HIGH SCHOOL HAZING: A STUDY OF THE AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORIES OF ENTERING FIRST YEAR COLLEGE STUDENTS

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HIGH SCHOOL HAZING: A STUDY OF THE AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORIES OF ENTERING FIRST YEAR COLLEGE STUDENTS

An abstract of a Dissertation by
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The problem: The purpose of the study is to determine if relationships exist between autobiographical memories of entering first year college students of their high school hazing experiences and demographic variables. Hazing is defined as any humiliating or dangerous activity expected of students when joining a high school group, regardless of their willingness to participate.

Procedures: The study is a systematic replication of the 2000 Alfred University study on high school hazing. A cohort of 458 students was surveyed at a private midwestern university during the fall of 2002 yielding an 88% response rate. Four null hypotheses were tested using statistical analyses including logistic regression, multiple regression, frequency tables, cross tabulation with chi-square, and chi-square goodness-of-fit tests. Two months after administration of the survey, a follow up focus group was conducted. The focus group was analyzed with appropriate qualitative methods.

Findings: All four null hypotheses were rejected because statistically significant relationships were found between demographic variables and students' high school hazing experiences. No definitive demographic profile could be identified for the typical student or high school most at risk. Focus group participants added richness and depth to the survey data.

Conclusions: Students are at risk of being hazed in high school. Participants did not distinguish between "fun" and hazing. Adults must share more responsibility for stopping hazing.

Limitation: Students' views on high school hazing might have been impacted by the time frame in which the study was conducted due to the autobiographical nature of the study.

Recommendations: Future research could be conducted within high school settings or with entering first year college students at other types of educational institutions. Additionally, multiple focus groups with students and adults could enable development of education and intervention programs.
Table of Contents

List of Tables ........................................................................................................ iv

Chapter

1. Introduction ........................................................................................................ 1
   Background of the Study .................................................................................. 3
   Statement of the Problem ................................................................................ 5
   Definition of Terms ......................................................................................... 7
   Summary ........................................................................................................... 9

2. Review of the Literature .................................................................................. 10
   Historical Perspective on Hazing ..................................................................... 10
   Current Viewpoints on High School Hazing .................................................. 16
   The Prevalence of Hazing .............................................................................. 23
   Significance of the Current Study .................................................................. 28

3. Methods .......................................................................................................... 31
   Study Design ................................................................................................... 33
   Data Collection .............................................................................................. 36
   Validity and Reliability of the Study ............................................................. 56
I.  Permission Form - Survey ...............................................204

J.  Breakdown of High School Hazing Activities
    Into Four Categories .......................................................205

K.  Research Studies Conducted as Replications
    Using the Same Survey Instrument ........................................206

L.  Summary of Chi-Square Analysis of Activities Students
    Participated in to Join High School Groups ..........................212

M.  Focus Group Questions ..................................................217
### Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Summary of Demographic Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Percentage of Students Who Reported Experiencing the Consequence (N=23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Percentage of Students Who Experienced the Feeling (N=60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Not Reporting Hazing (N=135)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Percentage of Students Who Chose One or More Prevention Strategy (N=317)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis on Students' Ideas for Preventing Hazing (N=267)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Frequency Table for Percentage of Students Responding &quot;Yes&quot; to Questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis on High School Students' Opinions on High School Hazing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Frequency Table for Age and Gender for When Students Were First Hazed (N=56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Frequency Table for Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Participating in Hazing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Frequency Tables for Age and Gender for When Students First Hazed Others (N=31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Frequency Table for Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Hazing Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Percentages for Students Who Responded They Had Not Been Hazed and Then Marked Participation in Hazing Activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Summary of Chi-square Goodness-of-Fit Test for Students Who Reported Being Hazed to Join High School Groups .................................................. 110

16. Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Percentage of Students Who Experienced One or More Consequences ............. 111

17. Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Feelings Students Experienced After Being Hazed ........................................... 112

18. Summary of Chi-square Goodness-of-Fit Test for Students' Feelings After Being Hazed ................................................................. 113

19. Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Reasons Students Would Not Report Hazing ............................................ 114

20. Summary of Chi-square Goodness-of-Fit Test for Reasons Students Would Not Report Hazing ................................................................. 114

21. Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Percentage Distribution for Ideas on Preventing High School Hazing .................... 115

22. Summary of the Chi-square Goodness-of-Fit Test for Ideas to Prevent Hazing .................................................................................. 116

23. Summary of Demographic Information for Focus Group Participants .................................................................................. 118

24. Focus Group Participants' Definitions of Hazing v. Initiation .......................................................................................... 127
INTRODUCTION

Hazing has existed for more than two thousand years. Must we wait another two thousand years for it to end? (Nuwer, 2000, p. 13)

After school activities during high school are supposed to be filled with exciting new relationships, dances, athletic events, music, art, drama, band activities, and fun times. For some students, initiation rites that involve pro-social activities (attending a banquet or preseason practice) are a part of achieving entrance into clubs or groups. For others, hazing rituals that involve humiliating or dangerous activities (drinking alcohol, being paddled until bruised and bleeding) can also be a part of achieving entrance into clubs or groups. These rituals spoil the fun, can result in bodily harm, and may have life-long repercussions for those involved. Examples include:

- Mount Zion High School (Mount Zion, Illinois) administrators had students expelled for their participation in a hazing ritual that involved spanking and paddling incoming eighth grade students as a form of initiation into high school (Fierberg, 2000).
- Administrators at Avon High School (Avon, Indiana) discovered in the fall of 1999 that upperclassmen on the football team were striking younger players with extension cords and belts as a form of initiation (Fierberg, 2000).
- In August 2002, four students attending Barnstable High School (Barnstable, MA) were involved in a hazing incident during a pre-season trip for the cross-country track team. The students were accused of hitting
their freshmen classmates with wooden paddles on two separate occasions during pre-season activities. School officials became aware of the incident when one of the boy's parents complained. This resulted in the perpetrators being charged with hazing, assault, and battery.

Although there was enough evidence to take the boys to trial for hazing, the charges were continued for nine months. The boys still had criminal records, however, the charge of assault and battery will be listed as dismissed if they stay out of trouble for nine months. This decision was reached after meetings with the high school principal, police, attorneys, and parents. All parties involved agreed that the boys may have just made a mistake and deserved a second chance (Jeffrey, 2002).

Articles often refer to hazing incidents as "initiation"; however, a clearer distinction might need to be made between the terms "hazing" and "initiation." Initiation into a group usually involves positive, pro-social behaviors such as attending a banquet or going on a team trip. Definitions of hazing in the literature include references to risk of harm, intimidation by physical punishment, threats to cause serious physical injury, or attempts to humiliate. One common theme to all definitions is that hazing can result in a risk to the health and well being of the participant (Nuwer, 2000). A clearer distinction between the two types of behaviors might help students, as well as parents, teachers, police, and other involved parties, understand the difference between positive behaviors and negative behaviors so clearer disciplinary policies can be established.
Hazing has been occurring since ancient Rome and has been found in the military, athletic teams, college fraternities and sororities, and other social groups. A growing concern of parents and educators is the increase in hazing occurring in high schools. No social group is immune to the possibility that hazing will be conducted to initiate new members (Nuwer, 2000).

Background of the Study

In 1998, at Alfred University (Alfred, New York), fifty football players became victims of a hazing incident that resulted in five players losing consciousness and two others being hospitalized with alcohol poisoning. The football players had been tied up and forced to drink large quantities of water and alcohol until they vomited. The university was quick to respond to the hazing incident by canceling the first game of the season and suspending six of the players. That game had been scheduled to celebrate the 100th year of football at the institution. Canceling the game demonstrated to the public that the university took the hazing situation seriously ("Sidelines," 1999).

Following this hazing incident, university president Edward G. Coll, Jr., formed a commission to conduct an investigative literature search regarding hazing. The commission found there was little empirical data available. Therefore, the members recommended that Alfred University faculty conduct research in this area to collect descriptive data on hazing nationwide. In response, the researchers developed a survey of NCAA athletes in 1998. In 2000, they expanded their research to a nationwide survey of high school students.
For the initial 1998 study among NCAA athletes, the researchers obtained a list of coaches registered at Intercollegiate Directories, Inc. Two hundred and twenty-four NCAA institutions provided lists of athletes to Alfred University. Surveys were mailed directly to a random sample of 3,000 coaches and 10,000 athletes (Alfred University, 1999).

For the second study in 2000, among high school students, surveys were sent to 20,000 juniors and seniors randomly selected from a national population of 15 million high school students. The response rate was a low 8.28 percent. Still, interesting data were collected. The organization that provided the list of names required the university not ask questions about sexual hazing activities because the students were minors; however, students ultimately provided data in this area when voluntarily answering open-ended survey questions (Hoover & Pollard, 2000).

The data from these two surveys found NCAA college athletes and high school students are subjected to hazing activities that can be humiliating, dangerous, or both. The 1998 study showed that 20% of responding college athletes were subjected to illegal and/or dangerous hazing. Seventeen percent were either victims or participants in five or more hazing rituals. High school respondents to the 2000 study responded they had also been hazed. Twenty-five percent stated they were younger than 13 when they were hazed for the first time. Twenty-two percent of the high school students responded being subjected to dangerous hazing (Hoover & Pollard, 2000).
Because students who were hazed might drop out of school, one limitation of the study of NCAA college athletes was there was no way to determine whether this group was large or small (Alfred University, 1999). A limitation of the 2000 study among high school students was they did not respond well to mail surveys as demonstrated by the 8.28% response rate (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). As a result, the researchers stated, "this low response rate begs for further studies to confirm or refute, and further refine these findings" (p. 23).

Statement of the Problem

Hazing has become more prevalent and dangerous among American high school students (Nuwer, 2000). Some students consider hazing rituals an acceptable method of gaining entrance into a group while other students suffer negative consequences that impact them for the rest of their lives. Two procedures, a survey and a focus group, were employed for the current study. First, students completed a survey regarding high school hazing. The survey tested the following four null hypotheses:

1. \( H_0: \) There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. Hazing experiences involved the following categories:

   a) consequences of being hazed
   b) feelings after being hazed
   c) reporting hazing experiences
d) ideas for prevention of hazing

e) opinions on hazing

f) why students participate in hazing

g) why student haze others

2.  $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students when joining a high school group and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. Groups involved the following:

a) sports teams

b) cheerleading squad

c) fraternity or sorority

d) scholastic or intellectual club

e) social club or organization

f) political or social action club

g) music, art, or theatre group

h) vocational or life skills group

i) newspaper, yearbook, or writing organization

j) peer group or gang

k) church group or

l) other

3.  $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students for the types of activities
expected of those joining a group or team and the independent variables of
gender; state of residence; ethnic origin; religious preference; school type; school
location; graduation date; and grade point average.

4. \( H_0 \): There is no significant difference between the observed frequencies
from the current study and the expected frequencies based on the 2000 Alfred
University study on hazing among nationwide high school students.

Second, a focus group, comprised of students who, at the time of the
survey gave written permission to participate, was conducted to explore the
following question: What are the beliefs, experiences, and/or opinions of entering
first year college students on high school hazing?

Definition of Terms

1. **Entering first year college student** is defined as a student who is attending
college for the first time. Transfer students are not included in the sample
population for this study.

2. **Autobiographical memories** are defined as a person's memory of an event
that occurred in the past. Harris et al. (2000) wrote the personal nature of
autobiographical memories allows researchers to use this method to
explore past events without having to conduct a longitudinal study. Please
refer to Appendix A for a discussion on the use of autobiographical
memories in research.

3. **Group** is defined as an organization with a defined purpose and a
schedule of meetings, games, get-togethers, or events.
4. **Hazing** is any activity expected of someone joining a group that humiliates, degrades, abuses, or endangers, regardless of the person's willingness to participate (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). Although "bullying" is a term that could be associated with the act of hazing, bullying can include any threatening or intimidating action toward another person (Webster's Dictionary, 1997). Such actions could be beating up a smaller child for their lunch money or picking on a classmate after school. For the purpose of this study, hazing was limited to those situations that occurred in relation to the activities of an established group.

5. **Perpetrator** is defined as the person who performs the hazing ritual (New International Webster's Dictionary, 1998).

6. **Witness** is defined as "to see or know by personal experience" (New International Webster's Dictionary, 1998, p. 660). For the purpose of this study, a witness is a person who observed the hazing ritual but did not participate in the event.

7. **Initiation** is defined as "ceremonial admission, as into a society" (New International Webster's Dictionary, 1998, p. 259). For the purpose of this study, initiation activities are considered to be "pro-social behaviors that build social relationships, understanding, empathy, civility, altruism, and moral decision-making" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 3).

8. **Humiliating hazing** is defined as "socially offensive, isolating, or uncooperative behaviors" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4).
9. **Dangerous hazing** is defined as "hurtful, aggressive, destructive, and disruptive behaviors" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4).

10. **Substance abuse activities** are defined as "abuse of tobacco, alcohol, or illegal drugs" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4).

**Summary**

In this section, the researcher provided a background for the current study, a statement of the problem, and definition of terms. In their 2000 study, Alfred University researchers discovered little empirical data existed on the subject of hazing among high school students (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). Their research provided exploratory data on the subject of hazing and called for additional research in this area. Whether trickling down from college campuses to high schools or being brought onto the college campus by entering first year students, hazing is a dangerous and humiliating experience that can affect a student’s life at the time of the incident and for years afterwards. This study was designed to provide information that can be used by high school and college administrators, teachers, coaches, students, school organizations, parents, and other interested parties to increase awareness of hazing rituals in high schools so that appropriate prevention and intervention programs might be developed.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this section, the researcher provides a review of the literature on hazing. This review includes: an historical perspective on hazing, data from the first national exploratory studies on hazing among NCAA college athletes and nationwide high school students, and current views on high school hazing.

Historical Perspective on Hazing

Hazing activities can be traced as far back as the fourth century in Carthage, Rome. In those times, hazing was considered to be part of the culture and new students were subjected to “taunting and bullying” when they entered the educational system (Rosellini, 2000, p. 102). In the 19th century, British public schools, such as Eton, had a system called “fagging” during which older boys bullied younger boys into doing whatever was demanded (Nuwer, 2000; O’Hara, 2000, p. 50). Even on the western American frontier, usually in the form of cattle drives, a form of hazing occurred for new settlers who were often called greenhorns. Sailors hazed new recruits by dunking them in water when they crossed the equator for the first time (Nuwer, 2000).

Early Colleges

American college presidents in the early 1900’s often believed that hazing was a way for older students to impress traditions onto new students. They believed that, if new students learned respect for older students, these new students would honor traditions at the college. Unfortunately, and perhaps predictably, hazing did not always end well. Between 1911 and 1916, a victim of
hazing at the University of Texas and one at Saint John's Military College in Maryland retaliated by killing their tormentors. In addition, at the University of South Carolina, the same student was beaten twice. The first beating was part of a hazing ritual. The second beating was due to his reporting the first beating to the authorities (Nuwer, 2000). When cases were brought to the courts, perpetrators were often charged with assault or manslaughter. The connection to hazing became blurred and the public was often unaware that the cause of injury or death was due to a hazing ritual (Nuwer, 2000).

Military Hazing

The military has been criticized for condoning hazing rituals. Landay (1997) reported on a Marine Corps hazing ritual that was videotaped and shown on the television stations NBC and CNN. The videotape showed Marines "blood pinning"; a ritual carried out when a Marine is promoted. The new medal is pinned to the Marine's uniform without the protective back. Fellow Marines line up to punch him/her causing the pin on the medal to stick in the skin. After all the Marines have done this, severe bleeding and pain is the result. According to Landay (1997), "52 Marines have been court-martialed for hazing since 1994 and another 34 received non-judicial punishments, including dishonorable discharges" (p. 1).

Not all Marines agree that these activities should be called hazing. If a boot camp recruit does not follow the drill instructor's orders, is shoved in a footlocker, and thrown down three flights of stairs, many Marines would view this as "training." They would consider this behavior by the drill instructor as a method
of teaching discipline. Many Marines believe that anyone who would call this hazing is weak and they would not want this person “covering their back” during a combat situation (McIntire, personal communication, November 10, 2001).

Hazing is not limited to the Marine Corps, it can be found in other service branches. At Fort Hood, Texas, hazing occurred when soldiers who had been promoted had to walk down a line of colleagues and submit to being punched and kicked. While the army may see this as a way to build camaraderie, critics say that these rituals are humiliating and destructive. Even more so when the officers in charge are aware of what is going on and condone it (Landay, 1997).

**Professional Sports**

Professional sports teams are not immune to hazing practices. In 1998, the New Orleans Saints hazed new members and severely injured one player when he was hit in the eye with a bag of coins. Rookies today tend to come in on a more equal footing due to the high salaries they demand. Hazing in professional football and basketball may involve such mundane practices as fetching the coach the first cup of Gatorade out of the barrel or bringing him the morning newspaper. Other rituals include singing songs while holding one's crotch, having to purchase breakfast for the team, or carrying equipment for a veteran player (Bias, 1997; Nuwer, 2000).

**College Fraternities and Sororities**

College fraternities and sororities have long been known to have hazing rituals when inducting new members. Paddling on the buttocks and genitals (often until they are bruised or bleeding), consuming large quantities of alcohol,
being kidnapped and forced to ride around in the trunk of a car, given drugs that decrease sexual inhibitions, having to drink vile concoctions, being hit on the head with elbows, or being beaten by upper classmen are examples of these rituals (Chenowith, 1998; Nuwer, 2000; Pudlow, 1998; Ruffins & Evelyn, 1998).

In *Wrongs of Passage*, Nuwer (1999) lists 210 examples of hazing related incidents in colleges from 1838 to 1999. Selected examples are:

1. 1873 - Kappa Alpha (Cornell, New York) fraternity members took a pledge into the woods and made him walk back alone. He died when he fell into a gorge in the dark.

2. 1894 - a Cornell University student died when classmates decided to pull a prank and misdirected chlorine gas into the kitchen area where the student was working.

3. 1900 - At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology students were participating in an event called the “cane rush” where they fight to see how many hands they can get on a four-foot cane. During the excitement, a student suffered a broken neck and other students were knocked unconscious.

4. 1905 - Delta Kappa Epsilon (Kenyon College, Ohio) members left a pledge on a railroad track resulting in his being struck by a train and dying.

5. 1914 - St. John’s Military College (Maryland) – a student was shot and killed while hazing another student.
6. 1928 – Delta Kappa Epsilon is involved in another incident, but at a different college. This time the hazing death occurred at the University of Texas when a pledge was forced to crawl through mattresses that had been charged with an electric current.

7. 1959 – at the University of Southern California in the Kappa Sigma fraternity, a pledge choked to death when he was forced to swallow a piece of liver and it became lodged in his throat.

8. 1972 – Sigma Alpha Mu at the University of Maryland, College Park, forced an overweight pledge to do extensive exercises that resulted in his death.

9. 1985 – Kappa Alpha Theta at the University of Colorado was a sponsoring sorority hosting a drinking party. A pledge’s alcohol level was “three times the legal limit when she fell to her death” at the party (p. 252).

10. 1999 – Omega Psi Phi at the University of Arkansas, Pine Bluff, had two students die in a shooting incident during a fraternity party.

High School Hazing

Hazing incidences in college fraternities and sororities, in the military, and on athletic teams do not often surprise people. The newspapers and media are quick to report such occurrences. While high school hazing has not received the media attention that college incidences have, the rituals are occurring. Trebay (2000) recounted incidences in which “A 15-year old is duct-taped and thrown against a school locker, then held down while his teammates insert a plastic knife
into his rectum. A Staten Island teenager is ritually paddled at football camp until he bleeds" (p. 32).

One reason hazing rituals in high schools have not received as much attention as college incidents is due to the situations often being hushed up by principals and even parents. This has been referred to as the “halo effect” and results when people do not want the high school quarterback or the head cheerleader implicated in something sordid (Nuwer, 2000, p. 43). “Often the perpetrators are the most popular kids in school, athletes who get caught up in mob mentality” (DiConsiglio, 2000). The hazed kid is someone who desperately wants to join a group” (p. 10). School officials are quick to call the incidences horseplay or roughhousing instead of what they really are – humiliating and dangerous activities (Nuwer, 2000).

Summary

Hazing in one form or another have been part of society for thousands of years. Reactions to hazing are varied. A Marine might view an incident as training while a school administrator might view an incident as a crime. Some students might consider hazing a natural part of joining a group while other students have their lives destroyed by a dangerous incident. Nadine Hoover, a principal investigator of the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing among high school students said:

[It’s] the schools where it’s the administrator’s and/or the investigating officer’s sons who are perpetrating it that are in trouble. I received many calls right after the release of the study. The worst were the people who actually said that the police came and harassed them for their sons being such wimps! (E-mail communication, November 14, 2001).
Historically, the outcomes of hazing are becoming progressively more harmful to young people in high school who are already struggling with their identities and need to belong in society (Nuwer, 2000).

*Current Viewpoints on High School Hazing*

So why does hazing continue to occur among high school students? One possible explanation is that in the American culture there are no real rites of passage as children become adults. In high school, children are beginning to move away from their parents and trying to move into the adult world. This can lead to adolescents at the high school level struggling with their decisions and identities while being concerned they will look stupid or not be included in activities (Mitchell, 1992; Nuwer, 2000). Adolescents tend to believe they are the focus of everyone else’s thoughts and that no one else has the same experiences, thoughts, or feelings (Kail & Cavanaugh, 1996). Adolescence is a time of discovery of self and others and, for some students, a time of angst.

Young people in the modern culture are bombarded with internal and external changes that result in identity confusion and a need to belong in their own world (Erikson, 1968; Maslow, 1968). Hazing rituals are examples of situations that require adolescents to make decisions that might affect themselves and others (Nuwer, 2000). These decisions are made whether the adolescent is the victim, perpetrator, or witness of the hazing event.

Developmentally, youth at this age are entering puberty and experiencing physiological and emotional changes that impact their behavior (Shaffer, 1996). In addition, their social world is changing and they are confronted with new
demands on their lives (Erikson, 1968; Maslow 1968). The need to belong and understand who they are is strong at this age, often resulting in their forming groups for support and help through these difficult times. Erikson (1968) found adolescents not only form alliances with the particular social group that meets their needs but they continually test each other to determine loyalties. Maslow (1968) referred to this need to belong and be respected as a common characteristic of the adolescent and dependent on the environment outside the person. This need to belong to the group might outweigh other considerations. Human development involves the person as well as that person’s interactions with others with these interactions resulting in psychological health or psychological distress depending on the situation (Spencer, 2000). Please refer to Appendix B for a discussion on developmental theories on adolescence.

Issues that impact adolescents’ lives during the high school years as they strive to belong include: peer pressure, feelings of power, group dynamics, physiological changes, substance abuse and legal issues.

Peer Pressure

Peer pressure adds to the distress adolescents feel and can begin upon entering the school system. Erikson’s (1968) psychosocial theory proposed that adolescents are striving to establish a new sense of identity and trying to figure out where they fit in the social order. This desire to fit in to the social order might be impacted by the adolescent’s internal thoughts. Adolescents are concerned about how they look to others and often believe they are the “focus of other’s thinking” (Kail & Cavanaugh, 1996, p. 260). This worry about an “imaginary
audience" coupled with the adolescent's belief that no one has ever felt the way he does, may lead to conflicts in forming an identity (Shaffer, 1996, p. 269). These conflicts may lead adolescents to join groups for identification, support, and to help through difficult times.

Pressure from friends and classmates to be a member of a desired group can be a daunting aspect of the young person’s life as they strive to belong. A young person might want to belong to a group so badly that they go along with whatever is needed to become a member (Kittredge, 2000 & Nuwer, 2000). Being a part of a group that is admired by their peers is one way for adolescents to prove that they are ready for adulthood.

A student graduating from junior high and thinking about entering Burnsville Senior High School (Burnsville, MN) was anxious about what he would be expected to endure after finding out he was on the list to become a member of the cool crowd. “I knew if I wasn’t on the list, I’d be a nobody,” he says today. “And if I tried to hide, they’d just hunt me down” (Marsa & Hogan, 2002, p. 80). Adam (not his real name), along with others who were on the list, endured paddling so intense that one student had a canoe paddle break in two on his backside. Adam was unable to sit down for weeks and still suffers back pain from the incident. Myers (2000) explained this phenomenon as “High school students feel such a strong need to “fit in” they allow themselves to be publicly embarrassed, go without food or sleep, engage in drinking contests, use illegal drugs, vandalize property, or suffer beatings or rape” (p. 11).
Group Dynamics

Developmentally, high school students are seeking their own identities and acceptance by peers (Kail & Cavanaugh, 1996). They may not be thinking about the long-term effects of hazing (Nuwer, 2000). Shaffer (1996) said adolescents might be willing to take risks because they see themselves as unique and do not believe they will be harmed. This belief in their personal autonomy might result in their getting involved in a hazing situation.

A Minnesota area high school student became involved in a hazing incident called sophomore kidnapping. Two decades ago this event involved the girls having to go to breakfast in public in their pajamas with curlers in their hair. It was a fun time for all. Unfortunately, this particular student found that breakfast was not on the agenda. Instead, the girls were forced to lay on the ground while senior students poured vile concoctions of dog food, green hair dye, and vinegar over them. They even had bottles broken over their heads. Unlike most victims, this student did not remain silent and reported the incident. While this may seem like the logical reaction, she found herself being harassed by the other students because she complained to the authorities. This student's future was impacted: she had to transfer to another school (Chmelynski, 1997).

Being a member of a group presents the adolescent with situations that may require moral and ethical decisions. Research has shown that when people get into a group they might behave very differently than when in a one-on-one situation with someone (Nuwer, 2000; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). According to Nuwer (2000), "Evidence exists that people tend to act more recklessly in the
presence of others than alone" (p. 45). Shields and Bredemeier (1995) have demonstrated this in research studies with high school and college athletic teams. They called this behavior “bracketed morality” when athletes exhibit violence in sports (p. 120). They found “the moral exchange that occurs in sport is different from that of daily life, where mature moral action is marked by attention to relational equalization in terms of obligations and benefits” (p. 120). The athlete’s behavior on the field towards his opponents is very different from, and not as morally mature as, his behavior with his family and friends between games.

This same concept appears to exist in hazing incidents. Students find themselves in a group and might exhibit behaviors that are unlike their everyday normal actions. The need to belong is a strong emotion at this age. “Behavior that would be unthinkable under most circumstances is often perceived as acceptable in a group” (Lauer, as quoted in Nuwer, 2000, p. 125).

**Power**

Students might believe that entrance into a certain social group will make them more popular or better liked by their peers. According to Maslow (1968) this need to belong and be respected is strong in adolescence and is dependent on the environment outside of the person. This results in the peers who already belong to the group holding the power to determine if the student is granted membership. Hazing activities may perpetuate because many high school students who get involved in hazing, once they have survived the process, earn the power to haze new members. Hazing is, in part, about this status of holding
power over another individual. Burns (1978) said, “power is a relationship among persons” (p. 12). The issue becomes a question of who has the power and who wants it. The relationship involves motives and resources of both parties. He wrote this situation is:

One in which power holders (P), possessing certain motives and goals, have the capacity to secure changes in the behavior of a respondent (R), human or animal, and in the environment, by utilizing resources in their power base, including factors of skill, relative to the targets of their power-wielding and necessary to secure such changes. (p. 13)

Whether an adolescent is a perpetrator of hazing, a witness to hazing, or a victim of a hazing incident, the need to belong to the group might outweigh other considerations. Peer pressure, group dynamics, and issues of power can all impact decisions and behaviors at the adolescent age. In hazing situations, the motive of the perpetrator often is to humiliate the victim through the assertion of his power status. The motive of the victim is to survive and get into the desired group due to a need to belong and acquire a sense of identity from being a member. The motive of the witness might be to keep quiet in fear of retribution and loss of group membership. Once the victim becomes a member of the group, he might decide to become a perpetrator (power wielder) or witness in future hazing situations.

*Physiological Changes*

Another reason for participating in hazing as a perpetrator, witness, or victim might be the result of physiological changes adolescents experience during their teenage years. High school students might become involved in dangerous hazing practices because they are at the age where they are
exploring their sexual feelings. This resurgence of sexual feelings (after lying dormant between the ages of six and eleven) is accompanied by the adolescent's desire to look good in the eyes of peers (Erikson, 1968).

Hazing might provide a method to explore these feelings within the "safety" of a group. Hazing practices have included simulated sex, probing the buttocks with mop handles or coat hangers, and even forcing new members to have sex with an unknown partner. In 1993, at Glenbard West High School (DuPage, IL) members of the cheerleading squad had bleach thrown on them and were made to simulate sex acts. In this particular case, the school administrators wrote an anti-hazing policy following the incident (Nuwer, 2000).

Substance Abuse

Alcohol consumption, particularly by students who don't usually drink, can lead to hazing that turns dangerous. In 1998, at Lincoln High School (Des Moines, IA), an initiation into a social club resulted in an alcohol-related incident that was life threatening to the student. High school age students often think that drinking will make them more popular and improve their relationships with others. Adult supervision does not always mean students will not get into trouble with alcohol. In 1999, fifty-six high school students became drunk and disorderly at a party where there were three adult chaperones (Nuwer, 2000).

Adolescents are bombarded daily with situations and decisions that impact their behavior and possibly their future. They do not exist in the world alone. The desire to be popular and part of the popular crowd can result in adolescents going along with hazing, even if the situation turns dangerous. Peer pressure and
group dynamics can converge into a mass of confusion for adolescents as they struggle with decisions and strive to move away from their parents and into the adult world. Physiological and developmental processes that are taking place during this time compound these external influences. Lack of support from parents or authority figures to hazing situations might not instill much confidence in the adolescent that he will be supported if he reports a personal experience of being hazed, that he participated in hazing, or that he witnessed a hazing event. These issues that continue to impact today’s adolescents may help explain why high school hazing is becoming more prevalent in society.

The Prevalence of Hazing

Hazing is a degrading and often dangerous practice that appears to be “drifting down” from college fraternities and sororities (Marsa & Hogan, 2002, p. 80). High school students have even been known to pledge college fraternities early and learn about hazing from older students. Hazing in high school “tends not to be as ritualized as it is on the college level. . . and because it’s haphazard, it can be dangerous” (Nuwer, as quoted in Fine, 1999, p. 1).

If hazing can be so dangerous and degrading, why does it continue? Why don’t students complain? Where are their parents? Answers to these questions might rest in the fact that high school students who are hazed experience a multitude of feelings (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). Some are hazed, join the group, never think another thing about it, and see no reason to report the incident or stop the practice. They move to the rank of perpetrator and the process continues.
On the StopHazing.org web site (2002), supporters of hazing can express their personal beliefs. Comments from respondents include:

1. "I participated in being hazed and it was my decision. So butt out."
2. "I'm going to break away from my polite attitude and comment that if anyone decided to really follow 'alternatives to hazing' they'd be branded as pansies on ANY hockey team."
3. "I find your website disturbing and appalling. It seems to me that anyone who contributed to the website did not have the mental rigidity to withstand the 'stress' of hazing."
4. "I do agree some hazing may be dangerous. Just as some driving is. Did automobiles become outlawed? NO. So don't presume you speak for everyone and are doing a great service" (retrieved June 4, 2002).

Those who experience hazing might have a variety of reactions. They could be fearful, intimidated, do not want to hurt the team by getting someone in trouble, or do not want to be viewed as an outsider (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). These students will not tell their parents because they are afraid their parents will alert the authorities and then the group will shun them (Nuwer, 2000). Even if parents are told, often the parents choose not to pursue litigation because of the emotional toll the process would take on their children (Fine, 1999).

Data from the 1998 study among NCAA athletes showed that 26% of college athletes reported “administration wouldn't handle it right & make it worse” (Alfred University, August 1999, p. 10). Data from the 2000 study among high
school students showed 27% of high school students responded "adults wouldn't know how to handle it right" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 11).

Even if students do complain about hazing, often they find themselves on the defense. Perpetrators will accuse them of not being responsible with their drinking or say that they could have stopped it if they had wanted to. Unfortunately, often the perpetrators lie and trick the student by telling them the hazing will not be that bad or they will not get hurt. Then when the hazing starts, the group gets out of control and the situation becomes dangerous (Nuwer, 2000). Victims of hazing often feel alone and humiliated, and are unwilling to discuss what they have been through. Fear of retribution from the perpetrators can also contribute to the silence surrounding this behavior (Nuwer, 2000).

According to Nuwer:

As reports of hazing are heard more frequently on the nightly news, in school board meetings, and in professional journals, one conclusion is unmistakable: hazing in high schools across the country is becoming an increasingly pervasive problem that students, parents, school administrators and educators, and communities must address – and in a preventive way (p. 19).

Legal Issues

Responses by the courts to hazing suits can vary. In 1990, in Montpelier, VT a Norwich University student was awarded $1.25 million in punitive damages and $488,600 in other damages as a result of a hazing incident. The student had attended the university for only 16 days during which he was hazed daily by upperclassmen. In 1999, Vermont's Supreme Court overturned the punitive damage award stating that the university administrators had not acted with malice (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1999). Justice Denise Johnson wrote a
dissenting argument “the majority's ruling clouded the issue of when punitive damages should be awarded in civil cases” (p. A10).

A student at the University of Louisville, in Louisville, KY, was awarded $750,000 in punitive damages and $181,428 for medical expenses as a result of being beaten so badly with a paddle that he suffered acute kidney failure. In addition to the paddling, he was forced to eat dog food and carry bricks while he ran around a track (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1999). Forty-one states have hazing laws. Iowa’s law, in Section 708.1 states:

1a. A person commits an act of hazing when the person intentionally or recklessly engages in any act or acts involving forced activity which endangers the physical health or safety of a student for the purpose of initiation or admission into, or affiliation with, any organization in connection with a school, college, or university. Prohibited acts include, but are not limited to, any brutality of physical nature such as whipping, forced confinement, or any other forced activity which endangers the health or safety of the student.

1b. For the purpose of this section, "forced activity" means any activity that is a condition of initiation or admission into, or affiliation with, an organization regardless of a student's willingness to participate in the activity.

2. A person who commits an act of hazing is guilty of a simple misdemeanor.
3. A person who commits an act of hazing which causes serious bodily injury to another is guilty of a serious misdemeanor and could be referred to civil authorities.

4. Display of materials and use of language

5. Public posting or utterance of obscene language, or the display of lewd or pornographic material or erotic art is not allowed on campus (www.StopHazing.org, 2001).

A problem with hazing laws is that no two laws are worded the same. Ohio's law, in Section 2307.44, states that, even if the plaintiff was negligent or gave consent for the hazing, the defendant cannot use this as a defense. In the case of schools, colleges, or universities, an "affirmative defense" can be argued if the institution was "actively enforcing" its policy against hazing when the event occurred (www.StopHazing.org, 2001). Iowa's law, in Iowa Code Section 708.10, includes the same idea as Ohio's of prohibiting hazing "regardless of a student's willingness to participate in the activity" (www.StopHazing.org, 2001).

State hazing laws that do not include high schools hamper efforts of administrators to respond to hazing incidences (Fine, 1999). For example, Texas and Iowa include high schools along with colleges and universities under the law; however, Florida and Missouri mention only colleges and universities.

In this literature review, the researcher provided an historical perspective on hazing, views on why adolescents become involved in hazing activities, current views on why hazing in high schools continue to be a concern, the prevalence of hazing, and information on legal issues.
Adolescents might find themselves dealing with internal issues (developing a personal identity, determining future goals, sexual feelings) and external issues (peer pressure, group dynamics, substance abuse) during the high school years. They are moving away from their parents and attempting to find their way to adulthood. These turbulent feelings and interpersonal interactions impact their behaviors and choices.

Significance of the Current Study

This review of the literature resulted in the researcher finding historical information and articles on hazing incidents. A search for quantitative and/or qualitative studies on high school hazing produced limited results. She did find multiple articles referring to the 2000 Alfred University study among nationwide high school students (e.g., Suggs, 1999; Oliff, 2002).

The researcher then contacted Norman Pollard, Ed.D., a principal investigator of the 2000 Alfred University study to further investigate this lack of empirical data. Dr. Pollard stated, "after an exhaustive review of the literature, we could find little quantitative research on high school hazing." Please refer to Appendix C for a letter from Dr. Pollard explaining the lack of research on high school hazing and support for the current study.

The 2000 Alfred University Study Among Nationwide High School Students

In this section, the researcher presents a brief overview of the results from the 2000 Alfred University study. Data from the Alfred University study (2000) showed that, of the 8.28% of students who responded to the survey, high school students were hazed in church groups (24%); cheerleading squads (34%);
music, art, and theatre groups (22%); scholastic and/or intellectual clubs (12%); as well as other social groups. Forty-percent of students reported that they would not tell anyone they were hazed.

Reasons respondents would not report a hazing incident included: concern there was no one they could tell (36%), fear that adults would not know how to handle the situation appropriately (27%), or feelings that others in their peer group would "make my life miserable" (24%). Sixteen percent reported they would not turn in their friends in any situation.

When high school students were asked how they felt about being hazed, anger was the negative emotion that received the greatest response (35%). Other negative responses included embarrassment (28%), confusion (25%), guilt (23%), regret (21%), and sadness (20%). Thirteen percent of the students responded they wanted revenge.

The highest positive response to being hazed (43%) was related to being part of a group. This high percentage would appear to support Erikson (1968), Maslow (1968), Kail and Cavanaugh (1996), and Shaffer's (1996) views on the importance to adolescents of belonging to a desired group. Other positive responses included feeling proud (30%), strong (27%), and trusted (18%). The study showed students were actually split evenly in their positive and negative feelings. Many students listed both positive and negative feelings (Hoover & Pollard, 2000).

The researcher concluded from this review of the literature and correspondence with a principal investigator from the 2000 Alfred University
study that the available information on hazing among high school students could be extended by a study with a higher survey response rate. In addition, a focus group could deepen information on hazing gleaned from the survey results.

The current study was designed to provide information that can be used by high school and college administrators, teachers, coaches, students, school organizations, parents, and other interested parties to increase awareness of hazing rituals in high schools so that appropriate prevention and intervention programs might be developed.
Chapter 3

METHODS

In this section, the researcher provides information on the methodology that was used to achieve the purposes of the study. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from members of the Drake University Human Subjects Review Board. See Appendix D for the final notification form.

The purposes of the study were:

1. Examine the autobiographical memories of entering first year college students on their high school hazing experiences.
2. Explore, on a more personal level, beliefs, experiences, and/or opinions of entering first year college students on the subject of high school hazing.
3. Examine how closely the data from the current study fit the data from the 2000 Alfred University (Alfred, New York) nationwide study conducted among high school students.

A survey was distributed to provide data to test four null hypotheses and a focus group was conducted to explore, on a more personal level, students' opinions on high school hazing. The four null hypotheses were:

1. \( H_0: \) There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. Hazing experiences involved the following categories:
   a) consequences of being hazed
b) feelings after being hazed

c) reporting hazing experiences

d) ideas for prevention of hazing

e) opinions on hazing

f) why students participate in hazing

g) why students haze others

2. \( H_0: \) There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students when joining a high school group and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. High school groups involved the following:

a) sports teams

b) cheerleading squad

c) fraternity or sorority

d) scholastic or intellectual club

e) social club or organization

f) political or social action club

g) music, art, or theatre group

h) vocational or life skills group

i) newspaper, yearbook, or writing organization

j) peer group or gang

k) church group or

l) other
3. **H₀**: There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students for types of activities expected of those joining a group or team and the independent variables of gender; state of residence; ethnic origin; religious preference; school type; school location; graduation date; and grade point average.

4. **H₀**: There is no significant difference between the observed frequencies from the current study and the expected frequencies based on the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing among nationwide high school students.

   The focus group explored the following question: What are the beliefs, experiences, and/or opinions of entering first year college students on high school hazing rituals?

**Study Design**

For the current study, the researcher used a cross-sectional design to conduct a systematic replication of the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing experiences among nationwide high school students. Bailey (1978) said:

> It should be clear . . . that replicating research or reworking an old project with a new twist could be very important. It also should be clear that research projects are not selected in a vacuum but that the researcher is stimulated by the ideas and the research of others (p. 18-19).

Systematic replication is appropriate when a researcher finds an interesting occurrence and hypothesizes that a modification to the original research will result in an anticipated result (Graziano & Raulin, 2000). Modifications for the current study included a different procedure for distributing the survey instrument, minor revisions to the Alfred University survey instrument, a different sample of participants, and the addition of a focus group to add
richness and depth to the study. The survey was distributed once to an ad hoc sample of the population; therefore, cross-sectional design was appropriate (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Graziano & Raulin, 2000). For the current study, the researcher personally distributed the survey instrument to participants in an effort to achieve a higher response rate. The researchers for the 2000 Alfred University study mailed surveys to 10,000 high school students nationwide resulting in a low response rate of 8.28% (Hoover & Pollard).

The participants in the current study were chosen for two reasons. First, they represented a convenience sample for the study. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) wrote that a convenience sample is “a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study” (p. 112). The Associate Provost for Academic Services at one midwestern university agreed to provide the researcher with access to entering first year college students during the fall 2002 Welcome Weekend.

Second, hazing is often shrouded in secrecy (Nuwer, 2000). The researcher was concerned that, if the study was conducted within high school settings, students might not feel comfortable getting permission to complete the survey from their parents (if required) or would be afraid of recrimination from adults or peers if they completed the survey. Although this was clearly a personal opinion of the researcher, researchers for the 2000 Alfred University study reported that 40% of responding high school students would not report hazing. Thirty-six percent of these students believed there was no one they could tell, 27% were concerned adults would not know how to handle the situation
correctly, and 24% were concerned other students would make their life miserable if they reported an incident (Hoover & Pollard, 2000).

The survey instrument, and the time frame in which students had to complete the survey, provided limited opportunity for them to provide information on hazing experiences in their own words. Modifying the procedure to include the focus group was intended to allow further exploration of selected students' hazing experiences. Kitzinger and Barbour (1999) wrote, “Focus groups are ideal for exploring people’s experiences, opinions, wishes, and concerns” (p. 5).

Procedures

The study involved two methods for collecting data. First, a survey was conducted to generate quantitative data on the participants’ autobiographical memories of their hazing experiences in high school to test four null hypotheses. Second, following preliminary analysis of the survey data, a focus group was conducted with students, who had given written consent at the time of the survey, to add richness and depth to the data by gathering more personal information on their beliefs, experiences, and/or opinions on high school hazing. Morgan (1988) wrote, “The hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group” (p. 12).
Data Collection

Survey

Participants

The participants (students) in the study were drawn from entering first year college students (N = 775) at a private midwestern university. During the fall 2002 Welcome Weekend, the Associate Provost for Academic Services and her staff conducted seminars for entering first year students. The staff consisted of junior and senior students involved as either "student mentors" or "peer mentors."

Each student mentor supervised a Welcome Weekend seminar. Peer mentors were responsible for bringing their group of twenty incoming first year students to the different seminars. Welcome Weekend was the first weekend that all entering first year students were on campus. Four hundred and fifty eight (59%) entering first year students participated in the seminar during which the survey for the current study was distributed.

All transfer students were assigned to a special peer mentor. The transfer students' peer mentor and transfer students did not participate in this study in order to keep the sample more homogeneous and not to confound the data with possible college hazing experiences of transfer students.

Instrument

The survey instrument used for the 2000 Alfred University study among nationwide high school students was adapted with minor revisions appropriate for the current study. Please refer to Appendix E for the 2000 Alfred University survey instrument, Appendix F for the permission letter from Alfred University
granting approval for the researcher to use the instrument, and Appendix G for the survey instrument used in the current study.

Revisions to the Alfred University instrument made for the current study were:

1. The category where participants marked their class (9th grade, 10th grade, 11th grade, or 12th grade) was deleted. All participants in the current study were entering first year college students; therefore, the current study asked participants to mark the year they graduated from high school.

2. The category for Grade Point Average (A, B, C, D, F, or Not Graded) was revised to ask participants their high school cumulative grade point average.

3. In the Alfred University survey, participants indicated whether they were religious or spiritual only under the category asking their opinions on hazing. The current study moved this item into the Student Background section of demographic information for statistical analysis purposes.

4. The section of the Alfred University survey containing questions related to reasons for participation in hazing was revised for the current study to expand on information in this area. The revised questions provided more specific information on participants who were hazed, participants who hazed others, and reasons the hazing occurred.

Procedure

In May of 2002, the researcher met with the Associate Provost for Academic Services and the five student mentors to discuss the background, purposes, and procedures for the study. The student mentors reviewed the
survey, discussed their opinions related to incoming first year college students participating in the study, and asked the researcher questions about the study. They were supportive of the study and stated they believed the information obtained would be beneficial in order to learn more about high school hazing. The student mentors completed the survey to provide the researcher with information on the time involved for completing the survey. It took them an average of 10 minutes to complete the survey.

In August 2002, three days prior to the distribution of the survey, the researcher met with the Associate Provost, student mentors, and peer mentors to discuss the procedure for distributing the survey. The peer mentors were not told the subject matter of the study to avoid conversations between them and the entering first year students prior to the students responding to the survey. Peer mentors were told their groups of students would be taking a survey prior to a video presentation in the auditorium. They were also told that the survey did not relate to the subject matter of the video. Instructions for collecting the surveys after students finished were given and peer mentors and student mentors were given a chance to ask questions. The researcher thanked everyone for helping with the study.

The surveys were distributed Thursday, August 22, and Friday, August 23, 2002. Surveys were distributed in four sessions – 9:00 a.m. and 1:00 p.m. on each day. Peer mentors were primarily responsible for bringing a group of twenty students to the auditorium. Peer mentors told students they would be asked to participate in a survey and that the researcher would provide more information.
The survey instruments, cover letters, and permission forms were placed on a table outside the auditorium. Please refer to Appendix G for the survey instrument, Appendix H for the cover letter, and Appendix I for the permission form. The researcher directed students to take a copy of each as they entered the auditorium. A small sticker was attached to each survey for the student to keep as a thank-you.

To assure consistency in the directions for completing the survey, the researcher read the cover letter of the survey to inform students of the study's nature and purpose. In addition, the researcher reminded students they had a right to receive the results of the study and instructed them to pass the survey to the middle aisle when finished. Students were then given the opportunity to ask questions. One student, in the first session, asked if they should turn in the survey even if they chose not to respond. The researcher said she would appreciate all surveys being passed to the middle aisle, whether completed or not, so an accurate count of the surveys could be obtained. The researcher included this request in her directions to subsequent sessions to assure consistency in the information.

The researcher left the auditorium while students completed the survey. Students had approximately 20 minutes to complete the information on the permission form and the survey instrument. To maintain students' confidentiality, one box marked “permission forms” and one box marked “surveys” were provided outside the auditorium. Peer mentors collected the survey instruments from their groups and separated them into the appropriate boxes.
Limitations

While a random sample drawn from the total population of entering first year college students would be the ideal, that ideal was beyond the scope of this study. Because this study focused on the autobiographical memories of entering first year college students on their high school hazing experiences, the following limitations existed:

1. High school students not enrolling in college were excluded from the study because only data from entering first year students was obtained. The data excluded those students whose experiences with hazing resulted in dropping out of school. The data also excluded students whose grades and/or performance on college entrance examinations were affected by their hazing experiences resulting in their not meeting university entrance requirements.

2. Hazing rituals are usually surrounded by secrecy (Nuwer, 2000). The survey instrument involved self-reporting by students of their hazing experiences. Students completing the survey might not have responded honestly in an attempt to protect the secrecy surrounding their hazing experiences. Graziano and Raulin (2000) wrote that social desirability is a “response-set bias” that may result in participants responding in a way they believe is socially acceptable (p. 81).

3. Students were asked on the survey to provide their autobiographical memories on hazing experiences during their four years in high school. Although the survey was distributed to entering first year students, these
students might not have enrolled in college immediately after completing high school. This limitation probably had minimal impact as 96.5% of the respondents responded they graduated from high school in 2002.

4. Another limitation was if students were hazed during their freshman year of high school, there was a four-year time lapse that might have influenced their memories. The time frame between hazing experiences and entering college may have resulted in limitations to memories of the hazing incidences. Larsen (1998) wrote,

That is, we need to consider whether the present experience of a past event corresponds to what it was like to be in that event originally. The problem is, of course, that the rememberer is only nominally the same person now as in the past; some changes will have taken place, be they transient or permanent ones" (p. 168).

Data Analysis

This section explains the statistical analyses that were performed on the survey data. The survey instrument contained categorical data consisting of dichotomous dependent and independent variables; therefore, nonparametric methods of analysis were appropriate (Pett, 1997; Williams, 1968). The level of significance was set at .05.

Logistic regression, multiple regression, cross tabulation with chi-square statistics, chi-square goodness-of-fit tests, and frequency tables were used for analysis of the data to test the first two of the four null hypotheses in order to explore relationships between the independent demographic variables and the responses students gave regarding hazing experiences. Following logistic regression, cross tabulation analysis, one variable at a time, was performed to
report percentages for each significant independent variable. NCSS, SPSS, and StatXact statistical packages were used to perform the analyses.

Analysis of Null Hypotheses One and Two

The first null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between hazing experiences among the current study’s participants and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, graduation year, ethnic origin, graduation date, religious preference, school type, school location, and grade point average.

The second null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between hazing experiences among the current study’s participants when joining a high school group and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, graduation year, ethnic origin, graduation date, religious preference, school type, school location, and grade point average. Please refer to the survey instrument in Appendix G for a breakdown of the dependent variables in each category.

Preliminary analysis of the data found the occurrence of zero cell counts due to the homogeneity of the sample. To reduce the number of zero cell counts, selected independent and dependent categories were collapsed. State of residence was coded as: 1 = Iowa, 2 = states adjacent to Iowa (Minnesota, Illinois, Missouri, and Nebraska), and 3 = all other states including international students. Ethnic origin was coded as: 1 = Caucasian and 2 = Non-Caucasian. School type was coded as 1 = public schools and 2 = private or home schooled.

The independent variables for year of graduation and religious denomination did

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1 NCSS, 329 North 1000 East, Kaysville, UT 84037; SPSS, 233 S. Wacker Drive, 11th floor, Chicago, IL, 60606; StatXact, CYTEL Software Corp., Cambridge, MA, 02139.
not exhibit enough statistical variability to influence the results so these variables were not included in the analyses. No other dependent variable categories were collapsed.

Logistic regression was appropriate for analysis of the survey data. Menard (2002) suggested using logistic regression as an appropriate measure for analyzing categorical data to examine relationships between dichotomous dependent variables and independent variables. Logistic regression analysis results were reported when three conditions were met.

First, logistic regression analysis is appropriate when the sample size is at least 50 + 8k when k represents the number of independent variables (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). The current study involved nine independent variables; therefore logistic regression analysis was performed when the number of respondents to a particular survey question was equal to or greater than 122.

Second, statisticians caution against reporting logistic regression that resulted in quasi-separation or complete separation of the data (e.g. Menard, 2002). Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was required for data analysis to avoid reporting incorrect results. Third, when logistic regression resulted in normal completion, multiple regression analysis was performed to determine if collinearity among the independent variables was present. Collinearity of the independent variables results in “uncertainty (standard errors) and inaccuracy (slope coefficients)” in the data (Miles & Shevlin, 2001, p. 126). Menard (2002) suggested the tolerance level be set at .10 or higher. Independent
variables with a tolerance level less than .10 were removed and multiple regression analysis was again performed to check for collinearity.

NCSS was used to perform the logistic regression analyses because reference values could be used so “the probability of membership in other categories is compared to the probability of membership in the reference category” (Menard, 2002, p. 91). NCSS allowed the researcher to determine this reference value so positive or negative relationships between the variables could be defined.

Responses to the survey were dichotomous and coded as “0” if the student did not choose the response and “1” if the student chose the response. For the purpose of this study, the reference value for the dependent variables was set at “0” to determine whether hazing experiences had a positive or negative relationship to the independent variables. The independent variable for students’ religious belief was coded as “0” if students marked they were not religious and “1” if students marked they were religious. Therefore, a reference value of “0” was used for this variable to determine whether religiousness had a positive or negative relationship to the dependent variables.

While logistic regression resulted in a more powerful analysis of the data due to the independent variables being tested simultaneously, the analysis was not appropriate when N < 122. Therefore, when N < 122, or normal completion could not be achieved with logistic regression, cross tabulation analyses were performed, one variable at a time, to report significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables. For selected categories when N < 100 (for
example: consequences of being hazed, N = 23), StatXact was used to perform cross tabulation analyses because the results were at a higher level of accuracy than the traditional asymptotic chi-square found in the SPSS and NCSS statistical programs.

Frequency tables were generated to provide information on the number of students involved in hazing experiences. Williams (1968) suggested frequency tables as a means to take generalizations and use them as "a basis for saying something about the real world" (p. 25).

Secondary analysis of null hypothesis one

A secondary analysis of null hypothesis one was conducted to explore relationships within the dependent variables related to students' experiences with high school hazing. This type of analysis is useful "where clues to many potential relationships between variables may be buried in the data" (Graziano & Raulin, 2000, p. 329). Logistic regression analysis, multiple regression analysis, cross tabulation with chi-square statistics, and frequency tables were appropriate statistical tests for this analysis.

Analysis of Null Hypothesis Three

The third null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between types of activities expected of those joining a group or team and the independent variables. The data for this research question involved 11 independent variables (types of extracurricular groups or teams) and 33 dependent variables (types of activities expected of those joining the group or team). Williams (1968) suggested factor analysis as a method of reducing a set
of variables into a smaller subset of factors based on theoretical categories. Prior to analysis, data for the types of activities expected of those joining the group or team was transformed into the four theoretical categories (community building initiatives, humiliation hazing, substance abuse hazing, and dangerous hazing) identified through factor analysis in the 2000 Alfred University study.

In each of these categories, the dependent variables for "activities expected of students when joining a high school group" were transformed into ordinal categories and coded as 0 = did not participate in the activity; 1 = participated in one activity; and 2 = participated in two or more activities. For the purpose of analysis, cross tabulation with chi-square statistics was performed to explore relationships between student participation in the activities for each of these categories and the independent demographic variables.

Secondary analysis of null hypothesis three

A secondary analysis of null hypothesis three was performed due to a contradiction the researcher found when entering the data. Students responded they had not been hazed on the first page of the survey and then, on the second page of the survey, marked participation in hazing activities when joining high school groups. Prior to the analysis, the data related to hazing activities was transformed as follows:

1. All humiliating hazing activities in each high school group were transformed into one variable. For example, all humiliating hazing activities in sports teams were transformed into one variable (e.g., HST).
other high school groups (e.g., hazing activities in cheerleading squads was transformed into the variable HCS). This same transformation procedure was then performed for dangerous hazing activities (e.g., DST, DCS) and substance abuse activities (e.g., SST, SCS, etc.) for each of the high school groups. Please see Appendix J for a listing of the humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, and substance abuse hazing activities. Each transformed variable represented students' participation in 0, 1, or more hazing activities.

2. All humiliating hazing variables for the high school groups (e.g., HST, HCS, etc.) were transformed into one variable for humiliating hazing activities (e.g., HUMIL). The transformation involved an "if-then" procedure (e.g., if HST>=1 then HUMIL=1). This procedure was then performed for the dangerous hazing variables in each high school group (e.g., if DST>=1, then DANGER=1) and substance abuse activities in each high school group (e.g., if SST>=1, then SUBST=1). This transformation resulted in the HUMIL, DANGER, and SUBST variables representing students who responded positively they had participated in humiliating, dangerous, or substance abuse activities.

3. The final procedure involved another if-then transformation of the HUMIL, DANGER, and SUBST variables to create a final variable that represented students' participation in hazing activities (e.g., if HUMIL=1, then ALLHAZED=1). This final variable (ALLHAZED) represented students'
participation in hazing activities when joining high school groups whether they were humiliating, dangerous, and/or substance abuse.

A concern could be raised regarding the loss of precision when transforming data in this manner; however, the secondary analysis was exploratory in nature and designed to discover the relationship between students who responded they had not been hazed and then later responded they had participated in hazing activities. A cross tabulation analysis, layered to test the demographic variables, was performed to explore relationships between the (sub)population of students who responded they had not been hazed and the students who then responded they participated in hazing activities.

Analysis of Null Hypothesis Four

The fourth null hypothesis stated there were no significant differences between the current study and the results reported in the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing among high school students nationwide. The researcher did not have access to the raw data from the 2000 Alfred University study on high school hazing; therefore, only selected hazing experiences could be analyzed for statistical significance.

For the purposes of statistical analysis, frequency tables and results from the factor analysis provided in Alfred University's final report (2000) were used as the target population data. Pett (1997) suggested using the chi-square goodness-of-fit test to compare data (frequencies or percentages) from a current study to data that is "known or hypothesized about a target population" (p. 69). StatXact and SPSS statistical packages were used to generate chi-square goodness-of-fit
analyses to explore statistically significant differences between the observed frequencies from the current study and the expected frequencies from the 2000 Alfred University study.

Responses to survey questions contained a list of specific categories and also provided participants with the opportunity to respond to a category listed as "other." These open-ended responses were included in the appropriate data analysis sections to provide additional information.

Focus Group Session

Participants

Focus group participants were a sub-sample of the entire group of participants. These participants were volunteers and were not meant to represent a random sample of the population. As a result, data from the focus group might be skewed due to the experiences of the participants. It was unclear in which direction the data were likely to be skewed. Students with negative hazing experiences might have been more willing to volunteer in order to tell their stories and gain some validation and acceptance for their experiences. On the other hand, students who had not experienced hazing in high school might have volunteered, as they would not feel threatened by the focus group. Finally, students who were pro-hazing might volunteer to use the focus group as a forum to promote their beliefs. The primary goal of the focus group interactions was to build on previous research through personal interactions with students to explore hazing experiences in more depth.
Permission forms distributed at the time of the survey provided the researcher with contact information for students who consented to be participants in a focus group. The researcher contacted students by email and/or telephone to determine if they still consented to participate in a focus group.

**Protocol**

Questions asked of the focus group participants arose from conversations with student mentors at the university and analysis of the survey:

1. **What is your definition of hazing?**

   This question was suggested during the meeting between the researcher and the university's student mentors. One mentor stated that the definition for the survey did not match the university or the State of Iowa's definitions. Another mentor stated it was confusing to draw the line between hazing and initiation (student mentors, personal communication, May 9, 2002). The researcher explained the current definition was being used for consistency because it matched the definition from the 2000 Alfred University study among nationwide high school students. Asking for definitions from participants during the focus groups explored this issue.

2. **Where do you “draw the line” between initiation and hazing?**

   This question was suggested based on analysis of the survey demonstrating that students would mark they had not been hazed to join a group in one section of the survey and then, in another section of the survey, mark activities related to joining the high school group that were categorized as humiliating, dangerous, or substance abuse activities.
3. Is hazing legal?

This question was asked to attempt to get a better idea whether students knew if hazing was legal. Analysis of the current survey found that 42.0% of males and 46.1% of females did not know if hazing was legal.

4. Why would students not report hazing?

This question was asked to explore reasons students do not report hazing beyond the choices that were provided on the survey. Analysis of the current survey found that 59.6% of the females and 40.9% of the males would report hazing.

Procedure

Preliminary analysis of the survey data was conducted prior to scheduling the focus group. Small groups were desirable for this study as the researcher was interested in each student's reactions to the topic of hazing. Five or six participants in a focus group are appropriate when conducting sociological studies (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999). Morgan (1988) suggested a minimum of four participants in a focus group and that the researcher over-recruit by 20% to allow for students who decided not to attend.

At the time of the survey, 32 students marked on the permission form they consented to participating in a focus group. Students were contacted by email and/or telephone in October (two months following the survey) to determine if they still consented to participate in a focus group. At that time, 12 students responded they were still interested.
After proposing different times and days of the week, one group of six students was scheduled for a Sunday evening, from 5:00 p.m. – 6:30 p.m. The researcher contacted the students through email to confirm they agreed to be videotaped and audiotaped during the focus group session. On the evening of the session, 4 of the 6 students arrived and participated.

Discussing hazing in a focus group setting could result in memories that are painful and a resurgence of negative feelings toward past experiences. The researcher met with the director of the university's counseling center on March 13, 2002 to discuss the study and any concerns he might have about students participating in the survey and focus groups. The director expressed his support for the study. He was provided with the time and day of the focus group so he could be aware there might be students needing the center's services.

The focus group was scheduled after normal business hours at a facility within walking distance of the university. Greenbaum (1998) suggested focus groups be held in a quiet place without interruptions that could distract members. Pizza (including vegetarian) and non-alcoholic beverages (pop, juice, water) were provided for the students. Food was available when the students arrived so they were able to eat and relax before the session began. Restrooms were available on site and receptacles for used plates, cups, etc. were provided.

The conference room contained a rectangular conference table and chairs. Morgan (1988) suggested that a rectangular table provided the best setting for participants as it allowed the researcher to sit at the head of the table to better control the proceedings. This arrangement worked particularly well
because the session was videotaped and the researcher sat at the head of the table with the video camera located behind her resulting in all participants being included in the video. The researcher also audiotaped the session. Students used a flip chart and markers to record key points and observations.

When students arrived they were asked to complete a current permission form to document their willingness to participate in the focus group and to be videotaped and audiotaped. In addition, they were asked to complete a form to provide the same demographic information as the survey and three questions to think about prior to the discussion. Giving members a list of questions prior to the start of the session could provide a way to get the discussion started and might avoid possible group dynamic problems. Social psychology studies have shown that people are less likely to be influenced by what others say if they have already written down their own thoughts (Greenbaum, 1998). Please refer to Appendix I for the focus group permission form. The students were also provided with a blank copy of the survey instrument to use as a reference during the discussion.

The focus group session began with the researcher explaining that the purpose was to discuss only high school hazing experiences and not experiences the students may or may not have had since enrolling in college. Students were reassured their confidentiality would be maintained and they would not be identified in the final report. They were also told they had the option of leaving the focus group at any time or requesting certain information (on flip chart, videotape, and/or audiotape) not be included in the final report.
Every effort was made to make the students feel safe in the group “in order to reduce anxiety over self-disclosure” (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999, p. 56). Farquhar (1999) suggested that “ground rules” be established with members of the focus group (p. 57). The researcher briefly discussed that everyone had a right to share ideas and be heard.

Members had the option to leave the focus group at any time. An associate professor from the university was present during the focus group and available to conduct an exit interview with any member who decided to leave the group early. The facility had other office space that could be used for this private discussion. The exit interview would have provided an opportunity for the associate professor to talk to the member to see if she/he needed any assistance or further support. No focus group members left during the session or expressed concerns about discussing the topic of high school hazing.

Limitations

While a random sample drawn from all students who attended the initial survey session might be viewed as ideal, “there is no reason to believe that a randomly sampled group holds a shared perspective on your topic” (Morgan, 1988, p. 45). The purpose for including focus groups in the current study was to explore, in a more personal atmosphere, the survey participants’ thoughts and ideas on high school hazing. Because the focus group was limited to students who had given written consent to participate in a session, the following limitations existed:
1. Students not consenting to participate in a focus group, or unable to attend a session, were excluded from this portion of the study.

2. The focus group involved students discussing their feelings and opinions in front of their peers. Group dynamics could influence what participants were willing to say and they might tend to go along with what others say about an issue, embellish their own experiences, or not be willing to share experiences with the group.

3. The time frame between distribution of the survey (August) and the focus group session (November) might have resulted in students integrating their college hazing experiences with high school hazing experiences.

4. This study was not intended, nor was it designed, to provide in-depth qualitative data from the focus group. No generalization of focus group data can be made to entering first year college students. Focus group data were used to add richness to the study by providing information from students in their own words.

Data Analysis

In this section the researcher describes the data analysis that was performed on the focus group data. The focus group provided data to examine the qualitative research question that addressed the beliefs, experiences, and/or opinions of entering first year students on high school hazing.

Although this study was not designed as an ethnography, data analysis used in an ethnographic study was appropriate because the data were qualitative. Morgan (1988) suggested the ethnographic approach of using direct
quotes from group discussions could add additional data to a quantitative study. The more personal interaction of the focus group allowed the researcher to expand on data from the survey and achieve a more personal understanding of students' perspectives on the topic (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999).

The researcher had a colleague transcribe the audiotape and personally viewed the videotape from the focus group. To maintain students' confidentiality, they were identified with pseudonyms in the final report. The audiotape, videotape, and flip chart information will be kept in the researcher's control and destroyed after 5 years.

Analysis involved looking for themes in the focus group data that supported or disputed ideas and concepts on hazing derived from the literature search and data from the survey. In addition, comments that students made to open ended questions on the survey were compared to students' comments during the focus group.

Validity and Reliability of the Study

Survey

Instrument

For this study, a systematic replication of the 2000 Alfred University survey among high school students nationwide, the 2000 Alfred University survey instrument was used to gather data. The survey instrument was kept consistent, with only minor revisions relevant to the current sample, so as to reduce possible variability on student responses due to a new survey format or additional (or missing) questions. Although the 2000 Alfred University study of nationwide high
school students was exploratory, the survey instrument was pilot tested with small groups for reliability (Hoover, email communication, February 19, 2002). Using the same survey instrument, with only minor revisions, enhanced validity and reliability of the data. Please refer to Appendix K for a discussion of research studies conducted as replications using the same survey instrument.

**Self-Reported Survey Data**

The survey component of the study was based on self-reported data on a subject that could have involved intense positive or negative feelings that students may or may not have been willing to share. A threat to validity and reliability was the social response bias that might have impacted the honesty of the students’ answers (Graziano & Raulin, 2000). Students might have responded in a manner consistent with what they perceived as socially acceptable relevant to the topic of hazing and to maintain the secrecy of the phenomenon.

**Focus Group**

Data from the focus group could not be generalized to the larger population of entering first year college students nationwide. The focus group was qualitative in nature and triangulation for verification purposes could not be performed due to only audiotape and videotape information being collected. Triangulation would have involved looking at and coding multiple sources of data that included, but were not limited to, member checks, peer reviews, interviews, journals, and other artifacts (Creswell, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These sources of data were not obtained for the current study; however, data from the
focus groups did triangulate with the data collected in the current survey and the original Alfred University study.

Validity and reliability of focus group interactions might also have been impacted by the social response bias resulting from students providing information based on what they believed the researcher and/or readers of the final report wanted to hear. The focus group information did, however, contribute richness to the data by providing participants with a chance to tell their story in their own words and to elaborate on their survey responses.

Summary

In this section, the researcher described the methodology used for the current study. Entering first year college students at a private midwestern university had the opportunity to complete a survey and had the option of participating in a focus group to provide data on their high school hazing experiences.
CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the researcher presents analyses of the high school hazing survey and focus group data.

Analysis of the Survey

Logistic regression analysis, multiple regression analysis, cross tabulation with chi-square statistics, chi-square goodness-of-fit tests, and frequency tables were used for statistical analysis of the data to test the four null hypotheses and explore if there were significant relationships between the independent demographic variables (gender, year of graduation, GPA, state of residence, ethnicity, school type, school location, whether the student viewed him/herself as religious or spiritual, and religious denomination) and the responses students gave regarding hazing experiences. NCSS, SPSS, and StatXact statistical packages were used to perform the analyses.

In fall of 2002, 775 entering first year college students enrolled at the private midwestern university where this study was conducted. Welcome Weekend sessions involved seminars and organized activities conducted on Thursday, August 22, and Friday, August 23, 2002. The Welcome Weekend sessions were voluntary, which might explain why all 775 students did not attend the sessions during which the survey for the current study was distributed. The experience of being away from home and on their own for possibly the first time might have impacted students' attendance. In addition, a severe thunderstorm occurred on Thursday night leaving many students without power in their
dormitory rooms. This might have resulted in situations that took precedent over attending a Welcome Weekend activity. Although an attendance record was not generated for each session, the researcher noted that attendance dropped off for the Friday afternoon session.

While a random sample of all 775 entering first year college students would have been ideal, the procedure for distributing the survey resulted in an ad hoc sample consisting of the 458 students who attended Welcome Weekend sessions at 9:00 a.m. or 1:00 p.m. on Thursday or Friday. Four hundred and forty-six surveys were returned. Surveys were considered useable if the student responded to any or all of the demographic information. Four hundred and two surveys included the required information resulting in a response rate of 87.7%. Table 1 is the sample’s demographics.

Table 1

Summary of Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>64.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of High School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>84.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private or Home Schooled</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year of Graduation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>97.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>398</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High School Cumulative GPA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00 – 2.49</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.50 – 2.99</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 – 3.49</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.50 – 4.00</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>394</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location of High School</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suburban</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>374</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State of Residence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>States Adjacent to Iowa</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other States &amp; International students</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>390</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The survey procedure resulted in the researcher obtaining data for analysis of the four null hypotheses, the first of which was:

1. \( H_0: \) There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school types, school location, graduation date, and grade point average.

Hazing experiences involved the following categories:

a) Consequences of being hazed  
b) Feelings after being hazed  
c) Reporting hazing experiences  
d) Ideas for prevention of hazing  
e) Opinions on hazing
f) Why students participate in hazing

g) Why students haze others

a) Consequences of being hazed

The survey instrument contained a section where students could choose among thirteen dichotomous categories of possible consequences due to hazing. Students were directed to "mark all that apply." Data were compiled only for those students who marked at least one of the "consequence" categories and coded as "0" if the consequence was not chosen and "1" if the student chose the consequence. Table 2 is a frequency table generated to provide an overall view of student responses to this category.

Logistic regression analysis was not appropriate (N < 122); therefore, cross tabulation with chi-square analysis was conducted one variable at a time to explore the significance of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. A statistically significant relationship was found between the dependent variable for the consequence "hurt someone else" and the independent variable for religious or spiritual belief. Forty percent of students who marked they were not religious or spiritual chose this consequence, \( \chi^2 (1, N = 22) = 7.480, p = .043 \). No students who marked they were religious or spiritual chose this consequence.

The 14th category in the section on consequences because of hazing was listed as "other." Students' written comments on consequences were:

- never heard of anyone hazing
- never had an experience with hazing
• had dirty clothing
• indifferent
• embarrassed

Table 2

Percentage of Students Who Reported Experiencing the Consequence (N = 23)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consequence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Got into a fight</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got sick</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was injured</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committed a crime</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fought with my parents</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got in trouble with police</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit going out with friends</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missed school, practice, game, or group meeting</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurt someone else</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had difficulty eating, sleeping, or concentrating</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was convicted of a crime</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considered suicide</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did poorly on school work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Feelings after being hazed

The survey instrument contained a section asking students to choose among 11 dichotomous categories of possible feelings experienced after being hazed. Students were directed to “mark all that apply.” Data were compiled only
for students who marked at least one of the “feelings” categories and coded as “0” if the feeling was not chosen and “1” if the student chose the feeling.

Table 3 is a frequency table generated to provide an overall view of feelings that students experienced after being hazed.

Table 3

Percentage of Students Who Experienced the Feeling (N = 60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part of the group</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrassed</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted revenge</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regretful</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confused</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilty</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusted</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis was not appropriate (N < 122); therefore cross tabulation with chi-square analysis was conducted one variable at a time to explore the significance of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Statistically significant relationships were found between
two of the dependent variables for feelings students experienced after their hazing experience and the independent demographic variables.

A significant relationship was found between feeling "angry" after a hazing experience and the region where students attended high school. Forty-one percent of students who attended high schools in Iowa chose this feeling compared to 8.0% who attended high schools in states adjacent to Iowa and 13.3% who attended high schools in other states or were international students, $\chi^2(2, N = 57) = 7.617, p = .025$.

A statistically significant relationship was found between the feeling of "regret" and the independent variable for type of high school. Students who attended rural high schools (33.3%) were more likely to feel regretful than students who attended urban high schools (8.3%) or suburban high schools (3.1%), $\chi^2(2, N = 53) = 7.524, p = .023$.

The 12th category in this section of the survey was listed as "other." Students wrote the following comments in response to "How did you feel afterward?"

- Like I had a good story to tell
- Never had an experience with hazing
- Indifferent
- Nothing really
- It was fun
- Knew my place
- Traditional
c) Reporting Hazing Experiences

This section of the survey provided students with the opportunity to respond to the question: Have you or would you report hazing if you knew about it? Logistic regression analysis, multiple regression analysis, and cross tabulation with chi-square analysis were performed to test the significance of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables.

Logistic regression analysis of the variable related to whether students "would or would not report hazing if they knew about it" was appropriate (N = 304). A statistically significant relationship was found between reporting hazing and gender (B = -0.862, odds ratio = 0.422, p = 0.000). This result indicated a negative relationship between being male and reporting hazing. Cross tabulation found males (40.9%) were less likely than females (59.6%) to report hazing if they knew about it. A statistically significant relationship was also found between reporting hazing and GPA (B = 0.478, odds ratio = 1.613, p = .044). The result indicated a positive relationship between a higher GPA and reporting hazing. Cross tabulation found 56.4% of students with a GPA of 3.50 – 4.00 would report hazing, while students with lower GPAs were less likely to report hazing (2.00 - 2.49 [25.0%]; 2.50 – 2.99 [42.9%]; 3.00 – 3.49 [41.9%]).

Five reasons for not reporting hazing were provided on the survey and students were prompted to mark all the reasons that might contribute to that decision. Table 4 is a frequency table generated to provide an overview of the reasons that students would not report hazing.
Table 4

Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Not Reporting Hazing

(N = 135)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just wouldn't tell on my friends no matter what</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults wouldn't know how to handle it right</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other kids would make my life miserable</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There's no one to tell, who could I tell?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis was appropriate for analyzing students' responses to reasons for not reporting hazing (N = 135) and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between the reason "It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen" and the independent variable for religious or spiritual belief (B = 1.115, odds ratio = 3.049, p = .026). The result indicated a positive relationship between being religious or spiritual and this reason for not reporting hazing. Students who responded they were religious or spiritual (45.0%) were more likely to choose this response than students who responded they were not religious or spiritual (34.5%).

Logistic regression analysis resulted in a statistically significant relationship between the reason "Other kids would make my life miserable" and the region where students attended high school. The result indicated a negative relationship between this reason for not reporting hazing and attending high
school in states adjacent to Iowa (B = -1.693, odds ratio = 0.184, p = .050). Students who attended high school in states adjacent to Iowa (7.1%) were less likely to choose this reason for not reporting hazing than students who attended high school in Iowa (15.4%) or in other states including international students (26.3%).

The survey instrument did not contain an “other” category so students could write in their personal comments; however, students wrote in comments and/or changed the content of the survey in an effort to share their thoughts on reporting hazing. Their comments were:

- “Depends on the severity”
- Student marked “it’s not a problem” but crossed out the rest of the sentence that said “sometimes accidents happen” and changed it to “it’s not a problem most of the time”
- Student added the comment – “I wasn’t there, didn’t see it”
- “It all depends”
- “It’s not that big of deal as long as no one gets hurt”
- “Depends on the situation”

\textit{Ideas for prevention of hazing}

The hazing survey contained a section listing 10 dichotomous categories providing students with the opportunity to decide, “Which of these do you think would prevent hazing?” Students were directed to “mark all that apply.” Data were compiled only for students who marked at least one of the prevention categories and coded as “0” if the idea was not chosen and “1” if the student...
chose the idea. The tenth category provided students with the opportunity to write in other ideas for preventing hazing. Only one student responded and wrote "choice from student" as a prevention idea.

Table 5 is the result for frequency tables generated to provide an overall view of students' choices of ideas that would prevent hazing. Even though frequency tables resulted in two of the ideas, a strong discipline for hazing and police investigation and prosecution of hazing, being chosen by a greater percentage of the students, there were no statistically significant relationships between these ideas and the independent demographic variables.

Table 5

| Percentage of Students Who Chose One or More Prevention Strategy (N = 317) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Strategy                     | Frequency | Percentage |
| Strong discipline for hazing  | 219       | 69.1       |
| Police investigation and prosecution | 168     | 53.0       |
| Positive, bonding activities  | 131       | 41.3       |
| Education about positive initiation and hazing | 97       | 30.7       |
| Students sign “no hazing” agreement | 92       | 29.0       |
| Adult support of positive initiation activities | 84       | 26.5       |
| Good behavior required to join group | 65       | 20.5       |
| Adults who say hazing is not acceptable | 52       | 16.4       |
| Physically challenging activities | 51       | 16.1       |
Logistic regression (N = 267) analysis was appropriate and found statistically significant relationships between four of the nine prevention ideas and the independent demographic variables. Table 6 is a summary of logistic regression analysis on high school students' ideas for preventing hazing.

Table 6

Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis on Student's Ideas for Preventing Hazing (N = 267)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adults who say hazing is not</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>2.392</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physically challenging activities</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>2.070</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1.188</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive bonding activities</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>4.327</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education about positive initiation and hazing</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.622</td>
<td>0.537</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.959</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School Type</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1.098</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cross tabulation with chi-square analysis was then performed to explore relationships between the independent variables. Male (22.7%) students were more likely to choose "adults who say hazing is not acceptable" than female (13.0%) students. Male (20.9%) and Non-Caucasian (32.5%) students were more likely to choose "physically challenging activities" than females (13.5%) and
Caucasian (13.4%) students. Students who responded they were religious or spiritual (43.8%) were more likely to choose “positive bonding activities” than students who responded they were not religious (30.2%). Females (34.5%), Non-Caucasian (43.6%) students, and students who attended private schools or were home schooled (48.0%) were more likely to choose “education about positive initiation and hazing” than males (23.6%), Caucasian (28.7%) students, or those who attended public schools (27.7%).

e) What is your opinion of hazing?

For this section of the survey, students were provided with six questions related to opinions on high school hazing and directed to respond “yes” or “no” as to whether they agreed or disagreed with the question. The sixth question was “is hazing legal?” This question had the additional response “don’t know.” Table 7 is a frequency table generated to provide an overall view of students’ responses to these questions on opinions of hazing.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion on Hazing</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>Don’t Know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is humiliating hazing a good thing?</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is dangerous hazing a good thing?</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you know adults who hazed?</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is hazing socially acceptable?</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does hazing make us less human?</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is hazing legal?</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Logistic regression analysis resulted in normal completion between the independent variables and four of the dependent variables \((N > 122)\). Table 8 is the result of the analysis. Cross tabulation with chi-square analysis was performed to explore relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Males (15.9\%) were more likely than females (7.8\%) to believe "humiliating hazing is a good thing" and males (15.9\%) were more likely than females (9.8\%) to believe hazing was legal. However, almost the same percentage of males (42.0\%) as females (46.1\%) responded they did not know if hazing was legal. Students with a lower GPA were more likely to believe hazing is socially acceptable \((2.00 - 2.49 = 75.0\%; 2.50 - 2.99 = 55.6\%; 3.00 - 3.49 = 48.6\%; 3.50 - 4.00 = 33.8\%)\).

When students responded to the question "does hazing make us less human," female students (37.9\%) were more likely to respond "yes" to this opinion than male students (23.5\%). Students with higher GPAs were more likely to respond "yes" to this question \((2.00 - 2.49 = 0.0\%; 2.50 - 2.99 = 22.2\%; 3.00 - 3.49 = 26.3\%; 3.50 - 4.00 = 35.4\%)\). Students who attended private high schools (46.6\%) were more likely to respond "yes" to this opinion than students who attended public high schools (29.9\%).

Logistic regression analysis resulted in quasi-separation for the question "is dangerous hazing a good thing"; therefore, cross tabulation was performed and found statistically significant relationships between the dependent variable and the independent demographic variables for gender and GPA. Males (4.0\%) were more likely to respond, "yes" to the question than females (0.0\%),
\( \chi^2 (1, N = 385) = 7.571, p = .014 \). Students with a GPA of 2.00 – 2.49 (25.0%) were more likely to respond “yes” to the question than students at the other GPA levels, \( \chi^2 (3, N = 378) = 22.840, p = .000 \). Cross tabulation analysis was performed for the question, “do you know adults who hazed?” and yielded no statistically significant relationships.

Table 8

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis on High School Students’ Opinions on High School Hazing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is humiliating hazing a good thing?</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>0.922</td>
<td>2.514</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is hazing socially acceptable?</td>
<td>GPA</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>-0.650</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does hazing make us less human?</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>-0.694</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GPA</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>1.882</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>-1.064</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is hazing legal?</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>2.326</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no section on the survey instrument where students could write in their own responses to these questions related to opinions on hazing; however, students did write comments on the survey. Their comments were:

1. Is humiliating hazing a good thing? Two students wrote “sometimes” and one student wrote, “could be.”
2. Is dangerous hazing a good thing? One student marked in between the “yes” and “no” choices with another student adding the comment “if not harmful.”

3. Is hazing socially acceptable? One student marked both “yes” and “no” and three students wrote in the comments: “unfortunately,” “depends on how severe,” and “don’t know.”

4. Does hazing make us less human? One student marked both “yes” and “no” and added “humiliating and pain/danger/drugs.” Another student wrote, “sometimes.”

f) Why Students Participate in Hazing

This section of the survey contained the question “Have you ever been hazed?” Students who marked “no” were directed to skip the rest of this section. Students who marked “yes” were prompted to provide the age when they were first hazed and then to mark reason/s for their participation. Sixty-five (16.2%) of the students in the current sample responded they had been hazed; however, only 56 provided the age at which they were first hazed. Table 9 is a breakdown by age, gender, and number of students who were hazed. Cross tabulation analysis was performed and yielded no statistically significant relationships between the age students were hazed and the demographic variables.
Table 9

*Frequency Table Reporting Age and Gender for When Students Were First Hazed (N = 56)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male ($M = 13.88$)</th>
<th>Female ($M = 14.67$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis (N = 328) was appropriate and found a statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable “Have you ever been hazed?” and the independent variable for gender ($B = 0.733$; odds ratio $= 2.082$; $p = 0.021$). The result indicated a positive relationship between being hazed and being male. Cross tabulation analysis was performed and found 21.6% of the males and 14.3% of the females in the current sample responded they had been hazed.
Students who responded they had been hazed were provided with eight categories of possible reasons for their participation in hazing to join a group. The survey instrument directed them to "mark all that apply." Responses were coded as "0" if the reason was not marked and "1" if the reason was marked. Table 10 is a frequency table for the percentage of students who chose the reason for participating in hazing activities.

Table 10

*Frequency Table for Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Participating in Hazing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Participation</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I just went along with it</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was fun and exciting</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We felt closer as a group</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I got to prove myself</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was scared to say no</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn't know what was happening</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults do it too</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted revenge</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis of the reasons for participating in hazing was not appropriate due to the number of respondents (N < 122). Cross tabulation analysis, one variable at a time, was performed and found statistically significant relationships between two of the reasons students would participate in hazing.
and the demographic variables. More public school students (52.0%) chose “It was fun and exciting” than students attending private schools or being home schooled (16.7%), χ²(1, N = 62) = 4.878, p = .027. Students in rural schools (28.6%) were more likely to be “scared to say no” than students in suburban (6.7%) or urban (0%) schools, χ²(2, N = 56) = 6.620, p = .037. No significant relationships were found for the other reasons students participated in being hazed.

The ninth category in this section was listed as “other.” Students written comments were:

- Wanted to be accepted into group of friends
- It was a ritual
- I knew it wasn’t too bad
- They came to our houses
- I don’t care
- Tradition
- It wasn’t dangerous

\( g) \quad \textbf{Why Students Haze Others} \)

This section of the survey contained the question “Have you hazed others?” and students were prompted to respond “yes” if they had hazed others or “no” if they had not hazed others. Students who had not hazed others were directed to skip the rest of this section. Forty students (14.2%) responded they had hazed others; however, only 31 of these students provided the age they first hazed others. Cross tabulation analysis was performed and yielded no
statistically significant relationships between the age students hazed others and the demographic variables. Table 11 is a breakdown by age, gender, and number of students who had hazed others.

Table 11

Frequency Table for Age and Gender for When Students First Hazed Others

(N = 31)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male (M = 16.00)</th>
<th>Female (M = 16.53)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis was appropriate (N = 242) and found a statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable "have you ever hazed others?" and the independent demographic variable for gender (B = 1.505; odds ratio = 4.505; p = 0.000). The result indicated a positive relationship between hazing others and being male. Cross tabulation analysis was performed and found 22.7% of the male students had hazed others compared to 9.8% of the female students.
The survey contained a section with eight reasons students would participate in hazing others and students were prompted to mark all that applied. Table 12 is a frequency table for the percentage of students who chose the reason for participating in hazing activities.

Table 12

*Frequency Table for Percentage of Students Who Chose the Reason for Hazing Others*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Hazing Others</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was fun and exciting</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We felt closer as a group</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just went along with it</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I got to prove myself</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted revenge</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults do it too</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn't know what was happening</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was scared to say no</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logistic regression analysis was not appropriate for analysis of the eight reasons for participating in hazing of others (N < 122). Cross tabulation analysis with chi-square was performed one variable at a time and yielded no significant relationships between the independent variables and students' reasons for hazing others.
The ninth category in the list of reasons was "other." Students written comments were:

- It's a tradition (2 responses)
- Tradition – a kidnapping breakfast
- Part of society/cultural

**Summary of primary data analysis for null hypothesis one**

Statistical analyses of null hypothesis one on the relationships between entering first year college students' high school hazing experiences and the independent demographic variables demonstrated there were statistically significant relationships in the categories for the dependent variables (consequences, feelings, reporting hazing, preventing hazing, opinions on hazing, why students participate in hazing and why students haze others).

**Secondary analysis of hypothesis one**

In this section, the researcher provides a secondary analysis of the data that was performed to explore five relationships between the dependent variables related to students' experiences with high school hazing. Menard (2000) said this type of analysis is useful "where clues to many potential relationships between variables may be buried in the data" (p. 329).

For the purpose of this analysis, three of the dependent variables were tested as independent variables: "Have you or would you report hazing if you knew about it?," "Have you ever been hazed?," and "Have you hazed others?" to explore relationships with the dependent variables related to students' opinions on hazing, ideas for preventing hazing, consequences of being hazed, and
feelings after being hazed. An analysis was also performed with “have you ever been hazed” and “have you hazed others” as independent variables and “have you or would you report hazing if you knew about it” as a dependent variable to explore this relationship.

Analysis

1. Were there statistically significant relationships between students who marked they would report hazing; had been hazed; or had hazed others and their opinions on hazing?

First Question – Is humiliating hazing a good thing?

Logistic regression with normal completion (N = 240) was achieved and found a statistically significant relationship between the question and reporting hazing (B = -2.500, odds ratio = 0.082, p = .000). The result indicated a negative relationship with students who would report hazing. Cross tabulation analysis found that students who would report hazing (1.6%) were less likely to respond yes to the question than students who would not report hazing (22.2%).

A statistically significant relationship was found between this question and being hazed (B = 1.101, odds ratio = 3.007, p = .045) indicating a positive relationship between this question and students who had been hazed. Students who had been hazed were more likely to respond “yes” to this question (33.3%) than students who had not been hazed (6.0%). A statistically significant relationship was also found between this question and hazing others (B = 1.109, odds ratio = 3.033, p = .047). The result indicated a positive relationship between this question and students who had hazed others. Students who had hazed
others (39.5%) were more likely to respond “yes” to this question than students who had not hazed others (6.9%).

Second Question – Is dangerous hazing a good thing?

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was not achieved; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed one variable at a time. Statistically significant relationships were found between this question and reporting hazing. No students who would report hazing (0.0%) responded “yes” to this question while 2.5% of students who would not report hazing responded “yes,” $\chi^2 (1, N = 345) = 4.625, p = .046$. A statistically significant relationship was also found between this question and being hazed. Students who had been hazed (4.7%) were more likely to respond “yes” to this question than students who had not been hazed (0.3%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 374) = 9.552, p = .017$.

Third Question – Do you know adults who hazed?

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this question and reporting hazing ($B = -1.754$, odds ratio = 0.172, $p = .001$). The result indicated a negative relationship between this question and students who would report hazing. Cross tabulation analysis found that students who would report hazing (21.2%) were less likely to respond yes to this question than students who would not report hazing (37.3%).

Fourth Question – Is hazing socially acceptable?

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this question and
reporting hazing (B = -1.754, odds ratio = 0.173, p = .001). The result indicated a negative relationship between this question and students who would report hazing. Students who would report hazing (21.7%) were less likely to respond “yes” to this question than students who would not report hazing (58.1%).

*Fifth Question – Does hazing make us less human?*

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this question and reporting hazing (B = 0.798, odds ratio = 2.222, p = .009). The result indicated a positive relationship between this question and students who would report hazing. Students who would report hazing (41.3%) were more likely to respond “yes” to this question than students who would not report hazing (23.1%).

*Sixth Question – Is hazing legal?*

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was achieved and yielded no significant relationships with any of the independent variables.

2. *Were there statistically significant relationships between students who marked they would report hazing; had been hazed; or had hazed others and their ideas on how to prevent hazing?* Statistically significant relationships were found for three of the nine prevention ideas on the survey.

*Adults who support positive initiation activities*

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion (N = 224) was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this prevention idea and reporting hazing (B = 1.148, odds ratio = 3.153, p = .001). The result indicated a positive relationship between the idea and students who
would report hazing. Students who would report hazing (39.9%) were more likely to mark this idea as a way to prevent hazing than students who would not report hazing (14.6%).

*Adults who say hazing is not acceptable*

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion (N = 224) was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this prevention idea and reporting hazing (B = 1.048, odds ratio = 2.851, p = .020). The result indicated a positive relationship between the idea and reporting hazing. Students who would report hazing (20.3%) were more likely to choose this prevention idea than students who would not report hazing (12.4%).

*Education about positive initiation and hazing*

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion (N = 224) was achieved and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between this prevention idea and reporting hazing (B = 0.729, odds ratio = 2.073, p = .021). The result indicated a positive relationship between the idea and reporting hazing. Students who would report hazing (37.2%) were more likely to choose this prevention idea than students who would not report hazing (22.6%).

3. *Were there statistically significant relationships between students who had been hazed and students who had hazed others as to the consequences they experienced because of hazing?*

Logistic regression analysis was not appropriate (N < 122); therefore, cross tabulation analyses were performed one variable at a time resulting in a statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable for hazing
others and one of the 13 consequences listed on the survey. Eight of the 14 students (57.1%) who marked they had hazed others chose "got into a fight" as a consequence of the hazing, $\chi^2 (1, N = 21) = 6.462, p = .018$.

4. Were there statistically significant relationships between students who had been hazed and students who had hazed others as to how they felt after being hazed?

Logistic regression analysis was not appropriate (N < 122); therefore, cross tabulation analyses were performed, one variable at a time, resulting in no statistically significant relationships for the 11 feeling categories on the survey.

5. Were there statistically significant relationships between students who had been hazed or had hazed others and whether they would report hazing?

Logistic regression analysis was appropriate (N = 247) and resulted in a statistically significant relationship between being hazed and reporting hazing ($B = -1.453$, odds ratio = 0.234, $p = .001$). The result indicated a negative relationship between reporting hazing and being hazed. Students who had been hazed (23.7%) were less likely to report hazing than students who had not been hazed (59.6%).

Summary of the secondary analysis of hypothesis one

Analysis of the relationships within selected dependent variables resulted in statistically significant relationships between the demographic variables and students' opinions on hazing, consequences and feelings after hazing experiences, whether they would report hazing, and their ideas on ways to prevent high school hazing.
Summary of Null Hypothesis One

Statistical analysis of null hypothesis one resulted in statistically significant relationships between entering first year college students’ high school hazing experiences and the independent demographic variables; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Analysis of Null Hypothesis Two

2. \( H_0 \): There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students when joining a high school group and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. Groups involved the following:

a) sports teams
b) cheerleading squad
c) fraternity or sorority
d) scholastic or intellectual club
e) social club or organization
f) political or social action club
g) music, art, or theatre group
h) vocational or life skills group
i) newspaper, yearbook, or writing organization
j) peer group or gang
k) church group or
l) other
Data were compiled for a high school group if the student marked one or more experiences and was coded as “1” if a category was marked and “0” if not marked. Five possible hazing experiences when joining a group were analyzed.

1. I joined but was not hazed
2. I joined and was hazed
3. I joined and saw hazing happen to others
4. I did not join because I was afraid I would be hazed
5. I tried to join but left the group because of hazing

**Sports teams**

Data on joining sports teams showed that 84 males and 167 females responded they had joined and were not hazed; 10 males and 18 females responded they had been hazed; 29 males and 13 females responded they had joined a sports team and saw hazing happen to others and 1 male and 2 females responded they had not joined a sports team because they were afraid they would be hazed. No students responded they had joined a sports team and left because of hazing.

Logistic regression with normal completion resulted in a statistically significant relationship between gender and the variable “I joined and was not hazed” for sports teams (B = -0.933, odds ratio = 0.393, p = .011). The result indicated a negative relationship between being male and not being hazed to join a sports team. Males (78.5%) were less likely to join a sports team and not be hazed than females (87.9%).
Logistic regression analysis with normal completion also resulted in a statistically significant relationship between gender and the variable "I joined and saw hazing happen to others" (\(B = 1.684\), odds ratio = 5.387, \(p = .001\)). This result indicated a positive relationship between being male and seeing hazing when joining a group. Males (27.1\%) were more likely to join a sports team and see hazing than females (6.8\%).

*Cheerleading squads*

Data on joining cheerleading squads showed that 1 male and 32 females responded they had joined a squad and were not hazed; 4 males and 4 females responded they were hazed when joining a squad; 2 males and 5 females responded they joined and saw hazing happen to others; and 3 females responded they had not joined because they were afraid of being hazed. No students responded they had tried to join a squad and left because of hazing.

Logistic regression with normal completion was not achieved for this category. Cross tabulation analysis found statistically significant relationships between the hazing experience "I joined but was not hazed" and the demographic variables for gender and location. Females (78.0\%) were more likely to have this experience than males (20.0\%), \(\chi^2 (1, N = 46) = 7.400, p = .018\). Students who attended rural high schools (100\%) were more likely to have this experience than students from urban (33.3\%) or suburban (69.6\%) high schools, \(\chi^2 (2, N = 42) = 9.912, p = .006\).
**Scholastic or intellectual clubs**

Data on joining scholastic or intellectual clubs showed that 53 females and 109 females responded they joined a club and were not hazed; 1 female responded joining a club and being hazed; 1 male and 1 female responded joining a club and seeing hazing happen to others; and 2 females responded they did not join a club because they were afraid they would be hazed. No students responded they tried to join and left due to a fear of being hazed.

Logistic regression with normal completion was not achieved for this category; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed. Analysis of hazing experiences in scholastic or intellectual clubs resulted in a statistically significant relationship between religious or spiritual belief and the dependent variable “I joined but was not hazed.” Religious or spiritual students (99.3%) were more likely to have this experience than those who responded they were not religious or spiritual (86.4%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 160) = 12.978, p = .008$.

Statistically significant relationships were found between the hazing experience “I joined and saw hazing happen to others” and the demographic variables for GPA and religious or spiritual belief. Students who reported a high school GPA of 3.00 – 3.49 (10.0%) were more likely to have had this experience. No students at the 2.00 – 2.49 GPA level marked this category and 0.0% of students with a 2.50 – 2.99 or 3.50 – 4.00 GPA marked this category, $\chi^2 (2, N = 162) = 14.378, p = .016$. Students who reported they were not religious or spiritual (9.1%) were more likely to have this experience than those who reported they were religious or spiritual (0.0%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 160) = 12.704, p = .018$. 
**Political or social action clubs**

Data on joining political or social action clubs showed that 22 males and 36 females responded they joined a club and were not hazed; 1 male responded joining a club and seeing hazing happen to others; and 1 female responded she did not join a club because she was afraid she would be hazed. No students reported joining a club and being hazed or trying to join and leaving because they feared being hazed. Logistic regression with normal completion was not achieved for this category; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed one variable at a time and yielded no statistically significant relationships.

**Music, art, or theatre groups**

Data on joining music, art, or theatre groups showed that 67 males and 121 females responded they had joined a group and were not hazed; 5 males and 3 females responded they were hazed when they joined a group; 4 males and 8 females responded they joined a group and saw hazing happen to others; 1 female responded she did not join because she was afraid she would be hazed; and 1 female responded she did not join because she was afraid she would be hazed. Logistic regression with normal completion was not achieved for this category; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed one variable at a time and yielded no statistically significant relationships.

**Vocational or life skills groups**

Data on joining a vocational or life skills group showed that 6 males and 14 females responded they had joined a group and were not hazed; 1 female responded not joining a group because she was afraid she would be hazed. No
students responded experiencing hazing, seeing hazing happen to others, or trying to join and leaving because of hazing.

Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was not achieved for this category; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed one variable at time. A statistically significant relationship was found between the dependent variable "I joined and was not hazed" and the independent variable for ethnicity. Caucasian students (100%) were more likely to have this experience than non-Caucasian students (50.0%), $\chi^2(1, N = 21) = 8.750, p = .015$.

Newspaper, yearbook, or writing groups

Data on joining newspaper, yearbook, or writing groups showed that 17 males and 84 females responded they joined a group and were not hazed; 1 male and 1 female responded they joined a group and saw hazing happen to others; and 1 female responded she did not join because she was afraid she would be hazed. Logistic regression analysis with normal completion was not achieved for this category; therefore, cross tabulation analysis was performed one variable at a time and yielded no statistically significant relationships between the dependent and independent variables.

Summary of Data Analysis for Null Hypothesis Two

Statistically significant relationships were found for sports teams; cheerleading squads; scholastic or intellectual clubs; and vocational or life skills groups. No statistically significant relationships were found for joining a fraternity or sorority; social club or organization; political or social action clubs; music, art, or theatre groups; newspaper, yearbook, or writing groups; peer group or gang;
or church group. Statistical analyses of null hypothesis two found statistically
significant relationships between entering first year college students’ high school
hazing experiences when joining high school groups and the independent
demographic variables; therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

Analysis of Null Hypothesis Three

3. \( H_0: \) There is no significant relationship between the high school hazing
experiences of entering first year college students concerning types of activities
expected of those joining a group or team and the independent variables of
gender; state of residence; ethnic origin; religious preference; school type; school
location; graduation date; and grade point average.

The survey instrument contained a list of 33 activities students might have
participated in when joining a high school group or groups. Please refer to
Appendix G for the survey instrument. The groups were: sports team;
cheerleading squad; fraternity or sorority; scholastic or intellectual club; social
club or organization; political or social action club; music, art, or theatre group,
vocational or life skills group; newspaper or yearbook; peer group or gang; and
church group. Students were directed to mark their experience/s and to
designate which group or groups they were members of when the experience
occurred. Data were compiled for any high school group if the student provided
one or more responses and was coded “0” if the student did not mark the
experience and “1” if the student marked the experience.

The current study was a systematic replication of Alfred University’s 2000
survey on hazing experiences of nationwide high school students. The
researchers for the 2000 Alfred University study conducted a factor analysis on the data related to the 33 activities students might have participated in when joining groups (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). The factor analysis resulted in four categories:

1. Initiation/community building activities
2. Humiliating hazing
3. Dangerous hazing
4. Substance abuse

As previously discussed in chapter 3, for each of the high school groups, the dependent variables for types of activities students participated in when joining groups were collapsed into the four categories found in the 2000 Alfred University study. For example, all dangerous hazing activities for sports teams were collapsed into one dependent variable. This operation was then performed for each high school group for initiation/community building activities, humiliating hazing activities, dangerous hazing activities, and substance abuse activities in all high school groups. Please refer to Appendix J for a breakdown of activities for each category.

A transformation was performed within each of these four categories. The activities expected of students when joining a high school group were transformed into ordinal categories and coded as 0 = did not participate in the activity, 1 = participated in one activity, and 2 = participated in two or more activities.
Initiation and community building activities

Cross tabulation analysis resulted in statistically significant relationships between the independent variables and two high school groups for participation in initiation/community building activities. In sports teams, statistically significant relationships were found between the dependent variable for initiation/community building activities and the independent demographic variables for gender; GPA; and ethnicity. Males (22.5%) were more likely to participate in one activity than females (11.6%); however, females (87.8%) were more likely than males (73.0%) to participate in two or more of these activities, $\chi^2 (2, N = 261) = 10.751$, $p = .004$.

Students who reported a GPA of 2.00 – 2.49 (50%) were more likely to participate in one activity than students at the other GPA levels; however, students who reported a GPA of 3.50 – 4.00 (84.4%) were more likely to participate in two or more activities, $\chi^2 (6, N = 256) = 30.774$, $p = .012$. Non-Caucasian students (31.3%) were more likely to participate in one activity than Caucasian students (12.9%); however, Caucasian students (84.9%) were more likely to participate in two or more activities than non-Caucasian students 68.8%), $\chi^2 (2, N = 257) = 7.815$, $p = .025$.

In political or social action clubs, a statistically significant relationship was found between initiation/community building activities and students’ religious belief. Students who were not religious (60.0%) were more likely to participate in one activity than students who were religious (14.3%); however, students who
reported they were religious (85.7%) were more likely to participate in two or more of these activities than students who were not religious (40.0%),

\[ \chi^2 (1, N = 31) = 6.871, p = .015. \]

The survey instrument contained a section where students could respond to an open-ended question about “other positive activities” they participated in when joining high school groups. Student responses were:

- kidnapped and taken out for breakfast
- teamwork
- volunteering
- little girl camps; volunteering
- working together
- group field trips, parties
- group dinners
- incoming girls were “kidnapped” with parents' permission and taken to breakfast
- work towards group success
- entertainment and visit nursing home, service project in community
- leadership camps/conferences
- covered with many food products
- keeping silent for 24 hours for an honor society in scouting
- we had fun
- community service
Humiliating hazing activities

Cross tabulation analysis resulted in statistically significant relationships between the independent variables and two high school groups for participation in humiliating hazing activities. In sports teams, males (25.3%) were more likely than females (25.3%) to participate in one humiliating hazing activity and males (15.7%) were also more likely than females (11.0%) to participate in two or more activities, $\chi^2 (2, \ N = 262) = 9.745, \ p = .007$.

Statistically significant relationships were found between GPA and humiliating hazing activities in peer groups or gangs. Students who reported a high school GPA of 3.00 – 3.49 (28.6%) were more likely than students with a 3.50 – 4.00 GPA (14.3%) to participate in one activity; however, students with a GPA of 2.50 – 2.99 (100%) were more likely than students who reported a 3.00 – 3.49 (28.6%) or a 3.50 – 4.00 GPA (3.6%) to participate in two or more activities, $\chi^2 (4, \ N = 36) = 13.261, \ p = .009$.

Students responded to the open-ended question about "embarrassing or isolating" activities they participated in when joining high school groups. Responses were:

- dressed people up
- the football team shoved bananas in new recruits butts
- dressing up and getting pushed in a wheelchair

Dangerous hazing activities

Cross tabulation analysis found a statistically significant relationship between gender and dangerous hazing activities in sports teams. Females
(7.5%) were more likely than males (2.2%) to participate in one dangerous hazing activity while males (4.5%) were more likely than females (0.6%) to participate in two or more dangerous hazing activities, \( \chi^2 (2, N = 263) = 7.587, p = .021 \).

A statistically significant relationship was also found between dangerous hazing activities in church groups and high school location. Students who attended urban high schools (16.7%) were the only ones to respond they participated in one dangerous hazing activity, \( \chi^2 (2, N = 86) = 11.743, p = .008 \). Students who attended suburban and rural high schools did not respond they participated in any dangerous hazing activities.

The survey instrument contained a section where students could respond to an open-ended question about participation in activities that were dangerous when joining high school groups. No students wrote responses to this question.

**Substance abuse activities**

Cross tabulation analysis did not yield any statistically significant relationships between substance abuse activities and the independent demographic variables. The survey instrument contained a section where students could respond to an open-ended question about participation in activities that were illegal when joining high school groups. No students wrote responses to this question.

**Summary of the primary analysis of null hypothesis three**

Analysis of the data on activities students participated in when joining sports teams, political or social actions clubs, peer groups or gangs, and church
groups found statistically significant relationships between these activities and the demographic variables.

Secondary analysis of null hypothesis three

When personally entering data for statistical analysis, the researcher noticed a contradiction between responses on the survey. She noticed that students who marked they had not been hazed (on the first page of the survey) would subsequently mark activities (on the second page of the survey) that were considered humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, or substance abuse activities. Cross tabulation analysis found 27.2% of students who marked they had not been hazed subsequently marked participation in hazing activities. Table 13 is the percentages for students who responded they had not been hazed and then marked participation in hazing activities.

Cross tabulation analysis was performed, layered to test for the demographic variables, and did not yield any statistically significant relationships between students who responded they had not been hazed and activities they participated in when joining high school groups.

Summary of the secondary analysis of null hypothesis three

The secondary analysis explored relationships between demographic variables, negative responses to being hazed, and participation in hazing activities when joining high school groups. The data revealed a possible misrepresentation by students regarding what happened in high school related to hazing activities; however, no statistically significant relationships were found.
Table 13

Percentages for Students Who Responded They Had Not Been Hazed and Then Marked Participation in Hazing Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Responded “Not Hazed” (N)</th>
<th>Participated in Hazing Activities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>27.4</td>
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<td>GPA</td>
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<td>2.00 - 2.49</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>33.0</td>
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<td>2.50 - 2.99</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 - 3.49</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.50 - 4.00</td>
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<td>27.5</td>
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<td>High school location</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suburban</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>28.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>24.0</td>
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<td>Religious or Spiritual</td>
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<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>246</td>
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<td>28.9</td>
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<td>Private/Home Schooled</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>18.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demographic Variables</td>
<td>Responded &quot;Not Hazed&quot; (N)</td>
<td>Participated in Hazing Activities</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>26.1</td>
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<td>Iowa</td>
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<td>States Adj. to IA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other States/International</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>320</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>27.2</td>
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</table>

**Summary of the Analysis of Null Hypothesis Three**

Statistical analysis of null hypothesis three found statistically significant relationships between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students concerning types of activities expected of those joining a group or team and the demographic variables; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Analysis of Null Hypothesis Four**

4. $H_0$ There is no significant difference between the observed frequencies from the current study and the expected frequencies based on the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing among nationwide high school students.

The final report for the Alfred University study published tables providing frequencies (percentages) for hazing experiences reported by high school
students nationwide. Researchers for the Alfred University study wrote, “unless otherwise noted, student behaviors are based on 1,390 students involved in one or more high school groups from 1,541 total respondents” (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p 3). The researcher for the current study did not have access to the data set for the 2000 Alfred University study; therefore, testing for significant differences between this study and the current study was limited to the following hazing experiences:

a) Percentage of students participating in humiliating hazing, substance abuse, or dangerous hazing activities
b) Percentage of students participating in community building activities
c) Percentage of students hazed to join specific organizations
d) Percentage of students who suffered negative consequences
e) Students’ feelings about being hazed
f) Percentage of students who would not report hazing and why they would not report it
g) Students’ ideas on preventing hazing

Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were performed to compare observed frequencies from the current study with expected frequencies reported in the Alfred University study.

a) Percentage of students participating in humiliating hazing, substance abuse, or dangerous hazing activities.
Humiliating hazing experiences

The survey instrument contained 10 categories of activities that were defined in the Alfred University study as humiliating hazing activities. These activities were considered to be "socially offensive, isolating, or uncooperative behaviors" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4). Comparing percentages between which group of students was more likely to participate in a particular activity found that student participation by males, females, and the total sample was less for students in the current study. Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were performed to determine statistically significant differences for males, females, and the total sample (males and females) between the current study and the Alfred University study.

Statistically significant differences were found percentages for the humiliating hazing activities reported in the current study and what would have been expected given the percentages for the humiliating activities reported in the Alfred University study. Please see Appendix L for a summary of the goodness-of-fit analyses for these hazing activities.

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for gender (males) in 4 of the 10 humiliating hazing categories:

- associate with specific people and not others
- be thrown into a pool, ocean, creek, or toilet
- tattoo, pierce, or shave yourself or others

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for gender (females) in 8 of the 10 humiliating hazing categories:
be yelled, cursed, or sworn at
associate with specific people and not others
act as a personal servant to older members
undress or tell dirty stories or jokes
embarrass yourself publicly
tattoo, pierce, or shave yourself or others
eat or drink disgusting things
deprive yourself or food, sleep, or cleanliness

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for the total sample population in all 10 humiliating hazing experience categories.

Substance abuse activities

The survey contained five categories of activities that were defined in the Alfred University study as substance abuse activities. These activities were considered to be “abuse of tobacco, alcohol, or illegal drugs” (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4). Comparing percentages between which group of students was more likely to participate in a substance abuse activity found that student participation for males, females, and the total sample was less for students in the current study. Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were performed to determine significant differences for males, females, and the total sample (males and females) between the current study and the Alfred University study.

Statistically significant differences were found between percentages for substance abuse activities found in the current study and what would have been expected given the percentages for substance abuse activities reported in the
Alfred University study. Please see Appendix L for a summary of the goodness-of-fit analyses for these activities. Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for males, females, and the total sample in all five of the substance abuse activities.

**Dangerous hazing activities**

The survey contained eight categories of activities that were defined in the Alfred University study as dangerous hazing activities. These activities were considered to be “hurtful, aggressive, destructive, and disruptive behaviors” (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4). Comparing percentages between which group of students was more likely to participate in a dangerous hazing activity found that participation by males and the total sample was less for students in the current study. The percentage of participation for females was less in the current study for all dangerous hazing activities except for participation in an activity that involved “being tied up or exposed to extreme cold.”

Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were performed to determine significant differences for males, females, and the total sample between the current study and the Alfred University study. Statistically significant differences were found between percentages for dangerous hazing activities in the current study and what would have been expected given the percentages for dangerous hazing activities reported in the Alfred University study.

Please see Appendix L for a summary of the goodness-of-fit analyses for the dangerous hazing activities. Statistically significant differences were found
between the two studies for gender (males) in six of the eight dangerous hazing activities:

- make prank phone calls or harass others
- destroy or vandalize property
- steal, cheat, or commit a crime
- beat up others or pick a fight with someone
- be tied up or exposed to extreme cold
- be physically abused or beaten

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for gender (females) in six of the eight dangerous hazing activities:

- make prank phone calls or harass others
- destroy or vandalize property
- steal, cheat, or commit a crime
- beat up others or pick a fight with someone
- be physically abused or beaten
- be cruel to animals

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for the total sample and six of the eight dangerous hazing activities:

- make prank phone calls or harass others
- destroy or vandalize property
- steal, cheat, or commit a crime
- beat up others or pick a fight with someone
- be physically abused or beaten
be cruel to animals

b) Percentage of students participating in community building activities

The survey contained 10 categories of activities that were defined in the Alfred University study as community building initiation. These activities were defined as "pro-social behaviors that build social relationships, understanding, empathy, civility, altruism and moral decision-making" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 3). Comparing percentages on which group of students was more likely to participate in a particular activity found that student participation varied between the two studies. For example, students in the current study (male, female, and total sample) were less likely to "dress up formally for events" while students in the Alfred University study (male, female, and total sample) were less likely to "keep a specific grade point average."

Chi-square goodness-of-fit analyses were performed to determine statistically significant differences between males, females, and the total sample and the current study and the Alfred University study. Statistically significant differences were found between percentages for community building initiation activities in the current study and what would have been expected given the percentages for community building initiation activities reported in the Alfred University study.

Please see Appendix L for a summary of the goodness-of-fit analyses for these hazing activities. Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for gender (males) in 2 of the 10 community building initiation activities:
- dress up formally for events
- play games together

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for gender (females) in 4 of the 10 community building initiation activities:

- dress up formally for events
- undertake group projects, work camps
- group singing or cheering
- be a mentor, a buddy

Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for the total sample in 3 of the 10 community building initiation activities:

- keep a specific GPA
- dress up formally for events
- play games together

c) Percentage of students hazed to join specific organizations

Ten percent of the students in the current study responded they had been hazed to join high school groups compared to 48.0% of the students in the Alfred University study. Table 14 is a comparison between percentages for students hazed to join high school groups in the current study and the Alfred University study. For the current study, percentages are ranked in order from greatest to least participation percent.
Table 14

Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on
Percentage Distribution for Students Hazed to Join High School Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>Alfred Study (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sports Teams</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheerleading</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Group/Gang</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music, Theatre</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church Group</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholastic Club</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Club</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraternity/Sorority</td>
<td>0.00(^a)</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Group</td>
<td>0.00(^a)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Group</td>
<td>0.00(^a)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>0.00(^a)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) No students responded they were hazed to join these groups

Chi-square goodness-of-fit analyses were performed to determine significant differences between students who responded having been hazed to join high school groups in the current study and students who responded having been hazed to join high school groups in the Alfred University study. Table 15 is a summary of these analyses.
Table 15

Summary of Chi-square Goodness-Of-Fit Analyses for Students Who Reported Being Hazed to Join High School Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Observed (N)</th>
<th>Expected (N)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sports Team</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>85.372</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music, Art, Theatre</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>38.854</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheerleading</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.166</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Group/Gang</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>127.312</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>52.032</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholastic Club</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>20.421</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Club</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>44.819</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraternity/Sorority</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Group</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Group</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Chi-square analysis not performed because observed frequency was "0"

d) Percentage of students who suffered negative consequences

Twenty-three students (5.7%) in the current study reported experiencing consequences as a result of being hazed. Table 16 is a comparison between consequences students reported in the current study and consequences students reported in the Alfred University study. For the current study, percentages are ranked in order from greatest to least percentage of students who experienced the consequence.
Table 16

Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Percentage of Students Who Experienced One or More Consequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consequences</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>Alfred Study (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Got into a fight</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got sick</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was injured</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committed a crime</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fought with my parents</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got in trouble with police</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit going out with friends</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missed school, practice, game, meeting</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurt someone else</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had difficulty eating, sleeping, concentrating</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was convicted of a crime</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considered suicide</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did poorly on school work</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square goodness-of-fit analyses were performed to determine statistically significant differences between consequences reported by students in the current study and consequences reported by students in the Alfred University study. A statistically significant difference (p = .050) was found between the
consequence "did poorly on school work" for students in the current study and what would have been expected given the responses from students in the Alfred University study.

e) Students' feelings about being hazed

Sixty students (15.0%) in the current study reported feelings they experienced after being hazed. Table 17 is a comparison between feelings reported by students in the current study and feelings reported by students in the Alfred University study.

Table 17

Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Feelings Students Experienced After Being Hazed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>Alfred Study (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part of the group</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrassed</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted revenge</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regretful</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilty</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confused</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusted</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chi-square goodness-of-fit analyses were performed to determine statistically significant differences between feelings reported by students in the current study and feelings reported by students in the Alfred University study. Table 18 is the result of the analysis.

Table 18
Summary of Chi-square Goodness of Fit Test for Students' Feelings After Being Hazed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Observed (N)</th>
<th>Expected (N)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>5.934</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>5.686</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>13.413</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilty</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>9.038</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusted</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>6.870</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>10.417</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of students who would not report hazing and why they would not report it

A statistically significant difference was found between the two studies for students who would not report hazing. Forty-seven percent of students in the current study responded they would not report hazing compared to 40.0% in the Alfred University study, $\chi^2 (1, N = 355) = 7.336, p = .007$. Table 19 is a comparison between reasons students chose for not reporting hazing in the
current study and reasons students chose for not reporting hazing in the Alfred University study.

Table 19

Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Reasons Students Would Not Report Hazing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>Alfred University Study (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just wouldn't tell on my friends no matter what</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults wouldn't know how to handle it right</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other kids would make my life miserable</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There's no one to tell, who could I tell?</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square goodness-of-fit analyses were performed to determine statistically significant differences between the two studies for reasons students would not report hazing and found statistically significant differences for all five of the reasons. Table 20 is a summary of the analysis.

Table 20

Summary of Chi-square Goodness of Fit Test for Reasons Students Would Not Report Hazing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Observed (N)</th>
<th>Expected (N)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>16.433</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just wouldn't tell on my friends no matter what</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>10.549</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults wouldn't know how to handle it right</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>5.676</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other kids would make my life miserable</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>6.554</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There's no one to tell, who could I tell?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>40.627</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
g) Ideas on preventing hazing

The survey instrument contained nine categories of ideas on preventing hazing. Table 21 is a comparison of students' responses between the current study and the Alfred University study on their ideas on ways to prevent hazing.

Table 21

Comparison Between the Current Study and the 2000 Alfred University Study on Percentage Distribution for Ideas on Preventing High School Hazing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prevention Idea</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>Alfred Study (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong discipline for hazing</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police investigation and prosecution</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive, bonding activities</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education about positive initiation and hazing</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students sign a “no hazing” agreement</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults who support positive initiation activities</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good behavior required to join a group</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults who say hazing is not acceptable</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically challenging activities</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square goodness-of-fit analysis of the ideas students chose for preventing hazing found statistically significant differences between the current study and the 2000 Alfred University study for seven of the nine prevention ideas. Table 22 is the result of the analysis.
### Table 22

**Summary of the Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit Test for Ideas to Prevent Hazing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idea</th>
<th>Observed (N)</th>
<th>Expected (N)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong discipline</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>193.4</td>
<td>8.711</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“No hazing” agreement</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>6.491</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good behavior required</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>13.610</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults who support positive initiation activities</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>107.8</td>
<td>7.950</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults who say hazing is not acceptable</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>18.068</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically challenging activities</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>29.215</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education about positive initiation and hazing</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>116.9</td>
<td>5.387</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary of Null Hypothesis Four**

Statistical analysis of null hypothesis four resulted in significant differences between the current study and the Alfred University study; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.
Analysis of the Focus Group

Thirty-two students originally signed permission forms agreeing to participate in a focus group. At the time of the session, six students agreed to participate. The focus group was conducted on Sunday, November 17, 2002, from 5:00 p.m. to 6:30 p.m. at a facility within walking distance from the university. Pizza and non-alcoholic beverages were provided. Four of the six students came on the scheduled evening. The group consisted of one male and three female students.

When students arrived for the session, they were provided with a blank copy of the high school hazing survey as a reference, a pen, and a form to fill out providing demographic information and three questions on high school hazing. They were asked to provide the demographic information and write down their thoughts on the three questions as a way to generate ideas for the discussion. Please see Appendix M for the form. Each student was also asked to sign a current permission form to document that they agreed to participate and to be videotaped and audio-taped during the session. Please see Appendix I for the focus group permission form.

Prior to the beginning of the session, the researcher explained that the purpose of the session was to discuss the students’ high school hazing experiences and not any experiences they might have had since attending college. She encouraged everyone to participate and be willing to listen to everyone’s ideas.
The ratio of male (25.0%) to female (75.0%) students participating in the focus group was approximately the same as the gender ratio responding to the survey (35.6% male to 64.4% female). Table 23 is a summary of the demographic information for the focus group participants. Pseudonyms were used for students' names to assure confidentiality in the results.

Table 23

Summary of Demographic Information for Focus Group Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Graduation</th>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Religious</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Janice</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>KS</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joan</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>MN</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>Suburban</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>WI</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>yes &amp; no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sally</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student responses to the three questions on the form they filled out prior to the focus group were listed verbatim below:

1. How would you define hazing?
   - any harmful act that must be committed or experienced in order to gain membership to a group or organization
   - acts of harming people, making people do things they don't want to do
   - being forced to do something (in effect, hurting someone more mentally than physically)
   - activities done to younger or new members of an organization/class to "welcome" them
2. What types of activities do you consider to be hazing?

- typical things seen in the media, i.e., use of a paddle, humiliating initiation activities, etc.
- making people do things that make them feel dumb. Forcing people do to stuff.
- drinking in groups, telling someone to do something if they want to join, drugs, sex.
- one student did not provide a response

3. What do you think would prevent hazing?

- not much – maybe if one generation would stop, others would follow
- strict punishment, more supervision
- there are laws that could help, but I don’t think you can stop hazing. It is too much “hush hush” to watch over it.
- law enforcement

Coding of the focus group data resulted in four general themes: students’ perceptions on hazing vs. initiation; the adult’s (principal, teacher, coach, parent) role in hazing; why students participate in hazing; and students’ feelings about reporting hazing.

Defining hazing

Student responses to the question “what is your definition of hazing” showed they held a variety of perceptions on what hazing is and is not. When discussing the relationship between upperclassmen and freshmen regarding activities used to gain acceptance in high school, activities that could be viewed
as hazing (girls stripping down to their bras and panties, having Vaseline and eggs put in girls' hair) were seen, by these students, as a "way to teach respect," "way to put them [freshmen] in their place," and to let "underclassmen know that seniors are higher than them but still accept them." Mark told about being pushed into a wall and getting bruises on his shoulder; however, Joan considered having eggs and Vaseline put in her hair "fun" and a "bonding thing."

When asked to differentiate between hazing and initiation, students viewed hazing as dangerous with a negative outcome and initiation as a positive experience. However, drawing a clear line between hazing and initiation appeared to be difficult. Mark commented, "Every person can handle more humiliation than another person." The vagueness of this student's comment indicated the difficulty in obtaining a consensus on a hazing definition. Joan said she would consider the "line to be drawn when somebody's well being and health are endangered." When asked how she would know if someone had reached their limit on how much humiliation they could take, she answered that she would stop it if she saw "someone crying or looking as though they were seriously hurt." Mark added that an activity becomes hazing when "a person's personal rights are broken."

*The adult's role*

Students' perceptions on the adult's role in hazing involved parents, coaches, and school administrators. All of the students in the group said that their high schools had "cracked down" on hazing before they got there. Information on hazing was available in handbooks but none of the students
remembered much being said by teachers or school administrators about hazing and the ramifications of participating in such activities. Sally said she thought the only people who used the word “hazing” were high school administration.

Students shared incidences where principals, teachers, and coaches were either involved in perpetuating hazing or did nothing to stop it. Mark said the principal at his high school would have seniors talk to freshmen to handle problems. He also shared how his band instructor would tell a senior to take care of a problem with a younger student:

If there was a problem, the band instructor didn’t have time (this was mainly marching band), didn’t have time to do anything with them so he would have seniors go talk to them and there were physical times. I mean, we would never leave a mark or do anything bad, but I mean there were times when we were actually told to go tell them what’s up and maybe be a little more demanding than what someone who was a teacher or administrator could do just because obviously a teacher can’t come up to you and grab you by the arm and say, “listen here,” but the senior could.

Janice talked about the teachers at her school and how 75% of them had attended that same high school and would not do anything when hazing was reported. The other teachers, who had not attended that high school, were more willing to do something about a hazing incident. Sally said students might take hazing more seriously if they knew they would get kicked out of a game as a punishment. She went on to say, however, “I think coaches even turn away from it, oh well, that happened to us when we were in high school, too. That just kind of makes them not care.”

When discussing the parent’s role in preventing hazing, all of the students believed parents needed to tell their children hazing was not acceptable. They
said that parental influence was more important than police involvement; however, Sally commented that by the time students are in high school, whether to haze became more about what was socially acceptable.

Police involvement was discussed with Sally saying, if police were involved students might “take it a little more seriously.” Joan responded that police came out during their activities (putting eggs and Vaseline in students’ hair) just to make sure everyone was ok. She said this was perceived as the police condoning the activity. Another aspect of police involvement was the students’ belief that laws did not work because police knew the parents and they did not want to see the students get in trouble with the law or have something on their record. The students said they did not hear much about hazing while in high school and that it will happen whether legal or not.

Why students participate

The students were then asked what they thought were reasons students participated in hazing as a victim, a perpetrator, or a witness. Reasons given for participating in a hazing activity included a feeling of acceptance from peers, to prove yourself, to be part of the “in” crowd, to see who your friends are, and to gain the power to haze others. Joan said, “You have the power because you are a senior. Whereas it’s just a matter of how you use it that differentiates.” Another reason to participate was if a student perceived hazing as socially acceptable. Joan stated her experience of having eggs and Vaseline put in her hair, “It was fun. I enjoyed it.”
When asked why students haze others, they talked about hazing younger members to show that the older members were in charge and as a way to teach the younger members respect. There was also the sentiment that, because it had been done to them, they looked forward to being able to haze others. In addition, the students said those involved might perceive hazing differently when they are the perpetrator than they did as the victim. Although participants did not use the term "power," this concept appeared to be a reason that students hazed others.

When asked what they thought were reasons a witness to a hazing incident would not try to stop it, Mark said that if someone tried to stop hazing "you look like an idiot" and students might not want to associate with you. Another reason might be the witness does not see the activity as hazing. Sally said, "Like I said, I don't think our high school had a lot of hazing, but maybe that's because I think of high school hazing as something extremely severe like saran wrapping someone to a tree and leaving them there or something. Doing just really strange stuff to them."

Reporting hazing

The students were asked why they believed hazing often was not reported. Topics related to this subject were secrecy surrounding hazing, the "hush, hush" surrounding hazing, fear of retaliation, and how students felt after being hazed.

Secrecy still surrounds hazing in high schools. Even though policies against hazing were found in handbooks, the students said rumors were still heard about hazing. They believed there were too many "behind the scenes"
activities for hazing to be stopped. They said students might not want anyone to know that they were hazed, especially if it made the student look different.
Nothing good was going to come out of telling anyone, particularly if a student did not know hazing was illegal, felt laws were not enforced, or did not believe adults would do anything about the incident.

Retaliation was another issue students might face if they reported hazing. The students in the group compared reporting hazing to being a “narc” and said the student who told would “get it more behind the scenes” and not be accepted into the group. Another outcome of reporting hazing was members of the group might quit associating with the student who told on them.

Students related their beliefs associated with whether to report hazing back to the adult’s role in preventing hazing. They said if students did not believe a teacher or school administration would do anything about the hazing, they would not bother to report it. When principals and teachers tell students to take care of problems with younger students because they are not able to, this leaves a perception that the teacher will not do anything about a hazing incident.

Students also said, if hazing was the means to gain entrance into a group, then it would be viewed as necessary and not something to report. There appeared to be a difference between being in an activity and actually being a part of the group. Students could be involved in the activity without being considered part of the “in” group. Hazing was the activity that separated a student from just being in an activity and actually being accepted into the group.
Preventing hazing

Students were then asked what methods they thought could be used to prevent hazing. Mark proposed the idea of having speakers come in and tell their personal experiences with hazing. The students thought this would provide a more personal touch to the problems associated with hazing. Another idea was for adults to step in and punish students who hazed. Finding a way to get upperclassmen to stop hazing underclassmen was also seen as a way to stop the hazing cycle; however, this might prove difficult when older students encourage younger students to deal with it and get through it. Janice discussed her cousin and how miserable she was right now because she thought everyone was making fun of her. Janice said she told her to "just stick in it" because she would benefit later.

At this point in the session, the students appeared to have finished sharing their own opinions and beliefs about hazing, so the researcher asked them if they had any questions or wanted to share anything else on the topic of high school hazing. They asked her if she had talked to students who are currently in high school because they thought these students would view hazing differently than they did. She asked them to elaborate on how their views might be different now. Looking back on their high school experiences, they said:

Mark: "It's not something that maybe, of course, you're going to want done your whole life, but it builds character to actually be put in a position where you have no choice in the matter. That's life."
Joan: "They [underclassmen] need to be shown how things work, and the way things are."

Janice: "Because I allowed myself to be the butt of every joke my freshman year, I grew into the ‘in’ group and it wasn't just because I wanted to fit in. These people were my friends."

However, when asked how they thought they might have responded if asked while still in high school, they said:

Mark: "Whereas in that point of time, I probably would think there's no reason for that."

Sally: "I think you would get a very different response from a freshman or sophomore. So I know they see it a lot differently than someone who has already been through it."

Joan: "Yeah, if you're going through it, of course if you're getting beat up, you would be like yeah, make them stop this."

Janice: "Definitely I think I would have had a different opinion of it three years ago."

Another question students asked the researcher was whether she had done studies in the inner city or rural areas. The students in the group, who all attended public high schools, had their own ideas on what would be found regarding hazing in private schools. Mark said that a friend of his who went to a private school found fewer hazing incidences, but those that occurred were "bigger." Sally said that what is done in the public schools involved older kids
picking on the younger kids because it happened when they were little whereas in the private schools it was "a definite hazing type thing."

_Hazing v. initiation_

To help summarize, the researcher asked them to use the flip chart to write their definitions for _hazing v. initiation_. Table 24 is the participants' definitions of these terms. One hour into the session, students appeared to be finished discussing their ideas about high school hazing. The researcher thanked them for coming and talking about hazing. No participants expressed concern about their comments being used in the study.

Table 24

*Focus Group Participants' Definitions of Hazing v. Initiation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You would want the experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Result would be feeling part of the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free will acts—lesson on how things work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive connotation—hazing is negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To teach a lesson so there is an outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hazing</td>
<td>Hurting someone mentally more than physically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forcing it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Something dangerous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has no beneficial effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Something the senior members can make someone do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuse of power</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researcher gave each student a small “finals week survival gift bag” containing pencils, pens, a highlighter, small note pads, and assorted candies as a thank you for participating in the focus group.

Summary of the Focus Group

Students who participated in the focus group shared many ideas and thoughts regarding high school hazing. The students were relaxed with each other and often smiled, nodded their heads, or laughed when another student talked about a high school experience. There was a general consensus that high school hazing was no longer a big problem at their high schools; however, they did believe that hazing would always be a part of the high school experience.

Themes related to hazing – its definition, abuse of power, the importance of the adult’s role, why students participate, the secrecy that surrounds the phenomenon, why they believed students did not report hazing, and methods to prevent hazing were discussed through these four students’ experiences. None of the students in the focus group talked about being permanently affected by a high school hazing experience; however, they did express their current views about their high school hazing experiences were different from how they felt at the time of the incidents.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the researcher reviews the findings of the study in relationship to the null hypotheses and information gleaned from the focus group. Included in the chapter are: a summary of the analyses, discussion of the findings, conclusions drawn from the discussion, and recommendations for future research. Implications for practitioners are also presented.

The current study was designed as a systematic replication, with a different population, of a nationwide study on high school hazing conducted by Alfred University in 2000. The Alfred University researchers mailed the survey on high school hazing to 20,000 high school junior and senior students nationwide. The researchers received 1,541 surveys that were considered complete and useable resulting in an 8.28% response rate.

A response rate of 50% for a mailed survey is considered “adequate” with a response rate of 70% considered “very good” (Babbie, 1992, p. 267). The researcher for the current study, in an effort to improve the Alfred University study’s response rate, personally distributed the survey to an ad hoc sample of 458 entering first year college students at a private midwestern university. Four hundred and two completed, useable surveys were collected resulting in an 87.7% response rate. While personally distributing the survey greatly improved the response rate, the procedure also limited the number of survey respondents to students at one higher education institution.
The survey used in the Alfred University study was adapted, with permission, for the current study. To add to the survey data, participants in the current study were offered the opportunity to volunteer and participate in a follow-up focus group. The focus group provided the researcher with an opportunity to delve deeper into the beliefs and opinions these particular students held on high school hazing.

The student cohort involved in the current survey was 64% female and 36% male. The majority of participants was Caucasian, graduated from high school in 2002, held high school GPAs of 3.50 – 4.00, came from public suburban high schools in Iowa or states adjacent to Iowa, and considered themselves religious or spiritual. The survey contained a variety of categories related to high school hazing. Questions ranged from personal experiences related to hazing when joining high school groups to questions about opinions on hazing, whether students had been hazed or had hazed others, consequences of hazing, feelings after being hazed or hazing others, and ways to prevent hazing.

To the knowledge of the researcher, this is the first study on the autobiographical memories of entering first year college students on their high school hazing experiences and the first systematic replication of the 2000 Alfred University study on high school hazing with a different population.

Summary of the Findings

In this section, the researcher summarizes the findings reported in the analysis chapter in relation to the four null hypotheses and the focus group.
The first null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. The null hypothesis was rejected because statistically significant relationships were found between the independent variables and the dependent variables for high school hazing experiences (consequences of hazing, feelings after being hazed, ideas for preventing hazing, opinions on hazing, why students participate in hazing, and why students hazed others).

The second null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students when joining a group and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average. The null hypothesis was rejected because statistically significant relationships were found between the independent variables and the dependent variables for students' experiences when joining sports teams; cheerleading squads; scholastic or intellectual clubs; and vocational or life skills groups.

The third null hypothesis stated there were no significant relationships between the high school hazing experiences of entering first year college students for the types of activities expected of those joining a group or team and the independent variables of gender, state of residence, ethnic origin, religious preference, school type, school location, graduation date, and grade point average.
average. The null hypothesis was rejected because statistically significant relationships were found between the independent variables and dependent variables for types of activities students participated in when joining sports teams; political or social action clubs; peer groups or gangs; and church groups.

The fourth null hypothesis stated there were no significant differences between the observed frequencies from the current study and the expected frequencies based on the 2000 Alfred University study on hazing among nationwide high school students. The null hypothesis was rejected because statistically significant differences were found between the observed frequencies in the current study and the expected frequencies in the 2000 Alfred University study.

Analysis of the focus group session conducted in November 2002 resulted in information on high school hazing from four students who had participated in the survey and volunteered to participate in the focus group. The focus group involved discussion on the students' beliefs, experiences, and opinions about high school hazing. Information gleaned from the session added richness and depth to the current study through these students' personal experiences and ideas on the topic. The students freely discussed their varying definitions of hazing, related personal experiences with hazing, and offered their insights on the topic. They explored their memories of high school hazing and speculated on how time might have affected their current views. They also questioned the researcher on her study and encouraged her to conduct additional research on the topic within high schools.
Analysis of the data on high school hazing from the current survey and focus group showed that high school students did not mind sharing their ideas on high school hazing and they were at risk for being involved in high school hazing activities.

Discussion

Students' Ideas on High School Hazing

The survey provided opportunities for students to respond to a variety of questions about high school hazing. The 87.7% response rate showed that participants in the current study did not mind discussing their ideas on high school hazing. One reason they might have been willing to respond to the survey was they were no longer in high school and could freely express their ideas without fear of retaliation. Although this reason was solely the opinion of the researcher, the secrecy surrounding hazing has been well documented in the literature (Hoover & Pollard, 2000; Nuwer, 2000). Secrecy can lead to potential negative consequences to the individual “whistleblower”. The environment and timing of this survey removed those potential consequences.

Although students were willing to respond to the survey, their responses were limited to positive or negative choices that might have restricted what they really wanted to say. In some instances, students wrote on the survey to tell the researcher more about their answers including clarifications for why they would, or would not report hazing; additional reasons they participated in hazing activities; consequences from hazing, feelings after being hazed, and prevention ideas.
Reporting hazing

Statistically significant relationships were found between reporting hazing and the demographic variables for gender and GPA. The data showed that the type of student most likely to report hazing was female with a GPA of 3.50 – 4.00. One could postulate that males might be less inclined to report hazing because they would not want to appear “weak”; however, multiple other explanations could be offered, and profiling gender differences was beyond the scope of this dissertation.

A statistically significant relationship was also found between reporting hazing and whether a student had been hazed. Students who had been hazed were less likely to respond they would report hazing. While this was not necessarily a surprising finding, it did indicate a challenge to practitioners when trying to obtain data on hazing activities in their respective institutions.

A statistically significant difference on reporting hazing was found between the current study and the Alfred University study. Forty percent of respondents to the Alfred University study would not report hazing compared to 47% of respondents to the current study. One possible explanation for a higher percentage of students in the current study responding they would not report hazing might be the difference in time frame between the two studies. Students in the current study might be looking back and deciding that their experiences were not that bad so there was nothing to report. Another possible explanation is students completing the survey were responding based on what they would do in the present time regarding reporting hazing. In the focus group, Mark expressed
how his view on hazing had changed in retrospect and being "punched on the arm" no longer seemed traumatic. Another explanation might be that, students filling out the current survey had been hazed in high school, reported it, and had bad experiences as a result (i.e., shunned by peers or injured due to retaliation by group members). These experiences might have changed these students' views on reporting hazing and they responded based on their current view that they would not report hazing.

The current survey listed five reasons students might not report hazing. Students who responded they would not report hazing were asked to choose all the reasons that applied to this decision. A statistically significant relationship was found between the reason "it's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen" and religious or spiritual belief. Students who responded they were religious were more likely to choose this as a reason for not reporting hazing. A statistically significant relationship was also found between the reason "other kids would make my life miserable" and the region where students attended high school. Students who attended high schools in states adjacent to Iowa (but not in Iowa) were less likely to choose this reason for not reporting hazing.

Statistically significant differences were found between the current study and the Alfred University study for all five of the reasons students would not report hazing. A clue the reasons for not reporting hazing were different between the two studies might be found when comparing the top reason students gave in each study. The greatest percentage of students responding to the Alfred University study chose "adults wouldn't know how to handle it right" while
students responding to the current study chose "it's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen." This difference might be due to the time frame difference between the studies and reflect the difference in developmental stage the students were at when completing the surveys. Students responding to the Alfred University study were still in high school and dependent on adult reaction if they reported hazing. Students responding to the current study were more likely to consider themselves adults and, in retrospect, might now view high school activities differently. Unfortunately, this could also lead one to speculate that this is a reason adults sometimes do not handle hazing situations right if they have become more tolerant or forgotten their true emotions after past experiences.

The students' struggle to provide insights on reporting hazing, and the restrictions of survey research, were apparent when some respondents shared more than a "yes" or "no" response about reporting hazing by writing comments on the survey. The comments below appeared to demonstrate students placed their own level of severity on hazing activities and whether reporting was necessary. In relationship to whether they would report hazing, they wrote:

- "Depends on the severity"
- One student marked "it's not a problem" but crossed out the rest of the sentence that said "sometimes accidents happen" changing the statement to "it's not a problem most of the time".
- One student added the comment – "I wasn't there, didn't see it"
- "It all depends"
- "it's not that big of deal as long as no one gets hurt"
• "Depends on the situation"

Participants in the focus group provided some insights into this dilemma on reporting hazing. They talked about the "hush, hush" and the secrecy that surrounded hazing in their high schools. Another reason for not reporting hazing was the fear of retaliation from other students. Students who told were often viewed as "narcs" and they might "get it more behind the scenes" from their peers.

Other reasons provided by the focus group participants for not reporting hazing involved (a) students who did not know if hazing was legal, (b) whether laws in place were enforced, and (c) whether students believed adults would do anything about the incident. Janice shared that, in her high school, 75% of the teachers had attended that same high school. She opined they did not do anything about hazing because the teachers had been hazed or participated in hazing when they were students in the high school and did not consider hazing a problem. This appeared to create a multi-generational tradition. She said that, when students did not see any punishment for hazing, reporting became futile.

This lack of punishment by high school administrators when responding to hazing activities might stem from a difference between their definition for hazing and what the student perceived as hazing. If adults lose perspective on how humiliating or dangerous a particular activity could be to a student, they might tend to downplay feelings the student expressed in relation to the hazing event. Another reason for no punishment or a moderate punishment (i.e., suspension from one game) might be reluctance on the part of high school administrators...
and parents to put a bad mark on a student's record, particularly if the student is perceived as one who will go on to college or is popular in sports. This has been called the "halo effect" in the literature and sends the wrong message to students who want to see hazing activities stopped (Nuwer, 2000, p. 43).

The Alfred University study and the current study (including the survey and focus group) revealed that reporting hazing was difficult for some students. Whether this is due to the fear adults would not handle it right, the fear their peers would make life unbearable, or for other reasons, the result might lead to the perpetuation of high school hazing activities.

*Statements related to opinions on hazing*

On the survey, students responded "yes" or "no" to six statements about hazing. Males were more likely to agree with the statement, "Humiliating hazing is good" and "dangerous hazing is a good thing" while female students and students with a higher GPA were more likely to agree with the statement that hazing "makes us less human." Students with a lower GPA were more likely to agree with the statement "dangerous hazing is a good thing" and hazing is "socially acceptable."

The researcher did not have access to the raw data for the Alfred University study; therefore differences in frequencies between the two studies regarding students' agreement or disagreement with these statements about hazing could not be determined. Even so, the Alfred University researchers did report in their findings that students who believed hazing was socially acceptable
and knew adults who hazed were more likely to be involved in humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, and substance abuse activities.

Statistically significant relationships were found between males and females on the legality of hazing with males more likely to respond that hazing was legal. However, 42% of the males and 46% of the females responded they did not know if hazing was legal. These percentages were close to the 40% found for students’ responses to the Alfred University study. It would appear that maturity did not result in a better understanding of the laws regarding hazing.

The data revealed that students who would not report hazing, had been hazed, and had hazed others were more likely to agree, “Humiliating hazing is good”. Students who would not report hazing and had been hazed were more likely to agree with the statement, “Dangerous hazing is a good thing.” Students who would not report hazing also were more likely to know adults who hazed and respond that haz ing was socially acceptable. These findings should not be a surprise, as students who condone hazing probably needed to rationalize to themselves that this was acceptable behavior. In contrast, and not surprisingly, students who would report hazing were more likely to respond “hazing makes us less human.”

On the survey, these statements were listed as “opinions”. Survey research “cannot probe deeply into respondent’s opinions and feelings” (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, p. 289). Did the students’ responses reflect their opinions at the time of the survey, their opinions while in high school, or opinions they
believed to be socially acceptable? Answers to these questions could be explored in future studies through personal interviews or multiple focus groups.

**Preventing hazing**

The survey provided nine possible methods for preventing hazing and students were asked to “mark all that apply”. The greatest percentage of students chose “strong discipline for hazing” and “police investigation and prosecution of hazing”; however, no statistically significant relationships were found between these prevention methods and the independent demographic variables.

Statistically significant relationships were found for four of the other prevention ideas. When asked about ways to prevent hazing, males chose “adults who say hazing is not acceptable” and “physically challenging activities” while females chose “education about positive initiation and hazing.” Non-Caucasian students were more likely to choose “physically challenging activities” and “education on positive initiation and hazing”. Students who attended private high schools were also more likely to choose “education about positive initiation and hazing.” Students who had responded they were religious or spiritual were more likely to choose “positive bonding activities.” This mixture of demographics in relation to prevention ideas might indicate another challenge for practitioners in determining intervention programs that are directed to the appropriate student population.

Students who would report hazing chose prevention ideas related to the adult role in preventing hazing. Statistically significant relationships were found between reporting hazing and three prevention ideas. Students who would report
hazing were more likely to choose "adults who support positive initiation and hazing"; "adults who say hazing is not acceptable"; and "education about positive initiation and hazing." This might indicate that students who would report hazing wanted adults to take an active role in preventing hazing and thus create a safe environment in which a student could report hazing without fear of retaliation.

Although all of the focus group participants agreed that adults, particularly parents, should say hazing is not acceptable, this was not always the case in their high schools. Mark talked about a teacher who told older students to "take care of a problem" with a younger student. He said this was because the teacher did not have time and could not "grab the student by the arm" while the older student could get away with more when dealing with the younger student. When adults condone this type of behavior, in fact, when a discipline system depends on older students keeping younger students in line, a mixed message is sent to students about what is acceptable behavior toward others.

Statistically significant differences were found between the current study and the Alfred University study for all of the prevention ideas except "police investigation and prosecution of hazing" and "positive, bonding activities." The differences in prevention ideas could be related to the difference in time frame between the two studies; however, it is interesting to note that students responding to both studies, regardless of the demographic variables, appeared to be looking for adults to intervene when hazing occurred and for someone to provide them with methods other than hazing when joining groups.
Consequences after being hazed

Students were provided with 13 consequences they might have experienced as a result of a hazing incident. Statistically significant relationships were found in the current study for two consequences. Students who had hazed others were more likely to get into a fight than students who had not hazed others. One wonders if, because these students might have experienced hazing and then progressed to hazing others, they might be expressing their anger through these fights. Students who were not religious or spiritual were more likely to "hurt someone else." While the concept that students who were not religious might be more inclined to condone hurting someone else, a theological discussion on this topic was beyond the scope of this dissertation.

A statistically significant difference was found between the current study and the Alfred University study for the consequence, "did poorly on school work" with a greater percentage of students reporting this consequence in the Alfred University study. Once again, the time frame in which the two studies were conducted might shed light on this difference. Students responding to the Alfred University study were in high school and might have just experienced, prior to completing the survey, difficulty with their schoolwork following the trauma of a hazing incident. Students taking the current survey would have needed to overcome this consequence, if indeed their schoolwork had suffered; in order to achieve the GPA required to meet admission requirements at the private university where this study was conducted.
Feelings experienced after being hazed

Students were provided with 11 feelings on the survey they might have experienced as a result of a hazing incident. Statistically significant relationships were found between the demographic variables and two feelings. Students who attended high school in Iowa were more likely to feel “angry” after a hazing incident than students from states adjacent to Iowa, other states, or international high schools. Students who attended rural high schools were more likely to feel “regretful” following an incident than students who attended high schools in urban or suburban settings. A limitation of the survey was the restrictions placed on students’ answers. This was evident when students responded to the “other feelings” category by adding their own descriptions:

- like I had a good story to tell
- indifferent
- it was fun
- knew my place
- had fun

While the survey could illicit “yes” or “no” responses from participants about “feelings,” a better method would be conducting personal interviews or focus groups where participants had the freedom to express their feelings in their own words. While this idea of conducting focus groups to obtain more personal information appeared feasible for the current study, the researcher found few students (8% in the current study) were willing to participate in this format. One possible explanation for their unwillingness to talk about hazing is an effort on
their part to maintain the secrecy of the activities. However, the researcher
realized these were college students who had busy schedules and might have
known, when completing the permission form during the survey that they would
not have time to participate in a focus group.

Comparison of the data from the current study and the Alfred University
study found statistically significant differences between the studies for the
feelings: proud, sad, guilty, trusted, angry, and strong. For all these feelings,
 fewer students in the current study expressed experiencing them than in the
Alfred University study. Although the current study was not designed to explore
the issue of how emotions might have changed over time, the autobiographical
nature of the current study might have been an underlying issue.

The survey items related to students’ thoughts and ideas on hazing
reflected an effort to extend the current literature on high school hazing. Students
in the current study provided information on reporting hazing, opinions on hazing,
consequences and feelings related to hazing, and ideas for preventing hazing.
These findings are not definitive because they are based on one group of
entering first year college students attending a private midwestern university.
Caution should be exercised when generalizing these findings to the general
population; however, practitioners might be able to use the information obtained
from the study when developing education and intervention programs.
Student Involvement in High School Hazing Activities

Who is at risk?

Statistically significant relationships were found between the experience of being hazed and gender. Both males and females reported involvement in high school hazing; however, males (21%) were more likely than females (14%) to have been hazed. Males were younger than females when first hazed. Multiple focus groups, as part of the current study, could have been an avenue to explore this issue through more personal interactions with male and female students; however, the researcher was able to conduct only one focus group, consisting of one male and three females. Interaction with this one group of students was not conducive to delving into why males are at a higher risk for hazing behaviors.

Statistically significant relationships were found between reasons students participated in high school hazing and the independent variables for type and location of high school. Students who attended public schools were more likely to participate because it was “fun and exciting” while students who attended rural schools were “scared to say no” to a hazing experience. Students had the opportunity to respond to a category labeled “other” in relation to why they participated in being hazed. They responded that hazing was a “ritual,” “tradition,” “not dangerous,” or, they “wanted to be accepted into the group of friends.”

A statistically significant relationship was also found between gender and hazing others. Twenty-two percent of the males and 10% of the females responded they had participated in hazing others in high school. Males were younger than females when they first hazed others. No statistically significant
relationships were found between the demographic variables and reasons for hazing others; however written comments echoed comments from students who had been hazed. Reasons students gave for hazing others included “tradition” and to become “part of society.”

Statistical comparison between the Alfred University study and the current study for reasons students participated in hazing could not be achieved due to the survey formats. The Alfred University researchers asked students what age they had first been hazed and the age they first hazed others. Students were then provided with eight reasons for participating in the hazing activity and given the opportunity to choose one or more reasons they participated in a hazing activity. The Alfred University survey instrument did not contain separate categories for these reasons so students could differentiate between reasons for participating as a victim versus as a perpetrator. Adaptation of the Alfred University study allowed students in the current study to respond to two more specific questions: “have you ever been hazed” and “have you ever hazed others.” For each of these questions, the same eight reasons for participating found in the Alfred University survey were listed to differentiate between reasons students participated as a victim versus reasons they participated as a perpetrator. This provided additional information for the current study on reasons students participated in hazing activities but precluded statistical comparison between the two studies.

Although statistical analyses could not be conducted, a concern was raised in the current study and the Alfred University study related to students who
viewed hazing activities as fun and exciting. Forty-eight percent of the students responding to the Alfred University study chose “it was fun and exciting” as the primary reason they participated in hazing activities. More specificity between victim and perpetrator for reasons they participated in hazing was possible with the current study. Forty-five percent of students who had been hazed chose “it was fun and exciting” as a reason they participated while 60% of students who had hazed others chose this as the primary reason they participated in the activity. While males were more likely to be hazed and haze others, hazing was reported across gender lines. This highlighted a possible challenge for practitioners when developing interventional programs against hazing. How does someone stop high school students when they think they are having fun and enjoying the excitement of the hazing activity?

*Why does hazing continue?*

Focus group participants provided insights into why students participated in hazing and reasons they hazed others. Participants said hazing was viewed as a way for older members to teach younger members respect and something you could do because it had been done to you. When asked whether the concept of “power” fit with reasons for hazing others, all of the focus group participants agreed this could be a factor. Power involves relationships and desiring this feeling of power can be a component of these relationships (Burns, 1978). Once the cycle of hazing was started, stopping it might be difficult if the student who was hazed then felt empowered to haze a younger student.
The desire to belong to a high school group was another reason proposed by focus group participants for the perpetuation of hazing. In the Alfred University study and the current study, the greatest percentage of students chose “part of the group” as the feeling they experienced after being hazed. High school students are at an age where they have a strong desire to be accepted by their peers (Erikson, 1968). Belonging to certain desired groups might fulfill this desire and, if hazing is the price to pay for belonging, maybe it is worth it to some students.

When focus group participants discussed this desire to be “part of the group” they explained that it might involve more than just gaining admittance into a desired group. Students in high school could achieve entrance into a particular group without being considered a true member by their peers. According to the focus group participants, participation in a hazing activity might result in the student being viewed as a true member of the group rather than just someone who was involved in the particular activity.

The focus group participants clarified the difference between “membership” and “participation.” Becoming a member resulted in being part of the “in crowd,” the “clique,” while a participant was only involved in the activity. Participating in hazing might be seen by some students as the only way to truly be accepted into the desired group. Being part of that group might be more important than their own health or the health of others.
Students are at risk when joining high school groups

The data show that high school students were at risk of being hazed when they joined high school groups. Student responses showed that hazing had occurred in seven of the 11 high school groups listed on the survey. Students also responded they saw hazing when they joined nine of the 11 high school groups.

Statistically significant relationships were found between the experience “I joined and was not hazed” and selected demographic variables in four high school groups. In sports teams, females were more likely than males to join a team and not be hazed. In cheerleading squads, females and students who attended rural high schools were more likely to not be hazed when they joined a squad. Students who were religious were more likely than students who were not religious to join a scholastic or intellectual club and not experience hazing. In vocational and life skills groups, Caucasian students were more likely than non-Caucasian students to join the group and not experience hazing.

This finding that females were less likely to be hazed when joining selected high school groups was not surprising considering the data showed males were more likely to be hazed than females. While it might be gratifying that Caucasian students and those who were religious were not hazed when joining these selected groups, no clear demographic profile could be suggested because only two of the nine demographic variables were represented. These findings continued to indicate the difficulty in specifying the type of student or type of high school in which hazing behaviors are likely or not likely to occur.
Statistically significant relationships were found between the experience, "I joined and saw hazing happen to others" and selected demographic variables in two high school groups. Males were more likely than females to see hazing when they joined sports teams. Students who were not religious and had a GPA of 3.00 – 3.49 were more likely to see hazing when they joined scholastic clubs than students who were religious or had higher/lower GPAs. Males, who were more likely to be hazed and haze others, might have been willing to respond they saw hazing rather than admit they had been hazed. Again, no definitive demographic profile could be suggested from the data for type of student or institution in which hazing was likely to occur.

Ten percent of the students in the current study compared to 48% in the Alfred University study reported being hazed when joining one or more high school groups. Statistically significant differences were found between the two studies for all 11 high school groups. No definitive explanation for this difference could be found; however, different methods for distributing and collecting the surveys might be a factor. Respondents to the Alfred University study were still in high school and a hazing experience might have been fresh in their minds when they completed the survey. The students in the current study were entering first year college students who provided responses based on their autobiographical memories of hazing experiences. These memories could have changed due to the hazing experiences occurring one to four years prior to their completing the survey. Studies performed on autobiographical memories have shown that environmental and attitudinal changes might impact memories due to the time
frame between the incident and the person remembering (Chawla, 1998; Loftus & Rathi, 1985; Rubin, 1988).

Another possible explanation for the higher percentage for hazing when joining high school groups in the Alfred University study could be that students who experienced hazing were more likely than students who had not been hazed to complete and return the mailed survey. The survey might have provided a safe outlet for them to share their experiences and possibly find closure. A problem with survey research is the inability to explore participants’ reasons for responding or for not responding to a survey (Babbie, 1992).

Students were involved in humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, and substance abuse activities when joining high school groups

The survey listed ten humiliating hazing activities, eight dangerous hazing activities, and five substance abuse activities. Humiliating hazing experiences were defined as “socially offensive, isolating, or uncooperative behaviors”; dangerous hazing activities were defined as “hurtful, aggressive, destructive, and disruptive behaviors”; and substance abuse was defined as “abuse of tobacco, alcohol, or illegal drugs” (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 4).

In sports groups, statistically significant relationships were found between gender and participation in humiliating hazing activities. Females were more likely than males to participate in one humiliating hazing experience; however, males were more likely than females to participate in two or more of these activities. In peer groups or gangs, statistically significant relationships were found between GPA and participation in humiliating activities. Students with a
GPA of 3.50 – 4.00 were more likely to participate in only one humiliating activity while students with a GPA of 2.49 – 3.00 were more likely to participate in two or more activities.

Statistically significant relationships were found between gender and dangerous hazing activities on sports teams. As with humiliating activities, females were more likely than males to participate in one dangerous hazing activity with males more likely to participate in two or more dangerous hazing activities. In church groups, statistically significant relationships were found between high school location and dangerous hazing activities. Students who had attended urban high schools were more likely to participate in one dangerous hazing activity than students who attended suburban or rural high schools. No students reported participating in two or more dangerous hazing activities. The data showed that students reported participating in substance abuse activities in high school; however, no statistically significant relationships were found between the independent demographic variables and the dependent variables for hazing activities.

The Alfred University researchers presented, in their final report, student involvement in hazing activities as it related to gender. No relationships to other demographic variables were available. Statistically significant differences were found between the current study and the Alfred University study for gender and selected humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, and substance abuse activities. The reader is referred to Appendix L. In all of the categories, the percentage of students involved in these types of activities was less in the current study. Again,
A possible reason for the difference in student involvement between the two studies might be the autobiographical nature of the current study.

A contradiction in responses between not being hazed and participation in hazing activities

Students were asked to respond, on the first page of the survey, to the question "Have you ever been hazed." The data exposed a contradiction between what students reported on the first page of the survey about not being hazed and what they reported on the second page when asked to respond whether they participated in hazing activities. Eighty-three percent of the students responded they had not been hazed; however, 26.8% of these students then marked, on the second page of the survey, they had participated in one or more hazing activity. Students most likely to respond they were not hazed and then mark participation in hazing activities were female, non-Caucasian, had a lower GPA, had attended suburban public high schools, and considered themselves religious or spiritual. Caution should be exercised in generalizing any type of demographic profile for this contradiction without conducting additional studies on high school hazing.

The same contradiction was found in the Alfred University study. Eighty-six percent of students responding to the survey marked they were not hazed; however, 48% of these students then marked they participated in hazing activities. One explanation offered by the Alfred research team was that,
"Students do not distinguish between ‘fun’ and hazing" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 1). This finding supported the previous finding that students participated in hazing because it was “fun and exciting.”

Expanding on the Alfred University researchers' explanation of this contradiction was difficult because the nature of survey research precluded understanding why respondents marked they had or had not participated in these activities. Researchers cannot modify a survey once it is distributed and have no way of knowing whether a question is clear to a respondent (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Even though there was no clear method to understand why students, for example, marked they had not been hazed and then marked they ate or drank disgusting things (a humiliating hazing activity in the current study); six explanations for this contradiction were proposed:

1. Students did not consider the activities listed on the survey as hazing based on their own personal definition. Although a definition of hazing was written on the survey, this definition might not have “fit” their personal view on the topic.

2. The process of completing the survey might have “educated” the students about hazing. Students marked they were not hazed and then, as they filled out the rest of the survey, remembered they had experienced these activities and marked them. A respondent to the Alfred University study wrote, “I personally haven’t experienced any form of hazing — now that I am informed of this I strongly disagree with it!” (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 12).
3. With only 15-20 minutes to complete the survey, students who marked they were not hazed, and then marked hazing activities later in the survey, might not have had the time, or the inclination, to go back and change their other answer in regard to being hazed.

4. The social response bias that can be a component of survey research (Babbie, 1992). Students might have believed not being hazed was the answer the researcher desired or they wanted to keep the fact they were hazed secret. Therefore, they marked the question “have you ever been hazed” with a “no” response. The section on the second page of the survey listing activities they might have participated in when joining high school groups did not specify which of these were considered positive (i.e., community building and initiation) and which were considered humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, or substance abuse. When completing this section, students might not have been aware they were providing information on hazing activities they did in fact participate in while in high school.

5. Students were surveyed over a two-day period during which they might have had conversations with classmates who had already completed the survey. This contamination of the data might have impacted their answers; for example, a classmate might have cautioned them not to “report” they were hazed on the survey without either student understanding that they then were marking participation in hazing activities in another survey section.
6. Studies on autobiographical memory have shown students might experience stronger emotions at the time of an incident than they remember when participating in later studies where researchers ask them to reflect on their experiences (Harris et al., 2000). Students completing the survey for the current study, as they reflected on their high school experiences, might not have remembered the humiliation or danger of activities in the same way in the present time as they did at the actual time of the incident. This could result in their no longer believing they had been hazed. They might then respond they had not been hazed but still feel comfortable marking they participated in hazing activities.

Although the question why students responded they had not been hazed, and then chose what were considered hazing activities, was not specifically addressed by the focus group, their comments about hazing might shed light on how individual definitions of hazing impacted responses. Joan said she thought having eggs and Vaseline put in her hair was fun. This would lead one to believe she might mark she had not been hazed but would mark an activity the researcher considered hazing. While Joan had fun during her experience, another student might view this as humiliating. Sally’s response might explain this problem with defining hazing best when she said, “I don’t think our high school had a lot of hazing, but maybe that’s because I think of high school hazing as something extremely severe like saran wrapping someone to a tree and leaving them there or something. Doing just really strange stuff to them.”
The researcher explored the concept of autobiographical memory in the focus group when asking participants if their views on hazing would have been different if they were surveyed while still in high school. Sally said: “I think you would get a very different response from a freshman or sophomore.” Janice added: “Definitely I think I would have had a different opinion of it three years ago.” Mark, when discussing how he might have felt if asked about hazing when he had just been hit on the arm while in high school, said, “I probably would think there’s no reason for that.” When looking back on this experience during the focus group, he said these incidents taught him respect for the older students and it was a positive experience.

The line between “fun” and “hazing” appeared to be subjective and dependent on each individual student’s view on the topic. These findings related to student participation in humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, and substance abuse activities continued to indicate that no definitive demographic profile could be proposed to isolate the student or institution most at risk for hazing activities. Intervention programs need to address the needs of all students in all types of high schools and strive to differentiate between positive initiation activities and hazing activities.

*Students were involved in positive activities too*

The previous discussion focused on students’ responses to questions related to hazing activities. The survey contained a list of 33 activities that students were asked to choose if they had been involved in these when joining high school groups. Inter-mixed with the hazing activities were:

1. [List of activities]
   - [Activity 1]
   - [Activity 2]
   - [Activity 3]
   - [Activity 4]
   - [Activity 5]
   - [Activity 6]
   - [Activity 7]
   - [Activity 8]
   - [Activity 9]
   - [Activity 10]

2. [List of activities]
   - [Activity 11]
   - [Activity 12]
   - [Activity 13]
   - [Activity 14]
   - [Activity 15]
   - [Activity 16]
   - [Activity 17]
   - [Activity 18]
   - [Activity 19]
   - [Activity 20]

3. [List of activities]
   - [Activity 21]
   - [Activity 22]
   - [Activity 23]
   - [Activity 24]
   - [Activity 25]
   - [Activity 26]
   - [Activity 27]
   - [Activity 28]
   - [Activity 29]
   - [Activity 30]

4. [List of activities]
   - [Activity 31]
   - [Activity 32]
   - [Activity 33]

The survey also included questions about the frequency of participation in these activities, the reasons for participation, and the perceived outcomes of the experiences. The data analysis revealed that:

1. [Percentage of students involved]
   - [%1]
   - [%2]
   - [%3]
   - [%4]
   - [%5]

2. [Reasons for participation]
   - [Reason 1]
   - [Reason 2]
   - [Reason 3]
   - [Reason 4]
   - [Reason 5]

3. [Perceived outcomes]
   - [Outcome 1]
   - [Outcome 2]
   - [Outcome 3]
   - [Outcome 4]
   - [Outcome 5]

These findings highlight the importance of understanding the multifaceted nature of hazing experiences and the need for comprehensive interventions that address both the positive and negative aspects of student life.
considered by the researcher and researchers at Alfred University as community building and initiation activities. These were defined as "pro-social behaviors that build social relationships, understanding, empathy, civility, altruism, and moral decision-making" (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, p. 3).

Data showed that a greater percentage of students in the current study and the Alfred University study were involved in community building initiation activities than were involved in hazing activities. For example, 16% of males in the current sample and 20% of males in the Alfred University study responded they were "yelled, cursed, or sworn at" (a humiliating hazing activity); however, 60% of males in the current study and 62% of males in the Alfred University study responded they "went on a trip, camp, or pre-season practice" (a community building and initiation activity). This was a good sign that student involvement in positive behaviors was greater than involvement in hazing activities for both studies. This would appear to indicate that high schools are providing methods whereby students can become involved in groups without participating in humiliating hazing, dangerous hazing, or substance abuse activities. However, complacency must not replace diligence in continuing to develop intervention and prevention programs to stop high school hazing.

Summary

The current study extended the Alfred University study on high school hazing conducted in 2000. The study utilized a survey and a focus group to explore the autobiographical memories of 402 entering first year college students.
on their high school hazing experiences. Although the study resulted in interesting findings, it is important to note several limitations:

1. Survey results cannot be generalized beyond private midwestern institutions of higher education. The current study excluded entering first year students attending other higher education institutions as well as high school graduates or students who did not graduate and did not pursue post-secondary education.

2. Focus group results cannot be generalized due to only one session conducted with four students. The gender imbalance in focus group participation (one male and three females) adds to the lack of generalizability of the focus group findings.

3. The current study was based on autobiographical memories of entering first year college students on their high school hazing experiences. Care should be exercised when generalizing the results to high school students.

4. Although gender specific patterns appeared to be evident in the data, no definitive profile for the student most at risk of being hazed could be suggested. This same limitation existed for profiling the type or location of high school where hazing is likely to occur.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were found in the current study:

1. Students are at risk of being hazed in high school.

2. Students do not distinguish between fun and hazing.
3. The time frame between hazing incidents and students’ recall of the incident can impact how students view the severity of hazing activities.

4. Adults share the responsibility for stopping high school hazing.

The current study was a systematic replication, with a different population, of the 2000 Alfred University study on high school hazing. The findings related to students who are at risk, adults sharing the responsibility for stopping high school hazing, and the concern students do not distinguish between fun and hazing were also found in the Alfred University study on high school hazing conducted in 2000.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present study extended Alfred University’s research on high school hazing. The survey instrument used for the current study involved dichotomous categories where students were limited to “yes” or “no” responses. Several students wrote in comments (e.g., their own definitions of hazing) indicating they were not able to adequately share their thoughts within the limits of the categories provided on the survey.

Revising the survey to allow students to respond, “strongly agree,” “agree,” “disagree” and “strongly disagree” to questions related to high school hazing could allow higher-order statistical analyses to delve deeper into students’ views and experiences with high school hazing in an attempt to predict students most at risk. Conducting the survey in a session that provided more time for students to respond to open-ended questions could also provide more data for analysis. These options were not attempted in the current study, in order to be
able to compare the current data to the data gathered by Alfred University researchers.

Focus groups comprised of high school students might provide more valid information regarding hazing incidences and students' personal views and beliefs on the topic. Care would need to be exercised to assure that students felt safe in sharing their views. Expanding the number of focus groups would allow researchers to compare and contrast comments across several groups to look for common themes related to high school hazing experiences. Focus groups comprised of parents might increase awareness of the problem and gain their input and support for education and intervention programs.

Analysis of the data for the current study found statistically significant relationships between students' religious or spiritual belief and selected hazing experiences. No conclusions were proposed for the effect students' self-identified religious belief or spirituality had on hazing experiences because these terms are difficult to categorize. Researchers interested in further study of the relationship between students' religiousness or spirituality and hazing experiences could further define this demographic variable and conduct studies in high schools or institutions of higher education that are religiously affiliated.

The focus of the current study was on the autobiographical memories of entering first year college students on their high school hazing experiences. Comments from participants in the focus group indicated that these memories might not be true representations of their feelings at the actual time of the incident. Researchers who have studied autobiographical memories cautioned
that environment and attitudes could change the emotions experienced between the time of the actual event and the time when the event is recalled (Harris et al., 2000; Rubin, 1988). Conducting surveys with students who are still in high school would narrow the time frame between the hazing incidents and recall of emotions to reduce this potential problem with validity of the data.

Researchers interested in studies on autobiographical memories and high school hazing could extend the current study by conducting surveys and focus groups with entering first year college students at other private institutions of higher education as well as community colleges and public institutions of higher education. Studies reaching a population of high school students who did not continue their formal education should also be conducted.

Implications for Practitioners

When the researcher for the current study discussed this project with educators and parents, their reactions were often disbelief or even denial that hazing occurred in high schools. The current study extended the Alfred University study conducted in 2000 and found these activities are continuing to occur in high schools. This study was designed to provide information that could be used by high school and college administrators, teachers, coaches, students, school organizations, parents, and other interested parties to increase awareness of hazing rituals in high schools so that appropriate prevention and intervention programs might be developed. The following suggestions are proposed to begin moving forward with these prevention and intervention programs:
1. Persons responsible for providing a safe learning environment must realize that hazing is occurring in today's high schools and be willing to work with the appropriate agencies and constituencies to stop these hazing activities.

2. Policies and procedures need to be developed and implemented regarding hazing activities. High school administrators need to go beyond listing a policy in a student handbook. Students need to be made aware of these policies. Administrators, teachers, police, and parents need to enforce them.

3. High school students look to adults for guidance and need to be assured they will be safe when they report hazing.

4. Educational institutions need to work with researchers to allow surveys, focus groups, and other appropriate research studies to be conducted in high schools so data can be collected and analyzed to extend current findings.

5. Students need to be involved in developing intervention programs, as they might be the best resource for determining what actions could be taken to curtail hazing activities and inoculate themselves against post-secondary education hazing.

*Linking implications to practice*

How do practitioners adapt the information on high school hazing from the current study and the Alfred University study into viable education and intervention programs to stop high school hazing? Although it was not the
purpose of the current study to discuss, in depth, the development of education and intervention programs for preventing high school hazing, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Encourage students who have been hazed or have hazed others to speak at high school functions to share their experiences in an effort to increase awareness of high school hazing. Small group discussions could then be held to encourage student input on how to stop high school hazing.

2. Explore the feasibility of developing and implementing peer mediation programs. These programs have been implemented in high schools in response to school violence in an effort to reduce conflicts between students (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). Peer mediation programs could provide students with information on alternatives for activities required to join high school groups and methods to make appropriate choices when confronted with a hazing situation.

While these programs might provide students with conflict resolution tools and an understanding of alternatives to hazing, caution should be exhibited in viewing such programs as a panacea for high school hazing. Johnson and Johnson (1996) reviewed research in this area and found that, although there had been many peer mediation programs studied and anecdotal evidence these programs helped students, there were methodological and conceptual problems in the research studies making generalization of the results difficult. Even so, peer mediation programs could
be a component of an overall plan to provide students with necessary tools to avoid hazing situations (Thompson, 1996).

3. Provide opportunities for practitioners, parents, law enforcement officials, and other adults to discuss hazing to increase awareness of the problem. These opportunities could be at parent-teacher association (PTA) meetings or through other high school organizations. Research on high school hazing could be presented at school meetings with follow-up discussions. An initial goal of these meetings could be to establish a clear definition of hazing and clarify how hazing policies and procedures will be enforced.

4. Develop orientation and in-service programs on high school hazing and the importance of the adult's role in stopping these incidences and ensuring student safety when reporting hazing. Participation in these programs could be an annual requirement for administrators, teachers and coaches in order to maintain their positions at the high school.

5. High school administrators and teachers need to provide positive activities students can participate in when joining groups. Parents need to be involved in developing and participating in these activities to demonstrate their support for these types of activities and their disapproval of hazing activities.

Summary

High school hazing activities can result in physical harm and emotional distress. Findings from this and future study on the topic of high school hazing should provide intervention strategies so this phenomenon can be stopped. Our
children deserve a safe high school environment so they can learn and interact with others.
References


Appendix A

Use of Autobiographical Memories in Research

An in-depth review of the literature on autobiographical memory was beyond the scope of this study. In this section, the researcher provides a brief background on the concept of autobiographical memory, two research studies that have used autobiographical memories in their research design, support for using this design, and reasons a phenomenological research design is not appropriate for the current study.

The researcher for the current study asked entering first year college students to respond to a survey on high school hazing and, if they agreed in writing, to participate in focus groups. Data collection provided participants with the opportunity to report autobiographical memories of their high school hazing experiences by responding to written categories on a survey and by responding to verbal questions during a focus group.

The personal nature of autobiographical memories allows researchers to use this method to explore past events without having to conduct a longitudinal study (Harris et al., 2000). Rubin (1988) cautioned that environmental and attitudinal changes can occur between the time of the initial event and the recall experience. Research involving autobiographical memories is only as accurate and valid as the memories upon which it is based (Chawla, 1998; Loftus & Rathi, 1985). There are validity issues with autobiographical memories; however, this method may still be valuable when a longitudinal study is not feasible, as in the case of the current study.
Walls, Sperling, and Weber (2001) discussed five aspects of autobiographical memory research: structure, prompts, meta-memory, everyday life, and the relationship to human development. Four of the five aspects (structure, prompts, everyday life, and relationship to human development) were relevant to the current study on high school hazing. Meta-memory was not relevant for the current study, as this aspect requires participants to rank how well they remember a certain event. The survey instrument for the current study involved only categorical data; therefore the meta-memory aspect of autobiographical memory research was not appropriate for the current study and was not be reviewed here.

Research on the structure of autobiographical memory involves certain periods in a person’s life and knowledge of a specific event. Harris et al. (2000) researched autobiographical memories of teenagers to explore their memories of scary movies. Two hundred and thirty-three undergraduate psychology students completed a survey regarding their memories of scary movies and their reactions to these movies as well as psychological questionnaires on gender and behavior variables. The mean age of the students was between 19.4 and 19.5 years when the study was conducted. The mean age of the students at the time they actually viewed the scary movie was between 16.7 and 17.6 years.

Results of the study showed that males leaned toward showing an ability to be competent and cope with the scariness of the movie while females were more likely to demonstrate a need to be protected and less of an ability to cope with being frightened. Harris et al. (2000) said that, due to the retrospective
nature of the study, students might have actually experienced more fear at the time they viewed the movie than they remembered when participating in the study. Although the current study on high school hazing was not designed to explore the issue of how emotions may have changed over time, it may be an underlying issue.

The second aspect of autobiographical memory research involved the use of prompts or cues to trigger autobiographical memory (Walls et al., 2001). This method was used in the current study when participants chose either positive, negative, or a combination of positive and negative responses to questions on their hazing experiences. Providing numerous cues can increase accuracy in autobiographical memory (Chawla, 1998). Herlihy, Scragg, and Turner (2002) cautioned that when a memory involved a traumatic experience, there could be discrepancies in the recalled memory. The trauma of the memory may lead to "continuity bias" resulting in the participant smoothing over the information in an attempt to make the experience fit a more "culturally acceptable pattern" (Robinson & Taylor, 1998, p. 127). This attempt to make the experience fit what the student perceives as the culturally acceptable pattern could lead to responses that are more or less harsh than the actual experience. This might be especially prevalent in the focus groups where peers might sway participants to change their stories. This might result in participants embellishing or downplaying their hazing experiences.

The literature on hazing has shown that adolescents being hazed often experience traumatic incidences that could lead to discrepancies or continuity
bias in their responses to the survey (Hoover & Pollard, 2000; Nuwer, 2000). Determining if there are discrepancies or continuity bias with the survey responses was not possible in the current study. A method the researcher used to explore this aspect was to look at the data to see if participants switched from past tense to present tense when relating their stories. Pillemer, Desrochers, and Ebanks (1998) wrote, “The use of the present tense suggests that the narrator is no longer simply recounting an episode – he is reliving some salient aspect of it” (p. 146). This shift in tense often occurs during the narrative when the person is recounting a time that there was a “threat to self” (p. 147). While the researcher did not propose a hypothesis in relation to the presence or absence of discrepancies or continuity of bias by the participants in the current study, she was aware of this tendency and was more sensitive to the focus group participants as they told their stories. The focus group participants did not exhibit any shifts in tense as they talked about their high school hazing experiences.

Looking at what, when, where, and why the recalled event occurred was involved in research that looked at memories based on everyday life situations involved (Walls et al., 2001). The current study explored this when participants were asked why they hazed or why they allowed others to haze them.

The final aspect of autobiographical memory research related to human development and the age of the respondent. Walls et al. (2001) conducted a study to extend knowledge about students’ autobiographical memories of school in relation to Erikson’s developmental theory on human development (see Appendix A). The study involved 252 university undergraduate students who
were asked to provide both positive and negative events from grades 1, 2, and 3; grades 4, 5, and 6; grades 7, 8, and 9; and grades 10, 11, and 12. These were categorized by: (a) the type of event, (b) whether the event happened in the classroom or socially, (c) how well the student remembered the event, and (d) who was responsible for the event. Students were also asked to clarify whether the event was pleasant or unpleasant. In regards to pleasant vs. unpleasant memories – participants saw themselves as causing more pleasant memories (57%) than unpleasant (43%) and viewed others as causing more unpleasant memories (69%) than pleasant memories (31%).

The results of Walls et al.’s (2001) study supported Erikson’s (1968) developmental theory. Of interest in relation to the current study on hazing in high school – this study found that peers and acceptance by peers became more prevalent in autobiographical memories when students reached adolescence (grades 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12).

For the purpose of the current study, a phenomenological research design was not appropriate. The current study was designed to explore entering first year college students’ memories of high school hazing experiences. Even though an argument could be made that hazing is a phenomenon in that it is an “event, the characteristic of which [is] susceptible to observation” (Williams, 1968), several assumptions for conducting a phenomenological study were not met.

Creswell (1998) listed specific steps that are involved in conducting a phenomenological study. First, the researcher must have experienced the phenomenon and then suspend her personal views when collecting data. The
researcher for this study has not experienced a hazing ritual as a victim, perpetrator, or witness nor does she personally know anyone who was hazed in high school. Second, data collection for a phenomenology usually involves long personal interviews with the participants. The current study involved one focus group consisting of four students who did not represent the entire sample of entering first year college students who participated in the survey. Focus group members were not individually interviewed.

Third, data analysis for a phenomenology involves extensive coding of the data including horizontalization, developing clusters of meanings, and then describing what and how the participants experienced the phenomenon (Creswell, 1998). For the current study, data from the focus group will be reviewed to look for themes; however, the primary purpose of the group was to add richness and depth to the survey information. Finally, Creswell (1998) wrote that a phenomenology seeks to understand the essence of the experience being studied. The current study on high school hazing was not designed to explore the meaning of the hazing experience for each individual. Descriptive statistics were used to calculate "values which represent certain over-all characteristics of a body of data" (Williams, 1968).

Summary

In this section, the researcher provided a brief review of the literature on autobiographical memories. Several aspects of autobiographical memory made the use of this concept in the design of the current study appropriate. The current study used a specified time frame (years in high school); cues and prompts on
the survey and in the focus group; researcher sensitivity to how focus group
participants told their stories; and a review of the results in relation to human
development. The use of autobiographical memories in the current study on high
school hazing may extend the literature in this area as well as in the area of high
school hazing.
Appendix B

Developmental Theories on Adolescence

Adolescents at the high school level are often struggling with their decisions and identities while being concerned that they will look stupid or not be included in activities (Mitchell, 1992; Nuwer, 2000). Kail and Cavanaugh (1996) wrote that adolescents tend to believe they are the focus of everyone else's thoughts and that no one else has the same experiences, thoughts, or feelings. Adolescence is a time of discovery of self and others and, for some students, a time of angst.

Young people in the American culture are bombarded with internal and external changes that result in identity confusion and a need to belong in their own world (Erikson, 1968; Maslow, 1968). Hazing rituals are examples of situations that require adolescents to make decisions that may affect both themselves and others (Nuwer, 2000). These decisions must be made whether the adolescent is the victim, perpetrator, or witness of the hazing event.

Developmentally, youth at this age are entering puberty and experiencing physiological and emotional changes that impact their behavior (Shaffer, 1996). In addition, their social world is changing and they are confronted with new demands on their lives (Erikson, 1968; Maslow 1968). The need to belong and understand who they are is strong at this age, often resulting in their forming groups for support and help through these difficult times. Erikson (1968) wrote that adolescents not only form alliances with the particular social group that meets their needs but they continually test each other to determine loyalties.
This need to belong and be part of a group may result in a student participating in a high school group’s hazing ritual as a victim, perpetrator, or witness. Hazing rituals are often secretive and victims, for a variety of reasons, do not come forward to complain or accuse the people who perpetuate these activities (Nuwer, 2000). The need to belong to the group may outweigh other considerations and can end quickly when the hazing ritual turns into a situation that threatens students’ previously held security. An adolescent who is being paddled until his buttocks are bleeding may no longer be concerned about the self-esteem he wanted to achieve by getting into a desired group. Conversely, an adolescent performing or witnessing the hazing ritual may condone dangerous activities to avoid losing his place in the group and no longer belonging.

How adolescents respond to hazing situations, whether as victims, perpetrators, or witnesses, may be rooted in their own individual development. Many theories exist on adolescent development and an in-depth discussion is beyond the scope of this literature review; however, Erikson’s (1968) and Maslow’s (1968) developmental theories and Spencer’s (2000) relational theory will be briefly discussed as to how they may relate to an adolescent’s involvement in a hazing ritual.

Erikson’s Psychosocial Theory of Development

Building on Freud’s psychoanalytical theory, Erikson (1968) proposed the Eight Stages of Life. At each stage, identity is being formed and a crisis may exist. He defined crisis as “designating a necessary turning point, a crucial moment, when development must move one way or another, marshaling
resources of growth, recovery, and further differentiation" (p. 16). A brief review of the first four stages will be presented as an introduction to the fifth, puberty, which is the stage relevant to the development stage of high school students.

The first stage involves the infant in "basic trust versus mistrust" situations. During the first year of life the infant learns whether parents and the social world can be trusted. If parents are calm and secure in their behaviors toward the child, trust can be formed. One of the first instances where trust is evident is when the child allows the mother to be out of sight without exhibiting inappropriate anger or rage (Erikson, 1968).

With each of the stages, there is a balance between the desired behavior and the undesired behavior. Erikson (1968) wrote that developing trust alone should not be the desired outcome of this stage. Without some experiences of mistrust, the child may be too naïve in social interactions. When the child experiences trust and mistrust, but trust is the dominant experience, there is hope for the future. This allows the child to continue to grow and develop with an identity that will be able to cope with new challenges. If mistrust is the dominant feeling, the resultant rage can impact future growth and behavior. Erikson (1968) wrote:

In fact, every basic conflict of childhood lives on, in some form, in the adult. The earliest steps are preserved in the deepest layers. Every tired human being may regress temporarily to partial mistrust whenever the world of his expectations has been shaken to the core (pp. 82-82).

An adolescent who expected a positive initiation into a group and, instead, becomes involved in a dangerous and/or humiliating hazing ritual may experience this regression to a feeling of mistrust and possibly rage. When an
adolescent experiences rage at being hazed to achieve entrance into a desired
group, he may then turn that rage on future adolescents and become a
perpetrator during hazing rituals.

Erikson's (1968) second stage of development involves the child in
behaviors related to "holding on" and "letting go" (p. 107). He explained this stage
as autonomy versus shame and doubt. Physiologically a child experiences this
conflict during toilet training. In Western society, the act of toilet training a child
often involves making children feel guilty or ashamed if they have an accident
with their bowels. At the same time, children are trying to exhibit their own will
and learn how to control their bowels. As in the first stage, there needs to be a
balance between the two behaviors of autonomy and shame/doubt. The ability to
control elimination is an autonomous behavior that comes from within the child
and the shame of having "an accident" evolves from the reaction of society to
what is seen as unacceptable behavior.

According to Erikson (1968), for children to develop autonomy, this stage
must allow them to develop trust in themselves and their surroundings.
Progression through this stage moves the child toward being "his own person"
and being able to decide his future. Children are presented with the first chance
at emancipation as they move away from their mothers. As with the first stage,
this stage leaves a "residue" (p. 114) in the children that affects their future
behavior. He compared these two stages by stating:

We said that the earliest stage leaves a residue in the growing being
which, on many hierarchic levels and especially in the individual's sense of
identity, will echo something of the conviction "I am what hope I have and
give." The analogous residue of the stage of autonomy appears to be "I am what I can will freely" (Erikson, 1968, p. 114).

The third stage of development involves initiative versus guilt. The initiative is demonstrated in children's ability to run rather than walk and to ask an abundance of questions whose answers they may or may not understand. Their imaginations are also developing with the possibility of frightening dreams.

Development at this third stage also includes awareness of the child's genitals and a desire to possess the parent of the opposite sex and rival the parent of the same sex. This results in children having to suppress these feelings due to social taboo so they can live appropriately in their social environment. Erikson (1968) lamented the loss of some of the exuberance that was so freely exhibited during this stage. Even so, this stage contributed to identity development by moving children toward greater initiative in their actions as they develop their own purpose in life. Erikson said, "This is prepared in the firmly established, steadily growing conviction, undaunted by guilt, that 'I am what I can imagine I will be'" (p. 122).

Trust versus mistrust, hanging on versus letting go, and balancing initiative with guilt occupy the child's growth and development until around the age of six. Between the ages of six and eleven the child exhibits a "sense of industry" and becomes involved in interactions with other children and a desire to "make things and make them well and even perfectly" (Erikson, 1968, p. 123). Although considered a "latent period" during which sexual feelings and desires lay dormant, Erikson was concerned that feelings of inferiority may overshadow the child's development.
The crisis at this stage is the child’s ability to balance the sense of industry with situations that may result in the feeling of inferiority. These inferiority feelings may come from not being picked first for the team, not performing well on a test, or being bullied after school. The child who has good experiences during this stage will exhibit “competence” in their abilities without disproportionate feelings of inferiority (Crain, 2000). Erikson summarized this stage as, “I am what I can learn to make work” (p. 127).

Toward the end of the latent stage of development, as the child enters adolescence, physiological changes result in a resurgence of sexual feelings. These physiological changes are accompanied by an increased desire to look good in the eyes of peers. The crisis is one of identity versus role confusion. How well adolescents achieved a sense of competency during the latency stage may impact their sense of identity at this stage and the level of crisis that may exist. The adolescent is no longer a child and not yet an adult.

This identity crisis versus role confusion crisis may place the adolescent in conflict when making decisions. This conflict may lead them to forming groups for support and help through these difficult times. Not only do they form alliances with the particular social group that meets their needs, they continually test each other to determine loyalties (Erickson, 1968). These tests of loyalty may be through positive initiations or negative hazing experiences.

The question for each adolescent is, have they progressed through the first four stages and, if so, how well did they develop psychologically in each stage? Biological changes and societal changes impact adolescents as they
progress through the stages. Has the adolescent learned to trust more than mistrust, felt autonomous without shame or doubt, showed initiative without guilt, and achieved the appropriate level of competence without a feeling of inferiority? What is the adolescent's sense of identity? Do they form groups that are tolerant of others or do they become clannish and cruel toward their peers?

If adolescents reach their teenage years without a sense of identity from previous stages, could this impact their decisions, result in intolerance for others, and lead to inappropriate behaviors such as participating in or becoming a victim of hazing? Erikson (1968) said:

It is important to understand in principal (which does not mean to condone in all of its manifestations) that such intolerance may be, for a while, a necessary defense against a sense of identity loss. This is unavoidable at a time of life when the body changes its proportions radically, when genital puberty floods body and imagination with all manner of impulses, when intimacy with the other sex approaches and is, on occasion, forced on the young person, and when, the immediate future confronts one with too many conflicting possibilities and choices. Adolescents not only help one another temporarily through such discomfort by forming cliques and stereotyping themselves, their ideals, and their enemies, they also insistently test each other's capacity for sustaining loyalties in the midst of inevitable conflicts of values (pp. 132-133).

Erikson (1968) identified stages of development leading up to the adolescent years and beyond. No theoretical hypothesis is proposed for this study based on his theory; however, Erikson's stages of development provide a psychosocial perspective on developmental issues that may impact an adolescent's behavior relevant to participating in or becoming a victim of hazing.

*Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*
As far back as ancient Greece, Plato observed, "We have many wants." He listed food as the first need, followed by housing, clothing, and finally, "noble cakes and loaves" (as quoted in Burns, 1978, p. 29). Maslow's (1968) Hierarchy of Needs correlated to Plato's views with basic physiological needs as needing to be met first; then safety and security; followed by social needs of love, affection, and belonging; leading to ego/esteem needs; and finally to self-actualization which is considered to be an ongoing process. The need to belong and be respected is strong in adolescence and is dependent on the environment outside of the person. Maslow (1968) wrote:

He [the adolescent] must be, to an extent, “other directed,” and must be sensitive to other people's approval, affection and good will. This is the same as saying that he must adapt and adjust by being flexible and responsive and by changing himself to fit the external situation. He is the dependent variable; the environment is the fixed, independent variable." (p. 34).

Adolescents who already have their biological/physiological needs and security needs met and are seeking to belong to a group may find themselves "swept up" in a hazing ritual. This may occur before they have time to think through their actions and how these actions will affect them, the victim/s, and/or the particular group.

The need to belong to the group may outweigh other considerations (Maslow, 1968). This need to belong can end quickly when the hazing ritual turns into a situation that threatens the very security the students thought they had. A student who is being paddled until his buttocks are bleeding may no longer be concerned about whether he gets into the group or not. Conversely, a student
performing the hazing ritual, witnessing the event, or threatening to expose the situation may condone dangerous activities to avoid losing her place in the group.

Maslow (1968) and Erikson (1968) proposed theories that addressed adolescents' needs that impacted development. Building relationships is another theme that seems to be evident in these theories. The desire to belong to a group appears to be an important aspect of the adolescent's personal view. The group may be seen as a means to provide the adolescent with an identity as discussed by Erikson and a method of meeting the need to belong Maslow proposed. Adolescents are moving away from parents and fear of authority figures. Establishing and/or keeping these relationships can affect decisions (Spencer, 2000).

Adolescents are experiencing physiological and social changes leading to a desire to belong and establish their own identities; however, they are not in the world alone. Establishing relationships may leave the adolescent vulnerable to making decisions that have a negative impact on their own health or the health of others.

*Relational Theory*

A concept found in relational theory research is the importance of building relationships for healthy development. Spencer (2000) wrote that human development involves the person as well as that person's interactions with others, with these interactions resulting in psychological health or psychological distress depending on the situation.
An area of relational theory relevant to a study on hazing in high school is the finding that even one relationship with a supportive adult had an important impact on the psychological development of an adolescent. Definitions of “supportive relationship” vary but “their spirit is quite similar.” A basic definition is “A supportive parent-child relationship has been defined most simply as the presence of expressions of warmth and the absence of harsh criticism” (Spencer, 2000, p.17). Relational theory studies have shown that the supportive relationship is not limited to the parent-child situation but can involve relationships with other adult figures such as babysitters, neighbors, or other siblings (Spencer, 2000).

This area of relational research regarding the need for a supportive adult relationship is particularly relevant to the present study. The 2000 Alfred University study of hazing among nationwide high school students reported that 40% of the responding students would not report hazing. Twenty-seven percent said adults would not know the correct way to handle the situation and 36% said there was no one they could tell about the incident (Hoover & Pollard, 2000). An adolescent who has a supportive relationship with an adult figure may be more likely to discuss the hazing incident, express her feelings, and avoid feeling isolated and confused.

Summary

In this appendix, the researcher has provided a brief review of three theories on human development. Adolescents are striving to establish their own identity, get their various needs met, and build relationships with others.
Developmentally this process involves both internal and external factors that influence how the adolescent feels about himself and impacts his decisions.
April 29, 2002

To Whom It May Concern:

It is my understanding that Ms. Suzanne Crandall is in the process of designing a study of high school hazing as part of her doctoral dissertation. Alfred University is extremely pleased she is focusing her research on this important and worthy topic. We have conducted two landmark studies on hazing and have consistently recommended further research on this topic.

Our first study, “Initiation Rites and Athletics: A National Survey of NCAA Sports Teams” was begun as a response to a hazing incident involving our rookie football players in August of 1998. Our president charged a campus commission to “review all aspects of Alfred University’s athletic program and recommend how best to prevent alcohol and hazing abuse.” After an exhaustive review of the literature, the Commission could not find data specific to hazing among college athletes. The President’s Commission recommended the University form an advisory committee to initiate a national survey to identify the scope of various types of behavior for initiation rites, perceptions of what is an appropriate or inappropriate behavior, strategies used to prevent hazing and philosophies guiding the culture of intercollegiate athletes.

With the assistance of the National Collegiate Athletic Association, Alfred University surveyed 10,000 student-athletes from NCAA institutions, along with 3,000 coaches and more than 1,000 athletic directors and senior Student Affairs officers. Students were asked if they were hazed or knew of hazing among the athletic teams on their campuses. They were also asked to indicate whether they had been involved in a list of 24 behaviors as a requirement to belong to an athletic team. As almost an afterthought, we asked at what age they were first hazed to join an athletic team or another group. Surprisingly, 42 percent were introduced to questionable initiation rites in high school and five percent said they were hazed in middle school.

The advisory committee has assumed students were first exposed to hazing at college, when in fact, many had come from a culture of hazing. This revelation and a series of high profile, high school hazing incidents prompted us to consider another research project. Again, after an exhaustive review of the literature, we could find little quantitative research on high school hazing. The information seemed limited to newspaper accounts and books giving an anecdotal history of hazing.
We constructed a survey to be sent to high school students around the United States. A composite list of more than eight million names and home addresses from among approximately 15 million high school students in the country was used to draw a random sample of 20,000 students at their home addresses. Once again, the data indicated a significant number (48 percent) of students who belong to groups reported being subjected to hazing activities.

As one of the principle investigators of the studies and as an alum of Drake University’s doctoral program in education, I find it gratifying to see one of your students do a continuation of this research. Alfred University is willing to support Ms. Crandall in her endeavor and would be happy to consult when needed.

Please feel free to contact me if you have further questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Norman J. Pollard, Ed.D.
Director, Counseling and Student Development Center

NJP/kc
HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH REVIEW COMMITTEE

FINAL NOTIFICATION FORM

To be completed by the Investigator:

Date Submitted: July 30, 2002

Proposal Title: Campus Violence: A Study of the Autobiographical Memories of Entering First Year College Students on their High School Hazing Experiences

Investigator: Suzanne E. Crandall  Telephone: (515) 643-6616

Faculty Advisor: Catherine Wilson Gillespie, Ph.D.  School of Education

Return to: Suzanne E. Crandall  6113 S.E. 3rd St.  Des Moines, IA 50315

To be completed by the Human Subjects Research Review Committee Chair:

Decision:  

[ ] Approval, no risk
[ ] Approval, minimal risk

Approval, subjects at risk, but benefits outweigh risks

[ ] No approval. Subjects at risk or proposal does not adequately address risks, benefits, or procedures.

Reasons for Disapproval:

Suggested Changes: You should emphasize access to the results. Participants should be made aware of their right to know.

HSRRC Chair: ____________________________  Date: ____________________________

Date Received: 8/13/2002
**National Survey of High School Students**

*Instructions: Please use a #2 pencil and fill in each answer fully. Do not check or cross out.*

**State of Residence**
- O AK
- O AL
- O AR
- O AZ
- O CA
- O CO
- O CT
- O DC
- O DE
- O FL
- O GA
- O HI
- O IA
- O ID
- O IL
- O IN
- O KS
- O KY
- O LA
- O MA
- O MD
- O ME
- O MI
- O MN
- O MO
- O MS
- O MT
- O ND
- O NE
- O NH
- O NJ
- O NM
- O NV
- O NY
- O OH
- O OK
- O OR
- O PA
- O PR
- O RI
- O SC
- O SD
- O TN
- O TX
- O UT
- O VA
- O VT
- O WA
- O WI
- O WY

**Gender**
- O Male
- O Female

**Class**
- O 9th Grade
- O 10th Grade
- O 11th Grade
- O 12th Grade

**Grade Point Avg.**
- O A
- O F
- O B
- O Not
- O C
- O Graded
- O D

**Ethnic Origin**
- O Black Non-Hispanic
- O Native Am./Alaskan
- O White Non-Hispanic
- O Asian
- O Hispanic
- O Other

**School Type**
- O Public School
- O Church School
- O Other Private
- O Home School

**Location**
- O Urban
- O Suburban
- O Rural

---

**Have you or would you report hazing if you knew about it?**
- O Yes
- O No

If no, why not? (mark all that apply)
- O There's no one to tell, who I could tell?
- O Adults wouldn't know how to handle it right
- O It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen
- O Other kids would make my life miserable
- O I just wouldn't tell on my friends no matter what

**What is your opinion of hazing?**

Is humiliating hazing a good thing?
- O Yes
- O No
- O Don't know

Is dangerous hazing a good thing?
- O Yes
- O No

Do you know adults who hazed?
- O Yes
- O No

Is hazing socially acceptable?
- O Yes
- O No

Does hazing make us less human?
- O Yes
- O No

Is hazing legal?
- O Yes
- O No

Are you religious or spiritual?
- O Yes, are you:
  - O Jewish
  - O Christian
  - O Muslim
  - O Buddhist
  - O Hindu
  - O Other:

**Which of these do you think would prevent hazing?**
(mark all that apply)
- O Strong discipline for hazing
- O Police investigation & prosecution of hazing
- O Students sign a "no hazing" agreement
- O Good behavior is required to join the group
- O Adults who support positive initiation activities
- O Adults who say hazing is not acceptable
- O Positive, bonding activities
- O Physically challenging activities
- O Education about positive initiation and hazing
- O Other:

---

**If you were ever hazed, please answer the following questions. If not, please go to the next page.**

At what age were you first hazed to join a group?

At what age did you first haze others?

Why did you participate?
(mark all that apply)
- O It was fun and exciting
- O We felt closer as a group
- O I was scared to say no
- O I got to prove myself
- O Adults do it too
- O I didn't know what was happening
- O I just went along with it
- O I wanted revenge
- O Other:

Did you experience any of these because of hazing?
(mark all that apply)
- O Got sick
- O Was injured
- O Hurt someone else
- O Committed a crime
- O Got in trouble with police
- O Was convicted of a crime
- O Got into a fight
- O Fought with my parents
- O Considered suicide
- O Quit going out with friends
- O Did poorly on school work
- O Missed school, practice, game or group meeting
- O Had difficulty eating, sleeping, or concentrating
- O Other:
Were any of these activities expected of you to join a high school group or team? (mark all that apply)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport Team</th>
<th>Competitive Musical</th>
<th>Academic Honor Societies</th>
<th>Social Club or Organization</th>
<th>Vocal or Drama or Theater Group</th>
<th>Newspaper, Yearbook, Writer</th>
<th>Music or Art or Theater Group</th>
<th>Church Group</th>
</tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Go on a trip, camp, ropes course, or preseason practice  
Tattoo, pierce, or shave yourself or each other  
Smoking cigarettes, cigars, or use tobacco  
Skip school or refuse to do school work or chores  
Take a test for skill or knowledge, try-outs, auditions  
Eat or drink disgusting things  
Be cruel to animals  
Associate with specific people, not others  
Be thrown into a pool, ocean, creek, pond, or toilet  
Beat up others or pick a fight with someone  
Take an oath or sign a contract  
Be tied up or exposed to extreme cold  
Play recreational games together  
Participate in drinking contests  
Be yelled, cursed, sworn at  
Embarrassing yourself publicly  
Deprive yourself of food, sleep, or cleanliness  
Drink or exercise until you pass out  
Keep a specific grade point average  
Undertake group projects, fundraisers, or workcamps  
Inflict pain on self, brand, or participate in satanic rite  
Attend a banquet, picnic, lunch table, or food event  
Undress or tell dirty stories or jokes  
Group singing, chanting or cheering  
Be physically abused or beaten  
Steal, cheat, or commit a crime  
Make prank calls or harass others  
Dress up formally for events  
Drink alcohol  
Use illegal drugs  
Act as a personal servant to older members  
Be a mentor, Little/Big Sister or Brother, or buddy  
Destroy or vandalize property  

Other positive activities  
Explain:

Other embarrassing or isolating activities  
Explain:

Other dangerous or illegal activities  
Explain:
June 6, 2002

Suzanne E. Crandall
Chair, Division of Allied Health
Mercy College of Health Sciences
928 6th Avenue
Des Moines, IA 50309

Dear Ms. Crandall:

On behalf of Alfred University, I extend permission to use the results and survey instruments from our 1999 NCAA study of college athletes and our 2000 study of high school students in the development of a study on reflections of entering first-year college students on their high school hazing experiences. I understand the material will be used in your dissertation for Drake University’s doctoral program.

Please credit Alfred University and the principal investigators, as appropriate, in your dissertation.

Good luck! I look forward to seeing the results of your study.

Sincerely,

Susan C. Goetschius
Director, Office of Communications
### High School Hazing Survey

#### Instructions: Please check the box for each appropriate answer.

#### Student Background

**State of Residence**
- Alaska (AK)
- Arizona (AZ)
- California (CA)
- Colorado (CO)
- Connecticut (CT)
- Delaware (DE)
- Florida (FL)
- Georgia (GA)
- Hawaii (HI)
- Idaho (ID)
- Illinois (IL)
- Indiana (IN)
- Iowa (IA)
- Kansas (KS)
- Kentucky (KY)
- Louisiana (LA)
- Maine (ME)
- Maryland (MD)
- Massachusetts (MA)
- Michigan (MI)
- Minnesota (MN)
- Mississippi (MS)
- Missouri (MO)
- Montana (MT)
- Nebraska (NE)
- Nevada (NV)
- New Hampshire (NH)
- New Jersey (NJ)
- New Mexico (NM)
- New York (NY)
- North Carolina (NC)
- North Dakota (ND)
- Ohio (OH)
- Oklahoma (OK)
- Oregon (OR)
- Pennsylvania (PA)
- Rhode Island (RI)
- South Carolina (SC)
- South Dakota (SD)
- Tennessee (TN)
- Texas (TX)
- Utah (UT)
- Vermont (VT)
- Virginia (VA)
- Washington (WA)
- West Virginia (WV)
- Wisconsin (WI)
- Wyoming (WY)
- Other

**Ethnic Origin**
- Black Non-Hispanic
- Native American/Alaskan
- White Non-Hispanic
- Asian
- Hispanic
- Other

**School Type**
- Public School
- Private School
- Home School
- Other

**Location**
- Urban
- Suburban
- Rural

**Gender**
- Male
- Female

**Graduated**
- Prior to 2000
- 2000
- 2001
- 2002

**Cumulative Grade Point Average**
- 2.00–2.49
- 2.50–2.99
- 3.00–3.49
- 3.50–4.00

#### Hazing

Any humiliating or dangerous activity expected of you to join a group, regardless of your willingness to participate.

**Have you experienced hazing with any of these groups?**

- I joined but was NOT hazed:
- I joined and WAS hazed:
- I joined and saw hazing happen to others:
- I did not join because I was afraid I would be hazed:
- I tried to join, but left the group because of hazing:

**Have you or would you report hazing if you knew about it?**

- Yes
- No
- If no, why not? (mark all that apply)
  - There's no one to tell, who could I tell?
  - Adults wouldn't know how to handle it right
  - It's not a problem, sometimes accidents happen
  - Other kids would make my life miserable
  - I just wouldn't tell on my friends no matter what

**What is your opinion of hazing?**

- Is humiliating hazing a good thing?
- Is dangerous hazing a good thing?
- Do you know adults who hazed?
- Is hazing socially acceptable?
- Does hazing make us less human?
- Is hazing legal?

**Have you ever been hazed?**

- Yes
- No

**At what age were you first hazed to join a group?**

**Why did you participate? (Mark all that apply)**

- It was fun and exciting
- We felt closer as a group
- I was scared to say no
- I didn't know what was happening

**Have you ever hazed others?**

- Yes
- No

**At what age did you first haze others?**

**Why did you participate? (Mark all that apply)**

- It was fun and exciting
- We felt closer as a group
- I was scared to say no
- I didn't know what was happening

**Which of these do you think would prevent hazing?**

- Strong discipline for hazing
- Police investigation and prosecution of hazing
- Students sign a "no hazing" agreement
- Good behavior is required to join the group
- Adults who support positive initiation activities
- Adults who say hazing is not acceptable
- Positive, bonding activities
- Physically challenging activities
- Education about positive initiation and hazing

**Did you experience any of these consequences because of hazing? (Mark all that apply)**

- Got sick
- Was injured
- Hurt someone else
- Committed a crime
- Got in trouble with police
- Got into a fight
- Fought with my parents
- Considered suicide
- Quit going out with friends
- Missed school, practice, game or group meeting
- Had difficulty eating, sleeping, or concentrating

**How did you feel afterward? (Mark all that apply)**

- Angry
- Confused
- Embarrassed
- Guilty
- Part of the group
- Proud
- Sad
- Strong
- Regretful
- Trusted
- Wanted revenge
- Other
Any of these activities expected of you to join a school group or team? (mark all that apply)

- a trip, camp, ropes course, or preseason practice
- no, pierce, or shave yourself or each other
- ke cigarettes, cigars, or use tobacco
- school or refuse to do school work or chores
- a test for skill or knowledge, try-outs, auditions
- or drink disgusting things
- ruel to animals
- ciate with specific people, not others
- brown into a pool, ocean, creek, pond, or toilet
- t up others or pick a fight with someone
- e an oath or sign a contract
- lied up or exposed to extreme cold
- / recreational games together
- picipate in drinking contests
- yelled, cursed, sworn at
- barrassing yourself publicly
- rive yourself of food, sleep, or cleanliness
- nk or exercise until you pass out
- p a specific grade point average
- errtake group projects, fundraisers, or work camps
- cact pain on self, brand, or participate in satanic rite
- end a banquet, picnic, lunch table, or food event
- dress or tell dirty stories or jokes
- up singing, chanting or cheering
- physically abused or beaten
- al, cheat, or commit a crime
- e prank calls or harass others
- ess up formally for events
- ink alcohol
- e illegal drugs
- t as a personal servant to older members
- a mentor, Little/Big Sister or Brother, or buddy
- stroy or vandalize property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Team</th>
<th>Cheerleading Squad</th>
<th>民乐队 or 民族器乐团</th>
<th>Scholarly or Intellectual Club</th>
<th>Social Club or Organization</th>
<th>Political or Social Action Club</th>
<th>Music, Art, or Theater Group</th>
<th>Vocational or Life Skills Group</th>
<th>Peer Group or Gang</th>
<th>Church Group</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**her positive activities**

plain:

**her embarrassing or isolating activities**

plain

**her dangerous or illegal activities**

plain
Appendix H

Cover Letter - Survey

Dear Student,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Education at Drake University. The attached survey was developed to provide information on high school students’ experiences with hazing rituals. I am asking you to reflect on your high school experiences as you complete the survey. Completing the survey will indicate that you have given permission for me to use your data. If you complete the survey, and then change your mind, please draw a line through the completed information so that it will be clear that you do not want the data to be used. You may choose either to participate or not to participate in the survey. You may, at any time, stop filling out the survey. The Drake sticker at the bottom is yours to keep as a thank you. The results of the survey will be kept strictly confidential and you will not be identified in any way in the results.

To add to the research data, I will conduct focus groups of four to six people who would be willing to meet once, on or close to the Drake campus, for one to two hours, to provide more information on hazing rituals in high school. Pizza and non-alcoholic beverages will be provided to focus group participants. These sessions will be audio taped and/or videotaped. If you would be willing to participate in a focus group, please fill in the information on the Focus Group Permission Form. Please indicate whether you would agree to being audio taped, videotaped, or both. Your name will not be included in the results.

Whether you participate in the survey, focus group, both of these, or neither of these, your Welcome Weekend and other activities will not change at Drake University.

There are no foreseen benefits or risks to you from participating in this study other than your contribution to knowledge about hazing rituals in high schools. The services of the Drake University Counseling Center are available to all students. I would be happy to send you the results of this study if you give me an address to send them on the attached form. Thank you very much. Please feel free to ask me questions now, call me after the session, or contact my supervisor. This page is yours to keep.

Sincerely,

Suzanne E. Crandall
515-643-6616

Supervisor: Catherine Wilson Gillespie, Ph.D.
515-271-3726
Appendix I

Permission Form – Survey

Research on High School Hazing
Focus Group Permission Form

☐ yes, I would like to participate in a focus group

☐ no, I do not want to participate in a focus group

If consenting to participate in a focus group:

☐ I agree to be audio taped*  ☐ I agree to be video taped*

*tapes and videos will be kept in the control of the researcher and destroyed after 5 years

Name (please print)

Local telephone number/E-mail address
that you check regularly

Other method to contact you

Request for Study Results

You have a right to see the results of the study. Please fill in the information below if you would like to see the results.

Name/Address to which results should be sent (please include zip code):

________________________

________________________

________________________
Appendix J

Breakdown of High School Hazing Activities into Four Groups

Humiliating Hazing

- Be yelled, cursed, or sworn at
- Associate with specific people and not others
- Act as a personal servant to older members
- Undress or tell dirty stories or jokes
- Embarrass yourself publicly
- Be thrown into a pool, ocean, creek, or toilet
- Skip school or refuse to do school work
- Tattoo, pierce or shave yourself or others
- Eat or drink disgusting things
- Deprive yourself of food, sleep, or cleanliness

Substance Abuse Activities

- Drink alcohol
- Participate in drinking contests
- Smoke cigarettes or cigars, use tobacco
- Use illegal drugs
- Drink or exercise until you pass out

Dangerous Hazing

- Make prank phone calls or harass others
- Destroy or vandalize property
- Steal, cheat, or commit a crime
- Beat up others or pick a fight with someone
- Inflict pain on self, brand, participate in satanic rite
- Be tied up or exposed to extreme cold
- Be physically abused or beaten
- Be cruel to animals

Community Building and Initiation

- Keep a specific GPA
- Take a test for skill
- Go on a trip, camp, pre-season practice
- Dress up formally for events
- Attend a food event
- Undertake group projects, work camps
- Play games together
- Group singing or cheering
- Take an oath, sign a contract
Appendix K
Research Studies Conducted as Replications Using the Same Survey Instrument

An in-depth review on using replication as a research design is beyond the scope of this study. In this section, the researcher provides a definition of replication and discusses studies that have used this research design. Studies on aggression and moral reasoning in youth sports, pain control during labor, assessment of leadership styles, and the Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.) program have used replication to further research findings.

Replication is defined as "A repeat study with either no changes at all in the procedure (exact replication) or carefully planned changes, in the procedure (systematic or conceptual replication)" (Graziano & Raulin, 2000, p. 432). Replication of research can increase confidence in the findings of each study if the results of subsequent studies are essentially the same as the original even when the researcher used different participants/subjects and/or conditions (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Replication of research studies can allow researchers to conduct a meta-analysis of the results. When a study has been carefully replicated several times and the results are consistent, there is a synergistic result in that the findings from all the studies compiled are stronger than the findings of each individual study (Schafer, 2001). Generalizing results may be more likely to be considered appropriate with studies that have been replicated and shown consistent findings.

Stephens (2000) used this design to replicate and extend previous research on moral reasoning and aggression in sports that she conducted in
1996 with Bredemeier. Building on the previous study that used only an all-girls youth soccer league as the sample, Stephens used a different sample to explore aggression in youth soccer. The sample for the replication study consisted of an all-girls soccer league (N=50) and a co-educational soccer league (N=257). The participants completed a soccer specific test battery addressing moral reasoning and aggression tendencies. Results of the replication study supported the results of Stephens and Bredemeier's 1996 study and called for additional research to explore the variables that influence moral reasoning and aggression in sports.

Replication can be used to explore the validity and reliability of a survey instrument when studying different cultures. In 1993, Lowe discovered that how well women managed a difficult situation was an important predictor of how well they would handle a specific situation - labor during childbirth. She developed the Childbirth Self-Efficacy Inventory (CBSEI), which was found to be valid and reliable in America (Sinclair & O'Boyle, 1999).

Sinclair and O'Boyle (1999) used Lowe's instrument to replicate the use of this instrument among a sample of women in Northern Ireland to test the CBSEI's validity and reliability in another culture. The sample population was 126 English-speaking women who were in the ninth month of their pregnancy. The participants completed the CBSEI after giving birth and were included in the study if they returned the questionnaire and the information/consent sheet. Results of the replication study demonstrated the reliability of using the CBSEI with Northern Ireland women to measure their abilities to cope with the pain of childbirth. This instrument may be useful in identifying women projected to be
poor at coping with the pain of labor so that proper interventional procedures can be employed.

Corrigan, Garman, Canar, and Lam (1999) used a replication design to extend Corrigan, Garman, Lam, and Leary's research on mental health care workers' perceptions of their team leaders' leadership styles. The researchers used a different sample, rehabilitation team members, to explore their perceptions on their team leaders' leadership styles. The purpose of the study was to determine if the six leadership factors identified on the first study among mental health workers were also identified by the rehabilitation workers.

Three hundred and five rehabilitation team members completed the 60-item Team Atmosphere Questionnaire (TAQ). Results of the study showed that four of the seven leadership factors from the mental health study were replicated in the current study among rehabilitation workers: Autocratic Leadership, Clear Roles and Goals, Reluctant Leadership, and Vision (Corrigan et al., 1999). The authors are currently conducting a six-month training program with team leaders from both samples to further explore the four factors that overlapped between the studies. This component of the study was designed to discover whether leadership skills of the team leaders could be improved, and if so, do the improvements affect the behavior of the team members.

Replication in research does not always result in the same findings. An example of conflicting results from replication studies can be found in the literature on the Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.) program. An extensive discussion of the research studies that have been done on the
D.A.R.E. program since 1983 is beyond the scope of this review of replication studies. Two conflicting research studies will be briefly discussed. Although these two studies did not use exactly the same methodology, researchers in both cases were exploring the effect of the D.A.R.E. curriculum on drug use among elementary to high school students.

The D.A.R.E. program began in 1983 in a Los Angeles, CA school district (Dukes & Ullman, 1995). In 1996, the D.A.R.E. program could be found in 70% of the nation's classrooms and 44 foreign countries (Rosenbaum & Hanson, 1998). The program's curriculum involved a trained police officer coming to the classroom once each semester to deliver the information in an attempt to increase students' self-esteem, teach them how to deal with peer pressure, and to emphasize the risks of using alcohol and drugs. The goal was to reach young children to provide them with the skills needed to resist drugs and alcohol as they progressed into middle school and high school (Dukes & Ullman, 1995).

Multiple studies to determine whether the D.A.R.E. program decreases the likelihood that children will use drugs have been conducted (Glass, 1997). Unfortunately, these studies have reported conflicting results. Dukes and Ullman (1995) conducted a longitudinal study of the D.A.R.E. curriculum in Colorado Springs, CO from 1990 – 1993 using a Solomon Four-Group design. Elementary students in 60 schools from 5 districts (N = 10,000) were involved in the study. The students were randomly assigned to one of four groups. Group A was experimental and Group B was a control group – these two groups were pre-tested and post-tested. Group C was experimental and Group D was a control
group — these two groups received only the post-test. The researchers reported that students who participated in the D.A.R.E. program demonstrated higher self-esteem and supported fewer risky behaviors related to drug use.

Rosenbaum and Hanson (1998) conducted a longitudinal study of students from 6th grade through 12th grade (N=1,798) to determine the effects of the D.A.R.E. program on drug use among adolescents. A pre-test was administered followed by multiple posttests as students progressed through these grade levels. The study was conducted using eighteen pairs of elementary schools representing urban, suburban, and rural areas. The schools were matched based on type, ethnicity, number of students with low proficiency in English, and number of students from low income families. None of the schools chosen for the study had previously used the D.A.R.E. program. Within each type of school (urban, suburban, rural) the researchers randomly assigned the institution to either the experimental group that received the D.A.R.E. program or to a control group. The researchers reported that the results showed that D.A.R.E. was not effective in decreasing drug use during the high school years and that drug use did not correlate to participation in the D.A.R.E. program.

Summary

Replication as a research design can result in increased confidence in studies that report consistent findings or decreased confidence when results are contradictory. Replication of the 2000 Alfred University study on high school hazing provides an opportunity to explore relationships between variables within the new sample of entering first year college students and to compare results
from the current study to the national study among nationwide high school students.
### Table L1

**Summary of Chi-square Goodness-of-fit Test for Activities Students Participated in When Joining High School Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Humiliation</th>
<th>Alfred University Study (%)</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be yelled, cursed, or sworn at</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate with specific people and not others</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Act as a personal servant to older members</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undress or tell dirty stories or jokes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrass yourself publicly</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be thrown into a pool, ocean, creek, or toilet</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Appendix L

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Alfred University Study (%)</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skip school or refuse to do school work</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tattoo, pierce, or shave yourself or others</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat or drink disgusting things</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deprive yourself of food, sleep, or cleanliness</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Substance Abuse</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink alcohol</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in drinking contests</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoke cigarettes or cigars, use tobacco</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use illegal drugs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Alfred University Study (%)</td>
<td>Current Study (%)</td>
<td>(\chi^2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink or exercise until you pass out</td>
<td>9 (11 Male, 8 Female)</td>
<td>3.6 (2.5 Male, 4.2 Female)</td>
<td>12.85*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dangerous Hazing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Make prank phone calls or harass others</td>
<td>10 (11 Male, 9 Female)</td>
<td>2.8 (1.7 Male, 3.3 Female)</td>
<td>20.86*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Destroy or vandalize property</td>
<td>9 (10 Male, 8 Female)</td>
<td>1.7 (2.5 Male, 1.3 Female)</td>
<td>23.64*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Steal, cheat, or commit a crime</td>
<td>8 (9 Male, 7 Female)</td>
<td>1.4 (2.5 Male, 0.8 Female)</td>
<td>21.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beat up others or pick a fight with someone</td>
<td>7 (9 Male, 5 Female)</td>
<td>2.4 (4.0 Male, 1.6 Female)</td>
<td>11.73*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflict pain on self, brand, participate in satanic rite</td>
<td>6 (5 Male, 6 Female)</td>
<td>3.6 (3.8 Male, 3.3 Female)</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be tied up or exposed to extreme cold</td>
<td>6 (7 Male, 5 Female)</td>
<td>4.3 (1.6 Male, 5.7 Female)</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be physically abused or beaten</td>
<td>6 (8 Male, 5 Female)</td>
<td>1.1 (2.5 Male, 0.4 Female)</td>
<td>15.26*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be cruel to animals</td>
<td>3 (4 Male, 3 Female)</td>
<td>0.5 (1.6 Male, 0.0 Female)</td>
<td>7.63*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix L

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Alfred University Study (%)</th>
<th>Current Study (%)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community Building and Initiation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep a specific GPA</td>
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<td>68</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a test for skill</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go on a trip, camp, pre-season practice</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dress up formally for events</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attend a food event</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undertake group projects, work camps</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play games together</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group singing or cheering</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take an oath, sign a contract</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>-------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* *p > 0.05*

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**Current Study**

**Affiliated University Study**

Appendix L
Appendix M
Focus Group Questions

Demographic Information

Name (first name only) ______________________
State where you went to high school ________________
Year of high school graduation ____________________
Your high school cumulative GPA ____________________
Location of your high school (urban, suburban, rural) ________________
Type of high school (private, public) ________________
Do you consider yourself religious or spiritual? ___ yes ___ no

Some ideas on hazing to think about and discuss:

1. How would you define hazing?

2. What types of activities do you consider to be hazing?

3. What do you think would prevent hazing?