

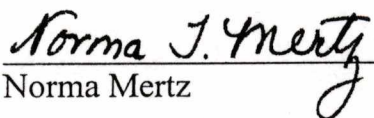
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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Samuel Grubbs entitled "The Administrative Structure and Functional Oversight of Religious Groups on Campus." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in College Student Personnel.

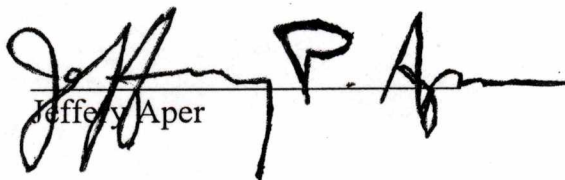


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Dean of The Graduate School

**THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE AND
FUNCTIONAL OVERSIGHT OF
RELIGIOUS GROUPS ON CAMPUS**

**A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Samuel Jacob Grubbs
August 2001**

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ABSTRACT

The current study was formulated as an exploratory study to describe the administrative structure and functional oversight of religious groups on college and university campuses and to see if institutional type affected that relationship. The population of the study included all Bachelors, Masters, and Doctoral public and private not-for-profit institutions in the southeastern United States. Survey recipients for this study were student affairs administrators who were most likely to have immediate professional knowledge of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups. This study found that nearly all campuses recognize student religious groups. However, there are distinct and significant differences between the administrative oversight of campus religious groups at public and private colleges and universities.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Over the years the religious agencies of all major faiths have become increasingly concerned about their ministry in the colleges and universities. As campus religious groups have multiplied and as more and more professional religious leaders have been appointed to serve full time in campus settings, the problem of interrelationships among groups and among professional staff has taken a new significance. University administrators eager for harmony and order in their complex communities have encouraged coordination of religious efforts, and religious groups themselves have sought ways of cooperation to achieve goals to which all are committed in a setting not always friendly to religious interests (Smith, 1957, p. vii).

In 1964, Robert Milliken wrote in *The Journal of College Student Personnel* about the “forgotten personnel service” of religious activities. He spoke of the lack of interest in coordinating religious affairs in colleges and universities based on the First Amendment of the Constitution’s “separation principle,” state mandates, as well as the undefined roles of those who lead religious activities on campus (Miliken, 1964). More than 37 years later, some of these same concerns and questions regarding the coordination of religious activities still exist on today’s college and university campuses. Religious organizations continue to want to be an active part of the college community as Seymour Smith wrote in 1957. However, the volume and diversity of religious groups in today’s college environment has increased dramatically and has come to include faiths that had only minor roles on campuses in the past.

Colleges and universities are complex organizational entities (Bogue & Aper, 2000). Often, authority is shared between the faculty and the administration. It is common for the faculty of the institution to determine the academic processes and procedures for students. The administration generally takes care of the operational oversight of the university. Each department within the framework of the institution forms divisions that report to a chief executive officer who often has the title of president or chancellor. These divisions are an example of the bureaucracy of "Functional Departmentalization" (Banner & Gagne, 1995). "In a functional organization, the guiding principle is that all people contributing to the same functional area need to be located together physically" (p.162). This organizational structure provides specialized personnel such as professors, residence hall directors, and food service workers to perform specific tasks within the institution. It establishes a level of executive control and accountability for situations that can arise at the institution (p. 163). According to this theory, workers become defined by their campus roles.

Within the administration of programs and services on campus, student-related affairs are usually handled through the chief student affairs officer and a division of professionals focused on providing student services and facilitating student development. Services in student affairs are divided and organized into separate functional areas, such as housing, student activities, and other student-related functions. Most student affairs units "have multiple goals" (Kuh, 1983, p.17), dealing with the overall concept of student development, but also with department specific goals such as counseling, housing, and coordinating activities for the students on campus. The challenge of student affairs arises

from integrating these services into the collegiate experience (Warner and Palfreyman, 1996).

Student affairs divisions are frequently categorized into two separate structures. “The most common structure for student services has been the horizontal or ‘flat’ organizational pattern, in which all major services report to the chief student services officer” (Ambler, 1991, p. 259) (see Figure A-1). This is a common and effectively used approach at many small colleges and universities. Flat structures allow for easy communication between levels of authority, but can significantly oversimplify student affairs’ concerns by assigning broad areas of oversight to a few individuals. On the other hand, a hierarchical or mechanistic structure has high complexity and formalization (see Figure A-2). In this model, there is a centralization of power, access to information is limited, and staff members specialize in a functional area of student affairs (Banner & Gagne, 1995). These two approaches are different, but both define clear roles of operation with student affairs professionals.

The roles and responsibilities of student affairs divisions can be different on any college or university campus. The administrative oversight of campus religious groups can be commonly found within the student affairs division on many campuses. Depending on the divisional structure being either flat or hierarchical, the chief student affairs officer may assign a professional the responsibility of working with student religious affairs and organizations. Some private campuses have a chaplain or director of campus ministry who oversees coordination of campus religious organizations. Many public colleges and universities have a council of religious clergy that meet during the semester with a member of the dean of students’ office to discuss function and policy.

The institutional policies on the administrative oversight of campus religious groups can affect the relationship a religious group may have with the institution.

Student religious groups are not just another organization on campus and can be a paradox for administrators to deal with on campus. The relationship student religious groups may have with campus administrators may be difficult at times to understand. Most faiths and denominations want to be a part of the campus community and assist the institution's students. However, the groups are usually affiliated with a national or international organization of faith. Sometimes the beliefs of the group can conflict with the policies of the institution (McMurtrie, May 12, 2000). However, it is common for these groups to be an influential part of the campus community (Gorospe, 1999; Franey, 1999). The student affairs staff of the institution frequently has the responsibility of overseeing campus religious groups and defining the relationship these groups have with the college or university.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this survey research is to describe the relationship between administrative structure and functional oversight of student religious groups on college and university campuses. The relationship student affairs administrators have with student religious groups is different at each institution. This study attempts to describe the functional design of the administrative relationship that may exist between campus religious groups and a college or university's division of student affairs based on the type of institution. The intent in this research is to describe the various organizational patterns and forms of working relationships that may exist between student affairs divisions and campus religious groups and if these relationships vary based on institutional type. This

project is not about proving what structured relationship was “correct,” but only describing current options that are in place and available to the student affairs divisions of many colleges and universities.

Research Questions

The research questions that framed this study are: Are student religious groups recognized by their home institution? Does the division of student affairs at the college or university provide functional oversight for student religious groups and, if so, where does the oversight fit into the administrative structure of the division? If the division of student affairs does not provide the oversight, who within the institution’s administration oversees campus religious groups? Are religious coordinating councils or committees a part of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for several reasons related to the importance of understanding the administrative relationship that student affairs divisions may have with religious groups on campus. First, most research related directly to the administrative oversight of campus religious organizations is over 20 years old. These older data do not reflect the current culture of campus life and, therefore, are not useful for student affairs administrators presently dealing with the oversight of campus religious groups.

Secondly, many college and university campuses are becoming more diverse in their student population. Students from different areas of the United States and international countries are bringing a variety of faiths, other than Protestant Christian denominations, with them as they attend colleges and universities around the country (Maller, 1989; Temkin & Evans, 1998). Many of these students desire to establish

religious groups on campus that represent their faith and beliefs. These groups of students are also looking to student affairs administrators for funding similar to what may be available to more established Christian religious groups (Jaschik, 1995).

Finally, there has been recent media attention given to campus incidents where the views of conservative campus religious groups have come into conflict with the liberal policies that are present at some colleges and universities (Paulson, 2000; McMurtrie, May 12, 2000; Leo, 2000; Ellin, 1997). This media attention on conflicting views between institutions and campus religious groups has highlighted the importance of understanding the relationship that student affairs administrators may have with these groups on campus. The information gathered in this study will be useful to those individuals presently in the position of coordinating student religious groups and to those people who would benefit from learning how the administrative oversight of campus religious groups may be different based on institutional type.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, campus religious groups are defined as student organizations with fiscal and administrative connections to the national or state headquarters of an organization related to a particular faith or denomination. This does not include religiously affiliated fraternities and sororities or local congregational fellowships. The primary focus of campus religious groups is the interpretation and understanding of a particular faith and/or doctrine by the university student community. The Muslim Student Association, the Baptist Student Union, and InterVarsity Christian Fellowship are examples of campus religious groups as defined by this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Basis

“Effective managers and professionals in all walks of life...have to become skilled in the art of ‘reading’ the situations that they are attempting to organize or manage” (Morgan, 1986, p. 11).

Russell Ackoff (1999) listed universities as an example of a social system. He stated that they have “purposes of their own, contain parts...that have purposes of their own, and are usually parts of larger social systems that contain other social systems” (p. 25). Within the social system of a college or university, there is a common, overall mission of furthering the education of those students on campus (Bogue & Aper, 2000). This mission allows for higher educational institutions to incorporate a particular organizational framework. The organizational structure is distinct in that authority is shared at many institutions between the faculty that teach on campus and the administration who operate the campus. The faculty of the institution generally determines the academic processes and procedures for students to attain a degree. The administration usually takes care of the operational oversight of services provided to the university community (Warner & Palfreyman, 1996; Bogue & Aper, 2000).

Each institution has a particular structural framework that divides the institution into departments and/or divisions that all report to superiors. Academic departments and programs primarily fall under an academic vice president (or vice chancellor), commonly called a “provost.” Other services and offices fall into different divisions of the campus that also report to other vice presidents (or vice chancellors). These executives report to a president (or chancellor) who is often considered the chief executive officer of the

institution. Similar to many organizations, final authority does not always rest with the chief executive officer. Most institutions have a lay governing board that evaluates the president and makes policy decisions. State and federal agencies, state higher education coordinating boards, and local municipalities can make decisions that can affect an institution as well (Bogue & Aper, 2000).

Banner and Gagne (1995) list the departmentalization of services commonly found at colleges and universities as "Functional Departmentalization." Functional organizations divide services into contributing areas of concern (Morgan, 1986). For example, a college may have divisions of academic affairs, student services, or business affairs (Ambler, 1989). These divisions deal with tasks and responsibilities related to their purpose on campus. Institutional personnel (such as support staff, administrative staff, and faculty) within each function of the campus report to department and divisional heads. These department heads report to supervisors, sometimes referred to as Deans, who oversee broad areas of control. Each institution may have a different administrative model based on its location, student enrollment, and mission. However, the overall structure and specialization of departmental functions at most colleges and universities can allow for simplification of tasks, ease of supervision, and greater accountability (Banner & Gagne, 1995). "The motions of the organizational structure thus produced are made to operate as precisely as possible through patterns of authority" (Morgan, 1986, p. 27).

The divisional area of a college or university that provides services and programs for students is often called the Division of Student Affairs or Student Development. Within this division, different student services are coordinated by a staff of professionals

and headed by a chief student affairs officer, which is often a vice president (or vice chancellor). Student services are divided and organized into separate functional areas, such as residential, student activities, and international student programs. Within that structure, student affairs administrators are often assigned the responsibility of overseeing different aspects of student life such as various campus groups or activities.

Student affairs administrative structure can be categorized into two basic structural organizational models depending on the institution's particular size, design, and student body. The two models can explain the current lines of formal authority within the institution. These lines of authority determine the assignment of functions and responsibilities within the division. By understanding the functional areas and authoritative lines within student affairs, one can begin to comprehend the organizational framework of divisions of student affairs.

Some student affairs divisions have a horizontal or "flat" organizational model. With this framework, there is a low degree of specialization and few hierarchical levels within the organization (Banner & Gagne, 1995). In this model, all major services within the division often report directly to the chief divisional officer (Ambler, 1989). This approach is common at small institutions where staffs deal with a limited number of students. Additionally, this format increases direct communication between top executives and mid-level administrators. It promotes cross training within the staff since many issues become common for the division and are not departmentally focused. An example of this model would be Figure A-1.

Other student affairs divisional structures include more hierarchical levels of authority. This organizational framework is considered vertical or "mechanistic." In this

approach, administrators are trained in specialized areas with a centralized authority (Banner & Gagne, 1995). The responsibilities of staff members are limited to a specific functional area (Morgan, 1986). This allows the division to perform the large task of student services in an efficient and accountable way. Administrators deal with special issues like judicial affairs and adult student services. This approach is common at large institutions and an example can be found in Figure A-2.

The Historical Relationship

Points of View (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1987), originally published under the title *The Student Personnel Point of View* in 1937, states that an objective of student affairs personnel is “supervising, evaluating, and developing the religious life and interests of students” (p. 41). The 1949 updated version of the same document, also printed in *Points of View*, notes that finding spiritual meaning is part of the complete “well-rounded development” of students’ educational experience at college (p. 26). These documents were two of the first documents devoted to student personnel work in higher education (Temkin & Evans, 1998).

“Religion is connected indissolubly with the beginnings of American higher education” (Shedd, 1938, p. 1). Protestant denominations put forth and developed all of the first colleges in the Colonial Period of America (Rudolph, 1962). On October 28, 1636, “the Massachusetts General Court passed the legislative act which led to Harvard College” (p. 4). English settlers founded Harvard College in the Massachusetts colony to assist in the study of Puritan theology, similar to what was then called Cambridge College in England. The institution promoted the principles of developing strong moral character within those who attended. The creation of the College of William and Mary

and Yale College followed Harvard College, and expanded on the teaching of Protestant theology to new colonists in America. The schools and institutions founded throughout the late 1600's and early 1700's emphasized the need to develop clergymen to serve the community (Rudolph, 1962). It was at Harvard during the 1690's that Christian students met together in groups called societies. These societies were usually secret and formed for the purpose of the students' pursuit of their faith (Linder et al., 1991).

The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 and the Morrill Act of 1890 provided funds for large-scale growth in America's public colleges. For that reason, public colleges became more attractive and affordable to potential students. These public institutions were looked upon as "an alternative to the privately supported, church-affiliated college" (Fenske, 1989, p. 10). The result was an enormous increase in the enrollment of students at state-supported campuses, which meant that college students' "spiritual needs had to be met at state campuses as well as in the older private colleges" (Temkin & Evans, 1998, p. 63).

The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations (YMCA and YWCA) of England established the first Christian organizations on an American college campus. The University of Virginia and the University of Michigan began the first two campus-based YMCA chapters in 1858 (Shedd, 1938; Austin, 1957; Butler, 1989). In 1877, the campus YMCAs' held their first national organization meeting when a student member, Luther Wishard, invited students from other associations to meet separately during a meeting of the National Board of the YMCA (Linder et al., 1991). Through national meetings, the YMCAs and YWCAs became influential and active in global

concerns in what was called the Student Volunteer Movement in 1888 (Butler, 1989; Linder et al., 1991).

Denominational campus ministries began to move onto state college campuses around 1900 to meet students' spiritual needs. In 1887 at the University of Michigan, the Tappan Association for Presbyterian students was organized as the first denominationally affiliated religious organization on a state campus. During that same year, the Episcopalian church constructed a building to house their student organization at the University of Michigan. In the early 1900s, all of the major Protestant denominations and the Catholic Church established campus groups and student centers to house these groups on many large, state-supported college campuses. Jewish centers began on college and university campuses during the 1920s (Shedd, 1938; Smith, 1957). These campus ministries were given the mission of reaching out to the student population of each campus. This was accomplished by assigning pastors, along with fiscal resources, to operate student centers in order to promote the ministry's mission and work on campus (Sloan, 1994).

Coordination of campus religious activities goes back to 1930 and 1934 when Miami University and the University of Michigan, respectively, hired full-time religious directors (Walter, 1958). In 1947, the University of Minnesota took an early step to coordinate campus religious activities under the dean of students' office by establishing a position of Coordinator of Students' Religious Activities. It was the hope of the university at that time to promote interfaith understanding (Allen, 1948).

The last fifty years have seen the most development of religious organizations on campuses. Independent Protestant religious organizations such as InterVarsity Christian

Fellowship, Navigators, and Campus Crusade for Christ have developed a strong presence on many college campuses (Butler, 1989). Additionally, the changing demographics of the United States college student has led other religious faiths to assume a presence on many college and university campuses (Temkin & Evans, 1998; Maller, 1989). Student groups related to faiths such as Islam, Hinduism, and Buddhism are increasingly more common and visible on college campuses (Jaschik, 1995).

Campus Religious Groups

Campus religious organizations often operate differently than other campus groups. Many groups do not keep an active roster for attendance at each meeting. Usually, meetings are open to everyone. Many organizations have specific written missions that may, for example, deal with volunteering, "pastoral care, and campus outreach" (Hunter, April 15, 2000, p. B1). Many religious groups that are related to non-Christian faiths such as Buddhism and Islam spend a majority of time attempting to change the perception of their religion within the college community, through seminars and open group meetings (Hunter, April 15, 2000).

Each of these organizations offers students guidance in their pursuit of a deeper faith and moral development. Many offer volunteer opportunities for participants (Hunter, April 15, 2000). All of the religious groups offer gatherings for students to meet friends and find mentors on the campus. "Many religious groups on campus organize social events such as trips to amusement parks, movie nights, and barbecues, which give students the opportunity to meet and interact with others who share the same values and beliefs" (Gorospe, 1999, p. 2). Some groups give students the opportunity to spend their summers in other parts of the country or world on mission trips. The experience of

meeting and interacting with others from similar faith traditions can be a valuable part of many students' experience in college.

Campus religious organizations recruit members in different ways. "When students apply to the university they have the opportunity to indicate their religious preference" (Hunter, April 8, 2000, p. B1). During the first week of classes, many organizations set up booths to distribute information (Franey, 1999). Groups like Campus Crusade for Christ offer "Welcome Boxes" to new students as they are greeted by the group (Ellin, 1997). Pamphlets and flyers inviting students to be a part of their organization are placed around campus on bulletin boards, classroom desks, park benches, and even in bathroom stalls (Priest, 1995). Different organizations use different approaches to attract students based on their affiliation and mission. These organizations can include denominational Christian organizations such as the Baptist Student Union and the Wesley Foundation, independent Christian organizations like InterVarsity Christian Fellowship and Campus Crusade for Christ, and organizations affiliated with different faiths like the Muslim Student Association or the Student Buddhism Association.

Campus religious groups are operated differently based on their support, size, and location. The denominational "religious-based organizations are headed by ordained, adult leadership or students" (Hunter, April 8, 2000, p. B1). Other independent religious organizations are often headed by adult volunteers and other individuals trained by the headquarters of that faith. Denominational campus ministries often meet in freestanding buildings owned and operated by that denomination's governing body (Hunter, April 8, 2000). Other ministries and groups operate out of local churches, in classrooms, or in

university center conference rooms. The funds for these groups are gathered differently as well. Some independent groups are associated with a national or international chapter of an organization that helps finance the group. Many times, local churches will financially back a certain group. Many denominational organizations, as well as religious groups affiliated with other faiths, obtain finances through the national or state headquarters of that denomination or faith.

“Religious-based organizations, though self-governing, adhere to standards established by the Office of Student Affairs...[and] are subject to the rules and conditions set by the university” (Hunter, April 8, 2000, B1). The administration of these organizations becomes a complex issue at many schools. The college culture and climate is a continually evolving process. Diversity and acceptance of differences has become a more outwardly accepted goal of many college campuses (McMurtrie, May 12, 2000). This concept of having an open melting pot of change and diversity has at times blurred the issues of whose values and rights a school should promote and protect (Paulson, 2000; Ellin, 1997).

The oversight of religious groups can be different based on the overall structure and purpose of the institution. Many state-supported college and university campuses want to find a clear balance between not becoming involved in religious issues, but, at the same time, fostering spiritual growth within students who desire that direction (Temkin & Evans, 1998). Privately funded colleges may choose to foster a specific religious belief, but may deny opportunities for others who espouse diverse and non-compliant views to speak on their beliefs (Tilley, 1996). Creighton University, a private Jesuit university in Nebraska, has a Vice President for University Ministry (Creighton University

Organization, 2000). Western Michigan University, a state-supported university, has an Office of Faith and Spiritual Development within the unit of Student Activities and Leadership Programs (WMU Faith & Spiritual Development, 2000). These differences in religious operational oversight become a channel to the different political and social characteristics of the campus.

Recent Developments with Campus Religious Groups

Religious beliefs and university administrative policy do not always coexist without controversy. In late April and into May of 2000, an intense debate regarding the rights of a Christian student organization to reject a student for a leadership position based on that student's divergent view of homosexuality reached many major publications (Paulson, 2000; McMurtrie, May 12, 2000; Leo, 2000). Tufts University and Middlebury College deliberated on removing the recognition the schools give a certain Christian group based on that group's decision to reject a student for a leadership position, based on the student's conflicting view on homosexuality. The Christian group on both campuses contended that they have the right to have their own views and criteria even if they come into conflict with that of the university. The institutions stated that an organization that bars students from leadership positions based on their view regarding sexual orientation violates the school's policy against discrimination. Tufts University restored the status of the religious group after it was found that the group was not allowed to defend their views openly during an institutional review of the denial (McMurtrie, May 26, 2000). In 1997, Grinnell College withdrew recognition from a religious group for similarly violating the institution's policy against discrimination by the group's rejection

of a person for a leadership position based on the student's view on homosexuality (Ellin, 1997).

Differences like these at Tufts University, Middlebury College, and Grinnell College illustrate the sometimes unclear line between institutional policy and religious expression. Administrators at Tufts wrote that it is necessary for an institution to walk a fine line between balancing religious and associational freedoms, while protecting against discrimination (McMurtrie, May 26, 2000). This balance can play a role in the understanding of administrative oversight and the determination of how to interpret policies a college or university may have regarding student religious groups.

Historical Review of Related Research

The sometimes unclear relationship of institutional administrative structure and campus religious groups goes back many years. The administrative oversight of campus religious groups has changed dramatically over the years. An understanding of how the administrative oversight has developed can help us gain a better comprehension of how it is now. Relevant research on this topic goes back to the 1950s. The 1960s produced a great deal of research related to the oversight of religious activities on campus, but data on this subject matter has not been collected in the last twenty years. The material from the early studies carried five general themes: church – state relationships, inclusion of religious groups on campus, policies on the recognition of religious groups, structural relationship of religious groups with institutional administration, and religious councils and committees. These topics are still relevant to present day universities.

Church – State Relationships

A fundamental problem prevalent on state-supported college and university campuses is the relationship that administrators have with religious groups. The United States Constitution makes reference in the First Amendment to the power of Congress not to pass laws respecting the establishment of religion or prohibit its free exercise. This issue of a boundary or “wall of separation”, made famous by Thomas Jefferson, between the church and state has become a problem for public higher education over the last fifty years. Institutions want to promote the free exercise of religion, but do not want to imply the establishment of religion. Allen (1952) found through his early research on the coordination of religious activities by state-supported college and university administrators that there was a concern on the part of the institutions about separating themselves from religious groups in order to follow federal and state constitutions. Harrod (1960) indicated in his research on religious activities at state-supported institutions that a majority of public campuses were forbidden from being formally tied to any religious activity because of state constitutions or the act that established the college or university. Platt (1963) concluded based on his study of religious activity on state campuses that religious activity is apparent in every state university, even though there was some apprehension on the part of administrators as to the legality of such practices.

Inclusion of Religious Groups on Campus

The inclusion of religious groups as an officially recognized part of a college campus has become an issue for administrators during the latter half of the century. To avoid any potential Constitutional conflicts, a few colleges and universities deny recognition to religious groups who wish to be a part of the campus. Only two of the 65

institutions in Allen's (1952) study excluded all religious activity from campus (including groups). However, a majority of the colleges and universities Allen studied made provisions for the groups on campus. Balcer, Harris, and Holmgren's (1959) study of religious activities in publicly supported colleges and universities found that 20 colleges of the 148 replies to their study had no religious organizations on campus. Of those 20, seven institutions had regulations that specifically denied recognition for religious groups. Additionally, four colleges in the study did not permit denominational organizations. Crouch's (1962) study of religious activities on state college and university campuses noted that 95 percent of the institutions permitted on-campus religious activities. Additionally, Platt (1963) found in a study of the prevalence of religious activities on state-supported college and university campuses that 85% of the respondents stated that denominational student organizations on campus had the same organizational status as other student groups.

Policies on the Recognition of Religious Groups

Beyond issues of inclusion on campus, religious groups may be required to follow different or more extensive policies to gain recognition by some institutions. Over 75% of the schools in Balcer, Harris, and Holgren's (1959) study required an application process for recognition of religious groups on campus. Jones found through his extensive research on provisions for campus religious life that many colleges did not require religious organizations to be registered or recognized, but still allowed them to hold meetings on campus (Jones, 1973; Eddy and Jones, 1974). Almost one-third of the public institutions surveyed by Jones accepted some responsibility for the control of religious

programming. In a replication of Jones' research, Walls (1978) found that 43% of colleges and universities allowed for the formal recognition of student religious groups.

Structural Relationship of Religious Groups with Institutional Administration

The administrative structural relationship that the division of student affairs may have with campus religious groups can vary at any institution and has continued to change over the years. Nearly all of the institutions studied by Allen in 1952 listed an individual as a liaison with religious groups on campus, and nearly half of those were staff members appointed to that position. Harrod found that state-supported institutions were "inclined to place the supervision of religious organizations under the office of the dean of students, while the private...institutions prefer[ed] a different type of supervision" (Harrod, 1960, p. 555). He found that private institutions more commonly placed the responsibility of supervising religious organizations with a chaplain. Crouch (1962) found that the responsibility for coordinating religious activities on campus went either to a director of religious activities, a faculty member, or a student affairs professional. In Platt's (1963) study, 36.6% of the schools studied employed either a full-time or part-time administrator to be responsible for religious activities. The title for the person responsible for religious activities, according to Platt, was most commonly referred to as Coordinator of Religious Affairs or Chaplain.

John Paul Eddy (1968) studied chief religious personnel at state colleges and universities. Eddy found that most of these religious administrators had an average age of 45.2 years old and were male and married. He found that that a majority of these individuals spent a majority of their time counseling. The most common title for chief religious personnel at state colleges and universities was Coordinator of Religious

Affairs. In addition, Eddy found that 17 of the 58 chief religious administrators he surveyed reported administratively to the president, 32 to the vice-president for student affairs, eight to the dean of students, and one to the associate dean of students. Eddy concluded by saying his study on religious coordination at colleges and universities “represents a favorable attitude in higher education in this country for the creation of the position of religious coordinator on many public campuses” (Eddy, 1968, p. 126).

Jones (1973) and Walls (1978) studied separately the responsibility public colleges and universities take for the coordination of religious affairs on campus. In research conducted by Jones in 1968, he found that two-thirds of the public colleges he studied had a designated staff person to coordinate campus religious organizations. However in 1972, he found through follow-up research that there was a sharp decline in the designation of a staff person to coordinate religious organizations (Jones, 1973; Eddy & Jones, 1974). In 1978, Walls found that a university staff person was a designated liaison with campus ministers on 53% of the campuses. A majority of the people with the responsibility for religious coordination in Walls’ (1978) study were associated with the office of student affairs. Walls concluded that coordination had waned between religious groups and the university administration and believed “student personnel services could benefit from a close cooperation with campus ministers...[because a] mutual learning of skills could be accomplished” (Walls, 1978, p. 124).

Religious Councils and Committees

Many public and private institutions provide a forum often called a religious council or committee to assist in the coordination of religious activities on campus. The forums often provide opportunities for campus religious leaders and campus

administrators to communicate with each other. Harrod (1960) found that over 85% of the public and interdenominational private institutions and over 65% of the non-denominational private institutions surveyed had a "religious council" to coordinate religious groups on campus. Crouch's (1962) research concluded that 57.6 % of the campuses surveyed had a council for the coordination religious activities, another 27.6 % had separate denominational student programs without coordination. Over 46 % of the campuses studied by Crouch had a coordinating council to oversee denominational groups. Over half of the schools that responded to Platt's survey had an "organization composed of representatives of local denominational student groups" (Platt, 1963, p. 147).

Stroup (1963), who studied religious councils on campus, found that these councils were widely used on campuses to coordinate religious organizations and activities. He found that these councils did not follow a single organizational pattern and more often coordinated campus religious activities such as "Religion in Life" week and Thanksgiving Day convocation. Stroup's research found that religious coordinating councils had diverse membership, organizational structures, and programming responsibilities. He concluded through his research that no uniform pattern of councils existed (Stroup, 1963).

Separate research from Jones (1973) and Walls (1978) noted changes in religious councils. Jones found that "[o]fficially sponsored religious coordinating councils were found at approximately one-third of the public colleges in 1968" (Jones, 1973, p. 18), and that amount dropped to 18% in his 1972 follow-up study. He also noted that 43% of the responding colleges and universities in Jones' research had a council or board for student

religious organizations, although 7% stated that not all religious groups on campus were represented (Jones, 1973; Eddy & Jones, 1974). Jones (1973) found that 68% of the institutions that had a coordinating council for religious activities had a university administrator assigned to work with the council. Walls' (1978) found religious councils were used by 20% of administrators studied and campus minister councils were used on another 37% as a means of relating to student religious groups. Both concluded that religious councils represented a common way for administrators to connect with campus religious groups.

Recent Research

From the 1980s to the present, most of the research on campus religious groups has focused on the purposes of religious groups on campus. This previous research does not, however, deal directly with the college or university organizational framework and administrative oversight of campus religious groups. The information present in these more recent studies can be important in understanding recent trends for campus religious groups. Issues such as student involvement in religious organizations, campus ministry roles, and religious organizational purposes are topics that are reviewed in the research of the last 20 years. This recent research provides an educational backdrop for understanding campus religious groups in the time period of the current study.

In 1983, Whittington, Leonard, and Pierce studied the role of campus ministries on state-supported university campuses. The study of 276 campus ministers looked at the purposes for various religious organizations on the university campus. The results indicated that different ministries on campus have varying purposes for their existence. Lutherans view campus ministry functioning as a church for the students, Presbyterians

emphasize personal faith, and Episcopalians for the most part believe that the mission of a campus ministry is to “support an applied religious philosophy” (Whittington et al., 1983, p. 13). This study attempted to establish “a consensus of the priorities concerning the components of campus ministries” (Whittington et al., 1983, p. 13).

Myers and Bailey completed a study of member involvement in a specific student religious organization in 1989. Student members at a Catholic student center were studied to see why they came to the center and what they did while there. The research found two layers of relationships within the campus ministry. The first layer of relationship was social/emotional, which is indicative of the goal of many ministries in promoting emotional and spiritual development. The second layer was the relation between the structure and function of the specific student organization and the establishment of roles for members of the group (Myers & Bailey, 1989).

Clark (1990) wrote on models of campus ministry of the prior 25 years. He reviewed relevant literature on campus ministry, and described a series of models he found present in contemporary campus ministry. Clark contacted 12 campus ministry groups related to denominational and non-denominational Christian organizations of faith. In his research, he explored the broad categories he found, including a distinct division in the models between groups related to denominational faiths and groups that were non-denominational. The non-denominational are described in his study as parachurch groups, because of their work outside of any denominational structure in the religious community. He found conflicts arising from the differences in the groups’ mission of reaching out to the campus community. His models of campus ministry include the roles as a community center, a resource for academic community, an

evangelistic organization, and a branch of the church. However, Clark concludes that most ministries blend a number of elements within each group's presence on campus (Clark, 1990).

In 1990, Riffe completed a study on guidelines for effectiveness in campus ministry. He interviewed students involved in campus ministry at three institutions around Winston-Salem, North Carolina and compiled a list of what they believed determined effectiveness of campus ministry. A select panel of campus ministry leaders and administrators revised the list of what determines effectiveness in campus ministry and finalized a proposal that included what the panel considered the most important aspects for an effective ministry. The study reported eight guidelines for effectiveness in campus ministry: it is necessary to develop a supportive Christian community, the thrust of a ministry should be faith and spiritual development, there should be a variety of programs for students, the space used by the groups should be an appropriate size, an adult community outside of the ministry is necessary for moral and financial support, the ministry should reach the total academic community, adequate publicity should be provided for campus events, and a campus minister or lay person should be hired who knows both the church and the campus. (Riffe, 1990).

In 1991, at one midwestern public university, Atkinson completed a dissertation on the role of chaplains in a modern, secular university setting. He looked at seven denominationally-sponsored and five special purpose ministries. Atkinson found that some campus ministries will "team up" with other groups and become active and beneficial participants in the campus community. According to Atkinson, some other "ministries hang at the perimeter of the institution without ever contributing to the

university or causing it pain” (Atkinson, 1991, p. 186). However, a third group of campus ministries noted by Atkinson worked with a “predator-prey” type of relationship in which the group preys on a campus and becomes a parasite that attaches itself to the institution and its students. In this study, Atkinson found that the Assistant Dean for Student Life acted as the liaison with the campus ministries at this particular institution. One responsibility of the Assistant Dean was to meet with campus clergy to strengthen communication between the university and campus ministries. Atkinson (1991) concluded that there loyalty to a denomination was not strong, administrators had a higher comfort level with traditional ministries, ministries were segregated by race and sex in some cases, and a low level administrator was the liaison with campus ministries.

Condray (1993) wanted to establish a “research agenda of campus ministry for the next decade” (p. ii). Condray suggested that “[a]s a field of study, campus ministry appears to be fragmented with little systematically designed research in the field” (Condray, 1993, p. 1). Three hundred campus ministry leaders and experts were sent a questionnaire and the responses indicated that a certain level of agreement existed on issues ranging from diversity to the relationship between campus ministry and the institution it supports. From the 184 responses to the questionnaire, 11 major categories of research topics were developed. Condray concluded that the agendas developed by this study can help focus future research on the areas of greatest concern to campus ministries (Condray, 1993).

Summary

The connection between religion and higher education dates back to the foundation of higher education in the United States. For the last century, religious groups

have increasingly become more a part of college and university campuses. During the last 50 years, the administrative oversight of religious affairs on campus has developed into a student affairs service. Student religious groups have grown to encompass a variety of groups other than Protestant Christian organizations. Recent research has not looked directly at institutional administrative oversight of student religious groups. Additionally, media attention has been drawn to the fact that the conservative views of some student religious groups can be in stark contrast to institutional policy and to the conflict that arises from this issue. Therefore, this study helps to bridge the gap in the research and brings insight to this potentially controversial topic on campus.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

This study describes the administrative oversight of campus religious groups by student affairs administrators. Questionnaires were sent to student affairs administrators at all colleges and universities within the southeastern United States that offer bachelors, masters, and/or doctoral degrees in order to assess the relationship in place between religious groups and student affairs divisions. The research questions that framed this study are: Are student religious groups recognized by their home institution? Does the division of student affairs at the college or university provide functional oversight for student religious groups and, if so, where does the oversight fit into the administrative structure of the division? If the division of student affairs does not provide the oversight, who within the institution's administration oversees campus religious groups? Are religious coordinating councils or committees a part of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups? This chapter provides information regarding the design of the study as well as the methods and procedures for the collection and the analysis of the data.

Design of the Study

Preliminary interviews with area campus religious leaders and student affairs professionals were conducted to facilitate survey construction and examine the relative significance of the study. Based on this information, a questionnaire (see Appendix B) was developed to describe administrative structure and functional oversight of student religious groups on college and university campuses. Questions related to four general areas: identification information, general policies on student organizations, coordination

of student religious organizations, and religious coordinating councils or committees. These general areas provide a framework for understanding the research questions that guide this study. The focus of the questionnaire involves the following: if recognized student religious groups were on campus then who, within the student affairs division, actually oversees these groups; and how is the oversight task accomplished.

Methods and Procedures

The population for this study was colleges and universities in the southeastern United States. The southeastern United States is often referred to as the "Bible Belt" because of its regional emphasis on the Protestant Christian faith (Heryman, 1997). This regional emphasis on faith was a reason why colleges and universities within this area were chosen for the population of this study. Additionally, institutions in the southeast were selected in order to gain a variety of institution types, while still having institutions from a geographically similar location. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) (Reynolds, 2001) and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) (NASPA Region III, 2001) both consider the southeastern region to be the eleven states of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

Within this eleven-state region, there are 1046 institutions of higher education (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2000). Table 3-1 notes the institutional control and highest degree offered of each institution in this eleven-state region commonly known as the southeast. Of the 1046 institutions in the southeast, there are 389 public and private not-for-profit institutions that are classified as Bachelors, Masters, or Doctoral by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

Table 3-1 Colleges and Universities in the Southeast United States¹

	Associates	Bachelor	Masters	Doctoral	Specialized	Total
Private - for profit	129	3	5	1	26	164
Private - not for profit	31	150	70	13	102	366
Public	343	16	85	55	17	516
Total	503	169	160	69	145	1046

(2000). One of the institutions is solely a distance learning institution and was not considered part of the sample. The remaining 388 institutions (see Table A-3) constituted the sample population for the study, since they commonly have traditional-aged college students and would be more likely to have religious groups on campus.

Survey recipients for this study were student affairs administrators who were most likely to have immediate professional knowledge of these issues. The reason for surveying student affairs administrators in this study is because of the common reference to religious activities as student affairs personnel service (Milliken, 1964). Common professional titles for survey recipients include Vice President of Student Affairs, Dean of Students, and Director of Student Services. Names and addresses were gathered for administrators from institutions within the population through the *Peterson's Directory of College & University Administrators* (1999), various campus web sites, and the membership directories of the two main college student affairs professional associations: American College Personnel Association (ACPA) (ACPA Member Directory, 2000) and

¹ Associate Colleges offer associate's degree and certificate programs but, with few exceptions, award no baccalaureate degrees. Baccalaureate Colleges are primarily undergraduate colleges with major emphasis on baccalaureate programs. Master's Colleges and Universities typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs, and are committed to graduate education through the masters degree. Doctoral/Research Universities typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs, and are committed to graduate education through the doctorate degree. Specialized institutions offer degrees ranging from the bachelor's to the doctorate, and typically award a majority of degrees in a single field (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2000).

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) (Membership Database, 2000).

One student affairs administrator at each of the 388 selected institutions within the population was selected and mailed the questionnaire, a return envelope, and a cover letter explaining the study (see Appendix B) on March 21, 2001. The participants were asked to complete the survey and return it in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped envelope within two weeks. The questionnaires were color-coded based on institutional control and type for categorical purposes and were date-stamped upon receipt. The survey included identification information that asked for the institutions' name and state in order to identify what schools had replied in order to keep a count of what schools had responded to the survey. An e-mail reminder was sent to all original recipients who had not replied after two weeks. Some respondents to the e-mail replied by saying they did not receive the original letter and/or requested to fill out the questionnaire via e-mail attachment. In those requests, a questionnaire was sent out as an e-mail attachment and four responses were received via e-mail.

Data Analysis

From the 388 surveys sent, the 251 responses were compiled and assessed. The responses to the survey questions were categorized based on the institutional control and type into tables that included raw number counts, summations, and percentages of the data. These tables of data were used to assess the relationship of the administrative policy on the oversight of student religious groups at the institutions studied. Descriptive statistics were used to draw conclusions on the tendencies in administrative oversight based on the independent variables of institutional control, type, and whether or not the

institution was religiously affiliated. Chi-square tests were used to see if a relationship exists within the data.

A response rate of 64.7% was received for this study (see Table 3-2). The response rate for public institutions (65.4%) was only slightly higher than that of private institutions (64.2%). There were similar amounts of respondents from Bachelors (59.4%), Masters (68.4%), and Doctoral (69.1%) institutions. The greatest percentage of respondents was from private Masters colleges and universities (77.1%). The response rate from private Doctoral insitutions was the lowest (53.8%). The similar rate of responses from public and private not-for-profit institutions that are classified as Bachelors, Masters, or Doctoral provides a relatively consistent sample of the population.

The chi-square test is a test of the independence of categorical data (Vogt, 1999). The test is used in this study to estimate the probability of cases being in a category of institutional control, type, or religious affiliation. For this test to be undistorted, common guidelines state "that no cell [within the table of data] can have an expected value less than 1.0 and not more then 20% of the cells have expected values less than 5" (SPSS base 9.0: Applications guide, 1999, p. 67). For this study, the information on institutional control and type and the answers to the questions on administrative oversight policies

Table 3-2 Response Rate Table

	Bachelors		Masters		Doctoral		Total	
	Surveyed Respondents		Surveyed Respondents		Surveyed Respondents		Surveyed Respondents	
Public	16	10	85	52	55	40	156	102
	62.5%		61.2%		72.7%		65.4%	
Private - not for profit	149	88	70	54	13	7	232	149
	59.1%		77.1%		53.8%		64.2%	
Total	165	98	155	106	68	47	388	251
	59.4%		68.4%		69.1%		64.7%	

were the data used to see if “statistically significant differences exist” (Vogt, 1999, p. 29) between the institution type and the administrative oversight policies.

Answers to each of the research questions were found through responses to the questions on the survey (see Appendix B). The first research question (Are religious groups recognized by the home institutions?) was answered through the fourth, fifth, and sixth questions on the survey. The second research question (Does the division of student affairs at the college or university provide functional oversight for student religious groups and, if so, where does the oversight fit into the administrative structure of the division? If the division of student affairs does not provide the oversight, who within the institution’s administration oversees campus religious groups?) was answered through the seventh, eighth, and ninth survey questions. The final research question (Are religious coordinating councils or committees a part of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups?) was answered through the tenth and eleventh survey questions.

Simple descriptive statistics such as percentages and summations were also used to organize the information provided in the tables of data based on the corresponding research question. Percentages and summations of respondents’ answers were noted based on institutional control and type. On the basis of these results, general administrative themes were found. The data represented in the tables and the statistics used to assess the data assisted in interpreting the types of structural and functional relationships that exist between campus religious groups and student affairs administrators on college and university campuses in the southeastern United States.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

A questionnaire on the relationship between student religious groups and student affairs divisions was mailed to 388 student affairs officers at Bachelors, Masters, and Doctoral public and private not-for-profit institutions and are located within the southeastern United States. The research questions that guided this study are outlined in Chapter 3. The findings from the study will be reported and discussed in this chapter by the consideration of each of the research questions and the questionnaire items that relate to those questions.

Variables

In this study, three independent variables were used to assess the data from the institutions studied: institutional control (whether the institution was publicly or privately operated); institutional type (whether the highest degree offered was bachelors, masters, or doctoral); and whether or not the institution was religiously affiliated. The institutional control and type for the population was determined before this study through information provided in an electronic data file from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2000).

The third independent variable examined in this study was whether or not the institution considered itself religiously affiliated. This was tabulated through the third question on the survey (see Table 4-1). All public colleges and universities understandably considered themselves not religiously affiliated. On the other hand, a majority of private colleges (86.4%) considered themselves to be religiously affiliated. Since so few private institutions were not religiously affiliated, no comparison of

Table 4-1 Institutional Control by Religious Affiliation Cross-Tabulation

			Is your institution religiously affiliated?		Total
			Yes	No	
Institutional Control	Public	Count		102	102
		% within Institutional Control		100.0%	100.0%
	Private	Count	127	20	147
		% within Institutional Control	86.4%	13.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	127	122	249
		% within Institutional Control	51.0%	49.0%	100.0%

religiously affiliated and non-religiously affiliated private institutions could be accomplished. Therefore, this variable was disregarded from the assessment in this study because the sample population of privately controlled institutions was heavily weighted toward religious affiliation.

Research Questions

Are student religious groups recognized by their home institution?

The fourth question on the questionnaire asked if the respondent's institution recognized student-led organizations and groups (see table 4-2). The results showed that nearly all of the institutions studied recognized student organizations or groups (99.2%). Only two institutions that responded, one public and one private, did not recognize student organizations and groups. Some of the public institutions reported that they did not officially recognize student organizations, but organizations were affiliated with the college or university through a registration process.

The fifth survey question asked if groups, clubs and organizations affiliated with a specific faith or religious belief were present on the respondent's campus. This question attempted to establish whether or not religious groups were present on campus. A clear

Table 4-2 Institutional Control by Institutional Recognition of Student Groups Cross-Tabulation

			Does your instiution recognize student-led organizations and groups?		Total
			Yes	No	
Institutional Control	Public	Count	100	1	101
		% within Institutional Control	99.0%	1.0%	100.0%
	Private	Count	147	1	148
		% within Institutional Control	99.3%	.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	247	2	249
		% within Institutional Control	99.2%	.8%	100.0%

majority of both public (96.1%) and private (90.5%) institutions indicated that religious groups were present on campus (see Table 4-3). More private campuses (9.5%) indicated that there were no religious groups on campus than public campuses (3.9%). A chi-square analysis of frequencies in Table 4-3 yielded a statistic that could not show that there was a relationship between institutional control and those campuses that have religious groups on campus ($\chi^2(1)=2.772$, $p = .096$).

Question six on the survey asked survey participants if groups affiliated with specific faiths or religious beliefs were recognized by their institution (see Table 4-4). A similar majority of both public and private not-for-profit institutions (94.1% and 94.5% respectively) recognized religious groups through some process. Only 5.9% of the public and 5.5% of the private institutions did not recognize religious groups. Because of the similarities within the responses, a chi-square analysis of frequencies in Table 4-4 yielded a statistic that showed no relationship between public and private campuses who recognized religious groups and those who do not ($\chi^2(1) = .018$, $p = .892$).

Table 4-3 Institutional Control by Religious Groups on Campus Cross-Tabulation

			Are groups, clubs, or organizations affiliated with a specific faith or religious belief present on your campus?		Total
			Yes	No	
Institutional Control	Public	Count	98	4	102
		% within Institutional Control	96.1%	3.9%	100.0%
	Private	Count	134	14	148
		% within Institutional Control	90.5%	9.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	232	18	250
		% within Institutional Control	92.8%	7.2%	100.0%

Table 4-4 Institutional Control by Institutional Recognition of Religious Groups Cross-Tabulation

			Are groups affiliated with specific faith or religious beliefs recognized by your institution?		Total
			Yes	No	
Institutional Control	Public	Count	96	6	102
		% within Institutional Control	94.1%	5.9%	100.0%
	Private	Count	138	8	146
		% within Institutional Control	94.5%	5.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	234	14	248
		% within Institutional Control	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%

Does the division of student affairs at the college or university provide functional oversight for student religious groups and if so, where does the oversight fit into the administrative structure of the division? If the division of student affairs does not provide the oversight, who within the institution's administration oversees campus religious groups?

The seventh survey question asked participants if a college or university administrator was assigned the responsibility of overseeing campus religious groups and activities (see Table 4-5). This question asked if there were religious groups, then who provided functional oversight to the organizations. Public institutions indicated 59.6% of the time that a college or university administrator was assigned to the oversight of campus religious groups. That percentage varied only slightly at the Masters and Doctoral level with levels of 54% and 61.5% respectively. Nearly all of the Private not-for-profit institutions (99.3%) reported that an administrator was assigned the

Table 4-5 Institutional Control and Type by Administrator Assigned to Oversee Religious Groups and Activities Cross-Tabulation

Institutional Control				Is a college or university administrator assigned the responsibility of overseeing campus religious activities and groups?		Total
				Yes	No	
Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	8	2	10
			% within Institutional Type	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		Masters	Count	27	23	50
			% within Institutional Type	54.0%	46.0%	100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	24	15	39
			% within Institutional Type	61.5%	38.5%	100.0%
	Total		Count	59	40	99
			% within Institutional Type	59.6%	40.4%	100.0%
Private	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	85	1	86
			% within Institutional Type	98.8%	1.2%	100.0%
		Masters	Count	53		53
			% within Institutional Type	100.0%		100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	7		7
			% within Institutional Type	100.0%		100.0%
	Total		Count	145	1	146
			% within Institutional Type	99.3%	.7%	100.0%

responsibility of overseeing religious groups and activities. Only one private institution indicated that an administrator was not assigned the responsibility of overseeing religious groups and activities. A chi-square analysis of frequencies for only the public institutions in Table 4-5 yielded a statistic that could not show the frequency was not randomly distributed ($\chi^2(2) = 2.440$, $p = .295$). However, a chi-square analysis of frequencies of the total public and private institutions noted a highly convincing statistic showing that there is a relationship between public and private campuses and administrative oversight ($\chi^2(1) = 66.794$, $p = .000$).

The eighth question followed up the previous question by asking what administrator was generally responsible for the oversight of most religious groups on campus (see Table 4-6). The responses listed for this question were Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion; Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs; Chaplain or Campus Minister; Associate Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs; Dean of Students; Coordinator or Director of Religious Affairs, Campus Ministry, or Spiritual Life; Associate Dean of Student; Director of Student of Activities; or other title. Two additional categories were added to the results to incorporate common "other title" responses to the data: Shared between Chaplain and a Student Affairs Administrator (which signified that the responsibility is shared between a Chaplain and a student affairs administrator) and Director of Student Life, Leadership or Organizations. One category, Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion, was combined into the category of other responses because there was only one response in such way. The answers to this question revealed definite differences between public and private institutions, but did not show significant differences based on institutional type.

Table 4-6 Institutional Control and Type by Administrator Assigned to Oversee Campus Religious Groups Cross-Tabulation

Institutional Control	Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors Count	% within Institutional Type	What administrator is generally responsible for oversight of most religious groups on campus?							Other title	Total
					Vice Pres. (or Vice-Chancellor) of Student Affairs	Chaplain or Campus Minister	Shared between Chaplain & Student Affairs Administrator	Dean of Students	Coord. or Dir. of Rel. Affairs, Campus Min., or Spil. Life	Associate Dean of Students	Director of Student Activities	Director of Student Life, Leadership, or Orgs.	
Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	% within Institutional Type	3	2	1			2	5	1	8
			Masters	% within Institutional Type	9.7%	6.5%	3.2%		1	25.0%	62.5%	12.5%	100.0%
			Count	% within Institutional Type	2	3		4	3.2%	6.5%	14	4	31
			Doctoral	% within Institutional Type	7.7%	11.5%		15.4%			8	2	26
			Count	% within Institutional Type	5	5	1	4	1	19.2%	30.8%	7.7%	100.0%
Private	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	% within Institutional Type	4	56	7	3	1.5%	13.8%	41.5%	2	86
			Masters	% within Institutional Type	4.7%	64.0%	8.1%	3.5%	9.3%	2.3%	5.8%	2.3%	100.0%
			Count	% within Institutional Type	5	26	4	2	6	1	9		54
			Doctoral	% within Institutional Type	9.3%	48.1%	7.4%	3.7%	11.1%	1.9%	16.7%		100.0%
			Count	% within Institutional Type	9	85	11	5	14	3	2	2	147
Total	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	% within Institutional Type	6.1%	57.8%	7.5%	3.4%	9.5%	2.0%	10.9%	1.4%	100.0%
			Count	% within Institutional Type									

Of the public institutions that responded to the question, the Director of Student Activities was the most common title selected (41.5%). The Associate Dean of Students (13.8%) was the second most frequent response selected at public institutions, followed by Director of Student Life, Leadership, or Organizations (10.8%). Altogether, 89.3% of public institutions had a student affairs administrator in charge of student religious groups. The other public institutions (10.7%) indicated having a Chaplain, a Chaplain and a student affairs administrator sharing control, or a Director of Campus Ministry on campus.

The responses from the private institutions were quite different. A majority of private institutions indicated that a chaplain (57.8%) was assigned the responsibility of overseeing campus religious groups, while another 7.5% of the private institutions indicated that a chaplain shared that responsibility with another student affairs administrator. Directors of Student Activities accounted for only 10.9% of the responses. Additionally, the Coordinator or Director of Religious Affairs, Campus Ministry, or Spiritual Life position accounted for 9.5% of the responses. Most private institutions (74.8%) placed the responsibility for overseeing campus religious groups with a religious affairs professional.

The ninth question in the survey asked to whom did the institutional administrator who oversees campus religious groups report at the institution (see Table 4-7). Responses to this question were President (or Chancellor) of the institution, Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion, Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs, Associate Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs, Dean of students, or other title. The category of Executive Vice President or

Table 4-7 Institutional Control and Type by Administrator Reporting Cross-Tabulation

			Who does this university administrator report to at the institution?							Total
			President (or Chancellor) of the institution	Executive Vice President or Provost	Vice Pres. (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs	Assoc. or Asst. Vice Pres. (or Vice Chancellor) of Stu. Aff.	Dean of Students	Other title		
Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count		2	25.0%	1	4	1	8
		% within Institutional Type					12.5%	50.0%	12.5%	100.0%
	Masters	Count	4		12	5	7	2	30	
		% within Institutional Type	13.3%		40.0%	16.7%	23.3%	6.7%	100.0%	
	Doctoral	Count	2	1	7	7	7	2	26	
		% within Institutional Type	7.7%	3.8%	26.9%	26.9%	26.9%	7.7%	100.0%	
Private	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	6	1	21	13	18	5	64
		% within Institutional Type	9.4%	1.6%	32.8%	20.3%	28.1%	7.8%	100.0%	
	Masters	Count	30	4	31		17	3	85	
		% within Institutional Type	35.3%	4.7%	36.5%		20.0%	3.5%	100.0%	
	Doctoral	Count	14	2	25	1	10	2	54	
		% within Institutional Type	25.9%	3.7%	46.3%	1.9%	18.5%	3.7%	100.0%	
Total	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	1		5			1	7
		% within Institutional Type	14.3%		71.4%			14.3%	100.0%	
Total	Institutional Type	Masters	Count	45	6	61	1	27	6	146
		% within Institutional Type	30.8%	4.1%	41.8%	7%	18.5%	4.1%	100.0%	

Provost was added and one category was changed to Associate or Assistant Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs in order to incorporate some of the other responses to this question. One category, Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion, was combined into the category of other responses because there was only one response in such way to this question.

The answers received on reporting relationships were concentrated around three positions at public institutions: Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) for Student Affairs (32.8%), Dean of Students (28.1%), and Associate or Assistant Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) for Student Affairs (20.3%). A clear majority of public institutions (87.5% including 4 of the 5 other responses) had a reporting relationship within student affairs. The private institutions who responded reported most frequently to the Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs (41.8%), President (30.8%), and Dean of Students (18.5%). Collectively, the reporting relationship for the administrator in charge of campus religious groups at private campuses was less likely found in the student affairs division than at public campuses (only 63% including 3 of the 6 other responses reported to student affairs divisions).

The reporting relationship for the administrator in charge of campus religious groups can vary at any given institution (see Table 4-8). Almost one quarter (24.3%) of the administrators who oversee campus religious groups reported to the president. Most of those were Chaplains or Vice Presidents (or Vice Chancellors) of Student Affairs. The most common title for reporting was Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs (39%). The administrative position in charge of overseeing campus religious groups reported to the Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs in at least

Table 4-8 Administrator Assigned to Campus Religious Groups by Administrator Reporting Cross-Tabulation

What administrator is generally responsible for oversight of most religious groups on campus?	Who does this university administrator report to at the institution?					
	President (or Chancellor) of the institution	Executive Vice President or Provost	Vice Pres. (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs	Assoc. or Asst. Vice Pres. (or Vice Chancellor) of Stu. Aff.	Dean of Students	Other title
Vice Pres. (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs	11 5.2%	3 1.4%				14 6.7%
Chaplain or Campus Minister	32 15.2%	2 1.0%	37 17.6%	2 1.0%	15 7.1%	1 .5%
Shared between Chaplain & Student Affairs Administrator	2 1.0%		6 2.9%		4 1.9%	12 5.7%
Dean of Students		1 .5%	6 2.9%			9 4.3%
Coord. or Dir. of Rel. Affairs, Campus Min., or Spir. Life	5 2.4%		6 2.9%		3 1.4%	15 7.1%
Associate Dean of Students			2 1.0%	1 .5%	9 4.3%	12 5.7%
Director of Student Activities			17 8.1%	10 4.8%	12 5.7%	4 1.9%
Director of Student Life, Leadership, or Orgs.		1 .5%	4 1.9%		2 1.0%	9 4.3%
Other title	1 .5%		4 1.9%	1 .5%		7 3.3%
Total	51 24.3%	7 3.3%	82 39.0%	14 6.7%	45 21.4%	11 5.2%
						100.0%

three cases. Administrators also commonly reported to the Dean of Students (21.4%) in all cases except for the Vice President or Student Affairs, which is a higher executive position. The most common reporting relationship was outside of student affairs: a Chaplain or Campus Minister reporting to a President (or Chancellor) (15.2%). The most common relationship in student affairs was a Chaplain to a Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs (11.6%).

Are religious coordinating councils or committees a part of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups?

The tenth question of the survey asked if there was a college or university religious coordinating council or committee for professional campus religious leaders that deals with religious groups (see Table 4-9). Religious coordinating councils were

Table 4-9 Institutional Control and Type by Religious Coordinating Council or Committee Cross-Tabulation

Institutional Control				Is there a college or university religious coordinating council or committee for professional campus religious leaders that deals with religious groups?		Total
				Yes	No	
Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	2	8	10
			% within Institutional Type	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%
		Masters	Count	15	36	51
			% within Institutional Type	29.4%	70.6%	100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	26	14	40
			% within Institutional Type	65.0%	35.0%	100.0%
		Total	Count	43	58	101
			% within Institutional Type	42.6%	57.4%	100.0%
Private	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	30	57	87
			% within Institutional Type	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
		Masters	Count	23	31	54
			% within Institutional Type	42.6%	57.4%	100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	7		7
			% within Institutional Type	100.0%		100.0%
		Total	Count	60	88	148
			% within Institutional Type	40.5%	59.5%	100.0%

commonly found in the older studies as a way for public colleges to oversee religious groups on campus (Jones, 1973, Walls, 1978). The responses to this question did not vary such between public and private institutions. Both indicated such a religious council 42.6% of the time on public campuses and 40.5% of the time on private campuses. Interestingly, 65% of the public and all of the private Doctoral institutions that responded stated that there was a religious coordinating council or committee. These numbers were in direct contrast to total percentages in the table. A chi-square analysis of the frequencies of institutional types in Table 4-9 yielded a statistic in both the public and privately controlled institutions that showed a relationship between institutional type and religious coordinating councils or committees on campus (public institutions had $\chi^2(2) = 13.927$, $p = .001$ and private institutions had $\chi^2(2) = 11.685$, $p = .003$).

The final survey question asked if members of the college or university administrative staff attended the religious coordinating council or committee meetings (see Table 4-10). From the public institutions who indicated having a religious coordinating council in the previous question, less than half (46.5%) indicated the administrator in charge of overseeing religious groups attends religious coordinating council or committee meetings. A clear majority of the private institutions (85%) indicated that the administrator in charge of overseeing groups attended religious committee meetings. The public institutions had another student affairs administrator attend meetings 25.6% of the time, while no administrator attended the meetings 23.3% of the time. A chi-squared test on the totals of public and private institutions showed some significance, even though more than 20% of the cells had less than five ($\chi^2(3) = 20.284$, $p = .000$).

Table 4-10 Institutional Control and Type by Administrator Attends Religious Coordinating Council or Committee Meetings Cross-Tabulation

Institutional Control				Do members of the college or university administrative staff attend the religious coordinating council or committee meetings?				Total
				Yes, the administrator in charge of overseeing the groups	Yes, another student affairs administrator	Yes, another administrator	No	
Public	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	1	1			2
			% within Institutional Type	50.0%	50.0%			100.0%
		Masters	Count	8		1	6	15
			% within Institutional Type	53.3%		6.7%	40.0%	100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	11	10	1	4	26
			% within Institutional Type	42.3%	38.5%	3.8%	15.4%	100.0%
		Total	Count	20	11	2	10	43
			% within Institutional Type	46.5%	25.6%	4.7%	23.3%	100.0%
Private	Institutional Type	Bachelors	Count	28		2		30
			% within Institutional Type	93.3%		6.7%		100.0%
		Masters	Count	18	2	1	2	23
			% within Institutional Type	78.3%	8.7%	4.3%	8.7%	100.0%
		Doctoral	Count	5			2	7
			% within Institutional Type	71.4%			28.6%	100.0%
		Total	Count	51	2	3	4	60
			% within Institutional Type	85.0%	3.3%	5.0%	6.7%	100.0%

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study was formulated as an exploratory study to describe the administrative structure and functional oversight of religious groups on college and university campuses. The population of the study was limited to all Bachelors, Masters, and Doctoral public and private not-for-profit institutions in the southeastern United States as defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2000). This study found a strong relationship in administrative oversight based on institutional control. Conclusions and recommendations are discussed in the following section.

The following research questions framed this study and were descriptively answered by the data analysis procedures: Are student religious groups recognized by their home institution? Does the division of student affairs at the college or university provide functional oversight for student religious groups and if so, where does the oversight fit into the administrative structure of the division? If the division of student affairs does not provide the oversight, who within the institution's administration oversees campus religious groups? Are religious coordinating councils or committees a part of the administrative oversight of campus religious groups?

Conclusion

Student religious organizations are a common part of college and university campuses in the southeastern United States. Nearly all institutions, both public (96.1%) and private not-for-profit (90.5%), have religious groups present on campus. Interestingly, the percentage of public institutions that give recognition religious groups is two percent less than the total of public institutions and the percentage of private not-

for-profit institutions that give recognition religious groups is four percent more than the total of private not-for-profit institutions. The discrepancy in these numbers could be due to the respondents' interpretation of what actually comprised a religious group on campus. The respondents might have interpreted religious groups to mean community groups that only associate with the institution. Additionally, a few respondents noted that religious groups were not on campus; however, there were policies in place to recognize religious groups if they were to become a part of those campuses.

The percentage of recognition given to student religious group has not been this high since 1962 when Crouch noted that 95% of public campuses permitted religious activities. In 1978, Walls found that less than half (43%) of public institutions had policies that allowed for recognition of student religious groups. This could have been related to legal decisions of that time regarding the place of religious groups on campus. In *Tilton v. Richardson*, 403 U.S. 672 (1971), the court concluded that a state could not provide facilities for religious use without giving prohibited support to religion. In *Chess v. Widmar*, 480 F. Supp. 907 (WD Mo. 1979), the court found that regulations prohibiting public college and university buildings or grounds used for the purpose of religion were justified and required by the Establishment Clause of the Federal Constitution. These cases may have forced many institutions to distance themselves from religious activities during the 1970's in order to avoid legal pressure under the Establishment Clause, which prohibited the state from establishment of a religion. In *Widmar v. Vincent*, 454 U.S. 263 (1981) the court concluded that the Establishment Clause does not bar religious groups from the extension of general benefits and that a university could not regulate speech. In *Rosenburger b. Rector*, 515 U.S. 819 (1995) the

court found that a university can not discriminate in the disbursement of a student activities fund to a student publication solely based on a religious viewpoint. This present period of conservative emphasis in the courts has allowed student religious groups to become a more active part of many college campuses.

Since 1972, there has been no significant increase in administrative oversight of campus religious groups. Jones (1973) noted the decline at public institutions in assigning a staff person as liaison with campus religious groups (from 84% in 1968 to 55% in 1972). Walls found a consistent amount of public institutions that assigned a staff person as a liaison with campus religious groups (53%). In the present study, the percentage of public campuses that assign an administrator the responsibility of overseeing campus religious groups is 59.6%. This can be related to the notion that administrators may allow student religious groups to be on campus. However, administrators may not want to deal with student religious groups for fear of entanglement in controversies concerning religious policies.

This study also found that 89.3% of public colleges and universities, which have religious group oversight, assign a student affairs administrator the responsibility. This may be attributed to the idea that the oversight of religious groups is a service for students at the institution and, therefore, is student affairs concern. The tightening of many college and university budgets has made it necessary for many institutions to spend only a limited amount of energy in working with a broad range of student services and, therefore, give only a very limited amount of time to the oversight of student religious groups.

Nearly every private not-for-profit college and university in the southeastern United States has a person who oversees student religious activities and groups (99.3%). This can be attributed to the fact that 86.4% of the private not-for-profit institutions considered themselves religiously affiliated and many of the other private schools have a religious heritage. The responsibility for administrative oversight of student religious groups on private campuses was often given to a religious affairs professional (74.8%) because of this close connection many private campuses have with a religious heritage.

The reporting relationship for the administrator in charge of campus religious groups often fell within the division of student affairs at both public (87.5%) and private (63%) campuses. This close relationship with student affairs is also noted in much of the older data (Eddy & Jones, 1974; Harrod, 1960). Because religious activities garner more support from private institutions with religious affiliation, the oversight of student religious groups is less commonly a part of the student affairs division at these colleges and universities. For that reason, the administrator in charge of overseeing religious groups may have a reporting relationship with a senior administrator such as a President or Executive Vice President. Many private religiously affiliated institutions spend a clear portion of time and resources on religious affairs because it is defined as institutional value.

A majority of public and private schools do not use a religious coordinating council or committee (only 42.6% of public institutions and 40.5% of private institutions have a religious coordinating council). Similarly, in 1978, Walls found that only 37% of public institutions had a religious council for campus religious leaders. In this study, however, a significant portion of both public (65%) and private (100%) Doctoral

institutions had a religious coordinating council. Doctoral institutions commonly are thought to have more bureaucracy and hierarchical levels of administration than other institutions. This hierarchical structure within the student affairs divisions at many of these institutions (as described on pages 9 and 10) allows for specialized areas of administration and could be why these councils are a way to oversee the religious groups on campus. Religious coordinating councils allow for formal meetings to take place with campus religious group leaders and can be a means for doctoral institutions to focus on connecting with religious groups in the increased formality of their campus.

The administrator in charge of overseeing campus religious groups also attended the religious coordinating council or committee meeting most often on most private campuses (85% of the private institutions who have religious councils). This could be due to the fact that more private campuses have a person who oversees student religious activities and groups (99.3%). Public colleges and universities have a significantly lower amount of administrators who oversee campus religious groups that attend religious coordinating councils (46.5%). This can be due to the fact that public institutions are less likely to have an administrator that oversees student religious groups (59.6%) and many of those administrators combine that responsibility with the oversight of all campus organizations.

Implications

The student affairs division on most college campuses encompasses a wide variety of services and activities. The administrative oversight of student religious groups has been a part of those services in student affairs for over fifty years (Allen, 1948). Jones (1973) and Walls (1978) found a decline in the recognition of religious

groups on public campuses from the 1960s to 1970s. However, this is not true in the present collegiate environment. Student religious groups are involved on campus and recognized by a majority of both private not-for-profit and public institutions in the southeastern United States. These groups actively seek student support and some groups on public campuses are looking for funding as a result of *Rosenburger v. Rector*. Therefore it important for a public institutional administrators to understand the fine line they walk between getting involved with those organizations on campus and not supporting them to a point of entanglement with religious affairs.

There are distinct and significant differences in the administrative oversight of campus religious groups at public and private colleges and universities. Many private campuses maintain a close relationship with religious groups, because they generally support a religiously affiliated institutional mission and policies that support religious oversight. For that reason, nearly every private campus has an administrator responsible for overseeing religious groups. Only 59.6% of public colleges and universities hold such connections. Most public institutions allow for student religious groups to be on campus, but many institutions distance themselves from the groups through administrative policy. This loose connection at many public institutions is due largely, in part, to administrative policy and regulations that prohibit entanglement with religion or religious affairs. However, the lack of direct oversight at many state institutions can lead to future conflicts in defining where institutional policy ends and religious expression begins.

The size and structure of institutions play a part in how administrators operate the campus. Many large campuses have many levels of authority. These levels are in place

to establish lines of communication and accountability. Within this study there were very few differences in administrative oversight based on institutional type. The only significant difference in the results, based on institutional type, was whether or not the campus had a religious coordinating council. The increased number of religious coordinating councils at Doctoral institutions can be related to a hierarchical organizational structure within the student affairs divisions of many of these large schools. Doctoral institutions may need a more formalized connection to campus religious groups in order account for these organizations in relation to the entire campus. Therefore, religious coordinating councils may provide that structure necessary for oversight.

The administrative connection between student religious groups and the campus community is important to understand because institutional culture and values define administrative policy. Any given private or public institution can be operated in a number of ways based on what is valued by the institution. It is important to learn and understand these differences in administrative oversight of campus religious groups so that issues of institutional objectives and policy can be fully comprehended. A public campus may need to find a balance of providing spiritual growth opportunities, while not becoming entangled with religious affairs. On the other hand, private campuses may seek strong coordination within religious affairs, because of long-standing institutional missions. However, this coordination at private campuses may not be conducive to groups who espouse diverse and non-compliant views (Tilley, 1996). Understanding the administrative oversight of student religious groups can allow institutions avoid undue media attention and the potential legal action on religious grounds. When communication

is open and clear between administrators and student religious groups, conflicts arising from differences in beliefs and policies can be resolved.

Recommendations

The following recommendations have been formulated as a result of the review of the literature and the data collected and analyzed for this study on the administrative oversight of campus religious groups.

1. Research on the how administrators oversee and interact with campus religious organizations could be valuable information. Studies could be done to investigate the different ways that campuses relate to student religious groups, and if there were any similarities in the process. Many respondents noted that some of the administrators that oversee campus religious groups also oversee all organizations or oversee religious organizations jointly with a campus minister. The present research concluded that there were significant differences based on institutional control, but did not elaborate on those differences. Further research could explore what specific differences in administrative oversight and what the reasoning is behind those decisions made by an institution.
2. A study should be conducted on a national scale to see if differences in administrative oversight of student religious groups might exist between regions of the United States. The southeastern United States is considered strongly religiously affiliated (Heyrman, 1997). Many of the private not-for-profit institutions in the southeastern United States have a religious heritage. More work could be done to investigate whether different regions tended to have any differences in the institutional oversight of student religious groups. This information could be helpful in determining regional differences in administrative oversight of campus religious groups from a national perspective.

3. Research on religious coordinating council or committees on campus should be considered for further review. Some institutions noted as an aside on the survey that a religious coordinating council was present on campus, but that the institution did not associate with it. Other campuses, however, noted that the student affairs division meets regularly with a religious coordinating council. More work could be done to explore religious coordinating councils or committees' impact on campus and influence on institutional policy. Additionally, studies on religious coordinating councils could examine how inclusive religious councils are to faiths other than Protestant Christianity. It would be interesting to see if religious biases exist in the formation of councils. This information could be helpful to student affairs administrators who work with religious coordinating councils and those who work with student religious groups that represent a variety of faiths.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

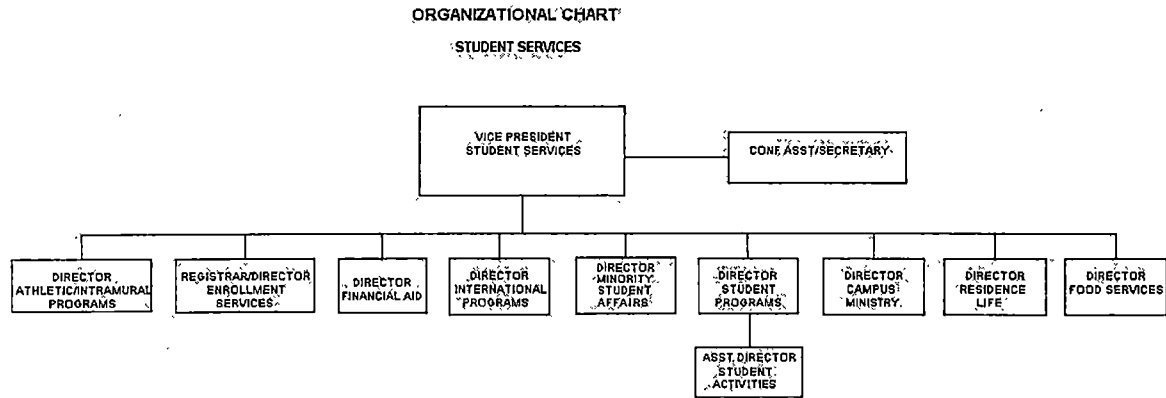


Figure A-1 "Flat" Student Affairs Organizational Structure

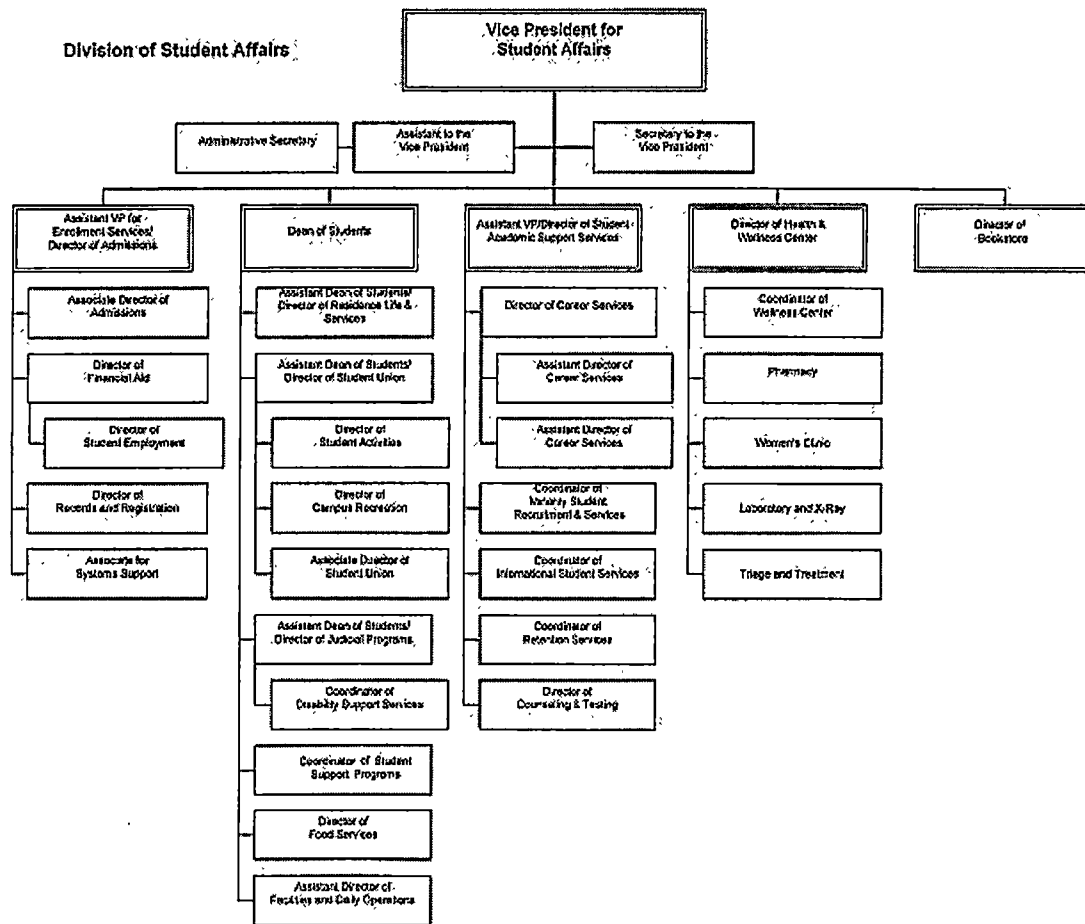


Figure A-2 "Mechanistic" Student Affairs Organizational Structure

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population**

#	ST	FullName	Control	Carnegie Classification (2000) Type
1	AL	Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
2	AL	Alabama State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
3	AL	Athens State University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
4	AL	Auburn University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
5	AL	Auburn University at Montgomery	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
6	AL	Birmingham-Southern College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
7	AL	Concordia College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
8	AL	Faulkner University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
9	AL	Huntingdon College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
10	AL	Jacksonville State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
11	AL	Judson College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
12	AL	Miles College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
13	AL	Oakwood College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
14	AL	Samford University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
15	AL	Spring Hill College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
16	AL	Stillman College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
17	AL	Talladega College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
18	AL	Troy State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
19	AL	Troy State University Dothan	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
20	AL	Troy State University Montgomery	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
21	AL	Tuskegee University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
22	AL	University of Alabama at Birmingham	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
23	AL	University of Alabama in Huntsville	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
24	AL	University of Alabama, The	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
25	AL	University of Mobile	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
26	AL	University of Montevallo	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
27	AL	University of North Alabama	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
28	AL	University of South Alabama	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
29	AL	University of West Alabama, The	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
30	FL	Barry University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
31	FL	Beacon College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
32	FL	Bethune Cookman College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
33	FL	Clearwater Christian College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
34	FL	Eckerd College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
35	FL	Edward Waters College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
36	FL	Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
37	FL	Flagler College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
38	FL	Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
39	FL	Florida Atlantic University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
40	FL	Florida Gulf Coast University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
41	FL	Florida Institute of Technology	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
42	FL	Florida International University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
43	FL	Florida Memorial College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

44	FL	Florida Southern College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
45	FL	Florida State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
46	FL	International College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
47	FL	Jacksonville University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
48	FL	Jones College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
49	FL	Lynn University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
50	FL	New College of the University of South Florida	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
51	FL	Nova Southeastern University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
52	FL	Palm Beach Atlantic College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
53	FL	Rollins College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
54	FL	Saint Leo University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
55	FL	St. Thomas University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
56	FL	Stetson University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
57	FL	Trinity Baptist College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
58	FL	Trinity International University, South Florida Campus	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
59	FL	University of Central Florida	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
60	FL	University of Florida	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
61	FL	University of Miami	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
62	FL	University of North Florida	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
63	FL	University of South Florida	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
64	FL	University of Tampa	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
65	FL	University of West Florida	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
66	FL	Warner Southern College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
67	GA	Agnes Scott College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
68	GA	Albany State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
69	GA	Armstrong Atlantic State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
70	GA	Augusta State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
71	GA	Berry College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
72	GA	Brenau University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
73	GA	Brewton-Parker College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
74	GA	Clark Atlanta University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
75	GA	Clayton College & State University	Public	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
76	GA	Columbus State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
77	GA	Covenant College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
78	GA	Emmanuel College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
79	GA	Emory University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
80	GA	Fort Valley State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
81	GA	Georgia College & State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
82	GA	Georgia Institute of Technology	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
83	GA	Georgia Southern University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
84	GA	Georgia Southwestern State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
85	GA	Georgia State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
86	GA	Kennesaw State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
87	GA	LaGrange College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

88	GA	Mercer University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
89	GA	Morehouse College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
90	GA	Morris Brown College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
91	GA	North Georgia College & State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
92	GA	Oglethorpe University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
93	GA	Paine College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
94	GA	Piedmont College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
95	GA	Reinhardt College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
96	GA	Savannah State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities II
97	GA	Shorter College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
98	GA	Spelman College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
99	GA	State University of West Georgia	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
100	GA	Thomas College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
101	GA	Toccoa Falls College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
102	GA	University of Georgia	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
103	GA	Valdosta State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
104	GA	Wesleyan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
105	KY	Alice Lloyd College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
106	KY	Asbury College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
107	KY	Bellarmine University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
108	KY	Berea College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
109	KY	Brescia University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
110	KY	Campbellsville University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
111	KY	Centre College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
112	KY	Cumberland College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
113	KY	Eastern Kentucky University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
114	KY	Georgetown College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
115	KY	Kentucky Christian College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
116	KY	Kentucky State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities II
117	KY	Kentucky Wesleyan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
118	KY	Lindsey Wilson College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
119	KY	Mid-Continent College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
120	KY	Midway College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
121	KY	Morehead State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
122	KY	Murray State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
123	KY	Northern Kentucky University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
124	KY	Pikeville College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
125	KY	Spalding University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
126	KY	Thomas More College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
127	KY	Transylvania University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
128	KY	University of Kentucky	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
129	KY	University of Louisville	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
130	KY	Western Kentucky University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
131	LA	Centenary College of Louisiana	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
132	LA	Dillard University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

133	LA	Grambling State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
134	LA	Louisiana College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
135	LA	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
136	LA	Louisiana State University in Shreveport	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
137	LA	Louisiana Tech University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
138	LA	Loyola University New Orleans	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
139	LA	McNeese State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
140	LA	Nicholls State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
141	LA	Northwestern State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
142	LA	Our Lady of Holy Cross College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
143	LA	Southeastern Louisiana University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
144	LA	Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College at Baton Rouge	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
145	LA	Southern University at New Orleans	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities II
146	LA	Tulane University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
147	LA	University of Louisiana at Lafayette	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
148	LA	University of Louisiana at Monroe	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
149	LA	University of New Orleans	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
150	LA	Xavier University of Louisiana	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
151	MS	Belhaven College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
152	MS	Blue Mountain College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
153	MS	Delta State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
154	MS	Jackson State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
155	MS	Millsaps College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
156	MS	Mississippi College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
157	MS	Mississippi State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
158	MS	Mississippi University for Women	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities II
159	MS	Mississippi Valley State University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
160	MS	Rust College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
161	MS	Tougaloo College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
162	MS	University of Mississippi	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
163	MS	University of Southern Mississippi	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
164	MS	William Carey College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
165	NC	Appalachian State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
166	NC	Barber-Scotia College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
167	NC	Barton College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
168	NC	Belmont Abbey College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
169	NC	Bennett College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
170	NC	Brevard College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
171	NC	Campbell University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
172	NC	Catawba College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
173	NC	Chowan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
174	NC	Davidson College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
175	NC	Duke University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
176	NC	East Carolina University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

177	NC	Elizabeth City State University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
178	NC	Elon College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
179	NC	Fayetteville State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
180	NC	Gardner-Webb University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
181	NC	Greensboro College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
182	NC	Guilford College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
183	NC	High Point University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
184	NC	Johnson C. Smith University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
185	NC	Lees-McRae College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
186	NC	Lenoir-Rhyne College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
187	NC	Livingstone College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
188	NC	Mars Hill College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
189	NC	Meredith College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
190	NC	Methodist College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
191	NC	Mount Olive College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
192	NC	North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
193	NC	North Carolina Central University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
194	NC	North Carolina State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
195	NC	North Carolina Wesleyan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
196	NC	Peace College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
197	NC	Pfeiffer University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
198	NC	Queens College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
199	NC	Salem College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
200	NC	Shaw University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
201	NC	St. Andrews Presbyterian College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
202	NC	St. Augustine's College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
203	NC	University of North Carolina at Asheville	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
204	NC	University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
205	NC	University of North Carolina at Charlotte	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
206	NC	University of North Carolina at Greensboro	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
207	NC	University of North Carolina at Pembroke	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
208	NC	University of North Carolina at Wilmington	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
209	NC	Wake Forest University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
210	NC	Warren Wilson College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
211	NC	Western Carolina University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
212	NC	Wingate University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
213	NC	Winston-Salem State University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
214	SC	Allen University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
215	SC	Anderson College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
216	SC	Benedict College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
217	SC	Charleston Southern University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
218	SC	Citadel, the Military College of South Carolina, The	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
219	SC	Claflin College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
220	SC	Clemson University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

221	SC	Coastal Carolina University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
222	SC	Coker College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
223	SC	College of Charleston	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
224	SC	Columbia College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
225	SC	Converse College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
226	SC	Ersine College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
227	SC	Francis Marion University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
228	SC	Furman University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
229	SC	Lander University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities II
230	SC	Limestone College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
231	SC	Morris College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
232	SC	Newberry College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
233	SC	North Greenville College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
234	SC	Presbyterian College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
235	SC	South Carolina State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
236	SC	Southern Wesleyan University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
237	SC	University of South Carolina - Aiken	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
238	SC	University of South Carolina - Columbia	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
239	SC	University of South Carolina Spartanburg	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
240	SC	Voorhees College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
241	SC	Winthrop University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
242	SC	Wofford College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
243	TN	Austin Peay State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
244	TN	Belmont University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
245	TN	Bethel College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
246	TN	Bryan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
247	TN	Carson-Newman College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
248	TN	Christian Brothers University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
249	TN	Crichton College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
250	TN	Cumberland University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
251	TN	East Tennessee State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
252	TN	Fisk University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
253	TN	Freed-Hardeman University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
254	TN	King College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
255	TN	Lambuth University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
256	TN	Lane College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
257	TN	Lee University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
258	TN	Lemoyne-Owen College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
259	TN	Lincoln Memorial University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
260	TN	Lipscomb University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
261	TN	Martin Methodist College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
262	TN	Maryville College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
263	TN	Middle Tennessee State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
264	TN	Milligan College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
265	TN	Rhodes College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

266	TN	Southern Adventist University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
267	TN	Tennessee State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
268	TN	Tennessee Technological University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
269	TN	Tennessee Temple University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
270	TN	Tennessee Wesleyan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
271	TN	Trevecca Nazarene University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
272	TN	Tusculum College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
273	TN	Union University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
274	TN	University of Memphis, The	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
275	TN	University of Tennessee at Chattanooga	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
276	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
277	TN	University of Tennessee, Knoxville	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
278	TN	University of the South	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
279	TN	Vanderbilt University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
280	TX	Abilene Christian University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
281	TX	Angelo State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
282	TX	Austin College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
283	TX	Baylor University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
284	TX	Concordia University at Austin	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
285	TX	Dallas Baptist University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
286	TX	East Texas Baptist University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
287	TX	Hardin-Simmons University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
288	TX	Houston Baptist University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
289	TX	Howard Payne University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
290	TX	Huston-Tillotson College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
291	TX	Jarvis Christian College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
292	TX	Lamar University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
293	TX	LeTourneau University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
294	TX	Lubbock Christian University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
295	TX	McMurry University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
296	TX	Midwestern State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
297	TX	Our Lady of the Lake University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
298	TX	Paul Quinn College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
299	TX	Prairie View A&M University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
300	TX	Rice University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
301	TX	Sam Houston State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
302	TX	Schreiner College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
303	TX	Southern Methodist University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
304	TX	Southwest Texas State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
305	TX	Southwestern Adventist University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
306	TX	Southwestern University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
307	TX	St. Edward's University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
308	TX	St. Mary's University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
309	TX	Stephen F. Austin State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
310	TX	Sul Ross State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

311	TX	Tarleton State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
312	TX	Texas A&M International University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
313	TX	Texas A&M University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
314	TX	Texas A&M University - Commerce	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
315	TX	Texas A&M University - Corpus Christi	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
316	TX	Texas A&M University - Galveston	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
317	TX	Texas A&M University - Kingsville	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
318	TX	Texas A&M University - Texarkana	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
319	TX	Texas Christian University	Private, not-for-profit	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
320	TX	Texas College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
321	TX	Texas Lutheran University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
322	TX	Texas Southern University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
323	TX	Texas Tech University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
324	TX	Texas Wesleyan University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
325	TX	Texas Woman's University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
326	TX	Trinity University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
327	TX	University of Dallas	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
328	TX	University of Houston	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
329	TX	University of Houston - Clear Lake	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
330	TX	University of Houston - Downtown	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
331	TX	University of Houston - Victoria	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
332	TX	University of Mary Hardin-Baylor	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
333	TX	University of North Texas	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
334	TX	University of Saint Thomas	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
335	TX	University of Texas - Pan American	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
336	TX	University of Texas at Arlington	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
337	TX	University of Texas at Austin	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
338	TX	University of Texas at Brownsville/Texas Southmost College	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
339	TX	University of Texas at Dallas	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
340	TX	University of Texas at El Paso	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
341	TX	University of Texas at San Antonio	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
342	TX	University of Texas at Tyler	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
343	TX	University of Texas of the Permian Basin	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
344	TX	University of the Incarnate Word	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
345	TX	Wayland Baptist University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
346	TX	West Texas A&M University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
347	TX	Wiley College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
348	VA	Averett College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
349	VA	Bluefield College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
350	VA	Bridgewater College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
351	VA	Christendom College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
352	VA	Christopher Newport University	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
353	VA	College of William and Mary	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
354	VA	Eastern Mennonite University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
355	VA	Emory & Henry College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts

**Table A-3 Institutions
Within the Population contd.**

356	VA	Ferrum College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
357	VA	George Mason University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive
358	VA	Hampden-Sydney College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
359	VA	Hampton University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
360	VA	Hollins University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
361	VA	James Madison University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
362	VA	Liberty University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
363	VA	Longwood College	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
364	VA	Lynchburg College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
365	VA	Mary Baldwin College	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities II
366	VA	Mary Washington College	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
367	VA	Marymount University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
368	VA	Norfolk State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
369	VA	Old Dominion University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
370	VA	Radford University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
371	VA	Randolph-Macon College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
372	VA	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
373	VA	Regent University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
374	VA	Roanoke College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
375	VA	Saint Paul's College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
376	VA	Shenandoah University	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
377	VA	Sweet Briar College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
378	VA	University of Richmond	Private, not-for-profit	Master's Colleges and Universities I
379	VA	University of Virginia	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
380		University of Virginia's College at Wise, The	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
381	VA	Virginia Commonwealth University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
382	VA	Virginia Intermont College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—General
383	VA	Virginia Military Institute	Public	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
384	VA	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University	Public	Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive
385	VA	Virginia State University	Public	Master's Colleges and Universities I
386	VA	Virginia Union University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
387	VA	Virginia Wesleyan College	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts
388	VA	Washington and Lee University	Private, not-for-profit	Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts

Appendix B Survey Items

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE



College of Education
Educational Administration
and Cultural Studies

March 21, 2001

«Name»
«Title»
«Institution»
«Address_1»
«Address_2»
«City_State_Zip»

Dear «Name»:

I am a graduate student at the University of Tennessee working towards a Master of Science degree in College Student Personnel. A thesis is one requirement for completion of this degree. As a part of the research for this thesis, I am conducting a study under the direction of Dr. Terri Mangione to examine the administrative structure and functional oversight of religious groups on college and university campuses in the southeastern United States.

I am conducting this study because there is a gap in the literature on the current status and trends in the relationships between colleges and universities and student religious groups.

For the purpose of this study, campus religious groups are defined as recognized student organizations with fiscal and administrative connections to the national or state headquarters of a particular faith or denomination. This does not include religiously affiliated fraternities and sororities or local congregational fellowships.

Please ask the staff person who has the greatest responsibility on your campus for relating to student religious groups to complete the questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed self-addressed envelope by April 4, 2001.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Sam Grubbs'.

Sam Grubbs
Masters Student
College Student Personnel

Dr. Terri Mangione, Advisor
313A Claxton Addition
Knoxville, TN 37996

Educational Administration • 326 Claxton Addition • Knoxville 37996-3400 • 865-974-2216 • FAX 865-974-6146
Cultural Studies • 1914 Andy Holt Avenue • Knoxville 37996-2700 • 865-974-9045 • FAX 865-974-8981

**Survey of the Structural Relationship Between
Colleges and Student Religious Groups**

A. Identification Information

1. Name of Institution _____
2. Location (State) _____
3. Is your institution religiously affiliated?
____ yes ____ no

B. General Policies on Student Organizations

4. Does your institution recognize student-led organizations and groups?
____ yes ____ no
5. Are groups, clubs, or organizations affiliated with a specific faith or religious beliefs present on your campus?
____ yes ____ no
6. Are groups affiliated with specific faith or religious beliefs recognized by your institution?
____ yes ____ no

C. Coordination of Campus Religious Groups

7. Is a college or university administrator assigned the responsibility of overseeing campus religious activities and groups?
____ yes ____ no, please skip to number 10
8. What administrator is generally responsible for the oversight of most religious groups on campus?
____ Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion
____ Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs
____ Chaplain or Campus Minister
____ Associate Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs
____ Dean of Students
____ Coordinator or Director of Religious Affairs, Campus Ministry, or Spiritual Life
____ Associate Dean of Students
____ Director of Student Activities
____ other title, please list _____
9. Who does this university administrator report to at the institution?
____ President (or Chancellor) of the institution
____ Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Ministry or Religion
____ Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs
____ Associate Vice President (or Vice Chancellor) of Student Affairs
____ Dean of Students
____ other person, please list _____

D. Religious Coordinating Councils or Committees

10. Is there a college or university religious coordinating council or committee for professional campus religious leaders that deals with religious groups?
____ yes ____ no, please stop here
11. Do members of the college or university administrative staff attend the religious coordinating council or committee meetings?
____ yes, the administrator in charge of overseeing the groups
____ yes, another student affairs administrator (title) _____
____ yes, another administrator (title) _____
____ no

Completion of this survey indicates your consent to participate in this study.
PLEASE RETURN BY APRIL 4, 2001

VITA

Samuel Grubbs was born March 17, 1976 in Cushing, Oklahoma. He spent most of his childhood growing up in Charlotte, North Carolina. In May 1998, he graduated from Western Carolina University in Cullowhee, North Carolina with a Bachelors of Science in Business Administration with a major in management. Shortly after graduating, he began working for Dining Services at Wake Forest University. After a year, he decided to pursue a Masters in College Student Personnel at the University of Tennessee. He began working with Dining Services at the University of Tennessee during the summer of 1999. The following summer, he accepted a graduate assistant position as an Assistant Resident Manager with the Department of University Housing. After graduating from the College Student Personnel program at UT, he has accepted a position with Residential and Dining Programs at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (V.P.I.).