

IUSPA JOURNAL

Indiana University Student Personnel Association



2014

*Journal of the Indiana University
Student Personnel Association
2013-2014 Edition*

Indiana University Student Personnel Association Officers	2
Editors & Advisors of the Journal	3
Awards & Honors	4
Editors' Comments <i>Stephanie T. X. Nguyen & Woody Lawson</i>	5
The Representation of Alcohol Consumption in the <i>Indiana Daily Student's</i> Coverage of the Little 500 <i>Rachael I. Amick, Charles L. Donaldson, Jr., Anna K. Krause, Janine M. Myers, and James C. Thomas</i>	7
The Rise and Fall of Campus Mascots at Indiana University <i>Jennifer N. Nailos</i>	27
The Effects of Anticipatory Grief on Intrapersonal Development <i>Matthew L. Fenstermaker</i>	40
The Birth of Music at Indiana University <i>Cynthia Cogswell</i>	48
Tweetful Meaning: Student Perceptions of Twitter and Institutional Tweets <i>Kristin M. Bentrem, Karen McNulty, Courtney Rousseau, Josh VanBibber, and Isabella Villacampa</i>	59
HESA Gift Campaign & Giving Information	78

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Letter from the Editors

Stephanie T. X. Nguyen and Woody Lawson

We are proud to present the 2013-2014 Journal of the Indiana University Student Personnel Association (IUSPA Journal), which is a publication of original scholarly works in the field of student affairs. The IUSPA Journal has a long tradition of providing an opportunity for Higher Education and Student Affairs (HESA) master's and doctoral students to publish in a peer-reviewed public forum. First debuted in 1967, the Journal has also featured numerous articles by HESA doctoral students, alumni, and others associated with the program. To keep up with modern trends in technology and education, the Journal made the move to an online format in 2010 and is now available to a much wider audience through the *IUScholarWorks* database, a service provided by the Indiana University Digital Libraries Program. We are also proud to present the entire digital archives, which include original publications from 1967 to the most recent issue of the IUSPA Journal available on *IUScholarWorks*. We hope that you will not only enjoy but also be intellectually challenged by the excellent student scholarship you will find in the 2013-2014 Journal and on our *IUScholarWorks* digital archives.

Both timely and relevant to 21st century higher education and student affairs, this edition features articles on historical perspectives of Indiana University as well as case studies observing the personal development of students and their perceptions of both the digital and constructive environments of higher education. "The Effects of Anticipatory Grief on Intrapersonal Development" explores the intersection of the bereavement process with student identity development while providing student affairs professionals with insights for ways to support students who lose a loved one. Readers will get a glimpse into the history of Indiana University through the development of our institution's mascot in "The Rise and Fall of Campus Mascots at Indiana University" and through the start of the music program in "The Birth of Music at Indiana University." In "The Representation of Alcohol Consumption in the *Indiana Daily Student's* Coverage of the Little 500," the article's authors explore student perceptions regarding risky behaviors surrounding one of Indiana University's student-constructed holidays. Finally, the authors of "Tweetful Meaning: Student Perceptions of Twitter and Institutional Tweets" examine the digital construction of the Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis campus via social media.

As editors of this year's IUSPA Journal, we would like to thank the 16-member review board, our graphic designer, the online publishers, and our advisor, Dr. Danielle DeSawal, for their generous dedication to creating a quality publication that upholds HESA's legacy of strong scholarship. Several months of time and effort are required from all who contribute to the Journal's publication, and for this, we are very appreciative. The Journal would not be possible without the continued support of the Indiana University Student Personnel Association, financial contributions from alumni, and additional resources from the HESA program. With this support, the Journal is able to provide a unique opportunity for master's and doctoral students to showcase their scholarship and experience the publication process.

We hope you are as excited to read through the scholarship presented in this year's Journal as we are in bringing it to you. Please enjoy the 2013-2014 Journal of the Indiana University Student Personnel Association!

Stephanie T. X. Nguyen is a 2014 M.S. Ed. graduate of the Indiana Higher Education & Student Affairs IU HESA master's program. She received a B. A. in marketing and a concentration in piano performance, cum laude, from the University of the Notre Dame in 2009. For three years, she worked as the Asian American admissions recruiter for University of Notre Dame Undergraduate Admissions. At Indiana University, Bloomington, Stephanie worked as a graduate assistant in Career Services for the School of Informatics and Computing, completed a practicum in the Office of the President for the Board of Acons and the Undergraduate Career Services Office in the Kelley School of Business.

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The Representation of Alcohol Consumption in the *Indiana Daily Student's* Coverage of the Little 500

Rachael I. Amick, Charles L. Donaldson, Jr., Anna K. Krause, Janine M. Myers, and James C. Thomas

College student alcohol consumption increases during student-constructed holidays, leaving a lasting impact on campus culture and student experiences. To analyze the portrayal of alcohol consumption in college newspapers, this study examines the coverage of alcohol consumption in the Indiana Daily Student (IDS) during the Little 500 bicycle race at Indiana University. After a review of 10,738 IDS articles, the results provide student affairs practitioners with insights about student perceptions regarding risky behavior during student-constructed holidays.

Alcohol use is prevalent on college campuses (Stupiansky, 2008) and has been an “important part of the American college experience since the eighteenth century” (Vander Ven, 2011, p. 8). Fifty percent of students have consumed five or more alcoholic drinks in one sitting at least once in the previous month (Hingson, Zha, & Weitzman, 2009). Based on results from a self-reported questionnaire in 2002, 31% of college students met the criteria for alcohol dependency (Knight, Wechsler, Kuo, Seibring, Weitzman, & Schuckit, 2002). In addition to typical drinking behaviors on college campuses, alcohol use increases during major campus and community special events (e.g. Homecoming) and personal celebrations like birthdays (Lefkowitz, Patrick, Morgan, Bezemer, & Vasilenko, 2012; Rutledge, Park, & Sher, 2008). On Indiana University’s (IU) Bloomington campus, the annual Little 500 bicycle races and the related unofficial and official events (Indiana University Student Foundation, 2013a) is an example of a large student-constructed holiday.

Students believe that college newspapers represent a college community (Armstrong & Collins, 2009; Gaziano & McGrath, 1987). College newspapers typically cover campus events and holidays. This coverage influences students’ perceptions of campus culture, which includes alcohol consumption (Lefkowitz et al., 2012). Previous literature indicates that students overestimate alcohol consumption among their peers (Marshall, Roberts, Donnelly, & Rutledge, 2011; Perkins, 2003) and that newspapers influence standards for acceptable behavior (Smith, Twum, & Gielen, 2009).

This study illustrates how the depiction of alcohol during a student-constructed holiday, Little 500 at IU, has changed over time by analyzing the portrayal of the event in the student-run, university-affiliated newspaper, the *Indiana Daily Student (IDS)*.

Literature Review

The following literature review covers three main topics to provide background for the present study. First, we cover

alcohol consumption on college campuses and the reasons it is an important issue in higher education. Second, we explore campus events and their impact on campus culture, specifically regarding the Little 500 at IU. Third, we address the role student newspapers have on college campuses in regard to alcohol use and provide context specifically for the *IDS*. These sections provide comprehensive background information necessary to analyze changes over time in the depiction of alcohol consumption during Little 500 in the *IDS*.

Alcohol Use on College Campuses

Ample research in higher education examines alcohol use and its consequences (Core Institute, 2013b; Hingson, Heeren, Winter, & Wechsler, 2005; National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, 2002; Seaman, 2005; Vander Ven, 2011). Although there is a great deal of information in this area, most of it originates from one source – the Core Institute and National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) National Advisory Council, the leading reputable sources on alcohol consumption by college-aged students. In a 2013 study of college student drinking habits, 69.0% of the students surveyed reported consuming alcohol in the last 30 days, and 81.4% of the students surveyed reported consuming alcohol in the last year (Core Institute, 2013b). For students between the ages of 16-20, 63.4% reported consuming alcohol within the last 30 days (Core Institute, 2013b). These results indicate that both those under and over the legal drinking age of 21 consume alcohol frequently.

Students on college campuses consume alcohol through various patterns, including binge drinking. The

NIAAA National Advisory Council (2007) defines binge drinking as “a pattern of drinking alcohol that brings blood alcohol concentration (BAC) to 0.08 gram-percent or above” (p. 2). Binge drinking negatively affects the efforts of colleges. This type of drinking not only impairs student safety and quality of living but also the institution’s reputation, relationship with the surrounding community, and overall academic environment (NIAAA, 2002; Seaman, 2005). The Core Institute (2013b) found that more than two of every five students (44.8%) reported binge drinking at least one time in the two weeks prior to completing the survey (Core Institute, 2013b).

Another pattern of drinking behavior among college students is pre-partying. The definition of pre-partying is drinking before going to a main social event where alcohol could be difficult to obtain (Bosari et al., 2007). This behavior is considered a high-risk activity, because pre-partiers are more likely than students who do not pre-party to reach higher alcohol-blood levels and experience more alcohol-related consequences, including personal problems and public misconduct (LaBrie, Hummer, Pedersen, Lac, & Chithambo, 2012).

In the last year, 22% of surveyed students reported alcohol-related personal problems (Core Institute, 2013b). Personal problems include, but are not limited to, personal harm and/or injury, suicide ideation, an inability to stop drinking, and sexual assault (Core Institute, 2013b). Additionally, heavy alcohol use among American college students is associated with death and physical injury (Saylor, 2011; Schaus et al., 2009). The NIAAA estimates that every year 500,000 students are accidentally injured while under the

influence of alcohol (NIAAA, 2002). In order to obtain the emergency medical help needed to address these consequences and injuries, students require the assistance of hospital personnel, emergency medical departments, campus police, resident assistants, and other students (Oster-Aaland, Lewis, Neighbors, Vangness, & Larimer, 2009). At institutions where more than half of the student population binge drinks, college administrators have major concerns about increased numbers of reports of student experiencing serious personal problems as a result of their alcohol consumption (Lefkowitz et al., 2012; Seaman, 2005; Vander Ven, 2011).

Also, alcohol consumption can lead to public misconduct, which includes fights, arguments, interactions with police, vandalism, driving under the influence, and other forms of misconduct (Core Institute, 2013b; Park, 2005). Thirty-three percent of surveyed students reported that they were the victim of or had participated in public misconduct due to drinking or drug use in the year prior to completing the study (Core Institute, 2013b). Similar to serious personal problems, research on the relationship between alcohol consumption and public misconduct of college students shows that each year more than 600,000 students are assaulted by another student under the influence of alcohol (Core Institute, 2013b), 110,000 students are arrested for alcohol-related violations (Hingson et al., 2002), 2.8 million students drive under the influence of alcohol (Core Institute, 2013b), and nearly 11% of student drinkers report vandalizing property under the influence of alcohol (NIAAA, 2002).

Similar to findings from research on alcohol use and student behavior, students believe drinking plays a major

role in the social lives of their peers. However, student beliefs about their peers' alcohol consumption and their peers' reported alcohol consumption do not always align (Lefkowitz et al., 2012). One strand of research regarding students' perceptions of their peers' use of alcohol is social norming, which is perceptions of common and acceptable behavior (Marshall et al., 2011; Perkins, 2003). Generally, students overestimate their peers' alcohol consumption (Marshall et al., 2011; Perkins, 2003). Approximately 82.5% of surveyed male students believed that alcohol constituted a large part of other students' social lives (Core Institute, 2013b). Additionally, 73.1% of surveyed female students believed that alcohol constituted a large part in the majority of other students' social lives (Core Institute, 2013b). Overall, 85.7% of students surveyed believed the majority of students on their campus consumed alcohol at least once a week, while only 69.0% of college students reported actually consuming alcohol during the last month (Core Institute, 2013b).

For some college students, perceptions of drinking influence the relationship between alcohol consumption and social situations, because drinking yields a number of perceived benefits that overshadow the problems generated by alcohol consumption. Some of these perceived benefits include exerting social class, strengthening relationships with peers, active socialization, romantic encounters, stress relief, and acceptance among some peer groups (Lefkowitz et al., 2012; Park, 2004; Park & Grant, 2005; Seaman, 2005; Vander Ven, 2011). Students repeatedly report both positive and negative consequences for typical, non-holiday periods (Core Institute, 2013b, Park,

2004; Park & Grant, 2005; Seaman, 2005; Vander Ven, 2011) as well as for holidays and special occasions (Lefkowitz et al., 2012).

Student-Constructed Holidays

Besides the typical drinking patterns on college campuses, college student alcohol consumption increases during traditionally observed holidays accompanied by breaks, such as Spring Break, Thanksgiving, and New Year's Day (Lefkowitz et al., 2012). In addition to these traditional holidays, college student drinking increases during special celebratory events, such as sporting events and 21st birthday parties (Lefkowitz et al., 2012; Neighbors et al., 2007; Neighbors et al., 2011). Student-constructed holidays are a less studied type of holiday or celebration but is equally important. Both "spontaneous and idiosyncratic" (Lefkowitz et al., 2012, p. 324), student-constructed holidays are occasions specifically created for or by a campus population of students. Characterizations of student-constructed holidays include event-specific risk-taking behaviors, similar to the previously mentioned holiday examples (Lefkowitz et al., 2012). These holidays include both positive (e.g. increased social opportunities) and negative behaviors (e.g. increased binge drinking) related to alcohol consumption (Lefkowitz et al., 2012).

There are many examples of student-constructed holidays across the United States. Students at Syracuse University celebrate May Fest, which signifies the end of school and beginning of spring (About, 2013). This celebration includes a large block party with alcohol allowed and available to students (About, 2013; Rivoli, 2013). Students at Missouri University of Science and Technology

celebrate the "Best Ever" St. Pats. Alumni and students celebrate during this week of activities, which includes street painting, follies, fraternity shillelagh contests, and green beer (Ehrhard, 2013; St. Pat's 2014, 2014). In Bloomington, IN, students similarly celebrate a week of activities, which is Little 500.

Little 500. Little 500 is a student-constructed holiday at IU and a major part of the campus culture (Schwarb, 1999). The IU Student Foundation, which is a philanthropic leadership organization that works to support IU and create enthusiastic students and alumni through campus events, started the Little 500 bicycle races in 1951 (Indiana University Student Foundation, 2013a). The Little 500 races, the largest collegiate bicycle races in the country, raise scholarship money for students (Indiana University Student Foundation, 2013a). Over time, Little 500 grew to encompass races for men and women, university-sponsored events leading up to the races, and activities to promote socializing between students (Schwarb, 1999). Celebrations begin with the qualifying races for biker aspirants approximately one month before the official Little 500 races (Indiana University Student Foundation, 2013b).

Over time, Little 500 developed into a largely popular social event and became known as the "Greatest College Weekend" (Schwarb, 1999). The title of "Greatest College Weekend" can be traced back to the event's advertisements from the mid-1950s (Schwarb, 1999). The combination of the bicycle races, weekend social events, excessive drinking, and coverage on Music Television (MTV) created this reputation (Schwarb, 1999). Similar to the student-constructed holidays Lefkowitz et al. (2012) discussed, "the

festive parties and events surrounding the [Little 500 races] are characterized by intensive alcohol use" (Stupiansky, 2008, p. 26-27). Stupiansky's (2008) sample group of IU students in 2007 indicated that alcohol consumption was greater during the week of Little 500 than the week before or the week after.

Considering the previous research on alcohol use, student-constructed holidays, and Stupiansky's (2008) examination of Little 500, the authors believe that analyzing student newspapers provides an interesting and alternative methodology, which focuses on student voices surrounding the event.

Media and Student Newspapers

Print media focuses on topics that interest readers and influences the standards for acceptable behavior (Smith, Twum, & Gielen, 2009; Yankovitzky & Stryker, 2001). Although media has great power, few media content analysis studies specifically focus on alcohol consumption (Smith, Twum, & Gielen, 2009). Yankovitzky and Stryker (2001) determined that media could indirectly affect youth binge drinking by increasing the social acceptability of this dangerous behavior. Furthermore, Lyons, Dalton, and Hoy (2006) found that young adult magazines show alcohol consumption and binge drinking as "normative and cool, adult and professional" (p. 229). These findings indicate that media can make a difference in young adults' beliefs about normal behavior, and these beliefs then can influence a young adult's behavior.

Few recent works of literature have examined the coverage and reporting of alcohol consumption, specifically in college newspapers. In a study of student newspapers in 1994 and 1995, Atkin and DeJong (2000) discovered that alcohol was mentioned in approximately one of

every two college newspaper issues published in the United States. The content of the alcohol coverage varied in frequency. Some of the mentions of alcohol were in multiple categories (Atkin & DeJong, 2000). Three-fourths of the alcohol articles related to social, legal, safety, or health issues; one-fourth related to drug and alcohol education; one-fifth related to basic alcohol education information; and very few related to detection, intervention, or treatment for alcohol-related problems (Atkin & DeJong, 2000).

College newspapers mirror the general media in their ability to influence their readers, and they typically have high credibility and wide readership on the home campus (Armstrong & Collins, 2009; Atkin & DeJong, 2000). Additionally, college students view college and local newspapers as equally credible (Armstrong & Collins, 2009), and they believe that campus newspapers better engage student readers and represent the college community (Armstrong & Collins, 2009; Gaziano & McGrath, 1987). Because of these factors, student newspapers play a significant role in the campus event information transmitted to students. Additionally, the student newspaper acts as a student perspective on campus experiences, because they are student run. At IU, the *IDS* is the published, student perspective on campus.

The Indiana Daily Student. The *IDS* started publishing newspapers in 1867, and it became an auxiliary unit that was editorially independent from IU in 1969 (*IDS*, 2013a). With a current circulation of approximately 14,000, more than 300 locations on campus and in the wider campus community carry the *IDS* in addition to its online presence (*IDS*,

2013b). Most student contributors to the *IDS* study at the Ernie J. Pyle School of Journalism (A. Forray, personal communication, October 28, 2013). However, any student, staff, faculty, or community member can contribute to the printed or online version of the *IDS* via a letter to the editor.

Because the *IDS* is an independent student organization, all newspaper staff members are students. Therefore, examining *IDS* publications provides a clear idea of the social statement the organization makes about alcohol use and the drinking culture on campus. As previously mentioned, students believe that campus newspapers represent the college community (Gaziano & McGrath, 1987). Additionally, articles mentioning alcohol consumption published in the *IDS* before, during, and after Little 500 are relevant to the student perspective. As a way to understand student-constructed holidays, such as Little 500, analyzing the *IDS* would be an interesting and relevant addition to higher education and student affairs literature, specifically when looking at changes event's portrayal since its inception.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the *IDS*'s depiction of alcohol use during Little 500 festivities over time. More specifically, the following research question guided the authors: how has the pattern of coverage of alcohol consumption during Little 500 in the *IDS* changed over time in frequency and topic?

Method

The authors read, coded, and analyzed *IDS* articles from three-year periods in the 1970s, 1990s, and 2010s to examine the

depiction of alcohol consumption during Little 500. The sections below will include explanations of the rationale for selecting the three periods and the authors' quantitative approach that was used in the study.

Periods of Time

All *IDS* issues were obtained from the microfilm and archives departments in the main library on IU Bloomington's campus. The authors selected articles from three periods of time: 1974 to 1976, 1993 to 1995, and 2011 to 2013. The authors chose three-year periods to gain an understanding of a period's characteristics, as opposed to characteristics of one specific year. These periods were chosen for three reasons. First, the *IDS* became an auxiliary unit that was editorially independent from Indiana University in 1969 (*IDS*, 2013a). Prior to that time, journalism students at IU were required to work on the *IDS*, and they received course credits and a grade for their work. Due to the close relationship between the *IDS* and the School of Journalism, independent student voices concerning alcohol coverage were possibly limited. Therefore, the authors chose periods after 1969 to ensure that all articles selected for the study were printed when the *IDS* was editorially independent. The authors assumed that the governance and editorial oversight of the *IDS* remained the responsibility of students during the periods in which the articles were published.

Second, the authors included a recent period in order to analyze current depictions in the *IDS*. Therefore, the authors chose to select issues from 2011 to 2013, as those are the most recent years of Little 500. In order to effectively examine the depiction of alcohol

consumption over time, the authors analyzed the largest span of time possible since editorial independence took root. However, the authors included a five year buffer period to allow for editorial consistency after the 1969 transition to an auxiliary unit. Therefore, the authors chose to analyze articles from 1974 to 2013, which is approximately four decades.

Finally, the authors wanted to analyze a period that fell between the 1974 to 1976 and 2011 to 2013 periods in order to gain a greater understanding of trends within this wide timespan. After evenly dividing the years between 1976 and 2011, the 1993 to 1995 period was selected. Selecting 1993 to 1995 also allowed the authors to analyze periods approximately the same distance from the passage of the National Minimum Drinking Age Act of 1984. According to the Act, all states must comply with a minimum legal age of 21 for the purchase or public possession of alcoholic beverages (Liebschutz, 1985). While Indiana previously had a minimum drinking age of 21, students from other states attend IU as well. During the semester following the law's adoption, the law possibly had an effect on students who came to IU from states or countries where the previous minimum legal age was lower than 21. The authors assume that the campus drinking culture was in flux immediately prior to and immediately after the law was enacted. Therefore, the first two periods selected, 1974 to 1976 and 1993 to 1995, allow a significant amount of time between the studied years and the passage of the National Minimum Drinking Act of 1984.

Procedure

The authors read and analyzed articles 30 days prior to and 10 days after

the races for the designated academic years. The authors chose 30 days prior to the event because the Little 500 qualification races, the races determining which teams will ride in the main Little 500 event, have historically occurred within 30 days of the Little 500 main events (J. Bailey, personal communication, September 3, 2013). Therefore, the authors believed that articles referencing the Little 500 events would be prevalent beginning at that time. The authors chose to examine *IDS* issues up to 10 days after the races, because Little 500 is one of the last campus social events prior to finals week and the end of the spring semester (Schwarb, 1999).

In order to examine the depiction of alcohol consumption during Little 500, the authors used a quantitative approach to reading, coding, and analyzing *IDS* articles from three periods. The authors focused on articles specifically linked to Little 500 and alcohol consumption. The authors scanned for items that utilize previous research, such as alcohol-related violations (Myhre, Saphir, Flora, Howard, & Gonzalez, 2002) and negative consequences of alcohol consumption (e.g., hangovers and injuries) (Core Institute, 2013b). Additionally, many of the concepts to be coded were chosen because of the authors' para-professional experiences with students during the Little 500 event (e.g., Greek life, police involvement, student pre-partying). For a complete list of codes and definitions, refer to Appendix A.

The authors conducted a preliminary scan of the April 1997 *IDS* issues in order to determine which concepts they would add to the coding definitions. This trial consisted of three authors examining each article together, discussing which concepts were represented, and

identifying themes in the articles that were not represented in the codes. The authors chose to focus only on certain sections of the *IDS*. Therefore, this study excludes the “Around the World” section, the “Around the Region” section, Associated Press articles, nationally published comic strips, and classifieds. While these sections might contain articles about alcohol consumption, it is unlikely that the focus would be on alcohol consumption pertaining to Little 500.

The authors indicated whether the concept is present in the article (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*). There is one measure, *substance*, which is indicated in a non-binary code in order to specify the type of alcohol (1 = *beer*, 2 = *mixed drink*, 3 = *wine*, 4 = *shots*, 5 = *hard liquor* [if not in mixed drink or shot form], 6 = *malt liquor*, 7 = *other* [please specify], 8 = *unknown*). The authors also indicated the issue number, article title, and section. The authors briefly summarized each article and made note of any pertinent quotes or overarching themes relevant to the study. All of these items are documented in a spreadsheet.

All five authors were randomly assigned to code approximately one third of all the analyzed issues of the *IDS* with two authors coding each year’s issues. Randomization minimized the effects of different coding styles to ensure a decreased systematic influence that acts as a confounding variable. In order to decrease possible human error in coding and differences in coding styles, the authors reviewed issues from multiple periods. According to the literature, multiple individuals coding the same material increases reliability (Pelham & Blanton, 2007). After finishing the coding process, the authors reconciled any differences that appeared in the data.

Descriptive statistics illustrate overall patterns, changes in patterns, trends, and depiction of alcohol consumption over time. The authors examined the frequency of the different concepts, pulled quotes and comments to determine the perspective in *IDS* articles mentioning alcohol use related to Little 500, and considered relevant the historical context to provide a logical frame.

Results

In total, 10,738 *IDS* articles were reviewed for this project. About 4,450 articles were reviewed from the 1974 to 1976 period, 3,777 were reviewed from the 1993 to 1995 period, and 2,511 articles were reviewed from the 2011 to 2013 period. The average number of articles per *IDS* issue decreased over time: 51.2 from 1974 to 1976, 39.8 from 1993 to 1995, and 28.2 from 2011 to 2013. The proportion of articles that mentioned Little 500 and alcohol use separately in relation to the total number of articles increased steadily over time. During the 1974 to 1976 period, there were 58 (1.3%) articles that mentioned alcohol use and 150 (3.3%) articles that mentioned Little 500. From 1993 to 1995, 170 (4.5%) articles included references to alcohol use and 308 (8.1%) articles included references to Little 500. From 2011 to 2013, 163 (6.5%) articles included references to alcohol use and 283 (11.3%) articles included references to Little 500. These results indicate articles that include both alcohol and Little 500 have become more prevalent in recent years (2011 to 2013).

The number of articles that included references to both alcohol use and Little 500 also increased overtime: 8 (.18%) from 1974 to 1976, 41 (1.1%) from 1993

to 1995, and 65 (2.6%) from 2011 to 2013. The total of all these articles is 114. Therefore, the 1970s contained the least coverage of Little 500 and a lower association of alcohol and Little 500. Conversely, the greatest coverage was found in the three most recent years. Additionally, 35 (30.7%) of the 114 articles that were coded came from the Opinion section, 28 articles (24.6%) came from the Front page, 10 articles (8.8%) came from the Little 500 special edition,

and 41 articles (35.9%) came from other sections.

Table 1 contains emergent themes of articles that mentioned both alcohol use and Little 500. The three most prevalent themes were negative consequences (67), police (52), and Greek affiliation (34). The three least common themes were pre-partying (6), emergency/ medical assistance (6), and binge drinking (18). In regards to the substance theme, unknown and beer were the most prevalent substances coded.

TABLE 1

Themes in Data by Year

Themes	1974-1976	1993-1995	2011-2013	Total
Binge	2	3	13	18
Emergency/Medical	0	0	6	6
Greek	5	13	16	34
Negative	2	27	38	67
Police	0	30	22	52
Positive	2	7	28	37
Pre-partying	0	2	4	6
Substance (substance known)	6	19	23	48
Substance: Beer	4	18	17	39
Substance: Mixed Drink	1	1	6	8
Substance: Wine	1	1	2	4
Substance: Shots	0	1	3	4
Substance: Hard Liquor	0	1	6	7
Substance: Malt Liquor	0	0	1	1
Substance: Other	0	0	7	7
Substance: Unknown	3	19	41	63
Underage	1	20	10	31
Total Articles Coded:	8	41	65	114

For the 1974 to 1976 period, 8 articles were coded, and Greek was the most prevalent theme. Specifically, 5 of the 8 articles (62.5%) that mentioned both alcohol use and Little 500 also included references to Greek affiliations, such as fraternities and/or sororities. Binge drinking, negative consequences, and underage drinking were other themes that emerged in articles during the 1970s period. Emergency/medical assistance, police, and pre-partying were three themes that were not mentioned in articles reviewed. In addition to the themes that emerged, the authors noted that mention of alcohol use was directly related to the Little 500 races, such as discussions of riders refraining from consuming alcohol during training periods and individuals consuming alcohol during the actual race.

During the 1993 to 1995 period, police emerged as the most prevalent theme in coded articles. In 41 articles that mentioned both alcohol and Little 500, 30 articles also referenced police (73.2%). Negative consequences and underage drinking were the second and third most prevalent themes that emerged in articles that mentioned both alcohol use and Little 500 during the 1990s period. Specifically, 27 of the 41 articles (65.8%) referenced negative consequences and 20 of the 41 articles (48.9%) referenced underage drinking. Emergency/medical assistance was the only theme that was not mentioned in articles that were coded during the 1990s period. When coding the articles from 1993 to 1995, the authors noted that there were several mentions of previous Little 500 races. The authors also observed warnings of “no tolerance policies” and an increase in articles such as “A Real Look at Little 500” (Rand,

1993). In this opinion article, the author states, “We’ve got everyone but the ‘World’s Greatest College Weekend’” (Rand, 1993).

In the 65 articles coded from the 2011 to 2013 period, a negative consequence was the most prevalent theme. In the articles that mentioned both alcohol use and Little 500, 38 of the 65 (58.5%) referenced negative consequences. Police, Greek affiliation, binge drinking, and underage drinking were other prevalent themes in these articles. Specifically, 22 of the 65 articles (33.8%) referenced police, 16 of the 65 articles (24.6%) referenced Greek affiliation, 13 of the 65 articles (20.0%) referenced binge drinking, and 10 of 65 (15.4%) of the articles referenced underage drinking. Found in Table 1, only the 2011 to 2013 period referenced all themes coded. Additionally, there was great emphasis on the Little 500 concert during the 2011 to 2013 period.

Examples of the prevalent themes from 2011 to 2013 are vivid. In an article titled “Sex and the Common Man,” the *IDS* reporter states that the entire Little 500 week is the “pinnacle of college debauchery” and that “students have been trying to outdo, outlast and outdrink each other” (Mech, 2011, p. 4). Another article explores the “terrible concerts and binge drinking” that occur during Little 500, noting that concerts and binge drinking led to drunken fights (Jackson, 2012, p. 7). Additionally, Robert Weith, the Director of Residential Operations at the time, was quoted explaining that floor lounges and computer rooms would be locked because “historically a bunch of folks, not necessarily residents, will end up coming in intoxicated and crash there” (Aronson, 2011, p. 8). These examples capture the prevalent themes through a

more qualitative perspective, providing a view into student perceptions of Little 500 and alcohol consumption through the *IDS*.

Discussion

The analysis of the student newspaper allowed the authors to conceptualize alcohol use in relation to a major campus event over various periods, which provided insights into campus culture and student experience. The results gathered provide student affairs practitioners with a deeper understanding of the ways in which student created media depicts alcohol use surrounding student-constructed holidays. By using this form of analysis, the authors constructed a method that allowed them to identify several themes and assess changes in alcohol depiction in relation to Little 500 over time. The results indicated that from 1974 to 2013 the percentage of articles including references to alcohol and Little 500 increased steadily throughout the analyzed periods of time. In the articles that contained both alcohol and Little 500, coding revealed that the top three prevalent themes were negative consequences, police, and Greek affiliation.

In the 1970s, Greeks comprised the majority of students involved in race activities, (Schwarb, 1999) and understandably, Greek life was the most prevalent theme in coded articles. Greek life as a prevailing theme can be attributed to the type of media coverage the race received during this time. In the 1970s, media depicted the focus of the weekend as the Little 500 races and included discussions between Greek students and students who lived in residence halls. Beginning in the early 1990s, coverage focused less on the races

and shifted to portray a party atmosphere surrounding Little 500. Mainstream media, including MTV's coverage of the 1991 Little 500 event, possibly caused this shift. The most prevalent theme in the 1990s was police. A likely explanation for this prevalence is that in 1991 (two years prior to the coded years), MTV stationed in Bloomington in order to cover Little 500. This event resulted in riots, requiring a greater police presence to get the event under control (Schwarb, 1999).

In the 1990s, there were multiple references in the *IDS* to increased police presence and a zero tolerance policy for underage drinking. These two themes were possibly an effect from the riots intentionally included to curb the amount of illegal behavior and increase the safety of participants. For example, police officers discussed in a 1993 article titled "Area Police Gearing Up for the Little 500 Chaos" the ways in which they would crack down on driving under the influence and underage drinking during Little 500 (Poyser & Ross, 1993). Another important factor to consider is that the 1990s articles were published after the Drinking Act of 1984, which established a nation-wide legal drinking age of 21. Because Indiana University is an institution that attracts students from across the nation, the change in the national drinking age was possibly new for out-of-state students, who come from states where the drinking age was lower. Consequently, there could have been an increased focus on underage drinking, because the same behavior was not nationally considered illegal ten years prior. Again, this theme could run parallel to the national change to and enforcement of the new drinking age to crack down on underage drinking on college campuses across the nation.

Finally, the most prevalent theme in the 2010s was negative consequences, which can be accredited to the increased knowledge of the effects of alcohol consumption on college students across the nation from multiple sources (Core Institute, 2013b; Engs, Diebold, & Hansen, 1996; Hingson, Heeren, Zakocs, Kopstein, & Wechsler, 2002; Hingson, Zha, & Weitzman, 2009; Wechsler et al., 2002). Between 2002 and 2011, the NIAAA created many initiatives targeting college and underage drinking, such as the Task Force on College Drinking, and the organization published “A Call to Action: Changing the Culture of Drinking at U.S. Colleges, and creating the Underage Drinking Research Initiative” (NIAAA, n.d.). Additionally, the authors observed that a large amount of the Little 500 articles reference the Little 500 concert. The shift in references illustrates the shift in focus from the race to the supplementary events.

The majority of the 114 coded articles were found in the Opinion section and on the front page. Students of the newspaper staff and general student body are contributors to the Opinion section, which allows for a more diverse student perspective of Little 500 and alcohol consumption. Throughout the periods of time, the majority of articles from the 1990s Opinion section were written in protest of the police force. Revisiting Atkins and DeJong (2002), the student perspective of the college culture is communicated in direct opposition to law enforcement and university officials over their actions, such as strict enforcement of underage drinking laws. In addition, the front page contained the second most coded articles, which illustrates that alcohol consumption during Little 500 is represented through front-page news

coverage and entrenched in the campus culture (Atkin & DeJong, 2002).

Implications

This study adds recent empirical support to the literature examining the coverage and reporting of alcohol consumption in student run college newspapers. The frequency of alcohol mentioned in the newspaper articles revealed a trend of increased references over the years. The most prevalent themes further support Atkin and DeJong’s (2002) findings, which indicate that the majority of alcohol coverage content relates to social, legal, safety, or health issues. The current study also provides additional insight into the phenomenon of student-constructed holidays. In this study, the authors examined the ways in which the historical context of Little 500 framed the general trajectory of the event and its perceived impact on campus culture. Additionally, this context could be used to guide IU student affairs practitioners to return to previous Little 500 observances and celebrations.

This information is relevant to student affairs practitioners not only at IU but also at college campuses across the nation. The study provides a greater understanding of the ways in which student-run campus newspapers portray alcohol use and campus events. This is relevant, because student affairs practitioners can use our transferrable method to proactively challenge alcohol use during campus events. For example, student affairs practitioners can intentionally combat the negative portrayal of events through their own focus on the foundation and purpose of the celebrations by familiarizing

themselves with the messages that students are publishing and receiving about student-constructed events.

Without remission, we acknowledge the limitations that exist within our study. This study offers a generalization of the themes of one student-constructed holiday at one university. The newspaper staff is one group of students, even though sections, such as the Opinion section, allow for submissions outside of the staff. The timeframe of 30 days prior to and 10 days after Little 500 is a short period. Covering all of the years or decades would have provided more data to assess the campus culture and could have yielded different results. Finally, the themes for which we coded were based largely on current literature. It is possible there were few articles that mentioned coded themes, because the themes themselves were not applicable in the 1970s or 1990s.

We acknowledging that future research is necessary. Potential studies of this kind can examine other institutions' unique, student-constructed holidays and large campus events, such as Welcome Weeks and Homecoming. Expanding the research will add to the diversity of empirical data on the topic. As we only coded, reviewed, and analyzed articles that depicted both alcohol consumption and Little 500, other studies could look at the depiction of alcohol in the alcohol

only articles, because these examinations can also yield compelling data. Another extension of the study could be to further break down coding into detailed, specific themes. Adding more detailed coding would provide a better assessment of specific issues that are present in the college culture. Additionally, future research could examine the messages students actually take away from articles that mention alcohol use, because we do not address student perceptions when they are initially exposed to the messages discussed in this study.

While student affairs practitioners can use these results to inform methods for reducing alcohol consumption among college students during student-constructed holidays, they should be cautious when using these findings to fit the specific needs of their institution. Through a thorough examination of the messages that are portrayed in student newspapers, student affairs professionals can become aware of the messages that are not present: responsible alcohol consumption and sober celebrations. The idea of absent messages is an area that administrators can fill in the gaps through discussions about responsible alcohol consumption and foundations of campus events. These discussions could promote safe participation in student-constructed holidays.

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Appendix A

Coding Definitions

Binge Drinking: Any reference to consuming alcohol that brings one's blood alcohol concentration to .08% or above.

The NIAAA National Advisory Council (2007) has defined "binge' [as] a pattern of drinking alcohol that brings blood alcohol concentration (BAC) to 0.08 gram-percent or above" (p. 2). This definition corresponds to a man consuming approximately 5 alcoholic beverages or a woman consuming approximately 4 alcoholic beverages in a span of two hours (NIAAA, 2007). Approximately 44.8% of students reported binge drinking at least one time in the two weeks prior to completing the distributed survey (Core Institute, 2013b), which indicates that binge drinking is prevalent on college campuses. Binge drinking and underage drinking have been viewed as having negative effects on the efforts and purposes of colleges by "compromising the educational environment, the safety of students, the quality of life on campus[es], town/gown relationships, and university reputation" (NIAAA, 2002, p. 8; Seaman, 2005).

Emergency/Medical Assistance: Any reference to emergency medical assistance (i.e. hospital, ambulances, paramedics).

Heavy alcohol use among American college students is associated with death and physical injury, among other things (Saylor, 2011; Schaus et al., 2009). Correspondingly, students who consume alcohol in a harmful manner sometimes find themselves in situations in which emergency medical care is needed. When seeking medical assistance, students have reported using various sources, including hospital/emergency departments, campus police, resident assistants, and another students (Oster-Aaland, Lewis, Neighbors, Vangsness, & Larimer, 2009). Therefore, it can be assumed that *IDS* articles regarding events and incidents associated with heavy consumptions of alcohol also included references to emergency medical assistance.

Greek: Any reference to Fraternity/Sorority Life activity, including, but not limited to, a Greek house, any respective fraternity or sorority chapter, any respective Greek council – Interfraternity Council (IFC), Panhellenic Association (PHA), Multicultural Greek Council (MCGC), or National Panhellenic Council (NPHC) – and/or a Greek affiliated student.

Greek organizations have been deemed "the best environment on campus in which to examine the role of social influence processes on alcohol use and problems" (Capone, Wood, Borsari, & Laird, 2007, p. 318). Greek life and its respective members comprise a "subgroup that consumes alcohol in greater quantities...and emulates a social environment and culture in which drinking alcohol is a key part of life" (Barry, 2007, p. 307). "Fraternity and sorority members have long been shown to be at high risk for alcohol problems" (Park, Sher, Wood, & Krull, 2009, p. 241), which makes Greek students a relevant student population to examine in relation to Little 500 and alcohol consumption.

Negative Consequences: Any reference to alcohol in a negative context, including, but not limited to negative consequences from use.

According to research, a negative context of alcohol “expresses concerns of the hazards of alcohol use or abuse” (Moellers, 2005, p.61). Studies have found various negative consequences of alcohol use reported by college students, such as “hangovers/sickness; unplanned kissing/sexual activity; fighting/arguments; consequences due to another person’s drinking/taking care of others; accidents; aberrant behavior” (Park, 2004, p. 315); saying or doing something one should not/being out of control; trouble with authorities/legal; blacking out; drinking and driving; and bouts of depression (Park & Grant, 2005).

Police: Any reference to Indiana University Police Department (IUPD), Bloomington Police Department (BPD), or the legal system, including, but not limited to, arrest, bail, and DUI/DWI

Because of drinking or drug use, 33% of students reported that they had been a victim of or a participant in public misconduct (Core Institute, 2013b). Alcohol use can lead to personal misconduct, including “trouble with the police, fighting/argument, DWI/DUI, [and] vandalism” (Core Institute, 2013b, p. 2). Based on the aforementioned information in conjunction with Little 500 as a time of “festive parties and events surrounding the [races which] are characterized by intensive alcohol use” (Stupiansky, 2008, p. 26-27), “police” coded in relation to Little 500.

Pre-partying: Also called pre-loading, pre-bar, or pre-gaming; any reference to drinking alcohol prior to attending a social event.

“Occurs when students drink alcohol before a primary social gathering or event” (Borsari et al., 2007, p. 2695). Additionally, the term is synonymous with “drinking prior to entering a social situation where alcohol would be difficult to obtain” (Borsari et al., 2007, p. 2695). Pre-partying is considered a high-risk activity, because students drink alcohol before going to a destination (i.e. party, bar, concert, sporting event) in which more alcohol may be consumed (LaBrie & Pederson, 2008). Pre-partiers are more likely to reach higher alcohol-blood levels and experience more alcohol-related consequences than those students who do not pre-party (LaBrie, Hummer, Pedersen, Lac, & Chithambo, 2012). Because Little 500 is an annual event of high popularity where alcohol cannot be purchased, it can be assumed that the races and associated events involved a significant amount of pre-partying.

Substance: The following substances were coded:

- 1 = Beer
- 2 = Mixed drink
- 3 = Wine
- 4 = Shots
- 5 = Hard Liquor (if not in mixed drink or shot form)

6 = Malt Liquor

7 = Other (please specify)

8 = Unknown

Underage: Any reference to students who are under the age of 21 consuming or possessing alcohol.

Underage drinking is defined as the consumption of alcoholic beverages by anyone who is under the legal drinking age of 21 (Paek & Hove, 2012). Underage drinking is a national issue on college campuses with underage students being much more likely than of-age students to engage in excessive drinking (Wechsler, Dowdall, Davenport, & Castillo, 1995). In fact, Wechsler, Lee, Nelson, and Kuo (2002) estimate that approximately half of all alcohol consumption on college campuses qualifies as underage drinking. With underage drinking being so prevalent on college campuses, it would be expected that it would also be prevalent during the Little 500 event.

The Rise And Fall Of Campus Mascots At Indiana University

Jennifer N. Nailos

College mascots encourage spirited enthusiasm for athletics and unite the campus community through a common symbol (Thelin, 2004). Currently, Indiana University lacks a mascot; however, that was not always the case. Several mascot designs emerged for the university, but none had lasting success. Therefore, Indiana University has embraced the mythical "Hoosier" for their identity. This historical overview of Indiana University's various mascots provides a glimpse of the importance of symbols and identities for the campus.

Let's go Indiana! Whether leading the crowd at football games, making appearances around campus, representing the school in advertisements, or printed on a t-shirt, a mascot serves as a symbol for the students and the university (Eitzen, 2012). Embodying the values and spirit of the campus, mascots are a physical representation of their school. At Indiana University-Bloomington (IU), numerous mascots have entertained crowds at athletic events, yet none survived due to economic limitations ("Students favor idea," 1923) student and public criticism ("Some definite drawbacks," 1967; "Pigskin pride," 1979), and administrative veto (Fishman, 1981). Today, the "Hoosier" represents IU in spirit but not in physical form.

Culture theory helps explain the importance of a mascot for the university, addresses various instances where students used their collective voice to build a unifying campus symbol, describes the adoption of various mascots at IU, and explains what led to the eventual removal of these mascots. According to Kuh and Hall (1993), culture is:

The collective, mutually shaping patterns of institutional history, mission, physical settings, norms, traditions,

values, practices, beliefs and assumptions which guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institution of higher education and which provide frames of references for interpreting the meanings of events and actions on and off campus (p. 2).

The four categories of an organization's culture include artifacts, perspectives, values, and assumptions (Kuh & Hall, 1993; Manning, 1993; Schein, 1992). Artifacts include physical items, environment, symbols, behaviors, ritual, and the "tangible aspects of a culture" (Kuh & Hall, 1993, p. 4; Schein, 1992). Perspectives are defined as "the socially shared rules and norms"; these social conventions are casually referred to as "the way we do things here" (Kuh & Hall, 1993, p. 6). Values "reflect deeply held feelings of a person toward particular things, people, or actions" (Schein, 1992, p. 369). Organization members judge situations and people using their espoused ideals (Kuh & Hall, 1993). Finally, assumptions are the underlying beliefs members use to define their role within the organization, their relationship to others both internally and externally, and the nature of the organization itself (Kuh & Hall, 1993; Schein, 1992).

Emphasis in a culture focuses on the importance of the shared understanding of the cultural elements and their interpretation through action of the members (Bess & Dee, 2012). This historical overview of IU's mascot history highlights the series of campus mascots during the twentieth century with culture theory.

Indiana University History

Founded in 1820, Indiana University-Bloomington grew into a large, public, research university. At its inception, IU served the people of Indiana as a seminary until 1838, and in 1852, evolved to serve as the state's public institution of higher education (Indiana University Bloomington, 2013). Athletics later became a large element of the institution's culture and student life with the installation of the football team in 1886 and basketball team in 1898 (Indiana University Bloomington, 2013). These varsity teams installed and unified campus culture as students, faculty, alumnae/i, and fans congregated at the games, participated in pep-rallies and other traditional spirit events, and cheered on the Hoosiers with the aid of various mascots.

Synonymous with IU, is the nickname "Hoosier," which could have possibly originated as far back as 1825 (Carmony, 1992). Several conflicting origin stories exist: a contractor named Samuel Hoosier hired men to build a canal on the Ohio River, an old English term for the hills of Indiana, the thick accent of settlers asking "Who's here?" when someone knocked at their doors, or violent pioneers who took flesh trophies, including ears, after a brawl (Carmony, 1992). Each story was absorbed into the state and university folklore. By the twentieth century, solid

evidence did not exist as to where the nickname truly began. However, individuals continued to unite under the "Hoosier" moniker.

The desire for a unifying spirit on campus prompted students to look for sources of inspiration for a mascot ("Students favor idea," 1923; "A tradition comes to life," 1952). Known as "Hoosiers," but without clarity as to how this name evolved or what it truly meant, difficulty in actualizing the spirit of the term would present itself. Throughout history, IU attempted to define and depict its identity as Hoosiers and other significant representations. The ambiguity of the name led to challenges not only in defining what it meant to be a "Hoosier" but also in how to represent spirit and identity through a campus mascot.

The Role of Mascots

Mascots are visible representations of an organization's, or in this case a college campus' culture (Kuh & Hall, 1993; Schein, 1996). Kuh and Hall (1993) define culture as:

The collective, mutually shaping patterns of institutional history, mission, physical settings, norms, traditions, values, practices, beliefs and assumptions which guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institution of higher education and which provide frames of references for interpreting the meanings of events and actions on and off campus (p. 2).

Shared cultural values and assumptions are emphasized through the behavior of groups' members (Bess & Dee, 2012) and, in this example, through the IU campus community. In the twentieth century, "the brand of loyalty to one's own campus prompted students to

create distinguishing symbols” (Thelin, 2004, p. 158). Through use of a representative symbol (such as a campus mascot) both members and non-members can recognize the organization and associate values, behaviors, and beliefs associated with that group (Kuh & Hall, 1993; Schein, 1996).

Within an organization, cultural attributes, such as rituals, symbols, and artifacts, help socialize and inform the individual of norms, values, and expected behaviors of members (Kuh & Hall, 1993). While over time, “relationships contribute to shared understandings as well as a sense of specialness and identity for members” (Kuh & Hall, 1993, p. 9). On a college or university campus, a mascot serves as the symbol of the institutions’ values demonstrated through its iconography and behaviors.

The colorful and sometimes peculiar nicknames of college athletic teams have long been a source of identity and affection for students, staff, faculty, and alumni... athletic nicknames and logos are powerful cultural symbols because they not only evoke allegiance to an institution’s athletic teams but also may be instrumental in shaping the image of the entire college or university (Gilbert, 1998; Slowikowski, 1993; as cited in Connolly, 2000, p. 515).

Indy Star reporter Hutchens expressed contemporary concern for the lack of IU mascot. Citing that a mascot “is an ambassador for the university. It’s one of our brands. It’s very visible and very much the face of not only the athletics department, but also the university,” Hutchens (2011) shows desire for an icon to represent IU in the twenty-first century. Similar to Hutchens’ contemporary remarks, students mobilized many times during the twentieth century in attempts to develop

and install a campus mascot at Indiana University.

Failed First Attempts

American college students in the early twentieth century were accustomed to autonomy and self-organization in higher education (Lucas, 2006; Thelin, 2004). Outside of the classroom, student organizations, clubs, and societies promoted the extracurricular interests of the undergraduate student body. However, with lack of oversight and unification, these subgroups struggled to organize collectively for campus-wide developments. This struggle to align support and interests is evident in the multiple attempts to install a campus mascot for IU.

In 1923, the *Indiana Daily Student (IDS)* posted an article calling for support to purchase a goat as the official IU mascot (“Students favor idea,” 1923). The goat would be similar to that of the Naval Academy’s mascot, also a goat, easy to maintain, and would be of low cost to the students (“Students favor idea,” 1923). This attempt never reached realization, but it planted the seed for future discussion on an IU mascot.

The next generation of IU students revitalized the idea of a campus mascot when the Blue Keys, an honorary society, coordinated a campus poll (“Mascot to be presented,” 1935). An announcement in the *IDS* posted a poll for suggestions, and an election at the Powwow banquet before Homecoming solidified the mascot candidates (“Mascot to be presented,” 1935). At the Powwow, the student body decided to install a collie as IU’s campus mascot (“Mascot to be presented,” 1935). Needing \$75, the Blue Keys collected money from the student body including many fraternities and sororities but only

raised \$37.27 making them unable to purchase the collie in time for the rivalry game ("Mascot to be presented," 1935).

In these first attempts at an IU mascot, students mobilize to express their shared desire for a campus symbol. The assumption that an icon is an important representation of the campus' values and strengths illustrates how culture affects behaviors and actions. IU students acknowledged other institutional examples (Navy) and the shared desire for a symbol by organizing collections and campus votes for a mascot.

Employing State Folklore

Acknowledging that financial and practical barriers prevented a live animal mascot for IU, a human mascot would later enjoy a brief tenure on campus. Paying homage to Indiana folklore, the Hoosier Schoolmaster debuted in December 1951 (Lingeman, 1952). The Hoosier Schoolmaster is one of the folk tales explaining the origin of the moniker "Hoosier" for Indiana residents, and Edward Eggleston's *The Hoosier School-Master* was the source of inspiration for the mascot concept and design (Carmony, 1992). Dressed in nineteenth century attire, a wig, and a cane, the Schoolmaster's routine during basketball season was to hobble into the gymnasium and slowly gain momentum and athleticism as the band increased the music's tempo (Lingeman, 1952). For the finale, the Schoolmaster erupted into tumbling passes and stunts to rouse the crowd (Lingeman, 1952).

Instead of gaining support through popular vote, Ned Helmuth, senior class president, used his leadership position to gain administrative support from the Dean of Students and other class leaders for the Hoosier Schoolmaster mascot

(Lingeman, 1952). Helmuth argued that IU needed a mascot similar to Illinois' Chief Illiniwek to rouse the students to cheer for their team (Lingeman, 1952). As a representative of the student body, Helmuth vocalized IU students' feelings for a visible, performing mascot as an important symbol for campus (Slowikowski, 1993).

When asked about his experience as the mascot, Dick Albershardt replied, "It's not the student who plays the Hoosier Schoolmaster that's important. It's what he stands for that is. He symbolizes Your University" (Lingeman, 1952). Albershardt's gymnastic skills suited him for the Schoolmaster concept and performance requirements, but few were qualified to follow in his legacy. Limitations on where the mascot could perform included facility needs and safety considerations for the acrobatics and tumbling associated with the performance. Also, because the Hoosier Schoolmaster was a student in costume, the individual student became the synonymous with the mascot, rather than the image occupying the forefront of attention (Lingeman, 1952).

The Hoosier Schoolmaster iconography linked the state's past with the institution. At the end of the 1952 school year, Albershardt no longer served as the Hoosier Schoolmaster and the mascot faded into memory. In this example, the students identified the way mascots embody campus values and promote traditions, yet the Hoosier Schoolmaster was unsuccessful in implementing a lasting icon. Because the Schoolmaster developed through the interest of a few student leaders and administrators, it was limited in who could fulfill the role and lacked broad application to other campus events and

appearances. After one season, it was retired.

The early effort to initiate a campus mascot illustrates the struggle to unify the student body. Though many students shared the belief that a mascot was wanted or even needed for IU, the various interests of subgroups did not align to make the goat, collie, or Hoosier Schoolmaster a lasting reality. University administration has little presence in these examples, and this absence shows the control students held over campus decisions and the loose organization of institutional culture. Institutional norms allowed students to develop their own artifacts, behaviors, and rituals to represent the university (Schein, 1996). Individual students within the large campus environment proved unsuccessful at securing a stable mascot. However, certain subgroups began to unify their collective interests to affect the campus. Greek organizations already had a structure for communication and collaboration, which allowed them to exert influence over campus in the later 1950s.

Reign of the Greeks

At IU, fraternity and sorority chapters became a peer network for promoting common interests and ideas on campus, in Bloomington, and across the state. One interest the Greek chapters shared with each other was developing a campus mascot to bring luck and enthusiasm to campus athletics (Dolley, 2003; Slowikowski, 1993). These students felt that representing the campus not only with a name, but also with an image could “create a sense of unity and cohesion” (Dolley, 2003) that the entire campus could identify and support. First, Sigma Delta Chi allowed IU to adopt marketing

materials of the “Crimson Bull,” which was created by the fraternity (“I.U. Adopts Fire-Breathing Bull,” 1956). Printed materials, shirts, signs, and paraphernalia circulated in Bloomington, but the idea was short-lived.

A few years later, a little bulldog puppy named “Ox” captured the hearts and spirit of campus (Arbutus, 1959). Belonging to members of Theta Chi, Ox went to football practices to cheer on the team (Arbutus, 1959). Wearing an IU sweater and posing for pictures, Ox made not only the sidelines, but also the yearbook. While cute, Ox lacked a routine or gimmick, like the Hoosier Schoolmaster, to excite the crowds.

The fire-breathing bull and Ox lacked permanency on campus. The Greek organizations comprised a significant portion of the population and were supportive of athletics, yet they could not institutionalize a mascot. The importance of symbolism was not yet lost as the Greeks teamed up with Student Senate and the Student Athletic Board in the 1960s.

Student Collaboration

On October 14, 1965, a unanimous resolution by the Student Senate adopted the first official mascot for Indiana University – the Bison (“Bison sweeps vote,” 1965). The details of whether there would be a live bison or a costumed student were yet to finalize, but progress on determining a campus symbol was certain. Rooted in state history, the Bison pictured on the state seal were once a common sight south of Bloomington (“Anyway, it’s a new Bison,” 1967). Using state heritage, IU hoped to create a strong symbol and gain support from students, faculty, and alumni for their new mascot.

However, the problems with this mascot design were just beginning.

The first concern was if a real bison was actually obtainable for the home games. Students could not overlook the significance of a physical mascot to rally the crowd in support of their team. Unfortunately, obstacles, such as purchasing, maintaining, and training a live bison, stood in the way (“A discouraging word,” 1965; “Buffaloonery,” 1965; “Experienced keeper needed,” 1965; “Mascots – or bison anyway,” 1965; “Or maybe a bison,” 1965). Hoping to convince university administrators, students, and alumni on the feasibility of a bison, student leaders discussed how other institutions had live mascots, plans for the animal’s caretaking, and options for funding (“Experienced keeper needed,” 1965). Because of limited funding and the foreseeable challenges to training a live bison to perform tricks on the sidelines, students started exploring other options.

The creation of a costumed mascot became a viable solution for the mascot problem, because it reinforced campus values and allowed students to participate in the design, selection, and performances of the Bison. Students expressed that “who gets to wear the suit [would be] the greatest honor to which any red-blooded Hoosier could aspire” (“Experienced keeper needed,” 1965).

Looking at other university campuses, IU students felt that “live or a costume or anything, you just need a mascot” (“Mascots – or bison anyway,” 1965). Recognizing that a mascot for the school could serve “two fundamental purposes – [binding] together the individual members of a group, and separat[ing] one group from another...a school’s nickname is much more than a tag or a label”; the students wanted a mascot to reflect “the

characteristics and attributes that define the institution” (Eitzen, 2012, p. 42). The student body modeled their search for the individual who would “play” the Bison after other campus models by holding elections for this leadership role.

Incorporating the Bison into existing campus traditions, the first appearance was at the Indiana University versus Purdue University bonfire pep-rally (Penz, 1965). The campus, alumni, and Bloomington community cheered on the football team before the rivalry game (Penz, 1965). Leading the burning of a Purdue mascot mock-up, the Bison symbolically demonstrated Indiana’s dominance over the opposing team and school (Penz, 1965). Involving the Bison in standing campus activities was the main route to gaining support and acceptance for the mascot.

Public commentary and criticism grew with campus awareness of the Bison. In addition, a desire to update the original costume developed. The first Bison was merely a mask and a furry jumpsuit. IU students and fans wanted a more legitimate costume to inspire loyalty among fans and fear among opponents (“Some definite drawbacks,” 1967). In 1967, students introduced a more realistic design to campus (“Some definite drawbacks,” 1967). This large Bison costume had detail and realism but also came with a poor design. Cheerleaders wearing the costume were unable to see and required guidance around the field by another team member (“Some definite drawbacks,” 1967). Along the football sidelines, the students and alumni watched their mascot amble about. The embarrassment brought on by the costumed mascot, and the desire for a strong symbol, led to the involvement of administrators, alumni, and community

members ("Some definite drawbacks," 1967).

Administrative Involvement and Blunders

Students no longer monopolized campus culture; community members, administrators, and other stakeholders had more influence with their opinions on the artifacts and symbols used to represent IU (Kuh & Hall, 1993; Manning, 1993; Schein, 1996). Emphasis on the importance of the shared opinions related to the mascot resulted in administrative involvement to protect the image of the institution.

Frustrated by the bumbling Bison, community members and administrators began to intervene. Varsity Club Chairman, Phillip J. Badell, wrote to the university President, Athletics, the Alumni Association, and *IDS* to voice his opinion and offer recommendations (Letter from Mr. Phillip J. Badell, 1967). Pledging financial support to install a live Bison or, at the least, an updated costume, Badell emphasized the importance of a mascot and that faculty also shared the desire for a strong and respectable representative for IU (Letter from Mr. Phillip J. Badell, 1967). In a letter to the editor, a collection of faculty stated:

Indiana University is certainly capable of originating and developing its own mascot, and has an excellent one in the Crimson Bull. We feel that by adopting the Crimson Bull - whose strength, fierceness, singleness of purpose and respect is known by all - this kind of spirit could be captured in many ways that would give more heart and prestige to the Student Body, the teams and certainly to the individual who wears the mascot costume...by putting into effect a campaign pushing the circulation of the

Crimson Bull image - on windows, T-shirts, sweatshirts, etc.; by using the image in Homecoming decorations, floats, etc.; by portraying the head of the Crimson Bull on the side of the football helmets and on the cheerleaders' sweaters and by originating a new battle cry or cheer pertaining to the Crimson Bull, along with the many other ideas of which we are sure you and the students could decide on (perhaps through some type of campus contest), this revitalized spirit could swell again within the heart of I.U. ("Adopt the Bull," 1967).

With a sophisticated vision on the importance and steps for implementation, faculty and administrators became involved in the mascot design, selection, and institutionalization. This demonstration of faculty interests shows the power of subgroups within an organization (Kuh & Hall, 1993). The campus environment, shaped by various stakeholders and interests groups, became conflicted over the mascot issue when a national audience for athletics developed ("Anyway, it's a new bison," 1967).

National publicity spurred the campus to devote resources and attention to updating the mascot design. When IU's football team went to the Rose Bowl, a new head for the Bison allowed the cheerleaders to perform without criticism ("Anyway, it's a new bison," 1967). Image and identity were not only important for rallying support from the students, but also for projecting IU to a national audience. Now visible to millions, this was the tipping point for IU. Criticism on their campus mascot would take new shape.

Two years after the Rose Bowl performance, the Bison found itself in storage (White, 1969). IU decided to retire the Bison completely, because so

many fans complained that the mascot was an embarrassment, ill designed, or not inspiring (White, 1969). Though the design was rooted in Indiana state history, Hoosiers did not feel inspired by their mascot (White, 1969). In the following decade, the university decided to pursue a different approach after taking in the feedback and experience of dealing with the Bison turmoil to motivate the campus and athletics.

Mr. Hoosier Pride graced the football sidelines in 1979 (Courtney, 1979; Herrmann, 1979; "New mascot in store for IU," 1979). Wearing a cowboy hat and a big grin, this caricature, developed by Athletic Director Ralph Floyd, was meant to help students and alumni "identify with the university" (Herrmann, 1979). Because IU was the only Big Ten institution in the 1970s without a mascot, Athletics felt pressured to implement a new design without consulting the campus community (Herrmann, 1979). Children enjoyed Mr. Hoosier Pride, but students, alumni, and fans were not happy with the forced mascot.

Again, public opinion would determine the fate of IU's mascot. A strongly worded letter from a community member, Ben Blair (1980), summarized the sentiments of Hoosiers:

Mr. Hoosier Pride is the most asinine and ridiculous-looking character anyone could have dreamed up to be IU's mascot. He looks like a sore loser rather than a proud winner. But even more basic than that, the character is downright ugly.

A school's mascot is supposed to be a symbol of some admirable and desirable trait or characteristic of the athletes or fans. It should be something with which we can identify and which can inspire us in a positive way. I don't find that objective met by Mr. Hoosier Pride.

Noting that Mr. Hoosier Pride's design and activity failed to inspire, motivate, or unify students and alumni, this mascot was retired that same year ("So much for Mr. Hoosier Pride," 1980). This administrative blunder illustrated the importance of finding an icon that represents the campus and has support from the community members. Mr. Hoosier Pride failed to unify the community because it was lacking in symbolic connection, ownership from the community, and historical significance to the campus as evident from Ben Blair's letter (1980).

A Matter of Popular Opinion

Campus administrators failed to implement a campus mascot that maintained support and positive response from students, alumni, and fans. Attempting yet again to generate a campus mascot that would embody the values of IU, restore enthusiasm among fans, and generate campus pride, IU students mobilized again (Student Athletic Board, 1980, 1983). This time, a campus-wide contest for the mascot would move through a series of approvals and campus votes in effort to establish support for the design before implementation (Student Athletic Board, 1980-1983).

The Student Athletic Board (SAB) is a student-led organization that served to promote IU athletics and spirit events. SAB oversaw the cheerleading squad, so the campus mascot naturally fell into their purview. In SAB planning meetings and executive board communications, reinventing school spirit through a mascot was on the agenda (Student Athletic Board, 1980-1983). However, this was not the first time that the SAB

attempted to gather student input for a campus mascot.

After the Bison was retired, the SAB began communicating with Athletics and the University President regarding a mascot contest (Beeson, 1971a, 1971b). In these letters, Beeson, a SAB member, explains how the officers outlined plans for advertising a design contest, selecting worthy submissions, and conducting a campus-wide vote (Beeson, 1971a). However, attempts to get a contest underway would be unsuccessful for the next ten years.

Calling out to all students, the SAB collected submissions during the fall semester of 1980 (Graham, 1980; Letter from IU Student Athletic Board to President John Ryan, 1980). A committee screened the designs and determined the top five to put to campus vote: Red Rooster, Red Dragon, Gargoyle, Henry Hoosier, and a Tasmanian Devil-like character ("So much for Mr. Hoosier Pride," 1980). Holding the vote during the Purdue University basketball game marked the significance of this decision. Coming down to the wire, the administration, specifically President Ryan, postponed the student vote in order to continue the search for stronger mascot designs (Fishman, 1981).

Opinions among campus administration and student organizations conflicted regarding the designs. Administrators wanted more control over potential mascots, because this affected the university's reputation and marketing, while students felt the administrative veto squashed their autonomy and voice (Fishman, 1981). The SAB received instruction from the President to conduct further research on mascots at other universities before moving forward with a design ("Mascot committee to research," 1981).

Discussion arose again in 1983 to "create a better campus image" (Student Athletic Board, 1983), but these ideas never reached fruition.

Paying attention to the campus community and maintaining a historical perspective was important for administrators at this time. Recalling the numerous tried and failed mascots university administrators would need to keep "a careful ear to public opinion in order to maintain [IU's] individuality and integrity among the consumers to which [the campus'] loyalty matters most: their fans, students, and alumni" (Gonzalez, 2007, p. 196).

Reaching Compromise

Since the failure of Mr. Hoosier Pride and the inability of administrators and students to agree upon a replacement, the sidelines at IU games remained without a mascot. The importance of linking the visual symbol to the campus' values was difficult since "the problem with choosing a good mascot lies in the fact that no one knows exactly what a 'Hoosier' is" (Dawson, 1981a). Maintaining the myth as part of state and campus folklore shapes the Hoosier identity (Carmony, 1992). The competing stories on the origins of the "Hoosier" moniker and definitions have evolved into a deep sense of Hoosier pride.

Indiana University students, administrators, and supporters frequently conflicted on what iteration of a mascot should represent the school. The turbulent environment and changing influence on designs pushed the campus to continually change and adapt the mascots. Due to the complexity of the campus environment, agreement among the various subgroups and entities for

adopting cultural elements proved difficult to negotiate (Schein, 1996).

Summarizing Indiana University's sentiments on the mascot issue to individuals inquiring on prospective designs, Sports Promotion Director, Charles Crabb (1983) stated:

As you can appreciate from the controversy with the old IU Bison and Mr. Hoosier Pride, we're all a bit "gun shy" when it comes to a Hoosier mascot. We are not afraid to talk about any and all proposals, but we want to take our time when it comes to getting beyond the discussion stage. A great number of University offices are involved in any consideration of a mascot along with alumni and friends of the University. An acceptable IU mascot – if it ever comes to be – must face a huge number of tests. It also must be usable for each and every varsity sport we have for males and females.

Though it is argued that the institution should have a mascot to represent the campus, motivate the crowd, and promote the IU brand, many also agree with Dawson's (1981b) sentiment that "if in all these years we have not come up with one, I doubt very seriously if we are going to get one to stick now."

The development of a visible identity for IU moving forward was important not only for campus symbolism but also for establishing IU's brand, promoting fan loyalty, and securing a visible public identity (Gonzalez, 2007; Thelin, 2004). Without a mascot for Indiana University, graphics and emblems for the campus are used to brand any university associated and sponsored activities. Though no consensus exists as to what exactly a "Hoosier" is, there was enough agreement to remove the various mascots and adopt the uniqueness of no-mascot.

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The Effects of Anticipatory Grief on Intrapersonal Development

Matthew L. Fenstermaker

This article will examine the effects of anticipatory grief and its effects on Baxter Magolda's (2004) theory on intrapersonal development. Aldrich (1974) defined anticipatory grief as the process of grief that occurs prior to a loss versus grief that occurs after a loss (as cited in Sweeting & Gilhooly, 1990, p. 1073). For some undergraduate students, the deaths of close friends or family are unexpected and happen quickly, therefore causing the grieving process to begin after the death. Others may be dealing with terminal illness and must live with the anticipation of death causing the grieving process to begin before the death occurs. This phenomenon is known as "anticipatory grief." The following article will provide insights about anticipatory grief and strategies for student affairs professionals.

Death is an unfavorable experience we all must face at some point in our lives. Whether it is our own death, or the death of others, it touches us in some way or another and it can happen at any point in our lives. According to Balk (2001), an estimated 22% to 30% of undergraduate students experience the death of a close friend or family member over the course of a year during their time as an undergraduate. Balk (2001) also suggested that this percentage of bereaved college students rises between 35% and 48% when increasing the span to two years as an undergraduate. Students who cope with the effects of death have their own unique experience and grieving process.

For some students, deaths are unexpected and can happen quickly. This causes the grieving process to begin after the death. Others may be dealing with a loved one with a terminal illness and must live with the anticipation of death causing the grieving process to begin before the death occurs. This phenomenon is known as "anticipatory grief." Aldrich (1974) defined anticipatory grief as the process of grief that occurs prior to a loss versus grief

that occurs after a loss (as cited in Sweeting & Gilhooly, 1990, p. 1073). The experience of anticipatory grief involves a range of intensified emotional and interactional responses, which may include: separation anxiety, existential aloneness, denial, sadness, disappointment, anger, resentment, guilt, exhaustion, confusion and desperation (Balk, 2011; Miller & Segal, 2010; Rolland, 1990). Lattanzi-Licht, Kirshling and Fleming (1989) reported that in most bereavement literature, there is increased psychological distress in the first 1-2 years following the death of a loved one. While an individual may experience a wide range of emotions while grieving and dealing with anticipated grief, there is little discussion on how these types of experiences can inhibit undergraduate student development. To address this gap, pre-existing literature involving theories on bereavement and Baxter Magolda's (2004) theory on intrapersonal development will be reviewed, followed by a discussion on how these two experiences intersect to show dissonance that is created by anticipatory grief, and how anticipatory grief creates a delay in an individual's developmental process.

Literature Review

Early Grief Theories

It is important to note that within the field of Higher Education and Student Affairs there is little to no research on topics regarding grief and its effect on student development. According to Wright and Hogan (2008), early grief theories span back to Sigmund Freud who defined grief as “an experience that usually follows a normal course but could lead to serious psychological consequences if the bereft failed to emotionally detach from the deceased” (p. 350). Wright and Hogan (2008) explained that it was Freud’s belief that a healthy recovery from this traumatic experience required removing emotional bonds associated with the deceased and a return to pre-loss behavior.

While Freud examined the experience after the death of a loved one, other psychologists like Erich Lindemann began to observe grief for those individuals not bereft (Duke, 1998). Lindemann (1944) based his observations of detachment and the effects grief has on bereavement, and the differences between sudden and expected deaths. While the theories presented by Freud and Lindemann are compelling, they were based on observations and have not been systematically tested for validity (Duke, 1998; Wright & Hogan, 2008).

Another psychoanalyst, John Bowlby, based his works off of Freud by empirically studying how grief can be influenced by the intensity and the type of attachment with the deceased (Wright & Hogan, 2008). Bowlby presented three phases of mourning that he later adapted with the addition of a fairly brief phase that precludes the original three (Bowlby,

1980). Bowlby’s (1980) four phases include:

1. Phase of numbing that usually lasts from a few hours to a week and may be interrupted by outbursts of extremely intense distress and/or anger
2. Phase of yearning and searching for the lost figure lasting some months and sometimes for years
3. Phase of disorganization and despair where an individual is easily distracted, has trouble concentrating, and may become depressed
4. Phase of greater or less degree of reorganization, individual realizes life continues and reconstructs life without the deceased (p. 85)

Bowlby acknowledged that these phases could be predicted in sequence to some degree. However, they are not linear, and any one individual can oscillate back and forth for a time between any two phases (Bowlby, 1980). The theories presented above offered a foundation for grief studies and, in later years, were expounded upon by other theorists. The following theories are known as second-generation grief theories.

Second-Generation Grief Theories

Second generation grief theorist, Collin Parkes (1972), a student and colleague of Bowlby, posited grief as a series of pictures in waves that fade in and out over time. Following this non-linear approach to grieving, psychiatrist Elisabeth Kubler-Ross (1969) studied how people diagnosed with a terminal illness grieved the loss of their health. Kubler-Ross (1969) identified five stages of grief: Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Depression, and Acceptance. Both Parkes (1972) and Kubler-Ross (1969) believed that these emotions are all experienced at

some point but are not experienced in the same order for everyone. Sweeting and Gilhooly (1990) stated, “the early observational studies with respect to ‘anticipatory grief’ ...are consistent in recognizing a phase-like process, with initial shock and efforts to deny the fatal diagnosis, followed by clinging and mourning behaviors” (p. 1078). From these grief theories, it is evident that there are emotional effects, but in order to understand the effects on students, Baxter Magolda’s self-authorship student development theory will be examined.

Self-Authorship: Baxter Magolda

Based on a seventeen-year longitudinal study of college students at Miami University, Baxter Magolda (2004) created a theory of self-authorship, an individual’s internal ability to base judgments on one’s own beliefs, identity, and social interactions. Baxter Magolda’s (2004) study found that students develop in three dimensions: epistemological, intrapersonal, and interpersonal on their path to becoming self-authored. Baxter Magolda (2004) claimed that there are three questions individuals try to answer through this process: “How do I know?” (Epistemological), “Who am I?” (Intrapersonal), and “How do I relate to others?” (Interpersonal). Within these three dimensions, Baxter Magolda (2004) described three phases individuals travel through in each dimension: external formulas, crossroads, and self-authorship. Individuals begin in external formulas, allowing others to define them (Baxter Magolda, 2004). As individuals progress towards the crossroads, they become dissatisfied by others definition and desire to become more independent (Baxter Magolda, 2004). Once individuals develop the ability to choose their own

beliefs and live them out, they become self-authored (Baxter Magolda, 2004). In order to progress towards self-authorship, individuals must experience dissonance, which is the conflict or disagreement with previously held beliefs (Baxter Magolda, 2004). Regarding intrapersonal development and the path towards self-authorship, the dissonance created by grief will be explored.

In intrapersonal development, Baxter Magolda (2004) stated that individuals in external formulas lack awareness of their own values and social identity. Individuals also seek the approval of others that creates an externally defined identity subject to external pressures. In the crossroads of intrapersonal development, individuals begin to develop an awareness of their own values and sense of identity apart from external perceptions (Baxter Magolda, 2004). Additionally, Baxter Magolda (2004) stated “tension between emerging internal values and external pressures prompts self-exploration” (p.12). As a result, individuals shift from accepting external perceptions and take responsibility for creating their own identity (Baxter Magolda, 2004). Intrapersonally, self-authorship is achieved by establishing an internally generated sense of self and values that then regulates interactions with the external world (Baxter Magolda, 2004).

In respect to student affairs, it is important to examine theories about grief in relation to self-authorship due to the implications grief can cause with emotions, self-identity, and the way individuals perceive the world. Death is often a sensitive topic and can be uncomfortable to discuss. Understanding the experiences of students and how they are being affected personally is important for student affairs professionals.

Considering these implications, the following section will explore the ways in which grief may create delays on the path to self-authorship for students.

An Adaptation for Intrapersonal Development

Within Baxter Magolda's (2004) theory of self-authorship and specifically the intrapersonal development dimension, an adaptation to the theory is necessary to understand how an individual who has experienced anticipatory grief can reach the crossroads and ultimately self-authorship. This adaptation for intrapersonal development provides an applicable understanding to the development of individuals who have experienced anticipatory grief.

Considering relevant literature, the following framework seeks to better explain the effects of bereavement on individuals as they transition into the crossroads phase of intrapersonal development. The framework of Baxter Magolda's (2004) intrapersonal development model remains the same, but a delay in reaching the crossroads is introduced as a result of the dissonance created by grief. Individuals are still able to progress through the crossroads, but there is a delay caused by anticipatory grief. Until the loved one has passed, the individual experiencing anticipatory grief, is stuck in the external formulas phase, unable to move forward. Once the loved one has passed, the individual can complete the grieving process, and they can continue progressing towards self-authorship.

Proposed Adaptation for Intrapersonal Development

Balk (2011) suggested the development of college students could be significantly influenced by the implications associated with bereavement. In the intrapersonal dimension of self-authorship, individuals gain a sense of who they are and what they believe, and begin to answer the question, "Who am I?" (Baxter Magolda, 2004). Balk (2011) further explained that a deep turmoil of emotional and cognitive confusion may be induced by the loss and subsequent challenges which may also challenge an individual's core assumptions about life and its meaning to them. Schwartzberg and Janoff-Bulman (1991) found that college students who lost a parent exhibited a worldview that was much different than their peers who had not experienced such a loss. Students faced with the death of a loved one learn about the challenges and unfairness of life in a way that is different from their peers who have not had this experience. As Baxter Magolda (2011) stated "an integrated identity serves as a foundation for interpreting experience and conducting oneself in the world" (p. 9). It is evident that bereavement has an effect on an individual's ability to interpret experiences and the world around them. Balk (2011) suggested that bereavement causes individuals to restructure their understanding of self, their connection to the world, and their relationship with others.

According to Balk (2011) the emotional effects an individual may experience as a result of grief include lower self-confidence, lack of belief in self-efficacy, and depression. He also stated the importance for bereaved individuals to maintain or regain their sense of personal control and confidence in self-efficacy. Depending on how long the grief lasts, doubts that a sense of

balance will ever return may arise (Balk, 2011). Balk (2001) brought up a key point concerning the bereavement process: the intensity and duration of grief. Depending on the prognosis of the loved one, the length of bereavement can be short or last for an extended period of time. Rolland (1990) stated, "the salience of anticipatory loss varies depending on members' transgenerational experiences with actual and threatened loss...[and] with the kind of illness, its psychosocial demands over time, and the degree of uncertainty about prognosis" (p. 229). Revisiting Bowlby's (1980) second stage of mourning, individuals urge to recover the lost object—characterized by yearning, searching behavior, and frequent anger. If students are experiencing anticipatory grief with the threat of loss rather than actual loss, they are essentially at a standstill in the grieving process until the death occurs. When viewing the framework of Baxter Magolda's (2004) theory of self-authorship, this standstill, or anticipatory grief, creates dissonance that delays an individual's progress moving into the crossroads, assuming they are in external formulas.

The experiences students face while anticipating the death of a family member or loved one vary and for some students this can include being the primary caregiver for the person who is dying. According to Dearden and Becker (2000), some disabled parents rely on the care and support of their children versus external support services. Bass, Bowman, and Noelker (1991) claimed that family caregiving and grief are often looked at as separate events, but argues they are both part of one continuing situation. As a result of the reliance some parents have on their children, the decisions children make are often made to gain the parents

approval, for example, trying to decide where to attend college. Dearden and Becker (2000) stated that leaving home was problematic for students whose parents required their help and support as their primary care taker. Dissonance is created through the conflict students face between needing to stay at home to support their loved one, but wanting to move out and gain their independence. Volandes, et al. (2008) further explained that the anxiety and fear of loss experienced by an individual could actually lead them to avoid making decisions all together. As a result of the students' inability to make decisions and reliance on external approval experienced during anticipatory grief, students are living out their externally defined self and submitting to external pressures. If students are unable to recognize their own identity, this can be problematic when considering Baxter Magolda's (2004) theory on intrapersonal development.

Baxter Magolda (2004) stated that it is essential for an individual to have the ability to reflect, explore, and choose values in order to form their own identity that is internally constructed versus an identity that is created to gain external approval. This internally formed identity allows for the interpretation of experiences and understanding of how to answer the question, "Who Am I?" (Baxter Magolda, 2004). These intrapersonal development capacities for those moving through the crossroads are important in order to move forward towards self-authorship. The experiences and implications from bereavement affect how students experience intrapersonal development. However, understanding the experiences of an individual and recognizing that there may be a delay to the crossroads as a result of students

following external formulas, like making choices based on providing care for a loved one, can help student affairs professionals better understand how to help a student progress.

Recommendations for Student Affairs Practice

Students have their own sets of experiences and challenges they must face. For student affairs professionals, it is important to understand these challenges and experiences in order to help students further develop. Working with students dealing with anticipatory grief is unique because each student's experience is different. Bonanno and Kaltman (2003) stated that it is imperative to obtain the most comprehensive understanding of the grief experience in order to best help the individual. Talking about death is often difficult. Perhaps it is our own sadness, our fear of making someone upset, or thinking that addressing the death may suggest abandonment for the hope of a cure (Miller & Segal, 2010). Students who experience bereavement may feel unsupported, isolated, or disconnected from the college experience (Zeiber, 2012). These effects have the potential to impact the individual's development, if not adequately supported.

Willimon and Naylor (1995) stated that a college education should "provide a conceptual framework and a process to facilitate the search for meaning that attempts to integrate the spiritual,

intellectual, emotional, and physiological dimensions of life" (p. 130). To best address the needs of bereaved students, institutions need to develop services, policies and procedures to serve students during times of need (Zeiber, 2012). Bereavement can create instability and vulnerability where individuals may not know what they need. Clinicians who work with people with terminal illness address three main behaviors: some crave reassurance, some want to talk, and some are afraid and want empathy (Miller & Segal, 2010). Considering the fact that 22-48% of students experience grief over the course of two years, it is important for student affairs professionals to understand how to meet the needs of this large student population (Balk, 2001). As previously mentioned, there is little to no research on the effects of bereavement on student development. However, the research that does exist supports how bereavement can create dissonance. It is important to support students as they make meaning of dissonance at the intersection between external formulas and the crossroads of intrapersonal development in order to help them progress towards self authorship. Student affairs practitioners must understand that grief and bereavement are indeed a part in student's holistic development; neglecting to support students through this experience can be detrimental to their overall development.

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The Birth of Music at Indiana University

Cynthia Cogswell

This historiography examines music over time at Indiana University. Using archival documents, this paper traces the evolution from an interest group, outside the institution, to a fully recognized Department of Music.

When a college introduces a new field of study, it also marks the start of a new phase and transition for the institution. This is similar to a student's admission to college signaling the beginning of a new life phase and transition toward who they will become. As schema theory suggests, when something new is introduced, the whole will adjust and change, thus redefining the whole (Harris, 1994; Holland & Cole, 1995). Applied to the broader context of higher education, this lens helps us to understand why there is an immense and drawn out struggle to add new disciplines to an already existing curriculum.

The process of integrating a new field of study into higher education is one that has repeated over time on many campuses. In order to successfully introduce a new field, leaders are required to have keen communication and persuasion skills to prove the worth and rigor of the discipline to the faculty and Board of Trustees. Similarly, introducing music to the curriculum at Indiana University (IU) in the 1890s and the early 1900s required professors and presidents to rally for its addition (Logan, 2000; Woodburn, 1940). The timeframe when IU established the School of Music is worth noting. Thelin (2004) commented that the turn of the twentieth century was a cherished era in the history of higher education. "The interesting riddle of American higher education

between 1890 and 1910 that the university-builders overlooked was how the 'age of the university' was at the same time the golden age of collegiate life" (p. 154). During this timeframe, students embraced the collegiate experience, and many formed or joined student literary groups, fraternities, and Glee Clubs.

Music had its roots at IU, dating as far back as the 1820s, when the institution was known as Indiana Seminary (Logan, 2000; Woodburn & Banta, 1940). Nearly 75 years passed from the school's establishment to when music became an integral part of the curriculum. It was not until the turn of the twentieth century that discussions first took place to add music as a course of study and a professional degree path (Liley, 2002).

Logan wrote a celebratory history, *The Indiana University School of Music* (2000), which looked closely at the same history that this paper examines. This paper will differentiate from Logan's piece in a prominent way. Logan's work was written from an insider's perspective. His work contributed greatly to the history of IU, and it will serve as a secondary source in this paper. However, in this historical paper, I will examine and analyze the establishment of the Department of Music in light of higher education's national history. In this analysis, I focus on who helped to establish music studies at IU while

connecting this innovation to the national context of higher education.

In the Beginning

Founded in 1824 as Indiana Seminary (Woodburn & Banta, 1940), the enrollment was small by modern standards but large for its time. Woodburn and Banta (1940) noted in History of Indiana University that Indiana Seminary employed only one professor for its first three years, and that there were only twenty-six students in the spring term of 1827. The Seminary soon expanded to form Indiana University (IU) in 1829 as a result of high praise for its early successes and quality education.

It was not uncommon for higher education institutions to expand in the 1820s and 1830s. Rudolph wrote in his 1976 text, Curriculum, of Columbia University's curricula expansion in this era. The administration at Columbia was desperate to maintain enrollment during this same time period. They created scholarship programs to make attendance more affordable and added new programs of study. Faculty at Columbia even tried to form formal partnerships by offering "to relieve the United States Navy of the necessity of creating a naval academy by proposing a package of relevant scientific instruction for up to forty-three midshipmen for a group fee of \$3,500 a year" (Rudolph, 1976, p. 54). Institutions adapted their identities to fit what would sell to potential students. To some, like IU and Columbia University, this meant expansion; to others, this meant adjusting the rigor of existing curriculum.

American colleges and universities first began to seriously consider enrollment standards in light of financial difficulties in this same time period. How useful was it to instruct courses in Latin

and Greek when most professions had no use for these dead languages, and when most of the college applicants had little or no training in either language? As colleges and universities around the country began to have these conversations, the use of Latin and Greek began to fade (Rudolph, 1976). Instructors at Yale published their opinions on this topic in the Yale Report of 1828. They attempted to refine what should and should not be included in American higher education (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1989). Without a national system of kindergarten through the twelfth grade education, higher education began a battle of what should stay in higher education and what students should know as entering freshmen (Rudolph, 1976).

In a similar trend to the national picture, Indiana Seminary expanded to become IU and hired its first president, Andrew Wylie, in 1829 (Trustees of Indiana University, n.d.). The first evidence of an organized music group on campus was at Wylie's inaugural reception. The records from the program note that there was a flutist and a fiddler playing light airs between speeches (Logan, 2000). While music was not yet a part of the academic curriculum, it was a prominent part of how campus celebrated and commemorated important events.

A few years later, according to notes from Professor Ebenezer Elliot, a "fine brass band" played at the 1832 inspection by the trustees (Logan, 2000, p. 6). However, later that same year, he also noted that the orchestra present for the 1833 commencement had only, "two flutes, one of them was cracked" (p. 6). It is unclear if the band or the orchestra were unofficial organizations at the University, or if they were from the community. Either way, the inconsistency

of quality performances pointed to the fact that music did not yet have an established home on campus. In 1852, music made its first, short-lived, appearance in the curriculum. The institution had a teacher-training program for a brief six years between 1852 and 1858. There was also a course in vocal music that was listed as a requirement, but there were no notes of who the instructor was. Between 1858 and 1893, there is no record of music courses existing on campus. Although, Logan (2000) highlighted that in the 1880s, “classical and light classical numbers began to appear on Commencement programs. A major aspect of the University’s history—its association with opera—began modestly in 1889 when the program included a Donizetti aria” (p. 7).

One of the first signs of the reappearance of music on the IU campus was the organization of a Glee Club during the 1892-1893 school year (Woodburn & Banta, 1940). While there is some mystery surrounding how the Club came to exist on IU’s campus, a few facts are certain. Glee Club started as a social organization and not an academic course. From its earliest days, the club sought to advance the interests of IU. In a November 1893 letter to the Board of Trustees, Glee Club members rationalized the benefits of such an organization in hopes of making the club a permanent student club. They noted that membership in Glee Club improved retention and encouraged members to return to school the next year. They also outlined three aims for the musical group: “the advancement of the interests of the university, the cultivation of the musical talents of the members, and the entertainment of the public” (Indiana University Glee Club, n.d.; IU Glee club

members to Board of Trustees, November 10, 1893). The letter also presented future interests of the organization. The Club hoped to give public concerts in Bloomington and elsewhere in the state, with the primary intention of promoting IU to all who would hear.

These aims made for a very easy sell to the IU administration. During this same time period, the Board of Trustees and others were concerned about how much of the state was unaware that an institution like IU existed at all and that one existed nearby in southern Indiana. In the 1980s, Professor Aley remarked during a chapel service:

In many parts of the State the fact that there is such an institution is unknown. Even in educational circles and among many teachers ignorance prevails as to the location of such an institution... Many people if they know anything of the institution at all are at a loss to know its location. These are notorious facts and should be regretted by every student or member of the faculty who has the success of the institution at heart. (Woodburn & Banta, 1940, p. 423)

There is no record of a return letter from the Board of Trustees being sent to the Glee Club members, but IU chose to support their endeavors, as music courses reappeared in the fall of 1893. The course catalogue detailed, “Mr. M. B. Griffith is the director of the college choir and the University Glee Club, and, also, by the authority of the University, teaches private classes in vocal music in the University buildings” (Logan, 2000, p. 7). This quote points to the important fact that Glee Club preceded IU’s courses.

In 1893, Glee Club sang to welcome Joseph Swain’s arrival on campus as IU’s ninth president (Logan, 2000; Trustees of Indiana University, n.d.). Swain was a “careful administrator” who was

concerned with ensuring that the University was always expanding its reach and balancing its budget (Woodburn & Banta, 1940, p. 436). Much of his nine-year term was spent discussing the state finances and support for colleges in Indiana. He served as president until 1902 and oversaw two transitions in the leadership of the Department of Music.

The first transition took place in 1896 when Charles Norman Hassler succeeded Griffith as the director of music; he would serve in this position for three years (Logan, 2000). Under Hassler, IU gained its first official student band. There is a picture of the band in its early days featured in Woodburn and Banta's 1940 text. In the picture, the band has twenty-two male members, each with an instrument in hand (p.423). As the band, Glee Club, and other music courses became a more established part of campus, students began to assimilate music into the culture of IU.

In an anonymous student letter to President Swain, there was further progress that music was becoming an integrated part of IU's culture via the criticism the student raised (Student to Dr. Joseph Swain, November 11, 1896; IU Glee Club, n.d.). In the letter, the student asked that President Swain would hold Glee Club members to the same academic standard to which student athletes are held. There was evidence that some of the Glee Club members had low grades, and the author of this letter was concerned about students of poor academic caliber representing IU around the state. At the time of this letter, Glee Club bridged two worlds. It was a private social organization, and it was soon to be affiliated with an on-campus professor and music department.

Insights can be gained when contextualizing the phenomenon of IU's Glee Club within the larger history of higher education. The pattern of students organizing a group of their own volition, later being added to the university, has been repeated in many sectors beyond IU. Literary societies and athletics are two of the most notable areas where this has transpired (Thelin, 2004). Many college and university athletic programs originally began as student clubs and grew into something of great interest to alumni, and therefore, they grew into something of great interest to the administration. It took time, but student athletics eventually became a part of standard administration in institutions. Despite, or in light of, the anonymous student's recommendation to President Swain, 1897 marked the third successful Glee Club performance tour. According to an early publication of *The I.U. Illustrator*, the "[Glee Club] tours have been made possible by the universal recognition of the excellent merits of the club by those whom it has visited" (*The I.U. Illustrator* as cited in Woodburn & Banta, 1940). Glee club was making a name for itself on and off campus.

One year later, Norman Hassler wrote to President Swain in the summer of 1898 to report on the continued success of Glee Club's travels (Hassler, N., n.d.; Norman Hassler to President Swain, July 25, 1898). His letter was filled with stories of praise from the audience and reported that they were invited to stay an additional week in Michigan; combined with their original five-day contract, this made for an extended stop on the tour. Hassler wrote that the performance on July 24th had an audience of 3,000 people in attendance. Due to the unexpected extra week, Hassler was running low on cash and politely asked for \$50 in advance

from next year's budget. In an era where money was very closely monitored and spent, \$50 in advance was a significant request. The lapse in approving this bid could have meant the end of the organization. In nearly all of the primary documents for both the music department and Glee Club, funding was either requested or defended. While the purpose of this specific monetary amount was uncertain (either personal or for the Club), it is not known if it was granted. However, it remains clear that Glee Club and the instruction of music were here to stay.

The Larger Context

The turn of the twentieth century was an exciting time for business and higher education. Businesses roared, wealth grew, and higher education expanded. As Thelin noted, "It was not, however, a smooth evolution. Accounts of the university-builders—a mix of donors and presidents—indicate that the risks and rivalries that defined American business competition of the era were replicated on the American campus" (2004, p.111). During this era, IU developed financially, professionally, and academically.

Financially, colleges and universities began to develop "permanent financial base[s]" (Thelin, 2004, p.127). Both private and public institutions began to amass gifts from alumni and institutional friends. After 1900, the philanthropic foundation began to play a key role in developing higher education on a national scale (Thelin, 2004). It was in this era that institutions began to build their endowments with gifts from private donors, the state, and philanthropic foundations.

As the professions developed, the faculty was increasingly expected to be

experts in their field. Professors held Ph.D.'s in their discipline and were members of newly formed professional organizations (Rudolph, 1976). The role of professors began to definitively develop by carving out a space of their own by attending conferences and publishing research (Thelin, 2004). Professors were able to communicate with their peers at other institutions and discipline-related standards began to form.

Academically, colleges and universities boomed. During this time, colleges and universities expanded course offerings in old and new studies. Thelin (2004) commented, "Instead of a sequential progression of ascending programs, the American university offered a linear array of fields..." (p. 153). Disciplines formerly not included in higher education made their way into the academy. Agriculture, business, engineering, mining, military training, and home economics joined the campus. Thelin (2004) provided an example of how professors adapted campus interests to fit their research interests, "A botanist from Germany hired to study plant pathology and crop yield might bend his courses and seminars to include pure research as well as applied science" (p. 136).

It was during this era that colleges and universities began the struggle to add business and the hard sciences to the curriculum (Rudolph, 1976). Some institutions wanted to add these studies to expand the areas of focus available, while others saw the potential for profit. However, some faculty resisted adding these subject areas because they detoured from the noble aims of the academy, or contradicted religious affiliation.

On the national level, institutions were adding an assortment of new fields of study, but music was not yet a trending subject. At IU, Lucius M. Hiatt succeeded Norman Hassler in 1899 as the department head (Logan, 2000), and he quickly emerged in all of the duties and responsibilities. Hiatt wrote to President Swain in March of 1900 reporting on the vocal groups and enrollment numbers (L. M. Hiatt to Dr. Swain, March 16, 1900; Music Dept., n.d., 1902-12). The new ladies Glee Club developed in response to the men's club and planned to make their first performance in the next term. Hiatt also detailed that the men's Glee Club was already prepared for their tour, and the University Chorus had plans to perform in weekly chapel. The male chorus class had twenty-four members, the men's and women's Glee Clubs had seventeen members and the University Chorus had sixty members; the Y.M.C.A. triple quartet had twelve members and the IU quartet had four members. The military band had eighteen members, the first mandolin orchestra had twelve members, the second mandolin orchestra had fourteen members, the flute trio had four members, and the cornet quartet had four members. With a total of eleven different music groups, it is surprising that the School of Music did not yet exist. All of these groups had corresponding courses, meaning that students received credit hours for their membership in them. Combined, the eleven different music groups constituted eighteen-and-a-half credit hours of weekly teaching time, and all were taught or conducted by Hiatt. Hiatt also ensured in his letter that "All of these organizations have taken part in chapel or will do so in the near future. All of the music hitherto has been furnished to a small extent by the organizations themselves but in the large part by the

Director" (Music Dept., n.d., 1902-12, L.M. Hiatt to Dr. Swain). The cost of sheet music for all of the performers in each group would have been a significant financial burden. It is clear that Hiatt worked very hard to run all of these groups and also invested a great deal of his personal finances in providing music for each of the organizations. A few weeks later in the beginning of April, Hiatt wrote again to President Swain, this time reporting exclusively on Glee Club. By the time Hiatt wrote, the faculty were already discussing Glee Club as a part of the campus culture (Hiatt, L.M., 1899-01, L.M. Hiatt to Dr. Swain, April 3, 1900).

President Swain resigned from IU to become president of Swarthmore College in 1902 (Woodburn & Banta, 1940). An accomplishment from Swain's nine-year term, Glee Club became an established part of IU and was already making a name for itself around the state. Also during the Swain years, the Director of Music became a reoccurring position at the school with responsibility over teaching, conducting, and providing private music lessons.

Following Swain's resignation, it was in 1902 that Professor William Lowe Bryan was unanimously appointed from Vice President to become the tenth president of Indiana University (Clark, 1974; Trustees of Indiana University, n.d). From his earliest days as president, Bryan was compelled to diversify the curricular offerings on campus:

Shortly after assuming office, he reported to the trustees that, of the University's 748 students, eighty-five were registered in its only professional school, Law, and the rest were liberal arts majors. Having made a study of enrollment patterns in other universities, Bryan knew that this proportion of liberal arts students was unusually high, and he

saw in it a serious institutional weakness. To correct the problem, he proposed in the first years of his administration, the establishment of several other professional schools.... As well as schools of medicine, architecture, engineering, and graduate studies, Bryan urged the establishment of a school of music. (Logan, 2000, p. 8)

Such imbalance was uncommon, and Bryan knew that the IU needed to be brought into closer equilibrium, not only to grow other disciplines but also to grow funding for the institution. With shrinking funding from the State, the president proposed rearranging existing courses and curricula to accomplish the creation of these new professional schools (Clark, 1973).

While Rudolph did not mention the formal study of music when reviewing this time period, he did explain how curriculum expanded into new disciplines. Nationally, universities used electives to their advantage. With students gaining the option to select elective courses, disciplines expanded from one course into multiple advanced classes. "At Brown [University] between 1889 and 1896 the number of hours of subject matter taught increased from 135 to 348: English jumped from nine and a half to forty-eight, history from three to twenty, social science from zero to seven, and Romance languages from nine to thirty-six" (Rudolph, 1976, p. 179). While expansion provided greater in-depth study of the subject matter, it proved equal reaching depth in costs to the university.

While Hiatt was the third faculty member to serve as director of music (Logan, 2000), Bryan was not inclined to make him the first person in charge of IU's Department of Music. The Board of Trustees had approved the creation of a

Department of Music in 1904 but the department was not organized until Bryan found a suitable department head (Liley, 2002). In 1910, Bryan proposed promoting Charles Diven Campbell, a current Assistant Professor of German, to the position of Associate Professor of Music (Liley, 2002; Logan, 2000). To Bryan, Campbell was a compelling choice. A native from Indiana, Campbell studied first at Anderson College (B.A.) and continued his studies at the University of Strassburg (Ph.D.), where he received his doctorate in philology (Logan, 2000). Once he received the Board of Trustees' blessing on the matter, Bryan wrote to Campbell on May 30, 1910 proposing the promotion and oversight of the general musical interests of the IU. With Campbell's acceptance of the position, this sequence of events is cited as the birth of the Department of Music at Indiana University (Liley, 2002).

One of Campbell's early duties was a charge by President Bryan to create course proposals for music in both the Department of Liberal Arts as well as work in Applied Music, an academic program. Bryan wanted to expand IU, and Campbell wanted just as much to expand the music offerings on campus. In his proposal to President Bryan, Campbell wrote, "that leading to a knowledge about music, and that leading to a knowledge of music" (Campbell, C.D., 1905-13, Charles D. Campbell to Dr. Bryan, June 12, 1910). Campbell's proposal outlined six courses, five of which he would teach himself, and the sixth requiring an additional hire. At the end of the proposal Campbell wrote,

The establishment of a school of applied music would require the services of at least three teachers one each for voice, piano, and stringed instruments.... Students should have the regular college entrance requirements, and should be

required to take besides the regular technical training in the instruments or voice, certain courses in the College of Liberal Arts...On the attainment of the required degree of proficiency in instrumental or vocal work, a special musical degree could be conferred, similar to the arrangement in the Law and Medical Schools. (Campbell, C.D., 1905-13, Charles D. Campbell to Dr. Bryan, June 12, 1910)

In this document, Campbell proposed the courses necessary in order to begin the School of Applied Music. After so many years of preparation on campus and the hard work of many, IU could begin its own music program with the addition of one more faculty member. The new courses proposed included: History and Development of Music, Elements of Music, and Music Forms. The proposal was approved and the department took off with much success (Logan, 2000).

Institutions around the country expanded during the era and did so with success (Rudolph, 1976). When university leadership listened to what the community needed and what the students wanted, the revisions to curriculum went well. Science was a popular addition to institutions during this time. It was clearly an era of curricular reform where institutions added new studies and worked out the curriculum and logistics later.

In a follow-up report to the President and Board of Trustees, Campbell provided updates on the first year of the department. In the first year of the department's existence there were 214 enrollees in the for-credit courses, and 119 in the non-credit courses (Campbell, C.D., 1905-12, Charles D. Campbell to the President and Board of Trustees, November, 1911). Campbell ensured that he conducted the new music courses with

as much rigor that "the study of Literature and the Fine Arts receives," (Campbell, C.D., 1905-12, Charles D. Campbell to the President and Board of Trustees, November, 1911). He also noted that he does as much as possible to expose the students to the great works in music history, and there are many records of this.

For example, the business manager from the Cincinnati Symphony Orchestra Association wrote to Campbell in 1910 to clarify the details for a visit to Bloomington (Campbell, C. D., 1905-12, Frank E. Edwards to Professor Chas. D. Campbell, October 12, 1910). The visit would include a series of performances, guest lecture, and at least one Orchestra performance. This is one example of Campbell's work to bring musicians to IU. Campbell worked tirelessly to make sure that IU was aware of great music, and his efforts benefited the department (Liley, 2002). In addition to fostering a culture of music performance on campus, Campbell also envisioned the establishment of reading and listening rooms on campus (Liley, 2002). The room would feature music scores, a player piano, and a phonograph. During his time at IU, this room was never created as Campbell had hoped due to the expenses associated with acquiring a player piano and a phonograph. Live performances and the technology to listen to musical recordings supported Campbell's philosophy, "No professional training should be without the theoretical and appreciative training of the first field.... Too often, however, a clever technique and physical skill are mistaken for intelligent understanding and appreciation" (Liley, 2002, p. 33). Even without all of the resources necessary to bring his vision to life, musical studies at Indiana still grew.

By the second year of the Department of Music, enrollments had grown and course offerings expanded. In a 1912 letter to the President and Trustees, Campbell reported on the progress. The course enrollments increased to 281, and the number of courses offered had grown to include eleven music offerings (Campbell, C.D., 1905-13, Charles D. Campbell to the President and Trustees, June 3, 1912). Logan also noted, "The number of courses offered also grew. By 1918, there were thirteen on the books..." (2002, p. 15). The Department of Music continued its early success.

Conclusion

Under Campbell's keen leadership and in part due to the friendship and relationship between him and President Bryan, the Department of Music was born. Campbell, Bryan, Swain, and Hiatt were the key players in taking the dream of classical music at IU and making it a reality. With Swain and Hiatt, Glee Club came under administrative oversight and several music groups were started. What Swain and Hiatt started, Campbell and Bryan continued. Bryan saw the opportunity for a Department of Music and received Board approval for its creation. He handpicked Campbell to be the first Department Chair and associate professor of music. Campbell developed the music curriculum and proposed the degree path for music. Bryan supported and helped Campbell in these endeavors. Clark wrote of Bryan's presidency:

Plucking organizational down from its own academic breast, the university organized itself, often in the most elementary way, into professional schools and services. This no doubt was William Lowe Bryan's most notable achievement, although he said making thirty-five

budgets was his major accomplishment. Beginning with the Medical School and winding up with the creation of the School of Music, two decades were marked by dramatic effort to perfect a university organization. (Clark 1973, p. xiii)

Indeed, Bryan made a shaping impact on IU during his time as president; IU gained the Medical School and the School of Music as two legacies from his term. Many thanks are owed to Bryan, Campbell, Swain, and Hiatt for their dedication and support of making the formal study of music a reality. But would any of this have even started without Glee Club?

There is no documentation of discussions about adding music to the curriculum before Glee Club (Woodburn & Banta, 1940). It was not until the administration saw the potential gain from Glee Club that some began to think about what else IU could gain from adding music. The records examined here do not address how willing or unwilling Glee Club was to go under Administrative oversight but there were some advantages, notably financial.

When Glee club came under administration, the students gained a professional who petitioned on their behalf. In almost every year between Glee Club's first mention and the establishment of the Department of Music, someone wrote to the President to defend or request funding for music. In 1909, Hiatt wrote to President Swain reporting on enrollment, but also requesting additional funds for the next three terms (Music Dept., n.d.; 1902-12, L.M. Hiatt to Dr. Swain, Spring 1909). In October, Hiatt wrote again this time requesting funds from the new President Bryan for the needs of the music organizations. He outlined requests for

the year and mentioned that he had already invested much of his own money into the music program (Hiatt, L.M., 1908-10, L.M. Hiatt to Dr. W.L. Bryan, October 24, 1909). In July of 1911, Campbell wrote to request funding. He requested funds to cover a performance deficit, stating that the students had worked very hard and that they should not be punished for a poor turnout, which failed to cover the cost already invested by the students (Campbell, C.D., 1905-12, Charles D. Campbell to the President and Board of Trustees, June 7, 1911). Later, in the fall of the same year, Campbell wrote again to Bryan. He requested money for building repairs (Campbell, C.D., 1905-12, Charles D. Campbell to President W.L. Bryan, October 24, 1911). The building repairs requests included: Funds for a new roof, which leaked; repainting in order to prevent further decay; water pipes and plumbing in case of fire and other practical needs. Campbell detailed at the end of the letter that he had already written to the Board for these same requests in the summer and another time before this October letter. In each of these letters Campbell or Hiatt seem to be pleading for every dollar.

Why was it necessary for the music department to petition so frequently for funding? The music programs and courses had to petition for preliminary funding because music had not yet been weaved into the campus budget or culture. As suggested earlier by schema

theory, it takes time for change to occur within individuals or an organization. It would make sense, then, that in a large institution with many departments that this change would not happen overnight.

One may be tempted, from this reading, to assert that without Glee Club the School of Music would have never formed at IU; but that would extend too far. Music would have eventually come to IU, but would it have become the lauded institute it is today? Glee Club, from its earliest days, infused a passion and loyalty to the institution (IU Glee Club, n.d., IU Glee club members to Board of Trustees, November 10, 1893). Glee Club helped to market IU to all who would listen, both within and beyond the state's borders. The Club's performances led to administration noticing that musical organizations on campus might be feasible. With Swain, the club led to a professor overseeing the organization and starting a number of other music groups on campus (Music Dept., n.d., 1902-12, L.M. Hiatt to Dr. Swain, March 16, 1900). Under Bryan's leadership, the assortment of choirs and bands grew into a Department of Music. Campbell created the curriculum and grew the department to offer music degrees. What began as a student social organization became a Department of Music. Glee Club started a legacy and historical tradition over one hundred years ago that is still celebrated today at IU's School of Music.

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Tweetful Meaning: Student Perceptions of Twitter and Institutional Tweets

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This study examined student perceptions of both use of Twitter in general and the official Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) Twitter account, @IUPUI. Focus groups were conducted to identify student perceptions of their interactions with the @IUPUI Twitter handle. Connections were made to student involvement and engagement theories. Implications for higher education professionals were addressed in the study's emergent themes: gathering information, choosing to engage, networking, and constructing a caring environment.

Since its inception in 2006, Twitter, a constructed virtual environment and popular social networking site, has provided a rich setting for collaboration and sharing of thoughts and ideas (Honeycutt & Herring, 2009). Boyd and Ellison (2007) defined social networking sites as:

Web-based services that allow individuals to (a) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (b) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (c) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system" (p. 211).

For the purposes of this study, we further indicated the use of social networking sites as tools for engagement due to the encouraged nature of interactions leading to increased breadth and depth of an individual's network.

Social networking sites, such as Twitter, fall under the larger scope of social media – a compilation of online platforms encouraging users to connect, collaborate, support, and share (Junco, Heiberger, & Loken, 2011). Because social media outlets allowed for real-time and asynchronous interaction from the convenience of personal technology (e.g. laptops, tablets, and mobile phones), the resulting environment was constructed

and virtual in nature. Essentially, those not participating in social media did not have access to its constructed environment. Constructed environments were those that focus on the experiences and subjective views of participants (Strange & Banning, 2001), and it was assumed that constructed environments were best understood by the aggregate perceptions of the participants within them.

According to the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE, 2013), "technology has become interwoven into the college experience" (p. 23) and 96% of students indicated it was used during coursework. Furthermore, the use of technology in the classroom, in addition to courses focused on learning technology, has been positively linked with student engagement (NSSE, 2013). This indicates that prevalence of technology in higher education influences the way students communicate, collaborate, and experience relationships with both peers and the institution (NSSE, 2013).

In a Pew Research Internet Project, Duggan and Smith (2013) found that 73% of online adults now use a social networking site of some kind. In a preceding study for the same project, Duggan and Brenner (2013) revealed that

“the percentage of internet users who are on Twitter has doubled since November 2010” (p. 4). Social networking use amongst adults is growing, and the NSSE (2013) found that social networking sites comprise approximately 25% of technology used in the classroom. Therefore, higher education professionals must examine the impact social networking has on student engagement outside of the classroom (see Appendix A about Twitter and terms).

Although there was a large body of knowledge about Twitter use in classrooms (Coldwell-Nelson, Beekhuyzen, & Craig, 2012; Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009; Grosbeck & Holotescu, 2008; Junco, et al., 2011; Rinaldo, Tapp, & Laverie, 2011), limited research focused on student usage of Twitter and institutionally moderated Twitter accounts. For this reason, the researchers chose to study student perceptions of Twitter by analyzing student engagement with the official Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) Twitter account, @IUPUI. This study sought to identify connections between student engagement and Twitter by examining student perceptions of institutional Twitter accounts in addition to overall student perceptions of Twitter. We used a constructivist approach by asking focus group participants to intentionally reflect on and describe their Twitter use to ultimately identify the value they attach to different types of Twitter interactions. The following questions guided the research:

1) In the constructed virtual environment of Twitter, how do students place value on various forms of interactions, connections, and communications?

2) How do students perceive institutionally moderated Twitter accounts?

3) How can higher education professionals utilize the answers to these research questions as a means to engage more fully with their students?

Literature Review

The following literature review presents two main topics to offer context for this study: relevance of social media to higher education professionals and discussion of involvement and engagement theories.

Social Media Savvy Professionals

It is important for higher education professionals to stay abreast of technological advancements that students are using such as social media technologies (Coldwell-Nielson et al., 2012). College students were highly involved in social media such as Twitter; therefore, it is important for higher education professionals to understand how to use these communication methods (Coldwell-Nielson et al., 2012). Higher education professionals utilized social media as a tool to increase student contact in order to help foster relationships (Junco et al., 2011). The literature also cited that using social media in the classroom increased student engagement (Blankenship, 2011; Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009; Junco et al., 2011; Rinaldo et al., 2011). Dunlap and Lowenthal (2009) suggested using Twitter in the classroom allows students to tweet questions, learn to write concisely, and connect with faculty. This could lead to greater student interest in course material by encouraging interaction in a way that further enhances

learning (Blankenship, 2011; Rinaldo et al., 2011).

Faculty could create a social presence on Twitter that encouraged students to connect with their professors on a deeper level than the students would by simply coming to class (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009). Kuh and Hu (2001) stated that student-faculty interactions are considered high-impact practices in higher education and that creating these interaction opportunities are “important to learning and personal development” (p. 309). Twitter provided students and faculty with new and different ways to further interact, which enriches the academic experience and positively impacts the students. In addition to using social media in the classroom as an engagement tool, institutions adopted social media tools such as Twitter to help engage the community. Rinaldo et al. (2011) found that institutions will use social media to engage followers in discussions about their experiences, feedback, or perceptions of an institutional social media brand.

Technology was what differentiates today’s traditional-aged undergraduates who were digital natives from the digital immigrants who came before them (Levine & Dean, 2012). Prevalence of technology influenced the way students communicate and experience relationships with both peers and the institution. While the majority of findings indicated the positive influences of social media, there were some drawbacks that researchers recognized when using social media in the classroom (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009; Grosseck & Holotescu, 2008; Rinaldo et al., 2011). Incorporating social media and other technological advancements into their courses could be daunting for many professors because they may lack experience and knowledge

about these technologies (Rinaldo et al., 2011). Furthermore, social media platforms were developed to enhance social and not academic interactions, and those limitations can hinder classroom utilization (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009). Also, some social media use could have addictive tendencies, which deters instructors from incorporating this technology into their courses because they may feel students are not as attentive during lecture (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009; Grosseck & Holotescu, 2008). Similarly, poor interpersonal communication skills were often viewed as a consequence of being limited to 140 characters per tweet (Grosseck & Holotescu, 2008; Levine & Dean, 2012). Instructors using social networking sites must intentionally structure coursework to minimize opportunities for distraction and to maximize engagement.

Involvement and Engagement Theories

Astin’s (1999) involvement theory provided the framework for this study, which defined involvement as “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience” (p. 518). This notion of involvement was linked to time spent on a particular task and can be denoted with action verbs and phrases, such as “engage in, show enthusiasm for, or devote oneself to” (Astin, 1999). Because time was considered a finite resource, student involvement theory looked at the combination of time devoted and amount of energy invested by a student in a particular extracurricular activity to determine the degree of involvement (Astin, 1999). Supporting Astin’s theory, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found a link between the amount of effort a student exerted in

curricular, co-curricular, and social activities and the overall impact the collegiate experience had on a student.

Although Astin's (1999) student involvement theory helped to explain students' interactions with institutions, it did not address the role of the institution or how it intentionally fosters student engagement. Wolf-Wendel, Ward, and Kinzie (2009) argued that it was important to distinguish between involvement and engagement. Wolf-Wendel et al. (2009) expanded upon Astin's (1999) theory of involvement to create a definition of engagement. This definition was similar to that of Kuh's (2001) research and focused on "how institutions in higher education allocate their human and other resources and organize learning opportunities and services to encourage students to participate in and benefit from such activities" (Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009, p. 412-413). "Involvement has been linked via research to almost every positive outcome of college" (Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009, p. 412), and the term "engagement" capitalizes on the initial strengths of Astin's theory and incorporates a component of institutional accountability. Due to the nature of this study, engagement best reflected the construct being examined. This research specifically examined how students not only navigate Twitter, but also how they perceived and directly interacted with tweets from @IUPUI.

Methodology

According to Mertens (2010), "By using an inductive approach, the research can attempt to make sense of a situation without imposing pre-existing expectations on the phenomena under study" (p. 225). Therefore, we chose to

approach the topic of student engagement with @IUPUI using an inductive qualitative analysis of current students' perceptions shared during focus groups. We took a constructivist worldview in this study because we believed that participants develop independent individual meanings from their experiences within the constructed environment in which Twitter exists (Creswell, 2013). By taking this view, we were able to discover the ways in which participants construct meaning from their interactions with @IUPUI. Focus groups, as a method of research inquiry, were selected for this study to gather information about the "perceptions, beliefs, or opinions of the students or others who use campus facilities, services, or programs" (Schuh & Upcraft, 2001, p. 42), such as the @IUPUI institutional account.

Site and Sample

This study focused on the virtual environment of Twitter, specifically the student followers of the @IUPUI account. IUPUI was an urban, commuter, research university; located in downtown Indianapolis; and had a large, predominantly White student population. In fall 2012, IUPUI had more than 22,000 undergraduate students and more than 8,000 graduate and professional students (Trustees of Indiana University, 2013). The IUPUI Twitter handle in this study had 10,475 followers as of October 22, 2013. We specifically selected the Twitter handle @IUPUI since it was the primary institutional Twitter account for the university.

Efforts were made to protect the rights of the participants by obtaining permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) and following their guidelines in this study. Since we sought

to learn how students engage with the institution through the virtual environment of Twitter, we used criterion and chain sampling (Mertens, 2010). Criterion sampling was used when researchers had specific criteria that participants must meet to be included in the study (Mertens, 2010), and participants in this study had to be current undergraduate students at IUPUI and active followers of @IUPUI on Twitter. Participants were initially recruited by sending tweets from @TweetfulStudy, a Twitter account created specifically for this research project. We also implemented chain sampling, whereby participants were asked for the names of others who met the study criteria (Mertens, 2010). Also, the university professional that moderated the @IUPUI account agreed to assist with recruitment by tweeting original messages as well as retweeting communication from @TweetfulStudy. Individuals who had public Twitter profiles, indicated their undergraduate student status on their profile and followed @IUPUI. Participants were also invited to join through direct messages.

The final sample included 12 participants who ranged in age from 18 to 23 years old with an average age of 20.75 years old. Although @IUPUI has over 10,000 followers, it was beyond the scope of this study to identify how many of those are current undergraduate students who actively follow the institutional handle. Participants included six seniors, two juniors, four sophomores, and no freshman participants. Participants represented a diverse cross-section of majors, and although all were well versed in using Twitter, the length and frequency of use varied. All but one participant were involved students on campus. We defined the participants as involved

students because they were members or held leadership positions in campus life organizations such as Housing and Residence Life, Asian Student Union, and Paws Pantry, which were discovered during the focus groups and through sampling processes. In addition, two participants moderated the Twitter handles for their respective university organizations. To protect the identities of the students, participants were assigned pseudonyms for the data collection and analysis.

Collection

Participants took part in focus groups lasting no longer than one hour, led by two facilitators with one semi-structured note-taker present. Each focus group was audio and video recorded for transcription, which served as our primary source of data. Facilitators asked a series of open-ended questions and allowed time for students to clarify responses through follow-up questions (see Appendix B).

Analysis

We followed the six steps of data analysis as described by Creswell (2013): organizing, becoming familiar with, coding, richly describing, finding representative themes, and interpreting the data. Each step built upon the one prior in a linear approach. We used a systematic approach in coding the data from the three focus groups. First, the researchers each coded two focus group transcriptions and created two memos. These memos were general understandings of the information presented in the transcription. Second, the codes and memos were compiled to identify general themes. Lastly, the researchers classified the data into four themes: gathering information, choosing

to engage, networking, and constructing a caring environment.

Findings

From the analyses, four dominant themes emerged: gathering information, choosing to engage, networking, and constructing a caring environment. The first theme, gathering information, refers to students' retrieval of quick, reliable news updates including current events, campus safety, announcements, and on-campus happenings. The second theme, choosing to engage, speaks to students' inclination to capitalize on tweets and/or links because of relevance or in an effort to combat feelings of boredom. The third theme, networking, encompasses students' use of Twitter as a professional and social networking tool. The final theme, constructing a caring environment, emerged after discerning participants' value of a caring community, which manifests itself in the voicing of their opinions on institutional matters and the institution asking for their feedback. In addition, a caring community manifests itself when students are at the forefront when student affairs professionals make decisions.

Gathering Information

Gathering information refers to the ways in which the participants talked about Twitter as a means to obtain instant updates about various types of information. First, participants enjoyed using Twitter, in general, because of its ability to provide them with brief updates about various topics. Second, participants look to @IUPUI to find information about events happening specifically on-campus. Finally, participants used Twitter as a means to stay up-to-date on safety issues

specifically on the IUPUI campus. Overall, participants expressed that their use of Twitter was a way to gather information.

Instant updates. Most participants in each of the three focus groups voiced news and information gathering as a reason for using Twitter in general. When asked about frequency and purpose of Twitter usage, the majority of students cited, at a minimum, daily consultations. In most cases, using Twitter multiple times a day was quite common, and participants perceived Twitter as the quickest, most reliable source of news. One participant named James provided the following explanation: "[I check Twitter] over 10 times a day...I think it is really good for...current events...[and] for breaking news...especially if you're not in front of the TV." Additionally, another participant, Maddie, cited daily use for class as well as using Twitter to "catch up on the news and...what [her] friends are doing." She also expressed her perception that "...a lot of us don't like watching the news, but if something really big happens then it will be on social media." Jane agreed that important news would always break first on social media.

Brevity and immediate accessibility seemed to drive participants' reliance on Twitter rather than other news outlets (e.g. email or websites), including IUPUI updates. One participant named Tim pointed out that Twitter was more frequently consulted than email. This point of view was confirmed by James who stated, "I'm not big on reading...I find out more about the events going on, on campus, through the Twitter handle [@IUPUI]." Conversely, another participant, John, stated, "I do read email, I keep myself updated, but...since IUPUI is on Twitter, why not follow them and...get some additional information?" Since

Twitter provides its users with up-to-date tidbits of information, the participants felt as if the social media platform is the most convenient way to receive instant updates.

Campus happenings. When asked why they follow @IUPUI, participants cited a variety of reasons related to campus happenings. Sam “follow[s] IUPUI’s stuff [to] stay in the know and get alerts.” Emmanuel provided a more specific example of using Twitter for on-campus updates due to his involvement: “I follow a lot of different fraternities, different chapters so I can be in the know about what they’re doing.” Because the majority of participants were student leaders, we asked probing questions to determine if their involvement prompted sharing information about campus events. Maddie stated, “I am really involved so...knowing what’s going on at IUPUI is important.” Maddie also added that she retweets the information that @IUPUI shares in order to spread the word about on-campus events with her followers. For the participants, it was important to know about and share tweets regarding on-campus events, which was their reasoning for utilizing Twitter as a means to obtain information.

Campus safety. Participants’ reasons for gathering information from Twitter and, specifically, from @IUPUI also included comments about campus safety. Jane replied that she began following the institutional Twitter handle during a campus lockdown involving a potential shooter. Emmanuel was asked a follow-up question concerning the same situation about his choice to consult Twitter over other media sources, and he replied, “I looked at...[@IUPUI]...and I felt confident in what they told me.” By and

large, participants explained their use of Twitter as a means to quickly gather both general information and information regarding campus events and campus safety.

Choosing to Engage

As a part of gathering information on Twitter, participants discussed the ways in which they decided to engage further with that information. According to the participants, the first reason for engaging with tweets was out of pure boredom. The second reason for engaging with information on Twitter was due to that information’s relevance to the particular user. We found that both reasons for choosing to engage with information were important to our findings because they described how students come to the decision to interact with tweets.

Boredom. When asked what motivates them to engage with information on Twitter, multiple participants described that they use the social media website simply when they are bored. For example, Sam stated, “I just get bored and check Twitter.” Emmanuel added, “When I’m in class, I get on Twitter when I don’t want to listen to the professor.” Participants look to Twitter as a source of entertainment when they are not satisfied or engaged in their current situations. Participants described Twitter content as exciting and able to alleviate their boredom in certain situations. The participants’ choices to engage with information on Twitter were not solely based on what is intellectually or socially stimulating to them; sometimes, they were using it because they felt bored.

Relevance. Participants clearly expressed that they make some kind of judgment whether or not content is

relevant to them. When asked, “What makes you engage in something that [@IUPUI] tweets out?” Emmanuel stated, “Something that’s relatable,” and Sam added, “If it is relevant.” The majority of participants echoed this theme by using words such as “relevant” and “relatable” to describe their thought process before interacting with the content. Relevance, according to the participants, was defined in different ways. For example, James discussed being more interested in tweets about both local and global news, so he deemed those relevant and worthy of interactions. Maddie, on the other hand, talked about sharing information regarding campus events with her followers because, as a Resident Assistant, she felt that those events were relevant for herself, her residents, and other members of the IUPUI community that follow her on Twitter. In general, however, most participants agreed that they do not take in all of the information on their Twitter feeds. Sam illustrated this in her response: “I am just a silent observer...I just read the tweets if they apply to me...If they don’t, I just scroll past them.” Students pick and choose which tweets to interact with, even if that interaction is only reading the tweet in its entirety.

Networking

While Twitter, according to the participants, was a means to gather and engage with information and tweets, it was also a venue for networking. Throughout the focus groups, participants discussed relationships that they form and foster on Twitter. These relationships can either be social or professional in nature. The participants also discussed the potential for future employers to inquire about their personal social media websites, which adds a layer

to the relationships that they can build using Twitter.

Professional networking. Multiple participants cited professional uses for Twitter, such as connecting to relevant news in their current or future career fields. When asked how they use Twitter, participants replied with varying answers, many of which pertained to engaging in networking and career-specific information with their colleagues across the nation. Other participants related professional networking specifically to @IUPUI when posed with the question, “What kinds of questions do you think IUPUI should ask?” In response to this question, Jane stated, “What are some of the things that IUPUI has helped you [to accomplish]? Like what kind of jobs are you getting...after you graduate?” These questions, if asked by @IUPUI, would further fuel students’ perceptions that Twitter can be a helpful tool when professionally networking or inquiring about professional topics.

In addition to having conversations about professional development on Twitter, participants were interested in utilizing the social media site for connecting and sharing relevant, professional thoughts and events, both globally and locally, with @IUPUI. Sam cited her intended journalism degree as a main motivator for developing her personal brand via Twitter. Emmanuel shared his reason for professional use of his personal Twitter: “I really watch the things that I say [on Twitter] because I am...a senior and trying to get into grad school...I don’t want to tweet nonsense...so I keep it really professional with my Twitter page.” We also found that participants’ use of Twitter depends on how close they are to progressing on from their undergraduate degree. Those

students like Emmanuel considered the effects an online presence may have on future educational goals or employment and work to ensure their online self was congruent with their physical self.

Social networking. According to participants, students at IUPUI are in search of an online community. Maddie, for example, described Twitter as an opportunity to build relationships. Additionally, Tim used Twitter as a means for personal socialization with his followers, and Emmanuel used Twitter to socialize with friends from high school and build relationships with the men in his fraternity. Each of these examples sheds light on the fact that Twitter, for the participants, can be a way to engage in relationship building with other users.

Other times, individuals used Twitter for sheer entertainment purposes, such as following celebrities or sharing jokes. One finding that surfaced was students' perceived responsibility to share pertinent information with their followers, such as the previously stated quote from Maddie about sharing information from @IUPUI with her followers. When engaging in information on Twitter for socializing and entertainment, multiple participants mentioned sharing relevant or important information with their followers, who might not otherwise be informed about issues that affect them. Whether this information related to @IUPUI or otherwise, students felt a duty to disseminate information about events as a way of socializing.

Constructing a Caring Environment

Participants expressed a desire for the institution to care about their opinions and experiences as students on campus. This type of caring environment was

found to contribute to student success by Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, and Associates (2010), and it was fostered by providing an environment that is affirming and inclusive. Participants perceived the caring environment in different ways. First, the participants wanted the institution to consider their opinions in its decision-making processes. Second, the participants expressed an interest in voicing their opinions through Twitter for the institution to consider without being prompted by the institution itself. Third, the participants wanted the institutional Twitter handle to intentionally ask questions for their followers to answer, sparking conversation on the social media platform and to intentionally provide a way for the institution to gain information straight from the student population. Overall, the participants wanted to feel as if the institution cares about them as people, both within and outside of the social media platform.

First, participants stated that students should be at the forefront of the institutional administration's thought processes with regards to institutional decision-making. Emmanuel, for example, stated, "It shows initiative when they actually tweet their students back because we are the ones here...we are the ones who go through the motions every day." Specifically, James mentioned a recent institutional rebranding decision that upset many students, stating, "They didn't really ask students...if they did, I didn't hear about it." According to the participants, they would appreciate being more central in institutional decisions, and they commented that Twitter was a good avenue for soliciting their thoughts and opinions, which would lead to the students feeling like the institution cares for them as a whole.

Second, students expressed the fact that they voiced their concerns or opinions via Twitter without being prompted by the institution, especially in relation to topics that directly affected them. For example, Maddie stated, “I always want to tweet when I am angry at [the institution or institutional departments].” For the most part, participants wanted the institution to acknowledge their concerns or comments in substantial ways, such as responding with relevant information or an answer to their question. Lily, however, had another view: “I think students would feel like their opinions are valued as well so I think that would be a good tactic...even if they don't necessarily read it.” Twitter provided a space for these participants to voice their concerns, whether or not administrators acknowledged those comments. Either way, Twitter could provide a student-perceived environment of care enabled by the institution when used as the students wanted.

Third, participants expressed an interest in the institution starting conversations on Twitter by asking questions. James stated, “I think it would be a good place if...they opened it up to more opinions and discussion.” Mike added, “I'd be more likely to...comment or tweet back at them or something if they [asked questions].” By asking questions, the institution can show a more expressed interest in the opinions of its students, which can add to the caring environment that the students desire on Twitter. Asking questions could also begin conversations that could help the institution gather feedback straight from the student body.

Engaging with a faceless handle. In general, participants wanted to feel as if the institution cares for them, and they

wanted to see this care through interactions on Twitter. While Twitter may provide a platform for expressing care, the fact that students were unaware of who is in charge of the institutional Twitter handle can make students uneasy and skeptical about the sincerity of their interactions with the handle. For example, Emmanuel said, “If I'm tweeting @IUPUI...I don't know who I am tweeting.” The institution's Twitter handle had a generic, faceless photo and tweeted general information about the entire campus and many different campus organizations and departments, which was helpful for participants, but it added to participants' mistrust about where their comments and concerns ended up when they posted them on Twitter. For example, Maddie stated, “I don't think they are going to change any policies or do anything [as a result of my comments].” Overall, participants did not feel as if their comments would make a large impact on the campus or even end up in the right person's hands, but they still wanted the opportunity to voice them. The findings indicated that participants engaged with the institution via Twitter by expending their individual efforts and time in order to gather, engage, network, and benefit from constructed caring environments.

Limitations

This study was limited by its small sample size, although future research could expand upon the findings. Although this study had only 12 participants, the data gathered was rich and descriptive. The @IUPUI Twitter account has over ten thousand followers, but many of those individuals are alumni, staff, faculty, or community members who did not qualify to participate in this study. Given the

structure of Twitter, in that anyone could create and follow a particular Twitter handle, determining the total number of active, currently enrolled undergraduate students who follow IUPUI was beyond the scope of this study.

Due to the time parameters of the study, we were only able to conduct three separate focus groups with 12 total participants each attending one session. The experiences of these 12 students may not represent the perceptions of all of the students at the university. Related to participant perceptions, our second limitation was that 11 out of the 12 participants were involved students on campus, which could have influenced their comments due to their pre-existing affiliation with the institution. Since these participants made an investment in time and effort through various student organizations or units in the institution, this would be reflected in the degree of engagement they would perceive to have with the university (Astin 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Perhaps, the involved participants had positive experiences with the IUPUI Twitter account because they already had positive experiences with the university. However, examining the perspectives of highly engaged students provided valuable information on how to further encourage these kinds of engaging relationships between students and the institution.

Finally, all members of the research team were Twitter users, and some were avid Twitter users, often sending and receiving tweets multiple times per day. Therefore, some interpretations of research findings may be biased towards Twitter as a useful tool for engagement, although we tried to limit personal biases by having multiple coders of varying levels of Twitter use for each focus group. This approach was meant to ensure more

researchers, who would identify as “avid” Twitter users, would code participant responses.

This study could contribute to the knowledge of higher education professionals by helping them to understand how students interact with institutional Twitter accounts. However, additional research is needed to gain a more thorough understanding of these types in interactions. Additional studies should focus on students who follow institutional Twitter accounts who are not involved on campus.

Discussion

These research findings suggested a connection between student engagement and the virtual environment. These findings were supported by Astin’s (1999) theory of student involvement, which incorporated the constructs of individual effort and time on task. The theory of involvement pertained to social, co-curricular, and curricular involvement as well as students seeking out this type of information from campus Twitter accounts. Astin (1999) described the effectiveness of involvement practices as being measured by their capacity to increase student involvement. Therefore, when institutions used Twitter to increase awareness of campus involvement opportunities, it increased the likelihood of student engagement with the university, especially participation in these co-curricular experiences.

Students made the decision to act upon information from Twitter if they felt it is relevant to them. Therefore, this type of Twitter engagement was defined by primarily two factors: how students acted on the information provided and how institutions made tweets relevant to

students. This construct was supported by Wolf-Wendel et al.'s (2009) definition of engagement that consisted of elements of action from both the student and institution. Although we do not suggest that student Twitter use would directly result in college success, it can be used as a tool to support additional student engagement outside the normal confines of the classroom setting. Furthermore, Kuh et al. (2010) found that increasing engagement in any form contributed to greater chances of student success.

Finally, students wanted to relate in meaningful ways to the institution that they attend. Kuh et al. (2010) found that in order to foster student learning, institutional environments need to be “perceived by students as inclusive and affirming...” (p. 8). These findings indicated that virtual constructed environments, like Twitter, may be just as important to student learning as other types of college environments (Kuh et al., 2010, p. 282) and, as such, should also be perceived as affirming and inclusive. Twitter may also assist institutions in becoming what Kuh et al. (2010) described as a supportive campus environment. Supportive environments were ones that help students succeed academically, navigate nonacademic responsibilities, and thrive socially (Kuh et al., 2010). Higher education professionals and organizations can use this data as a means to engage more fully with their students by providing up to date information to keep students abreast with pertinent campus information, delivering information that students think is relevant, offering both social and networking opportunities, and fostering an environment of caring.

Implications

While this study focused specifically on the virtual, constructed environment of Twitter at IUPUI, this research may prove useful with other institutions and with future research. There were clear themes in this study that higher education professionals can adapt to their institutions. First, student perceptions of Twitter in general and @IUPUI provided insightful information about how higher education professionals and staff at an institution can best use the social networking site to meaningfully engage students in conversation about topics and issues that matter to them. Participants within each focus group shared what topics they found relevant as well as what the university could do to evoke a better response from students on Twitter, such as asking questions and requesting feedback on certain issues.

Second, these findings suggested students have been increasingly turning to Twitter for immediate news information. Higher education professionals should continue to increase the way in which they utilize institutional Twitter accounts, as well as school or department accounts, to disseminate pertinent information relevant to current students. These findings suggested students are consuming information on Twitter at a consistent rate. Therefore, by utilizing Twitter as a tool to disseminate institutional information, more students can be kept up to date about information concerning institutional news, safety information, and general announcements.

Additionally, one issue that higher education professionals who utilize Twitter may face was a lack of interaction with students, even those who follow a particular university Twitter handle. One solution that participants suggested for @IUPUI was intentionally providing a variety of regularly scheduled tweets for

different students, from all across campus to engage differently, depending on their interests or identities. This practice allowed a breadth of students to choose to meaningfully engage in Twitter messages they found relevant to their individual majors, involvement interests, hobbies, or other identities. As the institutional Twitter handle should be applicable to all students, higher education professionals should send messages representative of the entire student body, continuing to collaborate with other professionals in campus departments and academic units to promote and highlight each area equally.

Furthermore, multiple students cited personal use of Twitter to network with professionals, organizations, and prospective graduate schools, as well as to establish their personal brand on the social media site. Professionals, especially those within career services offices, should recognize students' need for virtual and in-person congruence of image and host programs, specifically on Twitter etiquette to increase students' professional use of Twitter. The same could be said about educators working with students in a conduct setting. This practice would not only help students maintain a respectable image on Twitter for their future employers but it would also uphold the university's image.

Finally, in order to construct a caring environment through Twitter's virtual environment, institutions must intentionally engage with students by structuring their social media presence to be as interactive as possible. Student-centered messages should largely dominate a university's Twitter handle

and include a variety of content to appeal to as large an audience as possible. Asking students for their input on these diverse topics could allow students to perceive a caring environment. Universities could also foster this type of environment by being receptive and responsive to student thoughts, suggestions, and concerns in order to validate the student's sense of institutional belonging.

Conclusion

In this study, the researchers examined student perceptions of Twitter both in general and of an institutionally moderated Twitter handle by facilitating focus groups and finding the following themes: gathering information, choosing to engage, networking, and constructing a caring environment. Higher education professionals could benefit from this research because this study suggests ways in which Twitter could be utilized in more effective ways to both engage students and receive direct feedback from them. Future research could focus on the use of Twitter outside of the classroom as it relates to student development. Also, research could be done to shine light on students' cognitive development as it is shown through the act of tweeting. Ultimately, higher education professionals must acknowledge the presence of social media in the lives of current college students, and, furthermore, they must understand how to capitalize on that presence in order to provide students with meaningful engagement opportunities during their college experiences.

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Appendix A: Twitter Terminology Definitions

Because this research topic delves into the world of social media, and more specifically Twitter, the terms used throughout may appear unorthodox. Twitter, as a social media platform, has its own language that a majority of its users understand. Since, however, we acknowledge a lack of understanding and use of Twitter in higher education, it is necessary to define the terms that we will use throughout the development of our research.

To begin, Twitter, as stated on the website, is a “service for friends, family, and co-workers to communicate and stay connected through the exchange of quick, frequent answers to one simple question: ‘What are you doing?’” (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009, p. 130). One can join Twitter by visiting the website (www.Twitter.com) and choosing a Twitter “handle,” which is defined as one’s username on the site that appears as @username when in use (Twitter, 2013). After joining Twitter, one then begins to “follow” other Twitter users, which means to subscribe to those users’ tweets, or short messages sent out using Twitter. An aspect of Twitter that makes it different from other popular social media sites is that it limits the length of a message to 140 characters.

Once a member of Twitter, one begins to tweet. “Tweet” is a term that can be used both as a verb and a noun (Twitter, 2013). The act of “tweeting” is the sending of messages, and a tweet is the message itself. After one tweets and takes in the tweets of others, the interactions can commence. Twitter developed terms for how users interact with each other on the site. One way to engage with others is to “favorite” their tweets, which is designated by a small star icon next to the message. “Favoriting” tweets places all of those tweets into a separate category on one’s own Twitter page and also lets the original sender know that he or she liked the message.

The act of “mentioning” another user in a tweet is another form of engagement on Twitter. This occurs when one actually uses another’s handle in the body of the message, which will appear as @username (Twitter, 2013). This form of interaction can also be called @mentions, which when read aloud is “at-mentions.”

Another form of Twitter interaction that can bring users together is the use of hashtags in the body of a tweet. Creating a “hashtag” means using the # symbol to mark keywords in the message (Twitter, 2013). Hashtags not only allow one to highlight the key words or phrases, but they also group relevant tweets together. All of the tweets that include #college in them are then organized together so that by clicking on the hashtag, one can view all of the tweets that include #college.

A final way to engage on Twitter is the act of “retweeting.” To retweet a message means to forward a tweet from someone one follows to all of the people who follow him or her, or one’s “followers” (Twitter, 2013). One can also embed a tweet in quotes or add RT (retweet) or MT (modified tweet) to the beginning of a retweet in order to add one’s own words to the message. All of these terms will help us ground our discussion about the use of Twitter by higher education professionals and how students perceive interactions with institutional handles on Twitter.

Appendix B: Focus Group Interview Protocol

- Introductions (Hi, we are...)
- **Overview of study:** The purpose of this study is to understand how students perceive different types of institutional Twitter communication, specifically communication from the IUPUI Twitter handle so that a ranking of Twitter interactions can be created.

Focus Group Interview protocol

General Questions. Now we are going to ask you some general questions but first we'd like you to choose a pseudonym or a name that is not your own to help with confidentiality

Please tell us about your Twitter use.

1. Why did you join Twitter?
2. How long have you used Twitter?
3. How frequently do you use Twitter?
4. Describe how you use Twitter.

Twitter Motivation Questions

1. What motivates you to use Twitter?
2. Why do you follow specific Twitter handles?
3. Why did you decide to follow @IUPUI specifically?
4. How do you interact with the @IUPUI Twitter handle?
5. How do you interact with your friends on Twitter? How do you interact with institutions on Twitter? How are these two types of interactions different? What causes you to engage differently?

Twitter Definitions

1. How do you define a Tweet?
2. How do you define a Retweet?
3. How do you define an @mention?
4. How do you define a Favorite?

Twitter Perceptions Questions

1. How do you decide which action(s) to take... to Tweet, Retweet, @mention, or Favorite?
2. Does Retweeting (etc.) a post make you feel like you are interacting with the handle that originally posted it? How so[LLA2] ?
3. Why do you favorite a post? How does it make you feel when you Favorite a post?

Twitter Ranking Questions

1. Are certain types of Twitter communications more valuable to you than others? If so, why?
2. When you post things to Twitter, what is the difference between a Tweet, Retweet, @mention, Favorite? Rank these Twitter actions in the order that you value them.
3. When IUPUI posts to Twitter, what is the difference between a Tweet, Retweet, @mention, Favorite?

Ranking Handout Questions

1. Why did you rank these Twitter actions in this order?
2. Why did you rank _____ higher than _____?
3. Are you more likely to interact with a particular type of Twitter communication versus another when they post? Tweets? Retweets? @Mentions? Favorites? If so, why?

4. Are you more likely to interact with a particular type of Twitter communication versus another when @IUPUI posts? Tweets? Retweets? @Mentions? Favorites? If so, why?

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