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Professional development for staff and faculty who work with students

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This study examines undergraduate students' perceptions of extra credit and its connection to attending events. Because some faculty offer extra credit to students to motivate participation outside the classroom, research is needed to evaluate students' views and attitudes toward extra credit. Few studies examine the incentives that drive participation and to what degree students value them. Of the respondents surveyed, 73% placed significant value on extra credit and viewed it as a motivator. The majority (75%) "agreed" or "strongly agreed" all extra-curricular events should have extra credit attached to attendance. More attention should be paid to the idea that extra credit is perceived as an expectation. To best promote experiential learning outside the classroom, faculty are encouraged to embrace the practice of offering extra credit as a means to a pedagogically beneficial end. This study offers new categories faculty and administrators can use to communicate the value of events.

Colleges and universities often offer a wide range of extra-curricular events to students. The challenge is securing attendance. When faculty encourage their students to attend on-campus events, they are likely to have at least one student ask, "Is there any extra credit?" Why is extra credit associated with out-of-class participation, and what is the value of connecting the two? This study examines extra credit and its relationship to undergraduate students' motivation to participate in on-campus events. Researchers examine whether extra credit is the best way to incentivize attendance or whether faculty should consider new strategies. Based on our findings, we propose three frames that faculty and administrators can use to help categorize events and better communicate an event's value to students.

THE MODERN COLLEGE STUDENT AND EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The idea of a "college experience" is constantly changing. Kerstiens & Pauk (1998) highlight these changes, stating, "in the old days, reading meant the reading of the '100 best books' involving what is considered classical literature: novels, poetry, drama, and essays…Today, the emphasis is on reading from textbooks about factual, practical, and descriptive content, sometimes called study reading or reading in the context field" (p. 20). Specialized focuses versus expansive exposure remain in tension when weighing what is and is not deemed valuable in today's undergraduate curriculum. Student involvement is another concept that merits attention when considering what qualifies as a rich "college experience." Astin (1984) explains involvement as "the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (p. 528). The academic experience applies to inside and outside the physical (or digital) classroom. It includes membership in organizations, engagement with events, and social gatherings.

There are roughly seven types of extra-curricular activities: visual and performing arts, music, writing, politics, math and science, sports, jobs, and volunteer work (Peck, 2020). Professional organizations generate participation through gauging interests specific to students' occupational fields, while student government attracts students who aim to gain leadership experience. As noted, there are many types of on-campus extra-curricular events that a modern student can attend. While this research explores a speech competition, scholars should note students may benefit from attending other types of events in addition to the one studied in this project. In other words, both the benefits and motivation for attending events vary by type of event. As a result, it is beneficial to be aware of the various types.

Hughes (2016) claims participation in one or more extra-curricular events leads to higher academic achievement. Academic success can be understood as a direct reflection of student involvement and socialization through extracurriculars (Hughes, 2016). A study with middle school students found a connection between higher academic achievements with student engagement in school activities (Berndt & Keefe, 1995).

One of many challenges to offering events and getting students to participate is determining how to effectively incentivize students to attend. Baranek states that the most effective way to motivate students is to teach them how to become intrinsically motivated (1996). Baranek also states that although it is beneficial for students to learn how to self-motivate and self-reward, reinforcers are also needed to increase the chance of a behavior, such as attending an event, happening again (1996). Stickers, treats, praise, and grades are all used as examples of reinforcers. Yet the question remains, how does one intrinsically motivate a student to attend an academic-related event in addition to attending regularly scheduled classes?

Academics agree that classroom participation is key to a student's success (Rocca, 2010). But, for many decades, scholars have asserted that there is a positive influence on students' wellbeing and cognitive development with regard to out-of-class experiences. It is important to clarify the definition of an out-of-class experience. Primarily, the phrase "out-of-class activity" is used to describe "any organized activity (e.g., club, organization) a student engages in during waking hours outside of formal instruction in a classroom" (Simmons et al., 2018). For purposes of this study, researchers use out-of-class activity or experience to indicate any event or participation in an activity that is not a mandatory requirement for an academic course.

This involvement does not solely relate to one's in-classroom experience, but also includes engagement with events and membership in student organizations. Some of the benefits of involvement are clear. A student who actively engages in the college experience is less likely to drop out of college, may develop more affinity toward the institution, develop higher self-esteem, and experience more overall satisfaction (Astin, 1984). Overall, students will develop interpersonal skills and experience cognitive development with involvement on campus.

Laird et al. (2008) further identified two reasons why it is essential for administrators and faculty to strongly consider out-of-class activities and to encourage student engagement outside the traditional classroom. First, students may feel more connected as activities help in "shrinking the psychological size of the institution," and second, the involvement helps with retention rates at universities (Laird et al., 2008). However, there are more than two benefits for administrators and faculty to consider. Attending events and being part of a college or university community may have more benefits than one originally imagined. It is suggested there are "eight categories of outcomes: academic and social engagement; career and professional development; communication skills and leadership development; intellectual development; intercultural competence; personal and social development; satisfaction with college; and college belonging, connectedness, and persistence" (Simmons et al., 2017). In Simmons et al.'s (2017) study, out-of-class experiences impacted intellectual development among engineering students more than any of the other seven categories. Also, previous research (Knoster & Goodboy, 2020) argues that out-of-class activities may positively affect students, which helps offset the stressors college students encounter. Even so, the question of what motivates students to attend these activities remains.

UNDERSTANDING STUDENT MOTIVATION

Motivation can be defined in a number of ways. This paper uses the term liberally to describe "an individuals' behavior and the effort applied in different activities" (Cavas, 2011, p. 32). Brophy (1998) defines motivation as an impulse that guides or influences one's actions. Attendance at an event on campus serves a variety of purposes, from achieving academically to developing socially (Simmons et al., 2017). In this regard, researchers are analyzing the various factors that inspire an undergraduate student to attend extra events in addition to traditional classes as their attendance benefits them in many ways.

Motivating factors can span from the necessity of information to subject curiosity. Yilmaz et al. (2017) surveyed motivational factor ranking throughout multiple studies. They found that the highest-ranked motivators for students were teaching methods and strategies, teacher communication skills, the use of instructional technologies, and making topics interesting. With studies showing that the most important factor in students' motivation falls under the teacher's influence, we can assume that professors offering extra credit to students who attend extra-curricular activities would be an effective motivator.

Social group status has been shown to drive a student's motivation for attending out of school activities or after-school activities. Athletics is a high-status activity, music is a moderate-status activity, leaving debate and hobby clubs to be considered a low-status activity (McNeal, 1995). From this, one can conclude that peer interaction is not simply a motivational factor stemming from a desire to socialize with those sharing similar interests but the desire to receive inclusion from groups considered to be a high-status group.

Although it has been found that students who participate in a variety of extracurriculars are the highest achievers academically, not all extra-curricular activities lead to the same level of academic success. Previous research (Eccles & Barber, 1999) grouped extracurriculars into five groups: prosocial activities, sports teams, performing arts, school involvement, and academic clubs. The study simultaneously surveyed students on their college plans, GPA, alcohol usage, drug usage, and class attendance. Students who described themselves as involved in school-involved extracurriculars had the highest amount of plans for college compared to the rest of the extra-curricular groups and had the same amount of participants who performed well in school as those who participated in academic clubs. Regular drinking and drug usage were highest among those who participated in sports teams. Their extra-curricular and skipping class was tied for the highest-ranked between performing arts and school involvement extracurriculars (Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Although these groups contain a variety of activities, they all share a common element of socialization. With social group status being a significant factor for student motivation and socialization, one can conclude that the desire to attend extra-curricular events stems from the desire to attain a specific social status or image. With Hughes' study referenced above, we know that socialization has been shown to lead to higher academic achievement. As a result, we can assume that students involved in any of these five groups of extracurriculars are performing better than their peers who choose not to participate in any extra-curricular activities.

THE ROLE OF EXTRA CREDIT

Offering additional points to students to complete an additional, voluntary assignment or learning engagement may be considered by some in academia as unnecessary, yet there are benefits to it. Kenner (2009) argues that extra credit helps generate students' interest in a subject because it allows them to feel satisfaction in earning something extra. Existing research (Harrison et al., 2011) examining the connection between grades and extra credit found students engaging in extra credit activities are generally those with already higher grades, and those with lower grades tend not to take advantage of the opportunity. There remains a need for more examination about how students perceive extra credit and how it can be used successfully to incentivize students performing on various academic levels. To better understand the role extra credit plays in extra-curricular events on campus, we pose the following research questions:

RQ1: What factors motivate students to attend on-campus events?

RQ2: To what extent does extra credit motivate undergraduate students to attend extra-curricular events on campus?

METHODS

To examine students' perceptions of extra credit in connection to attending on-campus events, researchers disseminated a survey during an on-campus event at a mid-sized university located in the Southeastern United States. Students were able to access the survey using a QR code projected on a screen. Paper copies of the QR code were distributed as well. The event was the university's annual speech contest hosted by the university's Center for Public Speaking. The event was open to all students, staff, and faculty. To qualify for participation, respondents met the following criteria: 1) 18 years of age or older and 2) enrolled in the university. The survey was anonymous, and the university's IRB approved this study.

Upon entering the event, attendees swiped their university-issued identification cards. The records reflect 377 attendees swiped their cards and had access to the survey. Within 48 hours of the event, a link to the survey was emailed to the attendees with registered emails who swiped their identification cards in case they did not take the survey at the event, totaling 218 email addresses. The survey yielded a total of 131 responses (N=131).

SURVEY DESIGN

The complete survey is included as appendix A and consisted of twenty-four questions. Most questions were designed using the Likert scale, and participants were allowed to indicate multiple answers to questions. In addition to extra credit, factors included in the survey included personal interest, personal knowledge of a participant, or if free food or items encouraged them to attend. Researchers wanted to gauge participant interest, how they learned about the event and their perceptions toward incentive and motivation.

The specific questions pertaining to extra credit are reflected in questions 11-16 and 22. Question 12 was a prompt advising participants on the nature of the next set of questions. Participants were asked what factors influenced the decision to attend the event, their opinions about extra credit for on-campus events, whether they would attend an event if there was no extra credit option, and in general, the type of events they attended. Participants were asked to rank factors that influenced their decision to attend the event. Seven questions were directly related to demographic information, five related to extra credit and the importance of the same, and the remaining 11 questions pertained to marketing and event-specific details. This study pertains only to the questions asked on extra credit.

RESULTS

Table 1. Participant Demographics (N=131)

Category	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)	Category	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)
Gender			**Class Rank**		
Female	99	71.7	Freshman	24	18.3
Male	39	28.3	Sophomore	44	33.5
			Junior	38	29.0
			Senior	25	19.0
Race					
White	108	73.9	**Age**		
Black	14	9.5	18	19	14.0
Amer. Ind./AK Native	1	0.6	19	43	31.8
Asian	7	4.7	20	32	23.7
Other	16	10.9	21	14	10.3
			22 and over	16	14.

Of the participants surveyed, 35% most commonly attended academic lectures/guest speakers. The second most popular category was recreational events, representing 24% of the total selections made by respondents. Sporting events were chosen by 20%, and artistic performances or showcases were 19% of total responses. "Other" events represent 1.5% of respondents' selections. It is important to note that survey participants could choose multiple selections, and findings suggest by a wide margin that the overall most popular type of on-campus events at the institution where participants were surveyed were academic lectures/guest speakers.

The majority (73%) of respondents placed significant value on extra credit, reporting it as a motivating factor when deciding whether or not to attend an on-campus event. "Extra credit" was chosen at a higher percentage than any other motivating factor presented as an option. Nearly 75% "agreed" or "strongly agreed" all on-campus extra-curricular events *should* have extra credit attached to attending. Not only do students want extra credit, they want it offered in more diverse settings. In contrast, when a survey question "Would you attend an extra-curricular academic event without the possibility of earning extra credit" was presented, 69.9% of respondents indicated in the affirmative direction. The remaining 29% of respondents indicated they were either ambivalent or would not likely attend events without extra credit.

Table 2. Q13: Extra Credit is an important factor in my decision to attend extra-curricular events.

	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)
Strongly Disagree	12	9.09
Somewhat Disagree	7	5.30
Neither Agree Nor Disagree	16	12.12
Somewhat Agree	41	30.30
Strongly Agree	57	43.18
TOTAL	133	100

Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Var.
1.00	5.00	3.93	1.25	1.57

Approximately 74% of respondents "strongly agreed" or "somewhat agreed" that extra credit is an important factor when deciding to attend an event, suggesting extra credit has a strong influence on decision-making. The majority placed significant value on extra credit. Additionally, 23% of respondents cited extra credit as one of the factors motivating their decision to attend the event, a higher percentage than any other motivating factor presented as an option (see appendix for the list of options). Over half (55%) of respondents indicated they believed "to some degree" that extra credit should be offered as an incentive for attendance at all on-campus events.

Hypothesis one predicted that students would respond above the ambivalence threshold to the idea of extra credit as an important motivating factor. Results of a t-test support this hypothesis, $t(126) = 9.03$, $p < .01$. Hypothesis two predicted that students would still respond above the ambivalence threshold to the idea of attending events without the offering of extra credit. Results of a t-test support this hypothesis as well, $t(127) = 9.8225$, $p < .01$. Note that the sample sizes for each t-test are slightly smaller than the total sample to adjust for incomplete responses. These findings have implications for examining student expectations in future research and practical implications for institutions, which are discussed below.

When looking at different factors influencing a student's decision to attend an event, researchers asked about four broad categories: extra credit; materially driven motivation (e.g., free food, t-shirts, prizes); an interest in the subject/sounded interesting; and an interpersonal connection with participation. See Table 2 above. These results are supported in Question 22, which asks participants to rank factors of their attendance in order of importance. The ranked preference shows perhaps a diminished effect here, as students were equally as likely to select "Free Food/ Free T-Shirt" as their second most important factor. The data collected provides a robust amount of support for our claim

that extra credit is a powerful incentive in students' decision-making process to attend extra-curricular activities. This is reflected across all metrics of measurement used. However, additional patterns emerge which suggest extra credit is not the sole incentive. Personal interest also provided itself as a significant factor in this decision-making, upsetting commonly held beliefs in academia that students only attend events due to the availability of extra credit.

Extra credit was the most-selected response when participants were asked to identify their motivation for attending the event at which the survey took place, with 23.7% of total selections made. The second most selected option in response to the question of motivating factors was personal interest, with 19.7% of total selections made. This is remarkable not in itself, but in comparison to the extra credit factor, with only a three-percent difference between the two. This is to say that while extra credit reigned supreme as a motivator for participation in extra-curricular events, it is important to note that this question allowed for multiple factors to be selected. Other factors presented as options were: knowing a participant (9.2%), free food or gifts (15.8%), prizes (15%), interest in public speaking specifically (9.9%).

When examining the broad categories of motivations, extra credit is outweighed by material motivations and interest level. Material motivations such as prizes, free food, and free t-shirts eclipse extra credit with a combined total of 31%. This has broad ramifications for faculty, which are discussed below. When combining responses about personal interest and wanting to know more, the overall total was 29.5%.

Table 3. Factors Influencing Student Attendance at Event

Factors	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)
Extra Credit Opportunities	73	23.68
Know a Participant	28	9.21
Sounded Interesting	61	19.74
Free Food/T–Shirt	58	15.75
Prizes	47	15.13
Interested/Want to Know More About Public Speaking	30	9.87
Other	11	3.62
TOTAL	308	100.0

*Respondents were allowed to select multiple answers in response to this question.

Four categories of motivation emerged: extra credit/academic motivation, material motivation, personal motivation, and social motivation. These categories can be extrapolated from the clustering of data mentioned previously. In this case, almost all responses fall into one of these four categories, with the portion of responses making up the "other" category being the sole indeterminate outlier. As applied to the data presented in this research, the categorical framework has a two-fold consequence: the traditional importance of extra credit is diminished. Still, it provides a more complex and complete picture of student involvement in extracurriculars.

Table 4. Q14: I would attend on-campus events even if there was no extra credit offered.

	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)
Strongly Disagree	3	2.26
Somewhat Disagree	10	7.52
Neither Agree Nor Disagree	26	19.55
Somewhat Agree	59	43.61
Strongly Agree	36	27.07
TOTAL	134	100

Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Var.
1.00	5.00	3.86	0.97	0.94

These categories are further demonstrated in the variance seen between questions, as all five of the questions presented about extra credit seem to suggest that they are deeply intertwined. The view of extra credit as a motivation remains robust, but as a sole motivator, it appears obsolete. Like any other consumer, students have complex tastes that can be satiated or appeased in multiple ways by attending the same event. Results that would seemingly negate each other are easily reasoned when applying this logic. For example, a majority of students (69.9%) indicated that they would attend extra-curricular events without the offering of extra credit as an incentive. Hypothesis 3 predicted that a majority of the surveyed population would respond over the ambivalence threshold to the idea of offering extra credit at all on-campus events. A t-test supports this idea, $t(126) = 5.17$, $p > .01$.

Table 5. Q15: I think all on-campus events should provide extra credit for attending.

	Total Selections (n)	Percent Total (%)
Strongly Disagree	9	6.77
Somewhat Disagree	18	13.53
Neither Agree Nor Disagree	31	22.56
Somewhat Agree	48	36.09
Strongly Agree	28	21.05
TOTAL	134	100

Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Var.
1.00	5.00	3.51	1.16	1.34

DISCUSSION

Results demonstrated the complicated relationship between an on-campus event and generating attendance. Our findings demonstrate how attendance-related incentives need to parallel students' interests. The majority of the types of events attended by this study's participants were academic lectures/guest speakers, which faculty would agree is important to students' academic development. This information is not surprising based on previous research relating to the importance of events on a students' intellectual growth (Simmons et al., 2017). Because extra credit was the strongest incentive to encourage attendance, serious consideration needs to be made toward the potential benefits of offering extra credit in connection to extra-curricular events. This is particularly true in light of studies supporting the enhanced level of satisfaction felt by a student when earning additional points (Kenner, 2009).

Because the majority of students prefer all events to include an extra credit component, it is crucial for professors and administrators to seriously consider whether they want to connect it to their event. Extra credit could be used as a motivating factor. This finding serves as a potent reminder for all in academia that to achieve desired attendance, particularly at an important academic event, one should consider adding an extra credit element. Further, suppose administrators hope to improve retention at their universities. In that case, extra credit may be the way to encourage students to attend events, feel more connected, and ultimately decide to stay at the institution (Laird et al., 2008). The data support the commonly held belief that students value extra credit above all other factors when deciding whether to attend an extra-curricular academic event, yet results support it is not the only motivating factor. In addition to extra credit, key motivators for attending events included material incentives and having a personal interest. It is important to consider how "personal interest" may be linked to the likelihood of earning extra credit. Practical implications are discussed in the following section.

There is room for further research in this vein analyzing specific groups of students within the subset; for example, the polarization of the effects discussed when comparing rate of participation, socioeconomic background, racial or sexual identities, or membership in on-campus student organizations. This work is an important stepping stone in identifying general categories of student motivation to be more precisely applied in all event contexts on campus.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Because extra credit was reported as a significant motivator yet not the sole motivating factor for attendance, faculty and student affairs, as well as administrations, should consider using the following categories to help communicate the benefits of attending a specific event: material gain, interpersonal gain, intellectual gain, and grade performance gain.

As a way to utilize the category "interpersonal connection to a participant," the event host might consider highlighting the key participants, especially if they are students. Students are motivated to attend events by material interests such as free food, t-shirts, and prizes. Those promoting these events should attempt to budget for "giveaway" items and include these incentives in promotional material. If material giveaways drive the current generation of college students, one should highlight it in marketing materials to achieve maximum attendance.

Participants are likely to attend an event if they are interested in the subject matter or desire to learn more; thus, event marketing should appeal to the targeted consumer who has demonstrated previous interest in the subject matter or similar events. For example, an academic lecture given by a biology instructor clearly should be advertised to science majors. Carefully crafted material incentives can also be prepared for the target audience. As academic lectures and guest speakers are ranked as the most popular events by participants, before a university hires an outside speaker, administrators should examine these motivation categories and examine how they can create advertisements that will appeal to the student body population based on these categories.

Further, extra credit has served as a matter of ethical dilemma for educators due to the argument that extra credit results in grade changes based on education done outside the classroom and class time (Handelsman & Woody, 2014). The results of the study offer options for effective motivational tactics for students; thus, if an educator feels extra credit in itself is unethical, there is empirical evidence suggesting other motivation tactics that can be utilized to facilitate learning external to the classroom environment. With extra credit not being the sole motivating factor for students, the argument that students are only motivated by grades is deemed false as multiple motivating factors can be used. Stronger relationships between instructors and event coordinators with the integration of the various motivational factors discussed can aid student learning exponentially and serve as a factor in providing students a better education.

This research may also be applied to and within the relationship between professors and non-instructional administrative staff who coordinate student programming. For example, administrators might promote events that award students with extra credit as a reward for their attendance. This would provide a material gain to the professor in the form of outside opportunity for academic content (thus enhancing the robustness of material offered in a course) and intellectual and material gain for the student. All of the benefits mentioned above in some way turn into a material gain for the administrator, as attendance for events would increase along with a sense of support and increased performance from the instructor and their students.

Additionally, this research has broader implications for the types of events offered on campus. Universities might consider encouraging faculty to further incorporate academic-related events that are offered during their actual class time. Our data show students perceive value in academic-style seminars such as job talks and other educational events, so weaving them into class time might generate deeper discussions, evaluative-based assignments, and perhaps lead to rich connections between one's course and what students continue to refer to as "real world" exposure.

CONCLUSION

One limitation of this study was the survey was disseminated during one major event that involved student-speakers and free prizes. Results may have differed if the survey had been distributed during a different event. Additionally, because the majority of respondents were majoring within the College of Business, it is essential to consider how motivation may vary across the disciplines.

Research reflects extra-curricular events benefit students' academic performances and sense of belonging within

their campus community. However, to benefit from these events, they need to attend them, hence the value in examining what motivates student attendance. To effectively encourage attendance, our data show extra credit is the most influential factor.

Our study benefits professors and university administrators invested in generating more interest in extra-curricular learning opportunities for their student body. Based on the results of our data, we suggest embracing the practice of offering extra credit as an incentive to encourage attendance. Future research should include a survey examining how students perceive their academic performance in connection to on-campus events. Additionally, researchers should replicate this study and the survey tool at different on-campus events and compare results. Another issue to examine in future studies is faculty members' motivation for offering (or not offering) extra credit to students. Suppose there was a doubt about how powerful extra credit was in terms of serving as a motivator. In that case, this study's findings show just how great of an impact it can have on generating interest and driving attendance.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY

Q1 - 2 Informed Consent

Q3 In what year were you born? Please enter in the format (YYYY).

Q4 What is your gender?
☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Non-Binary
☐ Prefer Not to Say
☐ Gender Fluid

Q5 What is your race? Check all that apply.
☐ White
☐ Black or African American
☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
☐ Asian
☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
☐ Other

Q6 Are you a faculty/staff member at [Institution Name]?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Q7 Are you a [Institution Name] Student?
☐ Yes
☐ No
If yes:

Q8 What is your class rank?
☐ Freshman (0-27 credits)
☐ Sophomore (28-59 credits)
☐ Junior (60-89 credits)
☐ Senior (90+ credits)
☐ Graduate Program
☐ I do not know my class rank

Q9 Please state your major(s). If none, please enter "N/A".

Q10 How did you hear about this event? Please select all that apply.
☐ Faculty Member/Class
☐ Word of mouth (friend, classmate, etc.)
☐ Flyer/Promotional Materials

☐ Visiting the Speech Center
☐ Other

Q11 What factors influenced your decision to attend this event? Please select all that apply.
☐ Extra Credit Opportunities
☐ Know a Participant
☐ Sounded Interesting
☐ Free Food/Free T-Shirt
☐ Prizes
☐ Interested in/want to learn more about Public Speaking
☐ Other

Q12 The following questions regard your opinions on extra credit and on-campus events. Please select the answer which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

Q13 Extra credit is an important factor in my decision to attend on-campus events.
☐ Strongly disagree
☐ Somewhat disagree
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Somewhat agree
☐ Strongly agree

Q14 I would attend on-campus events even if there is no extra credit offered for the event.
☐ Strongly disagree
☐ Somewhat disagree
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Somewhat agree
☐ Strongly agree

Q 15 I think all on-campus events should provide extra credit as an incentive for attending.
☐ Strongly disagree
☐ Somewhat disagree
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Somewhat agree
☐ Strongly agree

Q16 What types of on-campus events do you typically attend? Please select all that apply.
☐ Sporting Events
☐ Artistic Performances/Showcases
☐ Academic Lectures/Guest Speakers/Seminars
☐ Recreational Events (Spartan Productions)
☐ Other

Q17 Are you currently enrolled in a speech class?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Q18 Have you previously taken a speech class at the [Institution Name]?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Q19 Would you be interested in or are you planning to take a speech class in the future?
☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Unsure

Q20 Have you heard of the Center for Public Speaking?
☐ Yes
☐ No
If yes:

Q21 Have you used its services?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Q22 Please rank the factors that influenced your decision to attend this event in order from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important).
☐ Extra Credit Opportunities
☐ Personal Interest
☐ Relationship to Participant
☐ Free Food/Free T-shirt
☐ Prizes
☐ Other

Q23 In a few words, please summarize what you liked most about this event:

Q24 In a few words, please summarize what you liked least about this event:

JCAPS

AROUND THE HOUSE: A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF ATTACHMENT STYLES, LIVING ARRANGEMENT, AND INVOLVEMENT IN UNDERGRADUATE COMMUTER STUDENTS

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Most undergraduate students still commute to their undergraduate institution, and previous research identified parental involvement as a factor when determining whether a student will be a commuter. It is also assumed that these students are disengaged from their co-curricular experiences. Yet, little research has explored this dynamic of parental attachment and commuter student involvement. Self-reported living arrangements, student involvement, and attachment styles were explored in a singular institutional study of commuter students (n=1,452). The findings were that there was no relationship between attachment style and involvement, but there was between attachment style and living arrangement. Most participants self-disclosed they were involved, which disrupts assumptions of commuter student disengagement. Implications for practice and future directions for research are suggested connected to the study findings to suggest ways in which institutions can facilitate increased commuter student involvement.

Residential college students living in luxury, single-occupancy, suite-style, or independent living formats have been the preferences among Millennials and Generation-Z traditional (full-time) undergraduate students (Varga & Lingrell, 2018). These different residential formats are a stark contrast to the community-oriented features preferred by the previous generations of students who craved social connectedness and roommates (Tolman & Trautman, 2018). Having roommates was commonly thought of as part of the ubiquitous "college experience" (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015). However, higher education institutions (HEIs) have catered to this shifting trend to generate revenue, especially during the "college arms race" in which public and private institutions succumbed to market forces as they became more tuition-dependent in the face of increased student consumerism and declining state appropriations which previously supported operations (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015).

HEI's have constructed extravagant student amenities such as wave pools and a tertiary market of private housing companies formed to address student consumer market demands (Varga & Lingrell, 2018). All these trends facilitate a focus on residential students as revenue generation streams (Tolman & Trautman, 2018). However, this limited focus fails to acknowledge the "commuter student," a forgotten undergraduate population (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015). Commuter students are often defined as those undergraduates who do not live in university-supervised or sponsored housing (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015).

Moreover, changing college attendance behaviors suggest more Generation-Z students are intentionally living at home with their parents to reduce their cost of attendance or due to fears of disrupting their parent attachments (Passmore, 2015). Generation Z, like Millennials, have stronger connections and dependency on their immediate family (Goedereis & Sasso, 2020). Foundational research suggested relationships between parents and college students are demonstrated to be a strong indicator of academic success (Cutrona et al., 1994; Lantz & McCrary, 1955) and likely a factor in whether a student will commute (Nelson et al., 2016).

Approximately 25% of undergraduate students are full-time and live on campus (Nelson et al., 2016). The commuter student in American higher education has been profiled as a student who parked in the farthest, most inconvenient parking lot and has spent the least amount of physical time on campus (Passmore, 2015). They are often measured by the distance traveled to campus, not living in university-affiliated housing, or being unable to walk to campus (National Survey of Student Engagement [NSSE], 2015; Kuh, Gonvea, & Palmer, 2001). Research suggested students are more engaged in co-curricular experiences if they live on campus. The further away a student lives from campus, the less likely they will be involved in their undergraduate experience outside of the classroom (Kuh et al., 2001). Astin's theory of student involvement (1984) postulated that for students to be considered involved, they must devote considerable time on campus to actively participate in student organizations and engage with their academic experience. However, commuter students are less likely to spend time on campus (Ishitani & Reid, 2015).

This often makes commuter students an invisible population to those in student affairs, particularly those within the student engagement areas of student involvement or leadership programs. Commuter students are perceived as disengaged, immature, apathetic, or inferior, despite a void of research to support these claims (Weiss, 2014). These students have little connection or affiliation with their campus in which they have an academic transactional relationship with their institution and engage mostly with academic support (Darling, 2015). Student affairs professionals must be aware of commuter students and their campus experiences, particularly for their engagement and involvement levels (Mussi, 2004). However, practitioners bemoan that this is a challenging student population to engage and facilitate their involvement (Passmore, 2015).

This lack of depth of understanding exists because commuter students are featured across scant research in which we cannot better describe their experiences or their student life beyond campus (Biddix, 2015). Moreover, it is unclear "who" they live with and "what" they do. It is unclear who commuter students live with, such as with parents or if there are any potential relationships with their student involvement. Given the high level of parental attachment among Generation-Z (Seemiller & Grace, 2016), the researchers assumed this was an opportunity to better describe the experiences among commuter students to advance our understanding in addressing this gap in the research. Thus, the researchers of this study attempted to better describe parental attachment and student involvement in commuter students. A common profile of commuter students and two theories were applied to this study to conceptualize parental attachment and student involvement.

Commuter students were defined by Kuh et al. (2001) as those who did not live in the residence halls or could not walk to campus, which is consistent with Biddix (2015), who broadly defined them as not living in official campus housing and commute to campus regardless of travel modality. To better conceptualize different forms of parental attachment, Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory was used. This theory has three styles (secure, avoidant, and anxious) and suggests that the association or strength of relationship to parental figures influences the development of the depth of extra-familial intimate partnerships, collegial relationships, or friendships. Commuter students are more likely to live with their parents, and their attachment style may influence how they are involved in co-curricular experiences. Tinto (1999) and Guiffrida (2006) posited that social integration into the college environment is a precondition for involvement in co-curricular experiences. The researchers postulated that the process of social integration for commuter students could be shaped by their prior attachment style, which may influence how they experience co-curricular involvement. To conceptualize commuter student involvement with co-curricular experiences, Astin's (1984) theory was used in this study to examine this relationship with parental attachment.

The relationship between parental attachment and student involvement has yet to be examined within higher education research. In addition, the type of attachment style can affect an individual throughout the lifetime and is the basis for future interpersonal relationships (Bowlby, 1969). The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the prevalence of the three attachment styles among commuter students?

2. How do attachment styles differ in commuter students who live in varying situations (i.e., living with other students, with parents, with a romantic partner, etc.)?

3. What is the relationship between attachment style and level of involvement within commuter students?

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review expands beyond the introduction to further describe the constructs of this study and is organized into three subsections: commuter students, student involvement educational outcomes, and attachment theory. Commuter students are profiled to highlight misperceptions. General student involvement educational outcomes are summarized, and specific benefits are emphasized for commuter students. The three styles of Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory are defined along with their potential application to commuter students.

COMMUTER STUDENT IDENTITY

A large part of the college student population commutes to their campuses and can be seen as the largest and most complexly diverse group of students in higher education (Kuh et al., 2001; Weiss, 2014). Research has shown that 85% of college students commutes (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014), increasing this number (Kirk & Lewis, 2015). Commuting students (commuters) are an essential part of college campuses, given their scope and enrollment (Mussi, 2004). Different definitions exist of commuter students, which include: (1) live at home and travel to campus, or they live with classmates off-campus (Mussi, 2004); (2) those who do not live-in university-owned housing (Weiss, 2014); or (3) all students who drive to campus rather than walk are commuter students (Kuh et al., 2001). These definitions hold the concept of some distance or travel to campus as a part of their college experience, which features noncognitive barriers towards degree persistence.

Research suggests commuters are different from residential college students (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014). Commuters have fewer opportunities for academic and social integration, making them less open to diversity and tolerance (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014). Commuter students are increasingly composed of first-generation and students of color (Newbold, 2015) as well as "post-traditional students," who are part-time, adult learners (Passmore, 2015). Commuter students are more likely to be married, student-parents (Weis, 2014), or live with their parent(s) if they are full-time undergraduates (Kuh, Gonyea, & Palmer, 2001; Newbold, 2015). They are also more likely to come from a working-class background (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014; Newbold, 2105). These present as risk factors or barriers to persistence towards degree completion as often measured by academic success (Nelson et al., 2016). More than half of all commuters do not persist to graduation (Roberts & McNeese, 2010).

Perceptions from student affairs professionals further make this student population invisible. It is assumed commuters are disengaged because of their backgrounds, not because institutions focus more on residential student populations (Weiss, 2014). They are perceived as more transactional students in which they are less committed to academics, distracted, not involved, apathetic towards campus issues, and have fewer educational goals (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014; Kuh et al., 2001). Thus, they are often left out of policies and practices (Newbold, 2015; Weiss, 2014).

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Student involvement is often measured as the time one spends in educationally related activities. Astin's theory of student involvement (1984) was placed-based. He suggested that the more physical time they spend on campus, the more likely they will participate in organizations, activities, and interact with faculty. Students learn more when involved in both the academic and social aspects of the college experience (Astin, 1999). Astin (1984) generated five tents, or "postulates" which included student involvement: (1) has qualitative and quantitative features; (2) requires an investment of psychosocial and physical energy; (3) of a continuous process in which students invest varying energy; (4) development directly proportional to quality and quantity; and (5) educational effectiveness is related to the levels. Astin (1984) conceptualized involvement theory as a student-centered theory rather than engagement which is in an institutional theory (Kuh, 2009). He suggested the responsibility for engagement rests with the student in which authentic involvement requires an investment of energy in relationships, academics, and activities related to the on-campus experience. The student holds the power to decide how and who they spend their time with; family, friends, academics, and other outside activities (Astin, 1984). These sorts of responsibilities and proximity to campus often deter commuters from the educational benefits of student involvement and lead to a lack of academic and social integration (Wolf-Wendel, Ward, & Kinzie, 2009).

These benefits include a sense of belonging and institutional affinity, which relate to individual student persistence (Weiss, 2014). One of the ways these affiliations are developed through student involvement (Astin, 1999). Involvement increases when students feel supported outside the classroom and challenged and supported in their coursework, promoting the integration of their college experience (Wolf-Wendle et al., 2009). Commuter students are less likely to feel their institution supports them or feel a sense of belonging, which may contribute to their lack of involvement (Kirk & Lewis, 2015). Commuters are less engaged and involved than residential students (Alfano & Eduljee, 2013), and only 59% of commuters participate in cocurricular activities compared to 75% of residential students (Kirk & Lewis, 2015). Campus activities may be seen as inaccessible to commuter students (Weiss, 2014). However, this is not connected to their persistence towards graduation (Darling, 2015; Ishitani & Reid, 2015).

For commuters, involvement is not as important as a sense of belonging. A sense of community and connectedness contributes to their individual persistence (Biddix, 2015; Ishitani & Reid, 2015; Johnson, 1997). There is a lower sense of community within the commuter student population, which they tend to develop through classroom networks (Kirk & Lewis, 2015). Commuter students' persistence towards graduation increases when they make connections with faculty and other students within the classroom (Darling, 2015; Roberts & McNeese, 2010).

This would suggest that commuters may have increased academic success (Hawkins, 2010). This interaction with other students reinforces academic learning and other areas of life such as religious, political, or philosophical discussions (Roberts & McNeese, 2010). How commuter students individually facilitate a sense of belonging and create a sense of connectedness is unclear. Beyond that, it occurs in formal academic spaces rather than co-curricular experiences of the "extra-curriculum." Attachment theory may better conceptualize how this occurs in commuter students.

UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS AND THEIR PARENTS

Research has suggested there is a bias from student affairs professionals and other college administrators in cooperating with parents of undergraduates because they feel their involvement impedes their integration into college and reduces their capacity for independence (Hofer & Moore, 2010). Seminal university retention theories such as Tinto's theory of student departure (1999) also assume that students must be disconnected and removed from their families to thrive in college (Guiffrida, 2006). This assumes that parental relationships inhibit social integration into college (Tinto, 1999), but Guiffrida (2006) noted that first-generation students' and students' of color needs might depend on their parents even more than other peers for emotional support and transmission of culture. Guiffrida (2006) purported the important role that parental support serves, which can further support student social integration that Tinto (1999) found essential for student involvement. Moreover, levels of parental social support correlate positively with GPA attainment in college (Cutrona et al., 1994). These outcomes of parental involvement are especially salient among the current undergraduates of Generation-Z who have stronger attachments to their parents (Seemiller & Grace, 2016).

Generation-Z students are omnipresently connected to their parents via text messaging and social media, facilitating greater parental attachment and connection (Goedereis & Sasso, 2020). Cullaty (2011) found different parental styles, particularly when intervening for their student to reduce barriers to their learning, such as registration or financial holds. It was noted that while parental involvement varied across cultures, student attachment to their parents often moderated student perceptions of their own autonomy. This made them less likely to becomes involved (Cullaty, 2011). Thus, parental involvement and attachment styles could potentially influence student involvement. This is especially salient for commuter students who must make extra efforts to socially integrate into their campus environment (Biddix, 2015).

Other research explores parental relationship qualities and perceived attachment style (Kenny & Donaldson 1992; Kenyon & Koerner 2009). Parent and student relationship levels have no difference for commuter students compared to residential students, but socio-psychological and relationship patterns are a factor for students when determining whether to commute (Lantz & McCrary, 1955). In general, research suggests positive outcomes about parental involvement for college students (Sax & Wartman, 2012). Attachment theory is one of the most efficacious approaches better to understand these dynamics between students and their parents.

The attachment between a parent and child endures throughout one's lifetime and is commonly referred to as the Parental Attachment Style theory developed by Bowlby (1969). Specific parental attachment style (attachment style) starts when we are children, such as when we seek our attachment figure when feeling threatened or upset. Attachment style is shown to be supported and universal across cultures. The theory helps define parent-child relationships, how it emerges, endures, and influences the development of the child. Children are biologically programmed to form attachments with others to survive, with 0-5 years of age as a critical time to develop an attachment. If a child does not develop a positive attachment style, they will suffer developmentally, which can be irreversible (Bowlby, 1969).

Parental Attachment Style theory is an internal working model - a mental representation for individuals to understand themselves, others, and the world (Bowlby, 1969). There are three types of attachment styles, one positive and two negative. The secure attachment style is positive, while avoidant and anxious-ambivalent or resistant attachment styles are negative.

A secure attachment style is when the parent-child relationship is positive. The child will feel protected and loved by their caregiver. Children may have some distress when their caregiver leaves, but they are able to compose themselves as they know their caregiver will come back (Bowlby, 1969). A secure attachment style will help a child with skill acquisition, exploration, discovery, and development of self-confidence. It also helps them to create a positive schema of themselves, master new situations and cope effectively. It allows them to explore without anxiety and self-doubt getting in the way (Cutrona et al., 1994). Children with a secure attachment style develop into adults who are more positive and integrated. They have more cohesive self-structures, are tolerant of uncertainty and ambiguity, are less likely to be depressed, and are less likely to have low self-esteem (Rice & Lopez, 2004). Those closer to their parents report more self-confidence and independence than those emotionally distant from their parents (Cutrona et al., 1994). However, overly secure relationships may be related to dependence which is related to higher levels of depression and anxiety (Schiffrin et al. 2014) or even feelings of lower quality of parent–child communication, family satisfaction, and increased entitlement (Segrin et al. 2012). Moreover, not all parent-child relationships are positive.

Negative experiences with caregivers in childhood are more likely to promote an insecure-type attachment style (Rice & Lopez, 2004). The two insecure-type attachment styles are avoidant and anxious-ambivalent or resisting. A child with an avoidant attachment style will feel unloved and rejected by their parent(s). They will ignore or avoid their caregiver, will not explore as often, and are not distressed when their caregiver leaves and avoids them when they return (Bowlby, 1969). As adults, those possessing an avoidant attachment style will experience discomfort with closeness and intimacy and have a strong desire for interpersonal distance. A child will be more self-sufficient, suppress negative emotions more frequently, are more likely to have low self-esteem, and think of relationships as less supportive (Rice & Lopez, 2004).

Anxious-ambivalent or resistant attachment style is defined as a child having unpredictable responses to their relationship with their caregiver. They have feelings of anger, confusion, and helplessness. Children with this attachment style will explore little, be wary of strangers, and are highly distressed when the caregiver leaves and are ambivalent when they return (Bowlby, 1969). As adults, they fear rejection and abandonment, are overwhelmed by negative emotions, are more likely to have low self-esteem, and think of relationships as less supportive (Rice & Lopez, 2004).

Securely attached students are more self-reliant in their environment and situations and see college as a challenge, not a threat (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2002; Lopez & Gormley, 2002). Secure attachment styles have also been known to adjust better when transitioning into college and higher education academics (Ames et al., 2011). Students who have a secure attachment style are more confident in their ability to attract and engage with a romantic partner, use more adaptive problem-focused coping styles, have fewer problems within the college setting, and report fewer depressive symptoms (Lopez & Gormley, 2002). These students are also more likely to seek out and benefit from close relationships than those with anxious-ambivalent or resistant and avoidant attachment styles which tend to use social support ineffectively and avoid group settings (Marmarosh & Markin, 2007).

Anxious-ambivalent or resistant and avoidant attachment styles are more likely to have an excessive fear of failure

and seek help when needed (Ames, et al., 2011). In addition, these negatively attached students demonstrate high scores in depressive symptoms and problems overall (Lopez & Gormley, 2002). Resistant and anxious-ambivalent attachment styles are often related to issues such as adjustment and career choice (Wintre & Yaffe 2000), identity development (Schultheiss & Blustein 1994), and mental health challenges such as drug/alcohol misuse, self-esteem, or depression (Gentzler et al. 2011). Mental health and these other challenges all can serve as barriers to student involvement (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015). This is because attachment style is the basis for all future relationships (Bowlby, 1969). Research also shows attachment styles are relatively stable across a lifespan (Lopez & Gormley, 2002). Thus, attachment styles are related to a student's college experience and are a framework to better understand how parental relationships may relate to commuter students.

Attachment styles relate to how individuals adjust to the college setting and moderate feelings towards group settings (Ames, et al., 2011; Marmoarosh & Markin, 2007). This is especially salient when students attend college for the first time as they leave their secure parental base, which helps and supports their development of competence and autonomy (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991). They also inform how adults cope with stressors, such as attending college and entering a new environment (Sasso & DeVitis, 2015). In addition, there is an association between students' relationships with their parents and their overall level of adjustment when attending college (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993).

All this research suggests that parental relationships determine attachment styles which influence how commuter students adjust to college or may affect how they socially integrate into their undergraduate experience in seeking out co-curricular involvement. Therefore, exploring attachment style may better help describe how commuter students facilitate a sense of belonging based on their living arrangement with parents or others since the research has highlighted their lack of involvement. This study addresses this gap in the research by exploring the relationships between attachment styles and living arrangement or student involvement among commuter students.

METHODS

RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between attachment as defined by Bowlby's (1969) theory of parental attachment styles and levels of student involvement in a sample of commuter students. The independent variables were Bowlby's (1969) three attachment styles: secure attachment (feeling loved, supported, and positivity from parents), avoidant attachment (feeling rejected and unloved from parents), and anxious or resistant (feeling confused and angry about relationship with parents). The dependent variable, level of involvement, was based on a subscale from the National Survey of Student Engagement and the number of hours committed to these co-curricular activities. The commuter students' sample was defined based on their living situations, whether they lived with parents, significant other or partner, classmates/friends, children, or alone.

The study analyzed the relationship between attachment styles and involvement in a sample of traditional-age undergraduate commuter students. This study was a quantitative, quasi-experimental design. The groups are attachment styles of students: (1) anxious; (2) avoidant; or (3) secure. The levels of involvement were: (1) low; (2) medium; or (3) high. Data were collected using survey methodology, using two forced-choice questionnaires.

SAMPLE

This was a singular institutional study on which the host institution was a mid-sized, Midwestern HEI with a Carnegie Classification of doctoral/professional. There was a target population of 10,073 undergraduate commuter students. A convenience sampling procedure was used, which generated a response rate of 14.41% (n=1,452). Inclusion criteria included using the definition of *commuter* by Kuh et al. (2001) as those who did not live in the residence halls or could not walk to campus. The demographic sample data reflected the institution demographics (see General Trends section) and national trends in higher education institutions as aforementioned within the literature review and introduction sections of this paper. Thus, the results of this study have high external validity as applied to mid-size, midwestern public institutions or doctoral/professional class institutions.

INSTRUMENTATION

This study utilized two previously created, validated, and reliable instruments - the Fraley, Niedenthal, Marks, Brumbaugh, & Vicary (2006) Relationship Structures (ECR-RS) questionnaire and selected questions from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) that describe student involvement as identified by Kuh (2009). Each of these instruments consisted of forced-choice surveys with close-ended questions that are limited to self-report. The researcher also used a demographic questionnaire asking which class rank, whether they were a full-time student, and to self-report their GPA, fraternity/sorority membership, and their living situation (lived with parents, other students, with children, with a romantic or marital partner, or living alone).

The ECR-RS measures attachment style patterns across four close relationships (targets): (1) mother/mother-like figure; (2) father/father-like figure; (3) romantic partner; and (4) best friend. The same nine closed-ended items are used to assess the attachment style for all four targets (Fraley et al., 2006). The ECR-CS uses a Likert scale (7 points from strongly disagree to strongly agree). The test-retest reliability is approximately .65 regarding romantic relationships and .80 for parental relationships. Additional validation of the ECR-RS has indicated the efficacy of the instrument (Fraley, 2011, 2015).

The NSSE was developed in 1999 (NSSE, 2015) has served as a national benchmark survey to measure the extent to which students are satisfied with student services, how students spend their time on campus, and engagement with others such as faculty or peers. The NSSE questions used a Likert scale (very often, often, sometimes, never). The construct validity of the NSSE is .70 or higher across all subscales. The reliability is .80 or higher across all scales and subscales (NSSE, 2016). This study selected items from the student involvement subscale centered questions from civic engagement, global learning, inclusiveness, engagement with cultural diversity, first-year experiences, senior transition, and hours committed to co-curricular activities.

PROCEDURE

The office of the registrar provided the researcher with a list of more than 10,000 students who were sent an email solicitation and offered an incentive to participate in the study for a random gift card drawing. Potential participants were contacted using a standardized recruitment statement containing a link to the demographic survey, ECR-CS, and NSSE instruments. A standardized debriefing statement concluded the surveys, and a separate link collected the participant's name and contact information for a random drawing. Personal information was not connected to the data and was collected in a separate form for the participant incentive.

DATA ANALYSIS

Survey data was exported from the online survey platform into SPSS and analyzed using descriptive statistics by research questions, including Chi-Square, an independent samples t-test, or Pearson correlation. ECR-RS scores were computed using standardized scoring as outlined by Fraley et al. (2006). The NSSE involvement subscale was organized into low, medium, and high by total score. Community service and co-curricular time on task were averaged.

RESULTS

GENERAL TRENDS

Overall trend data reported by percentages demonstrate that students self-report high levels of involvement, regardless of attachment style and different living arrangements. About 31.9% of the participants were 24 or older, and the rest of the sample was between 18-23. Approximately 90% of the sample were full-time students. Most of the sample comprises upperclassmen (juniors and seniors) at 55.6%.

Results revealed approximately a third of participants live with other students off-campus. About 26% of partici-

pants lived with their parents, another significant proportion of the population, and 21% lived with their romantic or marital partner. These percentages are comparable to the percentages of anxious and avoidant attachment styles.

Without disaggregating by attachment style, scores from the NSSE involvement subscale were that at least 80% of the participants reported medium or levels of involvement. However, participants self-reported that 96.2% of them spent low levels of time towards involvement each week. This suggests that while participants self-report high levels of involvement, not very much time is spent on these efforts. Involvement included 11% involvement in fraternities and sororities, and 28.5% of students may hold on- or off-campus employment. Attachment styles measured from the ECR-RS did not demonstrate any meaningful trends by time or levels of involvement. For example, higher levels of time towards involvement did not reveal a greater secure attachment style, with 50.0% also having an avoidant attachment style. Those with low levels of time involved also had a significant amount of insecure attachment styles (39.4% for avoidant and 7.1% for anxious/resistant). These data suggest a more complex relationship between the variables analyzed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

What is the prevalence of each type of attachment style in commuter students? Table 1 disaggregates the percentage of participants in each attachment style from the ECR-RS and represents a binomial distribution. The avoidant attachment style was 39.3% of participants, and 53.6% of participants were securely attached, while the anxious/resistant attachment style had 7.1%.

Table 1. *Frequency of Attachment Style*

Frequency	Total	Frequency
Avoidance	571	39.3
Anxious	103	7.1
Secure	778	53.6
Total	1452	100.0

How do attachment styles differ in commuter students who live in varying situations (i.e., living with other students, with parents, with a romantic partner, etc.)? A Chi-Square statistical test was performed to determine any potential aggregate relationships between the study variables of attachment style, living situation, and involvement (see Table 2). Living situation of the participants demonstrated a significant interaction with their attachment style $(X2 (8) = 40.763, p < .01)$.

An independent samples t-test was performed to investigate the difference in attachment style between participants who lived with other students and those who lived with their parents, using the mean attachment style score whereby higher scores were more secure than lower scores which were insecure (avoidant or anxious), There was a statistically significant difference between attachment style of participants who lived with other students (M=1.2847, SD=.92011) and those who lived with parents (M=.9922, SD=.95181); t(4.722) = 937, p > 0.05). The validity of the t-test did not violate Levene's Test for Equality of Variances F(1, 936)=3.630), p= .057.

Table 2. *Attachment Style Living Situation Independent T-Test*

Living Situation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t–test
Living with other students	1.2847	.92011	.03906	4.722
Living with parents	.9922	.95181	.04857	Ns

Table 4 disaggregates the other living situations participants identified. 38.2% lived with other students, 26.4% lived with parents, 5.4% with their children, and 20.7% with a romantic or marital partner. There was no significant difference in attachment style related to the other categories beyond living with other students and living with parents.

Table 4. *Living Situation Frequency*

Living Situation	Frequency	Percent
Living with other students	555	38.2
Living with parents	384	26.4
Living with children	78	5.4
Living with a romantic or marital partner	300	20.7
Living alone	135	9.3
Total	1452	100.0

To further investigate the significant differences demonstrated by the independent samples t-test, the researcher disaggregated participant living situation and the attachment style. Secure students were more likely to be living with other students than the other categories of students. Those living with parents were slightly more likely to have an avoidant attachment style (45.6%) compared to having a secure attachment style (44.8%). An avoidant coping style was most common among living with parents, children, and romantic or marital partners. Living alone also saw higher percentages of avoidant attachment styles (45.9%) and secure attachment styles (45.0%) compared to anxious/resistant attachment styles (8.1%).

Table 5. *Living Arrangement x Attachment Style Frequency*

Living Situation	Attachment Style		
	Avoidant	Anxious	Secure
Living with other students	32.1%	7.4%	60.5%
Living with parents	45.6%	9.6%	44.8%
Living with children	52.6%	3.8%	43.6%
Living with romantic or marital partner	38.3%	3.7%	58.0%
Living alone	45.9%	8.1%	45.9%

What is the relationship between attachment style and level of involvement within commuter students? Many participants reported having medium to high levels of involvement despite attachment style (see Table 6). All levels of involvement reveal moderate levels of participants with an avoidant attachment style (100% for low involvement, 38.9% for medium involvement, and 39.5% for high involvement). High levels of secure attachment style were common in moderate (51.4%) and high (56.0%) levels of involvement. An anxious/resistant attachment style had a slight presence in medium (9.7%) and high (4.6%) levels of involvement compared to avoidant and secure attachment styles.

Table 6. *Involvement x Attachment Style Frequency*

Living Situation	Attachment Style		
	Avoidant	Anxious	Secure
Low	100%	0%	0%
Medium	38.9%	9.7%	51.4%
High	39.5%	4.6%	56.0%

DISCUSSION

A saturation of research and programming on residential college students facilitates a lack of understanding to better describe the experiences of commuter students at HEIs. Practitioner knowledge and understanding are scant despite their existence on campuses since the 1960s. Using the ECR-RS (to find the attachment style of the participant) and select questions from the NSSE (for student involvement) in this study provided a better understanding

of attachment style, living arrangements, and involvement. Overall, there were no significant findings to conclude that a student's attachment style prohibits them from being involved on campus. These data suggested a high percentage of participants, regardless of their attachment style, spent a low amount of time involved, but reported medium to high levels of involvement. These data also suggested that even though participants stated they were highly involved, they were not as committed to that involvement. Additional results indicated many commuter students work part-time jobs and attend college, which is why they must be more intentional with their time committed towards involvement. These findings can be contextualized as they contribute to the existing research and provide a better description of commuter students.

Students reported moderate to high levels of involvement in off-campus employment and student organizations. These results also are consistent with Bowlby (1969) in that those with secure and avoidant attachment styles were the most common. However, there was no relationship between attachment style and involvement, but there was a significant correlation between attachment style and living situation.

Specifically, those participants who had a secure attachment style were more likely to live with fellow classmates. Those with an avoidant or anxious/resistant attachment style were more likely to be living alone or with parents. These results support previous research on attachment style, which suggests that those who are more secure in their relationships will be more willing to be put in new environments and succeed, such as living with roommates (Chemers et al., 2002; Lopez & Gormley, 2002).

There were slight differences between living with parents or classmates and attachment style. The results indicated a higher percentage of students who lived with their parents were more likely to be anxiously attached than those who were securely attached, and avoidant-attached lived with classmates or friends. This supports previous research suggesting those who have an anxious/resistant attachment style tend to avoid group settings and thus would rather live with their parents than with roommates (Marmarosh & Markin, 2007). This was further supported when comparing participants who lived with other students and those who lived with their parents. The means of those two categories were significantly different, suggesting a difference in attachment style depending on living situation.

Those living alone were related to an avoidant or secure attachment style compared to an anxious/resistant one. Bowlby's (1969) theory suggested that individuals who avoid attachment will struggle with maintaining and developing friendships. They will also be more likely to avoid group situations. Conversely, those with secure attachment styles may be more comfortable with themselves, have higher self-esteem, and be more likely to live alone. The percentages of secure and avoidant attachment styles are significantly higher than that of the anxious/resistant attachment style for participants who live with a romantic or marital partner. The high percentage of students who have an avoidant attachment style living with their romantic or marital partner is because they are un-trustful of their partner and depend on them in an unhealthy manner (Simpson, 1990). Thus, they would feel the need to cohabitate with their partners. Bowlby (1969) suggested attachment styles are carried through adulthood and influence the relationships one has. Student affairs professionals should consider these nuanced findings to engage these students and increase their involvement in educationally purposeful activities.

The anxious attachment style was the most prevalent and is associated with using social support ineffectively, avoiding group settings, having an excessive fear of failure, and demonstrating high scores of depressive symptoms (Ames et al., 2011; Lopez & Gormley, 2002; Marmarosh & Markin, 2007). Thus, student involvement offices should partner with counseling or wellness centers to further engage with commuter students.

Self-reported data by commuter students indicated that commuter students have diverse living arrangements. Institutions should consider a larger "good neighbor" initiative to build external "town-gown" relationships with community partners. A component of this initiative, commuters should have their own advisory board solely to make their voices heard on campus and inform faculty and staff of the support they need. Community partners should also be invited to attend, or the institution can create a community liaison position within the board. It is simply not enough for just the institution to hear the needs of commuter students, but they should be inclusive of community members too.

Results from this study suggested commuters might be more intentional with their time on campus regarding involvement. Student involvement offices should consider the addition of daytime "common hours," which are blocks of time for campus programming where no courses or labs are scheduled. To implement this, student affairs divisions must cooperate with academic affairs and the registrar to implement this approach. Common hours may allow commuter students to better connect to involvement experiences while they are on campus.

LIMITATIONS

There are limitations of both the internal and external validity of this study. Self-report instruments were used in this study and featured a convenience sample which may facilitate response bias. The researchers also had to rescore the ECR-RS to include securely attached individuals, and the selected NSSE student involvement questions are a researcher-constructed subscale. These are not empirically validated and could have impacted the findings. Participants were not asked to disclose their multiple identities, including race, gender, or class. Particularly, participants were not prompted to differentiate romantic partnerships. There was no differentiation between learning formats, including distance learners, transfer, and "on-grounds" students. This study also did not consider how commuter students travel to campus, such as with public transportation.

The generalizability of this study might be limited as this was a singular institutional study. The findings presented are not causal in which the study was only exploratory and correlational using primarily descriptive data. This study is not predictive, and its findings cannot claim which attachment styles influence involvement. Future research should explore different types of commuter students to identify the most invisible or marginalized by existing economic or social systems.

CONCLUSION

As a result of conducting this study, the researchers intended to facilitate awareness about the population of commuter students who are often invisible. More research needs to be done on the commuter student population as current research is dated and limited. The findings provided some insight into their self-reported living arrangements, involvement, and attachment styles. There was no relationship between attachment style and involvement; it identified potential connections between attachment style and living arrangement. A surprising result of this study was most participants self-disclosed they were involved, which disrupts assumptions of commuter student disengagement. Institutions should recognize these behavioral trends in their programming and outreach. Future research should seek to identify new patterns of involvement and disaggregate these across different subpopulations to better target these effects to facilitate the involvement of commuter students. Additional research should be sensitive to consider all characteristics and expand the definition of a commuter student as it may not always include students who can afford to have a car, pay for parking, or to be a full-time student. These considerations may shape policy to include commuter students more effectively.

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THEORY-DRIVEN APPROACHES TO TARGETING SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP IN EMERGING ADULTS: CONSCIOUSNESS OF SELF

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The purpose of the current paper is to present a theory-driven approach to developing Consciousness of Self, an individual value of the Social Change Model of Leadership, among emerging adults. Specifically, we discuss the development and execution of an intervention involving a large-group retreat with interactive activities and an emphasis on discussion. Grounded in theory, the intervention focused on identifying values, describing strengths, and practicing mindfulness and was evaluated based on the learning objectives. Program evaluation efforts revealed notable participant gains in all targeted objectives six months after the intervention. By providing a theoretical framework, in-depth description of the intervention, and evaluation strategy, the current paper encourages student affairs practitioners to utilize this curriculum to facilitate a Consciousness of Self intervention or create theoretically-grounded curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

The Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM), defined as a model of leadership development to promote positive social change (HERI, 1996), is regarded as the most widely used model among institutions of higher education for student leadership development (Haber & Komives, 2009). The central tenets associated with the SCM involve social responsibility and the development of socially responsible leaders (HERI, 1996; Dugan, 2006). The development of leadership and social responsibility have also been identified as key student learning outcomes of higher education (Adelman et al., 2011; AAC&U & NLC, 2007; CAS, 2015; Dreschsler Sharp et al., 2011; NACE, 2016; NASPA/ACPA, 2004). In response to these student learning outcomes, student affairs practitioners nationwide are increasingly being asked to develop socially responsible leadership among their students (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Given the growing focus on the SCM and socially responsible leadership among student affairs professionals, the purpose of our paper is to discuss the development, implementation, and assessment of a year-long intervention focused on Consciousness of Self, a value of the SCM (HERI, 1996). Specifically, we outline the theoretical foundations of the current intervention, linking leadership theory to practice. Additionally, an in-depth description of the intervention, including samples of workbook pages and lesson plans, is provided to aid student affairs professionals in implementing a Consciousness of Self intervention in curricular and co-curricular settings. Finally, we discuss the evaluative results of the intervention based on survey data from the participants and provide recommendations and implications for student affairs professionals. Notably, the intervention at the center of our paper is part one of a series of seven interventions that follow the seven values of the SCM (e.g., part two will focus on the 2nd SCM value of Congruence, part three will focus on the 3rd SCM value of Commitment, etc.; HERI, 1996). We focused on one SCM value at a time because it allowed us to take a scaffolded approach to teach the Model. Specifically, we focused on the Individual value of Consciousness of Self to begin because it is the first value in the SCM and is "a necessary condition for realizing all the other values in the Model" (HERI, 1996, p. 31). After discussing the three individual values of the SCM, which build upon each other, then we will turn our attention to the Group Values before finishing the Societal/Community Value of Citizenship.

REVIEW OF RELATED SCHOLARSHIP

Consciousness of Self, defined as an awareness of the beliefs and values that motivate actions (HERI, 1996), was originally developed as a value of the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM; HERI, 1996, Dugan & Komives, 2007). The SCM is a model of leadership development developed to promote positive social change at an institution of higher education or in the community (HERI, 1996). Furthermore, the model seeks to develop self-knowledge and leadership competence, positioning the leader as a change agent and viewing leadership as a collective action. Leadership is posited as furthering equity, social justice, self-knowledge, and service to enhance student development. As previously mentioned, the SCM is regarded as the most widely used model among students for leadership development within the field of higher education (Haber & Komives, 2009).

Figure 1. *Values of the Social Change Model of Leadership*
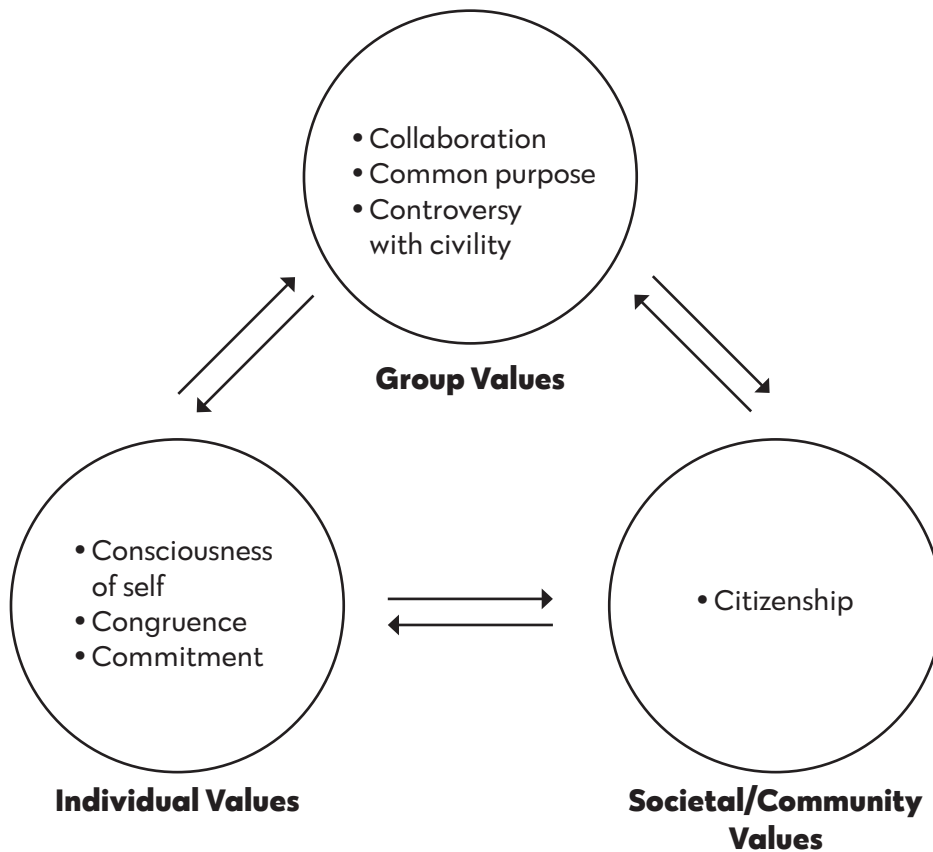
The SCM highlights seven elements sorted into three categories (see Figure 1; HERI, 1996). First, there are three individual values: (a) Consciousness of Self - an awareness of the beliefs and values that motivate actions; (b) Congruence - thoughts, feelings, and actions align with personal beliefs, demonstrating integrity and consistency; and (c) Commitment - energy motivates an individual to serve and propel group effort. Second, there are three group values: (a) Collaboration - working with others in pursuit of a common goal, empowers the self and builds trust with others; (b) Common Purpose - working in a group with shared values and goals; (c) Controversy with Civility - discussing differences with civility, which implies respecting others, listening, and showing restraint. Third, the SCM has one community value, Citizenship, which is defined as individuals and groups feeling a responsibility to community and society (HERI, 1996; Tyree, 1998). The value of "Change" is also considered a central component of the model (Wagner, 2006); it is the ultimate goal of leadership – making the world better for self and others. Tyree (1998) developed an instrument, the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), designed to assess socially responsible leadership in college students by measuring the eight values associated with SCM.

Within the SCM, Consciousness of Self is defined as "a means to know oneself, or simply to be self-aware" (HERI, 1996, p. 31). There are two different aspects to Consciousness of Self: (a) an awareness of the more trait-like aspects of one's personality, which includes strengths, values, and interests; and (b) a consciousness of one's current feelings, thoughts, and actions. The SCM clearly states that "being an effective member of a leadership group that works toward social change necessarily begins with self-awareness" (HERI, 1996, p. 31).

In addition to SCM, the current intervention was also significantly influenced by Erikson's stages of psychosocial development (1950, 1963). Stage five of this theory is Identity vs. Role Confusion (see Figure 2). This theory posits that before emerging adults can progress to the sixth of eight stages, Intimacy vs. Isolation, they must first successfully resolve their identity by identifying a clear sense of self and purpose (Patton et al., 2016). After committing to an identity, people can move to the development stage where they build close friendships, as "adults need a strong sense of identity to foster strong relationships" (Patton et al., 2016, p. 290). When emerging adults have a clear sense of self, they can better accept people and ideas they perceive as different or unfamiliar. Given the developmental importance of self-awareness, it is critical that student affairs professionals working with college students intentionally incorporate consciousness of self activities and discussions into curricular and co-curricular experiences. The following section offers one model for utilizing the Consciousness of Self theory to inform practice.

Figure 2. *Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
VIII Maturity								Ego Integrity v. Despair
VII Adulthood							Generativity v. Stagnation	
VI Young Adulthood						Intimacy v. Isolation		
V Puberty and Adolescence					Identity v. Role Confusion			
IV Latency				Industry v. Inferiority				
III Locomotor–Genital			Initiative v. Guilt					
II Muscular–Anal		Autonomy v. Shame, Doubt						
I Oral Sensory	Basic Trust v. Mistrust							

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRACTICE

The purpose of the current paper is to discuss the development, implementation, and assessment of an intervention targeted at fostering Consciousness of Self, a value of the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM; Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996). The Consciousness of Self intervention is part one of a series of seven interventions that will follow the seven values of the SCM. The intervention took place within a 360-student (180 mentors; 180 mentees) leadership mentoring program at a four-year, public, Midwestern university. The college students in the leadership mentoring program are selected based on the demonstration of leadership strengths through a structured interview and are paired in one-to-one mentoring relationships with K – 12 student leaders in the local community for three years. Mentees are selected throughout the public and parochial school systems

to represent a cross-section of youth in the community. College student mentors also represent a cross-section of students at the University, including all colleges. Notably, college student mentors undergo significant training, including taking an interpersonal skill for leadership course their first semester in the program and meeting weekly with other mentors throughout their three years in the program. Of the 150 mentoring pairs with middle school and high school mentees, approximately 90 mentoring pairs participated in the intervention.

We originally intended that there would be two primary components of the intervention. First, students would participate in a large-group, two-hour retreat comprised of three active learning activities during the fall semester. Second, students would participate in a one-hour discussion of research and mass media materials related to Consciousness of Self with a small group during the spring semester. However, due to COVID-19 restrictions during the spring semester, the one-hour discussions were not held. There were four retreat objectives, which stated that, by the end of the retreat, participants would be able to do the following:

1. Justify their selection of values

2. Describe their leadership strengths

3. Apply their leadership strengths to a specific situation

4. Practice mindfulness of their thoughts, feelings, and actions.

While not all leadership competencies may be able to be advanced through short-term leadership interventions, previous research has demonstrated a significant increase in SCM competencies immediately after and three months after a short-term training (Rosch & Caza, 2012), therefore affirming the relevance of the retreat objectives.

We began the retreat by asking participants to discuss in small groups the following central question: "What does the term 'Consciousness of Self' mean, and why is it important?" Following the small group discussions, we asked students to share their initial ideas with the group. Specifically, we encouraged them to share excellent thoughts with other members of their small groups. After beginning to consider the topic, the retreat facilitator provided a 10-minute opening lecture on definitions and research associated with Consciousness of Self and SCM and learning outcomes.

The first two activities of the retreat focused on the first part of Consciousness of Self, self-awareness (HERI, 1996). After an introduction lecture (see Figure 2), the initial activity was about values. Participants began by identifying key moments in their lives (see Figure 3), which they shared within their mentoring pairs. After reflecting on where they have been, participants were then invited to determine their top values. First, participants circled all of the values that resonated with them (see Figure 4). Then, they selected the top ten values that were the most meaningful. Each of these values was written on a separate sticky note. After displaying the sticky notes, participants were given 30 seconds to pick the three post-its that were the least important to them and throw them away (see Figure 5). We repeated this process until participants were left with the three values that were the most important to them. Participants reflected on their results individually and in their mentoring pairs.

Figure 3. *Introduction Lecture*

Figure 4. *Values Activity*

Figure 5. *List of Values*

Figure 6. *Values Identification*

In the next activity, we asked participants to identify and use their leadership strengths. First, participants identified their top five leadership strengths (see Figure 5). Next, participants practiced utilizing their strengths within small groups. The goal of this activity was to build the tallest freestanding tower using only paper and masking tape. After planning and then constructing the tower, participants debriefed the experience and discussed how their strengths influenced their actions and success at various stages of the process.

The third and final activity focused on practicing mindfulness, the second component of Consciousness of Self. The goal of this activity was for participants to practice noticing what was in front of them through moments of awareness in action (HERI, 1996; Senge et al., 1994). Based on an activity in HERI (1996), participants were asked to pretend that they had never seen a raisin before and pay attention to a variety of aspects of the raisin, such as how it looks, feels, and smells. After completing the exercise, participants considered five questions about their current feelings and surrounding (see Figure 7). We concluded the retreat by discussing how Consciousness of Self influences people's capacity for social change.

DISCUSSION OF OUTCOMES

Figure 7. *Leadership Strengths*

Figure 8. *Mindfulness Actvity*

The intervention was evaluated with a survey centered on the retreat objectives. Utilizing the response anchors suggested by Seemiller (2013; 1 = Did not increase, 4 = Greatly increased), participants were asked to evaluate their growth on the following five statements: (a) My ability to justify my values; (b) My understanding of my leadership strengths; (c) My ability to apply my leadership strengths; (d) My ability to practice mindfulness of their thoughts, feelings, and actions; and (e) My confidence in my ability to apply my values and strengths to positively change a situation. An ag-
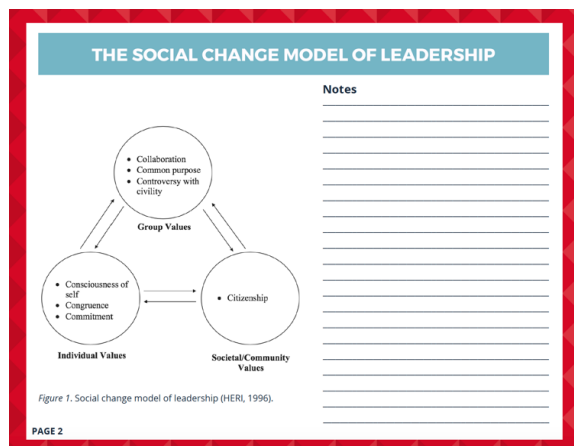
gregate total of all items was calculated. We determined that an aggregate total ≥ 3.0 would indicate that the objectives had been developed, as 3.0 would be the average score ("moderately increased") on the five items (Seemiller, 2016).

Participants were asked to complete the evaluative survey at the end of the spring semester (i.e., six months after the intervention). By having a notable amount of time between the intervention and the survey, we avoided Honeymoon Effect (Rosch & Schwartz, 2009). The Honeymoon, or recency, Effect occurs when participants overstate the developmental effects of an experience immediately following its conclusion. Rosch and Schwartz (2009) recommended that the Honeymoon Effect can be minimized by collecting evaluative data after participants have had sufficient time to incorporate the curriculum into their lives. Therefore, participants were surveyed six months following the intervention. Ultimately, 68 participants completed the survey out of a population of approximately 90 student mentors. Table 1 shows the survey results.

The results of the survey indicated that the majority of participants self-reported that all of the questions and, therefore, objectives "moderately increased" (i.e., a score of 3) or "greatly increased" (i.e., a score of 4). Notably, 76% of participants evaluated each of the five questions as a 3.0 or higher. Additionally, all questions had an average score equal to or greater than 3.0. Specifically, the lowest average evaluation was a 3.0 for "My ability to apply my leadership strengths." Although this question received the lowest average score, it still met the 3.0 threshold, indicating an increase in perceived participant growth (Seemiller, 2016). The highest average evaluation was a 3.18 for "My understanding of my leadership strengths," revealing that participants perceived a larger growth in their understanding of their leadership strengths than the application of their leadership strengths. The aggregated average across the five questions was 3.10. This exceeded the predetermined threshold (i.e., aggregate average ≥ 3.0), indicating that participants perceived a moderate increase in the targeted objectives (Seemiller, 2016).

Table 1. *Results of Evaluation Survey*

Question	Objective Targeted	Average	% ≥ 3.0 Rating
My ability to justify my values.	One (Values)	3.16	86.8
My understanding of my leadership strengths.	Two (Understand Strengths)	3.18	82.4
My ability to apply my leadership strengths.	Three (Apply Strengths)	3.00	79.4
My ability to practice mindfulness of my thoughts, feelings, and actions	Four (Mindfulness)	3.09	76.5
My confidence in my ability to apply my values and strengths to positively change a situation.	One (Values) & Three (Apply Strengths)	3.07	82.4

REFLECTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE PRACTITIONER

The purpose of the current paper was to outline a theory-based intervention focused on Consciousness of Self. The intervention was a two-hour retreat with interactive and discussion-oriented activities. The results of evaluation data indicate that participants did perceive an increase in the objectives targeted by the intervention, which stated that, by the end of the retreat, participants would be able to (1) justify their selection of values, (2) describe their leadership strengths, (3) apply their leadership strengths to a specific situation, and (4) practice mindfulness of their thoughts, feelings, and actions.

The intervention and evaluation strategy outlined in the current paper has numerous implications and recommendations for student affairs professionals. First, student affairs professionals may utilize the theory-based, and evaluatively-examined activities shared in this paper in curricular and co-curricular settings to target Consciousness of Self. Providing an in-depth discussion of the retreat and pictures of the workbook meets a need in the literature for more "descriptions of assignments and activities comprising the day-to-day teaching of leadership" (Smith & Roebuck, 2010, p. 136). While the activities in the current intervention were implemented at one two-hour retreat,

other student affairs professionals may decide, for example, to separate the activities into four 30-minute activities used as development icebreakers during student meetings.

Second, this intervention demonstrates the importance of using theory to shape practice, specifically evaluation. Avolio et al. (2009) noted that leadership development interventions have a positive impact on a variety of outcomes (i.e., affective, behavioral, cognitive, and organizational performance), although the impact of these interventions differs, in part, based on the theoretical foundations. Grounded in the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM; HERI, 1996) and Erikson's psychosocial development theory (1950, 1963), the intervention sought to foster Consciousness of Self among emerging adults through a two-hour-long retreat. Therefore, in alignment with the commentary by Avolio et al. (2009), our intervention evaluation aligned with our theoretical foundations. We recommend that student affairs professionals consider utilizing a similar structure to create interventions and evaluations that answer the call of "document[ing] and demonstrat[ing] impact" (Reinelt & Russon, 2003, p. 129).

Third, furthering the utilization of theory to shape practice, student affairs professionals are encouraged to employ the backward design process of designing the curriculum used in the current intervention (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). Our intervention was created by writing intervention objectives based on the SCM and then developing activities that targeted the objectives. By starting with the end in mind, the focus was tailoring the curriculum to student learning rather than tailoring student learning to the established curriculum. This process was also instrumental in guiding the assessment strategy (Wiggins & McTighe, 1989), ensuring that the evaluative survey aligned with the intervention objectives.

Given that the current intervention was conducted among a relatively homogenous sample of college student leaders who mentor at one university in one leadership mentoring program, the generalizability of our evaluation results is limited (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Shadish et al., 2001). To address this concern, we recommend that practitioners who implement the current intervention conduct a thorough evaluation among their participants and modify the programming to meet the unique needs of their population.

Additionally, scholars and practitioners are encouraged to build upon the current intervention by researching participant change over time using the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS; Tyree, 1998). The SRLS measures the seven values of the SCM. While the evaluation strategy of the current paper focused on assessing participants' perception of growth related to the learning objectives, it is recommended that future scholars utilize the SRLS to examine participants' growth over time. We also suggest that researchers explore the process of student development during the current intervention using a qualitative, phenomenological design to more thoroughly understand the "lived experience" of participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Qualitative researchers may also wish to explore the interaction being mentors and mentees on perceived growth in the mentor. Further, it is recommended that Consciousness of Self interventions be implemented in conjunction with additional curriculum on the other six SCM values. In line with this recommendation, we will complete a similar intervention this year on Congruence, the second value of SCM. The following year the program will focus on Commitment, the third value of SCM. This pattern will continue until all seven values have been discussed.

These applications and recommendations, along with others previously discussed, will continue to enhance SCM utilization on college campuses through student affairs professionals. As the SCM is the most widely used model for leadership development on college campuses (Haber & Komives, 2009), it is critical that student affairs professionals implement SCM interventions and curriculum with a strong theoretical grounding and a process of evaluation to document impact (Reinelt & Russon, 2003).

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A HOLISTIC AND INCLUSIVE MODEL FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENT SERVICES: INTERCULTURAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

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International Student Services (ISS) offices have before them an opportunity to strategically cultivate the global leaders of the future. Yet, to cultivate global leaders, a change in structure, posture, and constituency is needed. Moving beyond providing compliance and transitional services, International Student Services offices can engage as co-educators through developing their constituency with the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed of future global leaders. Moreover, with this change in posture, ISS offices can play a strategic role in bridging the divide between diverse others, assisting faculty, staff, and students in becoming more interculturally engaged. Towards that end, an ISS office at a faith-based, liberal arts university in Southern California instituted a holistic and inclusive developmental model based on the high-impact intercultural practices noted in the literature. This article outlines the changes the university instituted in structure, posture, and constituency, seeking to move from the marginalization to the development of international students through an Intercultural Leadership Development Program.

Within the realm of International Student Services, various models are employed to ensure compliance and retention of international students. Moreover, some Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) desire to provide compliance and retention and give opportunities to celebrate the cultures of international students through various co-curricular activities on and off-campus. Such celebrations may provide international students with opportunities to share aspects of their cultural backgrounds with other constituents at the HEIs. Yet, as HEIs pursue the goal of cultivating the global citizenship of all their constituents, International Student Services offices are often underutilized. In our age of prolific globalization, where all learners need to be engaged in intercultural learning for a myriad of reasons, the role of ISS offices should be re-examined. Rather than just compliance, retention, and basic cultural awareness, strategic cultivation of intercultural understanding, sensitivity, and competence should be embedded into the outcomes of such departments. This begs the question: What would it look like if International Student Services offices intentionally sought to cultivate their constituents towards becoming global citizens, the global leaders of the future generations?

Moreover, what if International Student Services offices were more inclusive in the services and programs to include not only traditional international students, but other students who have grown up internationally, such as children of internationally military parents, business parents, religious workers, and diplomats? Finally, what if programs provided by International Student Services offices were considered co-curricular diversity initiates aimed at bridging the divide between international and domestic, with a focus on an intersectionality of identities, rather than an identity based on nationality? Seeing the value of providing not only services, but also developmental programming for such students, a private, faith-based institution in Southern California did just that, and with transformational opportunities for students. Thus, this scholarship-to-practice article will provide the rationale for such a transformation of the ISS office, including the structure, posture, and constituency. Administrators and staff can utilize this case study for background information on Internationalization and how to incorporate Leadership Development Programs for their constituents.

MOVING TO INCLUSIVITY:
FROM INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS TO GLOBAL STUDENTS

First, I will address how International Student Services offices can move towards inclusivity in their constituency. Definitions of sub-groups of students will be considered, as well as some of the typical postures HEIs have towards these sub-groups.

International Students

International students are those who are attending a U.S. institution on a student or scholar visa. Historically, there has been a myriad of motivations for HEIs to recruit and retain international students. Yet, since 2008, the motivation to increase enrollment of international students on many U.S. higher education campuses is due to the need for tuition dollars, rather than in cultivating global awareness or global citizenship (Andrade, 2009; Collier, 2015; Killick, 2015; Slaughter & Cantewell, 2012). With a motivation focused on financial security, many HEIs have limited the diversity of the international students they admit, focusing on global partnerships that guarantee students from one nation or region. Thus, this motivation for financial security is juxtaposed to a posture of internationalization that would seek to intentionally diversify the student body, providing an opportunity for robust intercultural learning.

International Student Services offices are required by Federal Law to provide visa-compliance and transitional services to international students. Yet, few universities provide the necessary resources international students may need to flourish throughout their many years at the university, focusing on assisting students in orientation to the university and compliance within their visa status only (Andrade, 2009; Killick, 2015; Marginson, 2012). Thus, while the promotion of cultivating global citizens is still in full force amongst many universities, international students are often neglected (American Council on Education, 2015). Such a posture is not only unethical, but it is also missing the goal of the university in encouraging the global citizenship of their constituents, both domestic and international (Andrade, 2009; Killick, 2016; Marginson, 2012).

Moreover, rather than viewing international students as an asset to the university in terms of cultural exchange and global learning, many international students are treated as second class citizens at their host universities, either siloed into monocultural groups or encouraged to assimilate to the majority culture (Andrade, 2009; Brewer & Leask, 2012; Marginson, 2012; Montgomery, 2010). Furthering this neo-colonial othering, the utilization of the essentialist label of "international student" produces in-group/out-group distinctions based on one level of identity, visa status, rather than through a lens of multiplicity in their self-determined role and social identities (Dervin, 2016; Holliday, 2010; Koehne, 2005; Leask, 2015). Finally, often international students are spoken of with deficit language as having issues to be solved, such as limited language proficiency and cultural ways of interacting that are not appropriate (Evans, Carlin, & Potts, 2009; Marginson, 2012). Thus, as HEI's seek to develop their constituency with the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed of future global leaders, the motivation for recruiting international students and their treatment as second-class citizens need to be transformed.

U.S. Global Students

Another key group of overlooked constituents is U.S. citizens with an international upbringing (Appel-Schumacher, 2015; La Brack, 2011). In a globalized world, many students coming to U.S. HEIs from international locations are not only international students on a visa. Such students include U.S. passport holders who spent a significant portion of their developmental years in international settings. These globally-mobile students include children of international religious missionaries, diplomats, military personnel, and business parents (Hayden, 2006; Van Reeken, 2011). Moreover, these students may include resident aliens, refugees, and international adoptees who have also spent most of their development years outside the United States (Van Reeken, 2011). Previously employed terminology for this group of students, such as third culture kids (TCK) or global nomads (GN), is too static and essentialist to represent these students whose social identities have been constructed by numerous factors in a globalized world (Hayden, 2006; Pearce, 2007; Rooney, 2018). Such terminology was

utilized out of a stagnant othering rather than an asset-based hybridity or fluidity of identities (Bauman, 2004; Rooney, 2018). Seeking to find a term that would be more inclusive of such students, Van Reeken (2011) utilized the term Cross-Cultural Kid (CCK). According to Van Reeken (2011), a CCK is a "person who is living in—or meaningfully interacting with—two or more cultural environments for a significant period of time during the developmental years of childhood" (p. 33). Although such a term is more inclusive, it also extends to children of minority groups in the United States, which is beyond the scope of this case study (Van Reeken, 2011). Thus, for this case study, the term U.S. Global Student is utilized. While the posture towards U.S. Global Students varies from university to university, typically, there are very few resources and services provided for their flourishing, leaving these students to decide if they will assimilate to the majority or identity with a specific cultural group (La Brack, 2011; Van Reeken, 2011). Yet, as with traditional international students, U.S. Global Students can be an asset to the university in terms of cultural exchange and global learning (La Brack, 2011; Van Reeken, 2011). HEI's need to recognize this sub-group of students and provide services and developmental opportunities for them, demonstrating their mattering.

Global Students

Moving away from essentialist labeling of international students, third culture kids, and global nomads, the administrators at the university at hand utilized the term Global Student to represent all students who have spent a significant portion of their developmental years outside of the United States before attending the university. Although there are many differences between what would traditionally be labeled international students, third culture kids, and global nomads, there are many similarities in the groups regarding the multiplicity of identities they must negotiate (linguistic, ethnicities, socio-economic, etc.) due to having been influenced in pluralistic environments such as international educational institutions. Moreover, these groups of students are not mutually exclusive. Many international students are also third culture kids or global nomads as well. Thus, the term Global Student is more inclusive of all students who have spent a significant portion of their developmental years outside the country of higher education. It is recognized that such a label of Global Students could be unwelcome by some. The goal here is to break down the wall between the essentialist notion of the international student other and U.S. passport holder whose development years were also spent outside of the United States. The goal is also to provide a sense of belonging and mattering to all Global Students, many of whom experience cultural dissonance engaging at their HEIs and have to negotiate their multiple identities in emerging adulthood.

Thus, by considering all types of Global Students, instead of just focusing on international students, HEIs would demonstrate their mattering. It also could increase the prospect for global contact on campus. Such an environment of inclusion of the many diverse students in higher education could empower global citizens who are engaged in advocating for transformation throughout the world (Killick, 2015). Proponents of such extensive contact note that it provides individuals increased and unprecedented opportunities for negotiation of identities, perspective-taking, and cultural humility, which could influence the promotion of counter-hegemony and democratization of societies (Killick, 2015). For the case study at hand, when the International Student Services office changed its posture towards these students and included all students who spent a portion of their developmental years outside the country, the number of students involved doubled. Moreover, a more diverse group of students involved in programming provided more opportunities for students to negotiate their values and sense of self as they navigated more cultural differences.

CHANGING POSTURE AND STRUCTURE: CULTIVATING GLOBAL CITIZENS

Now that I have considered the importance of the inclusivity of all Global Students, I will address the changes in posture and structure necessary for the strategic development of Global Students. Understanding the importance of educating all students to engage in a globalized world, many HEIs have taken systematic measures towards cultivating global citizens by realigning missional values and goals of the university, as well as the curricular and the co-curricular learning outcomes (Altbach, et al., 2012; Brewer & Leask, 2012; Knight, 2012; Leask, 2015). This phenomenon is known as the Internationalization of the university. Knight (2003) synthesized the many definitions of the Internationalization of HEIs as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural,

or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 2). Through their internationalization, many HEIs seek to provide opportunities for the cultivation of intercultural relationships and the negotiation of ideas and identities in hopes that their constituents develop global mindsets and develop into global citizens (Andrade, 2009; Killick, 2015; Leask, 2015), or what some philosophers and sociologists have termed cosmopolitans (Holliday, 2010; Appiah, 2006). Oxfam described global citizens as those who are "aware of and understands the wider world - and their place it. They take an active role in their community, and work with others to make our planet more equal, fair and sustainable" (https://www.oxfam.org.uk). Thus, global citizens are any persons who are aware of themselves in the context of their role in the world (Killick, 2015; Leask, 2015; Schattle, 2007). Schattle (2007) clarified that being a global citizen begins with awareness of the multiplicity of identities and how those relate to others.

Regarding relating to diverse others, Paracka and Pynn (2017) stated, "Global citizens are flexible, inclusive and adaptive in orientation. They develop cognitive, affective, and behavioral flexibility to shift frames of reference according to the specific and unique cultural context in which they find themselves" (p. 47). Thus, global citizens display the skills, knowledge, and attitudes appropriate to specific cultural contexts. Yet, global citizens are not born; they are cultivated through diverse life experiences and training (Killick, 2015; Schattle, 2007).

Internationalization of the Curriculum

How global citizens are cultivated at HEIs is implicitly and explicitly connected to the internationalization of the curriculum (IoC). The goal of IoC is to "engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens" (Leask, 2009, p. 209). In the recent past, HEIs considered the presence of diverse persons with global perspectives, such as international students, to be sufficient for this task (Leask, 2015). Empirical research into the impact of frequency of the interaction between domestic students and international students indicated growth in intercultural maturity for domestic students who engaged in conversation with their international peers (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013; Soria & Troisi, 2013). Yet, despite the resource of diverse persons and their viewpoints in cultivating a global perspective amongst students, more systematic implementation of diverse perspectives across the curriculum is necessary to impact all students (Leask, 2015; American Council of Education, 2017). Thus, the internationalization of the curriculum incorporates "international, intercultural, or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of study" (Leask, 2015, p. 9).

Apparent in the definition and goals of IoC are implications for both the formal and informal curriculum (American Council of Education, 2015; Leask, 2015). In the arena of the formal curriculum, learning outcomes, the organization of learning activities, and assessment are essential to correlate (Leask, 2015). One strategy is to challenge dominant paradigms by infusing emerging or non-dominant perspectives through methodological choices in readings and activities (Leask, 2015). In the classroom, educators can utilize pedagogical strategies for increased contact between diverse others (Gregersen-Hermans, 2017). Gregersen-Hermans (2017) described this process, stating, "the curriculum has to include a series of pedagogical interventions that stimulate students to intentionally reflect on their and others' values and beliefs and the experience of engaging with culturally different others" (p. 76). To implement such strategies, assessments can be utilized from what has already been developed in the realm of intercultural competence or can be developed according to course needs (Leask, 2015; Gregersen-Hermans, 2017). On a developmental level, assessments such as the Intercultural Maturity Model serve as a holistic measure of students' growth in interpersonal, intrapersonal, and cognitive domains (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). Also, to standardize outcomes and assessments across the nation, the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) implemented an Intercultural Knowledge and Competence Value Rubric (2009) as well as a Global Learning Value rubric (2014), stemming from Bennett's (1986) and Deardorff's (2009) I.C. frameworks.

Internationalization of the formal curriculum strategically correlates learning outcomes on a university, program, and course levels. Yet, the formal curriculum also needs to be supported by the informal curriculum in a holistic manner (American Council of Education, 2015; Leask, 2015; Roberts, 2015). The informal, or co-cur-

ricular, aspects of U.S. universities include Student Affairs Divisions, Career Centers, Learning Centers, Writing Centers, and various Diversity Centers. Thus, concepts of learning outcomes, teaching interventions, and assessment can be implemented in these co-curricular domains, assisting in the strategic internationalization of the university at home (American Council of Education, 2015; Leask, 2015; Roberts, 2015). Of these areas of co-curricular support, International Student Services can play a major role by developing Global Students holistically. More specifically, this can be done by implementing Intercultural Leadership Development Programs that impact the Global Student body and provide cultural awareness to the greater university community. To understand the importance of leadership development programs in cultivating global citizens, I will provide a brief overview of their connections.

Co-Curricular Leadership Development Programs

Concurrent to the movement to internationalize the university, Student Affairs divisions have been concerned with the lack of ethical leaders who make decisions for the good of all humanity (Astin, 1993; Astin, 1996). Understanding how crucial the emerging adult years are in cultivating the skills, abilities, and knowledge needed to become ethical leaders, Student Affairs professionals sought to encourage global citizenship through the implementation of both curricular and co-curricular leadership programs (Astin, 1993; Astin, 1996; Astin & Astin, 2000; Bounous-Hammarth, 2001; Komives, et al., 2013). Subsequently, socially responsible leadership was recognized by the AAC&U (2012) as a key learning outcome for undergraduate students.

Though varying in curriculum, there are three basic categorizations for leadership programs: training, education, and development (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). To distinguish between these categorizations, Dugan, et al. (2011) provided this concise summary:

> *Training experiences* enhance student performance in leadership roles through an emphasis on skill building in areas such as conflict management, delegation, and effective communication. *Educational experiences* extend learning beyond functional training to improve students' leadership knowledge, capacities, and the transferability of these across a variety of contexts. *Developmental experiences* offer holistic approaches to student leadership learning characterized by an increasing complexity of self-understanding in diverse group contexts. These experiences offer opportunities for the refinement and internalization of core beliefs related to leadership as well as the exploration of complex issues. (p. 67)

Thus, there is a range of leadership program styles with various goals utilized by HEIs (Faris & Outcalt, 2001). According to Glass, Wongtrirat, and Buus (2015), "Leadership programs create social contexts that bridge students' social networks and forge the connections between otherwise distantly connected people" (p. 40). In their research, Dugan & Komives (2010) found that students who engaged in socio-cultural conversations with peers grew in their ability to engage in leadership. It was noted that conversations across a myriad of differences, more than just contact, developed participants. According to Dugan & Komives (2010), "These conversations may provide a platform for the development of listening skills, clarification of personal values and perspectives, and social perspective-taking" (p. 539). Moreover, the role of conversation with faculty in increasing ability to engage in leadership was noted (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Through the findings of their study, Dugan, et al. (2011) concluded that the complex content of the leadership program, including high impact curriculum and developmental experiences, was more impactful than the type or length of a leadership program. Finally, of co-curricular activities on campuses, leadership programs have the highest participation rate amongst both domestic and international students (Glass, et al., 2015).

From Providing Services to Developmental Programming

In light of the importance of the internationalization of the co-curriculum, including leadership development programs to augment intercultural learning, administrators should move beyond merely providing visa compliance and transitional services to Global Students. Taking a more holistic and inclusive approach to developing Global Students would mean that administrators would provide co-curricular developmental programming in

addition to services. Such programming should be utilized to encourage growth in self-awareness and others' awareness and intercultural skills, such as communication and conflict resolution. Programming could also provide opportunities to engage with diverse others in a team setting, modeling future engagement in a globalized world. Such programming should challenge explicit and implicit biases, as well as cultural chauvinism. These notions are often recognized as barriers to intercultural engagement in domestic diversity but are rarely discussed amongst Global Student populations. There is a naïve perception that Global Students are interculturally mature due to growing up in international environments. Yet, international living does not equate to intercultural sensitivity and understanding, which is cultivated through intentional engagement and dialogue with diverse others. Also, while Global Students may often be the targets of both micro and macro aggression at HEIs, they can also be perpetrators. Thus, providing opportunities for Global Students to become more culturally self-aware and others aware, rather than just celebrating culture, would be beneficial to their holistic development. In essence, providing such programming would be part of Global Students' journeys towards becoming culturally competent global citizens.

INTERCULTURAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR GLOBAL STUDENTS: A MODEL

With the foundation of empirical research into the impact of participation of leadership programs on their constituents, administrators at the aforementioned university developed, instituted, and assessed an Intercultural Leadership Development Program for Global Students. In the following, I will outline the specific changes made in the structure, posture, and constituency as a case study for other administrators to consider in their own program development.

Rebranding for Inclusivity

Prior to rebranding the department and instituting a new model, the International Student Services office at this particular university used a typical approach for a small to medium-sized university. For example, the International Student Services office provided transition and visa compliance services. Students were also provided with opportunities to get involved in clubs where they felt some sense of belonging- International Student Association, Chinese Student Association, etc. Although these clubs provided a sense of belonging to students, which is helpful for retention, they did not provide direct co-curricular learning, especially not intercultural learning. In a desire to provide holistic and inclusive developmental opportunities for all Global Students, the administrators at the HEI did a needs analysis with the Global Students as well as staff members. Focus groups, individual interviews, and surveys were utilized to understand to desires of the constituents. After this year-long process, administrators were able to rebrand the department as Global Student Programs and Development, demonstrating its change in constituency and focus. Also, as noted previously, it began to provide programming and developmental opportunities to any student who self-identified as Global. Prior to this change, only those on a student visa could receive support from this office. With this change in posture, the constituency doubled, and the makeup of the Global Student population was much more diverse. For example, prior to the change, the majority of the international students were from China and Indonesia. After the change, there were students from countries in Africa, South America, and Europe who felt more comfortable to take part in a more diverse group of students. For many, especially those with U.S. passports but who grew up internationally, this was their first space in which they felt they belonged at the university.

Moving from a services model to a developmental model meant that there needed to be multiple opportunities for Global Students to engage on different developmental levels. To do that, an Intercultural Leadership Development Program was established. This program served a dual purpose: to develop the participants in the program in intercultural leadership skills, and for the constituents to provide intercultural engagement opportunities to other Global Students and the entire student body. Participants in the Intercultural Leadership Development Program were Global Students in that they self-identified as one of the following: international students, children of international religious missionaries, international military personnel, international business parents, or international diplomats. Of the 400 Global Students at the specific HEI, roughly 10% participated in the

leadership program each year. To participate in the leadership program, students applied and were interviewed twice (once in a group and individually). This model was utilized to give Global Students practice engaging in an interview process, providing a model for future employment.

Team Structure

In order to provide an authentic working group experience, the Intercultural Leadership Program utilized a team structure. Each team consisted of four to eight Global Students working toward a specific goal, such as providing cultural/educational events at the university campus. Teams included: Community Groups, Community Events, Bridging Events, Music/Arts Events, and Media/Marketing. As such, each team had specific goals to meet the needs of the Global Student Community and to provide cultural awareness on campus. For example, Community Groups served as identity processing groups where students from multiple backgrounds had the opportunity to share their stories and engage with others in mutuality, openness, and respect. Community Groups also served as a point of contact for students experiencing cultural dissonance. The Community Events team provided opportunities for Global Students to connect through food and laughter, all while sharing their cultural backgrounds. The Bridging Events team provided cultural engagement opportunities to the wider student body through food, movies, and the arts on campus. Global students designed and implemented events that would bridge the cultural divides found on campus in a welcoming manner. The goal was to begin dialogue across national/ethnic lines. The Music/Art teams focused on large-scale events. Global Students were able to share their musical, dance, and arts with the wider student body. Finally, the Media and Marketing team utilized various social media platforms to share Global Students' personal narratives to combat the idea of the single story.

For each of these aforementioned teams, a student team leader was considered a "coordinator," responsible for the team's process and outcomes. The other members of the team were considered "interns." While all members of the teams received training, coordinators received personal mentorship as well. This delineation in terminology was considered helpful to many Global Students as they built their resumes for future employment and model levels of responsibility in future job placements. Applicants were placed on teams according to their strengths, as well as to increase the diversity makeup of each team to provide a robust intercultural experience. Diversity makeup included but was not limited to: passport countries, ethnicities, genders, majors, languages, Myers-Briggs typologies, strengths from Strengths Finder paradigm, ages, international experiences, and type of global student. Thus, the participants in the Intercultural Leadership Development Program experienced a microcosm of diversity. However, the mesosystem of the university was predominantly white, U.S. citizens, the participants in the leadership program were diverse. In this microcosm of diversity, participants engaged multiple times a week with team members from various nations, ethnic backgrounds, socio-economic statuses, gender identities, and personalities.

Assessment and Curriculum

As a co-curricular program, assessment was a necessary component which administrators focused on during the design and execution of the program. Thus, the following student learning outcomes were implemented and measured yearly:
- Students will demonstrate self-awareness
- Students will demonstrate awareness of diverse others
- Students will demonstrate understanding of intercultural team dynamics

Assessment of these outcomes consisted of a triangulation of direct and indirect evidence: 1) intercultural sensitivity measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), 2) completion of a reflection assignment after attending an intercultural conference, and 3) a final presentation on how participation in the leadership program had impacted each participant's sense of self. In order to encourage the growth of students towards these ends, organizers of this co-curricular leadership program developed a curriculum for leaders in which they were trained throughout the academic year. The Intercultural Leadership Program utilized a curriculum built from concepts within the Relational Leadership Model, servant leadership theory, intercultural competence training,

and experiential learning theory. More specifically, the curriculum included the following:
- leadership paradigms- servant leadership, relational leadership, intercultural leadership
- intercultural competence paradigms such as the IDI,
- intercultural communication and conflict resolution styles,
- basic values training,
- implicit and explicit bias training,
- narrative training,
- social identities paradigms, and
- identities negotiation and formation.

Thus, global student leaders engaged in a scaffolded curriculum focused on intercultural leadership while simultaneously experiencing intercultural dynamics through working in a diverse team. The Intercultural Leadership Development Program's microsystem provided a diverse environment in which participants could engage. The context also had scaffolded inputs in an experiential learning environment. The participants in this program engaged on diverse teams with diverse others multiple times a week for nine months, thus providing ample opportunity to engage in an experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 2015). Participants also engaged in leadership training on specific topics every week while at the same time providing cultural awareness events on campus and reflecting on their experiences with one another. In essence, this particular leadership program was more than just an opportunity for students to learn about leadership; it was an opportunity for participants to work together towards a common goal while negotiating their sense of self. Thus, this leadership program could be considered a community of practice. There was mutual engagement amongst the participants as they had scheduled training and team meetings where they met together. Also, joint enterprise, or a common goal, was clarified by both student learning outcomes for all participants and student specified goals for specific events they executed. Finally, throughout the nine-month program, participants developed a shared repertoire as they engaged in specific leadership and identity concepts throughout training.

Benefits of Leadership Programs as Communities of Practice

While communities of practice are not inherently diverse, if they are, they can provide participants robust opportunities for self-reflection and intercultural understanding. Jackson (2014) noted, "Firsthand exposure to new communities of practice can compel individuals to reflect on and even question their behaviors, self-identities, values and beliefs" (p. 202). This holds true for participants in this research as they were compelled to reflect in their community of practice, cultivating knowledge and clarifying their sense of self. Yet, firsthand exposure to diverse others does not always determine openness to the process of negotiation with those diverse others. Regarding the importance of framing specific conditions in a community of practice with diverse others, Killick (2015) stated that "the most fundamental aspect of a successful inter-group contact situation is that it must involve acting- doing something together, not just being co-present" (p. 63). In essence, Killick (2015) emphasized the joint enterprise aspect of a community of practice as essential for individuals and groups navigating their own biases and prejudices. In accordance with previous researchers on intergroup contact, Killick (2015) asserted, "prejudicial attitudes across the groups may actually increase through contact" (p. 63). Yet, if there is mutual engagement and joint enterprise, participants can address their biases and prejudices. Killick (2015) explained, "If contact does lead to people coming to know and understand each other, then their prejudices diminish" (p. 63). Yet, such intercultural communities of practice do not just happen; they are created. Killick (2015) asserted that if participants in an intercultural community of practice are to be impacted positively, educators have a responsibility to "create the conditions of equality, create purposeful activity toward common goals, and give validity to the participation" (p. 65).

Developmental programming, more than just services, has the goal of cultivating the intercultural understanding and leadership skills of all Global Students.   In this community of practice, Global Students gained self-awareness, others' awareness, and competence in intercultural teams. From pre-post assessment using the triangulation method described previously, Global Students who participated in this Intercultural Leadership Development Program grew in intercultural sensitivity and maturity as indicated by the Intercultural Develop-

ment Inventory (IDI). According to results, 70% of the Global Students who participated in the Intercultural Leadership Development Program increased their capacity to engage with diverse others with intercultural sensitivity. Even better, 72% who participated during their Sophomore and Junior years went on to be involved in other leadership roles on campus, namely, Residence Life, Student Government Association, Peer Academic Advisors, and domestic diversity programs, such as affinity groups. Thus, having been provided with a foundation for processing their own sense of self in leadership, they were launched out into other domains with knowledge, skills, and attitudes which would assist them in engaging with diverse others.

CONCLUSION

As a proposed model, Intercultural Leadership Development Programs can be utilized to cultivate the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of Global Students. Such programming is inclusive in that all Global Students could be involved and receive training in an intercultural community of practice. Also, in alignment with other co-curricular diversity initiates on campus, they would provide an opportunity for students who are often marginalized or required to assimilate to the majority culture to instead focus on asset-based identity development. It would also assist participants in understanding the intersectionality of their multiple identities rather than being classified by their national culture. Rather than just providing services to their constituents, International Student Services can cultivate their constituents towards becoming global citizens, the global leaders of future generations. Through addressing their postures, structures, and constituency, such offices can address the historical negligence of developing Global Students.

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JCAPS

ROLLING DICE AND LEARNING - USING ROLE-PLAYING GAMES AS PEDAGOGY TOOLS

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Playing satisfies basic human needs such as deepening social relationships (Melton et al., 2019) and experiencing an ideal self's characteristics (Przybylski et al., 2012). In addition, games foster student engagement through the use of intrinsic motivation, critical thinking skills, and the use of creative problem solving (Boghian et al., 2019; Quaye & Haper, 2015; Marinho et al., 2019; Thangmak, 2019). Thus, it is no surprise that there has been a recent increase in the exploration of gamification as a pedagogical tool (Furdu et al., 2017; Hanus & Fox, 2015; Koivisto & Hamari, 2014; Sanchez et al., 2019). This article explores role-playing games as pedagogical tools for educating student trainings, such as an R.A. conflict management workshop, a hazing prevention seminar, a teaching assistant orientation, a bystander intervention program to combat sexual assault, etc. Furthermore, it will reimagine the traditional approach to role-play activities in educational settings and suggest slight modifications to create more realistic and educative experiences.

INTRODUCTION

Gamification as a pedagogy

Games are engaging; they can be humorous, moving, entertaining, thought-provoking and fear-inducing. They allow us to explore themes and environments as familiar or unfamiliar as one can imagine. As such, they make for excellent pedagogy tools when used intentionally. Gamification as pedagogy is not a novel concept. However, according to the literature, the studies have predominantly consisted of adding game mechanics embedded into the class structure to motivate learners to explore the class's content. While these mechanics may play an incentive role in the form of points, leaderboards, and badges, the curriculum's content remains untouched by the game. This gamification style is known as structural gamification (Kapp et al., 2014). Still, the literature shows that structural gamification studies have found mixed results (Dominguez et al., 2014; Hanus & Fox, 2015; Koivisto & Hamari, 2014; Sanchez et al., 2019; Furdu et al. 2017). Among its challenges, studies have shown that students first have to be interested in playing to benefit from structural gamification (Hamari, 2013); structural gamification has a hard time motivating students who do not identify as competitive (Furdu et al., 2017); and its effectiveness tends to fade out over time due to a novelty effect (Koivisto & Hamari, 2014; Sanchez et al., 2019).

In contrast to structural gamification, there is content gamification. Content gamification uses game elements to alter the content itself and make content delivery more game-like (Kapp et al., 2014). For example, the addition of a story-driven narrative to discover the course's content or having experience challenges instead of learning objectives are examples of content gamification. This article will explore role-playing games (RPGs) as a content gamification pedagogy.

Role-Playing as a pedagogy

Role-playing, a pedagogy where participants act or improvise a role within a prepared scenario or unstructured situation (McKeachie, 1986), has been acknowledged for its ability to mold scenarios into experiential learning where students can apply what they have learned (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). The practice has been used in educational settings since the late 1800s (Guthrie et al., 2011). It has been associated with encouraging participation, improving

learning motivation, raising content retention, promoting teamwork, and potentially generating student interest and enthusiasm (Beidatsch & Broomhall, 2010; Bonwell & Eison, 1991). It may be used as a stand-alone activity, spanning several sessions or even throughout the entire course (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). How we use these tools can be best suited for different purposes. For example, in leadership education, role-playing can provide situations where learners can experience leadership manifesting and take an active role (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018).

However, traditional role-plays in the classroom tend to develop linearly towards the intended outcome. In my experience as an instructor and a student, using role-plays as pedagogy leads to a repeating problem. Learners have no incentive to deviate from the exercise's learning outcomes and will almost always cooperate to reach the instructor's desired conclusion. These features diminish the potential role-playing has as a pedagogy by simulating an unrealistic environment where things almost always develop towards a best-case scenario and human emotions that could interfere with a real-life situation, such as frustration and anger, are entirely disregarded. Instead, we can counter this effect and increase realism and student engagement by applying basic role-playing game mechanics into the activity.

Role-Playing Games

Given the wide range of role-playing games that exist, it is hard to come up with an all-inclusive definition. Davis (2016) defines role-playing games as a "structured cooperative activity with predictable rules and an unpredictable outcome… where players are playing as characters they create in an open, interactive, responsive world facilitated by a game master" (para. 11). In other words, every RPG utilizes a unique system that brings order and consistency to the role-play at hand. A game facilitator, often referred to as a game master (GM), provides the game's setting, describes the consequences of the actions players take, and gives the game structure by ensuring the rules are followed (Sargeantson, 2020). While it is possible to use images and maps, and even miniatures to describe the environment, in my experience, a G.M. that is also a good storyteller can easily paint the setting into players' minds without the need for props.

Players interact with their environment through speech. These actions fail or succeed depending on the system the game uses. In most cases, the result is determined by rolling a 20-sided dice and beating a predetermined number set by the facilitator. The more challenging the task at hand, the higher the number that players have to beat. Whether players successfully roll the sought number, the narrative will continue in different directions. This feature pushes students to engage in dialogue, critical thinking, and concept co-exploration while encouraging them to adapt and practice democratic citizenship in the classroom.

Unlike traditional role-plays, RPGs place the learner in hypothetical situations where their actions have meaningful consequences that carry on, and thus they can reflect and learn from them. Role-playing games achieve this effect by utilizing storytelling and narration as tools to co-create a story, which have shown the potential to rearrange how learners conceptualize information and promote deeper understanding (Gressick & Langston, 2017).

Student Trainings

Role-playing activities are often used in all kinds of training settings because of their ability to put participants in the action (Agboola Sogunro, 2003). In my experience, I have seen role-plays used at resident adviser trainings, sexual assault prevention training programs, first-year orientation trainings, leadership education courses, among other settings. In environments like these, it is not uncommon for facilitators to use a role-playing activity where participants practice a fictional scenario and apply what they have learned. However, as already mentioned, one of the primary issues with brief, stand-alone classroom role-playing activities is that they tend to be linear and without long-term consequences. It is my experience that the majority of times, participants will arrive at the intended outcome because there is no reason not to, and there is a social incentive to cooperate. Learners' actions during the role-play tend to be inconsequential of whether they make wise choices or not. Most times, participants will soon reconcile and reach the expected scenario's solution regardless. As a result, the product is unrealistic compared to a real-life situation, where high tension moments are expected to occur

during a confrontation. This effect could potentially deprive learners of valuable learning opportunities.

However, if we combine the activity with RPG mechanics, things might not go as initially planned in most cases. Participants will have to rely on adapting and improvising to resolve a situation where the effect of their actions and other participants' reactions are, for the most part, out of their hands. RPGs may provide learners with practice experiences where they can interact with an ever-evolving, responding environment.

EXAMPLE AND DISCUSSION

RPGs as a content gamification pedagogy

The intention behind using role-playing as pedagogy is for participants to generate experiential learning from the activity by applying the concepts they are meant to learn (Agboola Sogunro, 2003). By using custom RPG mechanics instead of traditional classroom role-playing, participants experience a more uncertain, and thus realistic, scenario. This setting may lead them to take actions they usually would not explore under a traditional linear role-play, allowing them to generate deeper meaning from the experience after the role-play is over and observe more examples within the scenario's development. Consider the following example:
During a sexual assault prevention training, the facilitator creates and illustrates the setting where participants will role-play. First, they describe a house party. The music is loud, and people are drinking and dancing. The participants are currently located on the second floor of the house. The room is about 500 square feet, and the only piece of furniture around is the ping-pong table where some attendees are playing the drinking game, flip cup. Out of the corner of their eye, the participant sees their friend Wendy. She seems to be talking to a tall, muscular guy holding a red cup in one hand and has the other hand on Wendy's back. You can tell that Wendy has had a few too many drinks and is having trouble standing.

The role-play begins. From here on, the participant will be an active character within the story. Their goal will be to utilize one or more of the three Ds to intervene and make sure Wendy can make a sober decision, and if not, get her to safety. The participant will have to interact with the role-play characters and roll after every major action to determine its outcome. Unknown to the participant, the facilitator has set the requirement of a dice roll higher than 12 to convince Wendy and higher than 15 to convince the guy Wendy is talking to (Dallas).

Gamified Role-Play

Participant (P) - I do not feel comfortable being with direct confrontation, so I will text Wendy and ask her if she's okay.

Facilitator (F) - "Roll to see if she gets your message" (because the music is loud and it would be hard to notice a text at a party, the number to beat is 17). The participant rolls a 4. "With a four, you send the message, but because there is bad reception, you don't get a notification that she received it."

P - I will approach Wendy and ask her if she wants to get a drink with me.

F - "Roll to see if she is persuaded to come with you." *The participant rolls an 11*. "Unfortunately, she refuses to come with you. However, being this close to her, you realize she is not sober. She is slurring her words and making little sense with her response.

P - I will try one last thing before being direct. I am going to introduce myself to the guy she is talking to. *The participant then acts their introduction.*

F - The guy says his name is Dallas; he then goes back to talking and tells Wendy they should go back to his place and check out his trophy collection.

P - I will approach Wendy and ask for some privacy to talk with her about something important.

F - Wendy steps a few feet away from Dallas and asks you what is going on.

P - Hey, this guy is clearly trying to take you home, and you don't seem to be sober. Is this something you want

to do? I am just watching out for you. Why don't we step outside and get some fresh air and water instead?

F - "Roll for persuasion, but since you are showing her you are only looking out for her, roll with advantage, meaning you roll twice and choose the higher number." *The participant rolls for persuasion and gets a 17 and a 4, so they choose 17.* "With a 17, Wendy agrees to come with you, and you have successfully removed her from the situation.

Because of RPG mechanics, the role-play took unexpected twists and turns for the facilitator and the participant, bringing a higher challenge to the participant who had to engage in critical thinking and apply the things they learned from the training under a more realistic scenario. Furthermore, unlike a simulation which often has to have predetermined outcomes and may require several actors, the results given by dice-mechanics will always be different. It also allows the facilitator to singlehandedly bring several characters to life simultaneously or give response guidance to reacting role-players. These advantages, topped with a customizable difficulty level, ensure that the facilitator can adjust the experience as needed for participants to meet the learning objectives.

Moreover, because of the random aspect of the dice rolls, whoever role-plays the reactive character will have a natural incentive to act a certain way depending on the rolled result. This aspect saves everyone involved from the awkwardness of facilitators having to intentionally disagree with whatever approach the participant takes first for the sake of forcefully pushing participants to deeper levels of thinking. Instead, randomness will determine how characters react, making a more realistic environment for participants to explore, adapt, and learn.

Lastly, RPG mechanics have the flexibility to be implemented anywhere where a role-play activity might be used. These situations include but are not limited to leadership education courses, hazing prevention programs, first-year orientation, student organization advising, teaching assistant training, etc.

IMPLICATIONS

While the world of RPGs is vast and complex, filled with characters, monsters, riddles, quests, and challenges, one does not have to be well-versed in it to adopt some of its mechanics into a learning setting. There are hundreds of RPG s out there, each using a different system to bring rules and consistency into its game. Adopting one fully would require hours of unnecessary and overly complex work. After all, RPGs are first and foremost games. Instead, this is a call to implement RPG mechanics into a traditional role-play activity to increase its student immersion and the critical thinking skills needed to succeed. Therefore, to simplify the complexity of RPGs, I propose the following system:

1) **Develop well-written learning objectives** - As an educational activity, it should include clear and specific goals that students are pursuing. Is the use of a role-play justified? If so, how would succeeding at the role-play accomplish these objectives?

2) **Develop the parameters that will govern your role-play** – There are a few things you should always consider when gamifying a role-play activity:
   a) How long do you want this role-play to be? It could be something short like the sexual assault prevention training example provided, or it could be something much longer, taking hours or whole sessions to accomplish. However, make sure the learning objectives justify the role-play's length.
   b) How big is the world for learners to explore? This factor will vastly depend on your objectives. The role-play could be contained in a small room or a whole fantasy world filled with mysteries and creatures. Nevertheless, it is essential to consider that the bigger the world, the more preparation time the role-play will need.
   c) What are the Non-playable characters (NPCs) that will inhabit the role-play? NPCs, like Wendy and Dallas, are characters controlled by the facilitator that live inside the role-play. In my experience, the best NPCs are those that facilitators create with an intended purpose that adds richness to the RPG experience. I also recommend fleshing out voices and personalities for these NPCs to bring them to life during the role-play.

3) **Develop a few prompts to get started, but be flexible.** RPGs are immersive in part because of the story that participants get to co-create. While it is necessary to have a starting point and a general idea of what you want your students to experience, you don't have to plan for absolutely everything. That flexibility allows learners to implement critical thinking into their situation and generate creative solutions to their problems.

4) **Set up a difficulty level for the goals learners must accomplish** - Using a scale from 1-20, with 1 being an outright miss and 20 being an absolute success, set a difficulty number needed to succeed at each objective. Make players roll a 20-sided die after every action that requires a success/fail result (e.g., convincing someone with an argument). The number they roll will determine the consequences of their actions. If they meet the difficulty number or surpass it, it is considered a success. Otherwise, their efforts have failed to reach their intended outcome (Google allows rolling virtual dice if you search for "roll d20"). The facilitator will make NPCs react positively or negatively to the player's actions and forward the role-play's narrative. In addition, there are two things the facilitator can implement to ease the scenario's difficulty or to reward/penalize players for good or bad decisions.
   a) Advantage and disadvantage rolls - If a player has made a series of good or bad decisions, the facilitator can aid or harm their roll result by allowing players to roll twice and choose the best number (roll with advantage) or the worst one (roll with disadvantage). Another benefit of this mechanic is that it makes learner actions consequential, solving one of the main problems of traditional role-plays.
   b) Partial success - The facilitator can help the story move forward by granting a partial success when the participant rolls a number close to the goal but not enough. In this scenario, participants achieve what they want, but at the cost of certain complications, e.g., the set difficulty is 12, and the player rolls an 11 while trying to convince Wendy to go for a drink with them. The facilitator allows for partial success, but at the cost of the player rolling with a disadvantage during their subsequent interaction because Wendy is now annoyed. Both partial success and advantage/disadvantage rolls can help facilitators gain more control over the role-play's reigns and help its progression while adding realism to the narrative.

5) **Anticipate questions from learners and have fun** - Facilitators should be prepared to answer details regarding the characters, the world, and the situation where the role-play takes place. Therefore, facilitators should plan in advance what some of these questions may look like and be ready. Part of the facilitator's job is to bring life to the role-play's world and aid student immersion in the activity.

6) **Allow time for reflection** - Given the luck factor that rolling dice brings, it may be that players do not always succeed in the scenario. However, this will also happen in real life and is, therefore, a valuable learning opportunity. Regardless of the scenario's outcome, using reflection will engage learners in cognitive processes that enhance experiential learning (Volpe White & Guthrie, 2016). After each role-play is over, facilitate a brief period for reflection to occur. Learners can gain valuable insight into their actions and discuss how things could develop during a real-life scenario. This moment also gives students who were observing the role-play a chance to participate in the activity.

CONCLUSION

Using RPG mechanics to improve role-playing pedagogy can increase engagement and transform the intended lesson into a more realistic experiential learning experience. This technique can also ease the tension of difficult topics through a more playful pedagogy that still carries the planned message. Nevertheless, by adding dice mechanics to determine the role-played decision outcomes, participants and facilitators do not know the role-play result before engaging in it. Instead, they get a more involved scenario where certain things are left to chance. This effect pushes the participant to be intentional about choices and employ critical thinking skills to adapt to an evolving situation.

In addition, the RPG mechanics give the participant intrinsic motivation to try out different approaches they may not have considered initially and provides an opportunity to emphasize the ability to adapt to an evolving

environment. Finally, role-playing scenarios can be highly customizable for different educational purposes. A creative facilitator can design a world as fictional or realistic as their imagination allows them, creating environments with different characters, problems, and objectives that enable learners to face countless situations, like practicing conflict management skills or experiencing social justice issues. Nevertheless, the experiences learners have by interacting with those worlds are real and capable of generating experiential learning along the way.

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JCAPS

AN UPDATED RESEARCH AGENDA IN NACA: A SUGGESTED ROADMAP FOR FUTURE SCHOLARSHIP ON PRACTICE?

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RESEARCH PLAYS A VITAL ROLE IN THE DISCIPLINE OF CAMPUS ACTIVITIES AND OUR SOCIETY AS A WHOLE. Research provided the foundation for the most significant achievements of humankind. Conducting valid research can lead to new discoveries, prompt the questioning of commonly held assumptions, and build a base from which scholars can further advance knowledge. Booth, Colomb, and Williams (2017) wrote, "Without trustworthy published research, we all would be locked into the opinions of the moment, prisoners of what we alone experience or dupes to whatever we're told" (p. 10). Certainly, it would not be difficult to find recent relevant examples of the necessity for research – nor the need for the skill to interpret and make sense of research.

While researchers within the field of student affairs and campus activities may not be doing anything quite as dramatic as attempting to put a person on the moon or cure a disease, research plays a vital role in our work. Through this endeavor, we seek to understand how students develop and grow through their participation in our programs. We can further refine how effectively we can achieve desired outcomes for our institutions – and advance the competency and professionalism of those within our field. Student learning and development have become a central focus for student affairs professionals of various disciplines in the present era. Despite this focus, many challenges remain that inhibit practitioners from bringing research and practice together.

Much of the work of campus activities professionals is guided – or should be guided -by a collection of theories known as student development theories (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton and Renn, 2010). Student development theory began first as a patchwork of social scientific concepts borrowed from other disciplines (Patton, Renn, Guido-DiBrito, & Quaye, 2016). It can be argued that the lack of a central theoretical base throughout most of the profession's history has led to, or at least exacerbated, the lack of understanding by the general public and key stakeholders regarding the purpose and impact of higher education. Kruger and Peck (2016) explain:

> Anyone who has worked in the field of student affairs has likely observed how difficult it can be to explain to others the nature of our work. Even those closest to us—spouses, children, parents, and so forth—may have a basic idea of our day-to-day work without completely understanding the big picture of why our jobs exist in the first place (p. xi).

Within the field of student affairs, the work of campus activities is particularly suspectable to this lack of understanding because such work suffers from both a lack of a robust group of theories to guide our work and a critical mass of practitioners well-versed in existing theories. There is also an extant lack of scholars producing research that is relevant to the field of campus activities.

In the inaugural edition of the Journal of Campus Activities Practice and Scholarship (JCAPS), Love and Goyal

(2019) discussed data they collected regarding how well campus activities professionals understand and apply theory, writing, "In our conversations with professionals about how they determine their actions to bring about specific outcomes, formal theory rarely enters the conversation" (p. 34). They added, "When asked specifically about formal theories guiding their work, a few that were mentioned included Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, minority/social identity theories, and Schlossberg's Transition theory. These theories only cover a small portion of their work" (p. 34). Clearly, a lack of knowledge of theory impedes our ability to be effective as a profession.

What's more, evidence suggests the field of campus activities as a whole has not enthusiastically embraced assessment, either. McCullar, Peck, DeSawal, Rosch & Russell Krebs (2020, p.6) wrote, "It is no secret that campus activities professionals…have struggled to create a culture of assessment." While assessment is distinct from research in many ways, considering a collective lack of interest in both suggests that our field may still be too reactive to trends in student learning and changing student needs than we can anticipate and understand them. It may even leave students unaware of what they are or are supposed to be learning from their experiences (Peck and Cummings, 2016).

In 2009, the National Association for Campus Activities (NACA) produced the "Competency Guide for College Student Leaders" (Brill et al., 2009). The publication was intended as "…a learning map for student leaders as they grow and develop through participation in student organizations, community service, campus employment, grassroots activities, leadership positions, followership positions, mentoring relationships with campus activities advisors, etc." (p. 1). Peck and Cummings called this document "An important first step in unifying learning outcomes in campus activities programs" (p. 151). Clearly, our ability as a profession to demonstrate collective impact can be significantly enhanced by a shared agenda for creating and measuring our effects on student learning. Compelling questions remain unanswered, such as, how does participation in campus activities benefit students and what competencies are necessary for campus activities professionals to prompt and guide this growth? How do we systematically create a sense of belonging for students and staff within institutions, and how can practitioners advance equity and inclusion for our diverse student body? Additionally, how do we advance the professionalization of our work? The field of campus activities can benefit from an increased focus on scholarship. Promoting a culture of scholarship is among the main foci of and reason for the existence of JCAPS (McCullar et., al, 2020). But it is also essential that we target this scholarship on topics that can advance our profession's work, benefit the students we serve, and prepare future campus activities professionals.

That is why the editorial board would like to highlight the recent good work of the NACA Research and Scholarship Group in the creation of the NACA Research Agenda. This document represents the dedication, effort, and progressive thinking of a broad and diverse group of professionals. This Agenda is similar to an initial document created by the NACA Research and Scholarship Group in 2014. While this is not the first time NACA has produced a research agenda, this is the first research agenda since the inception of JCAPS. We believe that these two initiatives overlap considerably and can work in concert to accomplish our shared goals for advancing scholarship in campus activities. As individuals consider conducting scholarship for potential publication in JCAPS, we hope they will consider the concepts and topics introduced in the updated Research Agenda.

NACA RESEARCH AGENDA

The updated version of the NACA Research Agenda incorporates the same three focus areas as the initial 2014 version, with several edits and additions of specific topics and questions within those areas. The three central areas of focus remain: 1) Assessing the impact of involvement on students who participate in campus activities sponsored initiatives; 2) Student learning and development related to the work of campus activities units; and 3) Issues regarding the professionalization of campus activities work. Each of these areas also includes particular sub-topics, and within each sub-topic includes specific exemplar research questions that scholars in campus activities can help address. We describe each of the three areas below and illustrate concrete examples of how emerging scholars in campus activities contexts can potentially respond.

Impact on Involvement in Campus Activities Initiatives

The effects on students who participate in initiatives sponsored by campus activities units are of central concern for postsecondary institutions and broadly within NACA. Without being able to make informed statements about how students might be affected due to the work done in these units, justifying their budgets, or even their existence, becomes a challenge at best. This first section of the NACA Research Agenda includes four sub-topics that campus activities scholars are invited to address in their work; we will address each in turn.

Assessing inclusivity and justice-oriented campus culture. Campus activities professionals have a primary responsibility in contemporary postsecondary education to create and support these cultural attributes on their campus and assess their success in doing so. Empirical and anecdotal evidence has long existed suggesting that historical and traditional campus programs, if not rigorously examined with regards to aspects of diversity, equity, and inclusion, may unintentionally sustain a continued marginalization of minoritized students and the inequitable power structures that create such marginalization – along with an environment of white and male supremacy that underlies both. The field of campus activities specifically and student affairs needs more scholarship that addresses the degree to which our work unintentionally contributes to these pernicious issues and examines avenues to create stronger senses of inclusivity and justice in the campus culture.

Building student sense of belonging. Creating a campus culture that promotes inclusivity and social justice directly supports efforts to help individual students feel that they belong within their postsecondary institution. Such work might be considered necessary but not sufficient in creating a widespread sense within students that they belong as part of their campus community and feel welcomed at social and educational programs sponsored by a campus activities unit. Examining the extent to which students feel this sense of belonging and how campus activities contribute to such feelings are key goals within NACA and its updated research agenda. Within the new research agenda, it is noteworthy that attention is paid to the degree to which campus activities work supports students in making decisions that contribute to their holistic health and well-being. NACA considers fundamental to helping students feel that they belong within their institution's community.

Contributing to student academic success. "Campus believes we just plan parties" is a common complaint among campus activities professionals. In response, scholars should focus on assessing student academic outcomes as deeply as those that are more social. Fifty years of research in higher education has shown that involvement on campus is correlated with positive academic outcomes, and scholarship over the past twenty (such as that which resulted in a list of "high impact educational practices" (see Kuh, 2007, among others) has begun to unlock the mechanisms that exist in postsecondary education that result in those outcomes. Less is currently known about the specific roles that campus activities work plays in contributing, or the nature of this relationship.

Supporting student engagement. Beyond the direct contributions to students as a result of their being involved in campus activities initiatives, scholars should also examine potential indirect contributions. For example, how does their involvement in campus activities lead students to become more deeply engaged in other ways on campus? What is the nature of the relationship between involvement in campus activities and students' sense of agency in directing their overall postsecondary experience? Scholarship that builds knowledge in these areas will arm campus activities professionals with talking points that support how their work contributes to the larger goals possessed by high-level campus administrators.

Student Learning and Development

The first area listed in the NACA Research Agenda focuses on how campus activities contribute to broad campus goals. The second helps focus scholars within a smaller scope: how involvement contributes to the growth that occurs within individual students. Like the first area, assessing student development can be divided into several sub-topics.

Cultural competence. Campus activities professionals should feel they contribute to students gaining skills in appreciating, understanding, and practicing connecting with other students from backgrounds that are different from their own. However, research and scholarship examining how campus activities can and do contribute

to these outcomes remain sparse. Moreover, when campus activities professionals create initiatives specifically focused on diversity, equity, and inclusion, how do students engage with these initiatives, and does such engagement look different across student social identities? The NACA Research Agenda also includes a specific suggestion to focus on student spiritual, faith-based, and meditative growth in the context of their campus activities involvement.

Broad skill-building. Employers have long called for postsecondary educators to help students build skills relevant for leadership, problem-solving, working in groups, and managing themselves and others (Mackes, 2017). For these reasons, scholars who study and write about the work that occurs in campus activities office should be encouraged to explore the myriad ways that such work contributes the student skill-building. More explicit knowledge would contribute to better positioning campus activities units on campus and communicating to involved students how to more effectively describe the effects of their efforts when applying for employment.

Employability. Speaking about students applying for jobs, the NACA Research Agenda explicitly encourages research and assessment efforts focused on campus activities' impact on student post-graduation success. In addition, many campus activities units employ students as team members – to what extent does such employment contribute to future professional attainment? NACA as an organization has recently deepened its investment in student professional attainment through the creation of NACA NEXT; what is the relationship between this investment and students' future professional success?

Event planning. Regardless of specific innovations within the field of postsecondary campus activities, a core foundation within its work will remain creating, organizing, advertising, conducting, and assessing the impact of discrete events within the campus community. To what extent do these events contribute to student development – for those who participate and those who help plan and carry them out? How has the logistics and context of event planning shifted over time, especially in the light of current events and international crises like the Covid-19 pandemic?

Lifelong learning. As the pace of change in society increases, the need for people to continually augment their development and growth increases apace. Scholars focused on campus activities are encouraged to investigate the relationship between being involved in the work of campus activities and the development of a mindset dedicated to lifelong learning. For example, to what extent do students –through their employment, volunteer involvement, or participation in programs – go on to pursue post-graduate for education or informal learning, especially in comparison to peers who are not involved?

The Professionalization of Campus Activities Work

While the previous two sections of the NACA Research Agenda focus on students and their experiences and outcomes, the third and final section of the Agenda centers the professionals who manage the work of campus activities units. Student affairs post-graduate preparatory programs have been in existence for several generations (Pierre, & Henning, 2019), yet the specific work of campus activities done by full-time employees has received only marginal attention within these programs in the degree to which they focus on this work. Outside of NACA, opportunities for professional development in campus activities are not centralized or systemic. Further scholarship is clearly warranted. Like the two areas described above, this section of the Agenda is also divided into specific sub-areas.

Diversity, equity, and inclusion-related skill-building. Given both global and campus-based trends, campus activities professionals possess the clear need to be skillful in areas related to inclusion and social justice issues – in their work with students and as employees within complex modern organizations. The NACA Research Agenda encourages scholars to examine how campus activities professionals gain these skills, what they use them to accomplish, and how their students and the broader campus community are affected by their work in this area.

Student organization advising. Advising student organizations has become increasingly complex as the inter-

face between postsecondary students and their institutions becomes increasingly complex in general. NACA supports efforts in emerging scholarship related to best practices in contemporary advising techniques and how these techniques result in shifts in student learning and organizational outcomes, as well as the specific roles that advisors play. In addition, the field needs more depth of knowledge of the human and technical skills required to serve as an effective advisor, as well as how advising student organizations can support continued professional development and attainment.

Graduate student preparation. Surprisingly little has been written about the specific roles of student affairs graduate student preparatory programs in serving as developmental and training grounds for emerging student activities professionals – even as many programs possess formal relationships with campus activities offices in offering financial aid assistantships. What should be the roles these academic programs play in preparing professionals at the Master's Degree level or in helping support more experienced professionals through a terminal degree? What formal and informal lessons do current graduate students learn about campus activities work and how formal classroom experiences should be balanced with practical experiences within the campus activities office? Scholars are also encouraged to help build a field-wide consensus on the optimal curriculum for success in campus activities administration.

Pathways to professional development. Numerous opportunities exist for growing and developing in the field of campus activities outside of formal educational degree programs, including professional association membership, meeting participation, non-formal education both in person and online, publications like books, scholarly journals, podcasts, and magazines, and countless other resources. Scholars in the field are encouraged to explore and suggest some order to how campus activities professionals approach their lifelong development. Are there common professional trajectories that would be helpful to know about? Do trends or best practices exist in using research and scholarship to continue to build knowledge and skills? How can we stem the continual tide of rising star administrators who begin their career in campus activities and end it in other units or professions altogether?

Taken as a whole, the NACA Research Agenda represents a broad-based yet concrete blueprint to help guide research and assessment on the most pressing issues in the work of campus activities. For anyone interested in scholarship, presumably, a topic mentioned above should be of interest for further investigations. The remainder of this article will focus on how professionals employed in campus activities offices can use the Agenda as a resource and guide in their own work.

INCORPORATING THE RESEARCH AGENDA INTO OUR DAY-TO-DAY WORK

Student activities professionals might be intimidated to think about integrating the NACA research agenda into their daily work. Using the three central focus areas of the Agenda, we will discuss how the Agenda can be employed. Recognizing the impact of our design and delivery of programs and services on campus communities is the first step in gathering the data needed to address the pressing items outlined in the research agenda.

The beginning of an academic year or academic term is the perfect time to revisit and identify the holistic goals of your unit. Using this time to map student learning, campus community building, and programs to the research agenda can help a unit gather the data needed to improve practice. Often these goals may align with or are driven by an institution's strategic plan.

Connecting your work to the profession can happen when you think about how specific programs/services may map to the items listed on the NACA research agenda. This doesn't mean you need to conduct an environmental scan of your entire office, instead think about a couple of the programs/services you consider critical to the advancement of your office goals. The final sections will explore how professionals can apply the Agenda to the design, context, and delivery of their work. An example of mapping a single program to one of the focal areas is provided in the impact of student involvement. The last two sections provide key questions to consider in the design, context, and delivery aspects of your programs/services.

Impact of Student Involvement

Higher education scholars have been researching the impact of student involvement for decades. Thomas, Barr, Hottell, Adkins, & Dick (2021) found that during the early years of a student's collegiate experience, factors including student involvement and participation contribute to reducing an institution's dropout rate. While researchers have regularly examined the benefits of student involvement, the benefits are rarely linked directly to the programs and services offered through student activities. This is often because student activities units are not tracking, gathering, or disseminating data intentionally that connects practice to research. In thinking about the impact of student involvement, the first consideration is how that involvement will influence the campus environment.

Design. Student activities unit design work in this area focuses on the programs and services delivered throughout the campus. Think of this as the list of events, programs, trainings offered by the unit. These would include campus-wide events, individual student training, and student organization support. In thinking about the design of these activities and events, consideration should be given to what aspect of the campus environment the event/program influences.

Context. The context is WHO these events/programs are designed to target. The scope of work in student activities involves working with the entire campus community. However, not all programs are designed to serve all students on campus. Intentionally thinking about and being realistic about the student populations that programming events target will provide a more explicit focus on who is being served and how that influences that campus environment.

Delivery. Program delivery should focus on taking the context and recognizing HOW that target population will receive the knowledge. Is the dissemination through a single lecture, an academic course, a multi-day retreat?

Example

Influences on the Campus Environment *(Insert specific campus program/service description)* Example: CultureFest – 4-hour event held during Welcome Week	Design *(Insert the type of program delivery)* *What aspect of campus culture is the event trying to influence?*	Context *(Insert types of student populations)* *Describe who the event is designed to engage?*	Delivery *(Insert options for sharing knowledge)* *How are the students gaining new knowledge?*
Campus Culture: influences student culture, reinforces campus traditions, and assists with connectivity	Includes large-scale and small-scale activities in an outside environment.		
Academic Success: role of campus involvement in progression through the college experience	Events include academic-based organizations and social-based organizations		
Student Engagement: contribution to a culture of student engagement	Provides a space for students to find groups and students who connect through shared identities.	Designed to attract the incoming students to the campus and share the opportunities to find peers to connect socially and academically.	
Equity and Diversity: contributes and promotes inclusive and just campus culture	Communicates the importance of all the student populations on campus by showcasing them at the start of the academic year.		Interaction is grounded in students who identify with a specific population sharing about how to engage with that population on campus.

Student Learning and Development

The influence of student involvement on campus indicates a link to improved retention rates, satisfaction with the collegiate environment, and decreased dropout rates. Documenting what students have learned in these spaces has been more challenging. Student activities have actively created learning outcomes; however, documenting those outcomes to specific programming has not happened. Once the campus activities office has identified the programs being offered, the next step is to look at what students will learn and how that learning will be documented.

Design. Once we have the program's structure identified, the next step is to look at the specific content. Connecting programming to student learning and development recognizes the importance of student involvement as part of a student's academic journey. In thinking about design-specific programming, professionals should consider what aspect of learning and development is the focus. Professionals want to start by thinking broadly about how the program contributes to developing leadership, employability skills (e.g., NACE Competencies), multicultural competence, etc. In this area, you want to be able to clearly articulate the broad focus of learning. Think about this as the general description of a course on campus. The question to answer is *What is the focus of learning for the students?*

Context. An overlap is likely to exist between the student impact of student involvement and learning outcomes. In this specific area, the focus is on WHAT is being learned and the desired developmental outcome that can be MEASURED. Each program should have specific learning outcomes identified. In this section, programs should identify if the focus is on specific knowledge gain, identity development, group skills, etc. Essentially at this point, you are looking at what specific developmental tasks and competencies are trying to be achieved. It would also be critical to note connections with other programs. For example, a student leadership retreat may have outcomes that connect to the training program for student organization officers. This is where you become more specific and list the learning outcomes associated with the learning focus. The question to answer is *What are the learning outcomes?*

Delivery. Key to the delivery is the assessment of the learning and development that is the program's content. How the program is delivered does not tell us what has been learned. Building into the programming, evaluation of the outcomes is where student activities can begin to document individual programs' specific impact. The delivery of student learning and development is focused on what type of evaluation is being collected. Delivery could include an online questionnaire, program activity during the event where data is gathered on learning, a reflection paper, etc. This is where you gather the documentation about if you are meeting those learning outcomes and staying focused on the learning goals. In this section, you will describe and answer the question: How can we measure what the students can *do upon completion of the program/service?*

Professionalization of Campus Activities

In this area of the research agenda, the focus shifts to how the work of professionals in campus activities yields individual and collective competency development. Broadly speaking, advising is one of the most common activities that takes place on a college campus. As we have discussed in this article, broadly speaking, student involvement has been identified as a significant contributor to student retention and decreased dropout rate, and documenting the student learning in these out-of-classroom spaces provides connections to post-graduation employability. Thus, it becomes only natural that the contributions of the professionals who provide these learning environments and content need to also understand how to articulate their professional contributions to the collegiate environment.

Design. Student activities units should consider how they are intentionally focusing on the professional development of their staff. The busy nature of student activities often doesn't permit time to focus on the development of the staff when the focus is consistently on the development of the students. As units create their annual programming plan, attention should also be given to how to provide professional development opportunities to staff.

Those could include time away from the office to attend a NACA conference, staff retreats, etc. The key question to consider is *What are the spaces in which you expect professionals to learn?* These would include thinking about campus-based professional development, regional involvement, and professional association engagement.

Context. Student activities offices consist of professionals with varying levels of education and experience. Most office organizational structures are hierarchical, resulting in different experiences and skills required for each position classification. The context of professional development should consider WHO the programs are targeting. Additionally, consideration regarding all staff training around social issues and emerging research trends can benefit all staff. Consider *Who is the focus of the professional development?* This would require you to think about how professional development and competency development are linked to experience. Additionally, the context around job description requirements should be examined to think about how you are preparing staff to take on increased levels of responsibility to advance in the profession.

Delivery. Student activities professionals should document the professional competencies they have gained through their work and intentional professional development involvement. This can be done by using annual reviews to document past performance and identify opportunities for intentional competency development. Use time in staff meetings to share knowledge gained from conference attendance and how that information can be helpful to the work on the unit. *How are you considering evaluating the professional growth of campus activities professionals? What documentation can be provided to help communicate to the profession that campus activities professionals have specific competencies?* Think about how to provide written documentation that can be provided in a professional's electronic portfolio, or how electronic badges can be displayed on social media accounts like LinkedIn.

CONCLUSION

As many have observed, in an era of declining resources, campus activities professionals will need to do more than just increase our effectiveness – we need to demonstrate that effectiveness through data. Increasing our effectiveness will require understanding the theories that can help us improve student learning, meet institutional goals, and target improvements in ourselves and our teams. This improvement should include an intentional focus on improving our ability to interpret and conduct research. In creating the NACA Research Agenda, the association puts forward an inspiring and ambitious goal for telling the story of our collective impact as campus activities professionals. The editorial board welcomes submissions on these compelling and relevant topics.

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