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We would also like to acknowledge the following individuals for their vision, leadership, dedication, and passion for higher education and student affairs:

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Aaron M. Skira | Wright State University

Research literature examining the relationship between financial aid and postsecondary students' academic progress suggests that types of financial aid may affect college grade point average (GPA) differently. A descriptive, ex post facto research design was employed to examine the relationship between types of financial aid and the first term GPA of 2,252 full-time, first-time, in-state, degree-seeking undergraduates who attended a public four-year institution in the Midwest the fall of 2009. Analyses of the data found no significant difference in GPAs between those students who received financial aid and those who did not; however, several statistically significant differences were found among GPAs when examining different types of financial aid received. Students who received scholarships or work-study had significantly higher GPAs; whereas, students who received grants or student loans had significantly lower GPAs. This study lends itself to the importance of routine assessment and posits that college administrators should consider types of financial aid when determining funding strategies for institutional financial aid programs and policies.

Keywords: Financial Aid, Grade Point Average, Postsecondary Students

11 Why Did I Do That?: An Introduction to Critical Reflection in Student Affairs

Jennifer Fellabaum | University of Missouri

As stated by Creamer, Winston, and Miller (2001), "effective student affairs practitioners must be continuously involved in active learning" (p. 32). This article provides an introduction to one aspect of active learning, the importance of critical reflection for student affairs professionals. This article begins with an overview of how reflection as a topic is currently handled within the student affairs literature. Then, journal writing is introduced as one example of a critically reflective tool. This introduction includes an overview of how journaling was used in a recent study to help student affairs professionals engage in more critical reflection on the study's main topics. This example of journal writing as a tool is significant, as all of the participants reported some benefit from keeping the journal. Finally, the article concludes with a discussion of potential barriers and recommendations for future research.

Keywords: Critical Reflection, Journaling

21 Parent versus Peer Attachments: An Explicit and Implicit Measurement of Internal Working Models

Brigitta Vieyra | New York University

The present research examines how multiple attachment figures influence individuals during the college years by specifically comparing parent and peer attachments in undergraduate students in hopes of finding evidence for a relational internal working model that is associated with specific contextual factors. Participants took an explicit measurement (questionnaire) and implicit measurement (IAT) of attachment after being primed to feel a negative, neutral, and positive emotion. The findings suggest that parents continue to function as internal working models well into emerging adulthood. Peers are not preferred over parents and vice versa in a person's undergraduate experience. In addition, the insignificant findings suggest support for attitude dissociation; people may have multiple ways—conscious and unconscious—of expressing levels of attachment security and preferences for attachment figures. The article concludes with implications for student affairs practitioners to consider the positive impact parental involvement can have on traditional, college-aged students.

Keywords: Attachment, Internal Working Model, Implicit Association Test (IAT), Emerging Adulthood, Parental Involvement

39 Elucidating a Transition in Upper-Division College Student Perceptions of Leadership

Dustin L. Gee | New York University

The purpose of this study was to investigate how twelve upper-division (third and fourth year) college students at a private liberal arts institution perceive leadership. Research by Joseph Rost explains that leadership can be categorized into two paradigms: industrial and post-industrial. Rost's research speculates that post-industrial leadership is the wave of the future. However, despite the broad scope of college student leadership development literature, there is little research examining student perceptions of leadership. This study used focus groups to determine whether or not college students, at one institution, held an industrial or post-industrial view of leadership. Although student responses supported industrial leadership qualities; post-industrial leadership characteristics were present as well. This research suggests that a transition in perceptions of leadership from the industrial to the post-industrial may be present. In addition, it offers practical implications for student affairs administrators and calls for research that urges colleges and universities to teach new approaches to leadership (i.e., servant leadership, social change leadership), as opposed to strictly industrial views.

Keywords: College Student Leadership Development, Focus Groups, Industrial Leadership Paradigm, Post-Industrial Leadership Paradigm

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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the eighth edition of the *Journal of Student Affairs at New York University*.

The primary goal of this year's Executive Editorial Board was to continue expanding the academic quality and integrity of our journal. Our aim was to collect article submissions that address the issues most relevant to the broader higher education community and student affairs profession. Particularly, our desire was to create a scholarly journal that would reflect the voice and interests of current scholars as well as new professionals in the field. I wholeheartedly believe that we were successful in fulfilling our goals.

To broaden the scope of our journal, we invited scholars and professionals from prominent institutions and programs to participate in submitting manuscripts for consideration. This endeavor allowed us to receive a considerable number of articles of diverse topics and interests. Our hope is that the articles in the following pages provoke thoughts that will lead to further academic studies that will benefit higher education and the field of student affairs.

The success of this year's journal attests to the level of commitment and diligence of this edition's Executive Editorial Board. Each member went beyond their respective roles to ensure the quality and professionalism of our journal. Andrew LaVenia and Diana Law, our Copy and Content Editors, perseveringly worked with our authors and editors to ensure the articles were reflective of the academic excellence expected in the field. Julia Esser, the Publicity and Development Manager, worked tirelessly to attract authors that would bring in varying innovative perspectives. Zaneta Rago, our Production Editor, carefully created a design that best represents the level of hard work and dedication that went into the creation of this journal. I could not have asked for a better team to share this journey with me. It has been a true honor to work with each of you.

There are truly not enough words to adequately express my sincere gratitude for the complete dedication and enthusiasm of our External Review Board and editorial teams. All of you have contributed so greatly to the success of the Journal.

On behalf of the 2011-2012 Executive Editorial Board, editors and authors, it is with great pleasure to introduce the 2012 *Journal of Student Affairs at New York University*. Enjoy!

Best Regards,

Tatia Haywood
Editor-in-Chief

An Examination of the Types of Financial Aid and First term GPA at a Public University

Aaron M. Skira

According to the National Center for Education Statistics' Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) spring 2009 data collection, 77% of full-time, first-time, degree-seeking undergraduates attending public four-year institutions in the United States received financial aid (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, & Ginder, 2010). Financial aid included federal, state, local, and institutional grants and loans to students. What is surprising about the large number of students receiving aid is that the types of financial aid available to students today are not necessarily as attractive as they once were. In addition, research literature exploring the relationship between aid types and students' grade point average (GPA) suggests types of financial aid may affect college GPA differently.

Historically, types of financial aid include gift aid, loans, and employment. However, support from the federal government to maintain national need-based financial aid programs and policies which initially promoted access and choice to higher education has flattened over the past several decades and, consequently, the financial roles of state governments, families, and institutions have changed (Kurz, 1995). In the late 1990s, "policy shifted from public financing of higher education (via appropriations and grants) to student funding (via higher tuition and borrowing)" (Ort, 2000, p. 21) and a domino effect slowly occurred. According to Ort (2000), the federal government's shift from need-based gift aid towards loans led state aid to shift away from need-based gift aid towards merit-based gift aid. In turn, institutional need- and merit-based aid awards began to increase—often in tandem with tuition increases—to meet the needs of families (Ort, 2000).

Perhaps the increases in tuition rates and institutional gift aid programs have contributed to the majority of first-year undergraduates receiving aid. Tuition costs have increased since the 1970s at percentages that often surpassed annual inflation rates (Hearn, Griswold, & Marine, 1996). In-state tuition costs at public four-year institutions have increased above inflation rates at an average rate of 4.5% per year in the 1980s, 3.2% per year in the 1990s, and 3.8% in the 2000s (Baum & Ma, 2011). Concurrently, from 1995-96 to 2007-08, the percentage of full-time undergraduates receiving institutional merit-based aid (scholarships) at public four-year institutions increased from 8% to 18%, whereas the percentage receiving institutional

need-based aid increased from 13% to 16% (Woo & Choy, 2011).

Because of the irregular state of financial aid programs and policies, Hossler (2000) contended that college administrators are unable to determine definitively the effects of aid. However, the research exploring the relationship between types of financial aid and college GPA reveal that different types of financial aid may affect GPA in different ways. Wang, Arboleda, Shelley, and Whalen (2003), for example, found that undergraduate students who resided in residence halls and borrowed more money for educational loans had significantly lower GPAs. Henry, Rubenstein, and Bugler (2004) analyzed the four-year college GPA of borderline recipients of Georgia's merit-based scholarship program and non-recipients who had similar high school core course GPAs, and found that, although the difference was significant but small, merit-based scholarship recipients had higher GPAs. Using data from three flagship public institutions, Stater (2009) examined the first-year college GPA of first-time, full-time undergraduates and found both need-based aid (grants and loans awarded solely based on financial need) and merit-based aid (scholarships awarded based on factors other than need) positively affected GPA, though need-based aid to a lesser extent.

The purpose of this study is to further examine the relationship between types of financial aid and GPA. It is the hope that additional knowledge may be gained by examining the relationship between the receipt of types of financial aid and first term GPA at a public four-year institution.

Method

A descriptive, ex post facto research design was used to examine the relationship between financial aid and college students' first term GPA. The population included full-time, first-time, in-state, degree-seeking undergraduate students who enrolled in the fall of 2009 at a public four-year institution located in a metropolitan area in the Midwest. Because the majority of students are in-state students and the institution's merit-based aid programs (scholarships) are primarily used to recruit students enrolling directly from high school, out-of-state students and non-traditional first-time students were excluded from this study. During the fall of 2009, there were a total of 18,786 students enrolled at the university, of which 13,770 were degree-seeking undergraduates.

To be included in this study, students must have been: registered full-time as of the institution's 14th day census date; admitted as new students, directly from high school for the fall of 2009 (or received the equivalent of a high school diploma within one year prior to the fall); billed in-state

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tuition; and pursuing an undergraduate degree. In addition, students must have had a term GPA established for the fall of 2009. The institution's Office of Institutional Research identified 2,252 students as meeting the criterion for inclusion in this study. For each record in the sample, the Office of Institutional Research provided the types of financial aid awards paid to students' fees for the fall and the students' fall term GPA. Types of aid included *scholarships* (gift aid awarded primarily based upon merit), *grants* (gift aid awarded primarily based upon financial need), *work-study* (employment opportunities based upon financial need), *student loans* (money borrowed by students, including need-based and non-need-based awards), and *parent loans* (money borrowed by students' parents and awarded without regard to students' financial need) as categorized and administered through the institution's Office of Financial Aid. Financial need was determined by the Office of Financial Aid by subtracting a student's Expected Family Contribution (as calculated by the U.S. Department of Education from the student's Free Application for Federal Student Aid [FAFSA] form) from the institution's cost of attendance.

The data obtained were analyzed using a variety of statistical procedures, including t tests, an analysis of variance, and post hoc comparisons. The independent variable was the receipt of financial aid and the dependent variable was GPA.

Results

The GPAs of students who received financial aid were not significantly different from the GPAs of students who did not receive financial aid (Table 1). However, the results of analyses between the GPAs of students who received different types of financial aid varied, in some cases significantly (Table 2). For example, students who received scholarships or work-study had significantly higher GPAs and students who received grants or student loans had significantly lower GPAs.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA showed a significant difference among GPAs, $F(2, 686) = 123.83, p < .001$, between students who received scholarships only ($M = 3.37, SD = 0.72, n = 284$), grants only ($M = 2.36, SD = 1.16, n = 76$), and student loans only ($M = 2.21, SD = 1.04, n = 329$). Tukey's HSD comparisons indicated significant differences in GPAs between students who received scholarships only and grants only ($p < .001$) and students who received scholarships only and student loans only ($p < .001$), but not a significant difference in GPAs between students who received grants only and student loans only ($p > .05$). Too few students received work-study only and parent loans only to make comparisons with

the other types of financial aid.

Discussion

This study found no significant difference in first term GPAs between full-time, first-time, in-state, degree-seeking undergraduate students who received financial aid and those who did not. However, analyses of first term GPAs for those students who received different types of financial aid revealed that students who received scholarships or work-study had significantly higher GPAs. Conversely, students who received grants or student loans had significantly lower GPAs. There was no significant difference in GPAs between students who did and did not receive parent loans.

Although there were several variables that were not controlled for in this study, the data supports the research literature. Similar to the work of Wang et al. (2003), this study found that students who borrow money for educational loans have significantly lower GPAs. Akin to the findings of Henry et al. (2004) and Stater (2009), this study also found that students who received scholarships or merit-based gift aid had significantly higher GPAs. This is not surprising considering scholarships are often awarded to students with stellar academic performance. However, with institutional merit-based gift aid programs on the rise and federal policy shifting away from grants towards student borrowing, one may wonder what will become of the need-based gift aid programs that often make college affordable to students with financial need. This study found students who received grants to have significantly lower first term GPAs; whereas Stater (2009) found a need-based aid to positively affect college GPA in the long run. One important difference to note, however, is that Stater (2009) included both grants and subsidized loans in his examination of need-based aid and this study evaluated grants and loans separately.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study which may have skewed the findings. For instance, this study was limited to full-time, first-time, in-state, degree-seeking undergraduate students at one public four-year institution. Other full-time, “first-time” students, such as out-of-state and nontraditional students were not included. Furthermore, this study only included financial aid awards paid to students’ fees directly through the institution’s Office of Financial Aid. Fee waivers and scholarships from external donors, for example, were not included. Also, the types of financial aid included in this study were categorized by the institution’s Office of Financial Aid. Types of aid may be categorized differently at another

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institution. Additionally, other variables that may have influenced students' first term GPAs, such as prior academic performance, socioeconomic status, the amounts and combinations of types of aid student's received, students' net price, housing plans, and the percentage of students' financial need that was met, are not considered in this study. This study did not determine causality between the types of financial aid and first term GPA.

Conclusion and Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

With federal funding for need-based gift aid programs dwindling and tuition costs and institutional merit-based financial aid programs on the rise, the significance of research examining the affects of types of financial aid on postsecondary students is warranted. Institutions should continue to explore the effects of their aid packages and awarding philosophies on student outcomes to determine if they are in line with their missions and values. Although this study did not determine a causal relationship between financial aid and college GPA, student achievement may be influenced differently by various types of financial aid. Investing institutional dollars in specific financial aid programs may significantly affect college GPA. Studies, such as this one, demonstrate the importance of assessment and evaluation and allow student affairs professionals to better understand the complexities between financial aid and measures of student success.

Recommendations for Further Research

Recommendations for further research include: (a) controlling for other variables, noted in the limitations section of this article, when examining the relationship between types of financial aid and GPA; (b) examining different types of financial aid by need-based and non-need-based criterion (for example, some scholarships are merit-based but require financial need and some grants, although need-based, require a minimum GPA); and (c) using qualitative research methods when examining types of financial aid and GPA (perhaps types of financial aid are perceived by students in different ways and therefore affect student success and satisfaction differently).

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Types of Financial Aid and First Term GPA

Table 1

T Test Analysis of Differences in First Term GPAs by Receipt of Financial Aid

Received financial aid			Did not receive financial aid			<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i>
<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>		
2.54	1.13	1,988	2.54	0.96	264	-0.057	.95

Table 2

T Test Analysis of Differences in First Term GPAs by Receipt of Type of Fin. aid

Type of Fin. Aid	Group	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i>
Scholarships	Received	3.12	0.87	873	22.89	.001**
	Did not receive	2.08	1.09	1,115		
Grants	Received	2.27	1.16	957	-10.40	.001**
	Did not receive	2.78	1.04	1,031		
Work-Study	Received	2.85	1.01	65	2.27	.023*
	Did not receive	2.53	1.13	1,923		
Student Loans	Received	2.34	1.12	1,491	-13.82	.001**
	Did not receive	2.12	0.94	497		
Parent Loans	Received	2.51	1.03	284	-0.36	.716
	Did not receive	2.54	1.14	1,704		

* $p < 0.5$

** $p < .001$

Why Did I Do That?: An Introduction to Critical Reflection in Student Affairs

Jennifer Fellabaum

Schon (1983) is often credited with furthering the idea of reflection as a professional practice (Moon, 2004; Thompson & Thompson, 2008), particularly through his book, *The Reflective Practitioner*. According to Schon (1983), professionals were already engaging in some form of reflection; “reflecting *on* action, and in some cases, reflecting *in* action” (p. 55). When we “think back” (p. 61) refers to reflection on action and “reflection-in-action” (p. 68) being when we find ourselves in a unique situation where our professional knowledge is inapplicable.

While the concept of reflective practice has been most prevalent in nursing and teacher education (Moon, 2004), interest has increased and according to Thompson and Thompson (2008), “it is now being recognized that reflective practice should be seen as a foundation for all professional practice” (p. ix). Based on a review of the professional reflection literature (Brookfield, 1995; Cunliffe, 2004; Mezirow, 1998; Schon, 1983), this article conceptualizes reflection as the intentional process of critically examining our professional experiences in order to identify aspects such as our assumptions, beliefs, and behaviors. With this conceptualization in mind, the purpose of this article is to further introduce critical reflection into student affairs by highlighting the relevance of the topic and presenting journaling as one potential tool.

Reflection and Student Affairs Literature

The literature related to reflection in student affairs tends to fall into one of two categories. The first is literature that details frameworks for understanding student development and assisting students with developing reflective skills. Examples include King and Kitchener’s (1994) model of reflective judgment and Baxter Magolda’s (2001) concept of self-authorship. While there are certainly relatable discussions from this type of literature such as King and Kitchener’s (1994) discussion of how their model is distinct from critical thinking, the more relevant literature discusses the importance of student affairs professionals engaging in reflection, but usually in either vague or generalized terms, or only in the context of specific aspects of professional identity.

The first aspect is recognition of the need for reflection but in either vague or generalized terms. For example, Cutler (2003) stated, “If student

affairs professionals lack a solid understanding of their own identities, especially their professional identities, then their effectiveness in helping students with identity crises and struggles is compromised” (p. 167). Another example is Roberts (2001), who was focused on the leadership role of student affairs professionals when stating “...all student affairs practitioners are expected to cultivate critical thinking and reflection capabilities that prevent mishaps or, better yet, forge new and exciting possibilities” (p. 385). The first example only alludes to the need for reflection and while the second example uses the term, it does not provide any definition or further guidance.

Specific aspects of professional identity including ethical considerations, cultural competence, and multicultural competence are also discussed in the literature. Young (2001) discussed the need for ethical reflection in student affairs including six key points: be specific, reflect on experience, involve others in the process, understand general ethical principles, test alternative solutions, and reflect-in-action. Echoing sentiments found in the professional reflection literature (Brookfield, 1995; Mezirow, 1998), Young (2001) stated that “reflection without action, however, is empty” (p. 173).

The literature also mentions reflection with regard to cultural competence related to organizational culture. Kuh, Siegel, and Thomas (2001) called for student affairs professionals to be culturally competent, requiring they “routinely engage in a process whereby they *discover, observe, reflect, evaluate, act, and reevaluate* the campus environment, various situations, and their actions” (p. 55). Brown (1997) utilized Senge’s (1990) five disciplines of a learning organization to discuss how student affairs professionals can contribute. Of particular interest is Brown’s (1997) interpretation of the first discipline, personal mastery:

Personal mastery requires that we begin building a learning organization by first looking at single individuals: ourselves. That exploration of the self, that expansion of self-understanding, is multifaceted and builds our capacities to be reflective about our vision for our role in the world, rigorous and self-aware about our cognitive processes, honest about capacities, disciplined in seeking new learning, aware of our impact on others and curious about their perspectives, and dedicated to increasing our capacity to contribute to the world we wish to create. (p. 6)

Finally, Jacoby and Jones (2001) stated, “student affairs administrators need to reflect on their own beliefs, values, and philosophies and articulate

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their motivations and purposes for engagement in the profession as a foundation for shared organizational visioning” (p. 403).

The final aspect of professional identity is multicultural competence. Pope and Reynolds (1997) developed a model of multicultural competence for student affairs professionals built around awareness, knowledge, and skills. Of particular relevance to this discussion is multicultural awareness. Two examples of such awareness include “a willingness to self-examine, and when necessary, challenge and change, their own values, world view, assumptions, and biases” and “awareness of their own behavior and its impact on others” (p. 271). Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) further developed this model and stressed the importance of recognizing multicultural competence as both a lifelong process and a deliberate act.

The literature reviewed in this section recognizes the need for reflection in the practice of student affairs professionals and highlight aspects of professional identity that might particularly benefit. Thus the question then becomes, how might one engage in professional critical reflection? This next section of the article discusses the use of journaling as one example of a self-reflective tool for student affairs professionals.

Journals: A Tool for Reflection

Brookfield (1995) discussed using “our autobiographies” as a critically reflective lens, stating “through personal-self-reflection, we become aware of the paradigmatic assumptions and instinctive reasoning that frame how we work” (pp. 29-30). Building on this idea, Cunliffe (2004) recommended journaling as a tool, stating “... journal writing is not just thinking about thinking but thinking about self from a subjective perspective. It requires us to be attentive to our assumptions, our ways of being and acting, and our ways of relating” (p. 418). Indeed, the concept of journal writing has been around for many years (Hiemstra, 2001; Jarvis, 2001) with adult education being one the main fields represented in the literature. Additionally, other authors have discussed journaling as a technique for professional education and development on an individual level (Janesick, 2011; Moon, 2004, 2006; Tennant, McMullen, & Kaczynski, 2010; Thorpe, 2004) or even as a collaborative project (Alterio, 2004).

Hiemstra (2001) identified several potential benefits of journal writing including: personal growth and development, intuition and self-expression, problem solving, stress reduction and health benefits, and reflection and critical thinking. Hiemstra also discussed various examples of journal formatting including, but not limited to, learning journals and professional journals. While each format has a unique nuance, mostly in terms of the

topical focus of the reflection (educational experiences, professional development), any of the formats discussed could be adapted for use by student affairs professionals. Interested readers are directed to the special issue of *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education* (English & Gillen, 2001a) on “Promoting Journal Writing in Adult Education” for more insights into Himestra’s (2001) work and that of several other scholars in the field of adult education. In particular, the final piece in this issue by English and Gillen (2001b) identified several additional resources for those interested in learning more about the process of journal writing.

My interest in using journals developed out of a recent study in which I asked the 11 participants (all student affairs professionals) to keep a brief journal during the second phase of data collection. One of the main purposes of this study was to explore how student professionals understood, performed, and recognized regulations of gender and sexuality. While this second phase of the study was not intentionally designed to explore the usefulness of journaling or the importance of critical reflection, the experience of keeping the journal became the primary topic of discussion in all 11 follow-up interviews. And although a few participants indicated some initial hesitancy with the act of journaling, all 11 participants described the process as beneficial. For example, this first participant described how the journal increased this professional’s overall awareness:

I guess with the journal, that probably more than anything just kind of helped my own awareness of some of the different facets, some of the different areas, and things like that. Just greater sensitivity to the different things that were happening. Maybe you know they happen all the time anyway but you’re just not aware of it. ... It doesn’t really have much meaning to it. But when you’re actually actively looking for it, kind of probing for it on a day-to-day basis your sensitivity to it becomes kind of heightened. ... You start to reflect on it differently. You recall things that usually slip by. (O’Panther, personal communication, January 19, 2011)

This second quote highlights how journaling helped this professional become more intentionally reflective and even identify the desire for behavioral change:

I realize that I have in the past, deliberately acted in stereotypical ways that conformed to the role that others expected me to play. ... Why did I do this? And why do I still find myself doing it? Because I want to be accepted and valued by others, so I will act in ways that ensure I will obtain those rewards. ... However, participating in this

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study has made me see that such conforming behavior is over the long term damaging.... I have begun to see that if people's attitudes and understanding are going to change, they need to see the real me/us. ...I am beginning to look for ways to 'push back' against the role I have inadvertently created for myself and to express myself as I truly am and not how others perceive I should be. (Bill, personal communication, July 1, 2011)

These two quotes represent aspects shared by many of the participants, increased awareness and opportunity for reflection. These are certainly important aspects to consider if student affairs professionals are truly interested in being "good company" (Baxter Magolda, 2002, p. 3) for students who are on their own self-reflective journeys.

Conclusion: Potential Barriers and Recommendations

It is important to note that there may be some initial hesitancy, as experienced by some of the participants in my study, or even other more substantial barriers to engaging in critical reflection. Thompson and Thompson (2008) identified six potential barriers to reflective practice including: time constraints; waning commitment; organizational culture; a lack of appropriate skills; anxiety, fear or low confidence; and misunderstanding the nature of reflective practice. Several of these barriers are mentioned by other scholars as well, particularly the issues of time (Jarvis, 2001; Thorpe, 2004) and of organizational culture (Brookfield, 1995). However, as recommended by Brookfield, making critical reflection a professional habit and building it into the institutional reward system may help address these issues.

The purpose of this article has been to bring to light the importance of providing opportunities for student affairs professionals to engage in critical reflection. As stated previously, the conceptualization used in this article is based on the works of several authors (Brookfield, 1995; Cunliffe, 2004; Mezirow, 1998; Schon, 1983) and refers to the intentional process of critically examining our professional experiences in order to identify aspects such as our assumptions, beliefs, and behaviors. The presence of reflection in the student affairs literature was also addressed to highlight the relevance of this discussion to the field. Finally, the use of journals as one example of how to engage in critical reflection was discussed.

In conclusion, I would like to mention a few recommendations for moving the topic of professional critical reflection forward in student affairs. First, while all 11 participants who completed journals in my

study reported benefitting in some way from the process, the study was not designed to focus on journaling, thus additional research intentionally focused on the usefulness of journal writing as a tool for self-reflection is needed. Second, I previously mentioned six potential barriers to critical reflective practice as identified by Thompson and Thompson (2008). Future research should explore the barriers experienced specific to student affairs professionals and how to remove any obstacles. Finally, additional research is needed on the potential risks and benefits of critical reflection for both professionals and institutions. By recognizing and mitigating potential risks and promoting benefits, individuals and institutional leaders can make arrangements to more effectively incorporate critical reflection into the professional practice of student affairs.

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Parent versus Peer Attachments: An Explicit and Implicit Measurement of Internal Working Models

Brigitta Vieyra

Student development theory has historically not been concerned with the role of parents on student growth at the collegiate level (Bowden, 2007; Hiester, Nordstrom, & Swenson, 2009; Taub, 2008). Conversely, attachment development theories view parents as key stakeholders in the student development process and such theorists contend parental relationships promote student autonomy and positive adaptations to college for students (Hiester et al., 2009). This paper utilizes attachment theory as a lens for student development by examining how multiple attachment figures influence individuals during the college years by specifically comparing parent and peer attachment preference in undergraduate students. It is anticipated that attachment is relational in nature and associated with specific contextual factors.

Attachment theory has profoundly shaped psychological research and theories concerning the nature of human relationships from womb to tomb. The premise of attachment theory is that humans form emotional bonds to survive in infancy and these bonds form mental representations of the self and of others to help humans predict, engage, and respond to the environment in attempts to establish a sense of felt security (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000). Attachment continues to play an important role in people's lives beyond infancy by affecting coping skills, social competencies, romantic relationships, and even self-identities well into late adulthood (Mikulincer & Florian, 1998).

The bonds that facilitate self-representations and how one relates to others are described as internal working models (IWMs). IWMs are believed to function automatically at an unconscious level as they guide one's memories and interpretations that later shape one's mental schema (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000). Although continuous throughout short time spans, IWMs "evolve substantially from infancy to childhood and adulthood . . . to become more complex and sophisticated as children develop more abstract cognitive abilities" (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000, p. 162). Currently, evidence is inconclusive on which organization best describes the IWM of attachment. As a survival-based, behavioral phenomenon, IWMs are most likely to be activated when a threat to one's sense of self is perceived (e.g. separated from attachment figures, in distress or experiencing interpersonal conflict) because once threatened

an individual will turn to an attachment figure to reestablish security, however, “no studies to date have examined the automatic activation of working models” (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000, p. 162).

Attachment in Young Adulthood

During adolescence, individuals develop formal operational thinking and are able to compare and contrast multiple attachment figures and evaluate their relationship with parents (Myers, 1998). Although this period of reflection is difficult for parents during the teenage years, it is a necessary period when adolescents are able to confront difficulties in their relationships with parents and potentially form resolutions which may help adolescents develop a more secure attachment before transitioning out of the home and into adulthood (Allen, 2008).

Late adolescents (ages 15 to 17) start to develop full-blown attachment relationships to their peers (most often their boyfriend or girlfriend) and peers start to replace parents as primary sources of emotional security. This attachment relationship with a peer more profoundly develops when the couple engages in sexual activity because oxytocin (the chemical basis for attachment) is released during sexual climax. If this intimate interaction is repeated, a chemical, attachment-like bond will begin to develop (Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). This biological phenomenon supports Ainsworth’s original assertions that the sexual pair bonds that begin in adolescence are often the first new, principal attachment figures other than the mother or father; however, “this does not mean that attachment to parents has disappeared” (Ainsworth, 1989, p. 713).

Research findings reiterate attachments to parents continue to function as IWMs well into emerging adulthood. Rice, Cunningham, and Young (1997) examined how attachment to parents influences emotional adjustment through social competence in college students transitioning into emerging adulthood. Their results suggest for both Black and White students, attachment to the mother is not a significant predictor of emotional well-being or social competence. For men, attachment to the father was a more important predictor than the mother; father-adolescent bonds are important for social and emotional development in Black and White male adolescent attachment development. For women, attachment to both the mother and father was important in predicting social competence (Rice et al., 1997).

Much work has been done to examine what factors influence changes and stability in attachment during emergent adulthood as young adults leave the home for the first time. Davila, Burge, and Hammen’s

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(1997) longitudinal study found that for emerging adults entering college, changes in attachment style appear to be more frequent among unhealthy or insecure (rather than healthy and secure) attachment styles. As such, individual differences make one more susceptible to changes in attachment style because certain individuals are more prone to attachment style fluctuations. Lopez and Gormley (2002) parallel these findings with results showing adult attachment styles during the first-year of college are moderately stable for students who maintain a secure attachment as they are more confident in their abilities to attract and engage with a romantic partner and have significantly more effective problem coping skills.

Going away to college is a significant life event filled with anxiety and stress as young adults are away from parents for a significant amount of time. Past research contends as attachment to parents declines, independence increases in individuals as they start to develop self-schemas outside of their caregivers as peers step in to alleviate feelings of abandonment and anxiety (Allen, 2008). For example, senior undergraduates are more adjusted to college life and they are more confident in their skills outside of the home than first-time college students. If senior undergraduates are more independent than first-time freshman, they might also be less attached to parental figures and more attached to their peers. Therefore, this study predicted (a) freshman undergraduate students would have stronger attachments to parental figures than peers (best friend and romantic partner) compared to senior undergraduates and (b) senior students would have stronger attachments to peers over parental figures compared to first-time freshman students.

Some researchers propose that emotional reactivity underlies the affective processes of IWMs. Affect glues information within the mental representations, acting as an organizing force in how people behave and think about relationships (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000). Additionally, individuals with secure attachments are able to use their attachment figure as a supportive, responsive, and caring secure-base compared to less securely attached individuals. For this reason, it was expected that (c) if an individual has a more secure attachment to a parent than to a peer, he or she would have stronger automatic preferences for the parent, especially when primed with a negative emotion, and, thus, the individual is more likely to hold positive attitudes towards the parental attachment figure. In this way, the opposite results were also anticipated—(d) if an individual has a more secure attachment to a peer than their attachment to a parent, he or she would have a stronger automatic preference for the peer in the negative condition, and is more likely to hold positive attitudes toward

this affectional (best friend or partner) attachment figure. It was expected that this would be the case in both the group paired with their most secure peer and most secure parent and the group paired with their least secure peer and least secure parent. This was anticipated because the implicit preference in both groups should match their explicit attachment level of their most secure figure (whether an insecure or secure attachment).

Most past empirical research only examines how negative life events impact changes in attachment styles and psychological knowledge is lacking with respect to how positive life events affect attachment style fluctuations. For this reason, (e) there was no hypothesis for how the positive, priming condition would affect attachment figure preferences as research in this contextual condition was exploratory.

Method

Participants

The participants were 45 undergraduate Westminster College students (17 males and 28 females; 17 freshman, 5 sophomores, 11 juniors, and 12 seniors), ranging from 18 to 22 years of age, who were currently in a heterosexual, romantic relationship for at least three months. The majority of participants were recruited through psychology classes and some were given extra credit as an incentive to participate. In addition, participants were entered into a raffle for a chance to win a cash prize of \$100, \$75, and \$50.

Materials

A self-designed screening and demographics questionnaire was utilized and each participant's responses were assigned a random code to use as their identity to protect confidentiality. Fraley's Relationships Structures (RS) Questionnaire was employed to measure attachment patterns in four attachment figures—mother, father, romantic partner, and best friend. The RS Questionnaire is a nine item version of the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) Questionnaire by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) designed to target attachment styles in specific relationships (Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, under review). To provoke an emotional dilemma, three situational priming devices were used to trigger attachment processes in neutral, negative, and positive contexts.

A self-designed Attachment Implicit Association Test (IAT) measured participants' implicit associations of positive and negative words and attachment figures. Stimulus materials for the concept included cartoon-

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pictures of a mother, a father, a same-sex best friend, and a romantic partner. Positive and negative attributes (good and bad adjectives) came from pre-designed IAT demonstration tests (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 2008). The stimulus sets used were participant-specific in respect to gender—each participant’s best friend stimuli set appropriately matched the correct gender of their same-sex friend. An example of the IAT layout can be viewed in Figure 1.

Design and Procedure

For the hypotheses that first-year students would have stronger attachments to parental figures than peers as compared to seniors and seniors would have stronger attachments to peers over parents when compared to freshman, a between-subjects experimental design employed the independent variable of participant’s academic year (first-year or senior) and the dependent variable of participant’s attachment figure preference (parent or peer). For the hypotheses that examine implicit attachment figure preference and attachment insecurity in three emotional contexts, a within-subjects, 3 (positive, negative, and neutral priming condition) \times 2 (secure versus insecure attachment classification) factorial design with a 2 (parent versus peer) repeated measures within factor served as the independent variables and reaction time (taken from the IAT) was the dependent variable.

Before the experiment began, participants were screened by answering a brief demographics questionnaire to verify they met the requirements (must be in a heterosexual relationship with their partner for at least three months). Screening questionnaires were coded to protect anonymity. Once eligible to participate, the experimenter asked participants to complete a consent form and take the RS Questionnaire individually as a pre-condition classification measurement of attachment style for each attachment figure. To prevent an ordering effect, participant responses to the RS Questionnaire were used to randomly assign each participant into one of six groups (see Table 1 for a listing of groups).

At least twenty-four hours later, participants came back to the lab to listen to a random and pre-assigned contextual situation via a digital recording. If placed in the control condition, participants listened and imaged a neutral (non-emotion-evoking) situation. If placed in the negative context group, the participants listened and imaged an unfavorable situation that included distress, interpersonal conflict, and separation anxiety to trigger negative IWMs. If placed in the positive context group, the participants listened and imaged a favorable situation of sharing a

positive event, receiving encouragement and nurturing to trigger positive attachment representations.

Immediately after being exposed to one of the three conditions, participants took the self-designed Attachment IAT. The Attachment IAT had four versions (mother-best friend, mother-partner, father-best friend, father-partner) and participants took the IAT that asked them to match participant-specific concepts (i.e. for some, the participant's most secure parent and peer and for others, the participant's least secure parent and peer) with specific attributes (positive or negative words).

Each IAT had four phases to assess the automatic preferences for attachment figures by prompting participants to match attributes to concepts as fast as they can by pressing a computer button. In phase one, participants matched positive and negative words with the concept "good" and "bad." In phase two, participants matched relationship-specific cartoon-pictures of attachment figures. For example, a cartoon of a romantic partner or of a father might appear on the screen and participants sorted and matched it with the word "father" or "partner" as fast as they could. In the third phase, the IAT combined each concept (attachment figure) with an attribute (good or bad) and participants were asked to match them appropriately. For instance, a participant matched the cartoon-picture or word that appeared on the screen (either a romantic partner or father cartoon or a positive or negative word) with either partner/good or father/bad. The final phase switched phase three's pairings (i.e. partner/bad and father/good). The more closely an attribute was related to a concept for a participant, the faster he or she responded and sorted the words into their prompted groups.

At least twenty-four hours later, participants came back to the lab and listened to their second contextual condition and completed the same IAT immediately after. The next day, participants returned to the lab for a final time to be placed in the final contextual condition and took a final IAT. After all the tasks were completed, the experimenter debriefed the participant.

The logic of the IAT holds that the faster the reaction time, the more closely an attribute is related to a concept in one's mind. To calculate participant attachment figure preference (which was the dependent variable and referred to as the overall IAT score) the difference in the average response latency between the two combined-phase tasks was computed as a measure of association strength (Hofmann, Gschwendner, Nosek, & Schmitt, 2005). As such, if the relative strength of an association between parent-good and peer-bad is greater than that between parent-bad and

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peer-good, a relative implicit preference for the parent over the peer can be concluded. Because IAT scores were individual difference variables to be correlated with other variables, the IAT was not counterbalanced and the order effect remained constant across all participants to avoid introducing systematic error into the data.

Results

A 2 (freshman and senior) \times 2 (parent and peer explicit attachment scores) ANOVA did not yield significant results. Year in school did not have a significant main effect on overall explicit attachment; freshman students ($M = 2.485$, $SD = 0.188$) showed the same level of attachment insecurity as senior students ($M = 2.238$, $SD = 0.223$), $F(1, 27) = 0.715$, $p = 0.405$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.026$. There was also not a significant effect of attachment figure on explicit attachment insecurity; the parent ($M = 2.458$, $SD = 1.065$) and peer ($M = 2.308$, $SD = 0.731$) attachment figure showed the same level of attachment insecurity, $F(1, 27) = 0.470$, $p = 0.499$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.017$. But most importantly, attachment figure preference did not have a significant, interactional effect on year in school; being a freshman or senior undergraduate student did not influence one's preference for an attachment figure: $F(1, 27) = 0.437$, $p = 0.514$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.016$.

A 3 (low, medium, and high peer attachment scores) \times 3 (low, medium, and high parent attachment scores) \times 2 (IAT type—most secure parent/peer and least secure parent/peer) ANOVA on overall IAT scores in the negative condition was conducted. None of the main effects for each variable analysis or the two-way interactions were significant. Most important, however, is that the three-way interaction between the variables was also not significant, $F(2, 28) = 0.243$, $p = 0.786$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.017$.

For the positive context, a 3 (low, medium, and high peer attachment scores) \times 3 (low, medium, and high parent attachment scores) \times 2 (IAT type—most secure parent/peer and least secure parent/peer) ANOVA on overall IAT scores in the positive condition was run. Again, none of the main effects for each variable analysis and the two-way interactions were significant. For the three-way interaction, the main effect was not significant, $F(2, 28) = 0.813$, $p = 0.454$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.055$.

A 3 (low, medium, and high peer attachment scores) \times 3 (low, medium, and high parent attachment scores) \times 2 (IAT type—most secure parent/peer and least secure parent/peer) ANOVA on overall IAT scores in the neutral condition was also conducted. Like the above results, there were no significant main effects for the three-way interaction, $F(1, 29) = 1.189$,

$p = 0.319$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.076$. In review, all of the three-way interactions show an indication that college students holds similar attitudes towards both attachment figures (parents and peers) when negatively, positively, and neutrally, emotionally primed.

Discussion

In this study, the hypothesis that freshmen would be more attached to parents and seniors would be more attached to peers was not empirically supported. Results from this study may suggest that one's newly formed attachments to peers during college do not decrease one's attachment to parents. Increases in independence away from parents did not make one significantly less attached to parental figures or significantly more attached to peer figures. Although past research demonstrates independence increases in individuals as they start to develop self-schemas outside of their caregivers (e.g. go to college), the findings from this study propose that caregivers continue to function as IWMs well into emerging adulthood.

In addition, the hypotheses that individuals with a more secure attachment to a parent than to a peer will have stronger automatic preferences for the parent and conversely that individuals with a less secure attachment to a parent compared to a peer will have stronger preferences for the peer, were not supported in any of the emotional contexts. Perhaps this is because the difference between the two explicit attachment scores of the most secure/most insecure parent and peer were not of a great enough difference. Some people may have reported small or great discrepancies between their attachment insecurity to their parent and peer. In this way, the results support assertions that if an individual holds secure attachments with both parents and peers, there will be little to no automatic preference between the two attachment figure representations because they are able to use both attachment figures as a supportive, responsive, and caring secure-base compared to less securely attached individuals. Subsequently, the opposite is also suggested by the insignificant results—if an individual holds less secure attachments with both parents and peers, there will be little to no automatic preference between the two attachment figure representations, even when placed in varying emotional contexts.

Pietromonaco and Barrett (2000) claim that affect glues information within the mental representations which acts as an organizing force in how people behave and think in their relationships—emotion reactivity and emotion regulation are underlying affective processes of IWMs. There was no significant interaction between attachment preference (parent versus peer) and the primed, emotive positive, negative, and neutral

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contexts. The priming device attempted to change participant attitudes in hopes of revealing an attachment preference, thus placing a new layer of feelings over older layers. On an explicit level, a participant may have been able to report the primed, contemporary attitude. However, the implicit measurement aimed to probe into deeper layers, which could have numbed out the primed emotion. In this way, the insignificant difference between the three contextual conditions could have been a structural issue.

Moreover, the insignificant findings may also suggest IWMs operate in similar ways for positive, negative, and neutral situations. Such findings contrast with previous studies that suggest “implicit attitudes...often shift in relation to the current situation and new learning” (Lane, Banaji, Nosek, & Greenwald, 2007, p. 81); implicit attachment preferences did not show flexibility based on the primed, emotional circumstance which is a novel finding. Or, perhaps the self-designed contextual situations did not appropriately prime participants. Consequently, improvements to this study would include a more powerful emotive, priming technique.

Overall, this study demonstrates that explicit and implicit attachment measurements are divergent. This finding mirrors past literature that finds implicit and explicit measurements to have low correlations (Blair, 2001; Fazio & Olson, 2003; Hofmann et al., 2005). Such findings may indicate attitude dissociation (Greenwald, Banaji, & Nosek, 2006; Greenwald & Nosek, 2008). Although one may think that a person prefers one figure over another consciously, the findings from this study show one uses parent and peer figures equally as sources of emotional security (both in high and low levels of attachment insecurity)—even when one is probed and primed to implicitly identify a preference for one over the other. Such dissociations suggest that people have multiple ways of expressing preferences and circumstances depending on which state of mind—conscious or unconscious—is dominant at the time (Greenwald & Nosek, 2008; Nosek & Banaji, 2009).

It is important to note that the insignificant findings from this study are not to argue that implicit tests are inaccurate. A review of IAT literature proposes that IAT measures reliably report a person’s implicit cognitions and predict behavior (Greenwald et al., 2002; Poehlman et al., 2005; Lane, et al., 2007). Instead of discounting IATs, one should examine the variance unique to this measurement that could have contributed to the implicit-explicit inconsistency.

For the explicit measurement, participants considered statements and evaluated their feelings toward them on a Likert Scale, forming a

personal opinion on the subject matter. For the implicit measurement, participants evaluated and categorized items in a correct/incorrect fashion. Therefore, no personal opinion was formed in the IAT, unlike in the explicit RS Questionnaire. With regard to this, some researchers could argue the present study differed in measurement features and thus, had low structural correspondence. Payne, Burkley, and Stokes (2008) found that when explicit and implicit tests are equated in a structural level, “the divergence between them [evaporates], leaving implicit and explicit tests highly correlate[d]” (p. 30). Future research utilizing explicit and implicit measurements of attachment should consider being well-matched in measurement features.

In addition to the priming technique and unequal measurement structure, there were some additional limitations to the study that could have acted as confounding variables. On a biological level, attachment to a partner can form when oxytocin is released during sexual intercourse. Participants were not screened for sexual activity with partners and thus, some participants may not have had a chemical, attachment-like bond with their partner—some attachments to significant others may have been weaker than others based on this chemical component of attachment. Moreover, the cartoon-picture sets were of happy images, which could have influenced participant sorting of pictures into positive and negative concepts. In retrospect, this limitation could simply be eliminated by making the cartoon-pictures more emotion-neutral.

Implications for Student Affairs

This study’s findings are made relevant to student affairs practitioners when one considers the influences parents have on their student’s college experience. Howe and Strauss’ (2003) report that 90% of current college students—the Millennial Generation—report themselves as being very close to their parents; approximately 80% of traditional college students said they had conversed with their parents in the past day (Taub, 2008). Ernest Boyer described parents’ increasing level of involvement in campus communities as indicative of a “post-in loco parentis” era (Daniel, Evans, & Scott, 2001). These involved parents have been labeled as “helicopter parents” and some professionals in higher education criticize such parent involvement for interfering with student development of competence by depriving students of opportunities to struggle through challenges and gain self-confidence (Howe & Strauss, 2003). Chickering (1969) described student autonomy as beginning with a disengagement from parents and a shift to relying on peers with finally a complete independence from others. However, as this present study indicates, a student’s attachment to their

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parents may not be less significant in college and as such, student affairs practitioners must find creative ways to make sure attachments to parents do not inhibit, but support social and interpersonal competence in student development.

Seeing as how student attachment to parents remained relatively stable in the college experience of participants in the present study, it appears that students can develop autonomy and competence without experiencing Chickering's break from parents. Research suggests that healthy student attachment to parents can actually aid student development for traditional-aged college students as healthy attachment to parents was found to be a positive indicator of academic, personal, social, and emotional first-year adjustment to college (Hiester et al., 2009; Lapsley, Rice & FitzGerald, 1990; Scott & Daniel, 2001).

More knowledge is needed to understand how higher education systems can work with parents "rather than for or against them, in the process of developing students toward autonomy" (Cohen, 1985, p. 13). Student affairs practitioners should focus plans to call for a mutual dependence among all stakeholders in a student's success, which includes parents and families. Coburn (2006) advocates educating parents about their role in student development theory to foster student success. Such collaboration proposes a change in student affairs culture in which parents and families are no longer viewed as obstacles in the way of student learning, but instead as "allies in the goal of developing the holistic student" (Bridges, Heiman, Hyer, Wright, & Heiselt, 2011). Parent and Family Service Centers are a place where this collaborative partnership can begin to evolve into proactive centers of outreach to make the college experience more enjoyable for all stakeholders involved in the ever-changing needs of students.

Conclusion

Attachment theory has significantly developed from its original ideas, but there are critical areas still needing to be researched and clarified, especially the area of unconscious attachment measurement. Future research should continue to explore how multiple attachments influence individuals and become integrated into IWMs. Not much research exists on outcomes of multiple attachments and thus, it is difficult to predict how they influence individuals. In addition, researchers could expand upon how contextual events shape attachment style fluctuations and an individual's preference for an attachment figure. Furthermore, because attachment to parents does not decline with the independence gained from the college

experience, student development research and practice should continue to investigate attachment theories and the potentially positive impact parental involvement can have in student development and competence.

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Table 1

Group	First Lab Visit	Second Lab Visit	Third Lab Visit
1	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery
2	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery
3	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery
4	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery
5	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery	-Most Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery
6	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Neutral Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Negative Imagery	-Least Secure Parent/Most Secure Peer -Positive Imagery

Six Groups of Participants

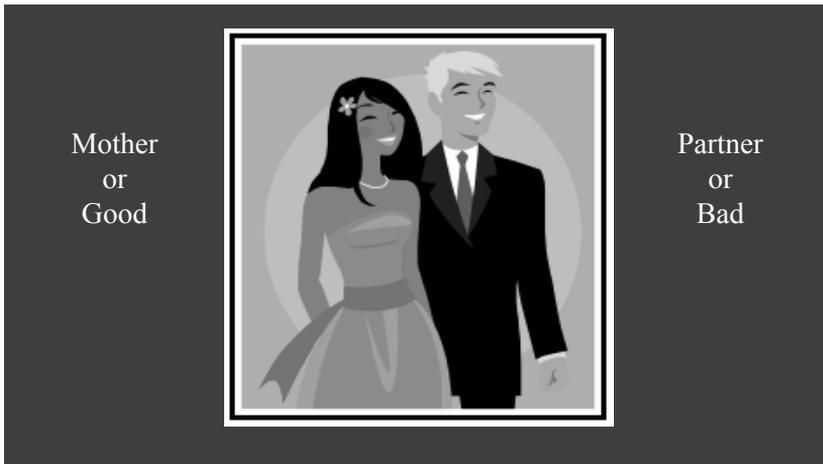


Figure 1. Example of the self-designed attachment IAT. After a picture or word appeared in the middle of the screen, participants were asked to sort it as fast as they could into the two corner categories by pressing the appropriate button. In this example, the picture is of a romantic partner, so a participant would need to sort the picture into the “Partner or Bad” group on the right because it is a picture of a romantic partner. If a picture of a mother or a positive word (i.e. pleasure) popped into the center screen, the participant would be prompted to sort it into the left corner.

Elucidating a Transition in Upper-Division College Student Perceptions of Leadership

Dustin L. Gee

Throughout the history of American higher education, colleges and universities have conveyed a fundamental obligation to educate and to prepare civic-minded leaders well versed in democratic ideologies (Astin & Astin, 2000; Burns, 1970; Giroux & Giroux, 2004; Rost, 1993). This approach to education is noted as early as the colonial period when colleges were established to ensure the progression of responsible leaders for both church and state (Komives & Woodard, 2003). Most recently, Astin and Astin (2000) assert that it is imperative for institutions of higher learning to develop men and women during their college years so that they are equipped to solve problems, to think critically, and to serve as social change agents. This attention to college student leadership development is evident in a vast majority of institutional mission statements, which uphold a new practice of leadership that is to be fostered throughout the undergraduate experience.

Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) assert that a major change in leadership literature over the past decade has resulted in the development of alternative paradigms to examine and argue for a particular style of leadership needed in the postmodern era. More so, Dugan (2006) mentions, “scholars have developed an array of theories to describe the phenomena, and a clear evolution of thought has led to the identification of two paradigms” (p. 217). As described by Rost (1993), these two paradigms are industrial and post-industrial. Each paradigm embraces distinct ideologies.

The Industrial Leadership Paradigm

According to Rost (1993), the industrial school of leadership is characterized by qualities such as structural-functionalist, male-oriented, individualistic, focused on the leader only, goal-achievement-dominated, utilitarian in ethical perspective, and rationalistic. The industrial paradigm is grounded in the idea of leadership as good management because as Rost (1993) notes “good management is the apex of industrial organizations, the epitome of an industrial society, and the... embodiment of an industrial culture” (p. 94). Industrial leadership is considered powerful because of its deep embedding within social structures and hierarchy, as well as leadership mythology.

Today the industrial leadership perspective is being challenged by a

myriad of institutions, scholars, and practitioners because in a world of changes, leadership and management are no longer classified as the same thing. Yet, in many instances one sees society using them interchangeably. Being a manager by title does not make you a leader. As a result of such challenges, these individuals have established a new leadership paradigm that asks us to examine our understanding and teaching of leadership so that it will make sense in a post-industrial world (Rost, 1993).

The Post-Industrial Leadership Paradigm

Despite the fact that leadership and management are used interchangeably, the industrial leadership paradigm has come under critique because models of collaborative learning, ongoing self-development, and asking critical questions are highlighted more in organizational and team settings than models categorized under the industrial view (Davis, 2003; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Komives & Woodard, 2003). Rost (1993) argues that the post-industrial paradigm will become the mainstream leadership paradigm in the twenty-first century.

Astin & Astin (2000) reaffirm Rost's belief by expressing that the industrial leadership model no longer serves society's current needs, nor does it equip college students with the skills to "address complex problems, build bridges, and heal divisions" (p.31), a belief shared by others (Dugan, 2006; Komives & Woodard, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Rost, 1993). The post-industrial perspective explicitly promotes the values of social justice and service (Greenleaf, Frick, & Spears, 1996), personal empowerment (Komives & Wagner, 2009; Komives & Woodard, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002), collaboration (Kouzes & Posner, 2002), and citizenship (Giroux & Giroux, 2004). These values are in tension with the industrial paradigm.

An example of post-industrial leadership in action is exhibited in the relational leadership model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007) which focuses on five components: (a) process, (b) purpose, (c) inclusive, (d) ethical, and (e) empowering. Frameworks such as the relational leadership model have been instrumental in shaping the post-industrial paradigm because it guides undergraduates in letting go of traditional notions of leaders as people who act upon followers and instead calls each person in a group to action (Komives, Wagner, 2009). Similarly, the social change model of leadership development (Komives & Wagner, 2009) is yet another post-industrial example that emphasizes mutually defined purposes, collaboration, and lifelong learning processes to create change. Juxtaposed with industrial leadership, post-industrial models provide new

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ways of “leading, relating, learning and influencing change” (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005, p. 593).

Looking Toward the Future: The Argument for a New Paradigm of Leadership

Rost (1993) argues that Western society is in a state of transition between the two paradigms because “the values built into the industrial paradigm are not going to be the ones that support a transformed Western civilization in the post-industrial world” (p. 100). This shift is important because it indicates that the values, skills, and attitudes associated with the industrial paradigm are no longer adequate to elucidate the conception of leadership today (Komives & Woodard, 2003; Rost, 1991). For this reason, post-industrial leadership has elicited a robust response from most colleges and universities to integrate corresponding values throughout the undergraduate curricular and co-curricular environment (Brungardt, Greenleaf, & Arensdorf, 2006; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006; Posner, 2004). Yet, this is not to assume that industrial leadership will be replaced or abandoned, because some situations may call on or require industrial leadership.

Scholars seldom examine and assess for the presence of post-industrial values among undergraduate students. To ensure that students are cultivating postindustrial values, research must provide insight into whether and how college students define, practice, and exert a post-industrial leadership perspective (Allen & Cherry, 2000; Komives & Woodward, 2003A). This is critical given the literature regarding college students’ perception of leadership is lacking (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006). Particular attention should be given to upper-division college students because they are closer to workforce entry, and may be more likely to embody projections of institutional leadership. The purpose of this study is to investigate how upper-division college students at a private liberal arts institution perceive leadership and identify the presence of industrial or post-industrial paradigms.

Research Design & Methodology

Qualitative methodology was selected for this study to understand college student perceptions of leadership, and to determine if those perceptions align with an industrial or post-industrial leadership perspective. Upper-division students were recruited through nominations by administrators who acknowledged them as campus leaders, with the requirement that they hold junior or senior status. Three focus groups

were conducted consisting of three to five upper-division students. Focus groups were selected as the preferred choice of methodology for this study because “group discussions provide direct evidence about similarities and differences in the participants’ opinions and experiences as opposed to reaching such conclusions from post hoc analyses of separate statements from each interviewee” (Morgan, 1997, p. 10). Furthermore, Morgan (1997) states a notable strength of focus groups is “their reliance on interaction in the group to produce the data” (p. 15). The three focus groups conducted were highly moderated and used a conversation guide to gain answers to twenty pre-determined protocol questions. The focus group questions sought not only *what* participants thought about leadership, but *how* they thought about leadership and *why* they thought about leadership the way they do. Each participant was assigned a number to protect his or her identity.

Limitations

This research is limited for at least three interrelated reasons. First, qualitative research is used to describe and examine, which inherently limits the number of participants. Second, since administrators nominated participants, the results do not necessarily reflect perceptions of leadership among less involved upper-division students at this institution. Third, this study was conducted at one institution, so the results may be different if a similar study were conducted at a different site.

Analytic Procedure

Transcripts from each focus group were transcribed and subsequently reviewed for categories and inferences that were later coded based on the researcher’s theoretical understanding and orientation to the literature. After transcribing three focus group discussions, the data were sorted, organized, and indexed into three categories: (a) persons and objects associated with leadership, (b) words and phrases associated with leadership and (c) the purpose of leadership. Attention was given to student leadership associations, stereotypes, and practices. An interpretive and reflexive approach to reading, analyzing, and indexing focus group transcripts resulted in the construction of two categories: how upper-division college students make sense of leadership and the direction they believe leadership will take in the future (See Figure 1.1). These two categories consistently and strategically address the purpose of this study. From these two categories a more refined set of questions emerged. The researcher asked participants to reflect on questions such as: what words and images do you associate with leadership, what is the purpose of

leadership, and what skills should leaders possess.

Based on participant responses and the dialogue regarding these questions, thirteen themes emerged and were examined and categorized based on their association to either industrial leadership or post-industrial leadership. In the end, the thirteen themes were blended together resulting in two distinct binaries: binary 1 - positional leadership versus relational leadership; and binary 2 – leadership is about outcome versus leadership is about process (See Figure 1.1). Binary 1 and binary 2 repeatedly occurred throughout the thirteen themes and indicated that the key perceptions underlying each binary are in conflict with one another, but appear together in participant responses. In other words, participant responses conflate elements of industrial (positional & outcome) with post-industrial (relational & process). This paper focuses on the findings of binary 1 only, as it adequately addresses the research question.

Findings and Discussion

Participant responses support both industrial and post-industrial leadership characteristics, but the data suggest a shift from the former to the latter. Most participants indicated that their individual understanding and perceptions of leadership were informed and influenced primarily by co-curricular involvement in student clubs and organizations, but also academic course work, professors, and mentors. The findings suggest that participant perceptions of leadership are viewed through two specific contexts that support industrial leadership: leadership is about one individual and certain skills/qualities are needed to be a leader (See Figure 1.1). At the same time, participants communicate key values that are prominent to post-industrial leadership through three relational elements: people-centered, inclusive, and everyone has the potential to be a leader (See Figure 1.1),

Positional Leadership

Shertzer and Schuh (2004) found in their research study on college student perceptions of leadership that undergraduates perceived leadership to be something a single person does. Relatedly, participants in this study associated leadership with one individual holding a title or position of power and authority with formal positions in an organization or were popular culture entertainment icons (e.g., “Lady Gaga,” “Angelina Jolie,” “Taylor Swift”) to politics (e.g., “Barack Obama,” “George W. Bush,” “Hillary Clinton,” “Adolf Hitler”).

Participants frequently used words that were associated with a title

to describe leadership like: (a) “captain,” (b) “professor,” (c) “president,” (d) “coach,” (e) “resident assistant,” (f) “scientist.” These words were documented and tracked through asking questions such as who are leaders, what words do you associate with leadership, and who is the person you most admire as a leader. Student One, a senior studying politics and communication, stated, “The strongest leadership example is Martin Luther King because he had to lead a group in a very intense situation” (personal communication, November 2009). Another participant, Student Two, a history major and football player remarked, “That’s just my idea. A leader is leading a group of people. Giving them direction and showing them which way to go” (personal communication, November 2009). Participants associated leadership with one person, a formal title, or position of power and authority-- seldom discussing leadership as being a group, team, or organizational responsibility/effort and confirming active use of the industrial paradigm, which aligns with the descriptions used in the literature to describe industrial leadership.

Participants also described leaders as individuals that possess certain skills and qualities. In fact, participants discussed the skills and qualities leaders should possess, noting most frequently the “ability to be authoritative.” Participants articulated that holding authority and being authoritative was a prerequisite for success in nearly all leadership roles. Student Three elaborated on why she thinks leaders need to be authoritative: “You need to be able to look the part pretty much. When you are at work, you need to give that image of, I’m sorry, but it’s authority. You need to have respect” (personal communication, November 2009). Participants named the skill of authority as a way to affirm that leadership is positional. In contrast, post-industrial leadership emphasizes a nonhierarchical approach that communicates authority is not necessary.

Among the three focus groups, the word “authoritative” was referenced or directly stated twenty-three times. This reflects the industrial paradigm of leadership and its grip on several of the individuals who participated in the focus group discussions. Overall, the sentiment from participant responses is best summarized by Student Two who said, “If you don’t possess [these skills and qualities]. If you are not driven, or outspoken, or afraid to go away from the norm then I think you are just a part of a group” (personal communication, November 2009). In effect, Student Two meant that a leader must be separate from a group, supporting industrial leadership.

Relational Leadership

At the same time that participants assert leadership is positional and emphasize “authority” as the most prominent skill, they argue that leadership is relational. Following authoritative, “relational” (20 references) was the second most commonly mentioned skill/quality participants felt leaders must demonstrate. This relational element characterizes post-industrial leadership. Although industrial leadership can be relational, participants discuss and define “relational” in a context that supports post-industrial leadership. This finding was exposed by participants when discussing the relational elements of leadership as being: people-centered, inclusive, and everyone has potential to be a leader (See Figure 1).

When participants responded to the question, what is the purpose of leadership they repeatedly indicated that leadership is not about being self-serving; instead, it is about being people-centered. Student Four confirmed this finding when she explained,

A leader...[is] someone who lives for more than themselves. There is going to be people who are for the good of the group. I think you can... tell that distinction when they are working solely for their profit than for the people who are working because it is going to better someone else or something else (personal communication, November 2009).

It was inferred from participant responses that when they described leadership as relational, they meant it was concerned with being people-centered. Like Student Four, several participants described leadership as being concerned with bettering the lives of others and placing people at the center of everything a leader does.

More so, participants suggested that leaders ought to be people-centered because leadership is about “seeing potential in others,” “helping others,” “getting others involved,” and “making people feel safe.” Interestingly, Student Five, a junior studying global health, noted, “I think to be perfectly honest sometimes I became a leader because I saw the way things were happening and I didn’t like it. I wanted to make things better ...and make everyone’s experience involved better (personal communication, November 2009).

Student Three connected leadership as a combination of being people-centered with having visionary leadership and as she described, “Looking at the way things are... and being an advocate for things that need to change” (personal communication, November 2009). Student Eight, a junior and the president of Hillel, also commented, “...I was always shy

and timid and there was always people who were there to support me and encourage me. So now that I am a leader... I view my role as kind of encouraging others” (personal communication, November 2009). This response, along with the above participant quotations, shows that certain participants view leadership as being concerned with “us or others” versus “the self.” It shows that they are moving away from the notion that leadership is positional and onto a new understanding that leadership is about assisting others in recognizing their full potential.

The second element discussed by participants was that in order for leadership to be relational it must also be inclusive. Participants expressed this using descriptors like “diversity,” “open-mindedness,” and “fairness.” For example, Student Five commented, “I think a leader has to be open to diversity in different ways of thinking about things” (personal communication, November 2009). These descriptors of inclusive leadership were equated with acknowledging and appreciating diverse views, values, and opinions. In contrast to the positional leadership framework where an ethos of “It’s my way or the highway” is validated, these descriptions of inclusive leadership support the relational post-industrial paradigm. Participants also described “listening” as one of the primary skills needed for effective leadership and creating inclusive environments. The way participants recognize the need for leaders to be both attentive and assertive indicates how much they value communication skills that promote the inclusion of others. As indicated in the relational leadership model by Komives, Lucas, & McMahon (2007), inclusion is a characteristic of post-industrial leadership.

The final element participants associated with relational leadership was “everyone has the potential.” Student Six, a junior and student leader for Big Brothers Big Sisters avowed, “My perspective is everyone has the potential to be a leader” (personal communication, November 2009). This finding was noted several times throughout the focus group transcripts. For example, Student Seven, a senior elementary education major, argued, “I think everyone can be a leader.... In some ways everyone probably leads someone at some point in time, whether it’s for good or bad” (personal communication, November 2009). In these responses, participants assert that leadership has a connection to everyone and raises awareness that all members of society have the potential to be a leader. In summary, the analysis of focus group transcripts revealed that based on three relational elements: people-centered, inclusive, and everyone has the potential to be a leader, participants articulate key values aligned with post-industrial leadership.

Conclusion

This study found that upper-division college students are in transition from industrial to post-industrial leadership, as evidenced by the hybrid mix of interpretations of leadership. The data revealed conflicting and paradoxical views as participants at this particular institution discussed leadership. Participants consistently talked about leadership using an amalgam of industrial and post-industrial characteristics (positional vs. relational). More so, the findings also suggest that there is value in studying and understanding college student perceptions of leadership to learn about how students think, talk, and practice leadership. By examining student perceptions of leadership this study provides evidence of a transition in leadership paradigms while also raising the question of whether college and university institutional goals for developing civic-minded leaders are being met. The present research offers two particular implications.

Implications

Given college and university missions to develop leaders, it is important for higher education administrators to question how and whether their institutional environments shape students perceptions of leadership. In addition, higher education stakeholders should focus specifically on the area of student affairs given the importance of co-curricular experiences for participants in this study. In effect, student affairs administrators, especially advisors of student organizations, should at least take into account post-industrial leadership principles since many students are learning and exhibiting leadership in semi-structured extra-curricular activities. Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen (2005) tell us, “Experiences in which students intentionally learned about leadership, such as trainings, retreats, or classes, provided them with their language and ideas that aided their development” (p. 598). One way student affairs staff might do this is to invest in resources and allocate funds that enable community service and service-learning offices to develop more domestic and international immersion programs. When developed strategically, these high-impact learning experiences are capable of exposing students to key values of post-industrial leadership (e.g., collaboration, service, citizenship, commitment, and reflective practices).

A final implication derived from this study is the crucial need for higher education to view the entire college as a leadership development laboratory (Boatman, 1999). More so, the results from my study propose that liberal arts colleges would benefit immensely from conducting what Boatman (1999) calls, “a leadership audit” (p. 326) and is defined as “a

systematic, comprehensive, and objective process to describe and evaluate leadership experiences at a particular college or university” (Boatman, 1999, p. 326). By conducting a leadership audit, institutions may be better able to describe and evaluate student leadership experiences and devise effective solutions for enhancing leadership development opportunities.

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