

Assessing the Efficacy of Analytical Definitions in Hazing Education

by

Paul Robert Kittle, Jr.

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
December 8, 2012

Keywords: hazing, definition, cognitive,
extensional, analytical, bystander

Copyright 2012 by Paul Robert Kittle, Jr.

Approved by

David C. DiRamio, Chair, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and
Technology

James E. Witte, Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology

Maria Witte, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology

Abstract

Hazing is a problem that persists on college campuses and in high schools. According to Nuwer (2011) between 1970 and 2006, there was at least one hazing-related death each year on a college campus. Hazing education and prevention programs, such as speaker series, anti-hazing marketing campaigns, policy enforcement efforts, and sanctioning, which are frequently grounded in an extensional definition of hazing, have been present on college campuses for the past 20 years, yet the incidents of hazing are on the rise (Ellsworth, 2006; Nuwer, 2004). The literature repeatedly states that, due to the lack of a common definition, awareness and prevention efforts are often unsuccessful at increasing students' awareness of hazing activities or reducing the likelihood that hazing activities will occur (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002; Shaw, 1992; Smith, 2009). Allan and Madden (2008) found that 91 percent of students who have experienced hazing do not identify themselves as being hazed.

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not there were differences in students' ability to identify hazing activities after treatment which consisted of reading either an extensional or analytical definition of hazing. A second purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not there was a difference between the students' ability to identify hazing activities based on demographic variables. This study was a pragmatic effort to move past the noted barrier of the definition of hazing.

The findings of this study indicate that an analytical hazing definition is not as effective as an extensional hazing definition at increasing a students' ability to recognize hazing activities.

The findings further indicate that women identify hazing activities more readily than men and participants from the Midwest region of the country consistently identify hazing activities at a higher frequency than Southeast participants. Regardless of definition type, participants demonstrated an increase in their ability to identify hazing activities after reading a treatment text. Although an analytical definition increased participant's ability to recognize hazing activities, it did so at a rate less than that of the extensional definition which is the current standard.

Acknowledgments

The completion of a doctorate has been a lifelong goal that would not have been possible without the support, encouragement, and faith of many people. To my committee, Drs. David DiRamio, Maria Witte and James Witte, my most sincere thanks. Your unwavering support and encouragement, sometimes shown through humor sometimes through a proverbial swift kick, kept me on task and moving forward. Dr. DiRamio, you and I started on this project in 2005 before I enrolled in my first course. You encouraged me to join the program and agreed to serve as my chair; for that, I am grateful. You have always served as a mentor and confidant and I am honored to have been given the opportunity to study under you. Drs. Witte, you have been steadfast in your support and encouragement. I have enjoyed the opportunity to study under your tutelage and feel privileged to be able to count you as colleagues and mentors.

Throughout this program, my family and friends have been a steady source of support. To the classmates with whom I shared projects, notes, frustrations and joys, I simply say, “Thank you”. To my immediate family, I am grateful for your support. Mom, you were a firm believer in my ability to finish and always found a gentle way to nudge me toward the completion of my dissertation, thank you and, “I love you”. To my Dad, I take this opportunity to thank you for the model that you provided me through your hard work and commitment to family. While you were not here to be a part of this process, I know that you looked down and provided guidance, support and encouragement of the heart.

To my boys, Jonathan, Brock and Mitchell, this has been a journey for all of us. I cannot sum up in words the gratitude that I feel for having been given your love and support to complete this program. This process required me to miss ball games and school events, but through it all, you never complained. Know that I am proud of each of you.

Finally, to my wife, Denise, this degree is as much yours as it is mine. Through all of the years you have been a steady source of love and support. While I went to class, you endured the school meetings, homework meltdowns and provided endless chauffeur rides for the boys to get to and from games and practices. I thank you for your encouragement and your unwavering confidence that this was the right thing for us to do for our family. It has been a long process but I am glad that we have done it together, "I love you".

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
List of Tables	x
List of Illustrations	xi
List of Abbreviations	xii
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions.....	9
Statistical Hypothesis.....	9
Significance of the Study.....	10
Assumptions.....	10
Limitations/Delimitations	11
Definitions.....	11
Organization of the Study.....	12
Chapter 2 Review of Literature.....	14
History of Hazing.....	15
Hazing and the Military	20
Hazing Within Student Organizations	22

Sorority Hazing	23
Fraternity, Marching Band, Sports Team Hazing	24
Pro Hazing Argument	25
Hazing Constructs: Typology and Theoretical	28
Legal Issues ad Hazing	29
In Loco Parentis and Hazing Liability	30
Landowner-Invitee and Hazing Liability	33
Special Relationship and Hazing Liability	37
Cognitive development theory and bystander intervention model	41
Definition Typology.....	44
Bystander Intervention Model	45
Current Literature on Hazing Definitions	46
Conclusion	53
Chapter 3 Methods	54
Introduction.....	54
Purpose of the Study	55
Research Questions.....	55
Methods.....	56
Sample.....	57
Instrumentation	58
Reliability.....	59
Procedures.....	60
Data Analysis	60

Chapter 4 Findings	62
Research Questions	62
Sample.....	62
Description of Respondents	63
Determining Respondent’s Baseline Knowledge	65
Non Hazing Activities.....	66
Physical Hazing Activities	67
Psychological Hazing Activities	68
Physical and Psychological Hazing Activities.....	68
Hazing Activities	69
Extent of Knowledge Gained.....	70
Research Question One.....	73
Research Question Two	80
Research Question Three	84
Research Question Four.....	85
Summary	86
Chapter 5 Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations	87
Research Questions.....	87
Overview of the Study	87
Conclusions.....	92
Implications and Recommendations	101
Future Research	103
Summary.....	105

References	107
Appendix A Control Group Text	114
Appendix B Treatment Group Text	116
Appendix C Survey Instrument	118
Appendix D Permission to Use Survey Instrument	121
Appendix E Institutional Review Board (IRB) Documents	123

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Respondents by treatment group.....	64
Table 4.2 Respondents by region and treatment group.....	65
Table 4.3 Pretest mean scores for non-hazing activities.....	67
Table 4.4 Pretest mean scores for physical hazing activities.....	68
Table 4.5 Pretest mean scores for psychological hazing activities.....	68
Table 4.6 Pretest mean scores for physical and psychological hazing activities.....	69
Table 4.7 Pretest mean scores for hazing activities	70
Table 4.8 Summary of Control Group Participant’s Ability to Identify Hazing Activities.....	76
Table 4.9 Summary of Treatment Group Participant’s Ability to Identify Hazing Activities ...	79
Table 4.10 Summary of Participant’s Ability to Identify Hazing Activities by Sex, posttest....	83
Table 4.11 Summary of Participant’s Ability to Identify Hazing Activities by Region.....	85

List of Illustrations

Illustration 4.1 Repeated measures test for composite variable = physical	71
Illustration 4.2 Repeated measures test for composite variable = psych	72
Illustration 4.3 Repeated measures test for composite variable = phpsych	72
Illustration 4.4 Repeated measures test for composite variable = haze	73
Illustration 5.1 Repeated measures test for composite variable = physical	95
Illustration 5.2 Repeated measures test for composite variable = psych	96
Illustration 5.3 Repeated measures test for composite variable = phpsych	96
Illustration 5.4 Repeated measures test for composite variable = haze	97

List of Abbreviations

ASCA	Association for Student Conduct Administration
FIPG	Fraternity Information and Programming Group
OED	Oxford English Dictionary

Chapter 1

Introduction

Hazing is a problem that persists on college campuses and in high schools. According to Nuwer (2011) between 1970 and 2006, there was at least one hazing-related death each year on a college campus. Hollmann reports that colleges and universities have seen a dramatic increase in the annual average number of deaths related to hazing. In the 1980s, 5.5 deaths were reported annually due to hazing; in the 1990s, 9.5 deaths were reported annually due to hazing; and 18 hazing deaths were reported in 2000 alone (Hollmann, 2002). The findings from the *National Hazing Study*, released in 2008, indicate that 47 percent of students come to college having experienced hazing (Allan & Madden, 2008). Hazing, while often attributed to men's fraternities, occurs in a variety of organizations. According to the *National Hazing Study* (2008):

While data confirm that hazing is occurring in Greek-letter organizations, the research also reveals the presence of hazing in other student groups including varsity athletics, club sports, intramural teams, military groups, recreation clubs, service fraternities and sororities, performing arts organizations (e.g., marching bands and theater groups), honor societies, academic clubs, and other groups students elected to identify (e.g., religious clubs and organizations, student government, and culturally-based organizations that were not Greek-letter groups) (Allan & Madden, 2008, p 15).

Efforts to raise awareness about hazing and reduce the likelihood of its occurrence are institutionalized at many colleges and universities, within national fraternal organizations, and supported by national professional associations (e.g., National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, National Collegiate Athletic Association, and the North-American Interfraternity Council). Hazing education and prevention programs, such as speaker series, anti-hazing

marketing campaigns, policy enforcement efforts, and sanctioning, which are mostly grounded in an extensional definition of hazing developed in 1986, have been present on college campuses for the past 20 years yet the incidents of hazing are on the rise (Ellsworth, 2006; Nuwer, 2004). While institutions of higher education attempt to increase students' knowledge about the dangers of hazing, the message may not be getting through. According to Allan and Madden (2008), "Students report limited exposure to hazing prevention efforts that extend beyond a 'hazing won't work approach" (p. 2). Legally defined 25 years ago, hazing persists and is not fully understood. Varied approaches to the education of students about the perils of hazing have been arguably unsuccessful begging the question, is it the design of the programs or the presentation of the issue that is hindering hazing education and prevention programs?

To some, hazing is an ingrained practice which provides positive outcomes. Pro-hazing statements posted on the StopHazing.org web site feature arguments that embody the sentiment expressed in statements such as, "Being an important element in human development and transition, as well as in cultural and organizational tradition, initiation rites, sometimes called hazing or rites of passages, carry abundant positive results, which far outweigh the potential negative or harmful results" (StopHazing.org, 2011). Allan and Madden (2008) found that, "Students recognize hazing as part of the campus culture" and state, "More students perceive positive rather than negative outcomes of hazing" (p. 2).

According to the *National Hazing Study*, "A gap exists between student experiences of hazing and their willingness to label it as such" (Allan & Madden, 2008, p. 33). The literature indicates that students do not identify activities as hazing that meet the definition of hazing (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006). When students acknowledge that they have engaged in hazing activities, an attempt is often made to justify their participation through minimization

(e.g., “It was no big deal), rationalization (e.g., “Feelings afterwards outweighed the pain or stress felt during it”), or normalization (e.g., “It was tradition so I didn’t mind”) (Allan & Madden, 2008, p. 29). According to cognitive development theory, justification is used to address cognitive dissonance caused by experiences that do not fit a person’s existing framework (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Much has been written about the lack of a common definition of hazing among students, faculty, staff, administrators, and national fraternal organizations (Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002). The literature repeatedly states that, due to the lack of a common definition, awareness and prevention efforts are often unsuccessful at increasing students’ awareness of hazing activities or reducing the likelihood that hazing activities will occur (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002; Shaw, 1992; Smith, 2009). Allan and Madden (2008) found that 91 percent of students who have experienced hazing do not identify themselves as having been hazed. According to Crow and Rosner (2002):

In attempting to determine the scope of the hazing problem and liability issues, a definitional question arises as to what actions or behaviors constitute hazing. Actions that are considered hazing by some are not considered hazing and are not objectionable to others. (p. 87)

Efforts to define hazing have been ongoing since circa 1850 when the *Oxford English Dictionary* defined hazing as, “to subject to cruel horseplay” (OED, 1989). The need for a standard definition of hazing reached a crisis point in 1985 as membership in national fraternities began to rise and incidents of injury and/or death due to hazing rose with it (FIPG, 2008).

“Claims against men’s national organizations, alumni corporations, chapters, chapter officers and individual members began to increase rapidly” (FIPG, 2008, p. 4) and liability insurance became

more difficult to purchase. “By 1986, men’s national fraternities were ranked as the sixth worst risk in the insurance industry, and number seven was hazardous waste disposal companies” (FIPG, 2008, p. 4). In 1987, the “Fraternity Insurance Purchasing Group” (FIPG), a corporation comprised of men’s and women’s national and international fraternities and sororities drafted and published a comprehensive risk management plan which included a uniform definition of hazing. FIPG (2008) defines hazing as:

Any action taken or situation created, intentionally, whether on or off fraternity premises, to produce mental or physical discomfort, embarrassment, harassment, or ridicule. Such activities may include but are not limited to the following: use of alcohol, paddling in any form, creation of excessive fatigue, physical and psychological shocks, quests, treasure hunts, scavenger hunts, road trips or any other such activities carried on outside or inside of the confines of the chapter house; wearing of public apparel which is conspicuous and not normally in good taste, engaging in public stunts and buffoonery, morally degrading or humiliating games and activities, and any other activities which are not consistent with academic achievement, fraternal law, ritual or policy or the regulations and policies of the educational institution or applicable state law. (p. 8)

Since being drafted 25 years ago, the FIPG definition of hazing has only been edited slightly and is regarded as the industry-standard definition for the insurance and risk management industry, institutions of higher education, and national men’s and women’s fraternal organizations. The FIPG definition of hazing provides both a legal definition of the term and provides examples of concrete activities, although not an exhaustive list, that could be considered hazing.

Once hazing was legally defined, many states and institutions of higher education began drafting and implementing anti-hazing statutes and/or policies. According to StopHazing.org (2011), 44 states have enacted anti-hazing laws. Still, according to the literature, there is no

uniformity among state statutes and institutional policies and state statutes vary greatly across the country (Crow & Rosner, 2002; Hollmann, 2002).

While state statutes follow the FIPG model for defining hazing, institutions of higher education have begun to implement anti-hazing policies that describe behavior that could indicate hazing. For example, one university, a large public, land-grant, research institution located in the southeastern United States defines hazing in its student handbook as:

Hazing. Any action or situation that recklessly, by design, or intentionally endangers the mental or physical health or safety of a student for any purpose including but not limited to initiation or admission into or affiliation with any student group or organization. In such an instance, hazing occurs if an individual or group:

1. Causes or attempts to cause physical injury or other harm to a student including but not limited to emotional distress, or engages in any conduct which presents a threat to the students' health or safety, which shall include but not be limited to any brutality of a physical nature, such as whipping, beating, branding, exposure to the elements, forced consumption of any food, alcohol, drug, or other substance, or other forced physical activity that could adversely affect the physical or physical and mental health or safety of the student, and any activity that would subject the student to extreme mental stress, such as sleep deprivation, forced sexual conduct, and forced exclusion from social contact.
2. Engages in an action or activity which has a tendency to or which is intended to demean, disgrace, humiliate, or degrade a student, which shall include but not be limited to, forced conduct that could result in extreme embarrassment, or other forced activity that could adversely affect the mental health or dignity of the student.

3. Conduct that by design, intent or recklessness causes a student to be unable reasonably to pursue, or interferes with or attempts to interfere with a students' academic schedule or performance; or

4. Causes, induces, pressures, coerces, or requires a student to violate the law or to violate any provision of University [A] regulations.

In response to allegations of hazing under this regulation it is not a defense that:

a. The victim gave consent to the conduct.

b. The conduct was not part of an official organizational event or sanctioned or approved by the organization.

c. The conduct was not done as a condition of membership in the organization.

(University of Florida, 2011)

The university's definition of hazing incorporates current state law yet utilizes broad descriptive phrases in place of concrete activities to present conduct that may be identified as hazing. While a subtle shift, this marks a notable change from the manner in which hazing has been defined since 1986. FIPG provides a concrete definition of hazing and sample activities while the emerging models present descriptive phrases. A disconnect exists between the FIPG presentation of hazing and emerging models being used on by institutions of higher education. Contemporary literature on hazing does not address this issue, which is, what is most affective at assisting students in identifying hazing behavior?

Hazing, both before and since its legal defining in 1987, is a recurring problem which endangers the physical and mental health and safety of students, from high school to college, across the country. The FIPG definition of hazing was written and implemented in national fraternal organizations and on campuses in 1987 while Generation X was attending college, well

before the Millennial generation of students arrived on campus. According to research by Thielfoldt and Scheef (2004) generational theory indicates that a characteristic of Generation X is that they tend to reject rules while Millennials tend to want to rewrite rules.

The role of an agreed upon definition is tied to violence prevention efforts through the social norms theory (Perkins & Berkowitz, 1986). This connection is highlighted by recent trends in hazing awareness and reduction efforts such as *Step Up* (University of Arizona, 2006) and *Response Ability* (Dilbeck, 2008) which are social behavior and bystander intervention programs grounded in the social norms theory. In discussing the application of social norms theory to violence prevention, Berkowitz states:

In a review of the literature on bystander behavior, Latane and Darley (1969) identified five stages in the transition of individuals from passivity to action: 1) notice the event, 2) interpret it as a problem, 3) feel responsible for finding a solution, 4) possess the necessary skills to act, and 5) intervene. Particular interventions could be designed for each stage to remove the causes of bystander behavior and help individuals move on to the next stage (p. 10).

According to the bystander intervention model, the first steps to addressing negative behavior are the ability to notice an event and interpret it as a problem. In order to accomplish these steps, a common definition serves as the starting point.

At its core, hazing is an act of power and control over others (StopHazing.org, 2011). As a variable in social science research, hazing is a latent construct made up from indicators that include physical violence, mental harassment, degrading behavior, and verbal harassment. The term hazing is not observable yet the indicators that make it up can be observed and their impact measured. According to Garger (2011):

Latent constructs are theoretical in nature; they cannot be observed directly and, therefore, cannot be measured directly either. To measure a latent construct, researchers capture indicators that represent the underlying construct. The indicators are directly observable and are believed by the researcher to accurately represent the variable that cannot be observed.

Since the act of hazing is a latent construct, the question of whether or not a common definition of hazing can be achieved is germane. With incidents of hazing on the rise and noting the increase in the average annual number of deaths attributed to hazing between 1980 and 2000, it is essential to determine which model, analytical or extensional, best encapsulates the essence of hazing in a manner in which students can understand and apply.

Institutions of higher education and secondary education, as well as national fraternal organizations, have a vested interest in establishing an applicable definition of hazing. The legal landscape has been shifting and the courts are placing a higher duty of care on these institutions as noted by decisions in *Bradshaw v. Rawlings* (1979), *Furek v. University of Delaware* (1991), and *Knoll v. Board of Regents* (1999). According to Hollmann (2002), “Since 1990, more deaths have occurred on college and university campuses as a result of hazing, pledging and initiation accidents, and fraternal alcohol-related incidents than all recorded history of such deaths” (p. 11). “Since the landmark decision in *Bradshaw v. Rawlings* (1979), the question of how and to what extent institutions of higher education could be held liable for negligence involving student injuries has preoccupied the courts” (Pearson & Beckham, 2005, pp. 460-461).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study will be to investigate whether or not there are any differences in students’ ability to identify hazing activities after treatment which consists of reading either an

extensional (e.g., FIPG) definition of hazing, with a list of activities, or an analytical definition of hazing, consisting of descriptive phrases that indicate hazing which was developed with student input. A second purpose of this study will be to investigate whether or not there is a difference between students' ability to identify hazing activities between the demographic variables: sex, geographic region, and ethnicity. The focus will be on undergraduate students in higher education. This study will contribute to the literature by providing a model for defining the construct of hazing that resonates with today's student and addresses the lack of a common definition of hazing that is noted in the current literature.

This study is a pragmatic effort to move past the noted barrier of the concrete definition of hazing and develop a student-centric description of hazing which aids students in being able to step back from past practices or anticipated norms and assess events with a critical eye.

Research questions

1. Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?
2. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?
3. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?
4. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

Statistical Hypothesis

1. Students exposed to an analytical definition will not identify hazing activities at a higher rate than those exposed to an extensional definition.

2. Women will not identify hazing activity at a significantly higher rate than men.
3. Geography will not yield significantly different results in a students' ability to identify hazing activity.
4. Ethnicity will not yield significantly different results in a students' ability to identify hazing activity.

Significance of the Study

Determining if a student-centric developed description of hazing can increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities will provide a foundation for practitioners and organizations to develop a definition of hazing that resonates with the current student and address the gap noted in the current literature. In addition, if a student-centric description proves useful, this study will provide a process for revising existing hazing policies and developing a description of hazing that will increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities. Finally, this study will increase the number of studies that contribute to knowledge about hazing and its prevention, add to existing literature on hazing, and lead to future research on this topic.

Assumptions

The following assumptions are relevant to this study:

1. Sample of students involved were representative of the larger population (normal distribution and equal variances).
2. Participants in the study have prior knowledge of hazing activities, which is an issue examined in the study.

Limitations/Delimitations

This study will be delimited to undergraduate students attending institutions of higher education within the continuous United States. Also, participants who are invited to be a part of the study must voluntarily choose to participate in the study and, depending on the makeup of the sample, the results will only be generalized to students with similar characteristics.

This study will be delimited to the investigation of an extensional definition versus an analytical definition of a latent construct. The construct being studied is hazing. Although steps to control for prior knowledge of the issue will be taken, the possibility remains that prior knowledge of the issue or opinions about the issue could affect the generalizability of the study.

Definitions

Bystander intervention model: A five-step model, grounded in the social norms theory, to teach students skills for intervening when they witness poor behavior

Cognitive development theory: cluster of theories that focus on how people think, reason, and make meaning of their experiences (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 124).

FIPG: Acronym which originally stood for the Fraternity Insurance Purchasing Group; but now stands for the Fraternal Information and Programming Group. FIPG is a corporation organized for the purpose of providing information on risk management issues.

Fraternity: social Greek-letter organization

Generation X: Generation of people born after the Baby Boomers and before the Millennials; between circa 1960 - 1979

Generational theory: A theory that examines changes in human attitudes and behavior in the social mood over time chiefly developed by Strauss and Howe

Hazing (descriptive): A statement consisting of broad descriptive statements aimed at identifying indicators of hazing

Hazing (FIPG): A legal definition of hazing written in 1986 by the FIPG consisting of a definition of the term and a list of concrete examples of activities that could represent hazing

Millennials: Generation of people born after Generation X; roughly agreed to be born between 1980 – 2000.

National fraternal organization: The Corporation that serves as the foundation for a national Greek letter organization

National Panhellenic Conference: The premier advocacy and support organization for women's fraternities (NPC.org, 2011); composed of 26 organizations

National Pan-Hellenic Council: Organization composed of nine, historically black, International Greek letter Sororities and Fraternities

North-American Interfraternity Council: The trade association representing 75 International and National Men's Fraternities

Social norms theory: states that our behavior is influenced by incorrect perceptions of how other members of our social groups think and act (Alanberkowitz.com, 2011)

Sorority: Social Greek letter organization; primarily consisting of female members

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 contains an introduction to the study, discusses the statement of the problem, states the purpose of the study, delineates research questions, discusses the significance of the study, identifies limitations, delimitations, assumptions, and provides definitions of terms used in the study. Chapter 2 is a review of the literature regarding hazing and hazing definitions. Chapter 3 provides information related to the

population and sample, research design, data collection procedures, validity and reliability, and the procedures for the analysis of the data. Chapter 4 reports the findings in relation to the research questions. Finally, Chapter 5 provides conclusions and discussion based on the findings and recommendations for further study and practice.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Hazing is an issue that has existed within institutions of higher education and national organizations, arguably, since their founding. The act of a person in power exercising control over a person who is seeking membership in an organization or acceptance within an institution has historical roots that extend beyond the founding of our country. Theories and models have been developed to attempt to identify the construct of hazing yet statistics indicate that incidents are on the rise along with the number of injuries and deaths attributed to hazing. A debate prevalent in the literature is how do you define hazing and why does it persist? The purpose of this study was to examine two definitions models, side-by-side, and determine if one model demonstrates an ability to impact the ability of participants to identify hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than the other. The definition model types that were tested are the extensional and analytical model. The study compared the differences in mean scores of participants, following treatment with one of the definition models. Specific comparisons were made between the definition types. Demographic variables were collected and analysis was done to determine if sex, ethnicity, or geographic location impacted a participant's ability to identify hazing activities, regardless of treatment type. The research questions were:

1. Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?
2. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?
3. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?

4. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

In order to determine the impact of definition type on a participant's ability to recognize hazing activities, a review of current literature was conducted. First, the history of hazing is presented. Second, hazing within organizations and arguments in support of hazing, along with the role that media plays in advancing a pro-hazing position, are discussed. Third, hazing typologies are presented and a model is reviewed which hypothesizes why hazing persists. Fourth, the impact of hazing definitions on legal cases is reviewed in the context of why an organization would need to clearly define the behavior. Fifth, a brief review of the bystander intervention model and cognitive development theory, which serve as the theoretical foundation of this study, is presented. Finally, a review of current literature questioning the existence of a common definition of hazing is provided.

History of Hazing

Pennalism. Fagging. Dibbling. Hazing. Regardless of what term is used, hazing has been a part of societies and educational institutions for centuries. In order to understand the role and prevalence of hazing in American institutions of higher education, it is essential to understand the historical roots of hazing. Hazing practices, attempts to define hazing, support for hazing activities, and legislative acts to abolish hazing are not limited to the 21st century. Hazing, identified as a form of required subservience, existed in ancient and medieval schools in Berytus, Carthage, and Athens (Nuwer, 1999). Plato is cited as one of the first school administrators to document hazing when, in 387 B.C., he and other scholars wrote about the, "practical jokes played by unruly young men that injured the hazed and citizens who got in the way" (Nuwer, 1999, p. 92). Hazing practices in the ancient centers of learning largely consisted of practical

jokes, some extreme in nature, and upper class students requiring servitude from the first year students.

In Carthage, 371 B.C., an organization known as the “Overturners” carried hazing practices through the fourth century. Having been through the hazing ritual themselves, students refused to acknowledge the inherent wrong in hazing and in turn hazed the new members following in their path. In Nuwer (1999), Saint Augustine states that

There was something very like the action of devils in [the ‘Overturners’] behavior. [the hazers] were rightly called Overturners, since they had themselves been first overturned and perverted, tricked by those same devils who were secretly mocking them in the very acts by which they amused themselves in mocking and making fools of others” (p. 93).

Students attending medieval universities regarded hazing as a way to teach new students the precedence of the learning center. The ability to engage in hazing was a privilege held by upperclassmen and new students had to endure the hazing rituals in order to be a licensed member of the academy (Nuwer, 1999). Hazing activities in the early academies were both physical and mental in nature. As a new student, a boy could count on enduring a range of activities that included serving as a waiter, being required to demonstrate submissiveness toward more senior students, being struck with wooden objects, enduring public humiliations, or drinking gross concoctions.

The English practice of fagging was commonplace at institutions such as Cambridge and Oxford during this time period. Fagging, defined as “the right exercised by the older boy to make the younger do what he likes and what the younger generally dislikes” (Nuwer, 1990, p. 117), required first-year students to fulfill the role of servant to more senior students, if the upperclassman so desired. It was not a question of whether a new student would be hazed but

more a question of how long the hazing would last until the student was finally accepted so that he could in-turn haze others (Nuwer, 2000). From its inception, hazing has been an issue that has plagued institutions of higher education. According to Nuwer:

During the twelfth century and for hundreds of years afterward, hazing was a common scourge that universities failed to eradicate. ...University documents from the Middle Ages contain so many references to hazing and alcohol misuse among students that then, as now, the case can be made that the two practices were among the most serious social problems facing administrators and faculty on university campuses (1999, p. 93).

As institutions were confronted with the negative consequences of hazing, attempts were made to identify hazing practices and eradicate them from campus. According to Ellsworth, in *Hazing on Campus*, 2005:

During this time, authorities, including educators, landlords, and town officials, confronted hazing to different degrees, such as creating statutes against hazing, publishing lists of specific acts that were considered hazing, and removing conferred honors from students who were involved in hazing (Association of Fraternity Advisors, p. 3).

Throughout the early formative years of higher education attempts were made to identify, define, and end hazing practices among students. According to Nuwer (2004) a chronology of hazing includes the following notable milestones: In the mid 14th century, hazing was forbidden at the University of Paris under penalty of expulsion; during the 15th century, the first known anti-hazing fraternity was formed at Avignon and was called the Fraternity of Saint Sebastian; in the late 15th century the student handbook at the University of Heidelberg, the *Manuale Scholarium*, described the hazing rituals for new students which included the wearing of yellow-

billed caps; consequently, in the 19th century, the University of Heidelberg would enact policies that restricted specific identified hazing practices; and in 1501, Martin Luther endured hazing rituals while attending the Augustinian school and monastery at Erfurt (p. xxv).

Hazing is not limited to the formative history of institutions of higher education. During the settling of our country, apprentice cowboys would submit to hazing in order to gain acceptance; “Often they [greenhorns] would undergo discomfort by taking a hazing from old-timers” (Nuwer, 2000, p. 17). In this sense, to be hazed was to be responsible for driving cattle across the range under the watchful eye of the veteran cowboys.

The earliest recorded hazing incident at an institution of higher education in the United States occurred at Harvard in 1657. Noting the date, it did not involve a fraternity or a student organization, since fraternities were not established in the United States until 1776 when Phi Beta Kappa was founded at the College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, VA. According to Nuwer (1999) two Harvard students were fined six shillings, eight pence when they were found responsible for hazing John Cotton and John Whiting. It was also at Harvard that the first student was adjudicated for hazing. Joseph Webb, Harvard 1864, was expelled for egregious acts of hazing which included striking first-year students and having them perform servitude. He was readmitted to the institution after convincing the President that he was remorseful of his offense and graduated with his class (Nuwer, 1999). Since many college administrators at this time were members of the clergy, “a public confession in front of the student body and a formal petition to return were the usual conditions for returning to Harvard College after a student had been caught committing a serious offense” (Nuwer, 1999, pp. 100).

Personal servitude was the common form of hazing at Harvard and other colleges during the 1700’s. New students were provided printed lists of hazing activities from the sophomore

class which were distributed during chapel (Nuwer, 1999). These lists of rules indicated that new students were required to remove hats when speaking to seniors, run personal errands for seniors, and purchase sporting equipment for upperclassmen (Nuwer, 1999). While these activities eventually ceased at Harvard in 1798 due to the declared abhorrent nature of the activities, the fagging continued at other institutions. At Yale, the activities were not viewed as being dangerous or demeaning but were labeled “mischievous” by educator, Benjamin Silliman. At the College of William and Mary, these activities were referred to as merely silly stunts and pranks. Still other colleges regarded hazing as a form of “disorderly conduct” which tended to disrupt the operation of the institution (Nuwer, 1999).

The first death believed to have occurred as the result of hazing occurred in 1838 in Kentucky. While the official school records were lost in a fire, the personal family history of John Butler Groves describes his death from a hazing at Franklin Seminary. The records indicate that his parents refused to send any more children to college for fear that they would not return (Nuwer, 1999). Then, in 1847 at Amherst College, first year student Jonathan Torrance died after being subjected to a hazing ritual in which he was wrapped in cold wet bed sheets. The incident exacerbated his lung disease which led to his untimely death. In recording the incident, Amherst president Edward Hitchcock noted that hazing is a brutal practice and a barbarous college custom (Nuwer, 1999). This is believed to be the second student death attributable to hazing practices.

Injuries and deaths attributed to hazing were not solely limited to victims of hazing. In 1905, University of Michigan students Leon Albert Warren and Harold H. Corson were injured during a hazing ritual which the university had claimed it had halted. While administering an unwanted haircut to younger students, the two upperclassmen were stabbed, though not fatally. That same year at Franklin and Marshall College a second year student, Roy Ulsh, was shot and

killed by first year student Oscar Gingrich. Mr. Gingrich stated that this was done in retaliation for his mistreatment during a kangaroo court trial (Nuwer, 1999). These incidents, like today, often drew a quick and public reprimand from the public and state leaders.

The first hazing death attributed to a fraternity pledge occurred at Cornell University in 1873. First year student, Mortimer N. Leggett was driven to a remote area and dropped there, blindfolded, with other members of his pledge class. The group was instructed to walk back to campus and use the time together to bond. Leggett became disoriented by his surroundings and fell in to a gorge, dying as a result of his injuries. According to Nuwer (1999), 35 student deaths attributed to alcohol and hazing occurred between 1838 and 1969. That figure topped 210 student deaths between 1970 and 2001.

Hazing and the military

The United States military, military academies and military actions have all played an unwitting role in the history of hazing. The term ‘hazing’ was not widely used in the United States until the 1860’s, during the Civil War. According to a dispatch written by a soldier serving the Union Army in the Seventh (New York) Regiment, hazing, along with reading and letter writing, was a favorite pastime of soldiers. It is believed that in this context, hazing referred to rough housing and playing practical jokes (Nuwer, 1999).

Referred to as “dibbling” at West Point in the 1800’s, public hazing scandals have embarrassed the famed academy in 1881, 1900, 1907, 1917, 1973, 1976, and 1990 (Nuwer, 2004). The most infamous hazing incident at West Point occurred in 1900-1901 when first-year cadet, also referred to as a ‘plebe’, Oscar Booz died following a brutal hazing. Then cadet, Douglas MacArthur was questioned as part of a Congressional inquiry ordered by President McKinley yet provided what was best termed, “evasive testimony.” Eventually the inquiry

uncovered hazing practices at West Point which were described by the committee as torture (Nuwer, 2004).

As servicemen were returning to campus following World War II, due in part to the benefits afforded them by the GI bill, they thrust a new image of glorified hazing into the fraternities (Nuwer, 1990). Men who had served in war found the camaraderie of fraternities similar to that of their military bond yet were not willing to allow themselves to be hazed by younger students. That said, they were more than willing to utilize their training and experiences to introduce toned down military hazing rituals into fraternity pledging programs (Nuwer, 1990). The practices introduced by returning veterans included physical challenges and calisthenics that pledges were required to participate in.

It was during this time that the first nationally covered hazing incident occurred at the University of Southern California in December of 1959. The incident, which served as the basis for a scene in the 1974 movie *Fraternity Row*, involved student Richard Snow, a pledge of Kappa Sigma fraternity, being required to swallow a chunk of raw liver. The liver became lodged in his throat and he choked to death (Nuwer, 1999). This incident drew the criticism of the public yet the outcry and fervor was short-lived as the country dealt with the growing conflict in Vietnam.

Between 1960-1970 membership in fraternities declined sharply, as did the number of deaths attributed to hazing. The college students of the 1960's were antiestablishment and fraternities were viewed as part of the establishment and status quo (Nuwer, 1999). From 1960-1969, two student deaths were attributed to hazing in the United States (Nuwer, 2011). The decrease in hazing activity and corresponding drop in hazing deaths was short-lived. As the Vietnam War ended, service men returned to campus and membership in fraternities, as well as

the number of deaths attributed to hazing, rose during the 1970's. This decade saw thirty-one students lose their lives to hazing and related activities (Hollmann, 2002).

The quasi-military activities introduced into pledging programs during this period form the image of hazing that is attributed to fraternal organizations, marching bands, and sports teams, still today. As evidenced by the history of hazing, attempts to define and eradicate hazing have not been successful. Nuwer sums it up succinctly when he says

The past offers a challenge to educators, legislators, parents, and students themselves. Throughout time, those who educate and those who seek an education have found value in rituals that symbolically prove that newcomers are willing to submit to their supposed betters, willing to show that they have the fortitude to bear whatever difficulties they may face in the future. ...So long as educators persist in believing that brutish hazing serves a useful purpose that civilized behavior cannot achieve more effectively, the red stain of hazing will continue to besmirch academe's ivory towers (1999, pp. 114-115).

Hazing Within Student Organizations

The history of hazing demonstrates that the activities and rituals commonly referred to as hazing have been intertwined with institutes of higher education since at least the fourth century. The practices have evolved and cycled from personal servitude to savage beatings which have resulted in injuries and deaths. Throughout the evolution of hazing, the base dynamic of power and control remains constant. General Hopgood, commandant of the corps of cadets at Texas A&M, is quoted in Nuwer as saying that hazing is the "moral equivalent of rape" due to the fact that a person in a position of power preys on those without it (1999, p. 113). While the base has

remained the same, the nature of the activities and rituals tends to vary based on the type of organization that is engaging in the activity.

Sorority Hazing

Hazing is most often attributed to men and fraternities yet it occurs in women's organizations as well (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2004; Shaw, 1992). The construct of hazing activities engaged in by sororities tends to be less physically threatening than men's organizations and thus is correlated to only six student deaths related to hazing, initiation, and/or pledging-related accidents in sororities between 1970-2009 compared to 148 such deaths within men's organizations for the same time period (Nuwer, 2011).

According to a national study of sorority hazing activities conducted by Shaw in 1992, the top three hazing activities women reported participating in as pledges and active members were required singing (70.6%), blindfolding (51.4%), and scavenger hunts (41.2%). Shaw's research indicated that a significant number of sorority women have participated in hazing activities and that women who experienced hazing as a pledge were likely to participate in hazing activities as a member against pledges (Shaw, 1992). Shaw's research found a statistically significant positive correlation between members and pledges who have participated in and experienced hazing yet do not define that activity as hazing (Shaw, 1992). This study found that incidents of sorority hazing were more prevalent in the northeastern United States (Shaw, 1992).

In 2008, Allan and Madden's national hazing study indicated that 52 percent of women, who are involved in a student organization at college, including sororities, have experienced hazing activities as a requirement of membership and 45 percent of the women in the national study experienced hazing in high school (p. 14). From the national study, women tend to engage in hazing activities centered on public singing and associating with specific people and not others

while men tend to engage in hazing activities centered on drinking alcohol (tables 4 & 5, p. 18). Both studies, Shaw and Allan, indicate that an overwhelming majority of women who have experienced and/or participated in hazing activities do not label it as such (Allan & Madden, 2008; Shaw, 1992).

Fraternity, Marching Band, Sports Team Hazing

While hazing did not originate within men's fraternal organizations, it was not long after they were founded that hazing became a part of their initiation of new members. According to Nuwer, (1999), hazing became part of the initiation rituals of fraternities very soon after they were founded. The founding of Phi Beta Kappa at the College of William and Mary in 1776 is commonly cited as the beginning of the American Fraternal System. Fraternity historians such as Hank Nuwer state that the true start of American fraternities as we envision them today occurred in 1825 with the founding of Kappa Alpha Society (Nuwer, 1999). Within less than 50 years of the founding of Kappa Alpha Society, the first fraternity pledge hazing death occurred at Cornell University.

The hazing construct often observed in fraternities, marching bands, and sports teams, whether varsity or club, in contrast to the sorority hazing model, centers on physical challenges for pledges or rookies to participate in. While the research indicates that women's hazing is more psychological and often includes public embarrassment and restricted associations, men's hazing includes the consumption of alcohol, sleep deprivation, calisthenics, and public ridicule (Allan & Madden, 2008). One notable difference between fraternity and non-fraternity hazing rituals is that fraternity hazing generally occurs over a semester whereas non-fraternal hazing tends to be conducted during a, "single frenzied night of drinking or other potentially risky activities" (Nuwer, 1999, p. 32).

Pro Hazing Argument

Hazing has been a part of institutions of higher education since the fourth century. The accounts of students maimed or killed in hazing activities are numerous (Nuwer, 1999; Hollmann, 2002). In spite of this, hazing is not universally regarded as negative. “A prevalent and longstanding view is that hazing is a harmless rite of passage designed to help develop comradery and respect among teammates or other peer groups” (Taylor, 2001, p. 27). Over time, public figures and publications have celebrated hazing rituals and pontificated on their virtues. The national hazing study indicates that “more students perceive positive rather than negative outcomes of hazing” (Allan & Madden, 2008, p. 26). Hazing defenders support author John Fitzgerald when he states, “Hazing seldom *is* dangerous despite the occasional tragedies, and... deplore as we might the existence of any hazing, a sense of balance is required” (Fitzgerald, 1962, p. 141). For many, hazing is an acceptable means to a desired end.

In the learning centers of the Middle Ages, administrators tolerated and often encouraged hazing rituals. These practices were viewed as a legitimate means by which to teach precedence to uncivilized entering students (Nuwer, 1999). In 1501, Martin Luther, whose teachings inspired the Protestant Reformation, endured a hazing ritual while attending the Augustinian school at Erfurt which consisted of a de-horning and pseudo-baptismal cleansing (Nuwer, 1999). He later openly supported hazing rituals saying that they “strengthened a boy, enabling him to endure more easily the perils and challenges of life as an adult” (Nuwer, 1999, p. 99).

Military figures and branches have institutionalized and protected hazing rituals. In 1901, West Point cadet Douglas MacArthur was called to testify before a House committee investigating hazing at the United States Military Academy. During his testimony, “MacArthur failed to provide full disclosure of the savage hazing he endured” (Nuwer, 2004, p. xxv). Sailors

crossing the equator for the first time must endure a hazing ritual that is intended to incorporate “landlubber officers” into the society of common sailors. Drawing on these examples, hazing supporters argue that if an activity does not cause physical harm, it is justified (Nuwer, 1999).

In 1962, author John Fitzgerald wrote *A Complete Guide to College Fraternity Rushing and Pledging*. In it, Fitzgerald offers tips to young men seeking membership in a college fraternity and offers this advice in regards to hazing

The manner of servitude and ways of defining freshmen as inferiors may have become more defined and ingenious, but this kind of hazing is universal. Accept it in good grace, do the most infuriating and degrading tasks as cheerfully as possible, and keep your sense of humor about it” (Fitzgerald, 1962, p. 139).

The web site, StopHazing.org, dedicates a page to hazing supporters in an effort to provide a holistic view of the issue. One hazing supporter provided the following impassioned letter regarding his experience with hazing

Hazing taught me to humble myself, listen to authority, [and] interact with several people closer than most people do with their best friend, siblings or family. Most of all, hazing taught me my personal limits on pushing myself beyond what I ever have had to overcome. It taught me to be mentally and physically resourceful, both by myself and with others (2011).

Hazing of college and professional athletes is often celebrated by sports tabloid shows, publications, and YouTube videos. “Hazing in professional team sports is meant to indoctrinate nascent professional athletes into their new surroundings and promote team bonding. Hazing serves the purpose of keeping players freshly minted with lucrative contracts from getting [an] enhanced ego” (Crow & Rosner, 2002, p. 101). The annual parading of rookie athletes in odd

dress, taping of rookies to goal posts, shaving of rookie's hair, and vandalism of rookie's cars is eagerly awaited and covered by sports casters. In 1999, in an apparent response to the Alfred University Hazing Study, *Sports Illustrated* ran an op-ed piece written by Richard Hoffer which argued that hazing is necessary in college and professional sports teams. The author was deliberate in the manner in which he defined hazing saying

First off, let's make it clear that we believe the ritual flogging of college freshmen with wooden coat hangers is wrong, wrong, wrong. That's not wholesome hazing, and *Sports Illustrated* won't stand for it. Nor do we condone gantlets, forced drinking or so-called atomic sit-ups. We are, almost unanimously, against psychopathic behavior, at least the kind that leads to criminal charges.

The author then expounded on his definition of hazing and arguably its necessity in sports

Of course, our idea of hazing may be different from yours. But let's assume we can all tell the difference between good, clean fun and felonious assault. Branding is not hazing. Nor is kidnapping. The forced consumption of goldfish may or may not be hazing. ("That's a gray area," says one SI editor.) But why throw the good out with the goldfish? (Hoffer, 1999).

The open support for the necessity and virtue of hazing by sports reporters, professional athletes, and web-based videos popularizes hazing activities. The normalization of hazing rituals creates a conflicting message in the American media and raises reasonable doubt in the minds of many parents and children about the dangers of hazing due to the fact that the perpetrators are revered as role models and heroes. The support for hazing begs the question, "If it is good for these people, how can it be harmful for me?" Supporters of hazing view the activities and rituals as necessary to accomplish a specific goal and describe the activities as 'good clean fun' or

‘wholesome’. The difference between a pro-hazing stance and a no-hazing stance may be the manner in which hazing is defined and which activities are identified as hazing.

Hazing Constructs: Typology and Theoretical

At its core, hazing is an act of power and control over others (StopHazing.org, 2011). As a variable in social science research, hazing is a latent construct made up from indicators that include physical violence, psychological harassment, degrading behavior, and verbal harassment. The term hazing is not observable yet the typologies that make it up (e.g., physical, verbal, mental) can be observed and their impact measured.

In recent studies, when asked to identify hazing activities, physical hazing activities were correctly identified by both men and women at a significantly higher rate than psychological or other hazing activities (Owen, Burke, Vichesky, 2008; Ellsworth, 2004). Activities and rituals that fall into the physical realm can be traced through the history of hazing on college campuses. Activities such as being required to consume alcohol, sleep deprivation, paddling, and forced calisthenics fall in the physical hazing category and are commonly referred to when describing a hazing scenario. These activities are readily identified as hazing due to the fact that they are easy to view.

One question that permeates current literature is, “Why does hazing persist?” In attempting to provide an answer to this question, two research projects hypothesize that a cycle of violence may be a factor in the continuance of hazing. Widom and Maxfield (2001) define a cycle of violence as the propensity for a person who has suffered abuse to repeat the abuse on others (p. 1). Owen, et al. (2008), researching the attitudes of students about hazing, found the following

There was a positive correlation between the number of items a respondent had experienced and the number that the respondent had committed against another person.

This suggests that hazing approximates a cycle of violence whereby the high-rate victims (in this case, those who are victimized by hazing) have a greater tendency to become high-rate abusers (in this case, the perpetrators of hazing), both with increasingly positive attitudes toward hazing (p. 50).

In this study, based on the mean scores for composite factors, participants readily identified physical, egregious acts as hazing yet did not classify more subtle acts of power and control as hazing. These results, while providing excellent data on perceptions and possible approaches to address hazing, continue to highlight that a standard definition is not commonly accepted.

Legal Issues and Hazing

Institutions of higher education and secondary education, as well as national fraternal organizations, have a vested interest in an applicable definition of hazing. The legal landscape has been shifting and the courts are placing a higher duty of care on these institutions as evinced by recent decisions which are grounded in one of three theories 1) the doctrine of *in loco parentis*; 2) the landowner-invitee theory; or 3) the existence of a special relationship (MacLachlan, 2000; Crow & Rosner, 2002; Pearson & Beckham, 2005; Gerstein & Gerstein, 2008; Hall, 2009).

Hollmann reports that since 1990 colleges and universities have seen a dramatic increase in the annual average number of deaths related to hazing (2002). Results from the *National Hazing Study*, released in 2008, indicate that 55 percent of students who are active in clubs or organizations experience hazing and in 25 percent of the hazing experiences, students believed

coaches, advisors, and/or alumni knew about the hazing (Allan & Madden, 2008). The Alfred University national survey of student-athletes shows that 66 percent of student athletes endure humiliating hazing in order to join a team (Hoover, 1999). Based on the data that indicates that hazing incidents are regularly occurring at a significant rate, colleges and universities, as well as national fraternal organizations, must understand the potential for liability for the hazing of their students (Crow & Rosner, 2002).

In layman's terms, in order for an institution to be found liable for injuries sustained from hazing activities, the courts must determine that they were negligent. In order for a person (e.g., plaintiff) to successfully recover under a claim of negligence against an organization (e.g., defendant), they must establish four elements: 1) a legal duty of care on the defendant's behalf; 2) a breach of the established duty; 3) evidence that the breach is the actual and proximate cause of injury; and 4) actual damages to the plaintiff (Crow & Rosner, 2002; Pearson & Beckham, 2005). In this theory, the linchpin is the establishment of a legally recognized duty of care. When deciding the liability of universities for the hazing injuries of their students, courts apply the theories of *in loco parentis*, landowner-invitee, or special relationship (Crow & Rosner, 2002).

In loco parentis and hazing liability

Prior to 1970, institutions of higher education operated under a model of *in loco parentis* which is Latin for, in place of a parent. This was an intrusive paradigm in which students were subjected to curfews, limited dormitory visitation hours, and bed checks. During the 1960's college students openly protested racism and the Vietnam War. In an effort to maintain order and control on campus, administrators would impose harsh sanctions without due process, citing *in loco parentis* (MacLachlan, 2000). Not willing to take the harsh treatment, students filed suit to reclaim their rights and challenge the doctrine of *in loco parentis*. Decisions in two landmark

cases, *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education* (1961) and *Bradshaw v. Rawlings* (1979), in addressing the questions to what extent colleges had to afford students constitutional rights, and were colleges subject to tort liability for student injuries, set the foundation for ending the *in loco parentis* doctrine and altered the university-student relationship (Hall, 2009).

Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education was brought as a result of six students being expelled from Alabama State College in Montgomery, AL without a hearing. The students filed suit claiming that as a result of their participation in a civil rights demonstration in a courthouse lunch room, they were summarily expelled without the opportunity to defend themselves against the charges; amounting to a violation of their constitutional rights (Dixon, 1960). The lower courts ruled that the students' rights had not been violated and that the college acted within its authority (e.g. *in loco parentis*) when Judge Johnson wrote in the opinion

the action taken by the defendants as members of the State Board of Education and as officials of the Alabama State College was justified and, in fact, necessary in order that the college could operate and be operated in a proper manner. The courts have consistently upheld the validity of regulations that have the effect of reserving to the college the right to dismiss students at any time for any reason without divulging its reason other than its being for the general benefit of the institution (Dixon, 1960 U.S. Dist.)

The district court's decision was appealed to the United States Court of Appeals Fifth Circuit who reversed the lower court's decision. The appellate court looked at whether or not the expelled students' fourteenth amendment rights, the right to due process, had been violated. In the majority opinion, Justice Rives wrote, "After careful study and consideration, we find ourselves unable to agree with the conclusion of the district court that no notice or opportunity

for any kind of hearing was required before these students were expelled” (Dixon, 1961). This decision directly eroded the view of the college as able to act in place of a parent and suspend or expel students without due process. “In the midst of the student protest movements of the 1960s and 1970s, Dixon transformed the university-student relationship from the paternalistic in loco parentis doctrine to a more contractually driven consumer/service relationship” (Hall, 2009, p. 31).

Bradshaw v. Rawlings was brought after Delaware Valley College student, Donald Bradshaw, was injured in an automobile accident when he was a passenger in fellow Delaware Valley College student, Bruce Rawlings, vehicle. As a result of the accident, Bradshaw suffered a cervical fracture resulting in quadriplegia. Both students had attended a college picnic at which alcohol was provided by the college and the accident occurred on the drive back to campus following the event. Bradshaw brought a civil action against Rawlings, the college, and the beer distributor in federal court for negligence. The question before the court was did the college breach its duty to prevent harm to under-age students attending the picnic (MacLachlan, 2000)?

The issue was decided by a jury which entered a judgment in favor of Bradshaw. All defendants appealed to the United States Court of Appeals Third Circuit. The college argued that it did not owe a duty of care to Bradshaw. The appellate court agreed with the college and wrote in its decision

Our beginning point is a recognition that the modern American college is not an insurer of the safety of its students. Whatever may have been its responsibility in an earlier era, the authoritarian role of today's college administrations has been notably diluted in recent decades. Trustees, administrators, and faculties have been required to yield to the expanding rights and privileges of their students. By constitutional amendment, written

and unwritten law, and through the evolution of new customs, rights formerly possessed by college administrations have been transferred to students. College students today are no longer minors; they are now regarded as adults in almost every phase of community life (Bradshaw, 1979).

The decision in Bradshaw directly answered the question of a college's tort liability for student injuries caused by a third party and further eroded the doctrine of *in loco parentis*. The erosion of the *in loco parentis* doctrine is commonly referred to as the "no duty" rule (Crow & Rosner, 2002). Under the "no duty" rule, it seems unlikely that a student injured during a hazing activity would be able to prevail in a negligence claim against an institution of higher education. When society began to view college students as adults in the 1970s, however, courts began to hold that colleges had no duty to protect their students. Consequently, the doctrine of *in loco parentis* seems to have met its demise on college campuses (Crow & Rosner, 2002, p. 93).

Landowner-invitee and hazing liability

The diminishing practice of *in loco parentis*, has not absolved institutions of higher education from being named as defendants in injury or death cases as a result of hazing on campus. "Since the landmark decision in Bradshaw v. Rawlings (1979), the question of how and to what extent institutions of higher education could be held liable for negligence involving student injuries has preoccupied the courts" (Pearson & Beckham, 2005, pp. 460-461). Crow and Rosner, writing for the *St. John's Law Review* in 2002, state that as more students are charged with criminal hazing, institutions are being held responsible for their care. "The courts, however, have not reinstated the doctrine of *in loco parentis* to establish a duty of care. Instead, they are relying on traditional tort law to treat college and university defendants the same as landlords, i.e., with a duty to act reasonably" (Crow & Rosner, 2002, p. 93). While colleges and universities

are not normally regarded as the insurers of a students' wellbeing, judges have imposed institutional liability for breach of a duty of care associated with the role of the institution as a landlord responsible for the safety of campus residents and invitees (Pearson & Beckham, 2005, p. 461). *Furek v. University of Delaware* (1991) and *Knoll v. Board of Regents* (1999) are two landmark cases that establish the precedent for the university to be charged as negligent under the landowner-invitee theory.

In the fall of 1979, Jeffrey Furek entered the University of Delaware on a football scholarship and played linebacker for the football team. In the fall of his sophomore year, Furek decided to join Sigma Phi Epsilon fraternity. During a hazing activity known as 'Hell Night', Furek sustained chemical burns to his face, neck and back when a caustic substance was poured over his head (Furek, 1991). Due to the discoloration and permanent scarring, Furek left school, forfeiting his full ride scholarship. He subsequently filed a negligence suit against the fraternity and university. Furek asserted that as the landowner, and due to its knowledge of previous hazing incidents on campus, the university owed him a duty of care. As a landlord, a university has a duty to aid or protect those invitees who enter their land (Crow & Rosner, 2002).

After the initial decision, in which the local and national fraternity and the university were dismissed from the case and one defendant was saddled with the punitive damages, the case was appealed to the Supreme Court of Delaware. In deciding the appeal, the Supreme Court addressed the issue of what, if any, duty the university owed Furek. In its opinion, the Supreme Court indicated that a duty was owed to Furek by the university in part due to the location of the fraternity property

The court also ruled that in view of the evidence suggesting that the University was aware of the "dangerous propensities of the fraternities as they related to

hazing," and the fraternity's location on University property, it could not be said, as a matter of law, that no duty was owed to Furek [**23]. A landowner who knows or should know of an unreasonably dangerous condition or use of his property has a duty to invitees to safeguard the invitee against such hazards including the conduct of third parties [FN 132, MacLachlan] (Furek, 1991).

Pearson and Beckham surmise

The Furek decision reflected changing societal attitudes toward hazing and suggests that institutions are not free from all obligations to protect their students. Imposing liability on the institution was based on the presumption that the university had a degree of control over its premises, including fraternity houses, which was supported by its involvement in the regulation of fraternity life. It was determined that this control, combined with the cumulative evidence that the incident was foreseeable, created a duty to protect the student from harm (2005, p. 466).

Drawing on the *Furek* decision, *Knoll v. Board of Regents* (1999) further defined the precedent for universities to be held to a duty of care under the landowner-invitee theory. Jeffrey Knoll, a pledge to the Phi Gamma Delta fraternity (FIJI) at the University of Nebraska, Lincoln campus, was kidnapped from campus in handcuffs as part of a fraternity hazing activity. Knoll was taken to the fraternity house where he was handcuffed to a radiator and provided shots of alcohol. Due to severe intoxication, Knoll became ill and was moved to a third-floor bathroom and handcuffed to a pipe. In attempting to escape, Knoll fell from a third-floor window and sustained injuries. The Phi Gamma Delta fraternity house is located on private property yet is considered student housing under the university's Code of Conduct (MacLachlan, 2000).

Following the incident, Knoll filed an act for negligence against the university alleging that the University had acted negligently in failing to enforce prohibitions against acts of hazing, the consumption of alcohol, and physically abusive behavior when the University knew or should have known that the FIJI house was in violation of the rules prohibiting such activities (Knoll, 1999, *4).

The initial claim against the university was dismissed by the trial court and Knoll appealed to the Supreme Court of Nebraska claiming, “The University owed him a duty as a landowner based on FIJI’s handcuffing and abducting Knoll on the university’s property” (MacLachlan, 2000, p. 19).

Using reasoning that paralleled *Furek*, the Nebraska Supreme Court reversed the ruling of the trial court. The *Knoll* court cited the following elements as evidence that the University owed a duty of care under the landowner-invitee theory: the University’s prior knowledge of hazing incidents involving fraternities; the University’s knowledge of past infractions involving FIJI fraternity members; the proximity of the FIJI house to university property; and the consideration of the FIJI house as student housing by the University’s Code of Conduct. Based on these elements, the Supreme Court stated in its decision, “The University owes a landowner-invitee duty to students to take reasonable steps to protect against foreseeable acts of hazing, including student abduction on the University’s property, and the harm that naturally flows therefrom” (Knoll, 1999). “The implication of this decision is that when hazing is foreseeable in a given situation, the school and administrators can be held responsible for not taking steps to prevent it regardless of whether the harmful incident occurs on or off campus” (Crow & Rosner, 2002, p. 95).

Special relationship and hazing liability

Citing the *Restatement of Torts* (Second, 314), Pearson and Beckham (2005) state the following about the role of special relationships between universities and students as it relates to negligence

As student affairs professionals expand programs and services to meet the educational needs of students, they must anticipate that judges will recognize a special duty predicated on a foreseeable risk of injury and a judicially imposed duty of reasonable care applicable to institutions of higher education when the institution's agents exercise a heightened level of control over student activities (p. 461).

Crow and Rosner provide the following illustration about special relationships

A basic tenet of tort law is that no duty of care exists between two parties unless they have a special relationship. Common examples of special relationships are parent and child, common carrier and passenger, innkeeper and guest, and landowner and invitee. Student-athletes injured in hazing accidents might also argue that the special relationship between the university and its student athletes creates a duty of care (Crow, 2002, p. 96).

While institutions of higher education actively market their services and recruit students to campus, the courts do not view them as custodial institutions. Colleges are viewed as educational institutions and students as adults who can fend for themselves (Crow & Rosner, 2002). If the courts were to rule that colleges were responsible for ensuring the safety of students, this would decrease the autonomy of students and could produce an environment on campus that students perceive as repressive, in contrast to the mission of a college education

(Crow & Rosner, 2002). Further, “Judges reason that institutional liability would ultimately lead to restrictive regulations and practices that would create unreasonable financial burdens for institutions and severely restrict student freedom, thus ‘contravening a goal of higher education: the maturation of students’” (Pearson & Beckham, 2005, p. 462). That said, given the right set of circumstances, universities have been found negligent for failure to meet the standard of care arising from a special relationship with students. Notable cases that establish precedent for the special relationship between a college and its students are *Mullins v. Pine Manor College* (1983) and *Brueckner v. Norwich University* (1999).

In 1977, Lisa Mullins was a residential student at Pine Manor College in Brookline, Massachusetts. On the morning of December 11, 1977, Mullins was awakened by an intruder. She was abducted from her room and raped at the college dining hall (MacLachlan, 2000). As a result of the incident, Mullins filed a claim of negligence against the college and the vice president of operations for breach of their duty to protect her. Mullins prevailed in her suit.

In its opinion, the *Mullins* court established two precedents: 1) due to the steps that the college had taken to ensure the safety of its students, a duty of care was established; on this point the court said, “The college community itself has recognized its obligation to protect resident students from the criminal acts of third parties. This recognition indicates that ... a duty of care is firmly embedded in a community consensus”; and 2) noting the decline of *in loco parentis* and the special relationship between college and student, the court said

[t]he fact that a college need not police the morals of its resident students, however, does not entitle it to abandon any effort to ensure their physical safety”.

In *Mullins*, the court explicitly recognized a duty arising from the “existing social

values and customs” as well as from the student-university relationship (MacLachlan, 2000, p. 9-10).

Twenty-four year old, navy veteran, William Brueckner entered the Military College of Vermont of Norwich University in August 1990. Brueckner was attending college on an \$80,000 naval ROTC scholarship. As part of the approved orientation, the first year students were indoctrinated by upper-class students (MacLachlan, 2000). After enduring sixteen days of what was described as “numerous incidents of hazing”, Brueckner reported his concerns to the college officials and withdrew from the institution. Following his withdrawal, Brueckner brought a negligence claim against the college for “assault and battery, intentional and negligent infliction of emotional distress and negligent supervision” (MacLachlan, 2000, p. 16). Brueckner prevailed on all counts, earning a judgment against the college in excess of \$1.8 million, including punitive damages and emotional distress.

In its opinion, the Brueckner court held that, “The institution was liable for the tortuous acts of the cadre both because the institution had authorized the indoctrination and orientation and because the institution was negligent in meeting a duty of reasonable care to control and supervise the cadre (Pearson & Beckham, 2005, p. 467). Unlike the *Furek* or *Knoll* cases, the *Brueckner* case hinges directly on the amount of control exercised by the institution in the activities. In deciding these cases, the courts focused on foreseeable risk, as it relates to hazing cases, as an extension of institutional liability. According to Pearson and Beckham (2005), “Emphasis on the foreseeable risk in hazing cases represents an extension of institutional liability based on an expanded special duty relationship between student and institution” (p. 467). Pearson and Beckham further conclude

As judges are concerned with the public policies their decisions are likely to engender, it may be fair to say that the imposition of liability for hazing reflects judicial awareness of foreseeable risk, and the imposition of a duty on institutions to affirmatively act to reduce the risk of a known, dangerous activity (p. 467).

Noting the increase in deaths and injuries on college campuses attributed to hazing, and the subsequent litigation, institutions of higher education should be alarmed (Hollmann, 2002). According to Pearson and Beckham (2005), “While colleges and universities are not normally regarded as the insurers of a students’ wellbeing, judges have imposed institutional liability for breach of a duty of care associated with the role of the institution” (p. 461). The current literature on relevant court precedents indicates that institutions of higher education are in somewhat of a bind when it comes to pursuing a prudent course of action in regards to addressing hazing in their communities. Based on their review of recent cases, Gerstein and Gerstein (2008) stated, “Colleges that limit activity to publication of regulations and dissemination of information manage to avoid liability for fraternity-related injuries.” (p. 80).

Yet, the interpretation of the decision of the Furek court by Pearson and Beckham (2005), “...the [Furek] court found the likelihood of injury during hazing activities occurring on university campuses to be greater than the utility of university inaction” (p. 466) stands in contrast to Gerstein’s assertion. The decision in the Furek case, if it is believed to represent the attitude of society, appears to indicate a shift in which colleges are not free from their duty to protect students simply due to the demise of the *in loco parentis* doctrine (Pearson & Beckham, 2005).

Hollmann (2002), sums up the legal landscape regarding the liability of colleges and national organizations for injuries caused by hazing and draws attention to the role that a definition for hazing has as a preventative measure, in this manner

Inconsistent state laws and overbroad definitions of hazing in campus policies also create confusion and a lack of commitment to enforcement. Court decisions have generally found the student organization (including the national organization in the case of fraternities and sororities) liable for damages, but courts may be shifting their decisions to include liability on the part of institutions that fail to take action to prevent hazing (p. 20).

In light of the shifting landscape and willingness of the courts to hold institutions and organizations criminally and civilly liable for hazing injuries, the need for an agreed upon definition of hazing is warranted.

Cognitive development theory and bystander intervention model

The ability to comprehend a definition of hazing and apply it to assorted activity scenarios falls in the realm of cognitive ability. Cognitive theories of development focus on how a person thinks. “Cognitive-structural theories examine the process of intellectual development during the college years. These theories focus on how people think, reason, and make meaning of their experiences” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 124). Cognitive development theory focuses on the assimilation and accommodation of new information. In lay terms, a person interprets and evaluates events based on their stage of development. As events become more complex, the former framework or lens by which the person organized events no longer fits which causes cognitive dissonance. As the person faces this disequilibrium, they will attempt to make the old framework fit, this is known as assimilation: “Assimilation is the process of

integrating new information into existing structures” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 124). When assimilation does not address the changing complexity of the event, the student will accommodate the new parameters and modify their framework: “Accommodation is the process of modifying existing structures or creating new structures” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 124). The ideal place for the student to be is in equilibrium between assimilation and accommodation in order for them to interact with their environment.

As the student moves through various stages of development, faces disequilibrium, and then regains equilibrium through assimilation and accommodation, cognitive growth is thought to occur and their ability to process more complex matters increases. The role of the student affairs professional is to provide an environment that continually challenges a students’ prescribed way of thinking. These challenges force students to examine new ways of thinking about issues and should enable the student to view issues from a broader perspective.

There are several prominent theorists in cognitive development theory such as Piaget, Baxter Magolda, Belenky, Kohlberg, Perry, and Gilligan. According to Wankat and Oreovicz (1992), “the two theories of development which have been the most influential in the education of scientists and engineers [are] Piaget’s theories of childhood development and Perry’s theory of development of college students” (p. 264).

Perry’s theory of intellectual and ethical development is comprised of nine positions which exist along a continuum from dualistic thinking to relativistic thinking. Perry notes that no development occurs within the stages; rather, development occurs when a person moves from one stage to another; “Perhaps development is all transition and stages only resting points along the way” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 130).

Dualistic thinkers view events and issues dichotomously: good-bad, right-wrong, black-white (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 131). Students in this position of development would view education as simply an exchange of facts from the professor to the student. Dualistic students would want to only know the ‘right’ answer and would not be interested in learning processes for testing multiple possible solutions. Multiplistic thinkers are open to several points of view on an issue when no correct answer is known (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 131). For example, on the issue of global warming, many well-respected researchers and scientists have openly disagreed on the causes. This lack of black-white information on this issue would nudge a student to move from the dualistic position to a multiplistic position when they could not get the ‘correct’ answer from the authority figure. Students moving through this position would be learning to think independent of others. Relativistic thinkers recognize that not all opinions on an issue are correct, and that reasonable, educated people may disagree on issues. For students in the relativistic position, “Knowledge is now viewed more qualitatively; it is contextually defined, based on evidence and supporting arguments” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 132).

The latent construct of hazing is not directly measurable and must be evaluated through the measurement or observance of indicators. Through the lens of cognitive development theory, a definition of hazing would either have to explicitly delineate hazing activities or provide a description of activities that indicate hazing. This study examined two definition models juxtaposed, extensional and analytical, to determine which model affected a participant’s ability to identify hazing activities.

Definition typology

According to Sager and L'Homme (1994), "...a definition is a description of a concept" (p. 352). This study tested two definition models to determine if one type had a significantly greater impact on a participants' ability to recognize hazing activities following treatment as measured by the mean score on hazing variables. The two definition types were extensional and analytical. An analytical definition is described by Sager and L'Homme (1994) as, "...that of an equation in which the right side paraphrases the meaning of the left side; the left side is constituted by the concept...whereas the right side consists of a noun phrase providing the meaning of the definiendum" (p. 352). An extensional definition is described by Sager and L'Homme (1994) as a, "definition listing only the extension of a concept" (p. 354). The definitions utilized in this study were the FIPG definition developed in 1987, which is an extensional definition and an emerging definition obtained from qualitative document review.

The FIPG definition was utilized as the treatment text for the extensional treatment group. Per the description of this type of definition provided by Sager and L'Homme (1994), the concept hazing is defined by extension of the concept. For example, the FIPG (1987) definition of hazing is written as follows

"Any action taken or situation created, intentionally, to produce mental or physical discomfort, embarrassment, harassment, or ridicule. Such activities may include but are not limited to the following:

- ✓ use of alcohol
- ✓ paddling in any form
- ✓ creation of excessive fatigue
- ✓ physical and psychological shocks
- ✓ quests, treasure hunts, scavenger hunts
- ✓ road trips or any other such activities
- ✓ wearing of public apparel which is conspicuous and not normally in good taste
- ✓ engaging in public stunts and buffoonery
- ✓ morally degrading or humiliating games and activities

In this model, the list of activities that follow the colon represent activities that indicate hazing behaviors. The activities, which are extensions of the concept of hazing, help to define the term.

The following definition, which was drafted by the researcher and colleagues after a review of policies gathered from the Association for Student Conduct Administration (ASCA) as work product, was utilized as the treatment text for the analytical treatment group. Per the description of this type of definition provided by Sager and L'Homme (1994), the concept hazing is defined by descriptive phrases. For this study, the analytical definition of hazing was

Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that inflicts or intends to inflict physical or mental harm or discomfort or which may demean, disgrace, humiliate, or degrade a reasonable person, regardless of location or consent of participant(s)

Any group or individual conduct, action or activity which presents a threat to a students' health or safety, which shall include but not be limited to any brutality of a physical nature, or forced physical activity that could adversely affect the physical and/or mental health or safety of a student

Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that by design, intent or recklessness causes a student to be unable to reasonably pursue an academic schedule, or interferes with or attempts to interfere with a students' academic schedule or performance

Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that causes, induces, pressures, coerces, or requires a student to violate any provision of federal, state, local, or University regulations

In this model, the phrases serve to describe the construct of hazing. The phrases, which are descriptive of hazing activities help to define the term.

Bystander intervention model

The role of an agreed upon definition is tied to violence prevention efforts through the social norms theory (Perkins & Berkowitz, 1986). This connection is highlighted by recent trends in hazing awareness and reduction efforts such as *Step Up* (University of Arizona, 2006) and *Response Ability* (Dilbeck, 2008) which are social behavior and bystander intervention

programs grounded in the social norms theory. In discussing the application of social norms theory to violence prevention, Berkowitz states:

In a review of the literature on bystander behavior, Latane and Darley (1969) identified five stages in the transition of individuals from passivity to action: 1) notice the event, 2) interpret it as a problem, 3) feel responsible for finding a solution, 4) possess the necessary skills to act, and 5) intervene. Particular interventions could be designed for each stage to remove the causes of bystander behavior and help individuals move on to the next stage (p. 10).

According to the bystander intervention model, the first steps to addressing negative behavior are the ability to notice an event and interpret it as a problem. In order to accomplish these steps, a common definition serves as the starting point.

Current literature on hazing definitions

Since 1970, there has been at least one hazing-related death each year on a college campus (Nuwer, 2004). According to Allan (2008), hazing, while often associated with fraternal organizations, is a phenomenon that exists in many campus organizations such as marching bands, military groups, athletics teams, and spirit groups. Education and prevention programs have been present on college campuses for the past 20 years yet the incidents of hazing are on the rise (Ellsworth, 2006; Nuwer, 2004). Per the literature review, even with the persistence of awareness and prevention efforts, there does not appear to be a common definition of hazing among students, faculty, staff, administrators, or national fraternal organizations (Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002). The four seminal research pieces, both current and not so current, conducted by Shaw (1992), Hollmann (2002), Ellsworth (2006), and Allan (2008), indicate that a

lack of an agreed upon definition of the term hazing and hazing activities could be serving as a deterrent in the efforts to reduce incidents of hazing.

In advance of reviewing the seminal research pieces on hazing, several additional studies regarding hazing activities, perceptions of hazing, and varying definitions of hazing are worthy of review. The key research questions and methodologies represented in several of these works have served to launch additional studies on the topic of hazing.

Campo (2005) examined students' attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs related to hazing. The purpose of the study was extensive, yet when it is reduced down, it was to determine the prevalence of hazing on campus, determine the extent to which students recognize hazing activities, determine the societal factors of hazing, and explore the attitudes of hazers and hazing victims (Campo, 2005). The study found that hazing exists on campus and that students' perceptions of hazing activities differ based on their affiliation and demographic information. The study suggested further research into intervention efforts (Campo, 2005, p. 137).

Pascarella, Flowers, and Whitt re-examined research findings which found that membership in fraternities and sororities had a negative impact on cognitive development. The intent of their study was to assess if the negative impact of membership persisted throughout the students' career. Noting earlier research by Pascarella that found Greek students performed lower than independent peers on the College Outcomes Measurement Project (COMP) during their first year, this project revisited the earlier research and extended it beyond the first year (Pascarella et al., 2006). This study "found that the negative effects of fraternity or sorority membership were much less pronounced during the second or third year of college" (Pascarella et al., 2006). This research piece deserves mention, and further study, due to its apparent tie to the issue of hazing. Across the country, the majority of new members in fraternities and

sororities join during their first year. Since hazing most often occurs during the new member education period, there appears to be a correlation between the process of joining a fraternity or sorority, poor academic performance, and lower cognitive development. It stands to reason that the negative impact of membership diminishes after the first year since one key variable, the new member education process, is removed after the semester in which students join.

Lewis and Thombs (2005) studied whether or not policies, and the fear of sanctioning, along with normative beliefs, served to explain the culture of alcohol use on a campus. The authors took a two-pronged approach, first studying whether or not the fear of sanctioning served as an effective deterrent to drinking; and then studying if normative beliefs shaped drinking behaviors (Lewis, 2005). The study found that policies and the fear of sanctioning play a very limited, if any, role in deterring students' drinking behavior (Lewis, 2005). The study did explore social norming theory and found that norms and beliefs did shape students' behavior in regards to alcohol use (Lewis, 2005). While not directly studying incidents of hazing, this study, and specifically its questions and methodology, establishes a solid framework for posing the same questions in regards to other undesirable behavior. Of note from this research piece is that the definition of "use of alcohol" and "results of noncompliance" is clearly identified and defined by all participants. The apparent necessity of a universal definition of behavior is important since the findings from this study could serve to lead the awareness and prevention efforts of alcohol and drug education offices. This study also explored the role of social norms in alcohol usage. This angle could also be taken to address the role of norms in the prevalence of hazing activities across decades of membership within an organization or community and the continuing lack of an agreed upon definition of hazing and hazing activities.

Is the persistence of hazing due solely to the actions of those engaging in hazing or do those aware of the hazing also share blame for its continuation? This was the issue addressed by Bureau and Marchell in their article on bystanders as agents of change. In this article, the authors explore the application of the bystander framework to the issue of hazing (Bureau, 2007). The bystander framework is a model that states that in order for a bystander to react to a situation, they must move through a series of stages; from noticing the behavior to taking action (Bureau, 2007). This model has been applied to addressing student misconduct in issues such as sexual and domestic violence (Bureau, 2007).

Hazing awareness and prevention programs are common on campuses with a social Greek community, but are they effective? Do senior student affairs officers assess these programs to determine which strategies are yielding the desired results? This was the focus of the research conducted by Lowery when she researched the perceived effectiveness of awareness and prevention measures at church-related institutions in Ohio (Lowery, 1998). The research found that programs are perceived to be effective due to the number of incidents reported; or a lack thereof (Lowery, 1998). The research provides practical solutions for addressing hazing such as live-in advisors, alcohol-free recruitment, and training Greek and independent students about hazing (Lowery, 1998).

Does the manner in which a fraternity chapter regards hazing result in a difference in chapter performance? This was one of the key questions explored by Ramey (1982) in his research. Ramey also asked what the general attitude of active members was toward hazing versus that of pledges (Ramey, 1982). From his survey, Ramey concluded that education efforts to change pro-hazing sentiments have not been effective; hazing does accomplish something, although what exactly was not determined; hazing does not develop chapter unity; hazing

produces dedicated pledges not members; and pro-hazing chapters are not healthier than anti-hazing chapters (Ramey, 1982).

Hazing, most often associated with fraternities, is also present in sororities. The question of why and how women engage in hazing was the purpose of the research done by Holmes in 1999. Holmes researched the role of hazing in women's organizations and why it persists (Holmes, 1999). Holmes found that hazing persists for many reasons; acceptance, a fear of being alone, and a lack of desire to speak out (Holmes, 1999).

Review of the Seminal Literature

While the national hazing study is regarded as the seminal research piece in recent history, the research completed by Shaw in 1992 remains ground breaking. This study was the first to study hazing within women's fraternal organizations. The study had three research questions: 1) do students who endure hazing tend to repeat the behavior on others, 2) can students who are hazed while pledging define hazing, and 3) can members who haze new members define hazing? The study further sought to determine whether geographical differences exist in the frequency of hazing events. The study found that a significant number of women who were subjected to hazing while joining in turn hazed other members who joined after them. The study further found that a significant number of women had participated in events which fit the definition of hazing yet did not identify the activity as such. This research indicates that the inability to recognize an activity as hazing is a barrier to addressing the behavior. According to Shaw, "Women will not likely stop inappropriate behavior if they do not perceive the behavior as inappropriate" (Shaw, 1992, p. 75). This research, conducted fourteen years before the national hazing study, notes the same base issue as the 2006 study completed by Drs. Allan and Madden.

Hazing is often referred to as a rite-of-passage or an initiation process. Hollmann (2002) explores the violent behavior and alcohol abuse often present in hazing situations and puts this in the context of hidden criminal acts on campus (Hollmann, 2002). In this article, Hollmann reviews past research on hazing, examines legal and cultural issues surrounding hazing, and offers practical suggestions to campus-based administrators to combat hazing and the criminal activities attached to it, on campus. Of note, Hollmann discusses the findings of a 2000 study conducted at the University of Vermont. In the final report the committee notes, “that the secrecy and extraordinary nature of many hazing activities make it difficult to define hazing and to prevent initially harmless activities from escalating into dangerous and potentially lethal activities” (Hollmann, 2002).

Ellsworth (2006) explored the question of whether or not the lack of a standard definition of hazing has had any impact on the effectiveness of hazing prevention programs. According to Ellsworth, “the fact that different entities and organizations have different definitions and perceptions of hazing has hindered any real effort to challenge and combat such activities” (Ellsworth, 2006). Surveying students from a large, public, four-year research institution in the Mid-Atlantic region, Ellsworth identified students from groups commonly associated with hazing: ROTC, fraternities, sororities, marching band, and student athletes (Ellsworth, 2006). His null hypothesis was that student definitions of hazing do not differ among the various groups (Ellsworth, 2006). Ellsworth found that students from different organizations perceive hazing activities differently and that men and women define hazing differently. This study further found that students, regardless of gender or affiliation, identified ten activities as hazing, thereby indicating that a universal definition of hazing is possible. This study suggests that further research into the perceptions of hazing from other groups, such as administrators, faculty, staff,

and independent students is warranted and should yield positive results for developing a common definition.

Drs. Allan and Madden, in 2006, served as the principal researchers for the National Study of Student Hazing. This effort was run out of the University of Maine and was a multi-year, multi-phase study looking at the prevalence of hazing on campuses across the country and working to provide research based intervention programs. The pilot study was released in June, 2006 and contained six key findings: 1) hazing occurs in many student organizations, 2) students who experienced hazing did not identify the activity as hazing, 3) coaches and advisors are often aware of hazing practices, 4) few students say that they were aware of anti-hazing policies prior to joining organizations or teams, 5) many students are aware of hazing regardless of whether or not they have experienced it, and 6) twice as many students reports being hazed in high school than in college (Allan & Madden, 2006). The next step was to solicit campuses to participate in the broader research initiative.

Between April and October, 2007, Drs. Allan and Madden conducted the national hazing study. The study collected 11,482 responses from students at 53 colleges and universities (Allan, 2008). The study also includes interviews with 300 students and staff from 18 institutions (Allan, 2008). The report from the study lists 10 pertinent findings along with 6 recommendations. The findings from the national study include the six findings from the pilot plus four additional: 1) students perceive positive outcomes to hazing, 2) students are not likely to report hazing to school officials, 3) students accept hazing as a part of a campus culture, and 4) students had minimal exposure to hazing prevention or awareness efforts (Allan, 2008). The education of the entire campus community is necessary, according to Allan and Madden in order to begin the

occurrences of hazing. A clearly delineated definition, including relevant examples, is necessary in order to begin the education.

This report is the seminal piece of research on hazing prevention research. The study was funded by social fraternal organizations, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), and several national professional associations.

Conclusion

As evidenced by this chapter, the existence of hazing and efforts to define it are as old as the history of the institutions that it occupies. Yet, despite the public attention garnered by hazing incidents over hundreds of years, very little research has been conducted on the topic. As evidenced in the review of literature, several small, localized studies have been conducted that address narrowly defined issues related to hazing. Very little research has been conducted on a national scale looking at factors that contribute to hazing. Also, few, if any, of the local studies have been replicated in other geographical regions to add to the body of knowledge about hazing as a wide-spread issue. The literature indicates that if institutions and national organizations are going to effectively educate about and work to prevent hazing incidents, they need (1) to establish a common definition of the term “hazing” in order to broaden the awareness of the dangers of such activity; (2) a better understanding of the factors that contribute to the hazing culture on campuses or within chapters; and (3) studies that are replicable to multiple regions and/or campuses. This study was focused on the first item which is the need for a commonly accepted definition. The aim of this study is to contribute to the literature by providing a model for defining the construct of hazing that resonates with today’s student and addresses the lack of a common definition of hazing that is noted in the current literature.

Chapter 3

Methods

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine the effectiveness of analytical definitions as a technique for educating about the latent construct of hazing. The study compares participant scores pre-test and post-test following treatment. Specific comparisons are made between the treatment utilizing an extensional definition (FIPG) and treatment utilizing an analytical definition. Demographic variables are compared to determine if specific students perform better utilizing one of the treatments.

Chapter 1 contains an introduction to the study, discusses the statement of the problem, states the purpose of the study, delineates research questions, discusses the significance of the study, identifies limitations, delimitations, assumptions, and provides definitions of terms used in the study. Chapter 2 is a review of the literature regarding hazing. To demonstrate the lack of a common definition of hazing and frame the need for such a definition, the review of literature provided a historical review of hazing practices and attempts to define hazing throughout the history of institutions of higher education, presented arguments in support of hazing practices, described the primary constructs of hazing which include physical, mental, and verbal abuse, examined current legal decisions identifying higher education's relationship to hazing and the need for a useful definition of hazing, reviewed legal challenges to the current hazing definition espoused by the Fraternal Information and Programming Group (FIPG), reviewed current programming models for educating students about hazing, presented the social norms theory and its relationship to hazing education, and examined existing and emerging models for defining hazing. Chapter 3 will discuss the design of the study, sources of data, data collection

procedures, instrumentation, data analysis, and methods used to ensure participant confidentiality.

Purpose of the study

This study examines whether definition type affects a students' ability to identify hazing activities. The study scrutinizes whether or not there is a difference between a students' ability to identify hazing activities between the demographic variables: sex, geographic region, and ethnicity. The focus is on undergraduate students in higher education. This study will contribute to the literature by providing a model for defining the construct of hazing that resonates with today's student and addresses the lack of a common definition of hazing that is noted in the current literature (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002; Shaw, 1992; Smith, 2009).

This study was a pragmatic effort to move past the noted barrier of the existing definition of hazing and develop a student-centric description of hazing which aids students in being able to step back from past practices or anticipated norms and assess events with a critical eye.

Research questions

1. Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?
2. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?
3. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?
4. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

Methods

In order to determine the amount of knowledge gained by the participant's exposure to the treatment, a cross-sectional, pre-test and post-test design was utilized. The pre-test determined the amount of knowledge each participant had about hazing prior to their exposure to the treatment. The treatment immediately followed the pre-test and consisted of either an extensional definition of hazing including a list of concrete hazing activity examples or an analytical definition composed of descriptive phrases which describe elements of hazing behavior. The post-test immediately followed the participants' exposure to the treatment. A comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores provided a measure of the knowledge of hazing that was obtained by each participant.

The *Assessment on Activities Students Define as Hazing Activities*, an instrument developed and first utilized in a study at the University of Maryland, was used, with permission, as the pre-test and post-test instrument. Two treatment texts were selected. The definition of hazing developed by the Fraternal Information and Programming Group (FIPG) in 1987 was designated as Treatment A. The group receiving Treatment A served as the control group. A definition of hazing developed by the researcher was designated Treatment B. The group receiving Treatment B served as the Treatment group.

Data was collected at two large public research universities in the United States from geographically distinct parts of the country: southeast and Midwest. The participants were randomly selected by the respective institution's institutional research office and constituted a stratified, random, representative sample of the respective institution. Due to the selection method, an experimental research design was warranted. According to Creswell (2003), in an experimental design, "the investigator randomly assigns the participants to treatment groups" (p.

167). To be included in the sample, students had to fit the established criteria: full-time, undergraduate student, over the age of 18 and willing to participate in the study. Each treatment was administered to half of the participants from each university.

This study was a pre-test, post-test design with the participants grouped into one of two treatment groups. Based on this design, a repeated measures, mixed design ANOVA was warranted. According to Ross and Shannon (2008) a mixed design ANOVA is “an approach that can accommodate your interest to compare unrelated and related group means together” (p. 127). They further state that, “we sometimes describe the mixed design as a repeated-measures ANOVA employing a *within-subjects factor* (the repeated-measures component) and a *between-subjects factor* (the group-difference component)” (p. 127). Additional analyses were conducted to determine differences in demographic data as it applied to various treatment groups.

Sample

The participants for this study were full-time undergraduate students attending a land-grant institution in the United States. One university was located in the southeastern United States (Auburn University) and served approximately 20,000 undergraduate students. One university was located in the Midwestern United States and served approximately 19,385 undergraduate students (Kansas State University). The participants were randomly selected by the respective institution’s institutional research office and constituted a representative sample of the respective institution. Each institution provided electronic mail contact information for 2,000 students and certified in writing to the researcher that the stratified random sample was representative of the institution’s student body in regards to sex and ethnicity.

Instrumentation

The instrument for this study is comprised of three items: a survey instrument for the pre-test, post-test and two texts for the treatment. The pre and posttest survey used for this study was an abridged version, containing 32 of the original 42 activities, of the *Assessment on Activities Students Define as Hazing Activities* developed for a study at the University of Maryland. The instrument is comprised of two sections. The first section lists 32 activities and asks participants to indicate to what degree they agree that an activity is hazing. Through a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = I strongly disagree that this activity is hazing to 5 = I strongly agree that this activity is hazing, participants indicated to what degree they agreed that activities such as, “*Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption*” were hazing. The hazing activities included on the instrument are categorized as physical hazing, mental hazing, both physical and mental hazing, or other hazing activity. These categories of hazing activities are consistent with the literature review which indicates that physical and mental hazing are common forms of hazing (StopHazing.org, 2011). Section one was modified to omit the ten activities that did not meet the standard of acceptance in the original study. The second section asks for demographic information about participant sex and ethnicity. Section two was modified for this study to only ask questions regarding sex and ethnicity; other questions were omitted. Since the on-line collector was made custom for each institution, there was not a need to ask for geographic information.

The hazing definition developed by the Fraternal Information and Programming Group (FIPG) was selected for Treatment A. This definition, which was originally developed in 1987, serves as the foundation for 90 national social fraternities’ and sororities’ general liability insurance policy and is regarded as the industry standard for defining hazing for national

fraternal organizations. The FIPG hazing definition is an extensional definition. According to Sager and L'Homme (1994), an extensional definition defines a concept by referencing parts of the concept. This type of definition requires the user to know the parts of the concept that are being described and is best suited for a concept with small, fixed parts (351-373). This trait is evidenced by the listing of concrete activities within the FIPG hazing definition.

A hazing definition developed by the researcher, which describes elements of hazing, was selected as Treatment B. This definition is an analytical definition which Sager and L'Homme (1994) describe as using known, defined concepts to define a term (p. 353). Treatment B was developed by three Student Affairs professionals, two with at least ten years of experience in policy development, and one with five years of policy development experience. Through a qualitative document analysis, current hazing definition models obtained from institutions of higher education who are members of the Association for Student Conduct Administration (ASCA) were reviewed using the constant comparison method developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967. The ASCA is the professional association for student conduct administrators in higher education and is regarded as the, "premier authority in higher education for student conduct administration and conflict resolution" (ASCA web site).

Reliability

The *Assessment on Activities Students Define as Hazing Activities* was utilized in a previous study and the author reports the following reliability figures

The Cronbach alpha for the activities identified as hazing activities was .95, whereas for non-hazing activities, it was .74. For physical hazing activities, it was .82; for psychological hazing activities, it was .67; for both physical and

psychological hazing activities, it was .93; and for other hazing activities, it was .88 (Ellsworth, 2004, p. 47).

Procedures

Participants were contacted via electronic mail and provided with an invitation to participate, a description of the study, a link to the on line survey, and a statement of the Auburn IRB certification. Participation was voluntary and a participant could withdraw from the study at any time without completing the survey. Participants completed the informed consent form electronically. This form was contained within the first page of the online survey and participants were required to indicate that they had read and understood the form before they were permitted to proceed. Once participants began the survey, they could only advance forward and could not return to previous pages. An analysis was run on the time it took participants to complete the survey. Surveys exceeding 20 minutes to complete were excluded as anomalies.

The on line collector was open for 14 days between April 23, 2012 and May 7, 2012. According to a study conducted by supersurvey.com, an on line survey with less than 1000 invitees has a median response rate of 26 percent. The study further indicates that 50 percent of on line survey responses arrive within the first day and 96 percent of survey responses arrive within two weeks (Hamilton, 2009). Based on this reported rate of return, this study was sent to 2000 students at each institution and the collector was open for a period of 14 days. On the sixth and ninth day that the collector was open, a reminder was sent to encourage participants to complete the survey and thank the participants who had completed the survey.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed utilizing quantitative methods. Pre and posttest scores were entered into IBM SPSS Statistics 20. Descriptive statistics including means and standard

deviation for each activity (DV) and each group (IV) will be compared through a series of t-tests and repeated measures ANOVAs to determine if significant differences exist among the groups. The level of significance for each ANOVA will be set at $p < .05$. To account for variance within group sizes, Levene's test will be used to test against heterogeneity of variance.

Chapter 4

Findings

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of analytical definitions as a technique for educating students about the latent construct of hazing. The study compared participant scores pretest and posttest following treatment. Results of comparisons between the treatment utilizing an extensional definition and treatment utilizing an analytical definition will be reported. Demographic information will be used to report findings about whether specific students perform better utilizing one of the treatments.

Research questions

1. Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?
2. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?
3. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?
4. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

Sample

The invited participants for this study were 4,000 full-time undergraduate students, over the age of 18, attending a land-grant institution in the United States. The selected universities were geographically diverse with one university being located in the southeastern United States and one university being located in the Midwestern United States and held equivalent Carnegie classifications. Each institution provided electronic mail contact information for 2,000 students

and certified in writing to the researcher that the stratified random sample was representative of the institution's student body in regards to sex and ethnicity. The list for each institution was randomly divided in half by the researcher utilizing a random number generator and Microsoft Excel software. Students were invited to participate in the study through one introductory electronic mail message and two reminder electronic mail messages; the first sent on day six and the second sent on day nine of the study. As a result of the invitations and reminders, 303 students responded by accessing the survey link. Upon review of the submitted responses, 21 respondents failed to complete either the first or second section and were omitted from final review. Therefore, the total number of participants used in the study was $N = 282$.

Description of Respondents

The primary purpose of this research study was to determine if the use of an analytical definition significantly increases a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition. In order to address this question, participants were randomly divided into two groups. Descriptive statistics provide the following frequencies in regards to the number of respondents in each group, based on the full sample, $N=282$ (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Respondents by treatment group

Demographic characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Group		
Control	136	48.2
Midwest	54	39.7
Southeast	82	60.3
Treatment	146	51.8
Midwest	58	39.7
Southeast	88	60.3

A second goal of this research study was to determine whether or not there is a difference between students' ability to identify hazing activities between the demographic variables: geographic region, ethnicity and sex. Descriptive statistics provide the following frequencies in regards to the full sample, N=282. Due to the low response rate of participants identifying an ethnicity other than Caucasian, the ethnicity choice variables Native American/Indian, African American, not of Hispanic origin, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Multiracial and My race or ethnicity was not included in the list were aggregated to develop the composite variable non-Caucasian (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Respondents by Region and Treatment Group

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Midwest: Control		
Total	54	100
Male	26	48.1
Female	28	51.9
Caucasian	47	87
Non-Caucasian	7	13
Midwest: Treatment		
Total	58	100
Male	27	46.6
Female	31	53.4
Caucasian	52	89.7
Non-Caucasian	6	10.3
Southeast: Control		
Total	82	100
Male	37	45.1
Female	45	54.9
Caucasian	65	79.3
Non-Caucasian	17	20.7
Southeast: Treatment		
Total	88	100
Male	43	48.9
Female	45	51.1
Caucasian	73	83
Non-Caucasian	15	17

Determining Respondents' Baseline Knowledge

In order to determine the amount of knowledge gained by the participant's exposure to the treatment, a cross-sectional, pretest and posttest design was utilized. The pretest determined the amount of knowledge each participant had about hazing prior to their exposure to the treatment. If an activity was a hazing activity, a score equal to or greater than four indicates that the respondent correctly identified the activity as hazing. If an activity was a non-hazing activity, a score equal to or less than two indicates that the respondent correctly identified the activity as a non-hazing activity. Per the instrument *Assessment on Activities Students Define as Hazing*

Activities developed by Ellsworth (2004), the activities were grouped into hazing and non-hazing factors. To assess whether or not the current administration of the instrument resulted in the grouping of activities, a factor analysis was conducted. Results indicate that activities grouped in hazing and non-hazing activities but not by specific hazing activity category. In order to determine the internal reliability of the variables, Cronbach's alpha is reported. According to Shannon and Davenport (2001),

Internal consistency estimates reliability in terms of how consistent the actual items are within the instrument. ...if an evaluation instrument is designed to measure some content area, then the items that comprise the overall instrument should all be consistent with each other; they should be measuring the same content and therefore be highly correlated (p. 120).

Non-hazing Activities

In the instrument, eight activities were identified as non-hazing activities: attend mandatory study halls, attend educational presentations or programs, complete a specific number of community service hours, learn historical facts about one's organization, maintain a minimum grade point average, memorize and recite facts about one's organization, study a specific amount of time and wear a specific clothing item or color of clothing item. These activities were aggregated to compute the composite variable titled NonHz ($\alpha=.942$). Cronbach's alpha for the pretest and posttest non-hazing activities were .898 and .927, respectively. A mean score of $M \leq 2$ indicates that the participant correctly identified the activity as a non-hazing activity. For the composite variable, a correct score range is $M = 8-16$ (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3
Pretest mean scores for non-hazing activities

Activity	N	Mean	SD
Attend mandatory study halls	281	1.65	1.010
Attend educational presentations or programs	282	1.64	0.964
Complete a specific number of community service hours	282	1.78	0.965
Learn historical facts about one's organization	282	1.63	1.008
Maintain a minimum grade point average	282	1.48	0.940
Memorize and recite facts about one's organization	281	2.03	1.110
Study a specific amount of time	280	2.00	1.122
Wear a specific clothing item or color of clothing item	281	2.72	1.285
Composite variable: NonHz	278	14.52	6.468

Physical Hazing Activities

In the instrument, five activities were identified as physical hazing activities: consume alcoholic beverages, deprived of beverages or food by others, do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels, forced to consume excessive amounts of alcoholic beverages and march, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances. These activities were aggregated to compute the composite variable Physical ($\alpha=.956$). Cronbach's alpha for the pretest and posttest physical hazing activities were .912 and .935, respectively. A mean score of $M \geq 4$ indicates that the participant correctly identified the activity as a physical hazing activity. For the composite variable, a correct score range is $M = 20-25$ (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4
Pretest mean scores for physical hazing activities

Activity	N	Mean	SD
Consume alcoholic beverages	282	3.90	1.257
Deprived of beverages or food by others	282	4.40	1.029
Do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels	280	4.07	1.129
Forced to consume excessive amounts of alcoholic beverages	282	4.60	0.920
March, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	282	3.91	1.235
Composite variable: Physical	280	20.88	4.823

Psychological Hazing Activities

In the instrument, two activities were identified as psychological hazing activities: perform in public, such as dancing or singing and subjected to verbal abuse or harassment. These activities were aggregated to compute the composite variable Psych ($\alpha=.837$). Cronbach's alpha for the pretest and posttest psychological hazing activities were .667 and .689, respectively. A mean score of $M \geq 4$ indicates that the participant correctly identified the activity as a psychological hazing activity. For the composite variable, a correct score range is $M = 8-10$ (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5
Pretest mean scores for psychological hazing activities

Activity	N	Mean	SD
Perform in public, such as dancing or singing	282	3.09	1.306
Subjected to verbal abuse or harassment	281	4.01	1.271
Composite variable: Psych	281	7.11	2.229

Physical and Psychological Hazing Activities

In the instrument, nine activities were identified as physical and psychological hazing activities: deprived of sleep by others, drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption, handcuffed or tied to a building or structure, kidnap a current member of one's

organization, participate in streaking or other activities while naked, perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time, perform sexual acts, receive a brand or tattoo and struck by an object, such as a ball, baton, fist, or paddle. These activities were aggregated to compute the composite variable PhyPsych ($\alpha=.975$). Cronbach's alpha for the pretest and posttest physical and psychological hazing activities were .949 and .966, respectively. A mean score of $M \geq 4$ indicates that the participant correctly identified the activity as a physical and psychological hazing activity. For the composite variable, a correct score range is $M = 36-45$ (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

Pretest mean scores for physical and psychological hazing activities

Activity	N	Mean	SD
Deprived of sleep by others	281	4.23	1.112
Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption	282	4.48	1.016
Handcuffed or tied to a building or structure	282	4.45	1.047
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	280	4.00	1.284
Participate in streaking or other activities while naked	282	4.21	1.158
Perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time	281	4.01	1.104
Perform sexual acts	282	4.52	1.074
Receive a brand or tattoo	282	4.40	1.119
Struck by an object, such as a ball, baton, fist, or paddle	281	4.53	0.985
Composite variable: PhyPsych	277	38.80	8.405

Hazing Activities

In the instrument, eight activities were identified as hazing activities: blindfolded during activities, participate in an activity against your will, participate in drinking games, perform chores or tasks for others, shave one's head or other part of one's body, stand in line for excessive amounts of time, steal an item and stranded alone or with other newcomers. These activities were aggregated to compute the composite variable Haze ($\alpha=.954$). Cronbach's alpha

for the pretest and posttest hazing activities were .902 and .930, respectively. A mean score of $M \geq 4$ indicates that the participant correctly identified the activity as a hazing activity. For the composite variable, a correct score range is $M = 32-40$ (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7

Pretest mean scores for hazing activities

Activity	N	Mean	SD
Blindfolded during activities	282	3.19	1.268
Participate in an activity against your will	282	4.00	1.167
Participate in drinking games	282	3.78	1.244
Perform chores or tasks for others	282	3.37	1.295
Shave one's head or other part of one's body	282	3.95	1.252
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	281	3.55	1.250
Steal an item	282	4.37	1.099
Stranded alone or with other newcomers	280	3.87	1.196
Composite variable: Haze	279	30.11	7.533

A series of chi square tests were performed to determine if significant score differences existed between demographical variable in the pretest. According to Ray (2008), "Chi Square lets you know whether two groups have significantly different opinions". Significant differences were found between sex pretest scores for the composite variables psychological hazing ($\chi^2_{(8, N=281)} = 24.72, p = .002$), physical and psychological hazing ($\chi^2_{(29, N=277)} = 55.85, p = .002$), and hazing ($\chi^2_{(31, N=279)} = 59.27, p = .002$).

Extent of Knowledge Gained

The primary focus of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference between treatment utilizing an extensional definition and treatment utilizing an analytical definition. In order to answer this question, a series of repeated measures ANOVAs was conducted using the composite variables for hazing activities between the Control and Treatment

groups. The tests of within-subjects contrasts did not find any significant differences (Figures 4.1 through 4.4).

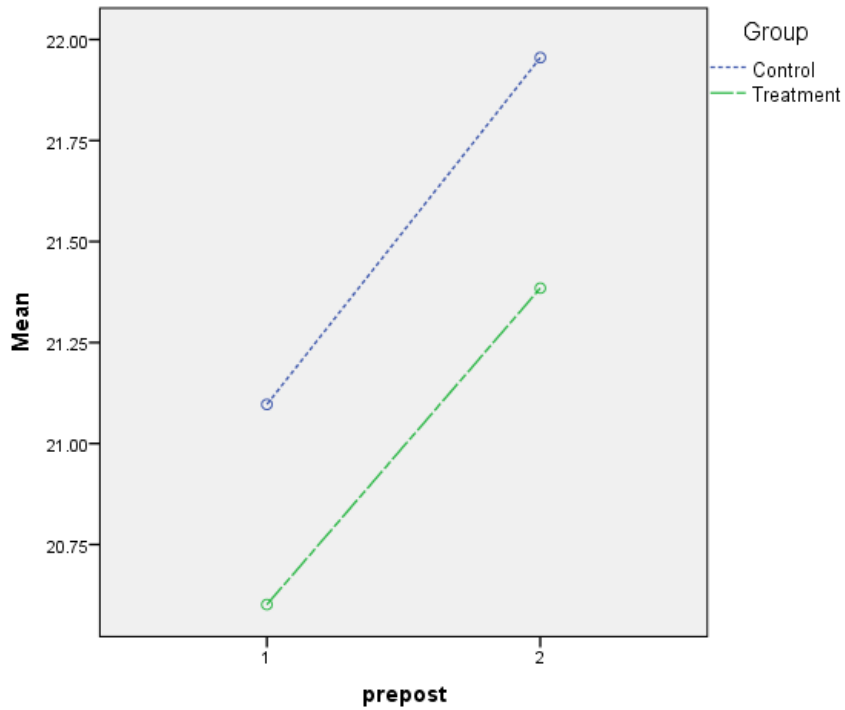


Figure 4.1. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for physical hazing activities (composite variable = physical) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = .063$, $p = 0.801$).

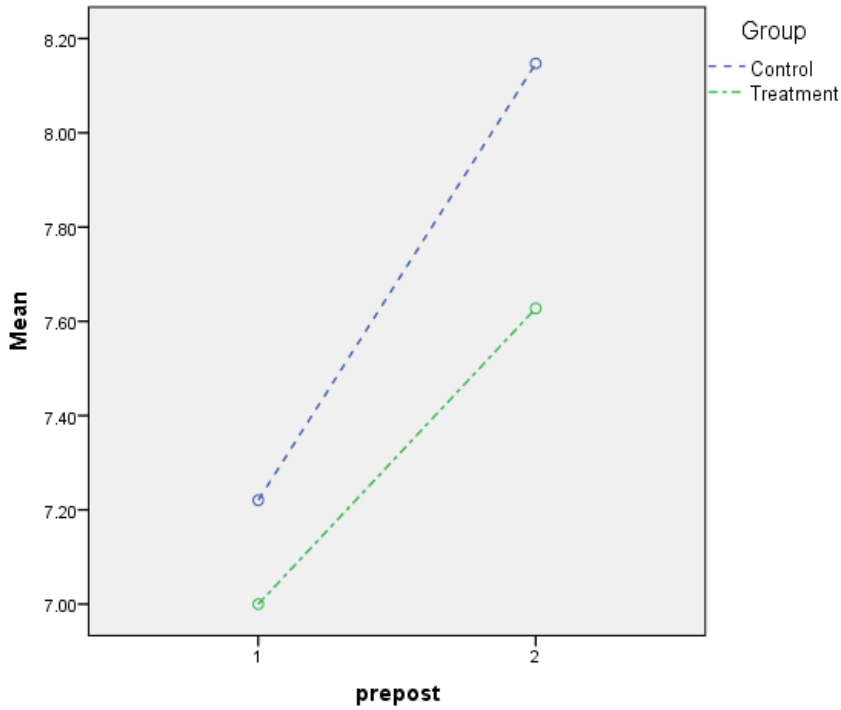


Figure 4.2. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for psychological hazing activities (composite variable = psych) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 2.862$, $p = 0.092$).

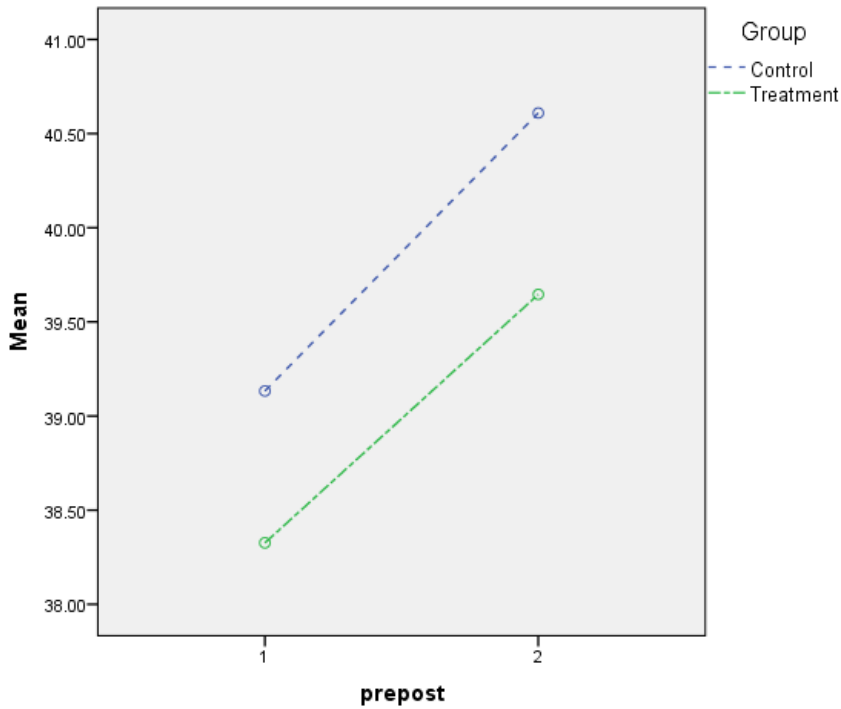


Figure 4.3. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for physical and psychological hazing activities (composite variable = phypsych) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 0.97$, $p = 0.755$).

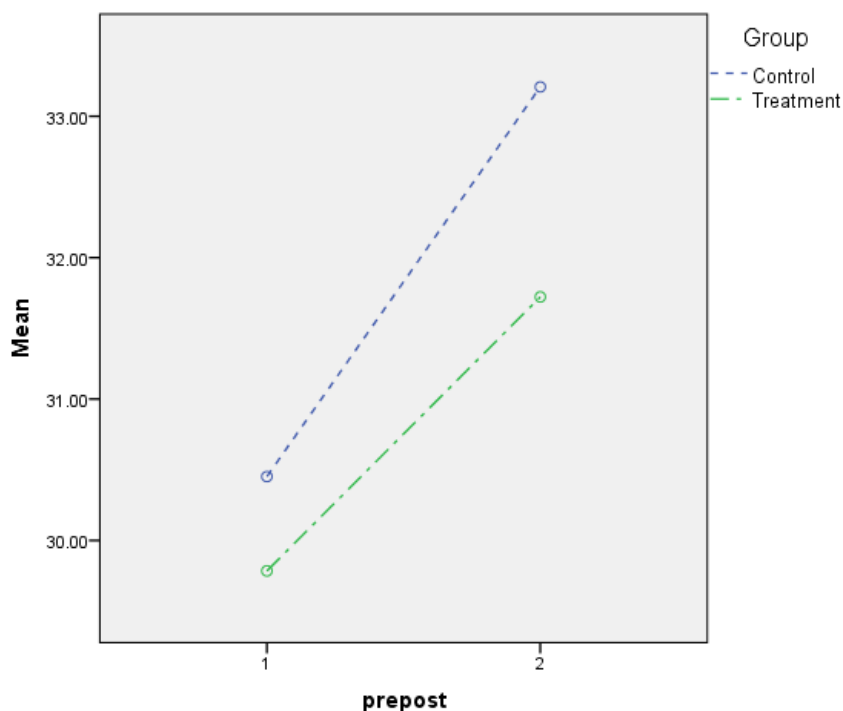


Figure 4.4. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for hazing activities (composite variable = haze) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 3.368$, $p = 0.068$).

Research Question One

Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?

For this question, all 282 participants in the study completed both the pretest and the posttest. The total number of students in each group was roughly equivalent (see Table 4.1). A series of repeated measures ANOVAs was conducted using the composite variables to compare the effect of definitions on Control group participant's ability to recognize hazing activities following treatment. There was a significant difference in scores following treatment for: hazing activities, Wilks' Lambda = .64, $F(1,134) = 74.61$, $p < .001$; physical hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .81, $F(1,133) = 31.38$, $p < .001$; psychological hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .74, $F(1,135) = 48.45$, $p < .001$; and physical and psychological hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .83, $F(1,127) = 25.35$, $p < .001$.

To drill down into the data, a paired samples t-test was conducted on each of the hazing factors for the Control group (N=136) to determine to what extent the participant's ability to identify hazing activities changed after treatment and within which variables. Cohen's effect size (d) is provided to report on practical significance. According to Cohen (1992) effect sizes can be interpreted as follows: .8 = large (8/10 of a standard deviation unit), .5 = moderate (1/2 of a standard deviation), .2 = small (1/5 of a standard deviation) (p. 157). To directly answer the research question, non-hazing variables were omitted from the analysis. The t-tests showed that there was a significant difference in the scores for: blindfolded during activities pretest (M=3.18, SD=1.23) and posttest (M=3.68, SD=1.22); $t(135)=-6.402$, $p < .001$; consume alcoholic beverages pretest (M=3.92, SD=1.19) and posttest (M=4.08, SD=1.19); $t(134)=-2.69$, $p = .008$; deprived of sleep by others pretest (M=4.49, SD=.958) and posttest (M=4.55, SD=.933); $t(134)=-2.91$, $p = .004$; do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels pretest (M=4.13, SD=1.084) and posttest (M=4.41, SD=1.032); $t(134)=-5.091$, $p < .001$; drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption pretest (M=4.49, SD=.966) and posttest (M=4.60, SD=.905); $t(135)=-2.858$, $p = .005$; kidnap a current member of one's organization pretest (M=4.07, SD=1.214) and posttest (M=4.25, SD=1.177); $t(132)=-3.095$, $p = .002$; march, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances pretest (M=3.93, SD=1.15) and posttest (M=4.28, SD=1.08); $t(135)=-5.731$, $p < .001$; participate in an activity against their will pretest (M=4.01, SD=1.071) and posttest (M=4.36, SD=1.038); $t(135)=-5.379$, $p < .001$; participate in drinking games pretest (M=3.76, SD=1.237) and posttest (M=4.20, SD=1.141); $t(135)=-6.217$, $p < .001$; participating in streaking or other activities while naked pretest (M=4.27, SD=1.087) and posttest (M=4.50, SD=1.007); $t(134)=-4.56$, $p < .001$; perform chores or tasks for others pretest (M=3.47, SD=1.154) and posttest (M=3.82, SD=1.218); $t(135)=-4.064$,

$p < .001$; perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time pretest (M=4.03, SD=1.047) and posttest (M=4.37, SD=1.039); $t(135)=-5.995$, $p < .001$; perform in public such as dancing or singing pretest (M=3.12, SD=1.236) and posttest (M=3.75, SD=1.228); $t(135)=-6.579$, $p < .001$; perform sexual acts pretest (M=4.58, SD=1.008) and posttest (M=4.70, SD=.905); $t(135)=-2.40$, $p = .018$; receive a brand or tattoo pretest (M=4.47, SD=1.091) and posttest (M=4.61, SD=.930); $t(134)=-2.789$, $p = .006$; shave their head or other parts of their body pretest (M=3.99, SD=1.223) and posttest (M=4.39, SD=1.041); $t(135)=-5.354$, $p < .001$; stand in line for excessive amounts of time pretest (M=3.59, SD=1.174) and posttest (M=4.02, SD=1.156); $t(134)=-6.192$, $p < .001$; stranded alone or with other newcomers pretest (M=3.99, SD=1.122) and posttest (M=4.21, SD=1.17); $t(135)=-3.090$, $p = .002$; and subjected to verbal abuse or harassment pretest (M=4.10, SD=1.182) and posttest (M=4.40, SD=1.084); $t(135)=-4.449$, $p < .001$. The analysis demonstrates that participants in the control group recognized hazing activities at a significantly higher rate following treatment. (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8
Summary of Control Group Participant's Ability to Identify Hazing Activities

Activity	M (pre)	M (post)	t	df	p (2-tailed)*	d
Blindfolded during activities	3.18	3.68	-6.402	135	<.001	.41
Consume alcoholic beverages	3.92	4.08	-2.690	134	.008	.13
Deprived of sleep by others	4.35	4.49	-2.910	134	.004	.14
Do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels	4.13	4.41	-5.091	134	<.001	.26
Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption	4.49	4.60	-2.858	135	.005	.12
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	4.07	4.25	-3.095	132	.002	.18
March, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	3.93	4.28	-5.731	135	<.001	.31
Participate in an activity against their will	4.01	4.36	-5.379	135	<.001	.33
Participate in drinking games	3.76	4.20	-6.217	135	<.001	.37
Participating in streaking or other activities while naked	4.27	4.50	-4.560	134	<.001	.22
Perform chores or tasks for others	3.47	3.82	-4.064	135	<.001	.30
Perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time	4.03	4.37	-5.995	135	<.001	.33
Perform in public such as dancing or singing	3.12	3.75	-6.579	135	<.001	.51
Perform sexual acts	4.58	4.70	-2.400	135	.018	.13
Receive a brand or tattoo	4.47	4.61	-2.789	134	.006	.14
Shave their head or other parts of their body	3.99	4.39	-5.354	135	<.001	.35
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	3.59	4.02	-6.192	134	<.001	.37
Stranded alone or with other newcomers	3.99	4.21	-3.090	135	.002	.19
Subjected to verbal abuse or harassment	4.10	4.40	-4.449	135	<.001	.26

*p<.05

A series of repeated measures ANOVAs was conducted using the composite variables to compare the effect of definitions on Treatment group participant's ability to recognize hazing

activities following Treatment. There was a significant difference in scores following treatment for: hazing activities, Wilks' Lambda = .79, $F(1,143) = 38.79$, $p < .001$; physical hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .94, $F(1,142) = 9.82$, $p = .002$; psychological hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .83, $F(1,144) = 28.77$, $p < .001$; and physical and psychological hazing, Wilks' Lambda = .93, $F(1,143) = 11.07$, $p = .001$.

To drill down into the data, a paired samples t-test was conducted on each of the hazing factors for the Treatment group ($N=146$) to determine to what extent the participant's ability to identify hazing activities changed after treatment and within which variables. There was a significant difference in the scores for: Blindfolded during activities pretest ($M=3.02$, $SD=1.306$) and posttest ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.326$); $t(145)=-5.628$, $p < .001$; deprived of sleep by others pretest ($M=4.12$, $SD=1.203$) and posttest ($M=4.32$, $SD=1.192$); $t(145)=-2.961$; $p = .004$; do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time to excessive levels pretest ($M=4.00$, $SD=1.171$) and posttest ($M=4.27$, $SD=1.184$); $t(143)=-3.917$; $p < .001$; kidnap a current member of one's organization pretest ($M=3.93$, $SD=1.348$) and posttest ($M=4.14$, $SD=.109$); $t(145)=-5.628$, $p < .001$; march, walk or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances pretest ($M=3.89$, $SD=1.314$) and posttest ($M=4.16$, $SD=1.232$); $t(145)=-4.133$; $p < .001$; participate in an activity against their will pretest ($M=3.99$, $SD=1.254$) and posttest ($M=4.17$, $SD=1.206$); $t(145)=-4.133$, $p = .001$; participate in drinking games pretest ($M=3.79$, $SD=1.255$) and posttest ($M=4.05$, $SD=1.239$); $t(145)=-3.904$, $p < .001$; participate in streaking or other activities while naked pretest ($M=4.15$, $SD=1.222$) and posttest ($M=4.40$, $SD=1.123$); $t(145)=-3.935$, $p < .001$; perform chores or tasks for others pretest ($M=3.27$, $SD=1.411$) and posttest ($M=3.55$, $SD=1.405$); $t(145)=-3.59$, $p < .001$; perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time pretest ($M=3.99$, $SD=1.158$) and posttest ($M=4.29$, $SD=1.142$); $t(144)=-4.907$, $p < .001$; perform in public such as

dancing or singing pretest (M=3.07, SD=1.373) and posttest (M=3.42, SD=1.403); $t(145)=-4.308$; $p < .001$; shave their head or other parts of their body pretest (M=3.92, SD=1.282) and posttest (M=4.10, SD=1.234); $t(145)=-2.773$, $p = .006$; stand in line for excessive amounts of time pretest (M=3.51, SD=1.32) and posttest (M=3.79, SD=1.409); $t(145)=-3.922$, $p < .001$; steal an item pretest (M=4.31, SD=1.16) and posttest (M=4.48, SD=1.078); $t(145)=-2.963$, $p = .004$; stranded alone or with other newcomers pretest (M=3.76, SD=1.257) and posttest (M=3.95, SD=1.281); $t(143)=-2.747$, $p = .007$; and subjected to verbal abuse or harassment pretest (M=3.92, SD=1.346) and posttest (M=4.21, SD=1.269); $t(144)=-4.518$, $p < .001$. The analysis demonstrates that participants in the treatment group recognized hazing activities at a significantly higher rate following treatment (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9
Summary of Treatment Group Participant's Ability to Identify Hazing Activities

Activity	M (pre)	M (post)	t	df	p (2-tailed)*	d
Blindfolded during activities	3.20	3.60	-5.628	145	<.001	.30
Deprived of sleep by others	4.12	4.32	-2.961	145	<.004	.17
Do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time to excessive levels	4.00	4.27	-3.917	143	<.001	.23
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	3.93	4.14	-3.346	145	<.001	.16
March, walk or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	3.89	4.16	-4.133	145	<.001	.21
Participate in an activity against their will	3.99	4.17	-3.474	145	<.001	.15
Participate in drinking games	3.79	4.05	-3.904	145	<.001	.21
Participate in streaking or other activities while naked	4.15	4.40	-3.935	145	<.001	.21
Perform chores or tasks for others	3.27	3.55	-3.590	145	<.001	.20
Perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time	3.99	4.29	-4.907	144	<.001	.26
Perform in public such as dancing or singing	3.07	3.42	-4.308	145	<.001	.25
Shave their head or other parts of their body	3.92	4.10	-2.773	145	<.006	.14
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	3.51	3.79	-3.922	145	<.001	.21
Steal an item	4.31	4.48	-2.963	145	<.004	.15
Stranded alone or with other newcomers	3.76	3.95	-2.747	143	<.007	.15
Subjected to verbal abuse or harassment	3.92	4.21	-4.518	144	<.001	.22

*p<.05

The analysis demonstrates that participant's ability to recognize hazing activities increased following treatment, regardless of which treatment was received.

To determine if treatment utilizing an analytical definition increased a students' ability to recognize hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than treatment with an extensional definition, a two-way mixed-design ANOVA was conducted with the composite variables. No

significant differences were found, resulting in a failure to reject the null hypothesis for Research Question one and acceptance of Hypothesis one “Students exposed to an analytical definition will not identify hazing activities at a higher rate than those exposed to an extensional definition” (Figures 4.1 – 4.4).

Research Question Two

Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?

The pretest score analysis indicated a significant difference in the scores between the demographic variable sex. Building off of that result, and to directly address Research Question two, a series of one-way ANOVAs was performed to determine if significant score differences existed between demographical variables following treatment. A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of sex on posttest scores for the composite hazing variables. Significant differences were found between sex posttest scores for the composite variables physical hazing [$F(1,277)=12.27, p = .001$]; psychological hazing [$F(1,280) = 26.59, p < .001$]; physical and psychological hazing [$F(1,275) = 9.46, p = .002$]; and hazing [$F(1,280) = 23.73, p < .001$].

Independent samples t-tests were conducted utilizing the full sample ($N=282$) to measure changes in participant’s scores, in relation to demographic variable sex, posttest, per the hazing variables. There was a significant difference in the posttest scores for: blindfolded during activities male ($M=3.25, SD=1.334$) and female ($M=3.99, SD=1.112$); $t(258.02)=-5.062, p < .001$; consume alcoholic beverages male ($M=3.76, SD=1.30$) and female ($M=4.26, SD=1.073$); $t(252.70)=-3.424, p = .001$; deprived of beverages or food by others male ($M=4.31, SD=1.129$) and female ($M=4.63, SD=.880$); $t(248.75)=-2.653, p = .009$; deprived of sleep by others male

(M=4.21, SD=1.219) and female (M=4.57, SD=.932); $t(245.95)=-2.761$, $p = .006$; do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels male (M=4.11, SD=1.297) and female (M=4.54, SD=.874); $t(225.27)=-3.222$, $p = .001$; drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption male (M=4.40, SD=1.080) and female (M=4.69, SD=.861); $t(252.03)=-2.497$, $p = .013$; handcuffed or tied to a building or structure male (M=4.31, SD=1.201) and female (M=4.66, SD=.901); $t(243.45)=-2.716$, $p = .007$; kidnap a current member of one's organization male (M=3.92, SD=1.404) and female (M=4.44, SD=1.032); $t(240.39)=-3.518$, $p = .001$; march, walk or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances male (M=3.95, SD=1.313) and female (M=4.46, SD=.948); $t(237.47)=-3.638$, $p < .001$; participate in an activity against your will male (M=3.96, SD= 1.233) and female (M=4.53, SD=.955); $t(247.86)=-4.284$, $p < .001$; participate in drinking games male (M=3.85, SD=1.30) and female (M=4.36, SD=1.035); $t(251.73)=-3.638$, $p < .001$; participated in streaking or other activities while naked male (M=4.24, SD=1.201) and female (M=4.63, SD=.898); $t(242.95)=-3.038$, $p = .003$; perform chores or tasks for others male (M=3.35, SD=1.415) and female (M=3.97, SD=1.162); $t(256)=-3.99$, $p < .001$; perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time male (M=4.09, SD=1.228) and female (M=4.53, SD=.912); $t(241.78)=-3.383$, $p = .001$; perform in public such as dancing or singing male (M=3.26, SD=1.419) and female (M=3.86, SD=1.18); $t(257.67)=-3.808$; $p < .001$; receive a brand or tattoo male (M=4.37, SD=1.172) and female (M=4.65, SD=.892); $t(241.2)=-2.201$, $p = .029$; shave one's head or other parts of one's body male (M=3.99, SD=1.24) and female (M=4.46, SD=1.023); $t(280)=-3.439$, $p = .001$; stand in line for excessive amounts of time male (M=3.56, SD=1.395) and female (M=4.21, SD=1.117); $t(252.55)=-4.248$; $p < .001$; steal an item male (M=4.35, SD=1.155) and female (M=4.63, SD=.888); $t(246.77)=-2.302$, $p = .022$; stranded alone or with other newcomers male (M=3.77,

SD=1.392) and female (M=4.35, SD=1.006); $t(237.73)=-3.982$; $p < .001$; struck by an object, such as a ball, baton, or fist male (M=4.48, SD=1.112) and female (M=4.74, SD=.825); $t(241.62)=-2.183$, $p = .03$; and subjected to verbal abuse or harassment male (M=3.92, SD=1.380) and female (M=4.62, SD=.858); $t(215.92)=-5.040$, $p < .001$. The analysis indicates that females identify hazing activities more often than male participants (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

Summary of Participant's Ability to Identify Hazing Activities by Sex, posttest

Activity	M (male)	M (female)	t	df	p* (2-tailed)	d
Blindfolded during activities	3.25	3.99	-5.062	258.02	<.001	.60
Consume alcoholic beverages	3.76	4.26	-3.424	252.70	.001	.42
Deprived of beverages or food by others	4.31	4.63	-2.563	248.75	.009	.32
Deprived of sleep by others	4.21	4.57	-2.761	245.95	.006	.33
Do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels	4.11	4.54	-3.222	225.27	.001	.39
Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption	4.40	4.69	-2.497	252.03	.013	.29
Handcuffed or tied to a building or structure	4.31	4.66	-2.716	243.45	.007	.33
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	3.92	4.44	-3.518	240.39	.001	.42
March, walk or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	3.95	4.46	-3.638	237.47	<.001	.45
Participate in an activity against their will	3.96	4.53	-4.284	247.86	<.001	.52
Participate in drinking games	3.85	4.36	-3.636	251.73	<.001	.43
Participate in streaking or other activities while naked	4.24	4.63	-3.038	242.95	.003	.37
Perform chores or tasks for others	3.35	3.97	-3.99	256	<.001	.48
Perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time	4.09	4.53	-3.383	241.78	.001	.41
Perform in public such as dancing or singing	3.26	3.86	-3.808	257.67	<.001	.45
Receive a brand or tattoo	4.37	4.65	-2.201	241.2	.029	.27
Shave their head or other parts of their body	3.99	4.46	-3.439	280	.001	.41
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	3.56	4.21	-4.248	252.55	<.001	.51
Steal an item	4.35	4.63	-2.302	246.77	.022	.27
Stranded alone or with other newcomers	3.77	4.35	-3.982	237.73	<.001	.48
Struck by an object, such as a ball, baton, fist, or paddle	4.48	4.74	-2.183	241.62	.030	.27
Subjected to verbal abuse or	3.92	4.62	-5.040	215.92	<.001	.61

As a result of the analysis, the null hypothesis is rejected for Research Question two.

Research Question Three

Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of region on posttest scores for the composite hazing variables. No significant differences were found.

Independent samples t-tests were conducted on the posttest scores by region to double-check the ANOVA results. There was a significant difference in the posttest scores for: kidnap a current member of one's organization Midwest (M=4.38, SD=1.058) and Southeast (M=4.07, SD=1.348); $t(271.02)=2.111$, $p = .036$; march, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances Midwest (M=4.41, SD=.954) and Southeast (M=4.09, SD=1.265); $t(274.84)=2.39$, $p = .018$; shave one's head or other part of one's body Midwest (M=4.48, SD=.890) and Southeast (M=4.08, SD=1.273); $t(278.99)=3.147$, $p = .002$; stand in line for excessive amounts of time Midwest (M=4.23, SD=1.048) and Southeast (M=3.69, SD=1.394); $t(275.09)=3.732$, $p < .001$; and subjected to verbal abuse or harassment Midwest (M=4.46, SD=.995) and Southeast (M=4.18, SD=1.286); $t(272.76)=2.069$, $p = .039$ (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11
Summary of Participant's Ability to Identify Hazing Activities by Region

Activity	M (Midwest)	M (Southeast)	t	df	*P (2-tailed)	d
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	4.38	4.07	2.111	271.02	.036	.26
March, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	4.41	4.09	2.39	274.84	.018	.29
Shave one's head or other parts of one's body	4.48	4.08	3.147	278.99	.002	.36
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	4.23	3.69	3.732	275.09	< .001	.44
Subjected to verbal abuse or harassment	4.46	4.18	2.069	272.76	.039	.24

*p<.05

As a result of this analysis we fail to reject the null hypothesis, "Geography will not yield significantly different results in a students' ability to identify hazing activity".

Research Question Four

Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

A series of one-way ANOVAs were performed to determine if significant score differences existed between demographical variables following treatment. A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of ethnicity on posttest scores for the composite hazing variables. No significant differences were found. Independent samples t-tests were conducted on the posttest scores by ethnicity to double-check the ANOVA results. No significant differences were found, resulting in a failure to reject the null hypothesis, "Ethnicity will not yield significantly different results in a students' ability to identify hazing activity".

Summary

This chapter reported the findings of the research study. Descriptive statistics showed that the Control and Treatment groups were roughly equivalent in size and composition. Descriptive statistics also showed that the number of non-Caucasian participants was too small for analysis so the non-Caucasian responses were aggregated into the composite variable “non-Caucasian”. Cronbach’s alpha scores showed that the instrument had strong internal reliability both in the survey variables and in the aggregated variables. A number of t-Tests, both paired samples and independent samples, were conducted to determine the impact of treatment on the posttest scores of the participants. Cohen’s d was determined for significant findings and reported. Following this, a number of one-way and repeated-measure ANOVAs were conducted to determine the significance of the difference in scores, based on treatment group and demographic variables. Several analyses revealed that female participants recognized hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than male and Midwest participants recognized hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than Southeast participants. Detailed summarization and discussion of the findings are reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of analytical definitions as a technique for educating students about the latent construct of hazing. The study compared the differences in participant scores pretest and posttest following treatment. Results of comparisons between the treatment utilizing an extensional definition and treatment utilizing an analytical definition will be reported. Demographic information will be used to report findings about whether specific students perform better utilizing one of the treatments.

Research questions

1. Does the use of an analytical definition significantly increase a students' ability to identify hazing activities in comparison to an extensional definition?
2. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between men and women?
3. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between students from different geographical regions of the country?
4. Do differences in the ability to define hazing activities, regardless of definition construct exist between ethnic groups?

Overview of the Study

This chapter contains an overview of the research study, a review of the research findings, conclusions from the study, a discussion of the significant findings, implications of the study on the hazing literature, and recommendations for future research.

Hazing activities, coupled with attempts to define and regulate hazing, have been prevalent on college campus for decades; arguably since 387 B.C. within Plato's Academy

(Nuwer, 1999). Efforts to raise awareness about hazing and reduce the likelihood of its occurrence are institutionalized at many colleges and universities, within national fraternal organizations, and supported by national professional associations (e.g., National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, National Collegiate Athletic Association, and the North-American Interfraternity Council). Hazing education and prevention programs, such as speaker series, anti-hazing marketing campaigns, policy enforcement efforts, and sanctioning, which are predominantly grounded in an extensional definition of hazing, have been present on college campuses for the past 20 years yet the incidents of hazing are on the rise (Ellsworth, 2006; Nuwer, 2004). Allan and Madden (2008) found that, “Students recognize hazing as part of the campus culture” and state, “More students perceive positive rather than negative outcomes of hazing” (p. 2).

According to the National Hazing Study, “A gap exists between student experiences of hazing and their willingness to label it as such” (Allan & Madden, 2008, p. 33). The literature indicates that students do not identify activities as hazing that meet the definition of hazing (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006).

The literature repeatedly states that, due to the lack of a common definition, awareness and prevention efforts are often unsuccessful at increasing students’ awareness of hazing activities or reducing the likelihood that hazing activities will occur (Allan & Madden, 2008; Ellsworth, 2006; Hollmann, 2002; Shaw, 1992; Smith, 2009). Allan and Madden (2008) found that 91percent of students, who have experienced hazing as it is currently defined, do not identify themselves as being hazed. According to the FIPG (2008), the need for a standard definition of hazing reached a crisis point in 1985 as membership in national fraternities began to rise and incidents of injury and/or death due to hazing rose with it. While 44 states now have anti-hazing

legislature on the books, there is no uniformity among state statutes and institutional policies and state statutes vary greatly across the country (Crow & Rosner, 2002; Hollmann, 2002).

At its core, hazing is an act of power and control over others (StopHazing.org, 2011). As a variable in social science research, hazing is a latent construct made up from indicators that include physical violence, psychological harassment, degrading behavior, and verbal harassment. The act of hazing is not always observable yet the indicators that make it up can be observed and their impact measured. According to Garger (2011):

Latent constructs are theoretical in nature; they cannot be observed directly and, therefore, cannot be measured directly either. To measure a latent construct, researchers capture indicators that represent the underlying construct. The indicators are directly observable and are believed by the researcher to accurately represent the variable that cannot be observed.

Since the act of hazing is a latent construct, the question of whether or not a common definition of hazing can be achieved is relevant to colleges and universities that host chapters, national fraternal organizations, underwriters that insure national organizations, legislators who attempt to draft ordinances against dangerous acts and educators who work to increase the awareness of hazing in an effort to limit its negative impact on students. Institutions of higher education are beginning to shift the model by which they define hazing in their code of student conduct. While a majority of institutions utilize an extensional definition model, which defines hazing activities through the use of concrete examples, other institutions are shifting to an analytical definition model which utilizes descriptive phrases to describe indicators of hazing behavior. With incidents of hazing on the rise and noting the increase in the average annual number of deaths attributed to hazing between 1980 and 2000, this study attempted to determine

which hazing definition model, analytical or extensional, encapsulates the essence of hazing in a manner in which students can understand and apply. The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not there are demonstrated differences in students' ability to identify hazing activities after treatment consisting of either an analytical or an extensional definition of hazing. A second purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not there is a difference between students' ability to identify hazing activities between the demographic variables: sex, geographic region, and ethnicity, regardless of treatment type and by treatment type.

Determining the effectiveness of an entire class of definition models, acknowledging that either an analytical or extensional definition can be written in multiple forms utilizing a range of verbiage based on the author's writing style and preferences, was beyond the scope of this study, hence a sample of each model class was used. This study utilized an extensional definition of hazing that was written in 1986 and serves as the standard for insurance underwriters, national fraternal organizations and professional associations. The analytical definition was a compilation of several descriptive statements currently contained within university codes of conduct and were gathered through the Association for Student Conduct Administration, which serves as the professional association for student conduct administrators on campuses across the United States.

The study is grounded in cognitive development theory and framed by the bystander intervention model for violence prevention (Latane & Darley, 1968). The pretest assessed students' ability to recognize hazing activities. Noting that the activity had to be considered in context to meet the definition of hazing, differences in pretest and posttest scores indicate movement from dualism to relativism or quasi-reflective thinking toward reflective thinking. Additionally, the study utilized the first two steps of the bystander intervention model: the ability to recognize an activity and identify it as a problem. In summary, the study focused on the

impact of definition models on short term cognitive development and movement within an intervention model from inaction toward action.

The population for this study was 4,000 full-time undergraduate students, over the age of 18, attending a land-grant institution in the United States. The selected universities were geographically diverse with one university being located in the Southeastern United States and one university being located in the Midwestern United States. Each institution provided electronic mail addresses for 2,000 students and certified in writing to the researcher that the stratified random sample was representative of the institution's student body in regards to sex and ethnicity. The list for each institution was randomly divided into equal halves by the researcher utilizing a random number generator and Microsoft Excel software. Therefore, this was an experimental research design.

The review of literature shows a gap between accepted definitions and the effectiveness of definitions in hazing education and prevention efforts. Building on the recurring theme in the literature review, indicating that the lack of a common definition of hazing is a hindrance to awareness and prevention efforts, the purpose of this study was to investigate participant's knowledge acquisition after treatment with one of two hazing definition models.

Data was collected during the spring semester of 2012. The researcher was granted Institution Review Board (IRB) approval from three institutions to conduct research on their campus. Due to insurmountable obstacles with securing electronic mail addresses for students from the campus located in the Northeastern United States, the campus was omitted from the study. The initial invitation to participate in the study was sent to 4,000 students. Reminder messages were sent on the sixth and ninth days of the study. The survey collector, which was hosted through Qualtrics, remained open for 14 days. In total, 303 students accessed the survey

through the link. 21 responses were omitted from the analysis due to the fact that an entire section of the survey was submitted without responses.

To analyze the data, descriptive statistics, t-tests, and repeated measures ANOVAs were run. The findings of the study were drawn from the analysis of data in relation to the four stated research questions.

Conclusions

The first analysis conducted was descriptive statistics to determine the baseline knowledge of the participants. The survey contained both non-hazing activities (N=8) and hazing activities (N=24). To correctly identify an activity as non-hazing, a participant had to select a score of two or less. The mean score for the composite variable Nonhz (M=14.52) indicates that the participants correctly identified the non-hazing activities. A review of mean scores for each variable revealed that participants were able to correctly identify six out of the eight non-hazing activities prior to treatment. The following variables were incorrectly identified during the pretest: memorize and recite facts about one's organization (M=2.03) and wear a specific clothing item or color of clothing item (M=2.72).

The hazing activity variables fell into one of four domains: physical, psychological, physical and psychological, or hazing activity and composite variables were formed for each grouping. To correctly identify an activity as a hazing activity, a participant had to select a score of four or higher. For the composite variable Physical (n=5; M=20.88), the mean score indicates that participants correctly identified the physical hazing activities as hazing. A review of mean scores for each variable shows that participants correctly identified three out of the five physical hazing activities prior to treatment. The following variables were incorrectly identified during the pretest: consume alcoholic beverages and March, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time

or for excessive distances. For the composite variable Psych (n=2; M=7.11) the mean score indicates that participants did not identify psychological hazing activities as hazing. A review of mean scores for each variable shows that participants correctly identified one out of the two psychological hazing activities prior to treatment. The variable, perform in public, such as dancing or singing, was incorrectly identified during the pretest. For the composite variable Phych (n=9; M=38.80) the mean score indicates that participants correctly identified physical and psychological hazing activities as hazing. A review of mean scores for each variable shows that participants correctly identified all nine physical and psychological hazing activities prior to treatment. For the composite variable Haze (n=8, M=30.11) the mean score indicates that participants failed to correctly identify hazing activities as such. A review of mean scores for each variable shows that participants failed to correctly identify: blindfolded during activities, participate in drinking games, perform chores or tasks for others, shave one's head or other part of one's body, stand in line for excessive amounts of time, and stranded alone or with other newcomers as hazing activities during the pretest.

A series of chi square tests were performed on the pretest data to determine if significant scores differences existed prior to treatment between demographic variables. The data indicated that female participants identified psychological hazing activities, physical and psychological hazing activities, and hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than male participants. This finding is in line with results from Shaw (1992) and Ellsworth (2004) who found that females identify hazing activities at a higher rate than males. This finding aligns with the women's moral development theory developed by Gilligan (1982) which asserts that women's moral thinking differs from men's in the sense that women focus on caring in a relationship whereas men focus on justice, and what is right and wrong. Viewing the results in context with this theory, women

innately see the power control dynamic at play in hazing activities where men operate from a, “If I did it, it is only fair that you do it, too” mentality thereby failing to identify an activity as hazing if they have experienced it themselves. The baseline knowledge of the participants also supports earlier findings reported by Novak (2000) and Wegener (2001) whose research indicates that undergraduates, specifically members of Greek letter organizations, have considerable knowledgeable about hazing.

Taking into account the research of Smith (2009), Allan and Madden (2008), Ellsworth (2006), Hollmann (2002) and Shaw (1992) the literature states that the lack of a commonly accepted and understood definition of hazing has hampered efforts to increase students’ awareness of hazing or reduce the likelihood that hazing activities will occur. The literature recognizes that hazing was defined by the insurance industry in 1987 for the purpose of underwriting national fraternal organization liability policies (FIPG, 2008), yet according to Crow and Rosner (2002), “In attempting to determine the scope of the hazing problem and liability issues, a definitional question arises as to what actions or behaviors constitute hazing” (p. 87) thereby strengthening the argument that a common definition does not exist because what one person defines as hazing is not necessarily defined as hazing by others. The argument is furthered by the statistics that show hazing injury and deaths on the rise while the FIPG definition has been in place (Ellsworth, 2006; Nuwer, 2004, Hollmann, 2002). When viewed in context of the first two steps of the bystander intervention model, if a person cannot identify a hazing activity (step one), they will not be able to identify it as a problem (step two).

This study examined a gap in the literature related to the type of definition that is used to define hazing. The FIPG definition of 1987 is the industry standard and many institutions of higher education’s hazing policies and state statutes against hazing are based on the tenets of the

FIPG model. The FIPG definition is an extensional definition which is described by Sager and L’Homme (1994) as, “definitions listing only the extension of a concept” (p. 354). This study compared the efficacy of a newly developed analytical definition of hazing to the existing extensional definition. Sager and L’Homme (1994) describe an analytical definition as, “referring the unknown to its known meaning constituents in the form of a defining concept and listing the semantic features that distinguish the unknown from other items under the same genus” (p. 353). In lay terms, an analytical definition describes a concept through descriptive phrases that relay the uniqueness of the concept. After conducting a series of within subject ANOVAs for the composite hazing variables by treatment group, this study did not find that an analytical definition increased the participant’s ability to recognize hazing activities at a rate significantly higher than the extensional definition.

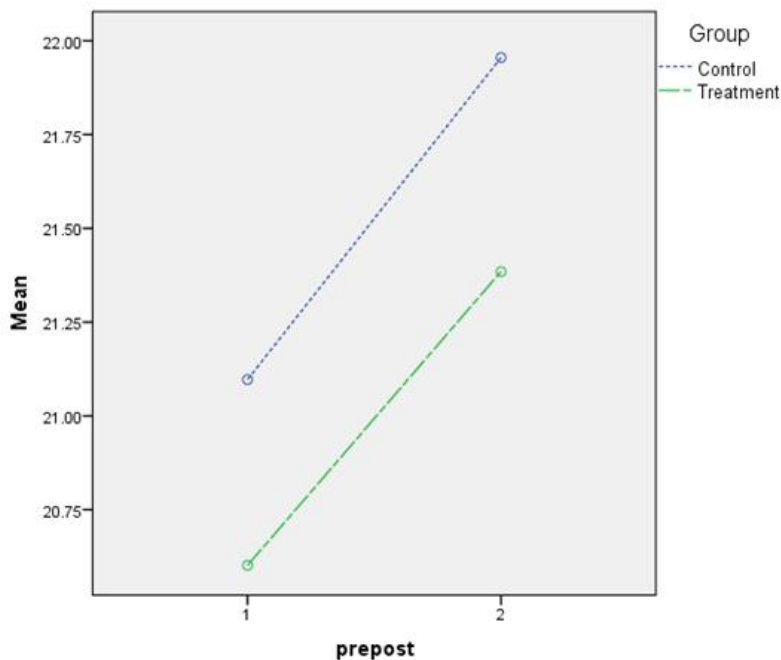


Figure 5.1. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for physical hazing activities (composite variable = physical) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = .063$, $p = 0.801$).

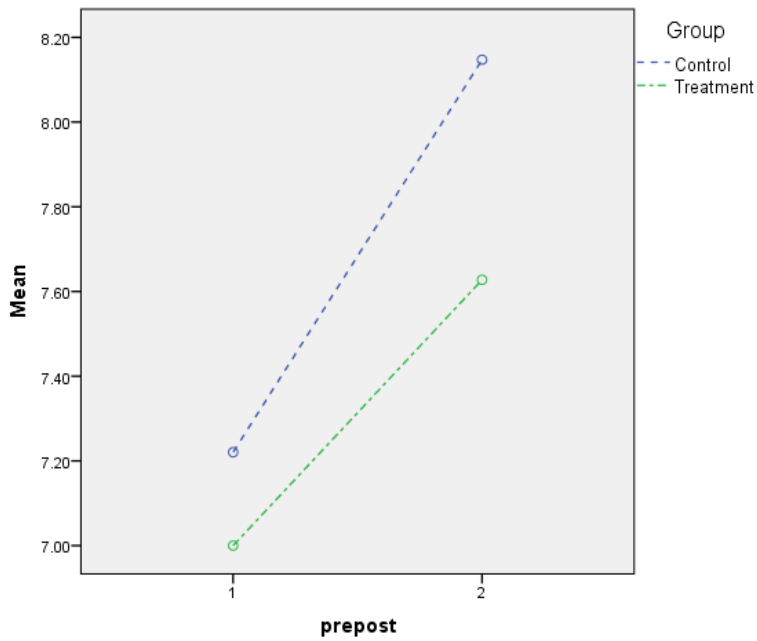


Figure 5.2. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for psychological hazing activities (composite variable = psych) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 2.862$, $p = 0.092$).

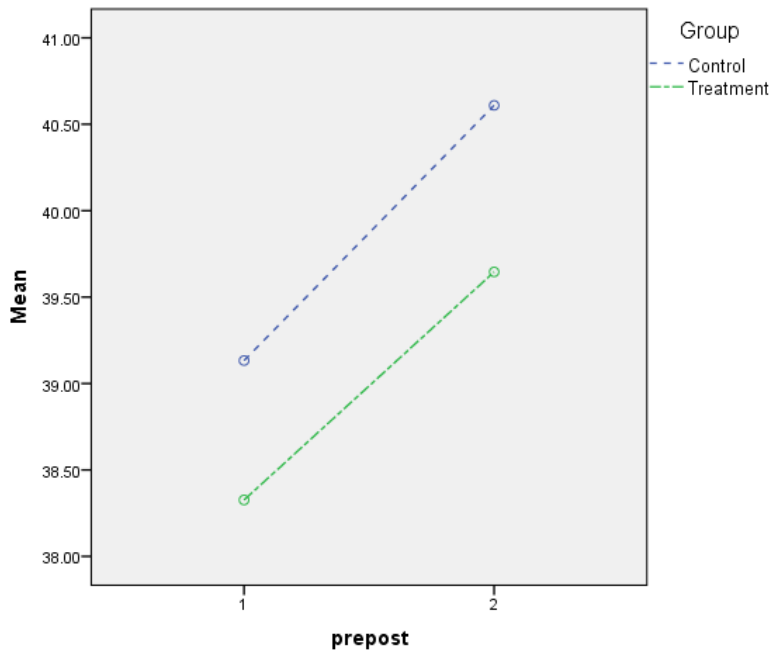


Figure 5.3. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for physical and psychological hazing activities (composite variable = phpsych) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 0.97$, $p = 0.755$).

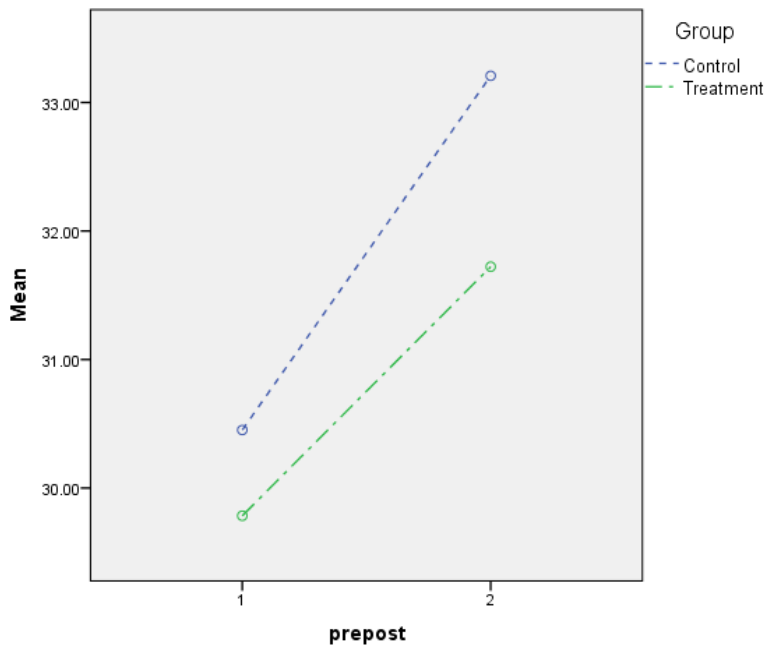


Figure 5.4. Repeated measures test of estimated marginal means for hazing activities (composite variable = haze) between Control and Treatment groups. Test of within-subjects contrasts was not significant ($F = 3.368$, $p = 0.068$).

Both the control and treatment group showed a significant increase in their ability to recognize hazing activity following treatment, yet the increase was not significantly different based on treatment type (see figures 5.1 – 5.4). The increase in the participant’s ability to recognize hazing activity could be attributed to what is commonly referred to as the Hawthorne effect. The Hawthorne effect is a phenomenon in which study participants alter their behavior due to the attention that they garner from participation. This term was borne out of a study conducted from 1924 - 1932 at the General Electric Hawthorne Works facility in Illinois (Jones, 1992, p. 451). This finding is supported by the fact that participants correctly identified non-hazing activities on the pretest but incorrectly on the posttest; demonstrating that participants were more inclined to view an activity as hazing after reading a definition of hazing and knowing that they were participating in a hazing study.

A finding of note from this study is that for each repeated measures ANOVA conducted, the Control group scored higher than the Treatment group in both pre and posttest scores. Noting that this was an experimental research design, this result cannot be explained.

This study finds that the type of definition used to define hazing does not impact a students' ability to recognize hazing behavior. Due to the fact that only the repeated measure ANOVA for the composite variable Haze was approaching significance, figure 5.4, and that the Control group earned higher scores on the posttest with a steeper slope, this study finds that the current definition of hazing developed by the FIPG in 1987 is a more effective definition than the analytical definition for aiding students in identifying hazing activities.

Through the framework of cognitive development theory, this study posits that the analytical definition is too far above participant's developmental sense; or said another way the descriptive phrases of the analytical definition are beyond the participant's cognitive ability. The extensional definition provides a list of concrete hazing activities and is best suited to students who are concrete operational thinkers according to Piaget or dualistic thinkers according to Perry. According to Wankat and Oreovicz (1992), "many college freshmen are concrete operational thinkers ...students who are in the concrete operational stage do not appear to be able to learn from their mistakes,... they make the same mistakes over and over" (pp. 266-267). A student in this phase can understand that an activity is hazing because it is on a list of things not to do yet they do not learn from past mistakes or the mistakes of others.

For a student to be able to comprehend and apply the descriptive phrases of the analytical model, they would have to be able to think in abstracts. Hazing activities are rarely black and white and are contextual in nature. A scavenger hunt can be an effective teaching tool or it can be a hazing activity that endangers students, based on the context in which it occurs. If a student

has progressed cognitively to a formal operational stage according to Piaget or to a relativistic stage according to Perry, that student would be able to differentiate, based on the analytical definition, if a scavenger hunt is hazing. According to Wankat and Oreovicz (1992), for a student attaining Perry's fifth position, "relativism becomes the common characteristic of everything and absolutes are a special case" (p. 273). This level of cognitive development is necessary to utilize an analytical definition.

The next research question addressed differences in participant's ability to identify hazing activity, regardless of treatment group, based on sex. Consistent with prior research by Shaw (1992) and Ellsworth (2004) this study found that female participants consistently identified hazing activities at a significantly higher rate than male participants. The female participants did not gain significantly between pre and posttest scores when compared to male participants, but the consistent difference between the scores was significant.

While this finding is in line with the moral development of women model developed by Gilligan, another variable could also be a factor. Women's national Greek letter organizations have historically been consistent throughout their operations in the manner in which they approach the assimilation of new members into a group and their lack of tolerance for any activity that could be identified as hazing. While this study did not gather demographic data on affiliation with Greek letter organizations, statistically women who are members of Greek organizations were present in the sample; at both institutions the Greek female population in the sample could be as high as 33 percent of the undergraduate women.

As observed in Table 4.10, the difference in the posttest mean scores between male and female participants was significant for 22 out of the 24 hazing activities. For example, there was a significant difference in the posttest scores for: subjected to verbal abuse or harassment male

($M=3.92$, $SD=1.380$) and female ($M=4.62$, $SD=.858$); $t(215.92)=-5.040$, $p < .001$, $d=.61$; blindfolded during activities male ($M=3.25$, $SD=1.334$) and female ($M=3.99$, $SD=1.112$); $t(258.02)=-5.062$, $p < .00$, $d=.6$; and participate in an activity against your will male ($M=3.96$, $SD= 1.233$) and female ($M=4.53$, $SD=.955$); $t(247.86)=-4.284$, $p < .001$, $d=.52$. The effect sizes shown through Cohen's d for differences in mean scores based on sex were consistently the largest effect sizes for any analysis in this study.

In contrast to earlier research by Shaw (1992), this study did not find significant differences in the ability of participants to identify hazing activities based on region of the country when the composite variable scores were analyzed by repeated measure ANOVA. However, the participants from the Midwest posted higher mean scores on 24 out of 24 hazing activities than the participants from the Southeast and a significant difference in mean scores was found for five variables when an independent samples t -test was conducted at the variable level. This finding correlates with Shaw's finding from 1992 that geographical variables are a factor in the ability to recognize hazing activities.

In conclusion, the results of this study show that the type of definition used to identify the latent construct of hazing does not significantly impact a participant's ability to identify hazing activities. Based on the posttest mean scores, the current FIPG extensional definition of hazing is a stronger tool for educating students to identify hazing activities. This conclusion is grounded in cognitive development theory and indicates that traditionally aged students attending college, students between the ages 18-22, have not developed the cognitive capacity necessary to utilize an analytical definition which requires the ability to think abstractly and apply known parameters to unknown scenarios.

This study clearly shows that female participants recognized hazing activities at a consistently higher frequency than male participants and for 92 percent of the hazing activities, the difference in mean scores between male and female participants was significant. This finding was consistent between treatment groups and across demographics.

Finally, geographic differences were observed in both treatment groups for the ability to recognize hazing activities. This study correlates with earlier research that the Southeast region is less likely to identify a hazing activity as such.

Implications and Recommendations

This study was conducted in order to address the concern raised in the literature that the lack of a common definition of hazing has detracted from hazing awareness and prevention efforts. The scope of the study was limited to the acquisition of knowledge following a brief treatment. The study did not investigate the impact of definition type in areas such as the evaluation and synthesis of knowledge regarding hazing activities. Although an analytical definition model of hazing was not significantly superior to an extensional model, it was still effective in the short term for increasing a participant's ability to recognize hazing activities.

The results of this study provide several implications for practice and future research. The findings of this study will be able to benefit institutions of higher education, national organizations and hazing educators when developing awareness and prevention efforts.

Practice Implications

First, the results of this study indicate that the current model for defining hazing, the extensional model developed by the FIPG in 1987, is the best tool available for defining hazing. Institutions of higher education, national organizations and hazing educators must be explicit with students about what activities are acceptable and which are not. An attempt to provide a

broad-based descriptor of unacceptable activities will not be successful with traditionally aged college students due to their stage of cognitive development. When a hazing prevention curriculum is developed, the definition must clearly delineate activities that fit the definition of hazing.

Second, this study demonstrated that students have a strong baseline knowledge of hazing activities. The pretest mean scores for the composite hazing variables demonstrate that the hazing education efforts that have been in place while the current generation of Millennials has been in college, and which are based on the FIPG definition, are positively correlated to an increase in students ability to recognize hazing activity. Yet, noting that hazing incidents are on the rise, practitioners must realize that just because students know that an activity is hazing does not mean that they will not engage in it and that this decision is not dependent on definition type.

Third, although the results of this study did not show a significant difference in the posttest scores of participants based on definition type, both groups increased their ability to recognize hazing activities following treatment as evidenced by the higher posttest mean scores. So while an analytical definition was not the stronger model, it did not detract from the participant's ability to recognize hazing activity. Based on this finding, an analytical definition could be supplemented with a list of hazing activity examples if an organization chooses to utilize an analytical model. The combination of both models may assist in the cognitive development of students by utilizing two models juxtaposed.

Fourth, the demographic variables sex and region of the country were found to affect a participant's ability to recognize hazing activities. Based on these findings, hazing education and awareness efforts should be presented to students from various parts of the country simultaneously and be co-educational. Hazing prevention programs should be presented at

national gatherings and conferences that include men and women from different parts of the country. This model will assist in eliminating group-think that can occur if program participants are educated single sex or from only one region of the country. Frankly, men from the Southeast need to be educated about hazing with co-ed peers from other parts of the country.

Lastly, institutions of higher education and organizations with members in the Southeast region of the country should assess and continually measure the proclivity of their students/members toward hazing and the processes in place to assimilate new members into the group. All of the entities noted in the national hazing study: marching bands, ROTC battalions, national social fraternities and sororities, athletic programs, club sports programs, honor societies and religious organizations with membership in the Southeast should actively review their hazing education and awareness efforts and ensure that specific activities are forbidden and that the list is continually updated. In addition to this, programs for assimilating new members into the organizations should be developed and distributed from the national to the local level, and members and advisors should be trained on their implementation. Relying on the findings of this study, a reliance on self-directed (e.g. self-governed) new member education programs at the local level by the national organization is not advised. Finally, the insurance underwriters who provide liability coverage for institutions and the noted organizations with members in the Southeast should assess reported incidents and determine if the current higher premium rates are sufficient.

Future Research

This study presents several opportunities for future research that could assist in shaping hazing education and awareness programs as well as shape future hazing definition models. The

following research projects are some that could be considered follow-up studies to this research project:

1. This study was conducted in two regions of the country. Future studies could use the same design and include the Northeast and Northwest regions of the country.
2. Due to the design and time constraint to collect the data for the purpose of this project, participants completed the posttest immediately after reading the treatment text. This could have impacted the results due to participants having minimal time to process and reflect on what they had just read. This study could be replicated with participants agreeing to additional assessment at additional time intervals.
3. This study only collected demographic data related to the variables sex, ethnicity, and geographic location. This study could be replicated and collect demographic data related to year in school and organization affiliation, focusing specifically on organizations that are noted in the national hazing study of 2008. This would further the research effort of Ellsworth (2006) and indicate if definition type impacts members of various organizations differently in an effort to develop organization-specific hazing prevention curricula.
4. The activities defined as hazing were assembled in 2006 on the east coast. This study could be replicated using a list of hazing activities gathered from students and/or incidents across the country so as to capture region specific hazing practices.
5. Based on the research design, participants were only exposed to the treatment text in written format and for a brief period. This study could be replicated by

presenting the treatment text in person and allowing for discussion about the text prior to administering the posttest.

6. Due to a low response rate from participants other than those self-identifying as Caucasian, effects of definition type could not be studied on ethnic groups. This study could be replicated utilizing a more diverse sample allowing for more generalizability.
7. The cognitive development of the participants was not assessed as part of this study. This study could be replicated and an assessment of participant's cognitive development level included and the results cross tabulated.

Summary

The findings of this study indicate that an analytical hazing definition is not as effective as an extensional hazing definition at increasing a students' ability to recognize hazing activities. The findings further indicate that women identify hazing activities more readily than men and participants from the Midwest region of the country consistently identify hazing activities at a higher frequency than Southeast participants. Regardless of definition type, participants demonstrated an increase in their ability to identify hazing activities after reading a treatment text. Although an analytical definition increased participant's ability to recognize hazing activities, it did so at a rate less than that of the extensional definition which is the current standard.

Although the findings from this study indicate that the current extensional hazing definition model is best suited to today's college student, further research should be conducted to enhance the validity of this study and its generalizability. Efforts should be made to increase the diversity of the sample in both ethnicity and geography. Future research could improve on the

data collection procedure in an effort to increase sample size which may enhance the outcomes of research efforts that replicate this study. Enhanced studies that relate cognitive development to ability to recognize hazing activities, cross-tabulated with treatment type, may demonstrate promise for establishing a hazing definition that broadly relates to various audiences and addresses the gap noted in the literature between definition and prevention curriculum effectiveness.

References

- Allan, E., & Madden, M. (2006). National study of student hazing: Examining and transforming campus hazing cultures. Retrieved from http://www.hazingstudy.org/publications/national_hazing_study_pilot_web.pdf
- Allan, E., & Madden, M. (2008). Hazing in view: College students at risk. Retrieved from http://www.hazingstudy.org/publications/hazing_in_view_web.pdf
- Berkowitz, A. (2009) Response-Ability: A complete guide to bystander intervention. Chicago: Beck and Company. www.lulu.com (2009).
- Bradshaw v. Rawlings, 612 F.2d 135 (3rd Cir., 1979)
- Brueckner v. Norwich University, 730 A.2d 1086 (Vermont Supreme Court, 1999).
- Bureau, D., & Marchell, T. (2007). A bystander framework for hazing prevention. *Perspectives*, Summer, 8-11.
- Campo, S., Poulos, G., & Sipple, J. (2005). Prevalence and profiling: Hazing among college students and points of intervention. *American Journal of Health Behavior*, 29(2), 137-149.
- Cohen, J. (1992). Quantitative methods in psychology: A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112 (1), 155-159.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.:Sage.
- Crow, R., & Rosner, S. (2002). Institutional and organizational liability for hazing in intercollegiate and professional team sports. *St. John's Law Review*, 76, 87-114.
- Dilbeck, M. (2008). The response ability project. Retrieved from <http://raproject.org/pages/about-raproject>

- Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education, 294 F.2d 150 (5th Cir., 1961).
- Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education, 186 F. Supp. 945 (U.S. District Court, 1960).
- Ellsworth, C. (2004). Definitions of hazing: Differences among selected student organizations. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland.
- Ellsworth, C. (2005). History of hazing. *Hazing on Campus*. Indianapolis: Association of Fraternity Advisors.
- Ellsworth, C. (2006). Definitions of hazing: Differences among selected student organizations. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity Advisors*, 2(1), 46-60.
- Evans, N., Forney, D., & Guido-DiBrito, F. (1998). *Student development in college: Theory, research, and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- FIPG (2008). *Risk management manual*. Indianapolis, FIPG.
- Fitzgerald, J. (1962). *Complete guide to college fraternity rushing and pledging*. New York: I. Obolensky.
- Furek v. University of Delaware, 594 A.2d 506 (Supreme Court of Delaware, 1991).
- Garger, J. (2011). Latent constructs in social science research. Retrieved from <http://johngarger.com/articles/methodology/latent-constructs-in-social-science-research>, May 3, 2011.
- Gerstein, R., & Gerstein, L. (2008). Hazing: Response and liability. *Campus Safety and Student Development*, 9(4), 79-83.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Hall, J. (2009). Risk reduction and fraternal organizations: Tort liability, legislation, and suggestions for practice. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity Advisors*, 4(2), 30-40.
- Hamilton, M. (2009). Online survey response rates and times: Background and guidance for industry. Retrieved from http://www.supersurvey.com/papers/supersurvey_white_paper_response_rates.pdf
- Haze (n.d.). In *Oxford English Dictionary* online. Retrieved from <http://oed.com:80/Entry/84867>
- Hoffer, R. (1999). Praising hazing: Why it's O.K. to make first-year players sing for their supper. *SIVault*. Retrieved from <http://sportsillustrated.cnn.com/vault/article/magazine/MAG1017001/index.htm>
- Hollmann, B. (2002). Hazing: Hidden campus crime. *New Directions for Student Services*, 99, 11-23.
- Holmes, H. (1999). The role of hazing in the sorority pledge process. *Dissertation Abstracts*, 1(1), 115.
- Hoover, N. (1999). Initiation rites and athletics: A national survey of NCAA sports teams. Final report. Alfred, NY: Alfred University.
- Jones, S. (1992). Was there a Hawthorne effect? *American Journal of Sociology*, 98 (3), 451-468.
- Knoll v. Board of Regents, 258 Neb. 1; 601 N.W.2d 757 (Supreme Court of Nebraska, 1999).
- Latane, B., & Darley, J. (1969). Bystander apathy. *American Scientist*, 57, 244-268.
- Lewis, T., & Thombs, D. (2005) Perceived risks and normative beliefs as explanatory models for college student alcohol involvement: An assessment of a campus with conventional alcohol control policies and enforcement practices. *NASPA Journal*, 42(2), 202-222.

- Lowery, K. L. (1998). The perceived effectiveness of administrative intervention programs to decrease fraternity hazing at independent and church-related colleges in Ohio . (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Toledo, OH:University of Toledo.
- MacLachlan, J. (2000). Dangerous traditions: Hazing rituals on campus and university liability. *Journal of College and University Law*, Winter, 2000, 1-38.
- Mullins v. Pine Manor College, 449 N.E.2d 331(Mass. Superior Court, 1983).
- Novak, K. (2000). Texas A&M University campus assessment on hazing. (Unpublished raw data). College Station, Texas.
- Nuwer, H. (1999). *Wrongs of passage: Fraternities, sororities, hazing, and binge drinking*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Nuwer, H., 2000, High school hazing: when rites become wrongs, New York: Franklin Watts
- Nuwer, H. (2004, September). A look at hazing in 2004. *National Hazing Symposium*, Orlando, Florida.
- Nuwer, H. (2011). Hank Nuwer's unofficial clearinghouse to track hazing deaths and incidents. Retrieved from <http://hazing.hanknuwer.com>
- Owen, S., Burke, T., & Vichesky, D. (2008). Hazing in student organizations: Prevalence, attitudes, and solutions. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity Advisors*, 3(1), 40-58.
- Pascarella, E., Flowers, L., & Whitt, E. (2006). Research revisited: Cognitive effects of Greek affiliation in college: Additional evidence. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity Advisors*, 2(1), 117-132.

- Pearson, D., & Beckham, J. (2005). Negligent liability issues involving colleges and students: balancing the risks and benefits of expanded programs and heightened supervision. *NASPA Journal*, 42(4), 460-477.
- Perkins, H., & Berkowitz, A. (1986). Perceiving the community norms of alcohol use among students: Some research implications for campus alcohol education programming. *International Journal of the Addictions*, 21, 961-976.
- Plymouth State University (PSU) (2011). Student Handbook: hazing. Retrieved May 3, 2011 from <http://www.plymouth.edu/stulife/handbook/policies/psu/hazing.htm>
- Ramey, D. (1982). Group climate, campus image and attitudes of fraternity men regarding pledge hazing (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Bloomington, Indiana University, IN. *Dissertation Abstracts*, 1(1), 119.
- Ray, A. (2006). Understanding chi square. Retrieved from <http://www.practicalsurveys.com/reporting/chisquare.php>
- Ross, M., E., & Shannon, D., M. (2008). Applied quantitative methods in education. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.
- Sager, J., & L'Homme, M. (1994). A model for the definition of concepts: Rules for analytical definitions in terminological databases. *Terminology*, 1(2), 351-373.
- Shannon, D., & Davenport, M. (2001). *Using spss to solve statistical problems: A self-instruction guide*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Shaw, D. (1992). A national study of sorority hazing incidents in selected land grant institutions of higher learning (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Auburn, Auburn University, AL.

- Smith, K. (2009). *Going Greek: A phenomenological exploration of participant experiences with fraternal and sororal membership traditions* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Athens, University of Georgia, GA.
- StopHazing.org (2011). Pro-hazing argument. Retrieved from <http://www.stophazing.org/pro-hazing/pro-hazing-paper.pdf>
- Taylor, K. (2001). Is hazing harmless horseplay. *The Education Digest*. Retrieved from www.eddigest.com
- Thielfoldt, D., & Scheef, D. (2004, August). Generation X and the Millennials: What you need to know about mentoring the new generations. Retrieved from <http://apps.americanbar.org/lpm/lpt/articles/mgt08044.html>
- University of Arizona. (2006). Step up: Be a proactive leader, make a difference. Retrieved from <http://www.stepupprogram.org/about/>
- University of Florida (UF). (2011) Student conduct and conflict resolution. Retrieved from <http://www.dso.ufl.edu/sccr/procedures/hazing.php>
- Wankat, P., & Oreovicz, F. (1992). *Teaching engineering*. Dubuque, IA: Mcgraw-Hill College
- Wegener, C. J. (2001). Perceptions of hazing among Greek and ROTC students at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Widom, C., & Maxfield, M. (2001). An update on the cycle of violence. Retrieved from <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij>
- Willis (2011). Retrieved from http://www.willisfraternity.com/Insurance_Products/General_Liability/

Appendices

Appendix A
CONTROL GROUP TEXT

Fraternal Information and Programming Group hazing definition

FIPG Hazing definition (edited for use in the study: mention of fraternity redacted)

"Any action taken or situation created, intentionally, to produce mental or physical discomfort, embarrassment, harassment, or ridicule.

Such activities may include but are not limited to the following:

- ✓ use of alcohol
- ✓ paddling in any form
- ✓ creation of excessive fatigue
- ✓ physical and psychological shocks
- ✓ quests, treasure hunts, scavenger hunts
- ✓ road trips or any other such activities
- ✓ wearing of public apparel which is conspicuous and not normally in good taste
- ✓ engaging in public stunts and buffoonery
- ✓ morally degrading or humiliating games and activities
- ✓ any other activities which are not consistent with academic achievement, ritual or policy or the regulations and policies of the educational institution, or applicable state law

Appendix B

TREATMENT GROUP TEXT

Hazing: The University incorporates the state's Hazing Statute in its Anti-Hazing Policy and recognizes that hazing occurs in the context of gaining and/or maintaining membership in an organization. In an effort to clearly describe the term, the University further defines hazing as follows:

- Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that inflicts or intends to inflict physical or mental harm or discomfort or which may demean, disgrace, humiliate, or degrade a reasonable person, regardless of location or consent of participant(s)
- Any group or individual conduct, action or activity which presents a threat to a students' health or safety, which shall include but not be limited to any brutality of a physical nature, or forced physical activity that could adversely affect the physical and/or mental health or safety of a student
- Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that by design, intent or recklessness causes a student to be unable to reasonably pursue an academic schedule, or interferes with or attempts to interfere with a students' academic schedule or performance
- Any group or individual conduct, action or activity that causes, induces, pressures, coerces, or requires a student to violate any provision of federal, state, local, or University regulations

Appendix C
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Assessment on Activities Students Define as Hazing Activities

You are invited to participate in a research study to explore the role of definitions in efforts to educate students about hazing activities. The study is being conducted by Paul Kittle, a graduate student, under the direction of David DiRamio, Associate Professor in the Auburn University Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a full-time, undergraduate student and are age 19 or older.

Instructions

The survey consists of 3 parts and should take 15 minutes to complete

1. Provide answers to the statements below
2. Read a definition of hazing
3. Again provide answers to the statements below

Survey question

What activities, when done to or required of members or newcomers in an organization, do you agree are hazing activities?

Please indicate to what degree you agree that each activity is a hazing activity.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
 2 = Disagree
 3 = Don't know/Neutral
 4 = Agree
 5 = Strongly agree

Attend mandatory study halls	1	2	3	4	5
Attend educational presentations or programs	1	2	3	4	5
Blindfolded during activities	1	2	3	4	5
Complete a specific number of community service hours	1	2	3	4	5
Consume alcoholic beverages	1	2	3	4	5
Deprived of beverages or food by others	1	2	3	4	5
Deprived of sleep by others	1	2	3	4	5
Do calisthenics for excessive amounts of time or to excessive levels	1	2	3	4	5
Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption	1	2	3	4	5
Forced to consume excessive amounts of alcoholic beverages	1	2	3	4	5
Handcuffed or tied to a building or structure	1	2	3	4	5
Kidnap a current member of one's organization	1	2	3	4	5
Learn historical facts about one's organization	1	2	3	4	5
Maintain a minimum grade point average	1	2	3	4	5
March, walk, or run for excessive amounts of time or for excessive distances	1	2	3	4	5
Memorize and recite facts about one's organization	1	2	3	4	5
Participate in an activity against your will	1	2	3	4	5
Participate in drinking games	1	2	3	4	5
Participate in streaking or other activities while naked	1	2	3	4	5
Perform chores or tasks for others	1	2	3	4	5
Perform feat of strength or physical activity for excessive amounts of time	1	2	3	4	5
Perform in public, such as dancing or singing	1	2	3	4	5
Perform sexual acts	1	2	3	4	5
Receive a brand or tattoo	1	2	3	4	5
Shave one's head or other part of one's body	1	2	3	4	5
Stand in line for excessive amounts of time	1	2	3	4	5

Steal an item	1	2	3	4	5
Stranded alone or with other newcomers	1	2	3	4	5
Struck by an object, such as a ball, baton, fist, or paddle	1	2	3	4	5
Study a specific amount of time	1	2	3	4	5
Subjected to verbal abuse or harassment	1	2	3	4	5
Wear a specific clothing item or color of clothing item	1	2	3	4	5

Background Information

3. Race or ethnicity

- A. Native American/Indian
- B. African American, not of Hispanic origin
- C. Asian/Pacific Islander
- D. Hispanic
- E. Multiracial
- F. White, not of Hispanic origin
- G. My race or ethnicity was not included in the list

4. Sex

- A. Female
- B. Male

Appendix D

PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Paul Kittle - Re: request

From: Chad Ellsworth <chade@umn.edu>
To: Paul Kittle <kittlpr@auburn.edu>
Date: 10/9/2011 6:59 PM
Subject: Re: request
Attachments: My Thesis.doc

Hi, Paul,

I'm absolutely OK with you using parts (or all) of my instrument for your research, as long as you cite me. :-) I've attached a copy of my thesis, and the instrument is in the back. If you'd still like to talk, please let me know. Otherwise... good luck with your dissertation!

Regards,

Chad

On Sun, Oct 9, 2011 at 2:37 PM, Paul Kittle <kittlpr@auburn.edu> wrote:

Chad,

Hello. It has been a while since we have connected. I am writing to ask if you would be open to considering my request to utilize your hazing behavior survey items that you developed for your master's thesis? I am developing an instrument for my dissertation and items from your list of behaviors would fit my design. I would like the opportunity to talk with you about this. I can be reached at [334-844-1296](tel:334-844-1296) or via email: pkittle@auburn.edu.

I hope all is well with you and look forward to talking with you soon.

Signed,
Paul

Paul Kittle
Director, Office of Greek Life
Division of Student Affairs

Auburn University Student Center
255 Heisman Dr. | Suite 3130
Auburn University, AL 36849
[334-844-4600](tel:334-844-4600) (Phone)
[334-844-4347](tel:334-844-4347) (Fax)
pkittle@auburn.edu

Appendix E

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) DOCUMENTS

(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS IRB APPROVAL INFORMATION WITH
CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN ADDED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

INFORMATION LETTER
for a Research Study entitled
"Assessing the efficacy of analytical definitions in hazing education"

You are invited to participate in a research study to explore the role of definitions in efforts to educate students about hazing activities. The study is being conducted by Paul Kittle, a graduate student, under the direction of David DiRamio, Associate Professor in the Auburn University Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a full-time, undergraduate student and have reached the age of majority in your state: AL age 19; CT age 18; KS age 18.

If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to indicate to what degree you agree that 32 statements listed are hazing activities. You will be asked to do this both before and after reading a definition. Statements will include activities such as: "Complete a specific number of community service hours," and "Drink or eat substances not intended for normal consumption." You will not be asked if you have participated in any of the activities listed. Your total time commitment will be approximately 15 minutes.

Your answers will be confidential and your participation in the survey will be anonymous. Taking the survey is voluntary. There is no risk or cost associated with taking the survey. The web server hosting the survey does not record e-mail or IP addresses. Your decision to participate, not participate, or quit taking the survey will not influence your relationship with Auburn University or your host institution.

Information gathered in the anonymous survey will be used in fulfillment of an academic requirement, presented at a conference or published in an academic journal.

If you have questions about this study, please contact Paul Kittle by phone (334) 750-3850 or email at kittlep@auburn.edu or David DiRamio by phone (334) 844-4460 or email at diramio@auburn.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Human Subjects Research or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334) 844-5966 or e-mail at hsubjec@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW. YOU MAY PRINT A COPY OF THIS LETTER TO KEEP.

 24 FEB 12
Investigator Date

PAUL R. KITTLE, JR.
Printed Name

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from January 2, 2012 to January 1, 2013. Protocol # _____