changes in the field throughout the next 10 years and beyond. Both past and current issues may lead to potential future changes in the field in a variety of ways, three of which this section will highlight: (a) migration and demographic changes, (b) technological advances and barriers, and (c) the increased need for assessment, accountability, and evidence-based programs.

Migration and Demographic Changes

Clair and Belzer (2010) discussed migration as a potential new influence and challenge for the field of ABE in the future. According to research, the effects on instruction and programming in both ESL and ABE will be inevitable due to the more than one million people per year attaining naturalized status in the United States, (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Clair and Belzer (2010) go on to state, "Even though these learners [recent immigrants] may be relatively fluent speakers of English, they often have different literacy needs and challenges than native speakers who have attended years of schooling in the United States" (p. 195). Many ABE educators will have to face the challenges of meeting the diversity of such needs with "limited training and professional development" in these areas (p. 195). Clair & Belzer (2010) raised an important question when they asked, "Many immigrants are highly literate in their first language, with professional and advanced degrees. How does this play out in the ABE classroom?" (p. 195). At a minimum, it is apparent that instructors need to be knowledgeable about how to successfully facilitate

learning when their students may be comprised of both second-language learners and first-language learners (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Clair and Belzer (2010) urged researchers and policymakers to focus on this potential future implication, so they can work toward creating effective, innovative, and affordable solutions.

Technological Advances and Barriers

The use of technology in everyday life, work, and education is widespread in the United States. Even though adult learners engaging in ABE opportunities may face numerous barriers in utilizing technology, including a lack of personal and institutional funding, access, limited expertise, and time, Jaffee (2001) stressed the importance of developing ways to effectively incorporate the use of technology into the field. Similarly, Dillon-Marable and Valentine (2006) stated, "Many educators agree that computers can make a substantial contribution to the information and resource-poor environment of adult literacy education" (p. 99).

Jaffee's (2001) rationale behind increasing technology in the future field of ABE included the following justifications: (a) the use of computers allows learners to individualize their literacy needs and move at their own pace; (b) technology often has the capability to provide the learner with immediate feedback; (c) the learner will benefit from the flexibility afforded by technology—instruction can take place at any time of the day or from any location where a computer is accessible; (d) technology may provide learners with a new format of learning, which differs from traditional text-book methods; and (e) learning how to use a new technology has the potential to increase the self-esteem of adult learners.

Jaffee (2001) stated, "Not only will the learner's literacy skills improve, but a sense of accomplishment gained from learning the use of a new technology can also enhance self-esteem and provide further motivation for learning" (p. 121).

Given the state of the current economy, funding to support such technology in the field of ABE may not be readily available; however, Jaffee (2001) urged educators and administrators to think creatively and seek other venues for financial support. Jaffee (2001) stressed that adult educators should "work toward a greater diversification of its funding base and resource support" and consider local corporations, small local foundations, philanthropic organizations, and partnerships with larger corporations (p. 122). Given the overwhelming use of technology in everyday life today, "adult literacy programs have an obligation to offer their learners an opportunity to incorporate this technology into their learning" (Jaffee, 2001, p. 123).

Needs Assessment, Accountability, and Evidence-Based Programs

The future of ABE will likely require an increase in assessment and evidence-based programming and curriculum, due in part to tightening of resources, as well as the necessity of better understanding and evaluating student needs and learning outcomes (Clair & Belzer, 2010; King & Jakuta, 2002). King and Jakuta (2002) stressed the importance of needs assessment in ABE when they posited:

> At a time when educational programs are facing fiscal scrutiny, budget cuts, and downsizing, needs assessments may take on new importance for their survival. Adult Education Programs, whether they are city, state or federally funded,

supported within community based organizations, or underwritten by private foundations and corporations, today confront the need to increase student registrations, retention, successful completions and, in some cases, placements. (p. 157)

Researchers recommended that adult educators utilize needs assessment to make data-based decision-making (King & Jakuta, 2002). Needs assessment, which is defined as the "systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development," focused on two overarching stances: programmatic and instructional (King & Jakuta, 2002, p. 159). Using evidence-based data can better enable educators to make effective choices when creating or altering ABE programming. Data can be used as a powerful and effective tool to justify the importance of ABE programming to decision-makers.

Further supporting the significance of needs assessment, Comings (2007) believed that many adult learners make large sacrifices to participate in ABE programs and courses because they want to move forward to a life that offers more opportunities. Sacrifices often entailed financial investments, as well as time taken away from family, hobbies, and other interests (Comings, 2007). Practitioners should "value that sacrifice and make every effort to provide services as effectively as possible. Evidence-based practice assures practitioners that they are making the best possible decisions" (Comings, 2007, p. 94). Both basic and applied research are needed in the field of ABE, as "applied research seeks to develop and test the effectiveness of program services that conform to the theories that arise out of basic research" (Commings, 2007, p. 95).

SUMMARY

It is evident that the field of ABE faces complex challenges from a lack of support in funding and resources, as well as instability and marginalization as a field of professional practice (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Regardless, it is the job of educators, leaders, and policymakers to stay apprised of the past, present, and potential future issues in the field so adult learners can be supported holistically. Effective change can only take place through an awareness of the history, complexity, and multiple perspectives of ABE. Educators and leaders can effectively work to combat systems of injustice and inequity by increasing their knowledge and understanding about all facets of ABE, thereby advocating for all learners. The use of evidence-based decision making and innovative thinking can bring this often marginalized field into the forefront of adult education (Clair & Belzer, 2010). Through sustained efforts to eradicate prevalent barriers to ABE, including access, funding, navigation, and lack of support for underrepresented populations, stakeholders have the opportunity to make positive impacts in their communities.

REFERENCES

Clair, R., & Belzer, A. (2010). Adult basic education. In C. E. Kasworm, A. D. Rose, & J. M. Gordon (Eds.), *Adult and continuing education* (pp. 189-197). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Cohen, A. M., & Brawer, F. B. (2008). *The American community college* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Comings, J. (2007). America needs a new national research and development center focused on adult learning. *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal, 1*(2), 93-96.

Dillion-Marable, E., & Valentine, T. (2006). Optimizing computer technology integration. *Adult Basic Education, 16*(2), 99-116.

Hansman, C. A., & Mott, V. W. (2010). Adult learners. In C. E. Kasworm, A. D. Rose, & J. M. Gordon (Eds.), *Adult and continuing education* (pp. 13-24). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Jacobs, J. (2004). Beyond basic: linking adult education to college participation. *Community College Week, 17*(9), 4.

Jaffee, L. (2001). Adult literacy programs and the use of technology. *Adult Basic Education, 11*(2), 109-124.

King, K. P., & Jakuta, M. O. (2002). Needs assessment recommendations for practice from the field: A case study. *Adult Basic Education, 12*(3), 157-172.

Larrotta, C. (2010). English language learning for adults. In C. E. Kasworm, A. D. Rose, & J. M. Gordon (Eds.), *Adult and continuing education* (pp. 199-208). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Pfahl, N. L., McClenney, K. M., O'Banion, T., Sullivan, L. G., & Wilson, C. D. (2010). The learning landscape of community colleges. In C. E. Kasworm, A. D. Rose, & J. M. Gordon (Eds.), *Adult and continuing education* (pp. 231-242). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Prins, E., & Drayton, B. (2010). Adult education for the empowerment of individuals and communities. In C. E. Kasworm, A. D. Rose, & J. M. Gordon (Eds.), *Adult and continuing education* (pp. 209-220). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Tisdell, E. J., & Taylor, E. W. (1999). Adult education philosophy informs practice. *Adult Learning, 11*(2), 6-11.

Wilson, B. J. (2006). Adults must be college-ready too. *Connection, 20*(4), 25-26.

Zacharakis, J., Steichen, M., & Sabates, G. D. (2011). Understanding the experiences of adult learners: Content analysis of focus group data. *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal, 5*(2), 84-95.

Ashley R. Bradley, '12, is the Graduate Advisor and Program Administrator for the Doctorate in Educational Leadership Program at the University of Washington Tacoma.

St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin, Ireland (2012)—Kassie Chapel

On Jesuit Education: A Reflection on the Ignatian Pedagogy and its Relation to the Student Affairs Profession

Douglas McAcy, *Seattle University*

This paper offers a reflection on Jesuit education and the teachings of Saint Ignatius of Loyola. Loyola was the founder of the Society of Jesus, a sect of Catholicism established through Papal approval some 450 years ago. The Society of Jesus places a strong emphasis on the search for knowledge and truth, education of the mind, body, and spirit, and a life of service for and with others. Through this reflection, connections can be made to living one's own life in a way congruent with the fundamental principles set forth by the Society of Jesus.

Keywords: Ignatian spirituality, service, Magis

"Go forth and set the world on fire,"

Saint Ignatius of Loyola

The cornerstones of Jesuit education throughout the world of service, spirituality, and striving for *Magis* are not only applicable in an institution of education, but rather, they truly encapsulate the way by which we should live our lives. The core values of service, the pursuit of knowledge, and navigating one's own spirituality are all embraced by institutions of Jesuit education; however, these values are not held only by the faculty. No, these values are at the core of the mission of the Society of Jesus to serve the Catholic Church for the greater glory of God—*ad majorem Dei gloriam*. Jesuits, and the extended family, all who follow in the footsteps of Loyola, strive to shape women and men to become agents of change in order to make this world a better place by reflecting on the following question: *Who am I?*

The mission that Jesuits around the world undertake should be the guiding light to each of us as we walk through this world. Especially as educators, administrators, and other college personnel, we are at a fascinating juncture that fuses our personal beliefs and experiences with the need to allow others the freedom to have their own beliefs and experiences. That said, as student affairs professionals, we are called to shape the women and men we work with into a population of servant leaders who will make this world a better place.

Derived from perhaps the most famous of all sayings by the founder of the Society of Jesus, Saint Ignatius of Loyola challenges us all to "go forth and set the world on fire." By following in these words, we can begin to become critical thinkers of the political, socioeconomic, and other systems engrained into our society, as well as previously unchallenged knowledge of our past. We can accomplish this all while bravely marching forward and forging new paths for our children.

Having spent time at three different Jesuit institutions of higher education in the United States, I am certain that I can find happiness, live a life full of meaning and purpose, and leave the world in a better place by living my life in the Ignatian way. But what makes a Jesuit or Ignatian education so distinctive?

IGNATIAN SPIRITUALITY

Ignatian spirituality can be summed up as finding God in all things. Those that are not religious can

choose to simply find happiness in all things. For Christians, this is largely connected, but one needs not to be religious in order to find happiness. By finding happiness, we can see the amazing work being done by every person that inhabits this planet. The students with whom we work are searching for happiness in their own specific ways; they navigate through various majors and coursework to find what truly brings them happiness and how they can positively contribute to those around them. We are in a fantastic place as educators and mentors to "help students learn their songs and find the courage to sing them" (Nash & Murray, 2010, p. 195). This is how I view Ignatian spirituality: finding our place in the world through discernment and reflection to positively contribute to those around us and become those agents of change to be a force for good.

By slowing down how we go through life, we can be more intentional about the steps we take. Loyola was committed to reflection and carefully examining his current state. He was also dedicated to being more intentional about finding God in the work he was doing to help others do the same (Modras, 2004). Loyola's creation of the *Spiritual Exercises* allowed him to guide others through their journey in seeking happiness or seeking God in everything. By being intentional in our lives and actions, we can reflect and discern about where we are called and where we find our own individual happiness while positively contributing to society.

Women and Men for and With Others

One other key tenet to Jesuit education is that of service. Service to God, service to others, and service to one's self are paramount within the Ignatian pedagogy. It is through this tenet that those who follow in Saint Ignatius' footsteps, truly "set the world on fire." There is great need throughout this world; poverty, oppression, malnutrition, and war all continue to plague our world just as they have for hundreds of years. Because of these issues, Loyola was determined to the cause of "helping souls" rather than "saving souls" (Modras, 2004). This philosophy guided Loyola through a life of service rather than one of charity.

It is perhaps here that we notice the true focus of Jesuits in action: the commitment to being one *with* those who are less fortunate. Through my own education, this has been one distinction I have taken with me. The importance of reflecting on and understanding one's own position in life allows us to truly become women and men for and with others. Immersing ourselves into uncomfortable areas and conversing with those who are less fortunate brings about a whole new dimension of learning. To some individuals in our society, service has meant the act of donating old clothes, building homes, and even giving money to a carefully selected cause or charity. While these actions are fulfilling the very term of service, Ignatius calls us to be one with our sisters and brothers.

Service is more than simply giving. Because of this commitment, immersion programs are so prevalent on Jesuit campuses. Immersion programs are ones that immerse a group of students in a culture or society that is vastly different from which they grew up. Through immersion programs, we can learn from those around us, gain a more holistic knowledge of our global community, and use that knowledge to challenge the systems in place in order to create effective and positive change.

MAGIS

St. Ignatius teaches us to strive for *Magis*, or the more. Some will believe this simply means that doing more will effectively suffice for "checking" an item off a list. However, there is a much deeper reality that is brought to light when discussing the namesake of our publication. *Magis* is a lifestyle that requires us to challenge the status quo but in a way where we are not acting simply for the sake of doing. Ignatius calls us to not only do more, but also do more for others in a way that is constantly striving to be better (Modras, 2004). This relates back to the common idiom: Give a person a fish and they can eat for a day; teach a person to fish and you feed them for a lifetime. Let this be a telling story for us as educators.

In a conversation with a former university president, he once made the comparison of the definition of *Magis* to a student being involved in campus activities. A student can certainly be a body in a chair in nine different student clubs. However, that student will be more effective and contribute more positively by focusing on a few select clubs and being more actively involved in the furthering of the goals and ambitions of those clubs, rather than simply being a body in a chair. Let this be a constant reminder to us if we seek to live an Ignatian life. Not only should we reflect on what more we can do for those around us, but also how we can devote ourselves, our talents, and our wisdom to achieve the best possible outcome.

CONNECTIONS TO STUDENT AFFAIRS

As we continually look inward at how to live a life of happiness and service, so, too, must we extend our gaze outwardly and understand the positions we hold in life. As educators, administrators, and student affairs personnel, the teachings and writings of Saint Ignatius of Loyola offer a guiding light for our work with students. Jesuit scholar Fr. Andy Thon (2013) addresses the inherent relationship between Jesuit teachings and student affairs work:

> The Jesuit educational system has always centered on a deep and sincere regard for the abilities of each student and a curriculum that is centered on the student, not on the material to be covered...This means the teacher must establish personal relationships with students, listen to them, and draw students toward personal initiative and responsibility. (p.24)

As student affairs personnel, we are called to be compassionate advocates for students, assist them in achieving their goals, find their purpose in the world, and shape them into servant leaders for and with others. The Jesuit philosophy of education and service truly fits within this frame of mind. If we live out these words and teachings of Loyola, the students with whom we work will find their purpose and strive to do better in the world.

Reflection is a powerful tool that allows each and every one of us to find the happiness that Loyola speaks of, while gaining a deeper sense of self-understanding. We should, at all times, encourage students to reflect on their experiences within leadership opportunities, immersion trips, and classroom knowledge. This reflection is an exercise of our true understanding of our place in the world around us.

It is through this reflection and discernment that we ask critical questions of ourselves and others, in order to gain a better understanding of our purpose. The thought of *existentialism* is one that embraces

this Ignatian spirituality in search of meaning. We do not need to ask students or ourselves to comprehend the philosophical meaning of life. However, by questioning the life we lead and what we have accomplished thus far in our age, we can begin to establish this Ignatian pedagogy of reflection and finding purpose in life through the philosophical approach of existentialism (Nash & Murray, 2010). Through this philosophy, however, Nash and Murray (2010) say we need to focus on the optimistic aspect of finding oneself, as opposed to a more pessimistic approach taken by some philosophers that question the meaning of life in a downtrodden way. The optimistic approach dives into the "authentic, life-affirm, inspiring, and creative" dimensions of seeking out purpose (Nash & Murray, 2010, p. 33).

But why is it important to reflect and understand our purpose and our situation in life? When we ask students and ourselves open-ended questions, such as "Who are you?" and "Why are you here?", it challenges the dichotomous world we may have grown up in. Once we dig deeper and deeper, we are able to become more than bodies inhabiting the same planet. We are able to tie everything that we do and say into one cohesive life. For it is this cohesion that we find "some unifying purpose that ties together life's discrete activities, connects our deepest beliefs to what we do all week, and restores meaning to work" (Lowney, 2009, p. 53).

This is what we hope to accomplish with living out the Ignatian pedagogy within our work as student affairs personnel. Asking students tough, critical, and meaningful questions allows them to achieve an education that is deeper than a textbook can go. For it is within this education that we should exist as a profession and must maintain our roots in order to give students a "value-added" component with our work (Thon, 2013, p. 23). Books alone cannot shape young minds. It is through a critical lens that one questions the world in which they live and this truly begins their education.

CONCLUSION

Thon (2013) praises the interconnectedness of the "enduring Jesuit values" within one another (p. 23). These values are not simply an empty promise. The values that Loyola implemented nearly 500 years ago still ring true today as a way to live our lives with purpose, service, and curiosity. It is through the cornerstones of the Jesuit faith and education that we can begin to better the world and become agents of change while shaping those with whom we work in the hopes that they, too, go out in service and make this world a better place. We are called to utilize our talents and strengths to do our part for the world and truly make it a better place. Now, in the words of Saint Ignatius of Loyola, "go forth and set the world on fire."

References

Lowney, C. (2009). *Heroic living: Discover your purpose and change the world.* Chicago, IL: Loyola Press.

Modras, R. (2004). *Ignatian humanism: A dynamic spirituality for the 21st century.* Chicago, IL: Loyola Press.

Nash, R. J., Murray, M. C. (2010). *Helping college students find purpose: The campus guide to meaning-making.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Thon, A. J. (2013). *The Ignatian imperative: Student affairs educations in Jesuit higher education.* Milwaukee, WI: Marquette University College of Education Press.

Douglas McAcy, '14, is a student in the Student Development Administration graduate program and also serves as Graduate Coordinator in Student Activities at Seattle University.

The Profession, Politics, and the Pipeline:
The Mentoring Experiences of Women of Color in Student Affairs

Lakeisha Jackson, *Seattle University*

This paper examines the mentoring experiences of women of color in student affairs and how that impacts their pipeline through the profession. The participants in this study are all alumnae of the same master's program and work in various functional areas. The particular focus of this study is on women who are newer in their careers and can provide a more recent look at their experience entering the professional pipeline and how they are using mentoring to navigate a multitude of issues. The literature provides insight into professional development within the field, what this looks like for women of color who are seeking to access a mentor, particularly a senior administrator, and the probability that that person shares the mentee's salient identities. There are different implications around what type of mentoring women of color are seeking, as well as the impact of cross-gender and cross-cultural mentoring, and the compromises that must be made on the part of women of color. The findings provide great insight on access to a mentor, organic and reciprocal connection, development of confidence in abilities, and negotiating identities and ambition.
Keywords: women of color, access, mentoring, politics

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The focus of this study is to examine and explore the mentoring experiences of women of color who have earned their master's degree in student affairs. The overarching issue in professional growth within student affairs is that there is no clear pipeline from entry level to leadership through the profession. Moreover, there is little diversity seen amongst senior student affairs officers; the large majority are White men (Reason, Walker, & Robinson, 2002). The topic of leadership in student affairs and the impact of mentoring are not often studied in relation to women of color. As the field continues to diversify, it is important to ask the question of how and why underrepresented populations are continuing to move into the profession and how they utilize navigational capital to succeed (Yosso, 2005).

Research indicates that receiving mentoring from an upper/executive-level mentor plays a key role in retention and upward mobility (Blackhurst, 2000). Furthering this idea, Reddick (2006) indicates that there are a low number and low percentage of senior-level administrators who are women of color. This is notable because younger women of color who enter the profession may not see themselves or their salient identities represented in those roles. Women of color have greater aspirations to attain higher leadership roles within student affairs if they see senior administrators who share their salient identities (Blackhurst, 2000; McNair, Miguel, Sobers-Young, Bechtel, & Jacobson, 2013). The lack of leadership can result in a perception that women of color cannot reach the senior level within student affairs. If the perception is that there is little to no room for upward mobility or advancement in the field for women of color, then they are less likely to be retained and are at increased risk to drop out of the field (McNair et al., 2013). This has a direct impact on diverse populations of students on college campuses

who seek the support services of administrators with underrepresented identities and backgrounds.

Access to Mentors

Another issue in the mentoring experiences of women of color in student affairs is access to mentors. In many cases, mentors choose their mentees and more often than not, those mentees share salient identities with their mentors (Kram, 1988). This is a crucial point because there is a lack of administrators of color in the field, particularly ones who hold senior positions (McNair et al., 2013; Portillo, 2007). This can lead to a lack of mentoring paths for younger women of color within student affairs. If mentoring leads to pathways to advancement, and women of color lack access to mentors in influential positions, particularly mentors who share their salient identities, then women of color are at risk for not advancing within the profession. In the larger picture, all of these factors result in women of color having to make compromises in how they seek out mentors, which also makes it harder for them to connect with those mentors, especially if they do not have the foundational element of any shared identities.

STATEMENT OF THE PURPOSE

Most notably, this study seeks to discover if women of color in student affairs are receiving mentoring. If they are, how is it received, and what is the impact of mentoring on their decisions before, during, and after completing a master's program in student affairs? This study will focus on one site—a private, religiously affiliated, master's-granting institution on the west coast of the United States. Women of color who are graduates of the master's program in student affairs will share their individual experiences as to further understand the impact of mentoring on those individuals.

It is important to know the salient identities of the people who are mentoring women of color in the field of student affairs and how those relationships were formed. This is because women of color are rarely seen in senior roles (McNair et al., 2013). Though this study does not address this issue, the question of "why?" needs to be asked to understand the pathway through the pipeline. More research and studies around women of color on the academic affairs side of higher education can be found (Blackhurst, 2000), but even research in that area is lacking.

The lack of research in this area needs to be addressed by student affairs professionals and researchers who hold the salient identities of being a woman and person of color. If those individuals lead this area of research, then it has the potential to lead to increased investment by researchers who have an existing connection to the area of study and thereby, may lead to increased publications on this topic area.

Student affairs professionals and academic preparation programs are charged with supporting students and professionals to become competent in three key areas that have tenants of mentoring for women of color and other underrepresented populations. Those areas are (a) advising and helping; (b) equity, diversity, and inclusion; and (c) personal foundations (ACPA and NASPA Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Practitioners, 2010). Therefore, it is important to conduct studies such as this one to fill holes in the literature, and to better understand how to support and retain women of color in the field.

This is important to the future of the field because student affairs administrators and faculty are making an investment in students and emerging professionals; it is important to know who is in the pipeline and who will continue to move the work of student affairs forward. Making good on this investment of support of women of color will only benefit and further diversify the field.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research about the professional development of student affairs professionals is limited. This lack of research has implications for the professional development and pipeline issues to leadership within the field. Mentoring is an avenue for understanding how to navigate the politics of upward mobility within the field (Bolton, 2005). The research that does exist has looked specifically at African American university professionals and their experiences with mentoring and community development (Reddick, 2006). Additional research is needed to expand into other communities of color who are represented within the field.

There is even less research available focusing on women of color who are practitioners in the field; however, there is more available literature on women of color who are on the academic side of higher education and in other fields (public affairs, business, etc.; Blackhurst, 2000). Nevertheless, two significant themes emerged repeatedly: mentoring for career purposes versus psychological supports, and cross-gender and cross-cultural (race and ethnicity) mentoring relationships. What follows is an examination of the literature and concept of mentoring as it applies to women of color. Additionally, research has repeatedly shown there is the need for formalized mentoring programs or processes within student affairs organizations (Bolton, 2005; Clayborne & Hamrick, 2007; Cooper & Miller, 1998). Each of the aforementioned areas highlights both challenges and areas of improvement and support with regard to the mentoring experiences of women of color within the field of student affairs.

Mentoring Content: Career Purposes versus Psychological Supports

Professional mentoring in any capacity tends to materialize for two functions, either career purposes or psychological supports (Blackhurst, 2000). While it is possible to receive both functions in a single mentor-mentee relationship, it is highly unlikely considering the demands on schedules for all involved. This creates a unique challenge for women of color because according to research by Portillo (2007), "minorities and women tend to be involved in mentoring relationships that focus on psychological functions, without a clear focus on career advancement" (p. 104).

The psychological supports are particularly important for women of color as those identities are not salient in many professionals across institutions of higher education. This creates a unique need for psychological support and community development for women of color as professionals within student affairs and higher education.

That perspective and need highlight a potential disadvantage for women of color, because the intentionality of professional growth and advancement is a matter not to be taken for granted. Moreover, people tend to mentor those who "look" like them or share their salient identities (Clayborne & Hamrick, 2007; Reddick, 2006). Because there is a

lower number and percentage of women of color in senior roles within student affairs, younger professionals who share those identities may be overlooked (Reason, Walker & Robinson, 2002). Therefore, women of color are not necessarily able to gain the access, networks, and key opportunities needed to achieve and sustain upward mobility within the profession (McNair et al., 2013).

It is important to highlight that having a mentor who supports the psychological functions is significant to women, regardless of race (Clayborne & Hamrick, 2007; Noy & Ray, 2012). On an individual and systematic level, when considering women's workplace satisfaction and navigation of issues regarding gender-role bias, role conflict, and perceived sexual discrimination, Blackhurst (2000) finds that women in student affairs with mentors experience the aforementioned issues at significantly lower rates than women within the profession who do not have identified mentors. This leads to reduced attrition within the field of both White women and women of color (Clayborne & Hamrick, 2007). The various issues highlighted above are barriers to professional advancement that men do not report facing. This research gives further support that professional mentoring for psychological supports is important for women of color.

Cross-gender and Cross-cultural Mentor Relationships

When considering the impact of mentors on professional discernment, those who have been mentored stated that their mentors had/have considerable influence on their professional development (Blackhust, 2000; McNair et al., 2013). Cooper and Miller (1998) stated, "Mentors are really

personal influencers, and these personal influencers are people who have helped others develop a sense of who they are, personally and professionally, and how they view themselves as student affairs practitioners" (p. 62). Beyond the issues of finding a mentor who shares salient identities with women of color, it can be difficult enough just to find a mentor within the profession in general when considering the broader population of potential mentors. As previously stated, often mentors look to find and reach out to mentees who most visibly share the mentor's salient identities. Cross-gender and cross-cultural mentoring relationships are harder to facilitate and sometimes, due to perception issues, these mentor relationships are avoided all together, as to not create suspicion in any regard (Blackhurst, 2000).

The drawback to cross-gender mentorship can be perception issues as well as the mentor's strength as a professional aide. Kram (1988) asserts that "female protégés with male mentors may have a difficult time gaining access to the psychological functions of the relationship because of factors internal and external to the relationship" (p. 104). As previously stated, research extensively supports the need for mentoring with respect to psychological supports for women of color (McNair et al., 2013). The combination of perception issues and need for psychological supports provides further evidence that women of color face additional challenges in receiving professional mentorship.

Formal Mentoring Programs

A noted best practice in the field of student affairs is to have formal mentoring programs within student affairs organizations to assure professional development for everyone, especially new and

underrepresented professionals (McNair et al., 2013; Reddick, 2006). This could prove to be beneficial for the student affairs division within an institution, leading to increased employee morale, confidence, and reduced turnover (O'Neil, 2001). Furthermore, a part of mentoring is modeling successful behaviors. Research shows that if senior student affairs officers exemplify self-care, work-life balance, and a pathway in the profession, then other professionals in their student affairs division will be impacted positively as well (Beeny, Guthrie, Rhodes, & Terrell, 2005). This can translate to support of a formal mentoring program for a student affairs division. If the senior student affairs officers are in support of such a program, then implementation of a formal mentoring program is a lot smoother.

Larkin (2013) shows a similar model with educators for the K-12 system, in which a formal mentorship program is utilized to guide newer teachers in profession. There is not much stated about how this is done in terms of matching educators based on identities in formal programs. Sometimes due to low numbers and availability, matches in mentoring must be made with available resources and mentoring (Noy & Ray, 2012). Yet, this still leads to the access and opportunity that many younger professional may be missing due to lack of navigational capital (Yosso, 2005).

METHODOLOGY

Due to the specificity of the research question and to gather responses that reflect participants' personal experiences that are narrative in nature, a qualitative approach is the most appropriate method for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). This study seeks to explore the relational experiences of participants with their mentors. When examining life experiences and influences, a quantitative approach would not produce the quality of information and data needed (Creswell, 2009). A qualitative approach, however, allows for the individual interviewee to state her experiences in response to the questions. Further, this method provides the space necessary for the interviewee to move deeper into her response to the questions, thereby triggering deep reflection and recollection within the interview probes. It is important to seek a wealth of data that is deep in nature and gets to the root of connectivity between mentoring, women of color, and the student affairs profession for each interviewee.

An advocacy/participatory worldview approach is utilized in this study (Creswell, 2009). The topic and design of this study uncovers the political expectations of these women of color who have earned master's degrees in student affairs and who work within the system of higher education. The framework of this study is intentional in encouraging each participant to consider herself, her community of support, and her professional mobility. By virtue of the participants' various intersecting identities and the nature of the field of student affairs, social justice, diversity, and inclusion are salient within the purpose and outcomes of this study.

Site Description

The site for this study is a private, religiously affiliated, master's-granting institution on the west coast of the United States. There are approximately 7,500 students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs within eight schools and colleges at the institution. This study specifically draws from the approximately 400 alumni of the master's

program in student affairs, which is a practitioner-based program. The program began approximately 20 years ago in the College of Education.

Project Participants

Faculty members from the master's program in student affairs were consulted to identify potential participants to be interviewed for this study. The parameters in selecting the interviewees were as follows: each interviewee must (a) identify as a female, (b) be a person of color, (c) have graduated from the institution with her master's degree in student affairs, and (d) have less than 10 years of experience in the field. The parameter around years of experience was intentional in order to gather data from participants who are more likely to be in the earlier stage within the pipeline and seeking mentoring towards leadership. Finally, interviewees must have experiences with at least one person who they identify as a mentor.

Sample Selection and Outreach

Five semi-structured, individual, one-hour interviews were conducted. A snowball sampling method was utilized to solicit interviewees for this study. Each interviewee had the option of selecting the interview date, time, and location. The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder and a cell phone. After transcription was completed, the recorded interview files were erased. Each interviewee received a demographics form to complete prior to the interview. At that time the interviewee chose a pseudonym, which was used during the interview, in the transcription process, and throughout all phases of the study.

All interviewees were informed that their specific interview transcript and a copy of this final report are available to them via email. Peer-review was utilized in this study to assure proper processes and protocols were followed. A faculty advisor, site supervisor, and other students reviewed all instruments, documents, and questions involved with this study.

After working in consultation with program faculty members and a site supervisor, a list of potential interviewees was created. Five women meeting the above-mentioned criteria were contacted via email and invited to be interviewed. Each of the initial five women agreed to be interviewed and scheduled a time. It is notable to mention that the women who participated in this study represent a range of racial and ethnic identities.

Data Collection

The demographic breakdown is presented in aggregate because the population affiliated with the institution and the academic program would likely be identifiable if specific details were given in a delineated table form. Racial/ethnic identities for participants in this study were as follows: Asian/Asian-American—20%, Black/African-American—20%, Latina—20%, Biracial—40%. The age range of the participants was as follows: 25-30 years old—40% and 31-35 years old—60%. Sixty percent of the participants had more than five years of full-time professional experience prior to entering the master's program. Forty percent of the participants went directly from an undergraduate program into the master's program. Sixty percent of the participants currently work in the traditional student affairs areas (i.e. housing and residential life, student leadership/activities, etc.), 20% work in academic affairs (i.e. advising, etc.), and 20% work

outside of the university setting within non-profit services with students/youth involvement.

The content areas to be addressed in the interviews included first the identification of a mentor. This is a direct tie back to the research, which has shown that women of color within student affairs struggle to identify mentors in general, especially those with similar salient identities (Portillo, 2007). The second topic was a description of mentoring received for career purposes or psychological supports or both. In this case, the research indicates that it is a difficult barrier for women of color to find mentors who provide both career and psychological supports, and many times women of color seek out the psychological support as a foundation or gateway to other types of mentoring (Blackhurst, 2000). Finally, the interviews addressed cross-gender and cross-cultural relationships within mentoring, as this may speak to the negotiation that women of color must make in the perception of their mentoring relationships (Blackhust, 2000; McNair et al., 2013). The use of the term "experiences" allows for the unique voices of the interviewees to be heard. Seven open-ended questions were asked around each of these topics.

Data Analysis

After the data-collection process was complete, the interviews were transcribed. Once complete, the transcripts were read and reviewed for accuracy while the interview audio played for a final time. During this review, notes were taken on interviewees' emotional inflection, vocal passion, and story sharing. From there the transcripts went through an additional review to begin the series of coding. While open coding, key quotes from each interviewee were highlighted to identify main themes from each individual. Next, thematic coding was completed based on similarities and connections across interviewees. After identifying several themes that were present in multiple interviews, each transcript was reviewed once again to highlight key quotes that provided robust evidence. Finally, the identified themes and quotes from the interviewees were compared with the literature to ensure useful connections were being made. After confirming consistency in the themes, the findings were outlined and written connecting visible and invisible identities as indicated by the interviewees.

FINDINGS

During the data collection process, an array of information about each interviewee provided depth into each woman's experience in student affairs and the significant impact of mentoring upon her life. Though many other salient identities manifested throughout the data collection and analysis processes, this section will heavily focus on the interviewees' experiences with mentoring in relation to their intersecting identities of being a woman and person of color. Four themes emerged across participants and are discussed below: access to a mentor, organic and reciprocal connection, development of confidence in abilities, and negotiating identities and ambition.

Access to a Mentor

As the literature implies, connection to a mentor is important to the retention of women of color in student affairs. Each of the participants identified at least one person as a mentor, and it is important to understand how they accessed their mentors. This directly relates to the career pipeline within the field.

Forty percent of participants who went directly from an undergraduate degree into a graduate program identified mentors during their time working within student affairs as undergraduates. Sierra, who was a resident assistant, states:

> My pathway into student affairs was by...a VP seeing my potential to continue to work with students, but on a professional level...But I never said, hey, VP, you are my mentor and I am using you as a model. I think that was kind of implied in the fact that I, like, kept that relationship going and hound him all the time.

> Lisa also shares, "I was an RA in my junior year and, umm, my resident director...she was always a really good supervisor, and she was my first person I would consider a really good student affairs mentor." This indicates one way that mentorship relationships start within student affairs, which is access by professional connection during the undergraduate experience.

As aforementioned, the 60% of participants in this sample who had more than five years of professional experience between completing their undergraduate degree and entering their master's program noted difficulty understanding what student affairs was and accessing a mentor prior to their graduate studies. It is also relevant to note that these participants worked in professional areas outside of higher education (i.e. business, finance, media, etc.) before finding student affairs as their career path. Ariel shares, "In my professional journey, I've been able to explore many career paths...I didn't even know student affairs was a career or a field. And then once I was here, I met some great mentors who I continue to look up to and who encouraged me."

Furthering this, Lora asserts, "My mentoring relationship with the woman who's the academic advisor started when I decided to apply. She encouraged me from there." Heidi shares, "It wasn't until I came to graduate school that I found my mentor that really kind of spurred me forward in the profession. But getting into it, I didn't have that."

Access to a mentor for these women of color means someone sees their potential, encourages them, and spurs them forward in their careers. These are foundational elements to confidence development, which will be discussed later in this section.

Organic and Reciprocal Connection

Participants indicated that a part of identifying and accessing a mentor is how the connection is established and being able to communicate about personal and professional matters. I will categorize this as organic or natural mentorship relationship development. This is important to women of color because in a professional environment, performance expectations dictate safe spaces. Ariel explains this as "somebody who I can go and kind of take off the professional hat for a second and talk to them about some other issues that may be affecting my performance. Or that may be at play in my life and, umm, asking them for guidance and for advice." There were also consistent responses across the participants that it is critical to the strength of their relationships with their mentors that the connection comes from an organic place. Sometimes, given the nature of the field of student affairs, these relationships started off in a supervisory capacity and transformed into a mentoring relationship. Heidi shares her experience:

I feel like the magic of my relationship with her is that I never said formally to her, you're my mentor or, like, I never asked her to be my mentor...She was my supervisor already. So there was that relationship, but when you add on the mentor piece it gives another layer to it...I kind of like that organic growing and blossoming.

It is also worth stating that not all supervisors become mentors. Lisa gives this example: "What distinguishes a mentor from supervisor...is that they...are listening or they're giving advice or they're an educator or sometimes asking you for help or sharing personal stories from their own life and asking you for advice, and it's more of a reciprocal relationship at times." The versatility in the development of these organic connections varies between participants, but nonetheless, it was a consistent and persistent theme.

It is also important to women of color that there exists the sharing of experiences in a reciprocal manner on the part of their mentor. Sierra describes this in detail stating,

> [My mentor] speaking very honestly about 'here are decisions that I made throughout my life that have led me to this place, but here are also some failures that we can speak honestly about.' Whether that's romantic failures or just workplace things that people haven't done correctly.

The willingness of the mentor to be open to communication and dialogue created a safe space for these women to learn, grow, and be vulnerable. Lisa explains a defining moment with her mentor:

> I was in that stage of being the most vulnerable and being the most sensitive...there wasn't really

anyone to support me...so I was telling her about that and she just started tearing up too, like she was crying too. I was, like, wow, this person actually is...literally is feeling my pain.

She also shares another experience with a different mentor later in her professional journey: "He also asked me really difficult questions about my identity. Like he, umm, he dug deep, I felt like it was a therapy session...And I really think that's what I needed at the time." The care, challenge, and openness from mentors solidified the organic and reciprocal connection that these women of color sought. Moreover, sharing experiences with mentors in a safe space allowed these women of color to share intersecting experiences from their personal and professional lives.

Development of Confidence in Abilities

Among participants there was a low level of confidence in trusting instincts, managing conflict in a professional manner, and leadership capabilities. Participants stated that having access to a mentor and being able to develop an authentic connection with their mentor led to an increase in confidence in their abilities in these areas. Lora explains, "The biggest takeaway that I got from [academic service director] was to trust my gut, in both how I did my job, and how I served students and related to students." This skillset is instinctual and cannot be taught in a classroom or through reading a book or article. Forty percent of interviewees discussed existing within and managing conflict in the professional setting. Sierra elaborates, "So I don't shy away from conflict, but I don't run towards it either...And that's one of the really core lessons that I take with me, not just into the mentoring relationship, but throughout my

personal and professional life." Leading from external conflict to internal conflict, positive self-talk was also an element in the development of confidence. Lisa speaks to her personal struggle and development in this area:

> Something happened to me where I lost my confidence in undergrad…So I never did [graduate program student organization leadership], I never did [university-wide graduate student organization leadership]…with the confidence thing, I think it's something I work on, on a day-to-day…So if I start to have these thoughts of self-doubt or I start talking negatively I remember [senior student affairs administrator] use[d] to say, "No negative self-talk…don't use these words." Umm, so I'll catch myself doing that more often.

The enhancement of the confidence of these women of color was clearly evidenced in these statements. Regardless of the intention on the part of the mentors, the profound impact has benefited the participants in both their personal and professional lives.

Negotiating Identities and Ambition

The lack of a pipeline to leadership in the field, and how this affects newer and mid-level professionals, was a matter that interviewees expanded upon in conjunction with the visibility of the women of color in leadership roles. Sierra explains it as a contextual and regional matter: "I'm on the west coast, Predominately White Institutions, if I was to go to a Historically Black College, I think, if I was to move to the east coast or even the Midwest, I think the visibility of student affairs professionals of color…will look different depending on institutional

type." Student affairs as a field requires more relocation flexibility than other professional industries, and Sierra's statement exemplifies how that is increased for women and people of color. Lora explains the issue from within the institution's student affairs division:

> You have to have people of color in meaningful roles on campus. You can't just have them at the bottom. You have to have them on all levels. I think that goes to increasing the retention for anybody. Umm, if you don't have women of color who can make influential decisions…what role can you really play if you don't have any power to control who stays and who doesn't?

Regional location, institution type, and position level/authority are all elements that must be negotiated by women of color who seek ambitious leadership roles. The politics in the move up is not something that is easily understood, which is why mentorship is significant for those who are not privy to this "insider" information.

Heidi explains the reflective pressure of her intersecting identities: "There's not a ton of Asian-American women out there who have doctorates in education and have, like, VP positions. So what does that mean then? Like, there's always, like, this call and challenge to rise up." This call and challenge also means there are implications about furthering the pursuit of education into a doctoral program. Ariel provides this insight for women of color negotiating identity and educational pursuits:

> As I'm looking into working in a Ph.D. program, it's not a must for me to work with a Latino/Latina faculty. It's more of a must for me to be working with a faculty who is doing just

amazing things, umm, in the field and who I see myself really learning from.

Women of color should be flexible when seeking mentors in leadership roles. Given the nature of the field, it is not statistically likely that mentors who share their salient identities will be available. This reinforces what was mentioned in the problem statement and literature review.

Part of that compromise means broadening who they connect with or seek out. Ariel sums up this negotiation:

> It's definitely having an open mind as a woman of color knowing that not necessarily do they have to be a person of color or the same gender or share the same salient identities as me. But knowing that it's somebody who I respect and trust who I feel that I will be able to learn a lot from.

All of the participants in this study stated they had identified mentors, some who did not share their salient identities as women of color. At the end of each interview, the participant affirmed that she is grateful and appreciative of the relationship with her mentor regardless of whether or not they share identities.

Mentorship and the development of confidence also brought to light what 60% of the participants termed as "woman politics or issues" and how that intersects with being a person of color. Heidi states, "I think about how we talk to one another, there's all this background...and that's dictating the way we are engaging one another. So on a really interpersonal level with other women of color, there's these extra barriers including women politics." Given this statement and similar experiences shared by the other interviewees, a new element came to light:

Perhaps women of color may not always know how to exist in a professional community with other women of color. Again, this could be related to expectations based on the separate identities of being a woman and being a person of color or existing in a professional space where one's identities make their actions "work-place political." This also adds interest to growth and community-building for the career paths of woman of color in student affairs.

IMPLICATIONS

Given the findings of this study, it can be stated that women of color with master's degrees in student affairs have access to mentors in the field that serve various purposes (i.e. emotional supports, skill development, career advice, etc.) for them. It is also notable that the participants in this study identified mentors of various race and gender identities. Regardless of the mentors' salient identities, the women of color all benefited greatly from their mentorship relationships as they grew in their professional, academic, and personal lives. Therefore, the research is supported because cross-gender and cross-cultural mentoring does serve a purpose in supporting women of color, as long as they can gain access to that mentor. The implications of this section will focus on next steps for research, policy, and practice.

Agency versus Navigational Capital

In this study there was a notable difference in timeline and accessing a mentor between the women of color who went directly from their undergraduate studies to their graduate program and those who had years of professional experience before pursuing their master's degree in student affairs. This is an implication for practice as it encourages faculty and

student affairs administrators to be mindful around agency and navigational capital within mentoring and student affairs for women of color (Yosso, 2005).

It cannot be assumed that just because an individual has earned a master's degree and works as a professional in the field that she has learned to navigate the field and can access a mentor. This is particularly true for women of color who have been professionals prior to their master's program. They may have agency, but their knowledge of how to navigate the politics of mentorship and networking within student affairs may put them at a disadvantage.

Increased Visibility

Many of the findings of this study connect with the literature review, which speaks to the low numbers of women of color in positions of authority and leadership. If college campuses are attesting to strong diversity in student, staff, and faculty populations, it is important to see these claims reflected in leadership as well. This equates to people of diverse backgrounds, specifically women of color, having decision-making positions that make an impact at the institutional level. This is significant to increase retention for student affairs administrators of color, as well as to start a shift in who is truly represented at the decision-making table. An additional challenge would be to gather data through NASPA and/or ACPA to see the demographics of senior student affairs officers and to see where and how diverse opinions are showing up in the student affairs profession.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study yielded results that were consistent with past research, but more work needs to be done

in order to understand the politics that exist among women of color in building professional community with one another. Beyond the intersection of race and gender, more research should be done to understand the role of class, sexuality, religious affiliation, and other salient identities in conjunction with being a woman of color. Each of these elements are present in understanding the mentoring experiences of women of color and how that impacts their professional pipeline through students affairs.

An advocacy/participatory worldview approach (Creswell, 2009) would be helpful in this research because there is likely to be awareness, knowledge, and investment on the part of women of color professionals in student affairs. This is especially true for those who have aspirations for upward mobility and to better understand the politics of the pipeline. Finally, critical questions need to be asked of women and men of color to examine the difference in their experiences with mentoring, professional mobility, and the pipeline through the field. This will strengthen research regarding ally-ship between women and men of color, which is important to understanding how advancement in the field looks for all people of color.

CONCLUSION

This study was designed to understand the mentoring experiences of women of color who pursue a master's degree in student affairs. Learning about this specific area provides insight into how women of color navigate the pipeline through the profession, as well as how they gain access to mentors, develop connections, gain confidence, and negotiate their identities in terms of their professional ambitions. The literature review, data collection, and analysis

processes, findings, and proposed action plan provide a keen understanding into the variables involved for women of color in the profession. Moving forward, the hope from this study is that a focus can be put on women of color entering the pipeline through their graduate studies. The proposed action plan focuses heavily on support services towards mentoring and networking that the student organization and the program faculty can facilitate.

REFERENCES

Association of College Personnel Administrators. (2010, July 26). *ACPA and NASPA Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Practitioners.*

Beeny, C., Guthrie, V., Rhodes, G., & Terrell, P. (2005). Personal and professional balance among senior student affairs officers: Gender differences in approaches and expectations. *The College Student Affairs Journal, 24*(2), 137-151.

Blackhurst, A. (2000). Effects of mentoring on the employment experiences and career satisfaction of women student affairs administrators. *NASPA Journal, 37*(4), 573-586.

Bolton, C. (2005). The role of mentors in our personal and professional lives. *The College Student Journal, 24*(2), 180-188.

Clayborne, H. L., & Hamrick, F. A. (2007). Rearticulating the leadership experiences of African American women in midlevel student affairs administration. *NASPA Journal, 44*(1), 123-142.

Cooper, D. L., & Miller, T. K. (1998). Influence and impact: Professional development in student affairs. *New Directions for Student Services, 84,* 55-68.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* (Vol. 3). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE .

Kram, K. E. (1988). *Mentoring at work*. New York, NY: University Press of America.

Larkin, D. B. (2013). 10 things to know about mentoring student teachers. *Phi Delta Kappa, 94*(7), 38-43.

McNair, D. E., Miguel, K., Sobers-Young, S. T., Bechtel, M., & Jacobson, S. (2013). Women in student affairs: Past, present, and future leaders. *NASPA Journal About Women in Higher Education, 6*(2), 231-250.

Noy, S., & Ray, R. (2012). Graduate students' perceptions of their advisors: Is there systematic disadvantage in mentorship?. *Journal of Higher Education, 83*(6), 876-907.

O'Neil, R. M. (2001). Gender and race in mentoring relationships: A review of the literature. In D. Clutterbuck & B. R. Ragins (Eds.), *Mentoring and diversity* (pp. 1-22). Boston, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Portillo, S. (2007). Mentoring minority and female students: Recommendations for improving mentoring in public administration and public affairs programs. *Journal of Public Affairs Education, 13*(1), 103-113.

Reason, R. D., Walker, D. A., & Robinson, D. C. (2002). Gender, ethnicity, and highest degree earned as salary determinants for senior student affairs officers at public institutions. *NASPA Journal, 39*(3), 251-265.

Reddick, R. J. (2006). The gift that keeps giving: Historically Black college and university-educated scholars and their mentoring at predominately White institutions. *Educational Foundations, 20*(2), 61-84.

Yosso, T. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 8*(1), 69-91.

Lakeisha Jackson, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and serves as Coordinator, Off-Campus Student Life (graduate assistantship) in the Office of Student Development at Seattle University.

Sunflowers, Faneuil Hall, Boston, MA (2012)—Kassie Chapel

Retention Theory, Academic Advising, and Orientation: A Literature Review

Katrina Anaya, M.A., *College Forward*
Kelly Carr, M.Ed., *University of Texas at Austin*

The purpose of this paper is to review current and applicable literature on student retention. Retention is defined as the ability of a college or university to graduate the students who initially enroll (Berger, Ramirez, & Lyon, 2012). First, retention theory and current research is explored. Then, this report focuses on academic advising and first-year orientation as it relates to student retention. Academic advising is a traditionally underestimated component of retention that is further explored in this paper. Additionally, first-year orientation creates a commitment to the institution of higher education early on in students' academic careers. Both of these topics have shown various strategies that can increase a student re-enrolling in college. However, the authors did not find conclusive answers regarding what increases retention in higher education. Findings are inconsistent, so administrators should use caution when using research to improve practice. Implications for future research are discussed to conclude this paper.

The greatest drop in student enrollment in higher education is seen between the first and second year (Berger, Ramirez, & Lyons, 2012; Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, & Kinzie, 2008; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Because of this, colleges and universities have developed programs for first-year students in an effort to ensure they enroll as sophomores. The following review of literature focuses on orientation and academic advising programs as they relate to retention.

RETENTION

Retention is defined as the ability of a college or university to graduate the students who initially enroll (Berger et al., 2012). Persistence, often interchanged with retention, refers to the action of the student continuing through degree completion (Berger et al., 2012). While this definition is simple enough, the topic is quite complex with a considerable amount of research and theory involved. Why do students choose not to continue at an institution of higher education? Braxton and Hirschy (2005) consider this an ill-structured problem without one single solution.

Theories have been developed to tackle questions around retention in an organized way. Tinto (1975) developed the most widely cited theory in regards to retention entitled the student integration model. This model is based on students' pre-college characteristics such as personality, family, and academic skills in addition to the college community. The integration of a student's characteristics with a college's characteristics determines if the student will re-enroll. Another theory related to retention is Astin's (1984) theory of involvement. This theory proposes involvement, measured by both quality and quantity, relates directly to student success and ultimately, retention (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010). From both Tinto and Astin, the theory of student/institution engagement (Nora, Barlow, & Crisp, 2005) calculates both positive and negative academic and social engagement to determine if a student will drop out.

Based on these theories, researchers examined student and institutional characteristics. In an analysis of 262 baccalaureate-granting institutions, researchers found a range of 18% to 96% for students graduating within six years (Astin, 2005). While graduation rates and retention are different, they are interrelated concepts. Using this data, Astin (2005) developed a formula to calculate expected six-year graduation rates through weighted aggregates of entering student characteristics.

Interestingly, Astin (2005) found engagement was not a factor in the formula, and retention was more a result of the students' pre-existing characteristics. Similarly, a study of students who were identified as at-risk found those scoring higher on conscientiousness in personality tests were significantly more likely to visit tutoring centers, which led to higher retention rates (Laskey & Hetzel, 2011). Other studies suggest increasing admissions criteria to raise the academic characteristics of the student body is a powerful way to raise retention rates (Boden, 2011; Morrision, 2012; Seidman, 2012). Additionally, ACT's *What Works in Student Retention* report, analyzing 30 years of data, found no appreciable gains in retention and completion rates from over 3,000 post-secondary institutions (Habley & McClanahan, 2004). This was found despite the recent push in programs for retention of students (Habley, Bloom, & Robbins, 2012). These studies seem to suggest pre-college factors have the most influence on whether or not a student is retained.

However, DeAngelo (2009) found that discussing course content with fellow students outside of the classroom made students 99.6% more likely to return for a second year. Research also shows being engaged in a community on campus has a positive effect on returning (Jacobs & Archie, 2008; Kuh et al., 2008; Seidman, 2012). While some may link being more engaged in college with pre-college characteristics, in a study of over 6,000 students, engagement was found to positively affect grades and persistence even when controlling for pre-college factors (Kuh et al., 2008). Examples of engagement included being involved in first-year seminars, service-learning courses, and learning communities.

In regards to institutional characteristics, research includes data collected from 19 different colleges and universities that explores how classroom characteristics affect first-year persistence (Pascarella, Salisbury, & Blaich, 2011). The data show having clear and organized instruction had a net positive effect on the probability of students re-enrolling at the institutions. Other characteristics also seem to make a difference. In a study of data from The Education Trust, private college status, college size, and college expenditures per full-time student were found to have a positive relationship with graduation outcomes (Morrison, 2012).

Although it is undetermined if student characteristics play more of a role than institutional characteristics or how exactly these interact with each other, institutions have recently developed interventions based on retention theories and research. Tinto (1975) developed the following elements of retention initiatives, which many institutions strive to follow: (a) welfare of the student is primary, (b) commitment to education of all students, and (c) commitment to development of supportive social and academic communities in which

students are integrated as full members (Braxton, Hirschy, & McClendon, 2011). Seidman (2012) also adds a formula for retention, which combines early identification with early, intensive, and continuous intervention. Orientation and academic advising are early interventions geared towards ensuring students are successful and re-enroll.

FIRST-YEAR ORIENTATION

First-year orientation is one of the first institutional interventions a student may experience. Orientation should provide a glimpse of collegiate life for students by providing opportunities to explore the institution. A strong program involves the coordination of campus offices working together to incorporate academic procedures with the creation of a community for the incoming students (Black, 2007; Lee, 2002). According to Black (2007), "From the student's perspective, orientation is an extension of all prior and future interactions with the institution, not a stand-alone program. It needs to be fully integrated with the prospective student experience" (p. 94).

Researchers examined if a two-day social and academic orientation program integrated students to the university. The statistically significant results showed an increase in knowledge of all areas including academic policies, campus resources, and social integration (Smith, Rodine, & Williams, 2012). However, in a different study of over 1,000 freshmen at an exclusive undergraduate four-year university, there was no difference in knowledge found between students who attended orientation and those who did not. The only difference shown was attending students were significantly more likely to participate in campus activities after orientation (Deggs, 2011).

Orientation introduces integral offices, which starts students on a path towards utilizing other campus resources (Wolcott, 2006). The literature focuses on summer orientation and its impact on retention. Examining 1,668 students who participated in orientation showed those who attended had a retention rate of 82.4% to sophomore year (Lehning, 2008). Similar results were also found at a community college. Students who elected to participate in the orientation and group advising programs had a significantly higher retention rate for the next semester (Benjamin, Earnest, Gruenewald, & Arthur, 2007).

Orientation has a demonstrable impact on student retention, but do different characteristics of orientation programs affect the results? Over a four-year period, students participating in a regular-length orientation versus a shortened orientation were studied; no difference was found in retention between the two groups (Abelman Abreu-Ellis, Knight, & Ellis, 2008). A study of a weekend long orientation found those who participated were more likely to be involved in school during their first year than those who did not attend orientation, but the study did not link the results with retention rates (Gentry, Kuhnert, Johnson, & Cox, 2006). A three-day orientation including a mix of social and academic activities resulted in 88% of students enrolling in the school's extended orientation course (e.g., first-year seminar), demonstrating the impact orientation can have on student commitment to the institution (Schrader & Brown, 2008). With studies showing different results, it is difficult to extract one piece of orientation that leads to higher retention rates.

ACADEMIC ADVISING

Academic advisors are key players in raising retention rates for first-year students. An advisor serves as a source of information, comfort, and assistance for students as they navigate the first year of college. Light (2001) discovered that "good advising may be the single most underestimated characteristic of a successful college experience" (p. 84). The two most common types of advising are developmental and prescriptive. Winston, Ender, and Miller (1982) define developmental advising as "a systematic process based on a close student-advisor relationship intended to aid students in achieving education, career, and personal goals through the utilization of the full range of institutional and community resources" (p.19).

Developmental advising allows for students to form a connection with their advisor. Light (2001) found developmental advising to be crucial for student success based on reports from graduating seniors. Prescriptive advising involves quick appointments and is centered on course selection (Damminger, 2007).

In a review of studies, academic advising was shown to have an impact on student retention and graduation rates (Cuseo, 2003; Habley et al., 2012; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Institutions can assume using academic advising as an intervention tool for first-year students will increase retention rates through an increase in student satisfaction (Cuseo, 2003; Soria, 2012). Advisors need to focus on encouraging students' self-awareness, knowledge of their major, degree plan, and chosen courses (Damminger, 2007). Even if an advisor is not trained to work with first-year students, poor advising has been shown to be better than no advising at all when looking at retention rates (Metzner, 1989).

The use of strong communication between the advisor and student, as well as academic advising offices and the rest of campus, leads to higher student satisfaction. A department of psychology saw this first hand when its advising department increased outreach to students during orientation and registration and increased the amount of emails and information sent to the student's home. Consequently, the department saw an increase in student satisfaction with advisors (Johnson & Morgan, 2005). Andrews and Drake (2011) found increasing contact with at-risk students led to a 6.9% increase in retention rates. Utilizing a first-year seminar as another form of contact provides the opportunity for students to learn about academic policies and campus resources. Academic advising can also be done during course time (Farlowe, 2006). Lastly, the use of an advising center providing a centralized location for trained advisors and a variety of student services is one of the best forms of contact for first-year students (Crockett, 1982; Cuseo, 2011).

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Exactly how to retain a student from the first year to the second is still unclear. In general, attending orientation creates student commitment and solid developmental advising seems to lead to higher retention. While literature abounds on these topics as well as other programs in higher education, caution should be taken as findings are inconsistent. After a thorough comparative review and meta-analysis of literature on college retention programs, researchers found many articles had problems with methodology, in particular with self-selection (Valentine et al.,

2011). Additionally, important topics are missing from the literature, such as studies on racially based learning communities and impacts of first-year programs beyond retention.

Another problem arising from the literature is many studies were conducted at only one institution. While a program may work well at one university for certain students, it may not at another institution for other students. Similar to retention theories, student and institutional factors should be taken into consideration, and all programs should be assessed based on sound research methodology.

REFERENCES

Abelman Abreu-Ellis, C., Knight, W., & Ellis, J. B. (2008). Regular versus shorter orientation: A comparison study of student characteristics and retention. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition, 15*(2), 56-68.

Andrews, R. N., & Drake, J. K. (2011). Project 2012: A model for increasing first-year at-risk student retention rates. In L. Thomas & T. Malcolm (Eds.), *Institutional transformation to engage a diverse student body* (pp. 67-75). United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Astin, A. W. (1984). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 25*(3), 297-308.

Astin, A. W. (2005). Making sense out of degree completion rates. *Journal of College Student Retention, 7*(1), 5-17.

Benjamin, M., Earnest, K., Gruenewald, D., & Arthur, G. (2007). The first weeks of the first year. *New Directions for Student Services, 2007(117)*, 13-24.

Berger, J. B., Ramirez, G. B., & Lyons, S. (2012). Past to present: A historical look at retention. In A. Seidman (Ed.), *College student retention: Formula for success* (pp. 7-34). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Black, J. (2007). Advising first-year students before enrollment. In M. Hunter, B. McCalla-Wriggins, & E. White (Eds.), *Academic advising: New insights for teaching and learning in the first year* (pp. 59-69). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition.

Boden, G. T. (2011). Retention and graduation rates: Insights from an extended longitudinal view. *Journal of College Student Retention, 13*(2), 179-203.

Braxton, J. M., & Hirschy, A. S. (2005). Theoretical developments in the study of college student departure. In A. Seidman (Ed.), *College student retention: Formula for success* (pp. 61-87). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Braxton, J. M., Hirschy, A. S., & McClendon, S. A. (2011). *Understanding and reducing college student departure*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Crockett, D. S. (1982). Academic advising delivery systems. *New Directions for Student Services, 1982*(17), 39-53.

Cuseo, J. (2003). Academic advisement and student retention: Empirical connections and systemic interventions. *Policy Center on the First Year of College*. Retrieved from: http://cpe.ky.gov/NR/rdonlyres/6781576F-67A6-4DF0-B2D3-2E71AE0D5D97/0/CuseoAcademicAdvisementandStudentRetentionEmpiraclConnectionsandSystemicInterventions.pdf

Cuseo, J. (2011). Academic advising and the student transition to college: Current issues, emerging challenges, and potential roles for first-year experience professionals. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition, 19*(1), 7-22.

Damminger, J. (2007). Self-assessment: Relevance and value in first-year advising. In M. Hunter, B. McCalla-Wriggins, & E. White (Eds.), *Academic advising: New insights for teaching and learning in the first year* (pp. 59-69). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition.

DeAngelo, L. (2009). Programs and practices that retain students in the first year: Insights from a national study. In R. Hayes (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 5th National Symposium on Student Retention, 2009, Buffalo* (pp. 327-342). Norman, OK: The University of Oklahoma.

Deggs, D. (2011). Students' adjustment to college: A comparison of orientation program attendees and non-attendees. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition, 18*(2), 45-50.

Evans, N. J., Forney, D. S., Guido, F. M., Patton, L. D., & Renn, K. A. (2010). *Student development in college: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Farlowe, A. (2006). Working advising magic: Using a freshman orientation course as an advising tool. *NACADA Clearinghouse of Academic Advising Resources*. Retrieved from: http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Clearinghouse/View-Articles/FYE-course-as-an-advising-tool.aspx

Gentry, W. A., Kuhnert, K. W., Johnson, R. M., & Cox, B. D. (2006). Even a weekend works: The value of a weekend-long orientation program on first-year college students. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition, 14*(1), 26-38.

Habley, W. R., Bloom, J. L., & Robbins, S. (Eds.), (2012). *Increasing persistence: Research-based strategies for college student success*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Habley, W. R., & McClanahan, R. (2004). *What works in student retention? Four-year public colleges.* Retrieved from ACT website: www.act.org

Jacobs, J., & Archie, T. (2008). Investigating sense of community in first-year college students. *Journal of Experiential Education*, *30*(3), 282-285.

Johnson, E. J., & Morgan, B. L. (2005). Advice on advising: Improving a comprehensive university's program. *Teaching of Psychology*, *32*(1), 15-18.

Kuh, G. D., Cruce, T. M., Shoup, R., & Kinzie, J. (2008). Unmasking the effects of student engagement on first-year college grades and persistence. *Journal of Higher Education, 79*(5), 540-563.

Laskey, M. L., & Hetzel, C. J. (2011). Investigating factors related to retention of at-risk college students. *The Learning Assistance Review*, *16*(1), 31-43.

Lee, S. (2002). Student orientation programs. In *Encyclopedia of Education*. (Vol. 7, pp. 2385-2387). MacMillan Reference Books.

Lehning, E. M. (2008). *Impact of an extended orientation program on academic performance and retention* (Doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University). Retrieved from http://krex.kstate.edu/dspace/handle/2097/1030

Light, R. J. (2001). *Making the most of college: Students speak their minds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Metzner, B. S. (1989). Perceived quality of academic advising: The effect on freshman attrition. *American Educational Research Journal, 26,* 422–442.

Morrison, M. C. (2012). Graduation odds and probabilities among baccalaureate colleges and universities. *Journal of College Student Retention, 14*(2), 157-179.

Nora, A., Barlow, E., & Crisp, G. (2005). Student persistence and degree attainment beyond the first year in college: The need for research. In A. Seidman (Ed.), *College student retention: Formula for success* (pp. 129-154). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Pascarella, E. T., Salisbury, M. H., & Blaich, C. (2011). Exposure to effective instruction and college student persistence: A multi-institutional replication and extension. *Journal of College Student Development, 52*(1), 4-19.

Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (2005). *How college affects students* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schrader, P. G., & Brown, S. W. (2008). Evaluating the first year experience: Students' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, *19*(2), 310-343.

Seidman, A. (2012). Taking action: A retention formula and model for student success. In A. Seidman (Ed.), *College student retention: Formula for success* (pp. 267-284). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Smith, H. G., Rodine, B., & Williams, A. (2012). Using student learning outcomes to evaluate orientation programs. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition*, *19*(2), 32-40.

Soria, K. (2012). Advising satisfaction: Implications for first-year students' sense of belonging and student retention. *The Mentor: An Academic Advising Journal.* Retrieved from: http://dus.psu.edu

Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Educational Research, 45*(1), 89-125.

Valentine, J. C., Hirschy, A. S., Bremer, C. D., Novillo, W., Castellano, M., & Banister, A. (2011). Keeping at-risk students in school: A systematic review of college retention programs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 33*(2), 214-234.

Winston, R. B., Ender, S. C., & Miller, T. K. (1982). *Developmental approaches to academic advising*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Wolcott, G. V. (2006). Critical reflections of college sophomores about preparation and persistence during their freshman year. *Journal of College Orientation and Transition, 14*(1), 5-25.

――――――――――――――――――――――

Katrina Anaya, M.A., '12, is a graduate of the Student Development Administration program and serves as a College Completion Program Manager at College Forward in Austin, Texas.

Kelly Carr, M.Ed., '12, is a graduate of the University of South Carolina's Higher Education and Student Affairs graduate program and currently serves as an Academic Advisor at the University of Texas at Austin.

The Collegia Program: A Home Away From Home

Brian M. Wasserman, *Seattle University*

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), the cost of college tuition, room, and board increased 42% at public institutions and 31% at private, not-for-profit institutions (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Further, data indicate more students are choosing to live off campus (U.S. Department of Education, 1991, 2013). Yet most colleges and universities lack robust systems of support for these underserved student populations. The Collegia Program at Seattle University represents an effective program that promotes commuter and transfer student success and persistence by meeting the physical, psychological, and social needs of this population of students.

Why are you eating lunch in your car? Former Seattle University (SU) President Fr. William Sullivan, S.J., posed a similar question to commuter students he encountered while walking through a campus parking lot. In response, the students claimed campus lacked a space where they felt a sense of belonging and connection to the campus community. This encounter sparked Fr. Sullivan's vision of collegia, gathering spaces designed to meet the needs of SU's commuters who comprised 75% of the total student population.

In 1996, Fr. Sullivan's vision became reality with the opening of the Lynn Collegium, an intentionally designed space for commuter students in the College of Arts and Sciences. This collegium was intended to pilot the receptiveness of students to Fr. Sullivan's idea. Due to the overwhelmingly positive response of students, SU expanded the Collegia Program by opening the Chardin Collegium in 1997. As of 2013, the program consists of five collegia communities serving about one thousand of SU's undergraduate and graduate commuter and transfer students across all academic disciplines (Seattle University, 2013).

COMMUTER AND TRANSFER STUDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

The rising cost of college education forces many students to seek ways to save money and maximize value. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), the cost of college tuition, room, and board increased 42% at public institutions and 31% at private, not-for-profit institutions (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). As a result, many students save money by forgoing the residential experience in favor of living off campus and commuting to college. Data from NCES indicate a trending decrease in residential students, from about 19% of total enrollment in fall of 1986 to 13.5% in the 2007-08 academic year (U.S. Department of Education, 1991, 2013). This data suggests more students live off campus, thereby missing the support provided by residence life staff and intentionally designed residence hall communities.

Despite the increase in commuter and transfer students, most colleges and universities lack robust systems of support for these underserved student populations, which include significant numbers of non-traditional students and adult learners (Jacoby,

2000). Seattle University's Collegia Program represents an effective way to develop strong student leaders who support a diverse population of commuter and transfer students by building and maintaining intentionally designed communities similar to those found in traditional residence halls. Several theorists highlight the importance of fostering a sense of mattering and community to student retention and success (Schlossberg, 1989; Tinto, 1993). In particular, Tinto (1993) claims "communities, educational or otherwise, which care for and reach out to members and which are committed to members' welfare are also those which keep and nourish their members" (p. 146). The Collegia Program promotes mattering by combining student development theories with the Jesuit-Catholic influenced institutional context of SU to care for students, connect them to campus, and foster a strong sense of community. Specifically, the Collegia Program strives to meet the physical, psychological, and social needs of undergraduate and graduate commuter and transfer students.

THE COLLEGIA PROGRAM AT
SEATTLE UNIVERSITY

From its inception, the Collegia Program aligned with the university's emphasis on the Jesuit principle of *cura personalis*, care for the whole person. The program strives to care for students by providing a "home away from home" on campus. In addition to practical comforts, collegia promote learning, community, and connections to campus through intentional physical design, established community standards, and trained student staff.

Physical Design

All collegia utilize intentional design to meet the basic needs of students and foster student interaction. Each collegium exists in a physical space designed to provide a warm and welcoming home-like environment. Quality furnishings demonstrate a commitment to providing students with a space of comfort. Furniture includes tables for studying or eating, as well as couches and lounge chairs for reading or napping. Kitchenettes with refrigerators, appliances, dishes, flatware, and communal tables offer students a place to not only store and prepare food but also share meals together. Collegia foster social interaction by providing games and puzzles. Spaces include computer stations and printer access, but not televisions, which might distract students from interpersonal interaction. Finally, each collegium possesses unique features such as outdoor patios, gardens, fireplaces, and scenic views which attract members to the space. Combined, these intentionally selected amenities create a comfortable space that encourages students to interact and form community while fulfilling their basic needs.

Community Standards

Community standards represent another important component of the Collegia Program. While membership is free, students interested in joining a collegium community fill out a membership application. In doing so, students agree to abide by a set of community standards, such as a no-cell-phone policy. The standards emphasize the dual nature of the collegia: places for studying and for forming community. Much like traditional residence life community standards, the collegia standards foster an environment conducive to personal accountability,

healthy interpersonal interaction, and community formation by setting clear expectations at the time of applying for membership into the community.

Trained Student Staff

Trained student leaders represent the crux of the Collegia Program. Teams of paid graduate and undergraduate students, referred to as Collegium Community Leaders (CCLs), staff each collegium. CCLs maintain the physical space, uphold community standards, engage members in conversation, and facilitate educational and social programming. Moreover, they serve as a resource to the community; they are expected to connect members with each other and campus resources. To prepare for these essential job functions, CCLs participate in 30 hours of training prior to stepping into their leadership roles. In addition, CCLs participate in formal staff development throughout the year in the form of staff meetings and scheduled one-on-one meetings with professional staff. CCLs benefit from informal training through performance evaluations and frequent feedback from their supervisors. Such formal and informal activities prepare CCLs to manage conflict, advertise campus resources, create effective programming, and interact with a diverse population of students. CCLs are integral to broadening inclusion within collegia and between university communities. By being leaders amongst their peers, CCLs fulfill the Collegia Program mission of caring for members, connecting them to campus, and building a supportive and inclusive community.

The following reflection written by George, a CCL during the 2011-2012 academic year, demonstrates the Collegia Program's powerful positive influence on the commuter and transfer student experience. In this reflection, George shows how the Collegia Program promotes student persistence and mattering by connecting commuter and transfer students to the Seattle University community:

As the end of the year approaches, I have been thinking of the great times at the McGoldrick. My role as a CCL taught me so much about the meaning of community. I once had a conversation with a member who comes regularly to the collegium. She told me that she felt lost and out of place when she started her program at Seattle U. As a commuter, she started to feel like there was no place for students like her on campus. Although she was working on campus, she did not have a sense of belonging. She came to the collegium and became a very active member in the community. In fact, one day she told me that the collegium helped her feel like she could continue school. Being part of the collegium connected her to other people in her program, and she was also able to interact with others. What she liked most about the collegium was the mix of nontraditional undergrads and grad students.

I feel lucky for having this job because it exposes me to different stories. Every story is unique and every story teaches me that we all have something important to say. When given the opportunity to speak, members can share very powerful anecdotes. Those stories make me feel connected to the members in my collegium. When people came to me and talked about their day, I know they came to me because they are comfortable around me. That is what makes my job as a CCL memorable! I really believe that being a CCL changed my own perspective of community.

Having spaces like the collegium on campus enhance the college experiences of many, including myself, because we know that there will always be somebody to talk to. After being a CCL for two years, I want to continue building relations with commuter students, especially with those who may still feel like they did not belong. (G. George, personal communication, June 5, 2012)

CONNECTION BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

By providing welcoming environments, collegia promote student success and persistence. According to Kuh (2009), student performance improves when students feel supported by their campus environment. The Collegia Program conveys institutional prioritization of commuter and transfer student value by dedicating resources, specifically space and staff, to meet their physical, social, and educational needs. In addition, the Collegia Program promotes student interaction by providing a comfortable gathering space and student staff trained to initiate dialogue, advertise campus resources, and facilitate educational programming. Astin's (1999) theory of student involvement proposes a positive correlation between student involvement and persistence. Moreover, Astin (1999) suggests residential students are more likely to participate in extra-curricular activities, resulting in increased satisfaction with their undergraduate experience. By providing commuter and transfer students with an experience comparable to the welcoming community of residence halls, this home away from home contributes to increased persistence and success of these underrepresented student populations.

In addition to enhancing the student experience, the Collegia Program benefits the entire institution. Commuter and transfer students represent a diverse population that includes non-traditional students, graduate students, students with dependents, and veterans. These adult learners possess a wealth of lived experience and wisdom that benefits the entire university community through their involvement in informal mentoring, community connections, and academic accomplishments (Knowles, 1984). Further, commuter and transfer students are future alumni. A study conducted by Hoyt (2004) discovered a statistically significant positive correlation between involvement in student life as an undergraduate and involvement in alumni activities. By contributing to a positive commuter and transfer student experience, the collegia contribute to the development of a strong, involved alumni base willing to support their institution through monetary donations, service commitments, and student referrals.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the demographics of students indicate an increase in the number of students who live off campus. These students possess unique needs in addition to the desire for connectivity, community, and mattering. The Collegia Program represents an effective way of conveying institutional support by dedicating both physical and human resources to the task of fostering community and connection amongst commuter and transfer students. Given the present-day realities of higher education, how much longer can colleges and universities afford to allow commuter and transfer students to eat lunch in their cars?

REFERENCES

Astin, A.W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Development*, *40*(5), 518-529.

Hoyt, J. E. (2004, May-June). *Understanding alumni giving: Theory and predictors of donor status.* Paper presented at the 44th Annual Forum of the Association for Institutional Research (AIR), Boston, MA.

Jacoby, B. (2000). Involving commuter students in learning: Moving from rhetoric to reality. *New Directions for Higher Education, 109*, 81-87.

Knowles, M. S. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species* (3rd ed.). Houston, TX: Gulf.

Kuh, G. D. (2009). Understanding campus environments. In G. McClellan & J. Stringer (Eds.), *The handbook of student affairs administration* (pp. 59-80). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schlossberg, N. K. (1989). Marginality and mattering: Key issues in building community. *New Directions for Higher Education, 48,* 5-15.

Seattle University. (2013). *Collegia Program mission, vision, and history.* Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/ctsl/collegia/history/

Tinto, V. T. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics. (1991). *Digest of Education Statistics, 1990*. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs91/91660.pdf

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics. (2012). *Fast facts: Tuition costs of colleges and universities*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=76

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics. (2013). *Digest of Educational Statistics, 2013*. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d12/

Brian "Waz" Wasserman, SDA Alum '13, served as the McGoldrick Collegium Coordinator for the Commuter and Transfer Student Life office at Seattle University during the 2011-2013 academic years. Currently, he serves as a resident director at the University of Pittsburgh.

Dawn of a New Day, Martin Luther King, Jr. Memorial
Washington D.C. (2011)—Kassie Chapel

The Crisis of a New Gender Gap:
Male Underrepresentation in Liberal Arts Higher Education

Zachary T. Gerdes, *Seattle University*

Women outnumber men in college attendance for the first time in United States history. Research to date has shown that while male privilege persists in the U.S. regarding some aspects of society (e.g., disproportionate numbers of men in leadership positions), men as a whole are decreasingly represented in institutions of higher learning. Liberal arts and Jesuit colleges maintain an even wider gender gap. Particularly, men of color and men from low socioeconomic backgrounds are at an increasing disadvantage in regards to admissions and scholarship review practices. The educational, biological, psychological, and social factors contributing to lack of male achievement are discussed and applied to the context of the national educational gender gap. Specific attention is given to the roles and values of liberal arts and Jesuit institutions' responsibilities to respond to the current changing environment. Drawing from national research and Seattle University practices as examples, implications and solutions for reconciling this new gender gap are discussed in terms of admissions outreach and procedures.

Keywords: underrepresentation, masculinity, gender gap

THE CRISIS OF A NEW GENDER GAP

Men are falling behind in education in the United States (Conger & Long, 2010). In 2010, the Atlantic Monthly published that for the first time in U.S. history, women outnumbered men in both the workforce and college attendance (Rosin, 2010). Others note that the number of jobs requiring post-secondary education are increasing substantially; by 2025, an estimated 63% of all jobs will require some post-secondary education (Carnevale, Smith, & Strohl, 2010). Although men still hold a disproportionate number of leadership positions in the work place (Soares, Bartkiewicz, Mulligan-Ferry, Fendler, & Chun Kun, 2013), prominent researchers have identified a number of characteristics that have negatively impacted males' abilities to succeed in society. Characteristics of "traditional masculinity" (e.g., restrictive emotional behavior, displaying physical affection, etc.) have been associated with: lower levels of relationship satisfaction, help-seeking behavior, a decreased ability to thrive in many academic and work environments, and increased levels of violence, aggression, and even health issues such as heart disease (Addis, 2011; Faludi 1999; Kimmel & Messner, 1989; Levant, 2011; O'Neil, 2008; Pollack, 1998). Particularly in regards to education, men from lower incomes, with less confidence and with lower-performing academic records, are increasingly unlikely to attend college (Griffin, Jayakumar, Jones, & Allen, 2010).

In the following, I argue that the current educational system is perpetuating the increasing disadvantage that young men—particularly young men of color and from low socioeconomic backgrounds—are facing when it comes to seeking and succeeding in post-secondary education. Specifically, it is the author's view that private colleges in the U.S. have an ethical responsibility to be more direct in their inclusion of underrepresented students, and males need to be included among this

population. Furthermore, liberal arts and Jesuit institutions, such as Seattle University, have an increased role and responsibility in the ways they interact with, serve, and recruit prospective male students.

ROOTS OF THE EDUCATIONAL GENDER GAP

A larger number of men are enrolling in college than ever before, but when accounting for increases in population, a lower proportion of college-age males are actually enrolling in higher education than in years past (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2005). Educational, biological, psychological, and social factors all contribute to this lack of achievement.

Academically, boys begin falling behind girls at a young age. By the third grade, boys are on average one to one and a half years behind females in reading and writing abilities. Additionally, boys in 4th-8th grade are twice as likely as girls to be held back a grade (NCES, 2005). Furthermore, boys account for 71%of all school suspensions, including at the high school level (Pollack, 1998). Finally, boys in high school have been noted to be more vocal and distracted in the classroom than their female counterparts, potentially detracting from the learning environment (Younger, Warrington, & Williams, 1999). This reality can profoundly impact gender differences related to educational expectations experienced by young men and women.

The gender gap is also especially pronounced in some racial minority groups. African American and Latino students are experiencing an even wider gender gap in degree attainment compared to their White counterparts (Peter & Horn, 2005; Saenz, 2008). Parents and peers have lower degree attainment expectations for African American and Latino males. Parents also tend to be less engaged than White and Asian counterparts (Wells, Seifert, Padgett, Park, & Umbach, 2010). If parental, cultural, and peer variables do indeed contribute to lower expectations and academic performance and success, the negative ramifications to self-esteem, self-efficacy, happiness, and other aspects of well-being could be pronounced. In other words, boys might be feeling inferior or "behind" from an early stage in their development.

For boys, educational expectations of peers and parents may significantly contribute to a culture of underachievement. Regardless of gender, students with high educational expectations are more likely to attain higher levels of education (Wells et al., 2010). This is important to note considering there are higher expectations for women to attend college than men. Wells et al. (2010) found that significantly more females (54%) reported most or all of their friends planned to attend college compared with the expectations males (44%) had of themselves and their peers. Additionally, the expectations of the same-sex parent of a student (i.e., mothers for girls and fathers for boys) had a profoundly positive influence on the degree expectations of the adolescent. In particular, girls' parents expected them to attain a bachelor's degree at higher rates than boys' parents (77% of girls' parents compared with 72% of boys'). This may be a particularly important factor in creating a positive social culture around attending college. This research suggests boys are implicitly and explicitly taught from a young age that academic success and college attendance are more characteristic of women than men.

Psychological and social factors have also greatly influenced the culture of expectation surrounding young men and education. Researchers of different gender identities have long argued that psychosocial factors play a more significant role in male development than biological ones (e.g., Garbarino, 1999; Pollack, 1998; Way, 2011). In the literature for the psychology of men and masculinity in particular, this social constructionist view is a prominent one (Levant, 2008). When risk factors such as socioeconomic status, access to education, and connection with positive role models multiply, males might be more prone to "act out" with more overt antisocial behavior (e.g., violence) in comparison with their female counterparts who may be more likely to internalize problems in self-destructive ways (e.g., eating disorders or depression; Garbarino, 1999). In a classroom setting, these are important characteristics to consider. If lopsided suspension statistics (Pollack, 1998) are any indicator, boys are likely receiving more outward attention for negative "acting out" behavior. In turn, this can create an unhealthy cultural acceptance of boys underperforming and acting out because it may be simply considered "boys being boys" (Pollack, 1998). If high expectations, efficacy, and esteem are associated with academic success (Wells et al., 2010), educators must create a supportive environment that caters to this, not rationalize with naturalistic explanations for normalizing inappropriate behavior (e.g., "boys will be boys").

Considering the low performance and lack of expectations for boys in education, the current gender gap in higher education makes logical sense. While it is true that attention must be given to these issues at the primary and secondary education levels, post-secondary institutions—particularly private, liberal arts and Jesuit colleges and universities—have a pronounced ethical obligation to respond to the issue in more intentional ways.

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSES TO THE GENDER GAP

Higher education institutions are under constant scrutiny for admissions procedures that account for race and gender. In 1999, the University of Georgia awarded "extra points" in admissions review procedures for race and gender (Jaschick, 2006). The university was sued and a federal judge rejected the admission system as unconstitutional. Since then, Supreme Court cases, such as *Fischer v. University of Texas* (United States Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit, 2011), have upheld similar rulings. Private colleges and universities have the legal flexibility to be more intentional in the way they "shape" an incoming class of students because they are not as limited as public schools. Jennifer Delahunty Britz (2006), Dean of Admissions at Kenyon College (a small, private, liberal arts institution) notes that particular groups, such as men, can be legitimately considered "more valued applicants" in the admissions process. This is a key distinction of private schools. Even private schools whose students are eligible for federal funds, such as Pell grants and subsidized loans, can greater account for variables such as race and gender. This is due, in part, because endowed aid from donors can be tailored for more specific uses than federal funds. For example, Seattle University has the "Costco Scholarship," which provides funding specifically for students of underrepresented racial minority groups (i.e., African-American, Latino, Native American, and some Pacific Islander students).

The increased flexibility of private schools in admissions and scholarship review procedures is a privilege that can be used advantageously when discussing issues such as affirmative action and the gender gap. Despite the decreasing success and representation of men in post-secondary educations, disadvantaged men–particularly men of color—are increasingly left out of the conversation (Gamboa, Gerdes, & Jimenez, 2013). In other words, admissions and scholarship review procedures placing a specific focus on "underrepresented" students may not be accurately capturing them. The current gender gap is evidence that these practices may not be getting implemented in enough impactful ways.

Colleges and universities often discuss the importance of enrolling "underrepresented" students. Enrollment Services at Seattle University define "underrepresented" students as students whose race(s) are not represented proportionally to White students. For example, African American, Hispanic and Native American students are considered "underrepresented" for enrollment purposes. However, one can argue that "underrepresented" should also refer to a number of other categories, such as socio-economic status, sexual orientation, and gender. Many of Seattle University's peer institutions have also adopted the same narrow definition of "underrepresentation" (Gamboa et al., 2013).

If underrepresentation is defined solely as a description of race, the gender gap will not receive due attention. Liberal arts colleges and universities in the U.S. specifically have an increasing percentage of women represented on their campuses (Felix, Daily,

Gerdes, Killoran, & Dorantes, 2012). In a society in which male privilege has historically reigned, this is encouraging news for the progress of gender equity. However, in a number of Jesuit institutions, the percentage of women might be considered disproportionate (Gamboa et al., 2013). At Seattle University, men and women are admitted at approximately equal rates; roughly 70 percent of applicants are admitted from each gender. However, in the last three years, over 60 percent of students who applied and attended were women (Felix et al., 2012). This suggests that the source of the gender gap at Seattle University is the number of interested applicants. Some may argue that the large percentage of women at liberal arts institutions is due to an inherent affinity of liberal arts subjects to be "gender-traditional" (Tokar & Jome, 1998) towards a feminine proclivity. However, many liberal arts colleges and most Jesuit institutions have robust science, engineering, and business programs (Felix et al., 2012; Gamboa et al., 2013), which include "traditionally masculine" majors (Mahalik, 2006). Because liberal arts and Jesuit schools' admissions practices focus, in part, on targeting underrepresented students, the question becomes: How can liberal arts and Jesuit colleges and universities intentionally reach out to and recruit the young men who are underrepresented at these institutions and currently struggle in the educational system at large?

RECONCILING THE GENDER GAP

I suggest that a reversal of the gender gap is necessary and advantageous. In order for this to happen, higher education professionals must first be aware of the background contexts of their students.

Admissions review procedures must acknowledge gender diversity through holistic application review processes and scholarship-awarding procedures; currently some of these review methods may inherently favor methods for assessing strengths that may not benefit students from low socioeconomic backgrounds or some racial minority groups. Thus, university representatives working with youth in the community (i.e., admissions counselors) have a more direct responsibility to do the following: (a) create holistic admissions procedures that acknowledge research trends of the climate surrounding prospective students from varied backgrounds, (b) establish personal relationships with students, and (c) be proactive when creating relationships with students and community organizations.

Holistic Enrollment Practices and Procedures

Liberal arts colleges and universities, particularly Jesuit institutions, have an ethical responsibility to create diverse student populations, yet admissions procedures do not always reflect this value. The Jesuit Network of Educational Excellence (JNEE, 2013) notes, "The education process demands that the diversity of the world and country we live in be present in the classroom and on the campus." However, in liberal arts and Jesuit colleges and universities, we may be unintentionally disenfranchising men—specifically young men of color (Felix et al., 2012; Gamboa et al., 2013).

In the recent past, college admissions procedures have placed increasing importance on standardization practices, such as the SAT, despite evidence that these methods favor primarily White, upper-income students (Soares, 2012). Despite this, liberal arts institutions still maintain that admissions departments must know and practice accurately identifying disadvantage on paper and give weight to student resilience in individual contexts (Wilson, Sass, Gerdes, & Kern, 2014). In light of the fact that there is a larger gender gap with minority and low socio-economic populations (Peter & Horn, 2005), extra consideration and targeted efforts directed towards males from racial minority backgrounds and/or low socio-economic statuses should occur. At Seattle University and many Jesuit institutions, explicit efforts to achieve this are minimal (Gamboa et al., 2013).

To greater embody an ethic of true holistic admissions review and diversity prioritization, there should be an increased effort to weight non-cognitive variables (e.g., resilience) in review procedures and decreased reliance on potentially discriminatory variables (e.g., the SAT). For example, young men without father figures present are increasingly likely to exhibit certain problematic behaviors (Garbarino, 1999). If a male applicant identifies on his application that he does not have a father figure present, consideration for that young man's resilience should be identified in some type of pragmatic fashion by the application review process. Because there is evidence that parental expectations are profoundly influential for young men (Wells et al., 2010), it might be important for admissions counselors to further include parents and families in admissions conversations. The examples may be many, but the point is, evidence shows that current admissions review procedures may not be reflecting certain aspects of what an ideal "holistic" review might include. As a result, current and future shifts in

admissions review procedures may be increasing discriminatory, albeit unintentional, practices. If admissions review procedures do not value non-cognitive variables more highly, underrepresented students, including men of color, may be especially disadvantaged.

There are at least two substantial obstacles to implementing admissions review processes that intentionally account for varied individual experiences and gender-specific risk factor correlates. Firstly, admissions counselors are expected to read an exorbitant number of applications. Last year, Seattle University had 7,161 freshmen applications (Seattle University Office of Institutional Research, 2013). With eight admissions counselors devoted to reading freshmen applications for the institution, that means, if applications were equally distributed, each counselor would read an average of nearly 900 ($\bar{x}$ = 895) applications from November to February. Even if a counselor reviewed 40 applications per day every work day for an entire month straight, achieving this total would be a stretch. Committing to an intentional, personal and holistic application review process might be inherently difficult when the student to counselor ratio is roughly 900:1. In this regard, it is vital to provide more time and support to admissions counselors for intentional, rather than solely fast, review.

Secondly, even if holistic admissions review accounts for resilience in the context of gender, it does not mean that scholarships and financial aid inherently will follow suit. Commonly, universities award "merit scholarships" to admitted applicants (Wilson et al., 2014). Often—as in the case of Seattle University—these merit scholarships are based solely on students' grade point average and scores on standardized tests such as the SAT and ACT (Gamboa et al., 2013). Thus, even if weight is given to personal student experiences at the level of admittance, this would have no impact on a student's scholarship or financial aid. This is particularly troublesome considering the following.

As discussed previously, private liberal arts and Jesuit post-secondary institutions, in the author's view, should have an increased responsibility for intentionally addressing affirmative action and the gender gap precisely because they are not legally bound by the limitations imposed on public institutions (Felix et al., 2012; Gamboa et al., 2013). However, because private schools have typically higher tuition costs than public institutions (College Board Advocacy & Policy Center, 2012), it stands to reason that students, particularly those from disadvantaged backgrounds (e.g., men of color from low socio-economic backgrounds), might rely more heavily on institutional scholarships and financial aid to offset costs (Felix et al., 2012). Yet, the financial system designed to offset costs for students with merit at private liberal arts institutions, such as Seattle University, do not account for the very things the greater enrollment system is trying to promote: namely, the inclusion of students who are male, of color, low income and/or first generation college students. Including men in the conversation of groups currently underrepresented in liberal arts higher education does not resolve hypocrisy, but it does give attention to a group whose historically strong voice may be waning in the modern day due to the factors addressed here.

Community Partnerships and Relationship Building

In addition to practicing holistic review procedures for admission and scholarships, higher education professionals need to get creative in the ways we accommodate, work with, and retain male students, particularly men of color and from low socioeconomic backgrounds, through outreach. Professionals, who personally know the unique backgrounds and strengths of their students, are better apt to create programming that benefits certain targeted populations, such as men. Admissions counselors specifically must be increasingly directed to build strong bonds with community organizations that involve male students in college-related conversations and processes.

In Seattle, groups that work with underserved populations of students will be good places to start, including: College Access Now (CAN), Rainier Scholars, Black Achievers, and the College Success Foundation. Nationally, the Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID) College Readiness System could be greater utilized. In addition, Jesuit universities can connect with the JNEE for up to date research on working with underrepresented students. The JNEE is a research-driven effort by the University of San Francisco, Loyola University New Orleans, and Creighton University that identifies and disseminates successful practices in recruiting, supporting, and graduating low-income students, first generation college students, and/or students of color—those populations with historically low rates of persistence and success.

The organizations and programs mentioned above do not focus on men specifically. Programs that intentionally partner universities with young men in the community are minimal. However, some programs do focus more on male student achievement (see Appendix A).

In order to implement these practices, there must be administrative support and paid work time allotted for these efforts. The success of young men in the present relies heavily on a sense of future orientation (Garbarino, 1999). The participation of university representatives in high school and community events could be vital for creating an atmosphere focused on future success. As representative of higher education, admissions counselors specifically must encourage young men with realistic messages of educational potential in their futures.

CONCLUSION

A gender gap exists in higher education, particularly at liberal arts and Jesuit institutions. Historically, men have been unfairly advantaged in the accessibility of obtaining college degrees, but for a myriad of reasons, men are no longer succeeding in proportional ways compared with women when it comes to education. We must continue to focus on decreasing male privilege in many respects; for example, we still face a disproportionate number of men in leadership positions in the U.S. (Wilson, 2009). However, in the meantime, women are outperforming men in the classroom and workplace. Males continue to fall behind in education, particularly men of color and men from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Despite the substantial gender gap at liberal arts and Jesuit colleges and universities in the U.S., admissions practices for outreach and recruitment increasingly marginalize

young men from diverse backgrounds. Higher education professionals have an ethical responsibility to adjust these practices based on the changing environment our students come from and enter into during college. At liberal arts and Jesuit institutions, specifically at Seattle University, admissions and scholarship review must better account for the strengths of men from diverse backgrounds. In so doing, "holistic" admission can be a value that is more greatly embodied. Additionally, conversations and practices on "underrepresented" students should focus more intently on "men"—particularly men of color and/or men from low socioeconomic backgrounds—as sub-categories. In this regard, there is great potential for Seattle University to be at the forefront of progressive programming and admissions review policies. If embraced, Seattle University can greater embody its mission and serve as an example for how liberal arts and Jesuit institutions can be profoundly intentional in the ways they interact with, serve, and recruit prospective male students.

REFERENCES

Addis, M. E. (2011). *Invisible men: Men's inner lives and the consequences of silence*. New York, NY: Times Books.

Carnevale, A., Smith, N., & Strohl, J. (2010). Help wanted: Projections of jobs and education requirements through 2018. *Georgetown University, Center on Education and the Workforce*. Website: http://www9.georgetown.edu/grad/gppi/hpi/cew/pdfs/State-LevelAnalysis-web.pdf

College Board Advocacy & Policy Center (2012). *Trends in College Pricing*. Retrieved from https://trends.collegeboard.org

Conger, D. & Long, M. C. (2010). Why are men falling behind? *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 627*(1), 84-214.

Delahunty Britz, J. (2006, March 23). To all the girls I've rejected. *New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com

Faludi, S. (1999). *Stiffed: The betrayal of the American man*. New York, NY: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Felix, E., Daily, R., Gerdes, Z., Killoran, C., & Dorantes, A. (2012, May). *"Where my boys at?" Reconciling the reversed gender gap in higher education through admissions outreach and review*. Paper presented at the western regional super conference of the National Association of College Admissions Counseling, Reno, NV.

Gamboa, L., Gerdes, Z. & Jimenez, A. (2013, August). *The disappearing Latino male in Jesuit higher education*. Paper presented at the Commitment to Justice in Jesuit Higher Education conference, Creighton University, Omaha, NE.

Garbarino, J. (1999). *Lost boys: Why our sons turn violent and how we can save them*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Inc.

Griffin, K. A., Jayakumar, U. M., Jones, M. M., & Allen, W. R. (2010). Ebony in the ivory tower: Examining trends in the socioeconomic status, achievement, and self-concept of black, male freshmen. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 43*(2), 232-248.

Jaschick, S. (November 2, 2006). Affirmative action for C+ white guys. *Inside Higher Education*. Retrieved from www.insidehighered.com

Jesuit Network for Educational Excellence (2013). *Jesuit Network for Equitable Excellence project summary*. Retrieved from http://www.usfca.edu/jnee/

Kimmel, M. S., & Messner, M. A. (1989). *Men's lives*. New York, NY England: Macmillan Publishing Co, Inc.

Levant, R. F. (2008). How do we understand masculinity? An editorial. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 9*(1), 1-4.

Levant, R. F. (2011). Research in the psychology of men and masculinity using the gender role strain paradigm as a framework. *American Psychologist, 66*(8), 765-776.

Mahalik, J. R. (2006). Examining conformity to masculinity norms as a function of RIASEC vocational interests. *Journal of Career Assessment, 14*(2), 203-213.

National Center for Education Statistics (2005). *Digest of Education Statistics*, Tables 105 & 236. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/2011menu_tables.asp

O'Neil, J. M. (2008). Summarizing twenty-five years of research on men's gender role conflict using the Gender Role Conflict Scale: New research paradigms and clinical implications. *The Counseling Psychologist, 36*, 358-445.

Peter, K., & Horn, L. (2005). Gender differences in participation and completion of undergraduate education and how they have changed over time: Report from the Postsecondary Education Descriptive Analysis Reports (Report No.

169). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office. Retrieved from files.eric.ed.gov

Pollack, W. (1998). *Real boys: Rescuing our sons from the myths of boyhood.* New York, NY: Henry Holt and Company, Inc.

Rosin, H. (2010, June 8). The end of men. *The Atlantic Monthly.* Retrieved from www.theatlantic.com

Saenz, V. B. (2008). The vanishing Latino male in higher education. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 8*(1), 54-89.

Seattle University, Office of Institutional Research (2013). *Seattle University enrollment overview Fall 2013* [Data set]. Retrieved from www.seattleu.edu/ir

Soares, R., Bartkiewicz, M. J., Mulligan-Ferry, L., Fendler, E., & Chun Kun, E. W. (2013). Catalyst census: Fortune 500 women board directors. Retrieved from http://catalyst.org

Soares, J. (2012). *SAT Wars: The case for test-optional college admissions.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

Tokar, D. M., & Jome, L. M. (1998). Masculinity, vocational interests, and career choice traditionality: Evidence for a fully mediated model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45*(4), 424-435.

United States Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit (January 18, 2011). *Abigail Fisher, et al. v. State of Texas, et al.* (No. 09-50822). Retrieved from law.justia.com, February 16, 2014.

Way, N. (2011). *Deep secrets: Boys' friendships and the crisis of connection.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wells, R. S., Seifert, T. A., Padgett, R. D., Park, S., & Umbach, P. D. (2010). Why do more women than men want to earn a four-year degree? Exploring the effects of gender, social origin, and social capital on educational expectations. *The Journal of Higher Education, 82*(1), 1-33.

Wilson, M., Sass, M., Gerdes, Z., & Kern, E. (2014, February). *The admissions process at selective liberal arts colleges.* Panel presentation at the annual Bellevue School District College Conference, Bellevue High School, Bellevue, WA.

Wilson, M. (2009, November 20). Our leadership crisis: Where are the women? *Washington Post.* Retrieved from http://views.washingtonpost.com/leadership/panelists/2009/11/our-leadership-crisis-where-are-the-women.html

Younger, M., Warrington, M., & Williams, J. *(1999).* The gender gap and classroom interactions: Rhetoric or reality? *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 20*(3), 325–341.

Zachary Gerdes graduated with a Bachelor's degree in Psychology from Seattle University in 2011 and is currently in his third year working as an Admissions Counselor in the Office of Undergraduate Admissions at Seattle University.

The author would like to acknowledge and thank Lorenzo Gamboa, Eric Felix, Richard Daily, Anthony Jimenez, Christine Killoran, and Astrid Dorantes for their contributions to this work and topic at large.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Zachary T. Gerdes, Undergraduate Admissions, Seattle University, 901 12th Avenue, Seattle, WA 98122. Email: gerdesz@seattleu.edu.

APPENDIX A

PROGRAMS FOCUSING ON MALE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

The list of programs in Table A1 (below) is not exhaustive of the programs that exist for young men. However, programs that focus specifically on adolescent male achievement in education are nationally few.

TABLE A1

SAMPLE PROGRAMS FOCUSING ON MALE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Program	Description	More Information
100 Black Men of America, Inc.	National organization dedicated to mentoring young African American men.	http://www.100blackmen.org
Fathers Active in Communities and Education (FACE)	Small community program in Texas that engages fathers in education to increase minority male achievement.	Web: http://fathersactive.com Email: face.arincon@gmail.com
The Northwest Men's Project	Non-profit organization in Washington State designed to create positive masculinities and reduce violence. Not specific to male students or education.	Web: https://www.facebook.com/pages/ Northwest-Mens-Project/ 70728999215?sk=info

Lummi Point—Amy Bergstrom

Meaning-Making in Relation to Institutional Mission and Student Conduct

Lakeisha Jackson, *Seattle University*

This paper examines the dynamic that exists between student conduct, meaning-making, and institutional policies. Students on college campuses across the U.S. agree to abide by a certain set of behavioral expectations upon enrollment. These policies and community standards are determined by the institution and can vary greatly depending on institutional type. Yet, regardless of the variance in the different code of conduct policies by institution type, students learn how to be a part of a procedure that mitigates conflict. Student affairs professionals are in a unique position in being at the intersection of all of these relationships, processes, and procedures. As a professional staff member, there is capacity to educate students on self-efficacy, being an advocate for one's self, and knowing the "rules." Within this balance between the student conduct process, meaning-making, and institutional policies, a student is able to grow and learn thus creating greater meaning of the student conduct system and process.

Keywords: student conduct, meaning-making, student development

INTRODUCTION TO THE ISSUE

Recently, I co-facilitated a workshop on integrity development for Seattle University (SU) students who were found responsible for violating the student code of conduct. We discussed a few student development theories, including William Perry's (1968) theory of intellectual and ethical development. However, Arthur Chickering and Linda Reisser's (1993) identity development theory was the focus of the workshop. I invited the attendees to openly dialogue about how they engaged in each vector of Chickering and Reisser's theory in the context of their status as a student at SU. When we talked about the managing emotions vector, a young man spoke up and said he felt that many of the students in the workshop, including him, were likely there because they were trying to manage emotions related to alcohol, drugs, or were involved in situations where their integrity was challenged; they made a choice that violated SU's policies.

The dissonance created by students' struggles to exist as young adults in the higher education system leads me to question how students are meaning-making in the bigger picture of their participation as university community members. I am particularly interested in understanding how the institutional mission affects this development in addition to the school's religious affiliation and student conduct system. In my opinion, the challenge for students exists in the decision-making process and not understanding SU's policies in depth. I believe there needs to be greater intentionality on the part of staff members to educate students' understanding and holistic development in this regard.

BACKGROUND OF THE ISSUE

In reviewing numerous articles on meaning-making for college students, I identified the following emerging themes. First, the collegiate environment is neither generally, nor intentionally set up to support meaning-making development in a way that is explicitly simple and understandable for students

(Astin, 2004; Baxter Magolda, 2009; Supiano, 2010). Higher education policies and laws are convoluted with complex language that students may struggle to understand. Higher education institutions have a set of expectations regarding student behavior based off of these policies and laws (Seattle University, 2013). These expectations can be seen in the university's mission statement, as well as in polices regarding student conduct and academic honesty. Yet, students often encounter the aforementioned state of dissonance between the university's policy and their decision-making process when these two entities come into disagreement with one another. The fact of the matter is, the institution's rules and regulations may be adjusted slightly, but these policies are unlikely to undergo a major overhaul or dramatic change (Mayhew, 2012; Nelson, 2013). Therefore, it becomes necessary for students to adapt and understand how to be a community member who adheres to the institutional policies.

The second theme I saw in my reading was how institutional type impacts the student's process of meaning-making and their overall holistic development. Supiano (2010) states that "experiences include self-reflection, meditation, and contemplation…colleges should encourage these behaviors" (p. 2-3). This type of intentionality in coursework and assignments will manifest itself differently depending on institutional types. Each institutional type and institution will use varying language to meet the same or similar learning objectives.

The inclusion of religious courses in the core curriculum is more likely to be seen at private, religiously-affiliated colleges as opposed to state universities or private liberal arts colleges (Mayhew, 2012; Nelson, 2013). Nevertheless, this is not to say that students at any institutional type are at an advantage in learning how to make meaning within their different institutional type. Additionally, in the context of the judicial policies and processes in a university setting, I would imagine that judicial affairs at a large state institution looks very different than the model practiced at SU. The structure of the conduct process at larger institutions engages students in a way that it is more process and system based. This has a direct impact on the student's ability to create meaning, self-advocate, and learn as a community participant during the process.

SOLUTION TO THE ISSUE

Developing one's sense of meaning and identity lasts beyond college. It is a part of the lifelong process that leads to self-authorship (Baxter Magolda, 2009). As a college administrator, I believe it is my responsibility to guide students in their path to meaning-making during their college career. In addition, I believe it is the students' responsibility to be active in their own collegiate experiences and to learn how to be a part of a system of communities. A college campus is a bridge between the adolescent and adulthood experiences of creating your own family, managing finances, and being an employed professional. In my opinion, teaching students the tools to intellectually and holistically make these connections is a significant part of being a student affairs professional.

When these learning occasions occur, I engage students in a discussion on the various vantage points of the situation. I ask questions that lead to reflection about actions, intent, and impact. Such questions

might include: What were the positive outcomes from this incident? What did you learn from the incident? How will your future interactions be impacted by this incident? In this respect, the judicial affairs system at SU is educational at its foundation. Students can engage in a learning experience with a conduct officer to better understand the policies and their importance, make a connection to the university's mission, and understand how the process is being administered. The conduct system's intentionality in spring-boarding a meaning-making experience is truly rooted in SU's values of care for the whole person and social justice.

However, with respect to growth and change, Supiano (2010) shows that students are becoming less religious and more spiritual while enrolled in college. I believe this is in large part due to their separation from the controlled family environment. This new experience of freedom can be a catalyst for a young person to behave without regard to society's rules. The policies are specific to the system of higher education they exist within. Simultaneously, traditionally aged college students undergo a new level of development with their identities, as well as their understanding of values, ethics, and intellectual enhancement. This overwhelms many students when they are faced with the university's authorities or other parties (i.e. other students, workplace supervisors, community members, etc.).

I currently work in student conduct and Integrity Formation programs, and I see complex meaning-making experiences play out for SU students daily. When I see staff members and students engage in the conduct process from a place of mutual respect, it leads to a stronger understanding of the university's

judicial system, mission, and policies in the context of how a student exists as an individual and community member. Sanctions–in the form of educational workshops, reflective essays, alcohol and/or drug assessments, informational interviews with professional staff members on campus or in the greater Seattle community, and financial restitution–are experiences that allow students to critically consider their behavior and its impact on the university community. These are elements of the conduct process that I believe SU is doing well in as an institution. Yet, students still struggle significantly with the cognitive connections and dissonance.

As a staff member, I intentionally try to come from a place of patience when I engage with students in a conduct hearing. I recognize that I am in a place of positional privilege and power, and students are creating their meaning-making experiences with university authorities as a reaction to being apprehended by Public Safety, Housing & Residence Life, or the Seattle Police Department. Much of my work involves helping students learn how to be proactive on a personal level, particularly with respect to their individual integrity development. I have found that being direct and using clear, relatable language aids the student towards meaning-making during their conduct experience.

CONCLUSION

As I continue to do this work, I see more and more how SU's student conduct system is in alignment with their institutional mission, as well as with student development theory. However, that is not always the case at other institutions. Furthermore, even on a campus like SU, students still struggle greatly to make connections with these

systems and concepts, and to understand how they exist as a part of the university community. This is a hindrance on a student's development in the college experience. I want students to come away from an encounter with the conduct system knowing that making a bad decision does not make them a bad person. This realization, and the growth that comes from it, is a necessary learning outcome for students to move beyond their conduct hearing and sanctions to experience a deeper level of growth and understanding.

The young man in the integrity development workshop was operating on a deeper cognitive and emotional level than his fellow workshop attendees. His frame of meaning-making showed that he has external resources and the ability to process and articulate the core concepts that I have brought forth throughout this essay. However, this is not the case for all, or even the vast majority of SU students who come into contact with the conduct system. More investment should be made by staff members and faculty at higher education institutions to educate students during the process of meaning-making as community members within the institution's standards and policies. If this is done, I believe we will start to see more students express their meaning-making experiences with the university as an authority in a vastly different manner. If students are provided with a fuller understanding of the conduct process, community standards, and how impactful their actions are, then they will learn to be more critical in their overall decision-making.

REFERENCES

Astin, A. W. (2004). Why spirituality deserves a central place in liberal education. *Liberal Education, 90*(2), 34-41.

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2009). The activity of meaning making: A holistic perspective on college student development. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(6), 621-639.

Chickering, A. & Reisser, L. (1993). Education and identity (2nd ed). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mayhew, M. J. (2012). A multilevel examination of the influence of institutional type on the moral reasoning development of first-year students. *Journal of Higher Education, 83*(3), 367-388.

Nelson, M. (2013, 14 February) Better together club encourages open dialogue between religions. *The Pioneer News.* Retrieved from http://whitmanpioneer.com/news/2013/02/14/better-together-club-encourages-open-dialogue-between-religions/

Perry, W. G., Jr. (1968). Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Seattle University. (2013). *Dean of Students Code of Conduct*. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/deanofstudents/policies/conduct/

Supiano, B. (2010, November 16). How spirituality traits enhance students' lives–and maybe their grades. *Chronicle of Higher Education.*

Lakeisha Jackson, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and serves as Coordinator, Off-Campus Student Life (graduate assistantship) in the Office of Student Development at Seattle University.

Behind Colored Lines: Exploring Gender Identity Development for Queer Students of Color

Cobretti D. Williams, *Seattle University*

While institutions of higher learning are seeking ways to optimize diversity efforts, there is a specific absence in support for students with intersecting identities. For queer students of color, developing in multiple communities, while experiencing internalized oppression, can be a difficult task without proper commitment from colleges and universities. Considering the cultural identities of many queer students of color, socialization, and enforcement of cultural norms can restrict opportunities to enact and acknowledge inclusive gender practices and exploration. In order to learn about the experiences of queer students of color and their exploration of gender identity and expression, a qualitative study was conducted in which five undergraduate, LGBTQ students of color were interviewed at a private, religiously affiliated institution in the United States. The results of these interviews provide implications for research in gender identity development for queer students of color and the practice of inclusive programming and awareness of gender expression among faculty and staff.

Keywords: gender, race, sexuality, identity

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND PURPOSE

In higher education, transparency of students and their experiences are becoming paramount concerns for student affairs administrators—now more than ever, students are expanding boundaries and inviting administrators into their lives and experiences (Levine & Dean, 2012). Unfortunately, a significant gap exists in the research bridging gender identity, gender presentation, and sexual orientation for members of the queer community, not to mention an absence of voices from students of color who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer (LGBTQ). A great amount of research has been conducted on the experiences of Black gay men in college settings (Harper & Harris, 2010; Harris, 2010; Strayhorn & Tillman-Kelly, 2013); however, little research focuses on women and transgender (trans*) students of color in college. And as these identities of gender, race, and sexuality co-exist, we are left with minimal stories and experiences from these students.

Diversity, equity, and inclusion are essential practices that provide focus for higher education institutions to be mindful (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators & American College Personnel Association, 2010; Sandeen & Barr, 2006). While institutions have become increasingly more inclusive regarding gender identities and expression through their policies, other factors such as institutional commitment and initiatives, gender-neutral facilities, representation in the academic curriculum, and campus engagement are all areas of improvement and practices to maintain in order to build inclusive and supportive communities (Blimling & Whitt, 1999; Pope, Reynolds, & Meuller, 2004). When professionals ignore these practices, assumptions are created and stereotypes are enforced.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to understand the academic and social experiences of queer students of

color as it relates to their gender identity development and gender expression. For students with these salient identities, it is necessary to understand their experiences within the classroom as well as outside the classroom, in residential communities, campus involvements, and co-curricular activities. This is important for two reasons—so that we may learn how to better advocate for these students and to enhance our knowledge of social justice within educational systems and structures. Based on existing literature that limits our perspective to male-dominant and masculine-centered perspectives, the intent is to extend research that is available and explore the full spectrum of gender identity beyond gender binaries. This study primarily focuses on the experiences of queer students of color as they begin to explore and make meaning of their race, sexuality, gender, and resulting intersections.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As the initial stages of this study began, it became evident that a sparse amount of written work exists regarding the experiences of queer students of color. When the developmental piece of gender is considered, most of the literature focuses on the experiences of African American men and their journey with masculinity in college. While there are some that explore the topic of feminism, few breach the topic of gender expression for trans* students or engage the discussion of those gender roles that fall along the spectrum of masculine to feminine such as androgynous, genderqueer, or gender non-conforming. Decidedly, this literature review separates the complex identities of queer students of color in hopes of finding emerging themes that speak to what is already known of their experiences and processes.

Socialization Through Communities of Practice

An exasperated theme within the literature suggests that communities of influence continue to inform gender roles and standards for specific gender identities (Strayhorn & Tillman-Kelly, 2013; Wade, 1996; Wilkerson, Brooks, & Ross, 2010). These communities include identified family members, institutions of learning and employment, as well as media outlets. From the time of adolescence through adulthood, social identities are shaped by external factors that are enforced by the time students enter college (Adams, 2000).

In queer communities of color, this phenomenon is extremely prevalent, especially when certain communities of color uphold cultures that traditionally do not allow for students to explore gender beyond established binaries (Davis, 2009). The concepts of childbirth, marriage, language, and internalized racial stereotypes are all areas that have become susceptible to "machismo" and gendered bi-standards. Gender stereotypes are reinforced by the time students enter college; there is already a general belief about the limitations of gender that can lead to discrimination, "gender policing," and for queer students of color, shaming, as both sexual and racial minorities (Kumashiro, 2001).

"Gender-shaming" and "gender policing" are only a handful of instances where students encounter gendered experiences. Without individuals willing to create physical and emotional spaces on campus for identity exploration and expression (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007), students fall into areas of tension

where prejudices are internalized through "performatives," a series of actions that align with gender binaries (Abes & Kasch, 2007). In that way, gender can be a point of conformity. Among individuals with high awareness and previously acquired knowledge, though, gender can be a source of liberation that helps students make meaning of their complex identities through self-authorship (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010).

Self-Authorship in Formation of Gender Expression

When it comes to gender, LGBTQ students generally have the option to either conform to the realities of hetero-normative, gendered spaces or destabilize preconceived conventions, thereby creating fluidity within their gender roles (Abes & Jones, 2004; Davis, 2009). Historically, this is done in a variety of ways including fashion, portrayals of opposite genders, or the various phenomena of "gender-bending" and prolonged "tomboyism" (Halberstam, 1998). Particularly in queer communities of color, this is displayed as a form of resistance against what their cultures have told them are unacceptable behaviors (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007).

In the college environment, these students learn to conceptualize and challenge norms through campus involvement and leadership positions. As student leaders, students learn skills applicable to real-world vocations and become a source of support for fellow members of the LGBTQ community (Renn, 2007). Through a model of community cultural wealth (Yosso, 2005), communities of color can benefit from the accumulation of resistance, navigational, and social capital they distribute among fellow queer students of color.

METHODOLOGY

In order to further analyze this topic, a social constructivist approach was utilized for the present study. This approach was selected for its underpinnings in multiplistic, complex ways of thinking; in other words, participants in the study seek to understand the world in which they live. In that, there is an understanding that social interactions, environmental factors, and historical foundations all connect to make meaning of who they are as a person (Creswell, 2009). Thus, shaping this study in a constructivist manner will allow for proper analysis of open-ended questioning and the ability for participants to authentically communicate and process their own experiences with race, gender, and sexuality.

The site of this study is a private, religious institution in the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. The institution's mission rests on social justice and preparing students to be effective in global, diverse communities. These communities are constantly changing and ever-growing; however, that is not to say that best practices for non-discrimination are being upheld. What is uncovered during the study, while only a small subset of a larger issue at hand, will lend guidance to creating inclusive and just communities on college campuses.

Site Selection

The selected site for this study is categorized as a private institution in the Pacific Northwest. The university is known for its emphasis on diversity and socially conscious initiatives through service-learning and community engagement. The nature of the

institution and demographics of the student population provided a great pilot for the study of gender for queer students of color. Based on statistics retrieved from the university, 59% of students identify as female and 41% identify as male. The identities of those who are transgender or non-gender conforming are not reported in enrollment statistics— alluding to the importance of gender neutrality at this institution. In regards to race and ethnicity, the majority of undergraduate students are White or Caucasian (57.4%). Underrepresented students of color are 48% of the population—a majority of those students are Asian/Pacific Islander (API) and 10% are international students.

Sample Selection and Outreach

Outcomes of this study rely on the intentional recruitment of undergraduate students who can speak to their identities regarding race, gender, and sexuality. The criteria for participants includes that: (a) they must identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, or questioning (LGBTQ); (b) they have to be an undergraduate student of color; and (c) they have to be comfortable with speaking about their gender identity and gender expression. In order to begin recruitment of individuals, contact was made with the university's multicultural services office where a significant number of student leaders and organizations focus on outreach for students of color and LGBTQ-identified students. There are a variety of student organizations and leadership positions that provide education and awareness for students of color, LGBTQ students, and trans* rights.

Participants were selected for this study using a purposeful, snowball-sampling technique among student leaders, providing opportunity to hear experiences rich in information that can be used to explore the issues that undergird this study (Creswell, 2009; Strayhorn & Tillman-Kelly, 2009). In addition to connecting with professional staff members in the multicultural services office, a Facebook page that connects queer students at the university was used as a medium to announce the study. After conducting outreach and screening for the minimum criteria, the first group of seven participants expressed interest in the study.

Data Collection

Once participants indicated interest, they were contacted via email to complete a demographic survey and semi-structured, one-on-one interview. In order to ensure participants were able to fully express their stories and experiences as queer students of color, individual interviews were utilized; moreover, interviews were helpful in extracting responses from participants in a safe, confidential environment (Cooper & Shelby, 2009). Information of the survey was employed, in addition to interviews, in hopes of providing robust detail about participants' experiences as well as probable implications for the findings. The demographic survey was created online through Google Forms and the survey link was sent to participants before the interviews commenced. For verification and added security, all instruments, including recording devices, were peer-reviewed by faculty, staff, and students before disbursement of materials. Initially, seven participants completed the survey, and ultimately, five students went through the interview process. All interviewed participants were undergraduate students of color with four students being second and third-year students. Three were cisgender males and two were cisgender females.

Interviewees selected a pseudonym in order to maintain confidentiality and focus the interview on their narratives and the information provided. Interviews lasted a maximum of 60 minutes with each participant answering 10 open-ended questions. Some of the questions included:

- "What previous experiences in life have informed how you interpret your gender identity and expression?"
- "How have your race and sexual orientation shaped your experiences with regard to gender?"
- "What has influenced your gender identity development as far as race and sexual orientation are concerned?"

Certain questions, probes, and follow-up questions were planned for deeper analysis of race, gender, and sexuality. All sessions were recorded using a computer and tablet device. Once all sessions were over, participants were able to request a copy of their interview transcripts.

Data Analysis

Once interview transcriptions were complete, open and thematic coding processes commenced. All data was read initially, without analysis, to gain better familiarity with the thoughts, emotions, and perspectives of the participants (Cooper & Shelby, 2009). Each transcript was then read to ascertain what was being said in the interview, and major points and comments were usurped. Once all transcripts were read the second time, major topics from each transcript were categorized based on similarity of experience, context, and details. Based on these categories, each transcript was then read again to look at specific quotes and topics that supported the established categories. Finally, themes were written in conjunction with information provided in the demographic surveys to offer key findings.

KEY FINDINGS

Recognizing that various processes were discussed in the interviews, the focus of this paper will be on gender identity and expression. While there were identified words and perspectives that were consistent with the literature, interviews presented a rich array of information that unpacked reasons for campus involvement, meaning-making, and self-authorship that informs awareness and conceptualization of gender for queer students of color. Findings also include significant quotes from interviewed participants that enhance clarity and understanding of experiences and processes. Four prevalent themes emerged that shape the formation of gender identity and gender expression within their college experiences.

Sense of Physical and Emotional Safety

In regards to experiences that have positively shaped their time in college, each participant mentioned feeling "safe" or "free" to express themselves on campus, both physically and emotionally. Two participants named fashion as a way of gender expression and one noted feeling most comfortable doing so only when on campus. And significantly, those that felt most comfortable on campus expressing the fluidity of their gender were masculine, cisgender males. Skyy explicitly states:

When I am not on campus, I try to make myself a lot more neutral in the way I appear so I'm not perceived as flamboyant in any way. Now, when I am commuting downtown or to campus, I know I am a lot safer. I will openly choose whatever I feel

like wearing, no matter what. And I typically will censor myself a lot less on campus.

Oppositely, both men and women who reported feminine and androgynous gender expression relished in the freedom of expression in the college environment. Rain mentioned that college is not like the "real world" and students at this institution have a lot more freedom to be who they are without direct judgment. Rain's ability to resist traditional conventions of gender is a prime example of empowerment commonly that progresses the development of sexuality and gender for students.

Cultural Competency among Faculty

Overwhelmingly, all participants agreed that cultural competency among faculty members is an essential component that is missing in their college experience. In most cases, participants felt that they were more educated in issues of social justice than those teaching about gender, race, and sexuality in the classroom. "It is kind of disappointing when you look to faculty for support and knowledge around these issues only to find out that it is not there. Not even a remote awareness which is kind of sad," said Fiona. Although one participant had overall good experiences in the classroom, they were able to recount the opinions of their friends and classmates, sharing similar identities with regards to race, gender, and sexuality. From this, there is a potential concern that queer students of color are having difficulty connecting or finding value in their classroom experience because they find that faculty are not making efforts to learn and educate themselves.

Obligations of Campus Visibility

In three of the interviews, mentors and professionals on campus, in visible positions of leadership, were designated as helpful for participants when it came to gender expression and identity.

He is a very prominent figure on campus. And when 'Single Ladies' came on this figure did it amazingly—amazing. And I think just seeing that gave the permission for myself and others to not feel like you are confined to one of those poles I was telling you about.

This is a clear indication that students are able to identify peers, organizations, mentors, and stakeholders on campus who support them regardless of gender binaries.

A key sub-theme of this finding in interviews with Starr and Skyy is that by being highly involved and visible on campus, they too are playing a key role in making other queer students of color feel comfortable in their presentation of gender. Based on demographic variables, all interviewed participants hold a variety of leadership positions and are employed at least part-time on campus; having a higher degree of visibility through involvement and employment gives students higher notoriety and influence in the community. Skyy elaborated by saying, "Since I am a visible figure on campus, I take it as an obligation to present myself fully to other students...I can be a role model to other people. I believe that gives oppressed students the permission to begin expressing themselves more fully." Without a doubt, advocacy and visibility of people on campus in high power has given some of these individuals

exceeding confidence in their identity and ability to affect the lives of others.

Absence of Intersectionality

Earlier, it was found that participants felt that this institution provided a safe and comfortable environment. However, participants could not name particular spaces or programs on campus that were specifically for queer students of color, nor did they feel that the available resources were satisfactory. As Rain strongly asserted:

> As far as campus goes, there is not too much of a connection on that. And to be perfectly honest, there is not a lot of space for that intersection to exist. Like, we have Triangle Club and that is great, but it's for a specific type of person. Like, you will go in and it will only be White folks. So, as far as developing those two identities together, and working it out that way, I don't think it has happened too much—especially with race-specific programming.

This is very consistent with the literature where race, gender, and sexuality are put on display. Since minimal amount of research exists to create this space, it has in fact not been developed well enough for students. Allowing for the voices of students with this marginalized identity to come the forefront could be beneficial in planning and implementing services for queer students of color.

Next, a connection will be made to the literature and data findings to discuss the implications of this study. Ultimately, there will be discussion related to the institutional structure of this institution as it relates to queer students of color as well as suggestion for expansion beyond gender equity among queer students of color.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have a variety of meanings for queer students of color at this institution. Incorporating research and best practices among institutions of higher learning, the findings support current research themes related to queer students of color while also bringing new areas for future research to fruition. The implications of this study focus on the current practices of this institution and ways in which faculty and administrators can improve the experiences of queer students of color while in college. In addition, recommendations are offered in areas where research and scholarship can be expanded.

Faculty/Staff Awareness

The findings revealed that queer students of color feel faculty do not have an awareness of issues related to gender equity, as well as sufficient levels of cultural competency. More specifically, these findings describe those who are not engaged in issues of social justice and/or do not identify as LGBTQ or a person of color. As a result, students with both identities do not feel supported in the classroom setting or "safe" in their ability to express gender freely without ignorance, shame, or neglect. For an institution that uses social justice as a framework for how community members live, learn, and work, there seems to be a misalignment with the intention of the university's mission and its investment in diversity.

Campus Facilities and Safety

When it comes to gender identity development, queer students of color indicated feeling most comfortable in safe spaces, both physical and conceptual, where they felt a sense of "mattering," validation, and freedom to explore their identity.

When gender-neutral facilities are absent, there is a pressure to conform and police gender. It is important to note that aside from the multicultural student service office, there were only a handful of spaces on campus where students felt accepted. When it comes to building construction and space allocations, the voices of these students are absent in strategic planning. Such exclusion creates questions about which student populations this institution is mindful of in allocation of resources deemed as "inclusive" or supportive of all college students.

Importance of Race/Ethnicity

Currently, there is a belief that there are not enough programs and events for queer students of color on campus. A possibility exists that during the time of this study, those notions were intensified with recent race-related events regarding the university's newspaper, a campus climate forum, and a diversity task force created by the university president. Additionally, the students who participated in this study are already highly involved in leadership positions and organizations that bring clarity to their gender identity and power to voice this concern as queer students of color. Without a doubt, there is a tension and conflict that exists for students of color who also identify as LGBTQ. Having organizations, discussions, and resources that provide understanding of this intersectionality can support students as they make meaning of their complex identity.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Though the findings of this study confirm important considerations mentioned in the literature review, there is high potential for expansion beyond gender identity and expression for queer students of color. As it stands, other than the stages of development observed during interviews, a model that notes the progressive, multi-dimensional development of queer students of color could be beneficial to understand how intersectionality complicates our perspectives on diversity. Having this resource for future studies could be influential for future research regarding gender, race, sexuality, and intersectional identities. Additionally, the majority of students in this study possess various racial and ethnic identities making the focus on specific cultural traditions and gender stereotypes complicated to uncover. Future focus on what this means for multi-racial students may provide information relevant to understandings of development for multi-racial student populations. Last but not least, the intentions of this study were to speak more to the experiences of women and trans* students of color who identify as LGBTQ. However, there were fewer female and transgender participants than desired. Exploration of gender and sexuality that goes beyond cisgender, male-identified students is another area for expansion in sexuality and gender studies.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this graduate project was to learn more about the academic and social experiences of queer students of color in their gender identity development and how that informs their academic and social experiences in college. Based on what was collected from literature reviews, interviews, and findings, the hope is that we are able to understand the concept and importance of gender identity and expression for queer students of color. Race, gender, and sexuality are all points of discussion throughout many functional areas within higher education; by

delving further into these social identities, faculty and staff will be able to make their campuses more inclusive and socially conscious of the students they serve and support.

REFERENCES

Abes, E. S., & Jones, S. R. (2004). Meaning-making capacity and the dynamics lesbian college students' multiple dimensions of identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, *45*(6), 612-632.

Abes, E. S., & Kasch, D. (2007). Using queer theory to explore lesbian college students' multiple dimensions of identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, *48*(6), 619-636.

Adams, M. (2000). *Readings in diversity and social justice*. San Francisco, CA: Routledge.

Blimling, G. S., & Whitt, E. J. (1999). *Good practice in student affairs: Principles to foster student learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cooper, R. M., & Shelby, M. C. (2009). Organizing and preparing qualitative data. In J. H. Schuh (Ed.), *Assessment methods for student affairs* (pp. 160-170). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Davis, E. C. (2009). Situating fluidity: (Trans) gender identification and the regulation of gender diversity. *A Journal of Gay and Lesbian Studies*, *15*(1), 97-130.

Evans, N., Forney, D., Guido, F., Patton, L., & Renn, K. (2010). *Student development in college* (Vol. 2). San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Halberstam, J. (1998). *Female masculinity*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Harper, S. R., & Harris III, F. (2010). *College men and masculinities: Theory, research, and implications for practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Harris III, F. (2010). College men's meanings of masculinities and contextual influences: Toward a conceptual model. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(3), 297-318.

Kumashiro, K. K. (2001). *Troubling intersections of race and sexuality: Queer students of color and anti-oppressive education*. Lanham, MD: Littlefield Publishers.

Levine, A., & Dean, D. R. (2012). *Generation on a tightrope: A portrait of today's college students*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and American College Personnel Association. (2010). *Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Practitioners*. Retrieved from http://www.naspa.org/images/uploads/main/Professional_Competencies.pdf

Pope, R. L., Reynolds, A. L., & Meuller, J. A. (2004). *Multicultural competence in student affairs*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Renn, K. A. (2007). LGBT student leaders and queer activists: Identities of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer identified college student leaders and activists. *Journal of College Student Development*, *48*(3), 311-330.

Sandeen, A., & Barr, M. J. (2006). *Critical issues for student affairs: Challenges and opportunities*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Strayhorn, T., & Tillman-Kelly, D. (2013). Queering masculinity: Manhood and black gay men in college. *Journal on Black Men, 1*(2), 83-110.

Wade, J. C. (1996). African American men's gender role conflict: The significance of racial identity. *A Journal of Sex Roles*, *34*(1/2), 17-33.

Wilkerson, J. M., Brooks, A. K., & Ross, M. W. (2010). Sociosexual identity development and sexual risk taking of acculturating collegiate gay and bisexual men. *Journal of College Student Development, 51*(3), 279-296.

Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race, Ethnicity, and Education*, *8*(1), 69-91.

Zubernis, L., & Snyder, M. (2007). Considerations of additional stressors and developmental issues for gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender college students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, *22*(1), 75-81.

Cobretti Williams, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program. He serves as a graduate assistant in The Office of Integrity Formation at Seattle University and Community Development Chair for the Seattle University Student Development Association (SUSDA).

Abbeyglen Castle, Clifden, Ireland (2012)—Kassie Chapel

College Access and Success: Transition and Mentorship Programs

Simone-Calais Staley, Lakeisha Jackson,
Victoria Navarro Benavides, and Jasmine Reyes, *Seattle University*

This paper highlights best practices of key transition and mentorship programs from around the nation. Three of the programs examined are facilitated nationally including TRIO, Upward Bound, and GEAR UP. The fourth program, the PUENTE Project, is operated at the state level in California. Each program's history and service model have been examined as well as the best practices and areas of improvement for the program. Throughout this study, student services in addition to social and cultural capital possessed by underrepresented students are emphasized. Professionals across various industries may say that there are too many programs with similar missions and foci. However, this paper and the explanation of four unique programs provide evidence that the subtle differences between these programs make them relevant and valuable to each program's specific population. The movement towards college access equity is the key theme throughout the services offered by the programs highlighted in this paper. College access for underrepresented students remains a core issue in the United States. In order for this issue to be addressed appropriately, underrepresented students need resources and capital to navigate the higher education system. Transition and mentoring programs provide these needed tools.

Keywords: college access, underrepresented students, community, service

Access to higher education has been a growing value of our educational institutions. With the changing demographics of students in institutions of higher education, student success is an equally essential focus for practitioners. Access and retention of students of underrepresented identities, which include low-income, racial and ethnic minorities, and students with disabilities, has been the primary effort of transition and mentorship programs. This paper seeks to explore four different high-profile transition and mentorship programs that function on a large scale. The research is grounded in an approach that places community cultural wealth at the forefront using Yosso (2005) as a theoretical base.

EXPLORING TRANSITION AND MENTORSHIP PROGRAMS

TRIO

Program description. TRIO was established by the United States Congress to help students from disadvantaged backgrounds enter college, graduate, and participate more fully in America's economic and social life. TRIO programs provide outreach and support to low-income, first-generation students, at-risk students, students with disabilities, and students from underrepresented populations. The valuable support and student services aim to accomplish student success and persistence towards graduation. While student financial aid programs help students overcome financial barriers, TRIO programs help students overcome class, social, and cultural barriers to higher education.

Best practices. TRIO programs benefit from a host institution, which can consist of universities and community colleges. These host institutions often house the programs' work and office space, in addition to offering services on-site. TRIO funds are

distributed to institutions through competitive grants awarded by the U.S. Department of Education, and each institution is tasked with running an effective student support program in order to maintain funding.

TRIO serves to motivate and help students accomplish their goals by offering comprehensive support, including programs focusing on:

- bridge programs;
- first-year experience;
- intrusive advising;
- learning communities; and
- supplemental instruction.

While recognizing the diversity of students with varying backgrounds, levels of preparation, and student experiences in varying structures, the programs suggested above can become effective in increasing the academic performance and retention rates of students. Specifically, TRIO programs such as Talent Search, Upward Bound, and Student Support Services help students prepare and access higher education; these programs are described as best practices in the field because of their success. According to the Council for Opportunity in Education (2013), students in the Upward Bound program are four times more likely to earn an undergraduate degree than those students from similar backgrounds who did not participate in TRIO. Students in the TRIO Student Support Services program are more than twice as likely to remain in college than those students from similar backgrounds who did not participate in the program (Council of Opportunity in Education, 2013).

TRIO in action: Washington state. Site visits to Highline Community College and Yakima Valley Community College clearly outlined that these local Washington state institutions are offering complementary academic student services such as tutoring, assistance with education plans, personal and career counseling, visits to universities, book loans, events, and scholarship opportunities. All these efforts exist to create an environment where students are more likely to achieve their educational goals. As TRIO participants, students are eligible to stay in the program until graduation and/or they transfer to another college. Both institutions encourage student accountability as well as promote the balance between dependence and independence while navigating the higher education experience. This accountability is often supported by a mentor within the TRIO program who may be a counselor or advisor at the institution. The state designates expectations and agreement terms on what active TRIO student involvement looks like, and encouraging a student's commitment to the TRIO program is a vital part to a student's success in fulfilling their own educational goals and the goals of the program.

Areas of improvement. Students of a variety of backgrounds benefit from TRIO offerings including: student leaders, students unsure of their potential, students returning to school after time away, recent high school graduates, adults with their GED, students with disabilities, students with family responsibilities, and students with limited income. TRIO motivates participants to achieve their academic goals. However, TRIO programs exist only where local organizations see the need for such services and are eligible for the federal grant.

Areas of improvement include more visibility and program outreach in terms of recruiting TRIO

participants. For example, Yakima Valley Community College (YVCC)'s TRIO website does not have an attractive nor enticing appeal for students to understand or take an interest in the free services offered. During a visit to YVCC, the TRIO staff reported concern about TRIO grants not being funded in the future due to federal spending cuts. Examples were given of instances where students were turned away from TRIO services because of financial limitations. If programming and participation is a determinant of future funding, then a vicious cycle is created where students are forgotten or left worried, thinking, "Am I going to be the student left behind?" Federal cuts can lead to state cuts, which could mean less financial aid and fewer classes preparing students for their future goals. Institutions must be prepared for budget cuts, no matter how big or small, with the understanding that it can affect students and services. In an effort to become an effective college preparation program, TRIO programs must utilize a creative, multifaceted approach to serving their students and their needs given the resources readily available.

Upward Bound

The Upward Bound (UB) program was founded as a result of the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act and the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 as part of the TRIO initiative. Upward Bound has been refunded through nine reauthorizations of HEA, most recently in 2008. It is one of 12 TRIO grant programs, designed to focus on mentorship and transition for high school youth. It has an annual budget of $250 million, which averages an investment of approximately $4,500 for each participant receiving its services. Each site that receives an Upward Bound grant receives roughly $250,000 and is required to provide UB services and assessment (The Pell Institute, 2013).

Program description. UB targets youth grades 9-12 (ages 13-19) who have experienced low academic achievement, are low-income, and are potentially first-generation college students. This program's aim has always been to help students prepare for higher education through academic tutoring, counseling, and cultural enrichment programs. UB provides instruction that prepares students for college-entry examinations and the admissions process. Students participate in weekly meetings and tutoring during the academic year and a five- to eight-week summer residency program at a postsecondary institution. (U.S. Department of Education, 2004)

Best practices. Upward Bound, as a federally funded TRIO program, is measured and assessed through student GPA, ACT scores, attendance, retention, and graduation from higher education institutions (Myers, Olsen, Seftor, Young, & Tuttle, 2004). Many of these studies focus on demographic and quantitative data collection. Research results praise the summer intensive program that works with a partnering institution of higher education, as well as the tutoring programs for students (Myers et al., 2004). Weekly meetings and immersion programs help to keep students on track for success.

There are also small assessments that focus on the programmatic and qualitative results of this program. These are less explored but carry a lot of weight that may escape the large-scale results of this program. Financial literacy, in terms of students applying for financial aid compared to non-UB students of similar demographics, is increased by 15% through UB

(McElroy & Armesto, 1998). Peer tutoring and community building in Upward Bound programs also create stronger motivation and accountability with students similar to professional mentorship (McLure & Child, 1998). This further supports the need for these institutional programs to work as a unique community.

More relevant to the conversation of aspirational wealth are results about "Highest Level of Education Expected" as self-reported by Upward Bound participants. Forty percent as opposed to 30% of non-UB students of similar demographics responded with an aspiration to earn a professional degree beyond a four-year bachelor's (McElroy & Armesto, 1998). This demonstrates there is a higher level of degree and education aspiration among students in the Upward Bound program who are transitioning into institutions of higher education after success in high school.

Areas of improvement. Upward Bound can improve systemically by continuing and increasing support of marginalized racial and ethnic communities who struggle to maintain high aspirations and sufficient financial and educational literacy to succeed in the higher education system. In terms of communities served through UB, the total degree-granting institutions serving undergraduates, about 3% (99 institutions) were Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), 6% (215) were Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs), and 1% (29) were Tribal Institutions (McElroy & Armesto, 1998). There already exists a cultural enrichment component to Upward Bound, but a more intentional approach to build critical thinking and cultural

wealth (Yosso, 2005) can shift this program's practices to empower more communities.

GEAR UP

Program description. In 1998, the Clinton administration enacted Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (GEAR UP). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2013), "this discretionary grant program is designed to increase the number of low-income students who are prepared to enter and succeed in postsecondary education." GEAR UP is rooted in collaboration between the federal government and state actors. Grants are awarded to partner school districts, colleges, and state agencies that promote the mission and purpose of the grant program (Standing, Judkins, Keller, & Westat, 2008). GEAR UP focuses on providing services for students starting in the seventh grade through high school completion and into the student's postsecondary educational path.

Best practices. GEAR UP seeks to engage students in a holistic manner by including the students' families, schools, and communities (American College Test [ACT], 2007). The GEAR UP model makes all of the aforementioned stakeholders partners in the student's educational journey. Students are challenged to earn competitive grades, thereby exemplifying the rigor of their course curriculum (Standing et al., 2008). Additionally, students are expected to show up on time and be present at school and GEAR UP events and meetings. This creates a stronger work ethic for students as they transition from high school to the rigor of college. The involvement of families is a significant factor for students in GEAR UP. This creates an element of accountability between the student and their support

system at home. Schools are expected to have consistency across teachers and staff to raise standards in the classroom (Yampolskaya, Massey, & Greenbaum, 2006). The key purpose of partnership in GEAR UP is collaboration and filling gaps in services (Standing et al., 2008). The GEAR UP service model has been producing notable and documented results for the past 15 years despite varied funding dependent on presidential administration and agenda. The heart and purpose of GEAR UP has remained strong and consistent—impacting the lives of low-income students and their access to higher education.

Intentional Service Offerings.

Variety is welcomed. One aspect of GEAR UP's programming that is notable, but not always promoted, is its variety of offerings by site:

> The services vary by school; some examples include tutoring and mentoring, programs to increase awareness of college admissions processes, programs to inform students about collegiate curriculums and relevant high school coursework, summer learning programs, and courses for parents to improve their improvement and help with student planning. (ACT, 2007, p. 2)

Some may assess this as an inconsistency in services, which, in theory, is counterproductive to assuring that all students are receiving the same services offered through GEAR UP. However, it is important to realize the needs of students vary by their individual background, the geographical region they live in, and the school they attend. Offering a variety of programs based on individual school or service site is essential to addressing issues of equity verses having equality across GEAR UP programs.

Ending the cycle of poverty. Given the state of the economy and the widening economic gap, it is important to have more educated people from diverse identities and backgrounds. This is crucial because key decisions are made at high levels and diverse opinions will not be considered if those voices are not at the decision-making table. GEAR UP intentionally looks at the social issues surrounding socioeconomic status and racial inequalities in education (Standing et al., 2008). A notable change in the service offering in GEAR UP happened in 2001 during the Bush administration. The funding process moved from an annual funding model to a multi-year grant ("Proposed Cuts," 2001). This is important in serving diverse and underserved students because it allows for students to have reliable mentors and resources over a significant, formative span of time that the student can grow with and depend on.

Areas of improvement. Many practitioners and researchers (Standing et al., 2008; Ward, 2006; Yampolskaya at al., 2006) have stated that GEAR UP and other college-access programs, such as those aforementioned, have similar missions, served populations, and outcomes. Henceforth, many suggest that some of the programs and organizations can and should be merged to reach more students. However, continued intentional individual programming that focuses on specific populations and provides key services that help close the opportunity gap is critical. Blimling and Whitt (1999) stated, "Student-centeredness is reflected in activities and curricular offerings designed to be relevant to students' interests and backgrounds, systems and procedures that provide convenience and flexibility" (pp. 172-173). Programs such as GEAR UP specialize

in aiding specific student populations with the transition to higher education, allowing for student-centeredness. GEAR UP must be intentional about connecting program outcomes to funding, program objectives, assessment, and overall societal impact. Strong assessment data and testimonials for each individually funded GEAR UP program are essential to making a case for the necessity and sustainability of GEAR UP.

The PUENTE Project

Program description. The PUENTE Project's mission reveals an innate commitment to underrepresented students in the following ways: increasing the enrollment of these students in four-year universities, helping them complete their bachelor's degrees, and encouraging them to return to their communities as educated leaders and mentors. Historically, PUENTE programs aimed to welcome first-generation students of color, primarily Latino students, into an educational organization that affirmed their identities and built upon their cultural assets (Laden, 1999). This project operates in 61 community colleges and 34 high schools across California. Each individual site of PUENTE is considered a unique program. At the community college level, PUENTE serves as an academic and personal mentoring program to help students successfully transition to four-year universities. PUENTE programs function in a different manner in high schools. There the program serves as a college preparatory opportunity. No matter the location, PUENTE's threefold program offers support to students with mentoring and community development, writing, and counseling. Invested in sending prepared students to four-year universities,

PUENTE has been noted for multiple best practices by the Center for Educational Partnerships (Center for Educational Partnerships, n.d.; The PUENTE Project, 2012).

Best practices. One of the most respected best practices associated with the PUENTE project is its innovative approach to creating a supportive campus family and/or community that is committed to the success of underserved and underrepresented college students (Duffy, 2005). This "family" consists of a trained team of English instructors, academic counselors, and community mentors. PUENTE provides a wraparound approach by supporting students in succeeding academically, exploring their identity development, learning new ways to navigate higher education systems, and building professional relationships with faculty, peers, and staff. A positive aspect of this approach is that PUENTE operates with the understanding of the significance of cohesion and strategy. Course materials, counseling models, and mentorship goals are developed with students' cultures and home environments in mind (Center for Educational Partnerships, n.d.; The PUENTE Project, 2012). The students are encouraged to bring all their identities to PUENTE. Their experiences as underrepresented students are at the forefront of the threefold approach.

Areas of improvement. An area of improvement for the PUENTE project would be to intentionally communicate its shift from being a Latino-centered program to a project that focuses on supporting first-generation and underrepresented students in their college pathway. The PUENTE website and outreach materials articulate this shift, but more emphasis can be placed on explaining why

this shift occurred (The PUENTE Project, 2012). More thorough explanation may allow for students, mentors, community members, and faculty connected to PUENTE to understand the significance of coalition building across race, class, and nationality.

CONCLUSION

Through this review of transition and mentorship programs in higher education, we see that educational literacy and aspirational wealth are qualities that positively impact underrepresented students gaining access and success in higher education. Each program was outlined through a lens of community cultural wealth in the ways they empower students and encourage accountability and success through community. Aspirational wealth has been the strand that holds many of these programs together. Students of underrepresented identities thrive when they have the ability to believe they can access and succeed in higher education. When students are able to maintain their hopes and dreams, real and perceived barriers to education can be challenged more readily (Yosso, 2005). These four programs have collected strong data on student success and exhibit robust best practices that have been utilized over time. Empowering all people to access and succeed in higher education is a personal, communal, and systemic issue that our education system needs to address. These transition and mentorship programs have begun this battle, and it is crucial that we, as educators, continue to help all students and communities succeed in privileged institutions.

REFERENCES

American College Test. (2007). Case study: Using EPAS to evaluate school-based intervention programs: GEAR UP. Retrieved from http://www.act.org/research/policymakers/pdf/gearup_study.pdf

Blimling, G. S., & Whitt, E. J. (1999). *Good practice in student affairs: Principles to foster student learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Center for Educational Partnerships, UC Berkeley. (n.d.). *History*. Retrieved from http://www.puente.net/history.html

Council for Opportunity in Education. (2013). *TRIO success rate facts*. Retrieved from http://www.coenet.us

Duffy, H. M. (2005). ¡Se puede! Preparing teachers to build. *The English Journal, 95*(2), 71-76. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/

Laden, B. V. (1999). Socializing and mentoring college students of color: The Puente Project as an exemplary celebratory socialization model. *Journal of Education, 74*(2), 55-74. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/

McElroy, E. J., & Armesto, M. (1998). TRIO and Upward Bound: History, programs, and issues–Past, present, and future. *Journal of Negro Education*, *67*(4), 373-380.

McLure, G. T., & Child, R. L. (1998). Upward Bound students compared to other college-bound students: Profiles of nonacademic. *Journal of Negro Education*, *67*(4), 346-363.

Myers, D., Olsen, R., Seftor, N., Young, J., & Tuttle, C. (2004). *The impacts of regular Upward Bound: Results from the third follow-up data collection* (Doc# 2004-13). Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education Office of the Under Secretary website: http://www.nassgap.org/library/docs/upward-3rd-report.pdf

The Pell Institute. (2013). National studies find TRIO programs effective at increasing college enrollment and graduation. *For the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education*. Retrieved from www.pellinstitute.org

Proposed cuts endanger GEAR UP program. (2001, October 5). *Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com

PUENTE Project. (2012). *PUENTE a national model of student success 30th Anniversary* [Brochure]. Retrieved from http://www.puente.net/files/puente_brochure_ 2012.pdf

Standing, K., Judkins, D., Keller, B., & Westat, A.S. (2008). *Early outcomes of the GEAR UP program: Final report*. Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development, Policy and Program Studies Service website: https://dst.sp.maricopa.edu

U.S. Department of Education. (2004) *A profile of the Upward Bound program: 2000–2001*. Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education Office of Postsecondary Education Federal TRIO Programs website: http://www2.ed.gov/programs/trioupbound/index.html

U.S. Department of Education, Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (GEAR UP). (2013). *Purpose, program description, types of projects*. Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/programs/gearup/index.html

Ward, N. L. (2006). Improving equity and access for low-income youth into institutions of higher education. *Urban Education, 41*(1), 50-70.

Yampolskaya, S., Massey, O. T., & Greenbaum, P. E. (2006). At-risk high school students in the "Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness Program" (GEAR UP): Academic and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 27*(5), 457-476.

Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 8*(1), 69-91.

Lakeisha Jackson, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and serves as Coordinator, Off-Campus Student Life (graduate assistantship) in the Office of Student Development at Seattle University.

Victoria Navarro Benavides attends Seattle University and is completing her Master of Arts degree in Student Development Administration in 2014. After her time in Seattle, she will be pursuing a doctoral degree at the University of Arizona in fall of 2014.

Simone-Calais Staley, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration Program (M.Ed) and works as a graduate assistant with Housing and Residence Life.

Jasmine Reyes is a graduate student in Seattle University's Student Development Administration Program and serves as an Associate Director of Admission at Forest Ridge School of the Sacred Heart.

New Directions for Alcohol Interventions as Sanctions

Brendon M. Soltis, *Seattle University*

This study examines the efficacy of TRAC 1, alcohol educational session. The results will determine if the class stimulates behavior change and will provide implications to modify the program model. The participants (n=24) have been found responsible for an alcohol policy violation and as a result attended an alcohol class in the past academic year. The data analysis grouped survey questions into clustered themes: behavior change, knowledge retention, and the conduct process experience. Within each theme, demographic variables were used as lenses to hone in on certain population experiences as well as address issues of diversity, equity, and social justice. Results indicated that an educational session and knowledge retention alone does not guarantee participants will change behavior. Furthermore, the student experience within the conduct system varied, especially among first-year students. Contrary to the literature, social identities did not make a significant impact on knowledge retention, behavior change, or the experience in the conduct process. More research needs to be implemented to better understand the student experience in the alcohol class and the conduct process at Seattle University.

Keywords: *alcohol use, alcohol sanction, alcohol intervention, student conduct, behavior change*

Despite the best efforts of higher education institutions, alcohol policies and sanctions fall short in deterring high-risk alcohol consumption behaviors (Wechsler, Lee, Nelson, & Kuo, 2002). Furthermore, many alcohol sanctions (including educational sessions, reflection papers, and fines) show no concrete evidence that they lead to changing high-risk behavior. In fact, from a student perspective, institutions mostly utilize sanctions that could be classified as an ineffective and poor allocation of institutional resources (Gehring, Lowery, & Palmer, 2012). Many attempts have been made to create innovative programs (Carey, Carey, Maisto, & Henson, 2009; Carey & DeMartini, 2010; Freeman, 2001; LaBrie, Cail, Pederson, & Migliuri, 2011a; LaBrie, Thompson, Huchting, Lac, & Buckley, 2007; Marlatt & Parks, 2005; Oswalt, Shutt, English, & Little, 2007; Thombs et al., 2007), and they include promising best practices. Unfortunately, many of the studies also show conflicting results.

The initial research question used to frame this study was: How effective is Seattle University's TRAC 1 educational class in stimulating behavior change in students who violated alcohol policy? After synthesizing the literature, a secondary research question emerged: How do students experience the conduct system and how does that experience impact their behavior change?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Four themes emerged from the literature regarding alcohol sanctions: motivational interviewing, behavior change, social norming, and the role of student development.

Motivational Interview

Lewis and Thombs (2005) found that fear of consequences have little effect on alcohol consumption behavior until after a student is already sanctioned, showing that students do not

fully understand the consequences. Additionally, Gehring et al. (2012) found that an educational component alone does not deter negative behavior. To create a more holistic sanction that moves beyond utilizing the fear of consequences and educational sessions, motivational interviewing (MI) has been integrated into many alcohol interventions.

Miller and Rollnick (2013) defined MI as "a constructive way through the challenges that often arise when a helper ventures into someone else's motivation to change…MI is about arranging conversations so that people talk themselves into change, based on their own values" (p. 4). Carey et al. (2009), and Carey and DeMartini (2010) used brief motivational interventions (BMI), which utilized MI techniques and resulted in promising behavior change at the one-month follow-up. Another program developed by Marlatt and Parks (2005) uses a combination of MI and reflective journaling to provide an experiential learning process for those who were sanctioned. LaBrie et al. (2007) and LaBrie et al. (2011a) incorporated MI in a group setting and found that individuals who believed they were in a safe space were able to engage in dialogue about various issues including reasons for drinking, social roles, and the negative consequences of drinking.

Although there are many valuable implications from these programs about the use of MI techniques, different studies report differing results. Carey et al. (2009), Carey and DeMartini (2010), LaBrie et al. (2007), LaBrie et al. (2011a), and Murphy et al. (2012) found immediate behavior change after a MI intervention; however, results

concerning longitudinal behavior change and knowledge retention remains conflicted. A few studies found that behavior change persisted at a 12-month follow-up, but the majority found that students reverted to their previous high-risk drinking habits (Carey et al., 2009; Murphy et al., 2012).

Behavior Change

The primary goal of alcohol sanctions is to change behavior or reduce harm when it comes to alcohol consumption choices. Carey et al. (2009), in a study comparing and contrasting in-person versus computer interventions, found significant behavior change at the one-month follow-up for the in-person intervention alone, pointing to the need for in-person sessions. Similar to other studies, at the 12-month follow-up, all groups regressed to their previous high-risk drinking behaviors. In an innovative educational sanction program, Freeman (2001) found that behavior change is most effective when the program uses peer educators, as well as professionals, to co-facilitate the intervention. However, the study failed to collect data over multiple interventions or through longitudinal post-assessments. Synthesizing motivational interviewing with behavior change, Murphy et al. (2012) designed a program to focus on delayed outcomes and goals instead of the instant "benefits" of alcohol use. For example, the researchers gave participants prompts such as, "I consider how things might be in the future and try to influence those things with my day to day behavior," (Murphy et al., 2012, p. 879) to determine their individual consideration of future consequences. The results varied across all of the studies and gave

implications that certain interventions are suited for specific populations.

Similar to Murphy et al. (2012), there have been numerous studies that focused on or discovered different reactions from different populations of students. Although unintended, Gehring et al. (2012) found that the incident, infraction, and consequences had a greater psychological effect on behavior change with women rather than men. Carey and DeMartini (2010) looked at mandated alcohol interventions using gender and family history as context for behavior change. Although the results showed family history had little indication of reaction to the intervention, there was ample evidence pointing towards effectiveness of an intervention based on gender identity. LaBrie et al. (2007) and LaBrie et al. (2011a) designed two separate group motivational interventions and divided the groups by gender. The results indicated that interventions targeted at specific populations increased positive behavior change and provided evidence that more research needs to be done on interventions focused on other identities besides gender. From a social justice and equity lens, this is problematic. As LaBrie (2007) discovered, the conduct process might be underserving men by not having specific interventions targeting that population. Since males make up the majority of the sanctioned population, there needs to be a closer look on how to effectively approach working with men on sanctions. In future studies, the identities of the facilitator and other participants need to be taken into consideration when determining the effectiveness of an intervention.

LaBrie, Atkins, Neighbors, Mirza, and Larimer (2012) and Skidmore, Muphy, Martens, and Dennhardt (2012) took an in-depth look at how race and ethnicity affects high-risk drinking in college. Results indicated that students of color drink at a lower rate than their White counterparts and therefore, suffer less of the consequences and problems related to heavy drinking. A study of Latina/o students and their perceptions of alcohol norms showed that students are only affected by perceived norms of their peer group (LaBrie et al., 2011b; LaBrie et al., 2007). The authors asserted from the results that students who identified with a community of color would not mimic the perceived norms of a Predominantly White Institution (PWI). More research needs to be done at institutional types where the demographics are drastically different than PWIs, such as Historically Black Colleges and Universities, Hispanic Serving Institutions, and Asian American Pacific Islander Serving Institutions (Skidmore et al., 2012).

Finally, there is a clear difference between behavior change as a conscious decision for a healthier lifestyle and behavior change as a way to avoid consequences violating policies. Gehring et al. (2012) found that close to 80% of their participants responded that disciplinary sanctions have made them more cautious drinkers and only 40% responded sanctions deterred behavior that violates institutional policy. Cooper and Schwartz (2007) looked at alcohol violations through a moral development lens to try and pinpoint reasons why students knowingly violated policies. The study confirmed that those who violated policies made decisions based on a lower level of moral thinking

while they perceived themselves at a higher level of maturity. This conflict resulted in poor choices because the student saw themselves between the restrictions of a child and the responsibility of an adult. The middle ground came with a sense of entitlement without consequences. The findings were also consistent with the correlation of years of education and level of moral thinking. Aligning with moral development stages, Gehring et al. (2012) found that over 25% of students sanctioned for alcohol violations did not feel responsible for the violation.

Social Norming

Social norming has been a widely disputed technique to change high-risk alcohol behaviors (Berkley-Patton, Prosser, McCluskey-Fawcett, & Towns, 2003; Crawford & Novak, 2010; Henslee & Correia, 2009). The basic premise of social norming theory is to provide actual data about alcohol consumption on campus. By doing so, it corrects the perception of students who usually overestimate alcohol consumption among their peers and thus, starts to change behavior (Berkley-Patton et al., 2003; Crawford & Novak, 2010; Lewis & Thombs, 2005; Stamper, Smith, Gant, & Bogle, 2004; Thombs et al., 2007). Large social norming campaigns have been created in partnership with community stakeholders and showed promising results of positive behavior change (Linowski & DiFulvio, 2012), but it should be noted that population level climate change happens very slowly.

Many studies have used personalized normative feedback (PNF), a more tailored approach to social norming. Instead of simply providing general statistics about drinking, a participant is provided individualized feedback on their drinking in comparison to campus norms. In a comparison study by Lewis, Neighbors, Oster-Aaland, Kirkeby, & Larimer (2007), it was found that personalized feedback in addition to a general social norming component helped with behavior change. In contrast, Henslee and Correia (2009) found that their course-based personalized feedback intervention changed perceived norms but did not change behavior. Similarly, Crawford and Novak (2010) found the changing perceived norms of campus drinking did little to change drinking behaviors of an individual. Rather, behavior change came when an individual held accurate perceptions of the habits of their close peers and held personal values of safe drinking. Lewis and Thombs (2005) also found changing peer perceived norms have a greater impact on drinking habits than "typical student" statistics. Finally, an innovative program provided personalized blood alcohol content (BAC) feedback nightly to individuals in a residence hall (Thombs et al., 2007). The study concluded that there was no significant difference in behavior change between the residence hall receiving the feedback and the control residence hall. This could have been due to the amount of participants each night (both drinkers and non-drinkers), the misperception of BAC, or the context of gender roles and drinking.

Role of Student Development

Most of the literature deals with the psychological techniques of changing alcohol behaviors: motivational interviewing, personalized feedback, and social norming. For a student

development department the question arises: What are the roles of student affairs professionals in the alcohol sanctioning process? Four main functional areas tend to deal with the judicial process: student conduct, residential life, counseling services, and health promotions. Freeman (2001) cautioned against using counselors in the sanction process because it might deter use of the counseling center as a whole. Instead, the research indicated that an office focused on health promotion should take the role when leading educational sessions as sanctions.

Conversely, Birky (2005) argued that there is great value in training college counselors to lead interventions for heavy alcohol users. The research came from a critical clinical perspective, arguing in favor of treatment programs. However, Birky (2005) realized that many of the students in treatment or intervention programs are not mandated for treatment, but rather, went through a conduct process. At the end of the chapter, Birky (2005) remains conflicted in the role of the counseling center in alcohol interventions on campus but advocates for professional training.

Since student development professionals are responsible for the positive development of college students outside of the classroom, Cooper and Schwartz (2007) made a strong argument for moral development within the conduct and intervention process. A conduct system must realize that students who knowingly violate policies are in a developmental process and transition. The conduct process should not only be a disciplinary process but also function as a holistic development opportunity to challenge students to think with a higher level of moral, intellectual, and psychological development (Cooper & Schwartz, 2007).

Promising Practices

There are many best practices in the collegiate conduct system and alcohol risk-reduction campaigns. An integrated best practice utilized at a large public institution was a coalition between the college and the community. The coalition was charged with creating an action plan to implement an ongoing, long-term alcohol reduction program on campus. Linowski and DiFulvio (2012) found that both campus and community level changes four years into the program. The coalition used a myriad of strategies including social norming, policy changes, and heavy enforcement of those polices.

Another small liberal arts college in upstate New York developed a component of their social norming campaign that utilized digital signage in high traffic areas around campus (Van Lone, 2013). Unlike paper signage, digital media allowed the content to stay current and reflect student body polls. Furthermore, they included quizzes that students completed and turned them in to be entered in a raffle. Approximately 150 students turned in quizzes per week and the results indicated that the digital signage reduced high-risk alcohol behaviors (Van Lone, 2013).

Finally, a strategy used to lower high-risk drinking is to address it in relationship to athletic games ("Reducing High-Risk Drinking," 2012). To achieve this, institutions have not only educated the student body about alcohol policy, but they have provided alcohol-free alternative social events before games.

Seattle University

Seattle University uses a program called TRAC 1 (Teaching Responsible Alcohol Choices) based off of CHOICES (Cultivating Healthy Opportunities In College Environments) About Alcohol educational sessions (Marlatt & Parks, 2005) as the primary sanction for first-time alcohol policy violation. It combines multiple psychological best practices mentioned in the literature including motivational interviewing, personalized feedback, social norming, and educational content. A wellness promotion professional facilitates this two-hour workshop with first time violators of the alcohol policy. Most interventions only include one or two of these techniques; the effectiveness of a program combining all of the best practices is yet to be discovered.

Due to Seattle University's unique Jesuit Catholic institutional identity, the mission is centered on social justice and holistic education. Therefore, the conduct process is unique and does not define students by their violation; the integrity officers try to go above and beyond to build relationships with the student and discover the root issue of the violation.

The main inconsistency in the literature about alcohol sanctions is the ability for knowledge retention and behavior change strategies to lower high-risk drinking. Ultimately, this brings up the question: Is it even worth investing time and money to hold these interventions? It is crucial to evaluate the two main objectives of an alcohol intervention—knowledge retention and behavior change—as well as to gain a student voice perspective on the sanction process (Gehring & Lowery, 2012).

Alcohol interventions mostly derive from a psychological lens, trying to encourage behavior change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). Even so, there is an important place for student development professionals to assist in the conduct process and reduce high-risk drinking. It is known that students who are involved on campus are most likely to persist through until graduation without violating policies placing them in the student conduct pipeline (Astin, 1999). However, professionals do need to work with students who are traditionally labeled as "fallen through the cracks." The institution can engage students to decrease high-risk decisions by using a moral development model when framing their work (Cooper & Schwartz, 2005). Functional areas that can help assist in these efforts include Housing & Residence Life, Integrity Formation, Wellness and Health Promotion, and other leadership departments. The health trends at Seattle University suggest that the amount of high-risk drinking has decreased from 2011 to 2013 on average; however, students are drinking more frequently (American College Health Association, 2011, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

To assess the experience of students in Seattle University's alcohol educational sanctions, a quantitative design was used to explore the impact of the TRAC 1 curriculum on behavior change, knowledge retention, and student development. A survey was most appropriate as a form of data collection to reach a wide number of students and gain comparable data to the pre- and post-tests the students took in the class. The survey was created and distributed online utilizing Student Voice, a

company to aid institutions to collect survey data (Creswell, 2009; Sue & Ritter, 2007). The cost benefit and efficiency of an online survey and collection tool emerged as the clear strengths. See Appendix A for the full instrument.

The sample population was undergraduate students that violated an alcohol policy resulting in their attendance to TRAC I class for the 2012-13 academic year. Since there were records of which students participated in TRAC I, this study used a single-stage criterion sampling procedure. Furthermore, the number of students who fit the criteria was fairly low; consequently, all students who fit the criteria were contacted to participate in the study to ensure there was a large enough response.

Eight-four students were contacted about the study; 25 students participated in the study, and 24 surveys were included in the analysis (28.6% response rate). Participants identified by gender in the following ways: 55.0% of participants as a woman, 40.0% as a man; 5.0% as transgender; identification by race included 51.7% White, 10.3% as Asian/Asian American, 6.9% as Biracial/Multiracial, 3.5% as Latina/o, 3.5% as Middle Eastern. Ninety percent identified as heterosexual. Forty-five percent disclosed a family history of alcohol dependency or abuse; 65.0% were first-year students, 20.0% were sophomores, 15.0% were juniors; 95.0% lived on-campus; and 95.0% were under the age of 21 at the time of their violation.

RESULTS

The data analysis was conducted through level one and level two analyses of cluster questions. The survey was designed in four distinct sections to facilitate the cluster of questions into themes: the conduct process, behavior change, knowledge retention, and demographic data. Level two analyses will provide access to specific trends within distinct populations. The following results focus on behavior change in relation to family history of alcohol abuse and gender.

At the time of the incident, almost 40% of participants self-disclosed that they were binge drinkers (four or more drinks in one sitting for females and five or more drinks in one sitting for males). Only 19.0% of participants self-disclosed that they were binge drinkers at the time of this study (see Table 1). Furthermore, 63.6% of participants tried new risk-lowering strategies that they learned in TRAC 1 class and 40.9% made a drastic change to their drinking habits after the sanction. Strategies that students utilized included keeping track of standard drinks consumed, drinking in a safe environment, and drinking less. Some of these students also shared information from the TRAC 1 class to their friends and peers (see Table 2).

Those with a family history of alcohol abuse were more likely to be classified as a binge drinker at the time of the incident (28.6%); however, after the sanction, there was no difference between students with family history and the rest of the sample (9.5% for both groups). Contrary to the literature, men, regardless of family history of alcohol abuse, seem to be more apt to change behavior than women after the TRAC 1 class (Carey & DeMartini, 2010). Women without a family history of alcohol abuse were less likely to change

their behavior or try new strategies they learned in the TRAC 1 class. Moreover, that population did not have awareness that their behavior was harmful to their health and safety (see Tables 3.1-3.4).

An important data point needs to be looked at before making any conclusions and implications from the survey: Is the behavior change a result of the new knowledge the students possess or is it because the students do not want to get caught again for a violation? A question was asked on the survey to determine whether or not participants changed their behavior due to the sanction (TRAC 1) or due to the conduct process. 90.1% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they made changes not to get caught again (see Tables 3.1-3.4). One student even shared in an open-ended response about the changes they made when drinking alcohol: "don't be noisy in the dorms." This illustrates one student who made a behavior change to prevent getting caught for a violation rather than changing their drinking habits.

LIMITATIONS

Although the implications from this study can be used to inform TRAC 1 moving forward, there are quite a number of limitations to take into consideration. First, the number of participants and the selection method used immensely impacts the generalizability of the study both inside and outside of the institution. It is evident the results should only be discussed in the context of Seattle University, but also due to the low number of participants (n=24), professionals should be cautious of generalizing these results to different students in the conduct pipeline. For example, a student written up for having alcohol paraphernalia

in the residence halls may experience the intervention differently than one who was written up for drinking on campus.

Second, the instrument used was made by the researcher in consultation with professionals within the institution (see Appendix A). This instrument was not tested for reliability or validity before use. Another study using a reliable and valid instrument will yield more robust results. Third, the participants were enrolled in TRAC 1 at different times throughout the school year. This impacts the results because participants may have retained more knowledge at a one-month follow-up than a six-month follow-up. Furthermore, the literature points towards regression of behavior change over time (LaBrie et al., 2007; LaBrie et al., 2011b). A study collecting longitudinal data on behavior change would help in accurately assessing the success of TRAC 1. The different sessions also could indicate a disparity in the deliverance of the intervention. Although the same professional facilitated the interventions, the make-up of the class and the delivery of content could have affected the results.

Finally, the data analysis showed no statistical significance. The clustering method was implemented based off of thematic coding strategies used in qualitative studies to gain an insight on student experience through qualitative data. A future study using a concrete statistical analysis to determine correlations and significance would further enhance the institution's knowledge of the effectiveness of the TRAC 1 sanction.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAC 1 APPROACHES

The implications suggest that TRAC 1 needs to move away from knowledge retention assessment and more towards behavior and attitudinal change assessment. Very little to no change should incur until the longitudinal assessment is in place for two reasons. First, this study did not collect enough data to recommend change that will meet the need of the student population. Second, this will give the staff ample time to analyze the data in future survey results to make informed changes.

Although the professional staff should be cautious until more data is available on the TRAC 1 class, the implications from this study can be used to frame the direction alcohol sanctions are moving towards and to make simple changes. First, both the Seattle University Health and Wellness Crew (HAWC) and Integrity Board (I-Board) should go through the TRAC 1 class. This will not only give them helpful information, but it will give our student leaders context when talking to students who receive an alcohol sanction. Moreover, peer education is shown to have a greater effect on behavior change through one-on-one conversations and peer facilitation of alcohol sessions (Freeman, 2001). HAWC team members can then co-facilitate the TRAC 1 class along with the director of Wellness and Health Promotion.

The main direction that the TRAC 1 sanction should move towards is focusing on behavior change and basic knowledge rather than technical facts about alcohol consumption. The literature review uncovered that education alone does not curb high-risk alcohol use—a second component is needed. TRAC 1 has many different psychological techniques embedded in the curriculum to supplement to educational component, and there might be too many different techniques for a brief session. The alcohol sanction should utilize the short time effectively. There are interventions specifically made for short periods of time and have proven effective at three- or six-month follow-up (Carey et al., 2009).

To ensure the continual success of our programs, professionals need to instigate longitudinal assessments, including a three-month, six-month, and 12-month follow up. This assessment should include key components about behavior change and gathered quantitatively. Furthermore, the follow-ups should include a qualitative analysis in focus groups or one-on-one interviews. There is a lot of promise in the new and innovative programs for educational alcohol interventions in higher education.

REFERENCES

American College Health Association. (2011). *American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment II: Seattle University Executive Summary*. Linthicum, MD: American College Health Association.

American College Health Association. (2013). *American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment II: Seattle University Executive Summary*. Linthicum, MD: American College Health Association.

Astin, A. W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Development, 40*(5), 518–529.

Berkley-Patton, J. Y., Prosser, E. C., McCluskey-Fawcett, K. A., & Towns, C. (2003). A social norms approach to reducing alcohol consumption among college freshmen. *NASPA Journal, 40*(4), 24–37.

Birky, I. T. (2005). Chapter 2. Evidence-based and empirically supported college counseling center treatment of alcohol related issues. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 20*(1), 7-21. doi:10.1300/J035v20n0102

Carey, K. B., Carey, M. P, Maisto, S. A., & Henson, J. M. (2009). Computer versus in-person intervention for students violating campus alcohol policy. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 77*(1), 74–87.

Carey, K. B., & DeMartini, K. S. (2010). The motivational context for mandated alcohol interventions for college students by gender and family history. *Addictive Behavior, 35*(3), 218–223.

Cooper, M., & Schwartz, R. (2007). Moral judgment and student discipline: What are institutions teaching? What are students learning? *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(5), 595–607.

Crawford, L. A., & Novak, K. B. (2010). Beliefs about alcohol and the college experiences as moderators of effects of perceived drinking norms and student alcohol use. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 54*(3), 69–86.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Freeman, M. S. (2001). Innovative alcohol education program for college and university judicial sanctions. *Journal and College Counseling, 4*(2), 179–185.

Gehring, D. D., Lowery, J. W., & Palmer, C. J. (2012). *Students' views of effective alcohol sanctions on college campuses: A national study*. Reno, NV: The National Judicial College.

Henslee, A. M., & Correia, C. J. (2009). The use of freshmen seminar programs to deliver personalized feedback. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 53*(3), 39–52.

LaBrie, J. W., Atkins, D. C., Neighbors, C., Mirza, T., & Larimer, M. E. (2012). Ethnicity specific norms and alcohol consumption among Hispanic/Latino/a and Caucasian students. *Addictive Behaviors*, *37*(4), 573-576. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.01.007

LaBrie, J. W., Cail, J., Pedersen, R. E., & Migliuri, S. (2011a). Reducing alcohol risk in adjudicated male college students: Further validation of a group motivational enhancement intervention. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Substance Abuse, 20*(1), 82– 98.

LaBrie, J. W., Lac, A., Kenney, S. R., & Mirza, T. (2011b). Protective behavioral strategies mediate the effect of drinking motives on alcohol use among heavy drinking college students: Gender and race differences. *Addictive Behaviors*, *36*(4), 354-361. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2010.12.013

LaBrie, J. W., Thompson, A. D., Huchting, K., Lac, A., & Buckley, K. (2007). A group motivational interviewing intervention reduces drinking and alcohol-related negative consequences in adjudicated college women. *Addictive Behaviors, 32*(11), 2549–2562.

Lewis, M. A., Neighbors, C., Oster-Aaland, L., Kirkeby, B. S., & Larimer, M. E. (2007). Indicated prevention for incoming freshmen: Personalized normative feedback and high-risk drinking. *Addictive Behavior, 32*(11), 2495–2508.

Lewis, T. F., & Thombs, D. L. (2005). Percieved risks and normative beliefs as explanatory models for college student alcohol involvement: An assessment of a campus with conventional alcohol control policies and enforcement practices. *NASPA Journal, 42*(2), 202–222.

Linowski, S. A., & DiFulvio, G. T. (2012). Mobilizing for change: A case study of a campus and community coalition to reduce high-risk drinking. *Journal of Community Health, 37*(3), 685–693.

Marlatt G. A., & Parks G. A. (2005). *Choices about alcohol: A brief alcohol abuse prevention program*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Miller, W. R., & Rollnick, S. (2013). *Motivational interviewing* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Murphy, J. G., Dennherdt, A. A., Skidmore, J. R., Borsari, B., Barnett, N. P., Colby, S. M., & Martens, M. P. (2012). A randomized controlled trial of a behavioral economic supplement to brief motivational interventions for college drinking. *Journal of Consulting an Clinical Psychology, 80*(5), 876–886.

Oswalt, S. B., Shutt, M. D., English, E., & Little, S. D. (2007). Did it work? Examining the impact of an alcohol intervention on sanctioned college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(5), 543–557.

Reduce high-risk drinking before athletic events. (2012). *College Athletics & the Law, 8*(11), 7.

Skidmore, J. R., Murphy, J. G., Martens, M., & Dennhardt, A. A. (2012). Alcohol-related consequences in African American and European American college students. *Journal Of Ethnicity In Substance Abuse*, *11*(2), 174-191. doi:10.1080/15332640.2012.675248

Stamper, G. A., Smith, B. H., Gant, R., & Bogle, K. E. (2004). Replicated findings of an evaluation of a brief intervention designed to prevent high-risk drinking among first-year college student: Implications for social norming theory. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 48*(2), 53–72.

Sue, V. M., & Ritter, L. A. (2007). *Conducting online surveys*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Thombs, D. L., Olds, S., Osborn, C. J., Casseday, S., Glavin, K., & Berkowitz, A. D. (2007). Outcomes of a technology-based social norms intervention to deter alcohol use in freshmen residence halls. *Journal of American College Health, 55*(6), 325–332.

Van Lone, J. S. (2013). Prevention through information: How one college promotes awareness of social norms and discourages drug and alcohol abuse with the help of digital signage. *eCampus News, 6*(4), 19.

Wechsler, H., Lee, J., Nelson, T. F., & Kuo, M. (2002). Underage college students' drinking behavior, access to alcohol, and the influence of deterrence policies. *Journal of American College Health, 50*(5), 223.

Brendon M. Soltis, '14, is a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and serves as a graduate assistant in the Office for Wellness and Health Promotion at Seattle University.

TABLE 1

Binge-Drinking Risk for All Participants Analyzed by Gender and Family History of Alcohol Abuse

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	Q11: Risk at the Time of Violation		Q12: Risk at the time of the study.		Total
		Binge Drinker	Non-Binge Drinker	Binge Drinker	Non-Binge Drinker	
Man	**All**	**19.0% (4)**	**28.6% (6)**	**9.5% (2)**	**38.1% (8)**	**47.6% (10)**
	Yes	14.3% (3)	9.5% (2)	4.5% (1)	19.0% (4)	23.8% (5)
	No	4.5% (1)	19.0% (4)	4.5% (1)	19.0% (4)	23.8% (5)
Woman	**All**	**14.3% (3)**	**23.8% (5)**	**4.5% (1)**	**28.6% (6)**	**38.1% (8)**
	Yes	9.5% (2)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	14.3% (3)	14.3% (3)
	No	4.5% (1)	19.0% (4)	4.5% (1)	14.3% (3)	23.8% (5)
Other	**All**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**
	Yes	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**0.0% (0)**	**9.5% (2)**	**0.0% (0)**	**9.5% (2)**	**9.5% (2)**
Total	**All**	**38.1% (8)**	**61.9% (13)**	**19.0% (4)**	**76.2% (16)**	**100% (21)**
	Yes	75.0% (6)	23.1% (3)	50.0% (2)	43.8% (7)	
	No	25.0% (2)	61.5% (8)	50.0% (2)	43.8% (7)	

TABLE 2

New Strategies Used by Participants After the Intervention

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	I tried new risk--lowering strategies.	I made significant changes to my behavior.	Total
Man	**All**	**40.9% (9)**	**18.2% (4)**	**45.5% (10)**
	Yes	18.2% (4)	13.6% (3)	**22.7% (5)**
	No	22.7% (5)	4.5% (1)	**22.7% (5)**
Woman	**All**	**13.6% (3)**	**13.6% (3)**	**36.4% (8)**
	Yes	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	**13.6% (3)**
	No	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)	**22.7% (5)**
Other	**All**	**4.5% (1)**	**4.5% (1)**	**4.5% (1)**
	Yes	4.5% (1)	4.5% (1)	**4.5% (1)**
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**4.5% (1)**	**4.5% (1)**	**13.6% (3)**
Total	**All**	**63.6% (14)**	**40.9% (9)**	**100% (22)**
	Yes	88.9% (8)	66.7% (6)	
	No	50.0% (5)	30.0% (3)	

TABLE 3.1

Motivations Behind Behavior Change

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	I am aware of the negative effects of alcohol on my health.			
		Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Man	**All**	**27.3% (6)**	**18.2 (4)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Woman	**All**	**9.1% (2)**	**22.7% (5)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	4.5% (1)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	4.5% (1)	13.6% (3)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)
Other	**All**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**4.5% (1)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
Total	**All**	**40.9% (9)**	**50.0% (11)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	44.4% (4)	45.5% (5)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	44.4% (4)	45.5% (5)	100% (1)	0.0% (0)

Table 3.2

Motivations Behind Behavior Change

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	I am less likely to drink in high-risk ways.			
		Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Man	**All**	**22.7% (5)**	**13.6% (3)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	9.1% (2)	4.5% (1)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)
	No	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Woman	**All**	**0.0% (0)**	**31.8% (7)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**
	Yes	0.0% (0)	13.6% (3)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	0.0% (0)	18.2% (4)	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)
Other	**All**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**
	Yes	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**0.0% (0)**	**9.1% (2)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
Total	**All**	**22.7% (5)**	**54.5% (12)**	**9.1% (2)**	**9.1% (2)**
	Yes	40.0% (2)	33.3% (4)	50.0% (1)	50% (1)
	No	60.0% (3)	50.0% (6)	0.0% (0)	50% (1)

Table 3.3

Motivations Behind Behavior Change

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	I have made changes to prevent getting caught by the university.			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Man	**All**	**22.7% (5)**	**18.2% (4)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	9.1% (2)	13.6% (3)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	13.6% (3)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Woman	**All**	**13.6% (3)**	**22.7% (5)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	9.1% (2)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	No	4.5% (1)	13.6% (3)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Other	**All**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**0.0% (0)**	**13.6% (3)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**
Total	**All**	**36.4% (8)**	**54.5% (12)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**
	Yes	50.0% (4)	41.7% (5)	100% (1)	0.0% (0)
	No	50.0% (4)	33.3% (4)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)

Table 3.4

Motivations Behind Behavior Change

*Overall total indicates findings across tables 3.1-3.4.

Gender	Family Alcohol Use/Abuse	I have made changes to reduce my risk associated with alcohol.				Overall Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Man	**All**	**27.3% (6)**	**18.2% (4)**	**0.0% (0)**	0.0% (0)	**45.5% (10)**
	Yes	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	**22.7% (5)**
	No	13.6% (3)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	**22.7% (5)**
Woman	**All**	**9.1% (2)**	**22.7% (5)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**36.4% (8)**
	Yes	4.5% (1)	9.1% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	**13.6% (3)**
	No	4.5% (1)	13.6% (3)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	**22.7% (5)**
Other	**All**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**	**4.5% (1)**
	Yes	0.0% (0)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	**4.5% (1)**
Left Blank	**Left Blank**	**4.5% (1)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**0.0% (0)**	**13.6% (3)**
Total	**All**	**40.9% (9)**	**50.0% (11)**	**4.5% (1)**	**0.0% (0)**	**100% (22)**
	Yes	44.4% (4)	45.5% (5)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	
	No	44.4% (4)	45.5% (5)	100% (1)	0.0% (0)	

APPENDIX A

COLLECTION TOOL

Introduction

The purpose of this survey is to examine the effectiveness of Seattle University's sanction process as it relates to its alcohol policies. The information gathered from this survey will directly inform the process used in alcohol sanctions, specifically the TRAC 1 class. There are two main sections of this survey: one focused on knowledge retention and the other focused on behavior change.

It is encouraged that you answer the following questions honestly. All responses to this survey will be kept in confidentiality and it will not ask for names or contact information. If you do not want to answer a particular question, you can simply leave it blank and move on to the next question. Thank you for taking the time to participate in this study.

Section 1: Conduct Process
Please answer the following questions in Section 1 as it relates to your most recent violation that resulted in you taking TRAC 1 class.

1. Which of the following best describes the violation which you were found responsible for? (Please check all that apply)
   a. The possession, sale, distribution, and consumption of alcoholic beverages on the university's campuses or in university housing.
   b. Possession, purchase, distribution, consumption, or acquisition of alcoholic beverages while under the age of 21.
   c. In the presence of alcohol, including but not limited to cans, cups, bottles, kegs, and flasks.
   d. Appearing in a public place while under the influence.
   e. Using or manufacturing a false identification to obtain alcohol.
   f. Purchasing alcohol for an underage person.
   g. Other

2. Which of the following sanctions were issued? (Please Check all that apply)
   a. TRAC 1 educational session
   b. TRAC 2 educational session
   c. Letter of apology
   d. Reflection essay
   e. Community service
   f. Meeting with faculty and/or staff
   g. Restitution (compensating for loss, damage, or injury)
   h. Parental notification
   i. Alcohol treatment program
   j. Alcohol screening
   k. Other

Share your level of agreement with the following statements in Section 1.

3. I believe I am responsible for the violation(s) Seattle University found me responsible for that resulted in my sanction involving TRAC 1 class.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

4. My perspective regarding the incident was fully considered, and regardless of whether or not I agree with the outcome, I felt heard during the process.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

5. After completing the conduct process, I am knowledgeable of Seattle University's policy on alcohol.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

6. After completing the conduct process, I am aware that my behavior violated Seattle University's alcohol policy.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

7. I am less likely to drink in high-risk ways after attending TRAC 1 class.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

8. After attending the TRAC 1 class, I have made changes to prevent getting caught by the university.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

9. After attending the TRAC 1 class, I have made changes to lower my risk associated with alcohol.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Disagree
   d. Strongly disagree

10. Are there other sanctions that you believe may be more effective in deterring you from drinking in high-risk ways in the future?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. If yes, what?

Section 2: Intervention Efficacy

Share your level of agreement with the following statements in Section 2.

11. At the time of the incident that resulted in your attendance of TRAC 1 class, did you consume five or more standard drinks.
    a. Yes
    b. No

12. When you drink now, how many standard drinks do you generally have in one sitting?

13. What, if any, new risk lowering strategies did you try after attending the TRAC 1 class?

14. Did you share any of the information you learned at the TRAC 1 class with a friend?
    a. Yes
    b. No

15. What, if any, significant changes have you made to your alcohol use since attending the TRAC 1 class?

16. After attending the TRAC 1 class, I am aware of the negative effects alcohol could have on my behavior, health, and safety.
    a. Strongly agree
    b. Agree
    c. Disagree
    d. Strongly disagree

Section 3: Demographics

17. Race/Ethnicity (Check all that apply)
    a. African/African American/Black
    b. Asian/Asian American
    c. Biracial / Multiracial
    d. Latino/Hispanic
    e. Mixed Race
    f. Native American/First Nations/Indigenous
    g. Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian
    h. White/Caucasian/European American
    i. Middle Eastern
    j. Decline to state
    k. Other:

18. Are you an international student?
    a. Yes
    b. No

19. Are you a transfer student?
    a. Yes
    b. No

20. Gender Identity
    a. Woman
    b. Man
    c. Transgender/GenderQueer
    d. Gender Non-Conforming/Gender Variant
    e. Decline to state

  f. Other:

21. Biological Sex
  a. Male
  b. Female
  c. Other:
  d. Decline to state

22. Sexual Orientation
  a. Heterosexual
  b. Queer
  c. Lesbian
  d. Gay
  e. Bisexual
  f. Pansexual
  g. Two-Spirit
  h. Questioning
  i. Asexual
  j. Decline to state
  k. Other:

23. Place of residence
  a. Bellarmine Hall
  b. Campion Hall
  c. Chardin Hall
  d. Xavier Global House
  e. Logan Court
  f. Murphy Apartments
  g. The Douglas
  h. Kolvenbach Homes
  i. Off campus housing

24. Year in school
  a. First year
  b. Sophomore
  c. Junior
  d. Senior
  e. Graduate
  f. Law

25. What are you involved in on campus?
  (Check all that apply)
  a. Student Club
  b. Student Government of Seattle
      University (SGSU)
  c. Graduate Student Council (GSC)
  d. Student Events and Activities
      Council (SEAC)
  e. Redzone
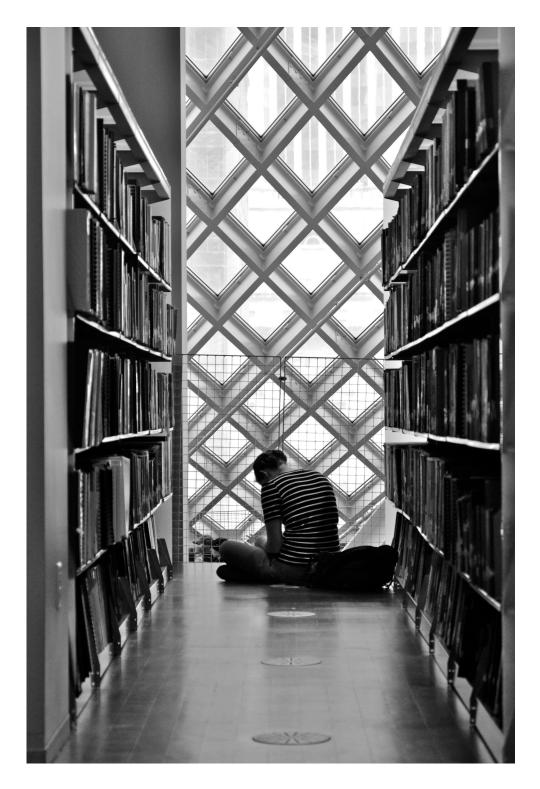 f. Athletics
  g. Outdoor Adventure Recreation
      (OAR)

  h. Youth Initiative volunteer
  i. Hall council
  j. LEAD Team
  k. Connections Leadership
      Immersion Program
  l. Integrity Board
  m. Diversity, Education, and Equity
      Program (DEEP)
  n. Health and Wellness Crew
      (HAWC)
  o. Redhawk Academic Mentor
  p. Work study
  q. Member of a collegium
  r. Other:

26. Were you under the age of 21 at the time
  of your most recent violation?
  a. Yes
  b. No

27. Including your most recent violation, how
  many alcohol violations have you
  received?
  a. One
  b. Two
  c. Three
  d. Four
  e. More than four

28. Which TRAC 1 class did you attend most
  recently?
  a. Fall Quarter 2012
  b. Winter Quarter 2013
  c. Spring Quarter 2013

29. Have your parents (biological, step and/or
  adoptive), siblings, grandparents, or
  aunts/uncles had experienced alcohol
  dependency or abuse whether or not
  diagnosed and/or treated?
  a. Yes
  b. No
  c. I don't know

Section 4: Post Test

30. Which of the following drinks contains the
  most pure alcohol?
  a. 12-oz. beer
  b. 8-oz. ice beer or malt liquor
  c. 4 oz. glass of wine

d. 1.25 oz. (one shot) of 80-proof liquor
e. They all contain the same amount of pure alcohol.

31. BAC stand for:
    a. body alcohol concentration
    b. biphasic alcohol concentration
    c. blood alcohol concentration
    d. balanced alcohol concentration
    e. beer and coolers

32. A standard drink will quickly raise the BAC of a 160 pound male by approximately:
    a. .01%
    b. .02%
    c. .03%
    d. .04%
    e. .05%

33. In which group of college students is heavy drinking most common?
    a. Freshmen
    b. Sophomores
    c. Juniors
    d. Seniors
    e. They all drink about the same amount.

34. In recent national surveys, what number of college students reported they consumed four or fewer drinks per occasion?
    a. 25 percent
    b. 35 percent
    c. 45 percent
    d. 55 percent

35. When drinking alcohol, the first functions that become impaired are:
    a. Motor coordination
    b. Emotional responses
    c. Thought processes
    d. Sexual performance
    e. Dancing ability

36. Alcohol is quickly absorbed into the bloodstream from which of the following organs?
    a. The liver
    b. The kidneys
    c. The wall of the stomach
    d. The small intestine
    e. Both the wall of the stomach and the small intestine

37. Which of the following factors does not influence BAC?
    a. The tolerance of the drinker
    b. The rate at with a person drinks
    c. The gender of the drinker
    d. The amount of food in the drinker's stomach
    e. The weight of the drinker

38. For nontolerant drinkers, a BAC of .11% to .15% is associated with:
    a. being **Buzzed,** euphoric, with minor impairment of reasoning and memory
    b. being **Confused** with gross disorientation of time and place
    c. being **Drunk** with a reduced high with depressive effects more pronounced
    d. being **Lightheaded,** relaxed with minor impairment of judgment

39. For nontolerant drinkers, at what BAC is the "point of diminishing returns"?
    a. Around .00 - .04%
    b. Around .05 - .07%
    c. Around .08 - .15%
    d. Around .16 - .25%

40. Who is most likely to experience the most harmful consequences as a result of drinking?
    a. Students who drink every day
    b. Students who go to parties where everyone is drinking heavily
    c. Students who drink liquor rather than just beer
    d. Students who drink past the point of diminishing returns
    e. Students who drink to feel less shy and inhibited

Alone But Not Lonely, Seattle, WA (2013)—Tracy Phutikanit

This is What I Believe…*Justicia*

Victoria Navarro Benavides, *Seattle University*

This reflective piece explores my personal and professional investment in being a social justice educator and student affairs professional. I position myself at the center of my work and recognize the role culture, identity, and familia[1] continue to play in shaping my life and career. As a Chicana educator, the struggle for more just educational environments remains a central part of who I am and what I do. Using lived experiences and critical frameworks, such as critical race theory and critical multiculturalism, I capture my understanding of social justice or justicia[2] as it relates to my first year of graduate school at Seattle University.

Keywords: *familia, justicia, antepasados, mestiza consciousness, positionality*

Diversity, multiculturalism, and social justice are words that echo off the walls of this Jesuit institution as students, faculty, and staff eagerly rally behind a mission "dedicated to educating the whole person, to professional formation, and to empowering leaders for a just and humane world" (Seattle University, 2012). As a lifelong learner invested in finding a graduate program that welcomed the formation of a critical consciousness, I was attracted to this institution because of its explicit commitment to justice. Now, a graduate student in the Student Development Administration program and the only Chicana or Latina of my cohort, I hold a transformed concept of social justice, *justicia* as I call it. My conception of *justicia* is influenced by my positionality as a woman of color, a Chicana, and my commitment to critical multiculturalism and critical race theory. All of these concepts factor into a synthesis of my ideas of *justicia* and their connection to my scholarly, professional, and personal work in higher education.

Adams et al. (2010) created a foundational text that discusses systems of power and oppression, while simultaneously constructing a call for social justice. They write, "We believe that social justice is both a process and a goal. The goal of social justice is full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs" (Adams et al., 2010, p. 21). The authors expand on this idea of social justice to include an equitable distribution of resources, physical and psychological wellbeing, and finally active agents aware of their responsibility to themselves, their community, and others. Similar to how Adams et al. (2010) define social justice, I define *justicia* as a transformative process that names systems of oppression as barriers to resources, health, and happiness; it aims to empower people to create communities who honor and value the needs and aspirations of its members. In order to better understand my approach to *justicia*, it is crucial that I share more about my identities and experiences.

POSITIONALITY

My passion to become an educator is intrinsically tied to my identity, experiences, culture, and *familia*. Who I am impacts the work that I do. To be a committed social justice educator, I continuously use such passion, from within, to fuel my work. Cherrie Moraga captures the importance of positioning oneself within their justice work. She wrote, "If we are interested in building a movement that will not constantly be subverted by

internal differences, then we must build from the inside out, not the other way around" (as cited in Norman, 2007, p. 113). As a person committed to building a movement of *justicia*, I must position myself in my research.

I am a Chicana and proud woman of color who recognizes that my identity is multifaceted. As a daughter to a rural Texan *familia* and committed supporter of a gay Chicano brother, I am humbly aware of the intersections of oppression and the power of collaborative resistance. The first in my working-class *familia* to attend a four-year university and pursue a master's degree, I am dedicated to putting social justice theory into practice in my work and within communities. My experiences with oppression and privilege have been, and continue to be, influenced by my race, class, size, ability, sexual orientation, and gender expression. I move forward in this paper, positioning myself as a woman of color, feminist, and Chicana empowered to make sustainable change for my *antepasados*[3], communities, and self. This positionality is the framework from which I write. It is the framework from which I experience and fight for *justicia*. For the remainder of this piece, *justicia* will continue to be written in Spanish because mixing language, or using Spanglish, is at the core of my identities and an example of my own resiliency to maintain a *mestiza* consciousness[4] despite the hegemonic culture I am immersed in at a higher education institution (Anzaldúa, 2007).

CRITICAL MULTICULTURALISM AND CRITICAL RACE THEORY

Because I entered Seattle University (SU) with a Bachelor of Arts in both Ethnic Studies and Chicana/o Studies, my investment in *justicia* was in formation prior to graduate education. My undergraduate study has framed my experience immensely as I am now a part of a program and university that has no comparable

discipline. This reality has not halted my development or my commitment to *justicia* as I have been introduced to new concepts that also affirm the critical approaches to justice.

Paulo Freire's (1993) revolutionary text *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* was interwoven into a majority of my undergraduate classes, which resulted in a deep commitment to understanding problem-posing education as a liberating tool. At SU, I was introduced to another liberating tool: critical multiculturalism. I was frustrated by the overuse of the term "multiculturalism" to describe programs and educational activities aimed at simply building tolerance with no attempt to name and combat systemic problems of injustice. It was refreshing to see scholars like May and Sleeter (2010) differentiate liberal and critical multiculturalism. The aforementioned authors share a comprehensive definition created by Berlak and Mayenda (as cited in May & Sleeter, 2010). They write, "Central to critical multiculturalism is naming and actively challenging racism and other forms of injustice, not simply recognizing and celebrating differences and reducing prejudice" (as cited in May & Sleeter, 2010, p. 10). This definition makes it clear that critical multiculturalism moves beyond investigating cultures for the purpose of celebrating the *other* and into active engagement in deconstructing systems that reinforce *othering* and subordination. The action component of critical multiculturalism gets to the root of *justicia*. Critical multiculturalism, like *justicia*, calls for action and advocacy.

As with critical multiculturalism, I believe there is a direct connection between critical race theory (CRT) and *justicia*. CRT is composed of four fundamental components: viewing racism as both normal and

natural in American society, using storytelling as a method for deconstructing hegemonic notions of race, offering a critique of liberalism, and revealing that civil rights legislation has primarily benefited whites (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Yosso, 2005). CRT was a new concept for me and provided an innovative lens to evaluate the systems of oppression currently in place. Using CRT as a tool to unpack educational inequity, I found Ladson-Billings' (2006) research on educational debt to be uplifting, because it challenged the traditional narratives of students of color as deficits to the education system. She states, "I am arguing that the historical, economic, sociopolitical, and moral decisions and polices that characterize our society have created as education debt" (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 5). The debt she is referencing is the differences in educational opportunities and resources afforded to students of color in comparison to their white counterparts. Ladson-Billings (2006) decenters arguments of the "educational gap" by asserting that there is indeed a debt owed to students of color because of the United States' cooperation in systematizing educational injustice. This argument is aligned with critical multiculturalism and *justicia* it two ways. First, it is a direct attempt to name and combat hegemonic narratives as tools of oppression. Second, it empowers marginalized communities or *the other(s)* to speak about their realities and recognize such experiences as valuable sources of knowledge.

My rationale for labeling Ladson-Billings' (1998, 2006) argument as a tool of empowerment is derived from my own engagement with Yosso's (2005) community cultural wealth (CCW) model of CRT. The model is an epistemological shift in which stories, experiences, and skills of communities of color are valued as assets. My time at SU inspired me to expand my understanding of CRT. When reading about CCW, I found a natural connection to *justicia*. As some of our SU graduate courses engaged in dialogue and critical analysis of systems of oppression (racism, sexism, classism, homophobia, transphobia, ableism, etc.), it was helpful to use CCW model as a way of assessing the materials' connection to CRT, critical multiculturalism, and *justicia*.

JUSTICIA IN PRACTICE

This paper has highlighted my introduction to critical multiculturalism and CRT, their role in deconstructing systems of oppression, and my understanding of these frameworks as tools of *justicia*. I believe the aforementioned concepts are tools of *justicia* because they are at the forefront of the transformative process of naming injustices and empowering communities to combat oppression. I believe that *justicia* is transformative and empowering. It is placing the stories, experiences, and skills of the marginalized at the core of our learning. It is believing that differences are a source of love and challenge. No commitment is easy. And a commitment to *justicia* is no different. I find myself asking, how will I make my commitment to *justicia* visible in my daily life and in the work I do as a student affairs professional?

The goal then becomes translating theory into practice. For me, this translation can best be described by Freire's (1993) notion of *praxis* as "the action and reflection of men and women upon their world in order to transform it" (p. 52). Praxis is liberating; I want to be a part of creating a liberating experience for the students I work with. Although higher education institutions do not currently work from a *justicia* perspective that values critical multiculturalism, CRT, and CCW, I can operate from and within these frameworks. This will be no easy task, and I will be met with challenges from colleagues and

the institution I work for. Fortunately, this Chicana is committed to valuing my students and all the identities and experiences they bring forth. As an advocate for *justicia*, I will encourage the experiences, languages, and relationships of students of color to enter and transform the university. This can look like asking the students I work with to share their family histories. It can be creating a series of dialogues or art exhibits with students about the

.

issues and identities they possess and are challenged by. It can simply be assuring they know their voices are worthy of being heard. At a large scale, it can mean I help empower students to be advocates for their multiplicity of identities and needs. This is *justicia* within higher education administration. This is what *justicia* looks like to me. This is the *justicia* I am personally and professionally dedicated to. This is what I believe—*justicia*

REFERENCES

Adams, M., Blumenfeld W. J., Castaneda, C., Hackman, H. W., Peters, M. L., & Zuniga, X. (2010). *Readings for diversity and social justice*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Anzaldúa, G. (2007). *Borderlands/La frontera: The new mestiza* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Aunt Lute.

Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical race theory: An introduction*. New York, NY: NYU Press.

Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Continuum Publishing Company.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1998). Just what is critical race theory and what's it doing in a nice field like education?. *Qualitative Studies in Education, 11*(1), 7-24.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2006). From the achievement gap to the education debt: Understanding achievement in U.S. schools. *Educational Researcher, 35*(7), 3-12.

May, S. & Sleeter, C. E. (Eds.). (2010). *Critical multiculturalism: Theory and praxis*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Norman, B. (2007). 'We' in redux: The Combahee River Collective's Black feminist statement. *A Journal of Feminist Cultural Studies, 18*(2), 103-132. doi: 10.1215/10407391-2007-004

Seattle University. (2012). *Mission, vision and values*. Retrieved from http://www.seattleu.edu/about/mission/

Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 8*(1), 69-91.

Victoria Navarro Benavides attends Seattle University and is completing her Master of Arts degree in Student Development Administration in 2014. After her time in Seattle, she will be pursuing a doctoral degree at the University of Arizona in fall of 2014.

---

[1] *Familia* means family in Spanish.

[2] *Justicia* in this context is the equivalent to social justice in English.

[3] *Antepasados* means ancestors in Spanish.

[4] *Mestiza* consciousness is unmasking of the subject-object duality that the Chicana and other border communities possess as they engage in the world from a transitional state in which they straddle two or more cultures.