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EXPLORING STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF COLLABORATION AND CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS FOLLOWING AN ESCAPE ROOM EXPERIENCE

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Collaboration and critical thinking are 21st century skills employers value. Campus programming offers a space where, through intentional design, post-secondary students may develop critical thinking and collaboration skills. This study investigates survey data collected after a campus program that engaged participants in an escape room experience. Descriptive statistics were utilized to investigate students' perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking skills use and improvement during the experience. Comparison analysis was employed to explore if the structure of the escape room produced any difference in results. Findings indicate the majority of participants reported being able to practice and improve collaboration and critical thinking skills in the escape room experience. Patterns suggest that the escape room structure may impact participants' perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking skills. Limitations and recommendations for areas of future research are discussed.

EMPLOYERS HAVE IDENTIFIED COLLABORATION AND CRITICAL THINKING as important 21st-century skills necessary for college graduates to succeed in today's workforce (Pace, 2012). Accordingly, there is a need for post-secondary students to be given opportunities to develop their critical thinking and collaboration skills while also developing professional knowledge (Cevik & Senturk, 2019). However, cultivating these skills is often considered secondary to the coursework students are expected to master (Dede, 2010; Voogt & Roblin, 2012). Therefore, colleges and universities may find it valuable to seek ways beyond the classroom to develop students' collaborative and critical thinking skills and, in turn, support their future career success. One such opportunity could occur during campus-wide events, such as the activities planned to welcome students to campus for the academic year.

This paper investigates students' perceptions of their collaboration and critical thinking skills following an escape room experience. The event was held by a College of Education during a university-wide Week of Welcome. Further analysis compares the designs of two different escape rooms, providing insight on how to best implement similar campus-wide events that may support collaboration and critical thinking skills.

Literature Review

21st Century Skills: Collaboration and Critical Thinking

Historically, educational systems have focused attention on ensuring that students build knowledge and skills around specific content areas such as English language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies (Dede,

2010; Voogt & Roblin, 2012). However, due to the impact of an ever-changing technological, social, and cultural landscape, educators sometimes question if they are adequately preparing young adults to be successful upon entering the workforce as they realize the need for teaching students 21st-century skills (Care et al., 2016; Todd, 2017). Wagner (2008) contends that 21st-century skills include critical thinking and problem solving, collaboration and leadership, agility and adaptability, initiative and entrepreneurialism, effective oral and written communication, accessing and analyzing information, and curiosity and imagination. While each of the skills mentioned above is important, this article will focus on collaboration and critical thinking skills.

To support students' development of collaboration and critical thinking skills, educators must shift their approach from viewing students as the recipients of knowledge to active contributors in their acquisition of knowledge (Nissim et al., 2016). Unfortunately, according to Saavedra and Opfer (2012), most schools currently teach through the transmission model. With this model, students learn information given or lectured to them, but "typically don't have much practice applying the knowledge to new contexts, communicating it in complex ways, using it to solve problems, or using it as a platform to develop creativity" (p. 8). Consequently, when post-secondary learning is garnered through the transmission model, students lose the opportunity to gain 21st-century skills and subsequently enter the workforce without them. Researchers have noted this concern as Pace (2012) states, "Employers are observing a lack of critical soft skills, such as communication, creativity, collaboration, and critical thinking" (p. 43). Therefore, to ensure students are leaving higher education with the knowledge and skills to make them successful in the 21st century, it is vital that higher education faculty and staff identify innovative methods for adequately preparing students.

Collaboration

Hesse et al. (2015) define collaboration as "the activity of working together towards a common goal" (p. 38). They suggest collaboration requires effective communication, cooperation amongst group members, responsiveness, or a willingness to participate and contribute to the task set before them. "Collaboration is a useful tool, especially when specific expertise is needed (and available), and relies on factors such as a readiness to participate, mutual understanding, and the ability to manage interpersonal conflicts" (p. 38).

Within the context of higher education, providing opportunities for students to engage in collaborative activities strays from the more traditional teaching style, which typically includes passive learning on the part of students (Barkley et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2018). For those interested in shifting to a more hands-on learning and collaborative approach, incorporating an escape room experience might be considered. A study conducted by Pan et al. (2017) found participating in an escape room experience not only enabled participants to strengthen their collaboration skills, but to also learn strategies for navigating their individual roles within and across groups, strengthen their ability to communicate with others, become more aware of their surroundings, and construct a "shared mental model" (p. 1361). Within the context of an escape room experience, a shared mental model would be constructed based on the knowledge and experiences of all team members and would support the team's ability to "share the workload, monitor the work behaviors of other members, and develop and contribute expertise on subtasks" (Mathieu & Goodwin, 2000, p. 273). All of these are skills that could support an individual's success within a 21st-century workforce.

Critical Thinking

Robert Ennis, a leader in the conceptualization of critical thinking, contends that critical thinking "is reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (1985, p. 45). Specific skills necessary for critical thinking include the ability to analyze and evaluate situations and construct novel ideas (Campbell, 2015). According to Ennis (2018), critical thinking can be broken down into dispositions which include but are not limited to (a) being knowledgeable, (b) basing decisions off of reliable sources and observations, (c) considering the totality of a situation, (d) being willing to look for alternative solutions, (e) maintaining an open mind, (f) demonstrating flexibility to change positions in light of new evidence, and (g) striving for accuracy.

This shift from more basic thinking to critical thinking depends on specific learning experiences (Kuhn & Dean, 2004). Such experiences should be situated within supportive learning environments. When developing a supportive learning environment, it is important to remain flexible to allow for optimal interactions between facilitators-students and students-students. Taking into consideration the requirements for a highly-qualified 21st-century workforce, “an environment should be formed that creates learning ‘opportunities,’ spaces that facilitate investigation, the posing of questions, and the allowing of the construction of knowledge and skills” (Nissim et al., 2016, p. 30). Based on these assertions, constructing learning environments that foster critical thinking, such as the escape room experience described in this paper, could provide opportunities for students to develop the 21st-century skills that are now expected by future employers (Sousa & Rocha, 2019).

Escape Rooms in Higher Education

Escape rooms are being utilized on college campuses in academic programming as a way to teach students creatively (Edson, 2019; Mac Gregor, 2018; Miller et al., 2020). For example, libraries have incorporated these events to reinforce research skills, learn locations of resources, and help students discern fake news through fact-checking puzzles (Cowing et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2020). Miller et al. (2020) report this gamified approach offers students an entertaining way to use their problem-solving skills in a real-world academic context.

There are three ways to organize the clues and puzzles in escape rooms: the linear path, the open path, and the multi-linear path (Nicholson, 2015; Wiemker et al., 2015). The linear pathway presents players with puzzles to solve in a specific order. The answer to the first puzzle solved unlocks the next puzzle in the sequence until players reach the game’s final puzzle, leading to escape. The linear design is considered easier for players to solve, given the built-in structure for a guided experience (Wiemker et al., 2015). The open path puzzle allows players to work on multiple puzzles simultaneously, in any order. As players solve the puzzles, they receive pieces of the final solution, enabling them to escape. The open path design is considered more difficult for players to solve since there is no clear indication of where to start (Wiemker et al., 2015). The multi-linear approach involves a series of linear path puzzles, with each pathway leading to a final result. Each of these results is needed for a meta-puzzle, leading to escape (Nicholson, 2015; Wiemker et al., 2015).

Despite the recent popularity of escape rooms in academia, the literature about the efficacy and usefulness of escape rooms as an educational tool is particularly sparse. A systematic review of educational escape rooms revealed that 78.9% occurred in a classroom (Fotaris & Mastoras, 2019). However, there have been no studies examining the overall design of classroom-based escape room experiences. Determining if overall escape room design makes a difference in students’ collaboration and critical thinking skills can contribute to the absence of research on educational escape room experiences.

In sum, as institutions of higher education transition from outdated instructional models, there is also a need to ensure students receive opportunities to practice and apply 21st-century skills (Lee et al., 2018; Nissim et al., 2016). Moreover, students given a chance to improve their collaboration and critical thinking skills will improve their hireability and ultimate success as they move into the workforce (Brown et al., 2019). Escape rooms are positioned as a possible option for reinforcing these skills as literature points to escape rooms as providing an engaging method to gamify and strengthen 21st-century skills with college students (Edson, 2019; Mac Gregor, 2018; Miller et al., 2020). Understanding the influence escape rooms can have on developing these needed skills may provide those designing campus activities and course curriculum with added strategies to support their students’ development.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate students’ perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking skills following an escape room experience. Data collection occurred as an assessment measure for the event. A more in-depth analysis was performed to better understand how escape room design might be utilized to support the 21st-century skills of collaboration and critical thinking in higher education. Specifically, the research questions guiding the analysis were:

- 1) How do students perceive the escape room experience as an opportunity for themselves or others to practice or improve collaboration skills?
- 2) How do students perceive the escape room experience as an opportunity for themselves or others to practice or improve critical thinking skills?
- 3) Are there differences between the ways students report collaboration and critical thinking skills in a linear path and an open path escape room?

Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the first and second research questions, and descriptive comparison analysis and further statistical analysis (e.g., t-tests) were used to respond to the third research question.

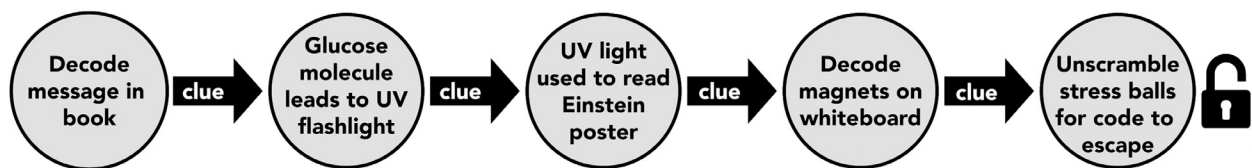
Setting

Data were collected during a Week of Welcome event held by the College of Education in a mid-sized Southeastern university. The annual, campus-wide program takes place each fall and allows students time to meet faculty, staff, and peers through informal activities. These events are created and scheduled by each college and the University-supported Student Activities Committee. During this study, the College of Education hosted two escape rooms designed to offer students a fun afternoon and require them to use collaborative and critical thinking skills. Students were asked to answer a short survey at the end of their escape room experience to analyze their perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking skills.

Description of the Escape Room Experiences

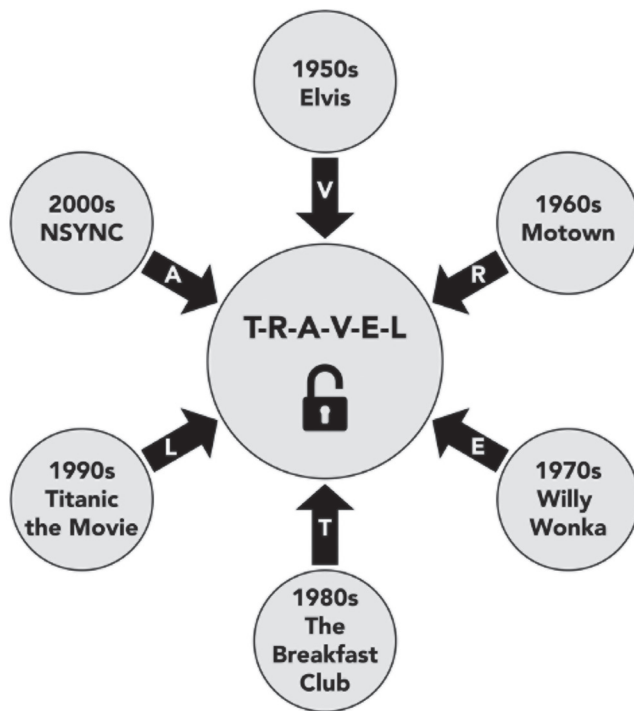
The two escape rooms, staged in two campus classrooms, were intentionally designed to have different solution paths. The storyline for *Escape from School* had participants inadvertently locked in a high school after dismissal, requiring them to solve puzzles and riddles related to various high school subjects/experiences in order to escape. This room was arranged in a linear path, meaning one puzzle had to be completed before moving on to the next. Because each clue led to the subsequent clue, students were required to work as one group to complete the five tasks in this room. Figure 1 displays the linear path design of the *Escape from School* room.

Figure 1. Linear path design of the *Escape from School* escape room.



The second room, *Time Traveler*, transported participants back in time to solve puzzles and riddles in order to return to the present time. This room was designed using an open path structure where, upon entering, participants could branch off into smaller groups to solve decade-themed puzzles. After groups solved each puzzle, they obtained a letter. Once all of the puzzles were solved, participants had the letters: L, A, T, V, R, and E, which they unscrambled to spell the word TRAVEL to answer the last clue and escape. Figure 2 depicts a graphic display of the *Time Traveler* escape room design.

Figure 2. Open path design of the *Time Traveler* escape room.



Upon arrival at the event, students were presented with the two scenarios and could sign up for either or both experiences. As demand grew, there was not enough time for all students to complete both rooms; therefore, students were asked to select which room they wanted to enter. Just prior to their start time, participant groups were escorted to their escape room entrance by a faculty member who read the room instructions before entry. (See Figure 3.) Inside, there was one faculty member to answer questions and provide assistance if needed. Once students completed the experience, they were escorted to an area where they could take pictures and complete the survey.

Figure 3. Escape room instructions read aloud to participants.

Thank you for coming to our escape rooms. There are a few things you need to know before getting started:

- Each escape room experience gives you 20 minutes to try to escape from your room. You will need to collaborate with your peers, groups of 4-6 people, and use critical thinking skills to make that time frame.
- When you enter the room, there is a black box by the door in which your personal belongings (especially your cell phone) should go in. You are not allowed to use your cell phone during the experience and PLEASE don't share any information about the rooms with students waiting to enter. Each room contains everything you need to solve the puzzles and escape.
- There will be a faculty member in the room with you. Ignore them, unless you need a clue. You must ask them for a clue before they will give it to you. They are simply there to answer questions and to approve your "password" in order for you to successfully "beat" the room.
- Once you are finished (either at 20 minutes or before), you will be escorted out and taken to have a group picture made. (Those who are successful in escaping will receive a prize.) There is a very important (but short) survey we need you to fill out at the end of the experience. Please help us by filling out this survey. It is anonymous, unless you wish to provide your information.
- Here is a scenario for your escape room [hand slip of paper]. There is also one inside for reference, if needed. Good luck to everyone!

Participants

Participants, approximately 18-24 years old, were students currently enrolled at the university and attended the escape room experience hosted by the College of Education at the beginning of the 2018 fall semester. The escape room activity was advertised as *Educate2Escape* on the university website with other campus-wide activities for Week of Welcome. The announcement included a description of the two escape room scenarios and also offered free food and t-shirts. A total of 91 participants, a mixture of male and female, completed surveys immediately following their escape room experience, with two participants having completed both escape rooms.

Data Collection

Data were collected through paper-based surveys. Initial questions asked participants to identify the room they experienced and whether they escaped. A Likert scale was incorporated so students could rate their opinions about collaboration and critical thinking skills used during the escape room experience. The scale included: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. Specifically, items 1-3 gathered students' perceptions regarding collaboration skills, while items 4-6 collected information about critical thinking skills. (See Figure 4.) Moreover, each set of three items focused on whether the escape room was an opportunity for participants to practice the skill, improve the skill, and whether they felt other participants would improve their skill. Additionally, informal observations were made by Author 1 and Author 2, who supervised the linear path and the open path rooms, respectively.

Data Analysis

Paper surveys were manually compiled in a spreadsheet, and Likert values were assigned, with 5 being "strongly agree," and 1 being "strongly disagree." To address the first and second research questions, descriptive statistics were used to investigate how students report the escape room experience as an opportunity for themselves or others to practice or improve collaboration skills and practice or improve critical thinking skills. Descriptive comparison analysis was employed to respond to the third research question and identify if there were differences between the ways students reported collaboration and critical thinking skills in a linear path or an open path escape room. Further statistical analysis was conducted with t-tests to investigate if any differences between the survey data from each escape room were statistically significant. Although there is debate regarding the use of parametric versus nonparametric tests for analyzing Likert style data, the researchers for this study followed the guidance in deWinter and DoDou (2010). They conducted t-tests since the tool needed was one to investigate fundamental differences. Lastly, informal observations during the escape room experience were used to support the survey findings.

RESULTS

The first section of the survey collected data about each participant's experience in the escape room. Out of the 91 surveys completed by participants, 45 (48%) experienced the *Escape from School* room, and 48 (52%) experienced the *Time Traveler* room, which accounts for the two students who participated in both rooms. The overall success rate of participants escaping from the rooms was 90%, indicating the majority of students were successful in completing the escape room within the required time limit of 20 minutes. Furthermore, an investigation by room revealed the success rate of the linear path and open path rooms were similar, with 91% of participants completing *Escape from School* and 89% of participants completing the *Time Traveler* room.

Escape Rooms Provide Opportunities to Practice and Improve Collaboration and Critical Thinking Skills

To address the first and second research questions, participants' responses to collaboration and critical thinking skill statements (items 1-6) were compiled in Figure 4. Frequency counts display that most participants rated their experiences in the agree and strongly agree categories. In comparison, fewer participants selected neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree.

Figure 4. Frequency counts of participants' Likert scores regarding the escape room experience as an opportunity to practice or improve collaboration and critical thinking skills.

Survey Response Raw Data Disaggregated by Room Type

Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	EFS	TT	EFS	TT	EFS	TT	EFS	TT	EFS	TT
1. I had an opportunity to practice collaboration skills in this experience?	19	17	22	24	4	5	0	2	0	0
2. My participation in this experience helped to <i>improve</i> my collaboration skills?	12	14	23	12	9	16	1	6	0	0
3. Students participating in these types of activities in their classrooms would improve their collaboration skills?	21	21	22	19	2	8	0	0	0	0
4. I had an opportunity to practice critical thinking skills in this experience?	20	25	20	17	5	6	0	0	0	0
5. My participation in this experience helped to <i>improve</i> my critical thinking skills?	14	16	16	14	11	13	3	5	0	0
6. Students participating in these types of activities in their classrooms would improve their critical thinking skills?	25	22	16	21	4	4	0	1	0	0

Note. EFS = *Escape from School*, n=45; TT = *Time Traveler*, n=48; Participants who completed both rooms are counted twice.

Table 1 further presents the percentages of total participants who strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree for each item (#1-6) on the survey connected to collaboration and critical thinking skills. Out of the 91 survey responses, the majority of participants perceived the escape room experience as supporting critical thinking and collaboration skills, as displayed by the large percentages of participants who selected “strongly agree” or “agree” for each item. Further comparison across the items illuminates how the participants were more likely to agree that the escape room experience offered them an opportunity to practice these skills (items 1 and 3), than it did to improve their skills (items 2 and 4), as can be noticed in Table 1. Interestingly, while the participants were less likely to say the escape room improved their skills, the majority of participants felt an escape room experience would improve other students’ collaboration and critical thinking skills.

Table 1. *Percentage of Participants' Responses Per Survey Item.*

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I had an opportunity to practice collaboration skills in this experience?	37.0%	51.1%	9.8%	2.2%	0%
2. My participation in this experience helped to improve my collaboration skills?	27.2%	38.0%	27.2%	7.6%	0%
3. Students participating in these types of activities in their classrooms would improve their collaboration skills?	45.1%	44.0%	11.0%	0%	0%
4. I had an opportunity to practice critical thinking skills in this experience?	47.3%	40.7%	12.1%	0%	0%
5. My participation in this experience helped to improve my critical thinking skills?	30.8%	34.1%	26.4%	8.8%	0%
6. Students participating in these types of activities in their classrooms would improve their critical thinking skills.	49.5%	40.7%	8.8%	1.1%	0%

Comparison of Participants' Perceptions on Their Critical Thinking and Collaboration Skills by Room Design

To address the third research question and understand if there were differences in the ways participants reported collaboration and critical thinking skills in the linear path or open path escape room, we began with a comparative analysis of the average scores for the collaboration items (#1-3) with the average scores for the critical thinking items (#4-6) for each student that participated in only one escape room (n = 89). These averages are displayed in Table 2. The range of scores for each indicator in Table 2 are as follows: 5 strongly agree, 4-4.49 agree, 3-3.9 neutral, 2-2.9 disagree, and 1-1.9 strongly disagree. In addition, t-tests were conducted to further explore if any of the differences displayed between the data from the two rooms were statistically significant (see Figure 5).

Table 2. *Participants' Average Scores of Responses to Collaboration Items (#1-3) and Critical Thinking Items (#4-6) Per Escape Room.*

	Collaboration Items (#1-3)		Critical Thinking Items (#4-6)	
	<i>Escape from School</i> (Linear Path)	<i>Time Traveler</i> (Open Path)	<i>Escape from School</i> (Linear Path)	<i>Time Traveler</i> (Open Path)
Strongly Agree	11.6%	25.6%	27.9%	30.4%
Agree	69.8%	48.8%	44.2%	34.8%
Neutral	16.3%	23.3%	25.6%	26.1%
Disagree	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	8.7%
Strongly Disagree	0%	0%	0%	0%

Linear path design may influence perceptions about collaboration more than open path design. Table 2 displays participants' average perception of collaboration skills during the escape room experience, either practicing and improving their own skills or how they perceived it improving another's collaboration skills. Results of the comparative analysis show in both rooms, the majority of participants responded positively (agree or strongly agree), which suggests linear path and open path room designs were perceived as beneficial for col-

laborative skill development. However, a greater percentage of participants in the linearly designed *Escape from School* room agreed or strongly agreed compared to those in the open path designed *Time Traveler* room. Additionally, a greater percentage of participants' average scores were reported neutral for the *Time Traveler* room (23.3%) versus *Escape from School* (16.3%). Although these differences are noticeable, they were not statistically significant, as demonstrated in Figure 5. The one exception is the comparison of the responses for Item 2, "My participation in this experience helped to improve my collaboration skills," for the linear path versus the open path. There is a statistically significant difference (at the $p=0.1$ level) in favor of the linear path room. This significant difference, paired with the comparative analysis results, suggests linear path escape rooms may encourage more collaboration skills than open path escape rooms. In considering this finding, the researchers noted that participants were required to work together in the linear path escape room since only one clue was revealed at a time, compared to the open path escape room, which offered an opportunity for participants to split off and work at different stations. This difference may have affected perceptions about collaboration.

Both rooms' designs support critical thinking. Table 2 displays participants' average perception of critical thinking skills following the escape room experience, either practicing and improving their own skills or how they perceived it might support others in improving their critical thinking skills. The comparative analysis shows that the majority (*Escape from School* = 72.1% and *Time Traveler* = 65.2%) of participants' averages were in the strongly agree or agree range, indicating both escape rooms were perceived as beneficial for critical thinking skills. However, the cumulative average of critical thinking items in Figure 6 also indicates there were slightly more participants in the open path designed *Time Traveler* room who disagreed that the escape room experience supported critical thinking skills compared to the linearly designed *Escape from School* room. As with the statistical analysis conducted on the collaboration questions, the differences on the critical thinking questions were not statistically significant. While both rooms were perceived as beneficial, our comparative analyses illuminate that a linear path may encourage more critical thinking than an open path structure. The researchers hypothesize this may have occurred because the linear path structure required the participants to complete the clues one by one, encouraging more group discussion for solving riddles and puzzles. Vocalizing their thoughts might have made participants more aware of their critical thinking, compared to the open path room where participants, working alone or with a partner, would not have been privy to everyone's thinking.

Figure 5. T-test results comparing linear structure versus open path structure.

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Collaboration Composite Score	Critical Thinking Composite Score	All Items Composite Score
Group 1 Average (n=43)	4.3	4.0	4.4	4.3	3.9	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.2
Group 2 Average (n=46)	4.1	3.7	4.3	4.4	3.8	4.3	4.0	4.1	4.1
p value (2 tailed t-test)	0.256	0.092	0.268	0.648	0.709	0.354	0.114	0.440	0.290

Group 1 = *Escape from School* (Linear Escape Room)

Group 2 = *Time Traveler* (Open Escape Room)

Informal Observations Supports Survey Findings

Author 1 and Author 2 were observers in the *Escape from School* and *Time Traveler* escape rooms, respectively. They were responsible for providing the students with a hint if needed, evaluating the NSYNC dance (a performance required to solve the 2000s themed puzzle in the *Time Traveler* room), and helping to re-stage the rooms between groups of participants. Both Author 1's and Author 2's informal observations described participants engaging in critical thinking skills as they collaborated to determine (a) what each puzzle was asking; (b) the best procedure for solving the puzzle; (c) how to implement the procedure; (d) the next steps to take depending on success of the first attempt; and (e) what to do with the results once the puzzle was solved. For example, participants were observed collaborating by directing their peers to look at other boxes and asking whether a certain combination had already been attempted. Also, comments were made soliciting peer involvement, questioning who wanted to do particular tasks, and providing words of encouragement when something did not work.

Author 1 and Author 2 also noted participants celebrated successful escapes as a team and that groups tended to discuss what they might have done differently if they had time to attempt it again. This further showcases how the participants continued to work collaboratively and think critically about the puzzles and their escape strategy and further supports the findings of the survey data, indicating an escape room experience provides an opportunity for participants to practice or improve collaboration skills.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

New models of education supporting the use of collaboration and critical thinking are needed in higher education in order to prepare students for employment in the 21st century (Brown et al., 2019; Franco & DeLuca, 2019). Therefore, this study explored incorporating escape room experiences into campus programming to encourage students' collaboration and critical thinking skills. In response to the first and second research questions, survey data revealed the majority of participants reported being able to practice and improve collaboration and critical thinking skills in the escape room experience. Participants tended to agree more strongly that the escape room experience would improve other students' collaboration and critical thinking skills (items 3 and 6) than improving their own (items 2 and 5). This may be because the post-secondary participants did not feel the puzzles or riddles in the escape rooms were challenging enough to cause improvement for themselves since the majority of groups completed the rooms in time to escape. However, participants may have felt escaping those rooms might be difficult for other students and would have improved their skills. Since the goals of Week of Welcome campus programming are to encourage students to make connections with others and have fun on campus, these rooms were designed to be challenging yet achievable, hence the rooms' high success rate in this study. Thus, for others considering the use of escape rooms in higher education programming, room design's difficulty should be considered based on the event's overall purpose.

In response to the third research question addressing if students' perceptions regarding collaboration and critical thinking skills were influenced by the design of an escape room experience, the data of averages showed the majority of participants responded positively regarding collaboration and critical thinking skills whether they completed *Escape from School* (linear path design) or *Time Traveler* (open path design). The *Time Traveler* room did exhibit slightly greater scores of neutral or negative for the three collaboration items and three critical thinking items. Thus, results suggest linear path escape rooms may influence perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking more than open path escape rooms. The clues' linear nature encourages all participants to work together on a task and allows participants to hear each other's problem solving regarding the clues.

While examining the data, a new question emerged regarding if the familiarity between teammates influenced their perceptions of their collaboration and critical thinking skills. Future studies investigating room design and perhaps interviewing students about their perceptions may shed further light on how structure and participant familiarity influences critical thinking and collaboration.

Limitations of Study

Minor limitations in the study occurred in connection to the survey and population. First, the survey was not validated and only contained a small set of items regarding collaboration and critical thinking since the survey was initially created as a short evaluation of the program. Also, the potential for social desirability bias could have impacted students' responses to the survey. Students might have positive perceptions of collaboration and critical thinking skills and therefore be more likely to claim they had the opportunity to practice or improve these skills. A third limitation stems from the lack of participants completing both rooms. Due to time constraints, all students but two completed only one room. However, had students been able to participate in both rooms, their survey data could have provided more comparative information. The two participants who completed both rooms each completed one survey, providing data on the overall experience and not a specific room. Further insights on the design of escape rooms and students' perceptions about collaboration and critical thinking might have occurred if more participants had completed both rooms and a survey for each.

Finally, most participants were successful in their attempts to escape. This success may have influenced their pos-

itive perceptions of their collaboration and critical thinking skills. Perhaps if students had not escaped the room, they would not have perceived a strong use of these 21st-century skills. This, in turn, poses the question of whether the rooms' difficulty levels influenced the students' perceptions, another interesting topic for future studies.

CONCLUSION

Employers desire college graduates who have proficient 21st-century skills, in addition to career-specific knowledge (Cevik & Senturk, 2019). Concurrently, escape rooms offer students a gamified approach to reinforce collaboration and critical thinking skills (Edson, 2019; Miller et al., 2020). Therefore, to develop highly desirable graduates, colleges and universities may want to consider ways to leverage campus programming to support the continuous development of these skills through activities such as escape rooms. This study provides initial insight into how escape rooms could be enjoyed by students while also being perceived as an opportunity to practice collaboration and critical thinking skills. Evidence from this study suggests that escape rooms can be a campus event that supports critical thinking and collaboration skills among students. An escape room experience was selected for this study because it focused on the two specific skills; however, campus programming leaders and organizers might consider investigating current programming to see what skills are being addressed by, or would naturally align with, events already occurring on campus. If some 21st-century skills are incorporated into highly attended events, and others are not, leaders might seek additional programming to address these needs.

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TEACHING STUDENT LEADERSHIP, ETHICS, AND GROUP RESPONSIBILITY FOR HAZING PREVENTION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Hazing is generally defined as any activity expected of someone joining or participating in a group that humiliates, degrades, abuses, or endangers them regardless of a person's willingness to participate (Hoover, 1999) and has been documented among college students in groups ranging from athletics to marching bands to fraternities and sororities (Allen & Madden, 2008). This investigation examined attitudes and perceptions about hazing for students in a leadership development program compared to their peers. Both groups participated in an online hazing prevention education module and completed pre- and post-surveys. Data were analyzed using statistical two-tailed t-tests for analysis. Though the literature on hazing is highly suggestive of linkages between leadership development and hazing mitigation, it appears this may not be the case. Findings from this investigation revealed that leadership students at this institution responded less strongly against hazing when compared with their peers in the general student body.

HAZING TRAGEDIES MAKING NATIONAL HEADLINES has sharpened public attention and campus commitment to finding effective strategies for preventing the hazing and harm resulting. Hazing, generally defined as “any activity expected of someone joining or participating in a group that humiliates, degrades, abuses, or endangers them regardless of a person’s willingness to participate,” is a campus safety issue and behavior that runs counter to the missions of postsecondary institutions (Allan & Madden, 2008, p. 2). News reports, anecdotal data, and research reports indicated that hazing could include beating, paddling, whipping, and striking; blood pinning; branding, tattooing, cigarette burning, and burning; excessive calisthenics; confinement to restricted areas; consumption of nonfood substances; circumstances leading to drowning and near-drowning; blunt trauma from falls after having to climb roofs, ledges, and bridges; immersion in noxious substances; psychological abuse; and sexual assaults (Finkel, 2002). Furthermore, hazing can also be lethal (Nuwer, 2018).

Hazing on college campuses appears relatively widespread, with one national study that has reported that 55% of undergraduate students belonging to clubs, organizations, and teams, experiencing it (Allan & Madden, 2008; 2012). More recently, Allan, Kerschner, and Payne (2018) found that 26% of students enrolled at institutions participating in the Hazing Prevention Consortium experienced hazing. In addition to the individual harm that may occur, hazing can breed mistrust among groups, contribute to unsafe campus environments, and diminish human and other campus resources in the wake of an incident. Despite the gravity of consequences, peer-reviewed research about hazing and its prevention is in nascent stages of development. Moreover, given that clubs, teams, or other types of student organizations are leadership laboratories for college students, hazing can be described as a leadership concern with implications for student moral and ethical development and civic engagement. As such, understanding hazing is a vital issue for leadership educators, student activities professionals, and student

leaders, and the field of leadership education may provide fruitful ground for research that explores hazing and its prevention. In this paper, the researchers detailed a study designed to examine relationships between ethical leadership development and hazing attitudes of student participants following exposure to the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) in an undergraduate leadership development program.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

The body of literature about college hazing included several national studies, multi-campus (e.g., Allan & Madden, 2008; 2012; Allan, Kerschner, & Payne, 2018), and single-campus studies drawing from several different data sources, including surveys and qualitative data from interviews and focus groups (e.g., Campo, Paulos, & Sipple, 2005; Owen, Burke, & Vichesky, 2008). Basic descriptive questions about the nature and extent of hazing provided a foundation for more in-depth exploratory and experimental designs and evaluation studies of hazing prevention initiatives. As the field continues to evolve, an increasing number of researchers have focused on examining hazing within particular group contexts, e.g., athletics, fraternities, sororities, and marching bands (e.g., Hoover, 1999; Johnson & Holman, 2004; Silveira & Hudson, 2015).

Media reports and researchers have reported a wide range of hazing behaviors, including activities that cause physical and psychological harm, involve high-risk substance abuse, and sexual violence (Finkel, 2002; Finley & Finley, 2007; Flanagan, 2017; Hoover & Pollard, 1999; Kirby & Wintrup, 2002). Further, with increasing recognition of how socio-cultural forces and identity may shape hazing experiences and perceptions of it, researchers have also explored questions related to gender, race, and sexuality in relation to hazing (e.g., Allan & Kinney, 2018; Jones, 2004; Parks & Laybourn, 2017; Parks et al., 2015; Rogers et al., 2012; Veliz-Calderon & Allan, 2017).

Despite the risks, some students continue to engage in hazing practices. Some researchers contended that hazing's persistence is attributable primarily to perceived positive outcomes such as maintaining group hierarchy and cultivating group or team commitment (Campo et al., 2005; Cimino, 2011; Kirby & Wintrup, 2002; Keating et al., 2005). However, not all investigations have produced results in alignment with such conclusions. Some studies have found that hazing diminishes group cohesion and undermines relationships between teammates and peers (e.g., Johnson, 2011; Van Raalte, Cornelius, Linder, & Brewer, 2007).

Two national investigations reported that nearly half (47-48%) of students arrive at campus having experienced hazing in high school (Allan & Madden, 2008; Hoover & Pollard, 2000). Some posited that these prior experiences with hazing might contribute to the normalization of hazing in college settings (Allan & Madden, 2012; Allan, Payne, & Kerschner, 2015). Research has also demonstrated a lack of correlation between hazing student experiences and their willingness to label those experiences as hazing (Allan & Madden, 2008; Allan, Kerschner, & Payne, 2018). Campo et al. (2005) indicated that a possible explanation for the reported gap between the experience of hazing and self-reports of hazing is that students ascribe to a narrow definition of hazing that emphasizes extreme forms, including being tied up, beaten, or raped.

Hazing and Ethical Group Behavior

The concept of hazing corrupting and negatively influencing group behavior was described by Allan and DeAngelis (2004), who stated that “hazing is about abuse of power and control over others” (p. 76). Cimino (2011) identified this perversion of group dynamics in slightly different terms when they described hazing “as the generation of induction costs (i.e., part of the experiences necessary to be acknowledged as a ‘legitimate’ group member) that appear not attributable to group-relevant assessments, preparations, or chance” (p. 242).

Hazing can also be conceptualized as the inverse of collaboration. Komives and Wagner (2009) defined collaboration as “the need for shared responsibility, authority, and accountability, and the benefit of having multiple perspectives and talents in a group process” (p. 195). These over conformity, social control, and induction costs were reflective of Nuwer's analysis that suggests students experience a willingness to endure discomfort and abuse due to the ‘ritual’ aspect in shared hazing experiences that are for the perceived good of the group (1999). “Hazing demonstrates a group's power and status; it teaches precedence as a way to subjugate the individual for the perceived good of the group” (Nuwer, 1999, p.39).

Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) noted the tie between moral and cognitive development and identified that a more advanced intellect would likely result in a higher developed moral reasoning. This is backed up by King and Mayhew's (2002) research on pro-social behavior, which indicated that the collegiate experience strengthens an individual's moral judgment. The authors stated that this is due to individuals gaining higher intellect as they further matriculated through their undergraduate careers. The authors suggested that moral reasoning and judgment both increased throughout the college years, and the college environment provided multiple opportunities to do so.

Leadership and Bullying

Although there is little research connecting Leadership with hazing prevention, an adjacent field of study may provide a framework for comparison. Literature on workplace bullying suggested that an essential antecedent to the perception and perpetration of bullying was managers' leadership style (Samnani & Singh, 2012). "Bullying is an escalated process in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position and becomes the target of systematic negative social acts" (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003, p. 15). These forms of interpersonal violence shared some typical dynamics with hazing, as hazing can also be an escalated process that continues to become more dangerous, and hostile social acts are often the result of hazing. Workplace bullying was not necessarily related to membership in a group or organization, though. A study on leadership styles as predictors of self-reported and observed bullying in the workplace found that bullying correlated with all leadership styles measured (Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010).

Furthermore, this study found that observers were more likely to associate autocratic leaders with bullying, while those who had been victims of bullying associated non-contingent punishment with perceived bullying (Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010). Particularly important to the current research, ethical Leadership (Stouten, et al., 2010) and authentic Leadership (Spence Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2012) mediated the perception and perpetration of bullying in the workplace. These findings provided a foundation for considering ethical leadership training and as an approach to hazing prevention.

Hazing Prevention

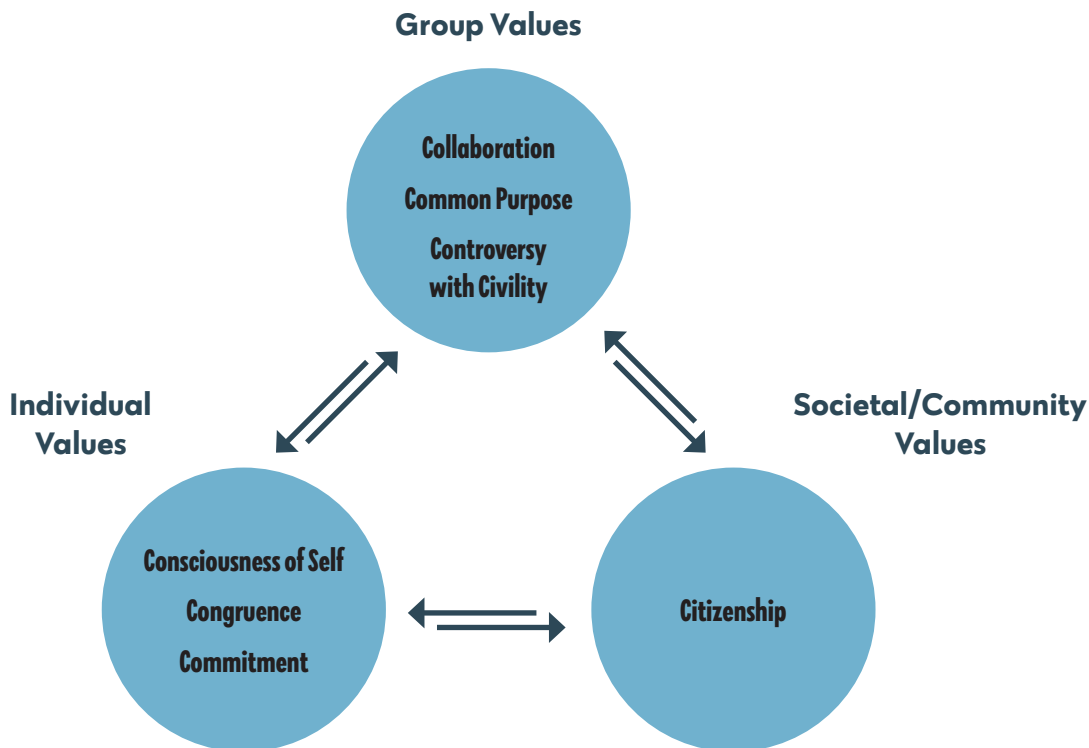
The body of literature focused on hazing prevention is still developing. Massey & Massey (2017) stated, the body of research on hazing in higher education began to develop in the early 1990s with Nuwer's (1990) account of a death from hazing in Greek-letter organization and was bolstered by Shaw's (1992) dissertation discussing hazing practices in sororities (p. 47). Published studies include evaluation studies (Hakkola, Allan, & Kerschner, 2019; Santacrose, Laurita, & Marchell, 2019), a data-driven hazing prevention framework to guide practice (Allan, Kerschner, and Payne, 2018), and a campus-level study of change following a comprehensive hazing prevention effort (Marchell, Santacrose, Laurita, & Allan, forthcoming). Another study by Massey and Massey (2017) focused on a university that did not have a Fraternity and Sorority Life system on campus to ascertain the level of hazing on these types of campuses. It was suggested that hazing still happens in the absence of fraternities and sororities in campus activities. The authors "suggest that efforts to address hazing on college and university campuses need to be targeted more generally to all students to change campus culture rather than designing policies and interventions that target only Greek organizations, athletic teams, marching bands, and other distinct student groups" (p. 60).

While few published studies document the efficacy of hazing prevention, research in related areas of college student health and well-being pointed to the value of public health frameworks for informing hazing prevention. A public health approach emphasized activities that prevent the behavior before it begins (primary prevention). Other forms of prevention were also important, including intervention (secondary prevention) and response (tertiary prevention). Studies from community health affirmed that primary prevention was needed to make significant gains in changing behaviors and shifting cultural norms (Nation et al., 2003). Still, campus professionals often reported spending more time responding to incidents than planning and implementing primary prevention.

Conceptual Framing

In 1993, ten leadership specialists, collectively known as the “ensemble,” met to create a leadership development model for college students. Funded by a grant from the federal Eisenhower Leadership Development Program, the group developed the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). A fundamental assumption of the SCM was that Leadership is collaborative and effective if based on a collection of actions, shared power, and a social justice commitment. Accordingly, Leadership was also meant to be a group effort, not only the actions of individuals with authority. The model also suggested that values-based Leadership was essential, and thus, it was important for actions to align with the group’s values (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). The model noted that change is necessary for Leadership, and effective leaders could create positive change for a community and its members (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). The ensemble developed seven key concepts of Leadership, known as the Seven Cs of the SCM, and was grouped into three areas: individual, group, and societal values noted in Figure 1 (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). The leadership program studied in this research is modeled after the SCM, and all leadership classes teach the importance of the model and ways that students can embody the model in their lives. The Student Affairs division at University A also has adopted the SCM as the divisional leadership philosophy.

Figure 1. *The Seven Cs*



Moral and Ethical Development

In the six stages of moral development, according to Kohlberg (1976), individuals progress from heteronomous morality, where individuals justify actions based on avoidance of punishment to morality based on principles that benefit all and may or may not be lawful. Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development analyzes moral reasoning through a series of levels and stages (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2009).

The post-conventional level spans over the teenage years into adulthood and includes two stages: social contract and principled conscience (Evans, et al., 2009). The social contract is the stage typical in teenage years and describes social mutuality and reciprocity (Evans, et al., 2009). Principled conscience is the final stage, developed

through adulthood when morality is based on principles that transcend mutual benefit (Evans, et al., 2009). Since most students are transitioning through the post-conventional level during their two years in the FTIC program, the researchers drew on this level as a lens to analyze hazing and how that influences students' willingness to report hazing behaviors (Evans, et al., 2009).

Rationalization of hazing, in terms of building group unity or some other perceived positive characteristic, was seen throughout the literature on hazing as the predominant rationale for its use in a group setting. A sense of belonging was defined as the "psychological sense that one is a valued member of the college community" (Hausmann, Schofield, & Woods, 2007, p. 804), and community was a sensation that group members have a sense of community and are essential to one another. This group also had a common allegiance or "a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together" (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 9).

According to Bandura (1991), to cultivate this new sense of group identity, individuals were likely to succumb to moral disengagement. As part of Bandura's Social Learning Theory, moral disengagement was described as a person dissociating themselves from their own ethical standards in a given context (Bandura, 1991). These ethical standards were developed over time, and the utilization of these standards can be influenced by environmental factors, such as socialization interactions (Bandura, 1991). Action based on moral judgment can be impeded by peer pressure, or the idea that people will go against their morals or act irrationally to cultivate harmony and consensus. According to Bandura's moral disengagement theory, individuals were unlikely to participate in group-think, or the immoral activities that come with it, unless they felt that acting against their morals could be justified for the good of a purpose bigger than themselves (Bandura, 1999). Moral disengagement theory may explain why students participate in hazing despite the possibility of traumatic experiences for some and even death for others.

Background and Context

A large public research university (identified here as "University A") was the site for this investigation catalyzed by findings from a campus hazing culture site assessment and a student survey with a random sample of 12,000 students, approximately 17% of the student population. One finding from the survey was that 20.7% of the students indicated they had experienced behavior meeting the definition of hazing, yet only 0.7% of those identified the behaviors (University A: Hazing Survey Report, November 2017).

To address the deficient education about hazing in the state where University A was located, legislators provided funding to create a universal online educational module for all enrolled students. A customized module, purchased from a private company, included university branding. The course was designed to promote awareness, prevention, and reporting of hazing. University A launched the module as one of four required educational components for all newly enrolled students. Pre and post assessments were administered to measure student knowledge of hazing behaviors, likelihood to participate in hazing, and willingness to intervene in a hazing situation.

The leadership development program at University A was created in 1995 as an academic and co-curricular program for incoming first time in college (FTIC) students. The motto of the program, "To Learn, To LEAD, and To Serve," was exemplified by these students' academic rigor, their capacity for Leadership, and their passion for serving the community as social change agents. The academic program consisted of four two-credit hour classes over students' first and second years of study. Students in the FTIC program also had the opportunity to reside in a living-learning community, join student organizations sponsored through the FTIC program, and pursue a minor in Leadership Studies (Leadership development program, n.d.).

The leadership development program studied was a selective academic leadership development program for students committed to academic excellence and making a difference in the world around them. Interested students apply for the program during their senior year in high school after admission to University A. Student leaders in the program guided and led their peers in various ways on campus, including thousands of hours of community service each year. It was the expectation that students chosen for this program become social change agents and leaders with integrity for the university, especially after taking four credited courses based on the Social Change

Model of Leadership. These emerging leaders were also provided service-learning, co-curricular leadership opportunities, and high impact practices in order to become stronger leaders for the university community. The motto, “To Learn, to LEAD, and To Serve,” further showcased the intended caliber of students who entered the program in relation to their academic, leadership, and community skills (Leadership development program, n.d.).

Historically, students in the leadership development program were retained and graduated at a higher rate than students not enrolled in the program. The 2017 entering class was retained at the 97% level, and the six-year graduation rate was 83.9% that same year compared with 89.6% retention and 70%, six-year graduation rate of peers not participating in the program (UNIVERSITY A Collective Impact Strategic Plan, 2016). The 2017 entering class included 21.9% who were Pell Eligible, 12.9% who identified as first-generation college students, and 51.3% of the population identified as an ethnic minority. The leadership program offered several high-impact practices, including small class sizes, communal building spaces, service learning, and shared housing opportunities to encourage campus engagement and student success. These students also participated in the studied hazing prevention module as part of their class curriculum in leadership studies.

Hazing as a Distortion

As noted, one fundamental assumption of the SCM is that Leadership was a group effort, and this understanding is reflected in the values of the 7 Cs of social change (see Figures 3 and 4). In the leadership development FTIC program, students engaged in leadership development through the SCM and learned ethical values for group dynamics and behavior in four leadership studies classes. The same ethical principles students used in group participation through the SCM were the same ethical values manipulated or transformed through the coercive influences exerted through hazing in group culture.

The consulting team’s assessment of the student culture on campus at the university revealed themes that were relatively consistent and reflective of themes in the literature (University A: Hazing Survey Report, November 2014; University of Pittsburgh at Bradford Student Code of Conduct, 2016; Hausmann, Schofield, & Woods, 2007). More specifically, that hazing is a “non-issue,” and students did not feel like they have the power to intervene in hazing situations (University A: Hazing Survey Report, November 2014).

Understanding how hazing characteristics represented a perversion of group dynamics also highlighted the contrast compared to the SCM. In this sense, a hybrid leadership program like the leadership development program studied for this investigation was well-positioned to support more targeted and effective hazing prevention strategies and acculturate students in a community of supportive and positive group dynamics.

Study Design & Methods

Given this conceptual backdrop, previous research, and access to relevant data, this study was designed to examine the relationships between leadership development and hazing attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors of student participants following exposure to the SCM of Leadership in an undergraduate leadership development program. In light of the literature on hazing prevention and student leadership development, the leadership development program’s initial analysis led a sub-group of the research team to hypothesize a correlation between qualities reinforced through the leadership development program and qualities associated with the prevention reporting of hazing behaviors. The authors hypothesized that leadership development students would have a stronger ethical development level due to their leadership development training. It was further hypothesized that leadership students would be more likely to act on their ethical judgment in reporting hazing incidents and not participating in hazing-related activities.

As previously stated, the original hypothesis resulting from those experiences and review of the literature was that leadership development students, due to their exposure to the SCM, and especially the particulars of the program, should be significantly less likely to participate in hazing behaviors when compared with peers who were not participating in the leadership development program. Other data comparing the two populations seemed to corroborate this initial hypothesis. Consider the following data on retention and six-year graduation rates between leadership development students and the university’s FTIC populations: students in the leadership

development program were consistently retained and engaged in the culture and life of the university, and subsequently graduated, at significantly higher rates than the average university FTIC student population. The SRLS questions 9, 40, and 47 previously discussed provided further, specific evidence of the strength of the SCM as a basis for leadership development.

Sample and Data Collection

A web-based self-paced hazing education and prevention module that included a pre- and post-assessment were administered. All leadership development students were required to participate in the module for a course grade in their first- or second-year Leadership Studies class (n=492). All other participants (n=12,857) accessed the survey from their university portal, as it was a requirement for new students. The leadership development students' responses were noted on the SCM variables from the SRLS, discussed previously, as well as their responses to hazing attitudes and behaviors via the online course module, Hazing Prevention 101: It's Everyone's Responsibility. In the module, the questions utilized a 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree) Likert scale, specifically:

- The student's likelihood to being inclined to prevent the occurrence of hazing.
- The student's likelihood to being inclined to report the occurrence of hazing.
- Several other questions provide further context and discussion:
 - Were you hazed? (No, Yes. the first time was in college, high school, middle school, elementary school)
 - Have you participated in the hazing of others?
 - I think hazing is unacceptable under any circumstance.

Analysis

Hazing prevention module pre- and post-data were disaggregated according to the dates respondents completed the module within each three-month quarter time period. When the module was first published, only students in the leadership development program were provided links to complete the module during Q1 of the 2015-2016 year. Following the first quarter, all university students were able to complete the module. Data were separated between Q1 and subsequent module respondents in order to differentiate between students in the leadership development program and all other students in two-tailed t-tests.

RESULTS

Collected responses from the module in the first quarter (Q1) of 2015-2016 (figure 2) from students in the leadership development program and the general population of university students in the second quarter (Q2-6) of 2015-2016 (figure 3) were compared. Leadership students were represented in Q1, while the other quarters included the general university population. In responding to whether they were inclined to report hazing, a response of 4 or 5 (agree or completely agree) was compared with the total number of responses (1-5) to determine the percent of students willing to report. As noted in the visuals (Figures 4 and 5), 79.0% (389/492) of leadership development students indicated they would be inclined to report hazing compared with 82.6% (10,616/12,857) of general university students. A two-tailed t-test was used to compare the two different groups. The difference between them was significant at the .045 level (agree or completely agree).

Table 1: *Incline to report hazing analysis-Leadership students vs. University students.*

Inclined to report (Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5))		
	Leadership Program	All university
n	389	10,616
N	492	12857
%	0.7907	0.8257
% difference: -0.035; z=-2.005		
One-tail: 0.0225; Two-tail:0.045		

Figure 2: Leadership student responses (Q1 2015).

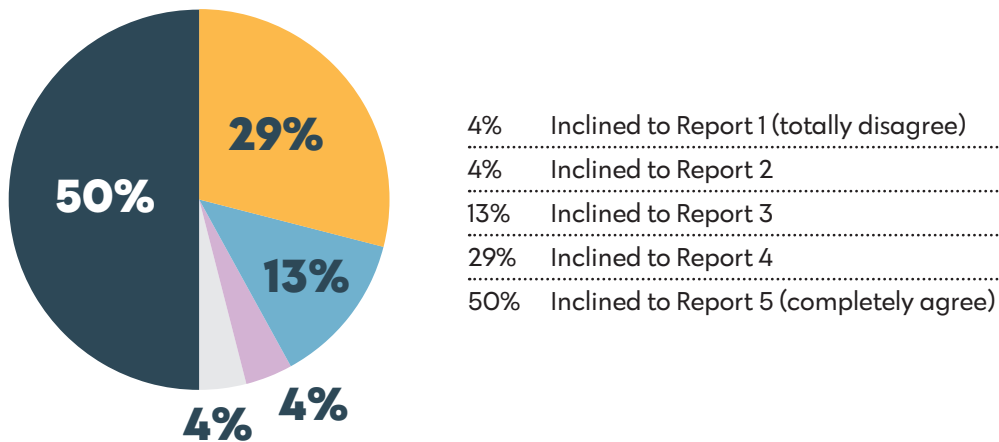
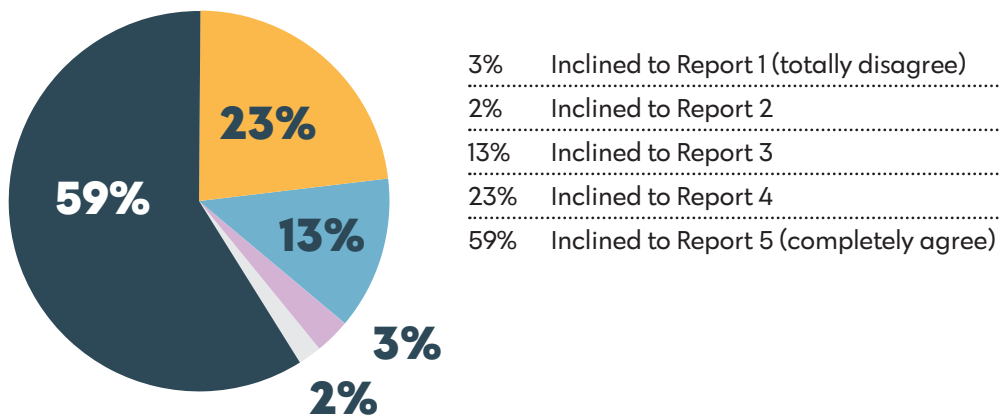


Figure 3: University student responses (Q2 2015-Q6 2016).



When responding to whether they were inclined to act to prevent hazing, a response of 4 to 5 (agree or completely agree) was again compared with the total number of responses (1-5) in Figures 10 and 11. Similarly, 70.9% (349/492) of leadership development students were willing to prevent hazing compared to 80.2% (10,313/12,857) of university students. A two-tailed t-test was used to compare the two different population sizes. The difference between the two groups proved significant at the <.0002 level (agree or completely agree).

Table 2: Inclined to prevent hazing analysis-Leadership students vs. University students.

Inclined to prevent (Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5))		
	Leadership Program	All university
n	349	10,313
N	492	12857
%	0.7093	0.8021
% difference: -0.0928; z= -5.037		
One-tail:<.0001;Two-tail: >.0002		

Figure 4: Leadership student responses (Q1 2015)

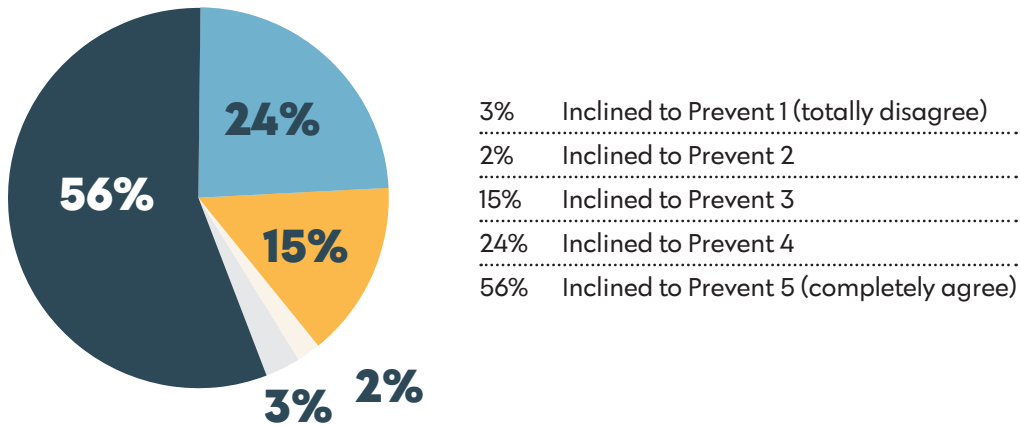
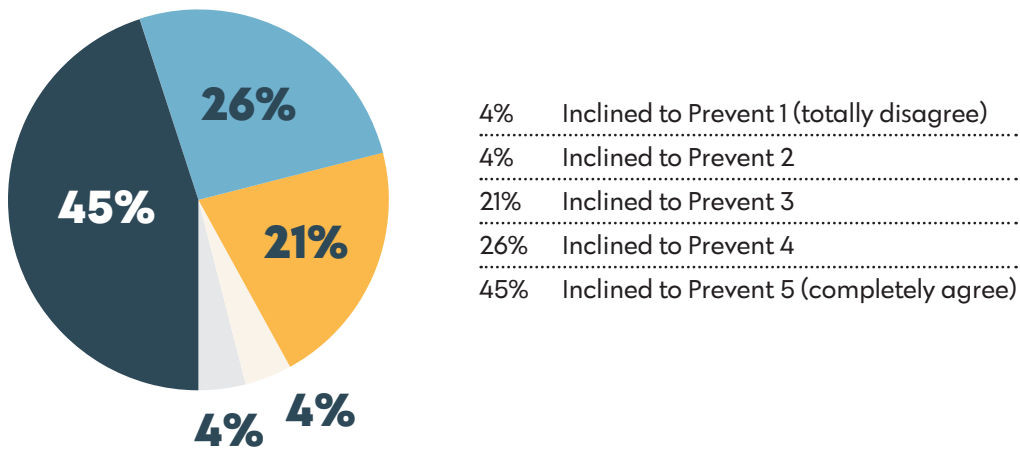


Figure 5: University student responses (Q2 2015-Q6 2016).



In contrast to our hypotheses, the results of this investigation indicated that leadership development students were significantly less likely to report hazing and act to prevent it. Also of interest were the findings relative to who had been hazed and who had participated in hazing others.

Table 3: Response to if students have previously been hazed or hazed others.

	Leadership Development Students	University Students
Yes (respondents admitted to previously being hazed)	11.4% (57/497)	9.2% (1235/13,434)
No (respondents denied in having hazed others)	93.34% (464/497)	95.54% (12,835/13,434)

Hence, 11.4% of leadership development students have previously hazed, while only 9.2% of the general university population has previously hazed others.

One potential explanation for the results relative to prevention and reporting is that leadership development students have been subjected to or involved in hazing at greater rates than other students. Research on hazing has repeatedly demonstrated that most students did not believe there is a problem with hazing, and some even believed that hazing was a positive experience (Allan & Madden, 2008). Students who have been hazed were significantly more likely to perpetuate hazing, thus the higher proportion of leadership development students who reported they have both been hazed and participated in hazing conformed with the other data. Similarly, when asked whether they believe hazing was unacceptable, the number of students responding to perceiving hazing as ‘unacceptable’ conformed to the discussion thus far.

Table 4: *Pretest and post-test results asking if hazing is acceptable.*

	Leadership Development Students	University Students
Is hazing unacceptable? Initial Survey (pretest)	50.5% (251/497)	47.24% (6,776/14,343)
Is hazing unacceptable? Final Survey (post test)	73.8% (363/492)	75.2% (10,098/13,434)

Of note was a 27.96% increase from pre to post for general university students relative to the belief that hazing was unacceptable. By contrast, the change from pre to post-test for this variable was 23.3% for leadership development students, with a post-test percentage lower than the general university population. This was consistent with the data found in the hazing prevention course survey report, prepared by the Center for Digital Education (2018). Student intolerance of hazing increased by 18% from pre to post-test after reviewing the hazing prevention module (n=90,016). The author was unsure if there was confounding variation in the findings due to the time difference of data collection for both groups.

DISCUSSION

Leadership in student organizations in college may mirror hierarchical leadership models in the workplace. The literature on workplace bullying indicated that more democratic modes of Leadership may have a mitigating effect on the perception of abusive work environments (Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010). Yet, in this research study, an explicitly democratic approach to leadership development with college students, the leadership curriculum based on the SCM, did not appear to mitigate attitudes and behaviors associated with hazing, a type of abuse in a group context. Rather, the results from this investigation indicated that students involved in the leadership development course grounded in the SCM were more likely to be involved with hazing and less likely to act to prevent it or report it than students in the general student body at this university. Hazing directly negates the positive values taught in the SCM, including collaboration, controversy with civility, citizenship, among others. One possible explanation was that these results underscored the difference between bullying and hazing, where students were less likely to interpret hazing as a form of abuse.

It was also possible that students in the leadership development program have had prior experiences or dispositions that may increase their likelihood of participating in hazing and impeding their likelihood of preventing or reporting hazing. Students entering into the leadership development program studied here were subject to stringent academic, Leadership, and service admission requirements. They frequently graduated high school in the top 5-10% of their class and were accustomed to a level of excellence beyond that of their peers, including higher retention rates, graduation rates, SAT/ACT scores, college GPAs, and high school GPAs. These students were required to have past leadership experiences; hence these students may have been more motivated to seek opportunities as members of student organizations, fraternities, and sororities, residence hall groups, honors organizations, or student government. It was conceivable that these leadership development students may be

more tolerant of hazing if they perceived it would help them earn status within student organizations. This related back to the need for a sense of belonging and sense of community students feel in their transition into a new phase of life. This population of leadership development students self-selected to apply for the program and may have different pre-conceived attitudes about hazing, which may be a potential limitation of the study. An important limitation to note is that students in the studied leadership development program chose to apply and become part of the program. Students in this program may also have been exposed to hazing after arriving as first- or second-year students prior to participating in the hazing module. All data was also self-reported and were based on an individual student's understanding of terms and their use. Another limitation may be that the researchers currently work in hazing prevention or leadership education and may have a potential bias towards the results. Delimitations included that the small sample size might not be representative of all college students. Another delimitation was that the sample was all taken from University A, which may not represent other university populations.

Based on this study, it is imperative that campus activities professionals, fraternity and sorority advisors, and leadership educators “meet students where they are” with hazing. Student leaders may need different modes of education regarding hazing prevention and the implications of a hazing culture in a student organization. Student learning goals for student leaders should be tailored differently from the overall campus population. Student leaders need to hear more about the long-term effects of hazing in student organizations and how hazing can affect student leaders individually (i.e., legal and student conduct ramifications). Student leaders are typically high achieving students who look forward to a prosperous academic life and future career. By focusing on how hazing can be disastrous to a student leader's future (even if they were not the ones who were perpetrating the hazing) and how their organization's status as a student organization may suffer, more hazing may be prevented or reported by student leaders.

The first year at college is a unique transitional period. In the college environment, students will establish, test, and refine their new psychological identity. First-year students at a university are transitioning from high school to college. Hence, they may create a new identity for themselves or change their sense of self. New friends may serve a student in a positive manner; however, an identity crisis may occur if a student is having transitional problems, and engaging in risky behavior may be a consequence. (Scheier & Botvin, 1997). Also, students' development is especially susceptible to societal influences, as noted by Rospenda et al. (2013, pp. 325-326) “The quality of new social interactions at school and in the workplace is important, particularly in terms of the extent to which they may influence developmental trajectories of risky behaviors.” Given this, the “trajectories of risky behaviors” in which first-year students participate are thus of particular importance. This suggests a logical basis for expecting that leadership development students could feel increased pressure to conform and fit into established peer expectations and groups, thus exposing and encouraging them to accept hazing behaviors.

Allan and Madden (2008) recommended hazing prevention strategies be designed for broad applicability to students in different student organizations, athletics, and other organizations. Also, it was recommended that prevention efforts be comprehensive research-based programs instead of simply one-time presentations. The online module data suggested more educational programming needed to be developed to clearly demonstrate the dangers, consequences, and undesirability of hazing, as well as present viable alternatives to build cohesion and group dynamics within an organization. This corroborated the recommendations made in the 2014 campus hazing culture site visit report, strengthening policy alignment and enforcement, Leadership and ethical decision-making support and development for students, and hazing prevention messaging from visible campus leaders (Allan, Kerschner, & Castellano, 2014).

Additionally, a key finding in the 2014 site visit report was of the 423 students who responded to the interviewer's questions about specific behaviors they encountered when attempting to join or maintain membership in an organization, 16.5% experienced a hazing behavior. This was contrasted with the landmark report developed by Allan and Madden in 2008, which discerned 55% of all college students experienced at least one hazing behavior. The report on the researched university's campus culture, in light of the data from the AliveTek module, suggested that a new study was needed to examine hazing at the university, as it was likely much higher than the 16.5%

originally reported. This is especially relevant given that the student leaders themselves were significantly less likely to report or prevent hazing (as evidenced by the leadership development FTIC students), thus increasing the probability that hazing was occurring on campus.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Anti-Hazing Module Completion for Student Leaders

Student leaders could benefit from widespread anti-hazing workshops, online programming, and general information about hazing. Campus activities professionals could oversee these workshops or online programs and possibly require that student leaders in registered student organizations complete an assessment based on the information provided. This assessment could be required annually for student leaders to serve in the upcoming year or for an organization to re-register with the college or university. If new officers are required to learn about hazing, understand ways to prevent hazing, and ascertain alternate methods for building community in their organization, they will benefit. As student leaders did not score as high as the general student population in several areas in this study, student leaders should be targeted to participate in hazing prevention modules.

Another route campus activity professionals can take is to provide incentives to student leaders who complete the training instead of punishments for students who do not complete the training. This may create a positive impression about the training from the student leaders' perspective and encourage compliance in completing the training. It is also important to show the relevance to student leaders for how this training can help the leaders who go through the modules. This training can teach how student leaders can improve their decision-making skills, how to change or modify negative group behavior, conflict resolution skills, and how to successfully onboard new members safely and effectively while also building group unity. Essentially, if student leaders find this training helpful, they will be more likely to complete it.

Anti-Hazing Task Force/National Hazing Prevention Week

Higher education institutions can establish an anti-hazing task force on campus, including student leaders, campus activities professionals, student conduct officers, fraternity and sorority life professionals, music educators, and athletics/recreational sports personnel. This task force could investigate current rules and regulations at the state and institution level and how this information could be disseminated to student leaders in student organizations. This group could also provide programming for all students about preventing, reporting, and avoiding hazing incidents in student organizations. National Hazing Prevention Week occurs each year in September. This task force could introduce this week of programming to a campus, create a new annual event for students, promote healthy student organization habits, and teach the disadvantages of having a hazing culture in groups. As the findings stated, all new students were required to complete the hazing module. Having a campus-wide week dedicated to hazing prevention would continue students' education as they entered the university.

Institutional Hazing Self-Reporting Clause

Recommended next steps include the development of self-reporting hazing policies, as well as more comprehensive education about what hazing is, how to identify it, and how to report it to the appropriate campus resources. By developing a better plan to encourage students to report, prevent, and advocate for themselves and others against hazing behaviors, as well as become more involved in leadership education, the safety and security of students will lead to a stronger and healthier campus community. According to the findings, 70.9% (349/492) of leadership development students were willing to prevent hazing in comparison with 80.2% (10,313/12,857) of university students. Clearly, as seen in figures 8 and 9, more prevention education is warranted to encourage students to speak up when they see hazing behaviors about to happen in order to prevent harm. Although the university does not have a hazing self-reporting clause in its hazing policy at present, the authors advise that one is established. As seen in figures 6 and 7, 79.0% (389/492) of leadership development students indicated they would be inclined to report hazing compared with 82.6% (10,616/12,857) of general university students.

The implementation of a hazing self-reporting clause is helpful within an institutional hazing policy with differ-

ent levels of penalty to protect individuals who report hazing from retaliation, as well as protect organizations if they openly admit to hazing and want to help removing the perpetrators from their organization is paramount to having more students report hazing, and to eradicating hazing on university campuses (Babson College Graduate Student Handbook, 2014; Swick-Duttine, 2011; Wittenberg Hazing Prevention Resources, n.d.). As seen earlier in the results (figures 6 and 7), student leaders were less likely to report hazing. Institutionalizing a self-reporting clause may encourage student leaders to act more ethically in dangerous situations, leading to a stronger and healthier student population. If student leaders were encouraged to report hazing incidents and were a role model to other students, hopefully, the hazing culture may decrease. Likewise, some student leaders (especially those in elected positions) may be more concerned than the general student body with perceptions of their peers. Given this, a social norms approach where assessment data are used to correct a misperceived norm about peer acceptance of hazing behavior may prove promising (Berkowitz, 2010).

After consulting hazing policies at different colleges and within student organizations, the authors have deduced that any policy a university decides to institute must be written with extreme clarity. Students who are considering reporting hazing may be concerned with possible ramifications for students or organizations in reporting, as seen with the reluctance for student leaders to prevent or report hazing behaviors. Hence clear policies need to be outlined by the administration. Hazing is against Florida law, as it is in many states. Although the university can offer protection to an individual or organization's existence at the University, the institutional hazing policy would provide no protections from criminal investigations or litigation (1006.63 Fla. Stat., 2016). This needs to be very clearly worded so that individuals and groups who do come forward understand that any legal ramifications from hazing actions are in no way the university's responsibility. The university cannot offer them any protections from the legal system. As part of the clarity of the policy, it is important to also have different sections for the different levels of protection that the policy can grant. At this time, the authors recommend two sections for levels of protection within the university, as also recommended by Babson College (2014) at individual and organizational levels.

At the broadest level, the reporting individual or organization will have the opportunity to be pardoned within the university, dependent on the hazing behavior(s) reported. If said organization belongs to a larger national or international organization, the institutional hazing policy will not provide them protection from the organization's overarching policies on risk management. There would be a two-week period to self-disclose if hazing is part of an organization's culture and there is help requested for eliminating it. The organization would be required to do an action plan with the Dean of Students office to eradicate hazing. After the two weeks of protected self-disclosure, there would be no deal made or amnesty granted to an organization if they are found to be hazing.

At an individual level, some clarifications need to be made. If an individual chooses to report anonymously, the university cannot assure amnesty and protections because they are unnamed. Only chapter leadership (no parents, new members, etc.) can report and receive protection that is also extended to the organization; in all other cases, the organization is unlikely to be granted any kind of amnesty. Based on research findings, including the student leaders' reluctance to report or prevent hazing, having reporting protections in place may increase the likelihood that students prevent and report hazing behavior.

Creation of a Hazing Prevention Office

In addition to the development of a policy, creating a dedicated office whose mission is to educate on, prevent, and investigate hazing occurrences on campus is necessary to show the campus community the importance of this type of risky behavior. This new office could serve as a resource for student leaders and all students in organizations with traditionally hazed members. This office should not be housed within Fraternity and Sorority Life, as hazing is a problem that affects other students and those not in fraternity and sorority organizations as well. The authors do not want to undermine the importance of all university personnel responsible for high-risk behaviors. However, similarly to a Title IX investigator, a dedicated individual would allow universities to have a point person in charge of hazing. Title IX and hazing prevention staff members should work together in this work, as they are related to an extent. Although one person would be responsible for hazing prevention efforts, hazing is everyone's responsibility. This aligns with the recommendations by Allan, Kerschner, & Payne (2018). This location being accessible to all students, not just those in Fraternity and Sorority life, would provide more comprehensive visibility to the issue and

how hazing is risky behavior that can affect any student. This office creation would also send a strong message to all university faculty, staff, students, and community members that hazing is not tolerated and that the university has an action plan on how to prevent, educate, and investigate all hazing-related matters.

Creating a coalition of trained student advocates to educate their peers about hazing prevention policies, the self-reporting clause, and provide information on how to report if someone is or has been hazed on campus would be instrumental in cultivating a student culture of awareness, and in working to eradicate hazing from campus life. As seen in Table 4, students can learn and grow from strategic educational methods. Continued hazing prevention education and interventions hold the potential to impact campus climate positively by mitigating abusive behavior. A formal group of student advocates for campus hazing prevention could help to ensure that hazing prevention education is available throughout a student's undergraduate years and not just at the beginning of one's college experience (i.e., orientation, a new student module, etc.), creating a positive culture of Leadership and ethical development for all students. Year-round education and interventions are also important because results from the post-test in Table 4 reveal that students who were involved and invested in University A have lower post scores (related to the unacceptability of hazing) than the entering University population who took the survey.

Recommendations for Future Research

At the very least, there is almost certainly a need to combine the SCM construct with the construct of student attitudes and behaviors related to hazing as described in the literature. The suggestive linkages between hazing prevention and student leadership development theory require further exploration and testing to demonstrate whether the concepts have, in fact, a connection in practice. If, as this study suggests, this is the case, then a dedicated research study with an instrument to measure student attitudes and beliefs relative to both concepts, in terms of a single construct, can be devised such that a significant relationship or non-relationship can be more reliably demonstrated. Also, a further study focusing on student leaders' beliefs and attitudes about hazing before and after different hazing prevention training would further let administrators know which type of training was most beneficial in educating student leaders about the dangers of hazing. By analyzing each training's mode and content, and student leaders' reactions after various workshops, comprehensive and beneficial training can be developed for future use.

In summary, findings from this investigation provided insight about potential alignment and disjuncture between hazing prevention and leadership education on a college campus. More studies are needed to explore these links and add to a growing base of knowledge about hazing prevention. Student leadership education may hold promise for hazing prevention though more remains to be learned. Hazing undermines the missions of postsecondary institutions and can cause harm; thus, its prevention is a university's responsibility. Leadership education for hazing prevention is one promising strategy within a comprehensive approach. Campus-wide policy initiatives, senior leadership commitment and transparency, educational resources, and other research-based prevention strategies are vital ways in which college and university administrators can role model ethical leadership and enhance the health and safety of campus environments.

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PRESIDENTS AS PRACTITIONERS: THE LIVED EXPERIENCE(S) OF FORMER STUDENT BODY PRESIDENTS WORKING IN HIGHER EDUCATION, STUDENT AFFAIRS

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A student body president's work involves addressing emerging crises and challenging institutional decision-makers to respond to the cost of higher education, campus sexual assault, mental health, free speech, and student safety (Student Voice Index, 2018). This phenomenological study unearths the experiences of individuals who previously served as student body president of their institution's student government and who now work in higher education and student affairs. Three themes emerged as a result of multiple interviews with eight former student body presidents, including having a reserved "seat" at "the table," pre-exposure to a career in higher education and student affairs, and a whiplash-like transition following their term. As a result, implications involve the importance of student elections and attention to a retirement-like experience for former student body presidents.

ACCORDING TO THE AMERICAN STUDENT GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION (n. d.), all education institutions should support student governance organizations and recognize student governance groups as the "student voice" of the campus. Student governments are typically led by a president, or "student body president" (SBP), who engages with students about their concerns, feedback, and campus issues (Miles, 2011). The role of SBP evolved as self-governance increased responsibility and importance (May, 2010). According to the National Campus Leadership Council's (NCLC) Student Voice Index (2018), SBPs address emerging crises and challenge institutional decision-makers to respond to challenges such as the cost of higher education, campus sexual assault, mental health, and balancing free speech and student safety. Additional issues and concerns involve residence hall visitation, funding for clubs and organizations, increasing the number of student organizations, smoking on campus (Miles, 2011), and student fee allocation (May, 2010; Smith et al., 2016).

If institutions for higher education across the United States elect an SBP each year, there becomes no argument that there are a lot of past-SBPs in the workforce today. But it is unknown how many of these individuals pursue careers in higher education or student affairs (HE/SA). While we know a lot about the histories of student government as a functionality of a college campus (Alexander, 1969; Bloland, 1961; Dungan & Klopff, 1949; Frederick, 1965; Klopff, 1960), and the experiences of new professionals and graduate students in HE/SA (Hall, 2014; Renn & Hodges, 2007; Tull, Hirt, & Saunders, 2009), this study illuminates the intersection of those serving specifically as SBP who are now working in HE/SA. Using a phenomenological research approach, I ask the question: *What is the lived experience of former Student Body Presidents working in higher education or student affairs?* Asking such a question in this broad manner allows for insights to be illuminated as implications while remaining open to what is brought forward by participants.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Student government survived through generations as a fundamental component of U.S. higher education (May, 2010). The value of student government can be understood through the histories and influence on both the

student(s) and the institution(s) (Dungan & Klopff, 1949). In part, students' self-governance arose from dissatisfaction with institutional rules and procedures and a "desire for student empowerment" (May, 2010, p. 208). Student self-governance evolved from early literary societies and appeared in honor systems, assemblies, class councils, student councils, and most recently, student associations (May, 2010). Student associations generally include serving as the voice of the student body to administrators, and overseeing fees, student organizations, and programming (May, 2010; Miles et al., 2008). It is one of many campus activities that enables an understanding and appreciation of cultural and human difference, global perspectives, and civic responsibility (Komives, 2019).

Participation in student government is linked to individual student outcomes and positive contributions to the welfare of the community (Komives, 2019; Kuh & Lund, 1994). Students involved in college governance receive training and experience that enhances their education and development (Terrell & Cuyjet, 1994). Such training includes organizing, planning, decision-making, managing, and working with different populations of people (Kuh & Lund, 1994). As representatives of their constituents, student government leaders can be a resource in forming policy (Terrell & Cuyjet, 1994). As governance bodies in higher education can be relatively segregated (Miles et al., 2008), campus administrators should decide the responsibilities of students and the level of authority given to them (Klopff, 1960).

Studies on student government reveal a shared governance between students and higher education professionals that afforded acceptability and support for policy decisions (Terrell & Cuyjet, 1994). Representation often conveys how an institution responds to trustees and leaders, and at times, students are even granted a seat with trustees (Smith et al., 2016). Together, senior student affairs officers and student government leaders can influence policy, practice, and procedures (Golden & Schwartz, 1994). The togetherness implied in the literature opposes an us-against-them mentality. However, the role that students play depends on the philosophies of the faculty, administration, and any trustees affiliated with the institution (Klopff, 1960). Over time, student self-governance matured alongside other aspects of higher education and solidified as a fundamental part of a college or university campus (May, 2010).

While the research on student government and self-governance remains consistent over time, published research on SBPs, specifically, is sparse. In one study on the experiences of SBPs, Miles (2011) found that SBPs desired structure and procedure but wanted the freedom to break away from campus tradition(s). SBPs worked with faculty or staff members as advisors and interacted with additional staff members and administrators, some of whom also served in unofficial advising capacities (Miles, 2011). Part of serving as an SBP involves meeting with key administrators, maintaining speaking rights in key community spaces (e.g., board meetings), and representing students' voices (Student Voice Index, 2018).

In 2004, Miller and Kraus explored whether women were equally represented in student government leadership roles and found that women were elected mostly as representatives, and much less in President and Vice-president positions. At the time, women held nearly half of the student government positions, whereas men held over 70% of the President and Vice-president positions (Miller & Kraus, 2004). In 2020, Workman and colleagues found that women student government presidents endured a "boy's club" that led to a "chilly climate" in their student government experience. Participants described the climate with regard to the organizational culture, bias against women, and challenges inherent to the election and transition process (Workman et al., 2020). In unpublished dissertation work, Mink Salas (2010), Rupert Davis (2019), Spencer (2004), and Zimmerman (2017) all explored women, leadership, and student government experiences (several of which were SBP-focused). Zimmerman (2017) found that social justice, advocacy, and activism prepared many women in her study to run for SBP. Similarly, Rupert Davis (2019) posited that campus diversity and inclusion issues impacted how women engage in leadership roles. While women leaders helped sustain and expand student self-governance, similar to additional underserved populations such as African American, Jewish, and Asian students, limited access to higher education in the U.S. delayed involvement in the first three centuries (May, 2010). For example, it was not until 2000 when a Black student, Nic Lott, was elected SBP at the University of Mississippi (Racial Attitudes of America's Youth, 2000).

In their study, Miles et al. (2008) found that students agreed most strongly that the ideal characteristic of student government leaders was that they represented all student interests and were willing to communicate with diverse students and advocate for students with administrators. SBPs who meet regularly with the senior student affairs officer feel they have a stronger voice than those who meet less frequently (Student Voice Index, 2018). However, only 55% of SBPs report feeling very or extremely influential on their campus (Student Voice Index, 2018). Miles (2011) asserted, “Although they serve in leadership roles, student leaders are still students. They are learning skills they will use throughout their personal and professional lives. Struggling with these issues may be part of the student’s development” (p. 330). Students put in long hours managing campus events, funds and budgets, and student issues, and assuming the task of the president can often amount to a full-time job (The JBHE Foundation, Inc., 1998). Furthermore, students are challenged by the restraints of term limits, special interests, Greek-letter voting blocks, exhaustion from participation, and turnover (Smith et al., 2016). For example, student governments have significant transition issues when leaders turnover, including losing graduating seniors to be replaced with first-year students (Smith et al., 2016).

METHODOLOGY

The methodology in this context also serves as a philosophical grounding for human science research (van Manen, 1997). Here, philosophical underpinnings guide this study (Gadamer, 1975; van Manen, 2014). Human science research acknowledges how one orients to lived experience (van Manen, 1997). Human science studies people, and specifically, applied phenomenology in this way is human science research (van Manen, 1997). I rely on philosophers like Hans-George Gadamer and Martin Heidegger to center this study as being *in the world* (with participants, and alongside participants). I carry into this study my *prejudices* (as *pre-understandings*, rather than the pejorative implication the term often carries), and a belief that all knowledge consists of prejudices (Gadamer, 1975). For example, I have experience with undergraduate and graduate student government *and* HE/SA practice. I understand the language associated with each of these functional areas, and am attuned to current events, challenges, and pressing issues. I am an insider with insider knowledge.

Phenomenology is not solely about illuminating lived experience. Many qualitative methodologies suggest such an illumination. Here, there is a call to understand the essence of lived experience. Understanding the essence of a phenomenon—the essence of this lived experience—is the starting and endpoint of phenomenological research (Hultgren, 1995). Phenomenology is an approach that enlists deep interpretation (Gadamer, 1975; van Manen, 2014), and resists that which is fixed in theory (Gadamer, 1975). While qualitative research can greatly inform student affairs practice (Arminio & Hultgren, 2002), to be grounded in phenomenology is not a series of implications or recommendations. Instead, insights are gleaned based on the themes associated with this phenomenon.

Positionality and “Turning”

Proper to applied phenomenology and van Manen’s (1997) six research activities, a study such as this contains a personal “turning” to the phenomenon. In this way, a “turning” captures how I, the author, “turned to” or discovered this topic as one worth exploring through research. For example, I served as Student Body President my junior year of college. By my senior year, I had developed a connection with the university president that was stronger and more personal than the relationships I had with many of my professors. I had access to numerous calendar-gatekeepers who allowed me to meet frequently and easily with various campus stakeholders, and I even had my university president’s cell phone number. The morning of my graduation, I received a text from my parents that they had forgotten to pack their graduation tickets. My parents lived in a different state than my undergraduate institution, and at the time, graduation tickets were highly coveted and (problematically) necessary to gain entrance into commencement. Enlisting the one personal “favor” I had ever asked of him, I texted my university president to see if he could assist. He quickly responded, and within minutes showed up at the back door of the field house to let in my family and several friends.

When I started graduate school two years later, I struggled to find my place, especially on a campus where I felt

like a tiny minnow in a big ocean, and after having felt like a giant whale in a mid-sized lake. I recall only seeing the university president just two times in-person during the two years of my graduate studies. Each time took place during a ceremonious something-or-other. I have met and conversed with several former SBPs who share similar experiences over the years working in higher education and student affairs. It was my own experience that helped me “turn” to this phenomenon, and the conversations with others that ultimately led to my desire to conduct this study.

Phenomenological Process

Following IRB approval, a call for participants remained open for three weeks. Eight individuals who met the criteria were selected and volunteered to interview with me about their experience(s). At the time of the interviews, participants in this study all worked in HE/SA as full-time practitioners or graduate student practitioners, and previously served as undergraduate SBP within the three years prior to the commencement of this study (2016-2019). While some participants identified as graduate students, I frame their work as practice beyond their undergraduate experience. Many new professionals gain fundamental and entry-level knowledge and skill development from preparation graduate programs (Kuk & Cuyjet, 2009), and are primarily socialized into the profession through graduate school (Collins, 2009). Furthermore, honoring graduate student labor is an essential part of my own definitions of student affairs practice.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

Participants filled out consent forms prior to the first interview, and after the second interview, were invited to identify their own pseudonyms. I conducted two 60-90-minute interviews with each participant via Skype or WebEx, and each individual was provided a \$10 Amazon gift card for their participation. I enlisted semi-structured interviews (Bevan, 2014; Patton, 2002), which were transcribed using Rev transcription services and placed in one major document for review. Consistent with hermeneutic phenomenology, insights were gleaned from an in-depth review of interview transcripts. Interviews were listened to to capture tone and emphasis, and transcripts were read multiple times to capture statements and phrases that were essential to revealing the phenomenon (van Manen, 1997). This process involved first reading the transcripts multiple times. Themes were then created by analyzing data through a selective highlighting approach (van Manen, 1997). This process took place over a period of two months.

Participants

Abigail is a first-generation college student who grew up in the Midwest. She went to a large public institution for her undergraduate degree, and a private institution in a large city for her master’s degree in HE/SA. She served as SBP her senior year, three years before our conversation. Abigail now works in housing at a small private college.

Adam is a doctoral student in the Northeast and achieved a master’s degree in HE/SA prior to starting his doctorate. He served as SBP of his small private school in the Southeast during his final year as an undergraduate, and we spoke three years following his serving in that role. He now works in advising and intercultural affairs.

Emily is from the Northeast and served as SBP of her small private institution during her senior year. We spoke one year after her term as president, which was one year into pursuing a graduate degree in student affairs. In her current assistantship, Emily advises students and student organizations.

Gus is from the suburbs of a large Midwest city. He attended a small private institution in the Midwest and served as SBP his senior year. We spoke two years following his term, and after the completion of his master’s degree in higher education. Gus now works as an education consultant in a major Eastern coastal city.

Karlie is from the Midwest and went to a small private school in a large city. She served as SBP her senior year, her first and only year to be directly involved in student government. Karlie went to a public institution for graduate school, and we spoke two years after her presidency as she was working in leadership programs at another

large public institution.

Penny is from a small town in the Midwest and went to a small private institution for her undergraduate degree. Penny served as SBP her senior year of college. She worked for one year before graduate school, and we spoke after her first year of pursuing a master's degree in HE/SA. As part of her assistantship, Penny works in student activities and student organization advising.

Ron grew up in the Northeast and went to a small private institution for his undergraduate degree and a large public institution for his graduate degree. Ron is a self-described “student government kid,” and served as SBP at the end of his college career. Ron now works professionally in student activities at a small private institution.

Serge is from the Western part of the United States and went to school in the Mid-Atlantic. He served as SBP during his fifth year of school. Serge took two years between graduation and starting graduate school to work as an education consultant. While he is not pursuing a HE/SA degree, his assistantship is working in student activities.

FINDINGS: STUDENT GOVERNMENT AS STUDENT AFFAIRS PRACTICE

For participants, there was a suspension of self when getting involved in student government. By and large, their college experiences were defined by their student government work. Some even share that student government changed their life. Others share that it *was* their whole (undergraduate) life. As the interviews concluded, themes emerged. Between having a seat at the table, exposure to careers in HE/SA, and the (official) transition into the field beyond the undergraduate status, these individuals had been student affairs practitioners all along.

A Reserved Seat at the Table

Resoundingly, former SBPs knew “the table” and had a frequently reserved seat. In fact, they had many seats. The “table,” in this context, was a space for students—namely SBPs—on committees, and with access to university administrators. Penny asked:

Who's actually sitting at the table? And what tables are they sitting at? Yeah, cool, I can be sitting at a table, I could be invited to a committee. But am I invited to the Homecoming planning committee, or am I invited to hiring our new Dean?

Between the participants, seats taken included committees for major administrator position vacancies, policy updates, residence hall development, Faculty Senate and Board of Trustee meetings, and with votes toward major financial and structural decisions.

Karlie viewed this work as “getting that first look behind the curtain.” This meant having access to information before others in the community. For example, before the rollout of a major strategic plan, Gus met with the president of his institution and provided feedback on behalf of the students. Serge was also privy to information in advance and would often learn about campus happenings before the rest of the community. Karlie, Adam, and Ron were all non-voting members on their institution's Board of Trustees, and Adam held a seat on the president's advisory council. While Karlie felt it was more about the look of having students present, she was serious about speaking up and representing the student body. Abigail felt similarly that there was a “placeholder” feel on some of her committees.

These seats were inherited and came with the territory of being SBP. This was not always a space that was welcoming of students. Abigail recalled having a spot and vote on a major university budget committee but felt at times that she did not know what was going on and had to meet one-on-one outside of those meetings to gain the full picture. While she felt a responsibility to advocate for students, sometimes the full picture revealed more dismal options. Abigail shared, “I'm here as a student saying, ‘You probably shouldn't up tuition,’ and then I'm like, ‘Oh, we're getting our budget slashed in half.’”

This theme also manifested as a seat at the table with administrative one-on-one access. Adam shared, “Once you’re connected with the staff and administration, you’re connected throughout campus.” Here, SBPs had direct and frequent engagement with administrators, and experienced relationships that were not the norm for other students on their campus. Gus met with the Provost and Dean of Students weekly and with the president every three weeks. “No other student had that access,” he shared. Gus considered the Dean of Students a close friend and mentor, and Adam shared, “If I needed anything, they were always there.” Ron recalled meeting weekly with the Dean of Students and student government advisor. He found these individuals there for him in advising capacities and felt that they got to know him as a human. Abigail felt similarly. When there were significant sexist remarks made in a student government meeting, a senior student affairs officer invited all the women in the Senate to her home to have a more in-depth discussion about women in leadership. This impacted Abigail, who felt a deep connection to her student affairs administrators.

Adam saw drawbacks to this access. “It’s not good for one student to have so much power,” he shared, noting his struggle with the access granted to him. For many, the expectation that administrators saw them as allies was part of the access and power. For example, Abigail succeeded an SBP that did not have a relationship with administrators. She felt administrators were excited about her serving as president because she was not actively “fighting against them.” Consequently, Ron never felt an adversarial role with administrators. However, this was at odds with his Vice President, who did not care for administrators. Additional drawbacks included outward-facing perceptions. Gus remembered having to defend administrator decisions to his peers, especially as he saw his Dean of Students advocate for students and student life in ways his peers did not always see and in ways other administrators dismissed. Karlie had a similar experience, as access and relationships between student government and administrators were tense at times. Some students viewed student government as “in the pocket” of the university administration. For example, when the university administration attempted to force the student government to allocate funds to a specific area without going through the allocation process, Karlie and her peers stood up to what felt like manipulation. “There were these ways that certain administrators would try to take advantage of that [relationship],” Karlie shared.

Pre-Exposure to a Career in HE/SA

It is undeniable that former SPBs had a unique and up-close view of HE/SA. The tackled issues alone were wide-reaching and deeply rooted in serving and services for students. Emily reflected on her early days as SBP, when she moved the campus conversation from “broken cups in the dining hall” to things like accessibility and security on campus, new residence halls, and funding issues, and language options for course credit. She also worked to expand Title IX and multicultural programs at her institution. Emily’s institution treated her as a full-time employee, and she shared, “I was the only student affairs staff person on our Provost search committee, and I was an undergraduate student. . . . I represented the student voice and the student affairs voice.” Similarly, Serge addressed performance spaces on campus, sustainability, a bike-share problem, and a university milestone program. Abigail accomplished a lot in her presidency, including addressing employee employees’ wages, open-access textbooks, and several measures to hold the student Senate accountable.

Both Ron and Gus experienced issues with third-party conservative organizations. As his student government worked with student organization recognition, Ron dealt with conflict associated with one such organization, Turning Point, and “all hell broke loose.” Understanding the bigger picture that student organizations should be recognized if they met the standards of registration, Ron saw the ways political entities interacted with(in) HE/SA. Despite the personal dilemma, Ron exemplified a neutral approach to the matter. Gus dealt with a national free-speech group that impacted his time as SBP, which led to significant diversity and inclusion issues on his campus (ones that were veiled as free speech). He felt his administrators were not fully prepared for these issues, and the students became the leaders on that topic. As such, Gus developed a deeper understanding of free speech, something he thought he knew about, but that was further developed because of these incidents.

Even despite relationships, participants acknowledged the reality of some tensions within learning about HE/SA. Ron shared:

I also knew that I could sit in this student role, and I could be student body president and speak their language, but never lose sight of sort of who I was and what I was advocating for, and what my positionality was, and there was power in that. I didn't need to become them in order to interact with them.

Over time, Ron understood the importance of environment and voice and access and opportunity to and for students and the community. In many ways, Ron was a “[SBP] for the people.” He was bringing things to campus that, on some campuses, were done by full-time HE/SA practitioners. Karlie experienced similar responsibilities and noticed that students were expected to do work in place of having staffing or full-time positions geared toward some of the areas claimed as institutional values (e.g., a full-time staff member doing diversity and inclusion work as opposed to students carrying the load). As SBP, Karlie created space for administrator-student interactions through forums and created a multicultural affairs programming team after the institution collapsed the full-time position. She also questioned why the institution was not funding sexual assault prevention programming, and publicly challenged her administrators to accommodate that need.

More importantly, the developed skills were those that were readily accessible and applicable to their practice. For example, in a class with his graduate school cohort, Gus recalled an example when a peer commented about higher education that he felt was inaccurate. He drew on being SBP to respond. At that moment, Gus realized many of his peers did not have this same frame of reference. In her finance coursework, Karlie knew how things worked in HE/SA, and this helped her provide examples related to her student government experience. In Penny's courses, she realized how advisors influenced her, even if she was not ready for that development at the time, and saw student development theories come to life in reflection of her experiences. Abigail appreciated her graduate program, and the scaffolding helped her think about social justice and identities prior to delving into student development theories. While she considered herself socially aware and social justice-minded, she realized that some of her language or approach as SBP at times deferred more to administrators than to students.

Whiplash, in Transition

Many participants felt a dissonance associated with their post-SBP transitions. The dissonance was startling, and some explained this as a type of whiplash, or a quick movement from “hot-to-cold.” Ron reflected:

You have a place in the room... They're welcoming your voice. They see that you have power. You don't really need to build an ethos for yourself, it's sort of built-in. And that all went away when I became a grad student.

Penny remembered seeing her undergraduate president on campus with great visibility. In her first year of graduate school, she recalled seeing the president only three times. “He has no idea who I am, and he probably couldn't care less,” she shared. Serge said the post-SBP transition was rough, and he went from being “that person” on campus, to being at the bottom of the organizational chart. This included moving to another state and not knowing anyone at his new company. Also working directly after graduation, pre-graduate school, Penny's post-SBP experience was mixed. She found it difficult to redefine herself after serving as SBP and navigating life no longer as a student.

Gus felt like “a nobody” who went to class and only did school when he started his master's degree. It was even more difficult for him when he did not enjoy his graduate assistantship, and upon realizing he did not have the agency to make changes in that environment. As an undergraduate, Gus shared that he could make a quick meeting with the Dean of Students. “That was a privilege. It was a deep, downright, straight-up privilege to have that,” he shared. Gus appreciated this learning, but it was hard as things did not change. As such, it became more about learning how to deal with the non-change.

The transition for some was also rooted in institution type. For Emily, levels of “being at the table” did not exist in her graduate assistantship as they did at her previous institution. The transition moved from an institution-centered approach as SBP to the department/student-focus as a practitioner. The size of her new institution was a struggle, and she experienced “culture shock.” Going into her career, Penny understood the ins and outs of a small private institution, and she felt very prepared for this setup of higher education. She felt a disconnect when

she got to her graduate institution.

Some were prepared for the challenges that existed following their presidency. Emily's mentor sat her down before starting graduate school and shared with her that there will be many people like her at her new institution - people who did great things, with a lot of institutional impact. Similarly, Ron's mentors challenged him to think about the transition in advance, and he aspired not to be seen as "the guy that acts like they're still in undergrad in grad school." He did not want his experience over the previous four years to serve as a benchmark for the years ahead. Ron worked on tempering his expectations when he got to his master's program, but there was still a struggle figuring out his new institution's dynamics. There were times when Ron would miss the engagement of student government, and he found himself to "perk up" about student government-related conversations with his cohort and in class. He ultimately decided that his graduate institution was so large, and being a graduate student; he just resolved to focus on learning and academic pursuits.

Others found a connection on their campus, just not to the institution at large. The participants who went immediately to a graduate school established a community and investment in their academic department or assistantship. While she prepared herself to be "no one" at her new institution, between her assistantship and the community she works with, Emily was given more of a voice than she realized. "I feel like, at times, I'm right back at the table, and even when I'm not at the table, I'm speaking through the door, and they're somehow listening," she shared. This feeling drew Emily to view her assistantship in a more positive light than how she viewed the institution at large.

While Serge found himself knowledgeable about the field, he questioned if he had the "qualifications" to be a practitioner (e.g., a master's degree or more work outside of his undergraduate experience). Similarly, Penny felt pressure as a new professional because she had developed such a competence for herself as an undergraduate student. Karlie's transition was tough. She felt going to her master's program was like going to college for the first time. She shared, "I was coming off of...knowing everyone, people knew me, knowing all the administrators...if I needed something, I knew where to find it." Karlie had a supportive student affairs staff at her undergraduate institution, but dealt with a very opposing environment in her graduate program. In the new environment, she dealt with a supervisor who cursed at her and disrespected her in different ways. She eventually developed a mentorship with another advisor who affirmed her work and presence.

DISCUSSION AND INSIGHTS

Rather than "implications" or "recommendations," I engage in the realm of phenomenology that suggests the offering of insights into what it means to work with or better understand this phenomenon (van Manen, 1997). Here, there are possible implications for working alongside this population of students and practitioners. This is done by reexamining the metaphor of a "seat" at "the table" through the lens of elections and representation, and illuminating a retirement-like feel expressed by former SBPs.

If the "Seat" Matters, Elections Matter

Over time, many of the participants questioned the seats they occupied at each of the tables they frequented as SBP. Each seat represents a set of values and might place value on whose voice is essential in higher education. But with their seats at the table, I wonder, what is it about the seat that prioritizes the position over the person? The reality is that the seat itself is not reserved for a particular student, and instead, it is saved for whoever occupies the position. Besides being elected (which is a significant accomplishment), there are no set criteria for many of the seats these SBPs occupied. It is the election itself that determines such reservation. Campus activities officers and student government advisors should consider how committees are designed and how students are representative. Having a healthy balance of *elected-into*, *applied-for*, and *appointed-to* seats may allow for representation to span beyond elected-only capacities.

The relatively low number of students who vote in student government elections is also a critical component to

illuminate. Dungan and Klopff (1949) cited student body election vote percentages to run as low as 9% of any given student body. Seventy years later, the NCLC cites averages to be around 22% of the student body (Student Voice Index, 2018). While the number has more than doubled, this is still a relatively low population of students who determine who gets to sit at the various tables of administrative power. Furthermore, some participants ran unopposed, which hints at this same reality. The position grants the seat. This also hints at the complexity of higher education work and that, at times, undergraduate students have more power than some institutional staff members. While the power is symbolic, it is also temporary (by the person). Such a system calls for an understanding that individuals working in HE/SA may share their job responsibilities with undergraduate students. Like the robust education often needed for campus activities professional positions, a similar or abridged training should be considered for students elected to student government roles (e.g., learning about college students, event management, organization budgets, meeting facilitation). First-year student government mentoring programs and internships for young or new students are ways to engage such training or education as preparation for elected roles.

I do not doubt that these participants were all worthy of such seats, but many shared realizations that questioned their access and if other students should have been afforded such spaces. For example, Serge only won his election by a handful of votes. Had a few students voted differently or not at all, a different student would have received the access that Serge was afforded. This is a reminder that the seats themselves are occupied by the position and not always student-specific. The winner gets the seat. Perhaps this is why organizations like Turning Point seek to engage with student government elections to infuse Conservative values into the position (no matter the person, it is the seat that adds benefit). Student affairs practitioners who advise or work with student government can develop pathways for elected leadership, including minoritized students and those who possess identities not typically represented in student government.

As many participants shared that the seats themselves were about the optics of student input, Abigail reiterated that it was also about social capital and a way for institutions to make it seem like the student voice mattered. When students serve on committees, there should be a deep reflection about how they are asked (or expected) to show up and in what ways they can influence and lead within spaces that are granted by position. HE/SA entities can be intentional, and still, there is a hierarchical observance that dominates much of the ways people are asked to show up and do decision-making work. Practitioners should consider engaging with a wide range of students to do committee work beyond those elected to the highest roles (e.g., committee representation, applied-for positions). This might allow a younger generation of leaders to experience this work to prepare for an elected student government experience. While much of the literature on leadership education has noted that a focus should be on leaders as made rather than born (Dugan, 2017), practitioners should think beyond the positional leadership narratives that have dominated HE/SA for quite some time.

Student Leader Retirement

At the end of their time in office, the former SBPs were tired. This feeling permeated through our conversations, and there was a feeling of doneness that was hard to ignore. To pack a platform worth of passion and goals into one's presidency is a significant task. Many of these former SBPs had been involved throughout their undergraduate journey, and some even engaged with student council and student government in middle school and high school. Emily framed the post-SBP experience as a sort of student leader "retirement." Her experience(s) in student government were valued deeply. Emily shared, "What the association represented to people and what it could do mattered more to me than anything. Like, this idea when I came in my freshman year of wanting to make a name for myself, that no longer mattered." Feelings such as these contributed to both the whiplash-like feeling of transition and the doneness associated with this kind of student leader retirement.

There is a transition within this retirement, and Penny shared, "It's like you feel like you've hit your peak. Great, you're Student Senate president, everyone loves you, and then you move on, and there's no going up from there." Now that she has left the institution, she feels differently, but her initial departure was difficult. This struggle was shared across the participants, and there was a bittersweetness for some. As new SBPs and student government officers take over in quick succession, attention should be made to the ways students depart their role as SBP and student leadership more broadly. Like an airplane beginning the descent for landing, such a retirement should

be handled with care, especially for those going into HE/SA work post-graduation. Practitioners can focus on the “retirement” of outgoing student leaders and develop transition opportunities to help students exit their role.

Administrators and practitioners can address the retirement-like feel by exploring contributing factors that might lead students to feel that they are done. For example, examining committee start and end dates, election cycles, and duplicate representation (e.g., one person in multiple committees) may all be areas where transition and departure are most helpful to students. However, similar to some functional areas in student affairs, is there a burn-out that is hard to ignore related to the experience of an SBP? Here, there is a calling to think about what it means to be a “retired” student leader and be done with more than the role itself.

The participants in this study took their student government responsibilities seriously and operated as if they were working for their institution all along. For some, this meant feeling like they were “on” and available at all times. To experience work in this to-be-accessible kind of way, at times, participants described themselves as separate from their peers - that, to do this work, they already saw themselves as practitioners, despite the pre-career view (pre-exposure), and despite the transition (whiplash). Campus activities practitioners and student government advisors can be attentive to this whiplash-like feel by preparing students for entering *and* exiting the role. In the case of actual whiplash, where the stress and pain manifest in the bodily form (aching neck, shoulders), advisors can anticipate how to best support students with this reality in mind (e.g., how physical therapy may be beneficial in the case of actual whiplash). Practitioners can encourage students to seek therapy or counseling, plan for their transition, seek community opportunities that mirror a student government leadership experience, and more.

Opportunities for Future Research and Exploration

Finally, questions remain as I journey from this initial exploration of former SBPs working in HE/SA. But these questions involve a broader examination of student affairs and the functions at play regarding student government and students’ governance. For example, for those who had fraternity/sorority life at their institutions, “the Greek vote” became a contentious topic regarding elections. Penny shares, “When we’re talking about fraternities and sororities coming together and voting for people, it becomes very gendered, and it becomes very much like, ‘Well we’re going to vote for our boy.’” Karlie believed it was a privilege to be in a sorority and that it wielded power, money, and social capital. The vote- and support-lines are drawn based on membership and are not necessarily about work or capability. Issues like organizational support and voting blocs may be a future exploration associated with the phenomenon of student government and leadership. The fraternity/sorority privilege associated with student government cannot be ignored and should be interrogated in future research.

Next, there are gender dynamics that should be addressed in future student government research. Rupert Davis (2019) suggests that campus administrators and community members should be apprised of bias and stereotypes faced by women student leaders. All of the women in this study talked about the different ways women were treated in leadership. Emily was told she needed to have a “softer” approach and was called “bitchy” and “aggressive” as compared to former (male) SBPs. At Penny’s institution, student government was very gendered and male-dominated, and she felt like it was not necessarily “she can’t because she’s a woman,” but more so, “he can because he’s a man.” Karlie ran against a fraternity man for president. This was the first time she felt gender at play, as some people voted for her opponent solely because he was a man (and without care that she was the most experienced student government representative at the time). Future research can directly consider the way gender shows up in student government spaces, including students’ experience and the responsibility of advisors. Like Abigail’s administrator who invited the women of student government to her home, other studies about the intersection of gender and student government should occur in both the personal and professional context. The act of inviting the women in student government into an “affinity” space *for women*, as a start, is a promising practice for campus activities practitioners and student government advisors.

PRACTITIONERS ALL ALONG

These past SBPs working in HE/SA had access to administrators and campus decision-making through the seats afforded to them due to their presidency. They had exposure to HE/SA as a possible career. And they experienced a jolting transition from their undergraduate to postgraduate work experience(s). As SBP(s), these individuals were student affairs practitioners all along, doing the work with and alongside full-time HE/SA practitioners, and engaged at some of the highest levels among their undergraduate peers.

Coming back to my own experience as SBP, the privilege of texting my university president on graduation morning is not lost on me. The privilege of being elected to (powerful) seats and eventually “retire” is not lost. To better understand this population and phenomenon, such experiences are necessary to illuminate. While few people achieve the role of SBP, this study can add to what we know about students entering the field of HE/SA already with such a bountiful connection to the profession.

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING THEORY: A PEDAGOGICAL FRAMEWORK TO ENCOURAGE SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE TAKING IN FIRST-YEAR STUDENTS IN POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

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There has been an increased emphasis for professionals within the field of student affairs to focus on programming that will engage and help support increasingly diverse student populations on (Odağ, Wallin, & Kedzior, 2016). Bowman (2012) writes: “Many entering college students have had limited opportunities for meaningful interactions and friendships across difference, which further suggests the unique role of college in promoting diversity-related growth” (p.1). Missing within the literature are examples of pedagogical strategies for developing programs that can positively affect inclusivity on post-secondary institution (PSI) campuses. This paper identifies transformational learning theory as a specific pedagogical strategy to help student affairs professionals better support informal first-year programming. Developing innovative theory-guided programming is necessary to encourage learning and development (Baldwin et al., 2004).

INTRODUCTION

Student affairs departments are under pressure to provide a positive overall experience for an increasingly diverse student population within post-secondary institutions (PSI) (Bowman, 2012). The struggles of many first-year students, most commonly individuals attending PSI immediately following graduation from high school, are well documented and researched (Hicks & Lewis, 2015). PSI contexts represent a microcosm of diversity and a gathering place for students from all backgrounds. These students meet each other in a new context where the focal point is intellectuals and educators stating their diverse and often challenging perspectives and opinions. Students attending PSI will experience diversity in formal settings such as classrooms and informal settings such as living in residence or walking across campus. Inevitably, students will interact with other students, introduce new ideas and perspectives, and challenge students’ pre-existing views (Bowman, 2011). The value and importance of helping students engage with the diversity on PSI campuses is an area of needed research and focus. Missing within the literature are examples of pedagogical strategies for developing programs that can positively affect inclusivity on PSI campuses (King & Magolda Baxter, 2005). The work of student affairs professionals is increasingly identified as paramount for supporting student’s academic and personal success. Identifying the need for more intentional and focused programming, this article evaluated relevant literature to identify a pedagogical framework to help inform and shape respective programming (Johnson, 1998). The campus activities of focus for this paper are first-year informal programming and the influence of student affairs professionals adopting a clear pedagogical framework to encourage increased perspective-taking. Through focusing on social perspective-taking, positive engagement with the diversity present on PSI campuses’ will be promoted.

Post-Secondary Institution Context

Student affairs departments support students’ academic and personal success through informal and formal learn-

ing approaches and programs (Bowman, 2011). Specific to engagement with diversity, Gurin et al. (2002), identifies three categories of diversity experiences occurring on PSI campuses. These three categories are: structural diversity (actual representation of diversity within larger PSI community [students, staff, faculty]); classroom diversity (diversity-related course work and co-curricular activities); and finally, the informal interaction (interaction with diverse peers outside of formal programs). Significant informal learning occurs within first-year student socially-focused programming and activities (Frosh week, residence programming, etc.). The developmental stage represented in first-year students presents a unique opportunity for student affairs professionals.

This paper focuses on first-year informal programming as unique experiential educational opportunities and identifies a pedagogical framework to support students' ability to engage with diverse perspectives (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). The focus on these types of activities was done in consideration of:

- 1) Extensive research focused on formal and structured programs such as leadership courses (Astin, 1993), diversity coursework (Pascarella et al., 1996), and service-learning (Niehaus, 2017) and not on more relationally focused, informal programmatic elements (Bowman, 2012).
- 2) Pedagogical perspective is lacking in the development and design of student affairs programming, especially perspectives accounting for the diverse population participating (Johnson et al., 2017).
- 3) Informal learning environments (such as programming under review) can offer significant avenues for the development of participants (Dey et al., 2010).
- 4) First-year student populations are particularly susceptible to intentional development outcomes, which can be foundational for the remainder of their PSI career and beyond (Johnson, Dugan, & Soria, 2017).
- 5) Intercultural awareness and the ability to engage with diversity is important for a healthy and positive democratic society (Johnson, 2015).

By developing a theory-guided pedagogically informed programmatic strategy, student affairs professionals can utilize theory to intentionally design programming to evoke institutional loyalty, citizenship in students, support a smooth transition into PSI life, and encourage a more culturally aware and sensitive community (Johnson, 2015).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Transformational Learning Theory, Scaffolding, and PSI context

While transformational learning theory has adapted and morphed since first being introduced by Jack Mezirow (1990, 1991), it offers a strong pedagogical framework for student affairs professionals to help shape the significantly transitional nature of the first-year student experience. Transformational learning is an adult learning theory that gives a framework to "... Explains the learning process of constructing and appropriating new and revised interpretations of the meaning of an experience in the world" (Taylor, 2008, p. 5). As learners, (first-year students) are examining their perspectives, values, and practice. Student affairs professionals have the opportunity to support positive learning through intentional program design (Bowman & Brandenburg, 2012). Regardless of process, content, or context, the experiences faced by first-year students align strongly with the altering existence frames of reference identified by Jack Mezirow as foundational for transformational learning to occur. Taylor & Mezirow (2010) identified six core elements to encourage transformative learning: Individual experience, critical reflection, dialogue, holistic orientation, awareness of context, authentic relationships. Transformational learning theory and the core elements offer a pedagogical framework for evidence-based development of first-year student programming.

By utilizing the theory of scaffolding and transformative learning theory, student affairs professionals can significantly encourage social perspective-taking (SPT) in first-year students. Johnson, Dugan, & Sofia (2017) support this, stating: "Creating more intentional, scaffolded, structured opportunities for students to reflect on their experiences and learn from others may be an important aspect of transforming practice to increase perspective-taking" (p. 1047). The theory of scaffolding was first introduced by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) and built

upon the theory of Zone of Proximal Development put forward by psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978). The theory of scaffolding recognizes the first-year student's developmental stage and the need for intentional support of the development of skills related to the core elements of transformational learning (Wood et al., 1976; Malik, 2017).

Social Perspective Taking and Student Engagement Theory

The importance of offering programming to encourage first-year student's engagement is grounded in many institutional practices and program calendars. Bowman & Brandenburg (2012) connect the developmental stage of first-year students with the importance of social perspective-taking, stating: "Because this developmental stage aligns with the traditional age of undergraduate students, college diversity experiences may exert a significant, lasting impact on students' attitudes and values" (p. 180). Social perspective-taking is defined as the capacity to take another person's point of view (Batson, Early, & Salvarani, 1997) and has been identified by researcher Gehlard (2011) as a "...Process through which a perceiver attempts to discern the thoughts, feelings, motivations, or point of view of one or more targets" (p. 312). SPT is a foundational mechanism that greatly influences students' capacity to engage in greater society and is an important precursor for higher cognitive development (Soria, Werner, & Nath, 2019). Not all first-year students will participate in formal leadership courses or service-learning projects (Soria, Werner, & Nath, 2019). However, they will often participate in programming offered on their residence floor or join their first-year intramural team. These informal, experientially based, highly relational programs are significant for first-year students to be exposed to diverse perspectives (Bowman, 2012). Emphasizing engagement with diverse individuals and experiences helps support SPT in first-year students (Astin, 1984). This is beneficial for their time on campus and will enable first-year students to be better able and motivated to participate in diverse, complex communities and social discourses around the topic of diversity (Gurin et al., 2004). The following sections demonstrate how utilizing scaffolding, student engagement theory, and transformational learning theory can support SPT in first-year students.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The following section outlines the six core elements of transformational learning theory as put forward by Taylor and Mezirow. It articulates the relevance to PSI campuses and the development of SPT. Taylor (2010) state: "... Experiential activities... Help provoke meaning-making among the participants by acting as triggers or disorienting dilemmas, provoking critical reflection, and facilitating transformative learning, allowing learners to experience learning more directly and holistically" (p. 7). The section below establishes the connection between transformative learning theory as a pedagogical framework for student affairs professionals to help first-year students develop their social perspective-taking.

Authentic Relationships

The first and foundational element of transformational learning is authentic relationships. Taylor (2010) states: "Authentic relationships also allow individuals to have questioning discussions, share information openly, and achieve greater mutual and consensual understanding" (p.13). Applying this core element to programming means focusing on creating spaces for relationships between student affairs staff, student leaders (residence assistants, dons, etc.), and first-year students. This could appear as having student affairs staff spending an increased amount of time within residence building or in high traffic areas on campus, having an open-door policy, or holding monthly gatherings (Gehlbach, 2011). Trust needs to be established in order to enter into a meaningful relationship. The importance of trust in the relationship between diverse peers is the creation of relational capital so that students can ask hard questions, seek understanding, and offer forgiveness.

Individual Experience

Individual experience takes into account the prior experiences of students and how those helped inform the student's worldview, values, and attitudes. These previous experiences influence the first-year student's ability to engage with new perspectives or concepts which their diverse peers may hold. The foundation of this core element is to raise first-year students' awareness of their own experiences growing up, how that has shaped them, and then to help them realize that their peers may have had entirely different experiences (Mayhem & Fernandez,

2007). By running activities that help illuminate the diverse backgrounds of first-year students in a ‘controlled’ and safe environment, with prompts for critical reflection and helpful dialogue, will aid first-year students as they begin to understand their experiences. Students sharing about their personal experiences will informally occur during programming; however, experiential programs that help illuminate the difference of experiences may help stimulate or disorientate first-year students in understanding the diverse experiences of others (Taylor, 2010). These activities are meant to help create opportunities for students to begin to understand their experience and critically reflect and have positive dialogue with student leaders, student affairs staff, and their peers.

Critical Reflection and Dialogue

The purpose of grouping the two core elements of critical reflection and dialogue highlights how dialogue acts as a vehicle for critical reflection. Johnson (2015) asserts: “Considering others’ perspectives inherently requires dialogue” (p. 688). Facilitating discussions on social and cultural differences, including diversity, religion, social justice, and political affairs, will help increase students’ perspective-taking. This can be done by offering times to watch documentaries about particular social topics, followed by intentional & supported dialogue. Other activities, such as bringing in presenters, which are oriented toward dialogue and less on didactic teaching, will help facilitate first-year students’ ability to think critically about diversity and inclusion elements. Asking simplified questions such as “What happens? So, what does that mean? Now what?” (Owen, 2011) is a helpful process and an example of scaffolding. Critical reflection and dialogue present avenues for individual students to reflect and engage with their personal perspectives and offer a means for them to be shared and discussed in safe settings (Johnson, 2015). The importance of relationship is foundational for student leaders and student affairs professionals to encourage critical reflection and meaningful dialogue. It can also be encouraged through a holistic orientation to programming, which is the next core element to promote transformational learning.

Holistic Orientation

Holistic orientation is referencing the learning and growth of the whole student beyond simply focusing on intellectual development. Howard Gardner (1999) developed the concept of multiple intelligences, which supports and complements this core element. This element intentionally emphasizes the importance of diverse learning styles and draws attention to relational and effective knowing. Acknowledging the diversity in how students engage and learn is important for student affairs professionals. Differing students from different cultural or societal background will learn differently. Holistic Orientation also takes into account the emotional, social, and spiritual aspects of individuals’ learning, which holds particular relevance as the development of empathy towards others (Bowman, 2011). Activities that incorporate this element often involve the arts (poetry reading, art night, food-related activity, etc.) and creating spaces for differing cultures to share and for students to emote. Student affairs professionals should also be aware of personal preferences in programming and account for offering programs that differ from their preferences (extrovert vs. introvert).

Awareness of Context

The final core element to encouraging a transformational learning environment for first-year students is the awareness of context. Turning to Taylor (2010), he states: “Developing an awareness of context when fostering transformative learning is developing a deeper appreciation and understanding of the personal and sociocultural factors that play an influencing role in the process of transformative learning” (p. 11). As students become aware of the differences on their campus, their SPT will increase, as will their understanding of their peers’ diverse experiences (Bowman & Brandenburg, 2012). For student affairs professionals, an awareness of context will help shape the type of programming being offered, when it is offered, and how it is offered. For example, during exams, students will be in heightened levels of stress. Offering activities, such as ‘stress busters’ or mindful activities, are responsive to those needs and demonstrate an awareness of the PSI context. Another example of being aware of context is if the population of a residence is predominantly caucasian with a minimal number of racially diverse students. The context for misunderstanding and assimilation may be heightened. Student affairs professionals could then be intentional about checking in with the underrepresented students while also offering intentional programming to help the larger student population understand the experience of minority groups.

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

The ability to engage with diverse experiences and individuals reflects high cognitive functions (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). This offers a pedagogical framework that should be viewed as a ‘starting’ point for developing this high cognitive function. More research is needed to understand the role of identity formation, delayed adulthood, previous diversity experiences, and the implications of intentional program development (Bowman, 2012).

Despite the most intentional, innovative, and exceptional programming, engagement is ultimately dependent upon the student. Students allocate their time based on their individual preferences and constraints. Some students enjoy and receive satisfaction from playing video games, while others may prefer to volunteer for a community group. As Pascarella et al. (1996) state: “Institutional policymakers may need to remain mindful of the fact that, although some experiences are particularly influential in terms of enhancing openness to diversity during college, not all students are equally as likely to have those experiences” (p. 192). Individuals of differing cultural backgrounds and other external factors will also respond to programs oriented toward social perspective-taking differently (Johnson, 2015).

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to identify a pedagogical framework that would encourage social perspective-taking in first-year students. Utilizing pedagogical frameworks for program development can enhance the program design and help in assessment (Mayhem & Fernandez, 2007). Through evaluation of research, it was identified that social perspective-taking represents a foundational mechanism for developing an individual’s ability to engage with diverse perspectives (cultural, socio-economical, religious, etc.) (Pascarella et al., 1996). Research identifies that interaction with diversity (differing race, cultural background, values) can positively influence perspectives, attitudes, values of students (Johnson, 2015), disrupt cycles of racism (Bowman, 2012), value employers place on ‘cultural intelligence’ (Odağ, Wallin, & Kedzior, 2016). Bowman (2012) writes: “By promoting diversity experiences during the college years, college administrators and practitioners can help promote positive outcomes for graduates—and society—well into adulthood” (p. 2). Through a systematic review, this paper identified transformational learning theory as a relevant and applicable pedagogical framework to encourage social perspective-taking in first-year students. With the increasing diversity on PSI campuses, attention to helping students develop the ability to engage with different world views should focus on PSI administrators.

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EXPLORING FIRST-GENERATION COLLEGE STUDENTS LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND ACTIONS DURING INTRAMURAL SPORTS

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ABSTRACT

College graduates need to have specific leadership-related skills, behaviors, and traits when entering the workforce. Campus involvement is one way for students to develop such areas. Therefore, this qualitative study explored the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports. Twelve students from a 4-year public university in the Northeast were interviewed about the research-driven photographs they submitted depicting leadership skills they engaged in during intramural sports participation. Photograph captions and interviews were analyzed using Kouzes and Posner's (2014) leadership model. Findings revealed that students reported engaging in behaviors and actions aligned with the leadership practices described by Kouzes and Posner (2014). These findings can help inform the decisions campus recreation professionals make about the role leadership development plays in program offerings.

INTRODUCTION

BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY LEADERS have emphasized the need for new college graduates to be prepared with leadership-related skills before entering the workforce (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AACU], 2013; Casner-Lotto, 2006; National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE], 2014). The leadership skills emphasized by these leaders are directly connected to the skills identified in the organizational leadership literature about how to be an effective leader (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May, 2004; Yukl, 2009). Nevertheless, findings from related research suggested that many recent 2-year and 4-year college graduates are deficient in leadership-related skills after completing college (AACU, 2013; American Society for Training and Development [ASTD], 2012; Casner-Lotto, 2006; Deloitte, 2011).

Colleges and universities have a responsibility to address the deficiency in college students' leadership skills. Astin and Astin (2000) suggested that higher education plays a significant role in influencing the quality of leadership in today's society. Providing opportunities for students to become involved in non-academic activities is one of many ways colleges and universities can begin to increase students' leadership capacities so that their graduates meet the needs described by business and industry leaders.

Therefore, the purpose of this case study was to explore the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports. Specifically, the research aimed to describe participants' reports of engaging in behaviors or actions during intramural sports aligned with the leadership practices described by Kouzes and Posner (2014). The study used two data collection methods: participant submitted research-driven photographs and semi-structured interviews.

Student Involvement/Engagement in Non-Academic Activities

Since one of the goals of higher education is to foster and develop future leaders, it is necessary to understand how in-class and out-of-classroom experiences may influence leadership skill development (Hall, Forrester, & Borsz, 2008). The results of related research supported the notion that involvement in non-academic activities such as clubs, intramurals, campus programming, campus governance, and fraternities and sororities can help students gain leadership skills and confidence that will be useful in their future endeavors (Dugan, 2011; Magolda, 2005). Specifically, research has shown that college students' involvement in these types of activities presents opportunities for them to develop leadership-related skills by combining their academic learning with activities outside the classroom (Astin & Astin, 2000). Dugan, Torrez, & Turman (2014) reported that intramural sports provide a "powerful platform through which to reach students" (p. 11) for learning opportunities, based on the large number of students reporting some level of involvement.

In a study of 35,000 students who participated in the National Intramural, Recreation, and Sports Association (NIRSA)/NAPSA Consortium Nationwide Survey, 75% of respondents indicated they used on-campus recreation center facilities, programs, and services (Forrester, 2014). Additionally, 64% of respondents noted that participation in campus recreation services provided them with skills that they could use after graduation, including group cooperation, communication, multicultural awareness, and problem-solving (Forrester, 2014). Campus recreation centers afford students non-academic educational experiences during which they have opportunities to (a) develop positive self-esteem; (b) improve their social relationships; and (c) enhance their leadership, communication, and problem-solving skills (Dalgarn, 2001). This research suggested that student leadership skill-development may be facilitated by participation in experiential learning opportunities, such as intramural sports.

Researchers have identified a need for additional exploration of college student leadership in non-academic activities (Busseri & Rose-Krasnor, 2008; Dugan, 2006; Hall et al., 2008). Although research has been conducted to investigate college students' leadership skills while participating in non-academic activities (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Hall et al., 2008; Logue, Hutchens, & Hector, 2005), including intramural sports (Dugan et al., 2014), there seems to be a shortage of research on the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports. A study by Dugan, Turman, and Torrez (2015) related to leadership and intramural sports included first-generation college students. However, the designation of being first-generation was found not to be statistically significant.

First-Generation College Students

For the academic year 2011-12, 33% of the students enrolled in postsecondary education were first-generation (Cataldi, Bennett, & Chen, 2018). Choy (2001) noted that students of parents who never went to college were less likely to be successful in college than students whose parents completed their undergraduate studies. In college, first-generation college students also face isolation, influencing their involvement, engagement, and persistence (Jehangir, Williams, & Jeske, 2012). Involvement in campus organizations and the campus environment are important factors in first-generation college students' social integration on college campuses (Woosley & Shepler, 2011). First-generation college students also have been found to socialize less while on campus because of job responsibilities (Terenzini, Springer, Yaeger, Pascarella, & Nora, 1996). Given what is known about leadership development and involvement in non-academic activities, a study focused on first-generation students would potentially inform current understanding of the ways to promote students' leadership skill development and better prepare them for the workforce.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The operationalization of the construct of leadership for this study was derived from Kouzes and Posner's (2014) *Student Leadership Challenge: Five Practices for Becoming an Exemplary Leader*. Kouzes and Posner's (2014) model was selected because it was grounded in research (Posner, 2004, 2009), emphasized that leadership development is self-development, and embodies some of the same leader behaviors that can be developed through intramural sports participation (Forrester, 2014). Through over 25 years of analyzing personal-best leadership experiences, Kouzes and Posner identified Five Practices of exemplary leaders: (a) Model the Way, (b) Inspire a Shared Vision, (c) Challenge the Process, (d) Enable Others to Act, and (e) Encourage the Heart. As defined by

these authors, practices are behaviors and actions that are developable and available to anyone who wants to take on the challenge of leading.

For each of the Five Practices, Kouzes and Posner (2014) identified related commitments (i.e., behaviors) that provide a framework, or template, for understanding exemplary leadership and learning how to lead. Table 1 briefly outlines each of the Five Practices and their corresponding commitments.

Table 1. *Student leadership challenge: practices and commitments.*

Practices and Commitments	Description
Model the Way	Leaders discover who they are and what they believe in.
Clarify Values	Leaders find their voice and affirm shared values.
Set the Example	Leaders live the shared values and teach others to model the values.
Inspire a Shared Vision	Leaders promote a shared vision that communicates to the group that their values and interests are important.
Envision the Future	Leaders imagine the possibilities and find a common purpose.
Enlist Others	Leaders appeal to common ideals and animate the vision.
Challenge the Process	Leaders encourage innovation and risk-taking to produce small wins and learning opportunities for the group.
Search for Opportunities	Leaders seize the initiative and exercise oversight.
Experiment and Take Risks	Leaders generate small wins and learn from experience.
Enable Others to Act	Leaders encourage a team effort and allow for trust and relationship building within the group.
Foster Collaboration	Leaders create a climate of trust and facilitate relationships.
Strengthen Others	Leaders enhance self-determination and coach for competence and confidence.
Encourage the Heart	Leaders inspire their team and express satisfaction in the groups' successes.
Recognize Contributions	Leaders expect the best and personalize recognition.
Celebrate Values and Victories	Leaders create a spirit of community and personally get involved.

METHODS

A single-case study design was selected to answer the research questions for this exploratory research. Yin (2014) stated that a case study design is appropriate when the researcher has little or no control over the study conditions. The investigation is focused on a contemporary set of events. The purpose of this investigation was the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who actively participated in intramural sports. This study was focused on a recent event at a university in New England, namely first-generation college students' participation in intramural sports. The researcher had no control over how participants might report on the leadership skills they engaged in during intramural sports. Thus, a case study design was appropriate. Yin's case-study design guided the validity and reliability of this investigation.

Data Collection

Students who volunteered for the study submitted a research-driven photograph and participated in a semi-structured interview focused on their personal-best leadership experiences related to intramural sports participation. Students were asked to email a photograph with a caption or brief description about how the photograph depicted the leadership skills they believed they engaged in while participating in intramural sports. The informed consent and follow-up emails explained to students they could be in the photo but should not include other people. In addition, participants gave permission for the photograph to be published in presentations, reports, or other write-ups about the research and that their name or identity would not be associated with the photo in any way. The photographs served as the focus of the in-person interviews.

The goal of the interview was to elicit information from participants about their personal-best leadership experiences during intramural sports participation. The interview guide was explicitly designed to help explore the meaning of the photograph. The interview questions were developed based on Tinkler’s (2013) suggestion that “talk is usually the best way to explore what a photo means to the photographer because what is seen by one person is not always visible to another” (p. 171).

Upon receipt of a participant’s photograph, an email was sent to set a mutually agreed upon date, time, and location for the interview. When the researcher and interviewee arrived at the interview site, the researcher handed a copy of the interview questions to the participant. Interviews lasted about 30 minutes. The confidentiality of the participants was maintained throughout this study. Electronic and paper materials were not coded in any identifiable way. The participants in this study were assigned pseudonyms for all write-ups to protect their identities.

Participant Recruitment

Two sampling strategies were applied—purposeful and convenience (Bryman, 2012). The setting for this study was a public four-year institution in the Northeast United States. The sample for this study was purposely recruited from the population of first-generation college students who were enrolled at the University at the time of the study and actively participated in at least one intramural sport. Recruitment strategies included posted fliers in the student center, athletic complex, and dormitories. The Office of Campus Recreation assisted by emailing the flier to students who were registered for intramurals. The Office of Residence Life also posted information about the study on digital display boards in residence halls. Study recruitment also took place over two weeks at the site of the intramural sports activity. To attract participation, students that volunteered for the study were entered to win one of two \$25 Amazon gift cards.

Sample Description

In all, 12 students agreed to participate in the study. Table 2 summarizes the demographic information about participants.

Table 2. *Sample characteristics.*

Characteristic	n	%
Semesters Participating in Intramurals Sports		
1-2	7	58
3-5	2	17
6-8	3	25
Intramural Sports Participation		
Dodgeball	9	75
Flag Football	4	33
Basketball	2	17
Volleyball	3	25
Softball	3	25
Soccer (indoor/outdoor)	3	25
Floor Hockey	1	8
Class Level		
Freshman	4	33
Sophomore	2	17
Junior	1	8
Senior	5	42
Live on Campus		
Yes	8	67
No	4	33

Note. For the category intramural sports participation, totals exceeded more than 12 because students were asked to list all intramural sports they had participated in.

Data Analysis

Each participant (N = 12) submitted a captioned photograph depicting leadership skills he or she believed they engaged in through participation in intramural sports. The photographs were labeled and sorted according to features they had in common (e.g., images that only contained an object). Finally, each photograph was examined together with the participant-supplied caption to gain a sense of the meaning of the picture as it pertained to the study’s purpose. Specifically, captions were read several times to identify words or short phrases that captured the essence of Kouzes and Posner’s (2014) leadership practices.

Each student’s photograph was used as a prompt for the student’s in-person interview. The interviews lasted between 16 and 30 minutes, were digitally recorded, and verbatim transcripts were created. Transcripts were coded following Creswell’s (2009) steps for analyzing qualitative data. Specifically, sections of text were hand-coded to the descriptors of Kouzes and Posner’s (2014) leadership model and to how students perceived they had engaged in the leadership skills they described.

RESULTS

The results of the interview analysis are presented together with representative quotes. A sampling of photographs is included and captioned with keywords that participants used as they talked about their pictures and discussed what the photographs meant to them.

Participant-Submitted Research-Driven Photograph

The analysis of the participant-generated research-driven photographs depicting leadership skills students believed they engaged in through participation in intramural sports yielded the following results about the subject of the images and places depicted. The subject of the images clustered into three main categories: (a) participants ($n = 4$; 33%), (b) object alone ($n = 5$; 42%), or (c) participant and object ($n = 3$; 25%). Table 3 summarizes the frequencies and percentages of the analysis of participant supplied captions. Participants most often used words and phrases that captured the essence of Kouzes and Posner's (2014) leadership practice Model the Way. No photographs with a caption could be categorized to the leadership practice Challenge the Process.

Table 3. *Analysis of participant captions: frequencies and percentages*

	n	%
Leadership Practice		
Model the Way	6	50
Inspire a Shared Vision	2	17
Enable Others to Act	1	8
Encourage the Heart	1	8
Unidentifiable	2	17

In-Person Interview

Model the Way. During the interviews, all the participants ($N = 12$) talked about behaviors or actions categorized as containing elements of the leadership practice Model the Way. As students spoke about their intramural sports participation, they drew on their current experiences and talked about earlier experiences from high school, former sports endeavors, and life.

All participants ($N = 12$) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Set the Example. Kouzes and Posner (2014) noted that an important aspect of the commitment Set the Example is a leader's credibility. The authors noted that credibility is judged by what leaders say, how they act, and how they spend their time. During the interviews, students most often talked about understanding the importance of how their actions influence those around them. Student-10, depicted in Figure 1, talked about how he aligned his actions with his values. He mentioned how he dressed "professionally" to be taken "seriously" by his team. He spoke about how the photograph he submitted represented his "serious look" to the "outside world" and that dressing professionally gave his teammates confidence that he is "the guy to go to." When describing how dressing professionally helps "Set the Example," he stated,

You know what, intramurals is a team sport, just like any other sport. It doesn't matter [what] the level is; it just shows that you need leadership, and with leadership, you need to look at the person and know they are serious enough that they can lead you.

Student-7, depicted in Figure 2, submitted a photograph of him whitewater kayaking. As he viewed the photograph during the interview, he explained that a leader's actions and words could create a "positive splash" that "cause positive ripples." He continued by stating that leaders can make positive or negative ripples depending on their actions:



Figure 1.
Photograph submitted by Student-10.

[The photograph] doesn't physically show depicting leadership skills, but it's kind of a metaphor. In this picture, I wasn't the leader, but you see the qualities of a leader. I made a splash, and it's causing ripples, and it depends on the kind of splash that you make on the team. You know you can make a splash, and people [will] not like you. You can be a negative kind of person, and if you make a negative splash, you are going to make negative ripples. It's going to have negative effects. So it depends, you have to lead a certain way to get the best results.

In the commitment Set the Example, Kouzes, and Posner (2014) described that stressful or challenging situations offer opportunities for a leader to lead by example. Student-6 submitted a picture of pencils, as seen in Figure 3, to illustrate how a leader "steps up" in certain situations. A senior and quarterback of his flag football team, Student-6 talked about how in group situations, "there's always going to be a leader, and there's always people who listen." He stated he set the example by staying "calm." He continued, "I think [as a leader] you just have to stay calm. If you try to get too ahead of yourself or try to think too much, [the play] usually doesn't work out, and [you] make mistakes."

Six participants (50%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Clarify Values. For the commitment Clarify Values, Kouzes and Posner (2014) noted that values influence every part of a person's life and guide their actions. Student-8, a former collegiate baseball player, talked about his "love" for the game and how it was "more than just a sport," it was a "way of life." As he looked at the photograph of himself playing baseball (Figure 4), he described how it portrayed values such as "hard work, dedication, perseverance, and heart." He said he tries to bring those values to intramural sports through his actions. Student-8 continued by saying,

I try to do that by my actions, by the way I carry myself while I play the sport. If I find something that I think [will help] someone do better, I give them that information.

Inspire a Shared Vision. During the interviews, nine participants (N = 12) talked about behaviors or actions categorized as containing elements of the leadership practice Inspired a Shared Vision. Eight participants (67%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Enlist Others. Fundamental to the practice Inspire a Shared Vision and specifically to the commitment Enlist Others is practicing positive communication (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). Five participants (N = 12) mentioned the importance of using positive communication when playing intramurals. Student-9 reflected on the photograph of the championship towel, depicted in Figure 5. She received it for being part of an intramural softball team. She explained that the picture reminded her of the positive communication she contributed to the team. Student-9 said, "I always stay positive, I guess. That's my little leader part." She gave an example of her positive communication during those games:

If one of the players popped-out or something, I would cheer them up and say, ok you will get it back next time. . . . [or] you guys got this. . . . I feel like whenever I would be positive, [the game] would take a turn and we would end up winning at the end. Everyone would just be so happy afterwards.



Figure 2.
Photograph submitted by Student-7.



Figure 3.
Photograph submitted by Student-6.



Figure 4.
Photograph submitted by Student-8.

Five students (42%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Envisions the Future. An important element of the commitment Envision the Future is getting everyone on the same page and going in the same direction (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). This is how Student-10, who has participated in seven different intramural sports and is a leader in his fraternity, described how to get new players to “buy-in” to the team approach. Student-10 explained, “once you talk to them and you explain yourself, they see that’s the best way to win. They are going to buy-in instantly because the goal is to win, and that’s what they want to do.”



Figure 5.
Photograph submitted by Student-9.

Challenge the Process. During the interviews, nine participants (N = 12) described behaviors or actions that could be categorized as containing elements of the leadership practice Challenge the Process. Describing the leadership commitment Search for Opportunities, Kouzes and Posner (2014) noted that leaders look for ways to improve and do things differently. Six participants (50%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Search for Opportunities. Regarding this commitment, three students (N = 12) often spoke about getting to know their players so they could identify strategies to win the game. For example, Student-3 mentioned he does this by watching what is happening on the court. He continued, “[I try] to set up strategies, like if it’s three on two, I try to get all the balls on our side and attack like that.” Student-3 described how he observes the other team give his team “a scouting report.” He noted that he assesses his teams’ “strengths” and weaknesses” so they can come up with the best plan to win the game. He finished by saying that before a game, “I try to show [my team] the best spots to hit them and point out who the strongest players are and the weakest players are.”

Six participants (50%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Experiment and Take Risks. A component of the commitment Experiment and Take Risks is learning from one’s mistakes (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). For this commitment, three students (N = 12) talked about how they found different ways to win during intramural sports. After one of his intramural soccer games, Student-7 explained to his team, even though they won, “there were certain little things if we cut [them] out, we would do much better.” He discussed different ways the team could “clean up” or “change” some of their play to do better. He finished by stating that the group cleaned up their play and “responded perfectly. They did exactly what I said would help. We had fun and won even better.”

Enable Others to Act. During the interviews, all of the participants (N = 12) described behaviors or actions that could be categorized as containing elements of the leadership practice Enable Others to Act. All of the participants (N = 12) talked behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Foster Collaboration. Describing the commitment Foster Collaboration, Kouzes and Posner (2014) noted that leaders need to facilitate relationships within the group or team. Four students (N = 12) talked about how intramural sports helped build relationships. For example, Student-3, depicted in Figure 6, talked about how his “outfit” in the photograph facilitated a sense of “unity” and connection among the members of his dodgeball team. He went on to explain in detail how his style helps facilitate relationships with those around him:



Figure 6.
Photograph submitted by Student-3.

I went out this weekend and bought a whole bunch of bandanas, so we are all wearing bandanas. . . . My roommate is on the team, and he bought a whole bunch of bandanas. The kids across the hall bought a whole bunch of bandanas. It’s basically unity with the bandanas. I think it shows my leadership [because] I started the bandana thing and they just chimed in on it. Right, so it shows I am not afraid to be different from other people. I help show them their unique side as well.

To demonstrate the commitment Foster Collaboration, leaders also must listen to members of the group, be open to different points of view, and make people feel like they are part of the team (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). Five students (N = 12) talked about giving everyone an opportunity to contribute. Student-2 mentioned, even though

as a leader he makes the final decision, he wants to “hear everyone’s ideas.” He explained,

I want to hear from everyone. I want to hear everyone’s ideas. That person that you shut out or don’t listen to, they could have an awesome idea. When I am going to make a decision, I want to hear people’s opinions.

Nine participants (75%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Strengthen Others. To establish the commitment, Strengthen Others, leaders need to coach and mentor others to help them grow and develop their potential (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). Six students (N = 12) mentioned that they took on the role of coach or mentor during intramurals. Student-3 noted how he communicated with a player on his dodgeball team to get his head back into the game after being the first person out. He explained,

We just talked to him about it and [said] you just need to relax and get your head back in the game and do better. He actually won the second game for us. I feel like we always have each other’s back.

Encourage the Heart. During the interviews, ten of the participants (N = 12) talked about behaviors or actions that could be categorized as containing elements of the leadership practice Encourage the Heart. Describing the commitment Recognize Contributions, Kouzes and Posner (2014) mentioned the need for leaders to connect with group members and get close to people to build trust and loyalty. Seven participants (58%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Recognize Contributions. During the interview, Student-4 expressed the importance of how intramurals allows people to develop bonds and loyalty. He said the photograph, in Figure 7, shows him “picking up” his teammate who has been with him “for all these years.” He mentioned that they are “happy” and “excited” because they are in the regional intramural football championship game “together.” Student-4 explained that,

you look at our faces, we are smiling, cheesing, and we are just happy to be there. I think it shows our loyalty to each other and to the team. We did not give up on each other. . . . I have my friends with me. We were finally coming together as one at the moment. . . . Intramural sports definitely helped us get together as one. It’s all about loyalty. . . . It’s all about connections and it’s an interesting way to meet people all through flag football.

Six participants (50%) described behaviors or actions that suggested they applied the commitment Celebrate Values and Victories. Showing you care and getting personally involved are essential parts of the commitment Celebrate Values and Victories (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). Three students (N = 12) talked about ways they care for their teammates and how they get personally involved. For example, Student-2, pictured in Figure 8, talked about how the photograph shows how he becomes involved by supporting his dodgeball team in all situations. He mentioned, whether he was in the game or on the sideline, his job was to “pick up our team and cheer them on” by providing encouraging words such as “good job!” and “keep it going.” He also said, “a team can only go as far as its supporters.” He said the photograph was an example of the type of support he gave during his first official dodgeball game. He explained,

We had all the components of a functioning team – support, hard work. . . . I think the picture shows [how I] basically look on the sidelines supporting my team. I [have] my arms up, I am happy, and [I am] trying to keep my teammates in the game mentally.



Figure 7.
Photograph submitted by Student-4.

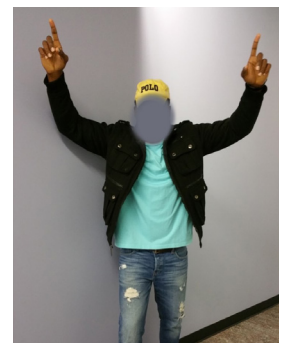


Figure 8.
Photograph submitted by Student-2.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this case study was to explore the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports. Specifically, the research aimed to describe participants' reports of engaging in behaviors or actions, during intramural sports, that are aligned with the leadership practices described by Kouzes and Posner (2014). Overall, findings from the analysis of the data collected from photographs and interviews revealed that students most often reported engaging in leadership behaviors or actions related to Enable Others to Act followed by Model the Way, Encourage the Heart, Inspire a Shared Vision, and then Challenge the Process. Specially, students most often talked about: (a) treating others with respect and fostering collaborative relationships, (b) coaching or mentoring others during intramural sports, (c) being open to diverse points of view (d) recognizing, encouraging, and praising their teammates contributions, (e) building trust and loyalty, and (f) leading by example during intramural participation.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings and conclusions from this study, two recommendations for practice were made. Notably, the study participants reported engaging in leadership actions and behaviors aligned with Kouzes and Posner (2014) leadership model during intramural sports. This suggests that intramural sports provide an opportunity for students to practice leadership skills. Given the importance of new college graduates to possess leadership skills wanted by business and industry (Casner-Lotto, 2006), campus recreation professionals should consider providing students opportunities to develop leadership skills through participant discussions about their leadership capacities and experiences in relationship to activity involvement, including intramural sports. Campus recreation professionals should explore different leadership development models and research with students. McFadden and Stenta (2015) noted that campus recreation professionals could introduce leadership frameworks into their programs to encourage the development of student leadership capacity. Activities provided by campus recreation departments should also give students the opportunity to assess their own leadership skills and be able to share those skills and experiences with their peers and campus recreation staff. The workshops would allow students with strong leadership capacities to participate in their own leadership development and would allow others to learn about the leadership skills that they might need as leaders in their careers.

College administrators should also provide campus recreation staff with professional development opportunities related to student leadership development. This recommendation is premised on the fact that the campus recreation department implemented the intramural sport programs in which students in this study reported engaging in leadership behaviors or actions as described by Kouzes and Posner (2014). Jones, Harper, and Schuh (2011) noted that professional development is important to the future of student affairs because the profession relies on learning more about the students they serve and new ways to engage students outside of the classroom. In addition to understanding how students develop leadership skills, the professional development training could also enhance the leadership skills of campus recreation staff. By understanding their own leadership experiences, skills, and behaviors, staff could find ways to relate their leadership identity to their job and to the students they serve.

Future Research

Based the findings of this study and the dearth of empirical studies that have examined the reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports, other researchers should repeat this study at different institutions. Similar studies may lead to a deeper understanding of first-generation college students' leadership experiences in intramural sports. Researchers should conduct a similar study using researcher observations and focus groups as the data collection methods. The inclusion of researcher observations would offer an opportunity to assess whether students are engaging in the reported leadership skills. Finally, a study comparing first-generation students and non-first generation students' reports of leadership behaviors and actions in which they engage during intramural sports would add to the literature of college student leadership development. It might also be able to explore more deeply the different leadership experiences of these populations.

LIMITATIONS

The researcher has identified three potential limitations of this study. First, the researcher was a part-time faculty member at the University at the time of the study. Although this could have encouraged participation in the study, it also had the potential to make participants concerned about their confidentiality. Additionally, because the interview was completed in the presence of the researcher, a participant might complete the in-person interview by providing responses designed to please the researcher rather than giving an honest account of their personal-best leadership experiences while participating in intramural sports.

Second, findings from a case study cannot be generalized to a larger population (Yin, 2014). Therefore, the findings from this study will only be generalizable to the leadership model (Kouzes & Posner, 2014) and the phenomenon being explored, the self-reported leadership skills of first-generation college students who were actively participating in intramural sports.

Third, the findings from this study may not be generalizable to other colleges and universities. It will be up to the reader to decide whether the findings from this study can be generalizable to their setting.

CONCLUSION

Campus recreation, and intramural sports, allows students to become involved and engaged on college campuses. These services provide one venue in which first-generation college students engage in and practice their leadership skills and behaviors. While campus recreation professionals have the training, knowledge, and skills to provide quality programming for students, it is the hope that the findings of this study can help inform the decisions they make about the role leadership development plays in program offerings.

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TRANSLATING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR CAMPUS ACTIVITIES INTO HIGHER EDUCATION SCHOLARSHIP

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Professional development provides an opportunity to expand individual knowledge, network with colleagues, and share stories about how our students experience higher education. Magolda and Carnaghi (2017) point out that professional development needs to “recognize the value of knowing and acting” to link the learning an individual professional engages in with the students that they serve (p. 537). Komives (1998) described a “practitioner-scholar” (p. 179) as an individual who is both involved in the applied work of the profession and understands the research and literature that informs professional practice. Involvement in professional development can be the first step to identifying a topical area that would contribute to the advancement of professional practice if translated to a scholarly article. Student affairs has many documents that guide thinking about what specific knowledge is needed to work in higher education settings (e.g., Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Educators). Most professional associations provide blueprints for how knowledge acquisition can be shared with colleagues looking to gain similar skills and outcomes (e.g., conferences, webinars, mentoring programs, etc.). The engagement of professionals within professional development environments offers the opportunity to share stories about how our work impacts those we serve on campus and enhances how we understand the function of our roles as administrators and educators.

The Journal of Campus Activities Practice and Scholarship offers campus activities professionals a space to embrace the idea of being a practitioner-scholar. The remainder of this article provides a framework for how campus activities professionals can translate professional development events and activities into a scholarly article. We begin with the current state and importance of professional development in student affairs. That is followed by a framework for how to consider translating a professional development event or experience into a format that contributes to the scholarship of campus activities. We conclude with how the types of professional development opportunities available can contribute to the development of a scholarly article.

MOVING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ONLINE

Engagement in professional development events and activities has always been critical to establishing opportunities in campus activities to connect with others, share stories in a community of practice, and learn strategies for how to respond to contemporary issues. Conversing with colleagues has been a standard method of sharing how we do our work and what might be frustrating us about our work environments. Professional association meetings, such as NACA Live and NACA’s fall regional conferences, have long been designed to provide community support, a place to discuss issues, an outlet for sharing best practices, a means to integrate cutting-edge scholarship with day-to-day practice, and an opportunity to personally connect with friends and colleagues.

These events and activities play a significant role in highlighting issues/topics that can be translated into a scholarly article to expand the scholarship focused on campus activities.

The rapid closure of college campuses in March 2020 also included the cancelation of many in-person professional conferences that extended through the entire 2020-2021 academic year. Professional associations play a crucial role in connecting student affairs professionals who share common roles on college campuses. Our professional associations have responded by building a virtual presence where professionals can engage at various levels. These resources became available at a price-point and an open-access level that we have not seen in higher education in quite some time. NACA Virtual, for example, in October 2020 featured over 40 educational sessions, 75 showcasing acts, and headliner keynote speakers like Dr. Marc Lamont Hill, host of HuffPost Live and BET News. While these professional development opportunities have moved online, they continue. Additionally, the online platforms have increased the access professionals have to participate in these events and activities.

Professional associations have also responded to the pandemic's known budgetary impact on various student affairs offices by using these technologies to provide free or low-cost spaces in innovative ways. For example, numerous open-access webinars have been created to address current issues in real time. NACA hosted a "Coffee & Conversation: Healthy Dialogue-Speaking Up and Calling In" on Election Day 2020 that offered a space to engage in healthy dialogue during a tense time. Online discussion boards have also provided the opportunity for professionals to share policies and procedures, as well as ask for resources to help support their students and staff navigate current issues. Reduced-cost attendance for online conferences and open access materials has demonstrated the commitment professional associations make in providing developmental opportunities focused on knowledge acquisition, disseminating materials, networking with colleagues, and interactive spaces to share our individual stories.

While much may have changed during 2020 with regard to how the profession operates day-to-day, the skills necessary for success in student affairs and campus activities have not. *The Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Educators* (ACPA/NASPA, 2015) identifies ten professional competency areas, each with a set of knowledge, skill, and dispositional outcomes that span foundational, intermediate, and advanced proficiency. These competencies are designed to provide a broad criterion intended for all student affairs educators, regardless of their specific functional area. Individual professional associations have also established competencies for their specific functional area (e.g., NACA, ACUHO-I, and ACUI). NACA developed the *Competencies for Campus Activities Professionals* (2018) and the *NACA Competencies for Diversity and Inclusion* (2018). In both documents, it is noted that the competencies are designed to be used in collaboration with the *Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Educators* (ACPA/NASPA, 2015) to address the typical work of campus activities professionals. These documents provide a shared language and highlight the areas of knowledge campus activities need to be successful.

FRAMING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES FOR PUBLICATION

Defining professional development has been an arduous task for the field. Winston and Creamer (1998) defined the term as "an event or activity performed outside or beyond daily work duties and activities" (p. 29). Scholars also consider those activities or events to be part of a career-long process that benefits the individual and the organization in which they work (Carpenter & Stimpson, 2007; Woodward & Komives, 1990). Models of professional development within the field offer a framework to think about how to approach engagement, what to expect from that engagement, and why it is important to individual growth and development. Some may wonder why it is necessary to translate a professional development experience into a scholarly article. The dissemination of scholarship contributes to the growth of the profession and communicates clearly how literature and research inform professional practice. NACA members reference the significance of involvement in the organization to gain insight into other institutions' practices. Providing a venue to translate those practices into scholarly articles is why the *Journal of Campus Activities Practice and Scholarship* was established. We will use the PREPARE Model of Professional Development (Komives & Carpenter, 2016) as a framework for how to embrace the idea of being a scholar-practitioner and translate a professional development experience into a scholarly article.

Using the acronym “PREPARE,” Komives and Carpenter (2016) introduced considerations for what professional development “should be” (p. 421) from a contemporary lens. These professional development considerations are presented below with a lens of developing a scholarly article.

Purposeful, intentional, and goal-related. Consider how you select the programs and events you will attend. Often the title of an event or activity is what attracts us to an event. As a prospective author, consider what resonates with you during and after the experience. NACA developed the *Competencies for Campus Activities Professionals* (2018) and the *NACA Competencies for Diversity and Inclusion* (2018). These competencies provide a blueprint to identify areas of interest for student activities professional’s development. Using the competencies to identify a specific focus will set up any prospective author for an intentional and purposeful article grounded in a shared language among campus activities professionals.

Research, theory, and data-based. Practices need to be grounded in research, theory, and data. Often during a professional development event or activity, we focus more on discussing the logistics of a practice and gloss over the research and literature that framed the development of the practice. Once a prospective author has identified a specific focus, they will need to gather salient citations to support the actual practice being discussed. This will require the author to create a written review of the literature to frame the topic being discussed.

Experience-based. Professionals are encouraged to “learn from more experienced ones” (Komives & Carpenter, 2016, p. 422). A scholarly article should acknowledge the most current discussion about a given topic. Prospective authors need to consider the audience for the article. JCAPS is focused on advancing the scholarship focused on campus activities. While the initial audience will be practitioners within campus activities, it is important to consider that scholarly pieces can be key in supporting the initiation/advancement of a policy/practice (e.g., interdisciplinary leadership program, diversity requirement initiatives, etc.).

Peer-reviewed. Komives and Carpenter (2016) note that peer review is “an underutilized resource” (p. 422). Prospective authors should share their work with peers prior to submission to gather initial feedback. Being willing to be vulnerable and share your work will improve the narrative you create within the article. Prospective authors should identify a couple of peers who would be willing to review a draft of the article and offer feedback.

Assessed. After gathering feedback from peers, the authors should assess the article to determine what areas need improvement.

Reflected on and reflected in practice. Translating a professional development event or activity to a scholarly article takes time. At this point, it is time to submit the article for review. Authors should reflect on the process they undertook to write the article and how it will contribute to the campus activities profession.

Evaluated. The blind review’s formal process is where the author will see an evaluation of their work from peers. The most difficult part of the process is that it is not guaranteed that your piece will get published at this stage. What is guaranteed is that you will receive constructive feedback to improve your article for resubmission. Participation in professional development events and activities are the foundation of how we learn what works and does not work on our college campuses. Those experiences are often privileged to individuals that can attend those meetings. Translating those topics into a scholarly article increases access to the information and intentionally frames the topic to be transferable to multiple campus environments. The next piece to consider is where to look for professional development events and activities.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

In the best of circumstances, there are many impediments to prioritizing one’s professional development in higher education, which has long existed within a deep and sustained cycle of change. While times of change demand new skills and abilities, responding proactively requires forethought, patience, and sustained effort. Coupled with an institutional tendency for staff to pile new responsibilities on top of old ones, it can seem like

the workload within campus activities grows increasingly more unsustainable each year. Staff expertise can be considered the most important strength in a university community (Blackmore & Blackmore, 2006). While it can be tempting to digest professional development experiences for individual gain, a significant corollary goal should be to bring new knowledge, skills, and expertise back to your home institution to improve the intellectual capital of others that did have the opportunity to attend. Further, sharing that information in a scholarly article is a way to intentionally advance the campus activities profession.

We must be specific about the outcomes that we want to achieve. In a recent edition of *Campus Activities Programming*, Bowhay and Collier (2020) wrote, “Successful individuals are systematic in setting and achieving their career goals. Simply committing your plan to paper can improve your chance of realizing it” (p. 7). With time and money both in short supply, what activities provide the greatest “bang for our buck?” In the sections below, we discuss how the types of professional development opportunities available can contribute to developing a scholarly article.

National/Regional Conferences

National and regional conferences provide a space to gather with a large constituency of individuals who share similar roles and responsibilities. At the national level, the events and activities offered highlight contemporary issues facing the field and attract participants from all levels (e.g., mid-level, senior, etc.). This is an ideal space to begin to note topical areas that may be represented in presentations but may be missing from the scholarship of campus activities. Regional conferences offer geographically bound events and activities. Many higher education professionals are geographically bound when searching for opportunities to advance in their careers. For this reason, the relationships they can form at these conferences may benefit them in different ways than in participating at national conferences, which are often larger and offer less time for personal connections. The smaller, more personal connections could provide the opportunity for a prospective author to find other professionals to co-author a scholarly article.

Online Discussion Boards and Communities

Online discussion boards and communities are often free and offer many of the same advantages of attending a conference. Whether someone is bold enough to pose a question to the group or simply enjoys “lurking and learning” from others, there are groups on a wide variety of topics.

Many professional associations host their own communities that can focus on specific role responsibilities, individual shared identities, or contemporary issues impacting the field. These are often a benefit of professional membership and do not carry an additional cost. For example, NACA offers “NACA Connect,” an online listserv platform available to all members that allow them to select from a wide variety of communities and topics. These venues also offer an opportunity to present an idea for a scholarly article to gather some initial interest in the topic. Simply asking if an article on “X” would be useful to the community can initiate a conversation that may help frame a prospective author’s focus.

Webinars/Online Courses/Credentials

Structured online educational resources offered by institutions, third-party organizations, and associations provide another method for learning. One good way to evaluate these opportunities is to look at the promised learning outcomes. Are they specific or general? Do they seem attainable in the time frame allowed? Are they skills and abilities that the learner hopes to acquire? The more the stated goals seem realistic and aligned with your own specific development plan, the more likely the experience will be beneficial.

One-time programs possess value, and many associations and trainers are beginning to stack repeated experiences to offer new credentials and even certifications. Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) have become very popular. Organizations like Coursera offer many of these for free, while there may be additional costs for individuals who want to receive a credential. In addition, these courses are often designed with busy adult learners in mind, so they are created to be consumed in small chunks. This can allow the active campus activities pro-

professional to add them to their calendar at their own pace to gain new knowledge and skills. These opportunities can also be a source for salient references to include in an article.

NACA Encore

NACA offers a web-based resource called “Encore” which is a veritable treasure trove of resources, including past issues of NACA’s *Campus Activities Programming*® magazine, conference presentations, and more that are searchable by topic or date. Whether professionals are conducting research for a conference presentation or publication, or looking to learn more about a topic of interest, this resource is included as part of a NACA membership.

Podcasts

The vast majority of podcasts are free to consume. While the focus and content of podcasts overall are as diverse as most other products offered online, several high-quality podcasts are dedicated to topics relevant to higher education and student affairs. For example, “The Student Affairs Spectacular” (available through The Student Affairs Collective), released episodes relevant to student affairs professionals, examining issues such as race, game theory, pursuing a doctorate, and supervision in student affairs. Re:Learning Podcast is hosted by The Chronicle of Higher Education and focuses on broad issues relevant to the higher education environment. Some podcasts focus on specific issues that directly relate to the work of campus activities. For example, The Leadership Educator, hosted by Dan Jenkins and Lauren Bullock, covers university student leadership development topics. Podcasts can be consumed while cooking in the kitchen, exercising, or relaxing during a break. As we mentioned, they are available anywhere the internet can be accessed through sites like Apple, Spotify, and Stitcher. Podcasts offer another venue for gathering topical ideas for a future article.

Communities of Practice (CoP)

A CoP is often simply defined as a group of people who “share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly” (Wenger, 2011, p.1). The rapid rise of web-based communications technology allows campus activities professionals to build and engage in communities focused on campus activities practice from wherever they are. Professionals might create a recurring time for their professional colleagues to come together during a videoconference to discuss relevant issues of interest – such as how to engage students virtually, creating online programming opportunities, or partnering with other campus units to improve the student experience. These communities can be created at any point and with as little front-end investment as a group email and a Doodle poll. Using CoP’s could help generate a series of articles about a topic that would be beneficial to advancing the scholarship of campus activities. The CoP can also be designed to serve as a writing group.

CREATING SCHOLARSHIP AS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

As discussed earlier, a practitioner-scholar actively reads the research and scholarship in the field. Reading research can expose us to new theories, guide our practice, and offer new frameworks for creating student learning or methods for assessing it. A central goal of JCAPS is creating and sustaining a culture of scholarship in the campus activities field. As this editorial board has previously stated, in a time of scarce resources and rapid change, the ability to demonstrate our effectiveness – not just on our own campuses, but for the field as a whole will be essential. (Peck, McCullar, Rosch, DeSawal, Krebs, 2020). Conducting research and presenting scholarship can help practitioners to be better consumers of research in general. Booth, Colomb, and Williams (2016) wrote, “learning to do research...will help you understand what you read as nothing else will. You can accurately judge the research of others only after you’ve done your own and can understand the messy reality behind what is so smoothly and confidently presented in textbooks or by experts on TV” (p. 3). Professional development events and activities offer a platform for the presentation of research-based scholarship, and those events provide the opportunity to identify a phenomenon that could be researched.

Yet, many within the field may be hesitant to approach conducting research themselves. When considering the purpose of research, the focus is often on disseminating knowledge to advance the profession. But there is a second, less often cited purpose of research – to teach ourselves. Booth, Colomb, and Williams (2016) wrote, “...a research

topic is an interest stated specifically enough for you to imagine becoming a local expert on it. That doesn't mean you already know a lot about it or that you'll have to know more about it than others" (p. 34). Put simply, publishing research is not exclusively a demonstration of knowledge; it is part of the process of acquiring knowledge ourselves.

CONCLUSION

Professional associations continue to serve a critical role in providing the field with a blueprint for how knowledge acquisition can be shared with colleagues looking to gain similar skills and outcomes. As we discussed, NACA developed the *Competencies for Campus Activities Professionals* (2018) and the *NACA Competencies for Diversity and Inclusion* (2018). These competencies provide a blueprint to identify areas in which you want to grow as a professional and where we need to focus our scholarship related to campus activities. Using the PRE-PARE model of professional development to help think about how to translate an article to professional development opportunities, we outlined how a prospective author can consider translating a professional development event or activity to a scholarly article.

The editorial board of JCAPS is committed to helping scholars develop in the field of campus activities. We believe that engagement in professional development events and activities is at the foundation for understanding the information that needs to be disseminated widely to advance the campus activities profession. As such, we are willing to commit our time to individuals who submit to this journal. Academic journals are ranked based on how often the articles they contain are cited in subsequent research. Our central goal is to help professionals translate salient practices into accessible work that benefits the advancement of campus activities. To that end, we are more than willing to support authors through the publication process in translating events and activities into a scholarly work.

Lastly, our professional associations, especially NACA for campus activities professionals, have invested in their members to continue to deliver content at a reduced cost as institutions navigated change in their institutional operations. Our job as professionals is to contribute to and increase the access regarding how campus activities contribute to reimagining student engagement and learning on campus for professional growth.

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