

# **The Relationship Between Veterans' Participation in School Activities and Their Perceived Ability to Assimilate to Campus Culture**

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*This study examines the relationship between student veterans' self-perceived level of participation in school activities and organizations and the association participation has with veterans' level of assimilation to college life. Subjects were one hundred student-veterans from a southwestern university and college. Instruments used were the Veteran's Involvement Questionnaire (VIQ), a modification of Grover's (2014) Family Involvement Questionnaire, and the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ) (Baker, 2017). Results reveal a significant correlation between the variables participation and assimilation. Results also suggest the need for further research on other factors that may contribute to student veterans' assimilation into campus culture.*

*Keywords: veteran, assimilation, participation*

## **INTRODUCTION**

From early childhood and throughout adulthood, people participate in events, functions, and gatherings simply to fit in or feel part of a group or an organization (Thirumanickam, Raghavendra, & Olsson, 2011). For example, children participate in games and other school activities so that they may feel accepted by their peers. Members of a church community will attend and participate in services and church sponsored events so that they can be accepted as members of the congregation. Even within the military, service members participate in rituals and ceremonies that celebrate their membership in the organization. Unfortunately, for some, the ability to participate and assimilate may vary by context. One such group is student-veterans.

In 2012, over 900,000 veterans began receiving educational benefits (Hultin, 2014). According to the National Center for Education Statistics, of the veterans who attended an accredited university, only 51.7% were graduated (Zoroya, 2014). In comparison, 59% of the 17 million non-veteran student population graduated (Zoroya, 2014). The increase of veteran attendance in colleges and universities illustrates that more and more veterans are taking advantage of their federal benefits, but nearly half a million do not graduate (Zoroya, 2014). In their years of service, our nation's warriors have obtained a vast amount of technical skills that have been proven to be beneficial in the workforce. However, non-veteran students are, approximately, 8% more likely to be graduated than veteran-students (Velez, 2014).

This disparity is concerning. While in the military, veterans demonstrated the distinct ability to accomplish all tasks; however, a similar success rate is not evidenced by those veterans who enter college.

While in the military, veterans are required to participate in all field exercises (Kim & Cole, 2013). In these field exercises, veterans learn to communicate and work with each other to accomplish tasks and missions and to build unit cohesion (Kim & Cole, 2013). However, in the college setting, veterans' participation outside of the classroom is almost non-existent (Kim & Cole, 2013). In fact, veterans reported being less likely to engage in campus life (American Council on Education, 2013). Approximately 51% of student-veterans reported that they sometimes or never attend campus events and activities (Kim & Cole, 2013). This lack of participation may limit the opportunity for student-veterans to reacquire critical life skills, such as, developing new friendships and acquiring a sense of assimilation (Thirumanickam, Raghavendra, & Olsson, 2011). Therefore, the present research investigated the relationship participation in school activities/events and school organizations had on student-veterans' perceived ability to assimilate to college life.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### Assimilation

Establishing connections with other group members can help a new organizational member to assimilate effectively into the organization (Sollitto, Johnson, & Myer, 2013). Organizational assimilation is the process through which employees join and become integrated into an organization (Sollitto, Johnson, & Myer, 2013). Organizational assimilation is applicable to the academic setting for two key reasons. First, just as employees begin to develop their own expectations for the organization in which they are about to enter, college students develop their own expectations for the classroom environment, peers and instruction (Sollitto, Johnson, & Myer, 2013). Second, just as organizational newcomers experience uncertainty about the organization, their roles, organizational standards, and fellow coworkers, college students experience uncertainty about the class, their role as a student, classroom standards, and fellow classmates and professors (Sollitto, Johnson, & Myer, 2013).

Further, Courtois and Herman (2015) defined assimilation as the act of avoiding, minimizing, or ignoring group differences, whereby, the minority group adopts the mainstream point of view of the organization. The student-veteran population is seventeen times smaller than the non-veteran student population (Zoroya, 2014). Consequently, the student-veteran population is a minority within the university (Hultin, 2014). Veterans accounted for only 4% of the national student population (Hultin, 2014). Accordingly, student-veterans need to avoid, minimize or ignore group differences and adjust to the mainstream point-of-view of the university in order to assimilate to college life.

The problem for veterans, however, occurs when they leave the military and decide to use their educational benefits. Assimilating to college life is not as easy or automatic as the assimilation process they experienced in the military (Kim & Cole, 2013). Assimilation becomes more difficult when veterans begin to feel that the culture of the university does not reflect their own (Francis, Kelly, & Bell, 2003). In other words, veterans have not been able to fully deculturate from the military and re-acculturate to life as a civilian.

Kim and Cole (2013) found that a large number of student veterans did not feel supported by their institution and are not as engaged in non-core academic areas such as organizations, events and activities as their non-veteran peers. The life readjustment struggle that most veterans face when they attempt to assimilate into college life must be taken into consideration (Helping Veterans Return to Work: Best Practices for Behavioral Health Practitioner, 2013). Factors such as social and interpersonal problems impede veterans' ability to successfully readjust to life outside the military, to accept their roles as students, to assimilate to college and ultimately, to be successfully graduated (Hultin, Veterans and College, 2014). Student veterans struggle to discover exactly where they belong amongst a population that is, on average, seven years younger than they are (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013). Their social and interpersonal difficulties create a high level of relational turbulence that inhibit them from accepting their roles as college students (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013). Difficulty relating to others creates negative

interpersonal expectations (Locke, 2005). Expectations regarding how others will react to the self and how the self will respond to those reactions (Locke, 2005). A person's imagined reaction to another person is the probable reflection of expectations specific to the situation and relationship, as well as, more general interpersonal scripts and schemas (Locke, 2005). Therefore, negative expectations create negative interpersonal problems (Locke, 2005). To further add, veterans who feel that they may have little in common with their peers, find it difficult to create and maintain relationships that go beyond the classroom or class work, thus, increasing their feeling of isolation and decreasing their willingness to accept their role as a student (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013). As student-veterans struggle to negotiate their roles as students, to identify and to relate with other students, and to find importance and meaning in college, their experiences turn into negative interpersonal expectations, which may make assimilation to college life seem less appealing (Transitioning to Campus, 2017).

For veterans, in general, role renegotiation has always been an area of concern (Murphy & Murphy, 2009). When veterans return home from deployments, they face the possibility that their family members may have some difficulty relinquishing the duties and responsibilities entrusted to them, thus creating tension within the relationship (Murphy & Murphy, 2009). For student-veterans, however, negotiating the role of student poses more difficulty than renegotiating family member roles (Murphy & Murphy, 2009). With family members, veterans have already established common ground, which eases the role negotiation process (Murphy & Murphy, 2009). Student-veterans may have little common ground upon which to base relationships with non-veteran students; this increases the amount of tension on the role negotiation process (Parsons, 2016).

Student-veterans, on average, are seven years older than their classmates; 47% have already married and have children; they have already held a steady full-time job and have leadership roles within their jobs (VA Campus Toolkit, 2016). In comparison, many non-veteran students enter college directly out of high school; they may or may not have a part-time job, and they may still be dependent on their parents (Hultin, 2014). When student-veterans begin to believe they have little in common with the non-veteran students, the student-veterans may begin to feel like a spectacle, alienated and ostracized by their peers and the university (Parsons, 2016). They may also feel excluded from the team because of their differences, causing them to question their reasons for attending school (Parsons, 2016). In order to create common ground for the student-veteran and non-veteran student populations, an understanding and appreciation of their differences needs to be developed.

The process of assimilation is not considered to be passive (Gordon, 1964). Whether forced or desired, assimilation requires the minority group to relinquish some of their beliefs and behavioral patterns and take on the cultural beliefs and behavioral patterns of the dominant group (Vander Zanden, 1963). For student-veterans, relinquishing prior beliefs and behavioral patterns is easier said than done; however, not impossible. One approach for developing common ground between veteran- and non-veteran students would include engaging in social interactions, activities and events at the university. As social participation increases, the more likely veteran-students will be to accept the behavioral patterns and beliefs of the university as their own (Vander Zanden, 1963).

## **Participation**

Social participation is defined as a person's involvement in activities that provide interactions with others in an organization (Levasseur, Cohn, Dubois, Genereux, Richard, & France-Helene, 2015). Social participation contributes to the acquisition and development of critical life skills such as developing friendships and a sense of belonging (Thirumanickam, Raghavendra, & Olsson, 2011). Student-veteran's perception of participation vastly differs from that of non-veteran students (Kim & Cole, 2013). Student-veterans view class participation as a requirement for passing a course, not as a means for social interaction with classmates (Kim & Cole, 2013). Student-veterans view and treat the class period of instruction as if it is a mission briefing; taking in all the information they can to ensure a higher likelihood of mission accomplishment (Kim & Cole, 2013). In fact, 48% of student-veterans report having no problem working with other classmates on class assignments and projects (Kim & Cole, 2013). However, student-veterans have reported that they are less likely to engage in campus life (American Council on

Education, 2013). Approximately 51% of student veterans report they sometimes or never attend campus events and activities (Kim & Cole, 2013). As well, only 11% report participation in school organizations (Kim & Cole, 2013). But the question remains; why do veterans have a different understanding and point of view for participation? To understand this, the reader must look back to the veterans' time served at boot camp, where participation was not an option.

When students participate in school activities, they become less likely to engage in behaviors that deter them from completing their course work (Cassel, Chow, Demoulin, & Reiger, 2000). The more students actively participate in school activities, the more likely they are to continue a post-secondary education and complete a four-year degree (Stewart, 2009).

Every student, veteran or non-veteran, endures hardships in their pursuit of higher education. Even though student veterans and non-veteran students have a slightly different understanding and approach to participation, the desired outcome of course completion and graduation are shared by both.

According to Zorn and Gregory (2005), the creation of meaningful relationships and shared commonalities among both veteran- and non-veteran-students will help mitigate some negative expectations held by both groups. Through active participation in school activities/events and/or school organizations, student veterans can create and maintain relationships that go beyond the classroom setting (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013). In turn, participation will help decrease the feeling of isolation and increase the willingness to accept the role of a student (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013).

Stewart (2009) along with Cassel, Chow, Demoulin, and Reiger (2000) conclude that participation does have an impact on a student's sense of assimilation (Hultin, 2014). By refusing to socially participate in campus events/activities and college organizations, student veterans will continue to struggle with developing friendships and building a sense of assimilation to campus life.

Accordingly, if student veterans increased their level of social participation in school activities/events and school organizations, their level of assimilation to college life will also increase. The following hypothesis is posed:

***H1:** As student-veterans' reported level of participation in school activities/events and school organizations increase, their reported level of assimilation to college life will also increase.*

## **METHODS**

### **Participants**

One hundred student-veterans were chosen from two locations (large southwestern university and a midsized southwestern college) with the aid of the veteran service centers on each campus. The participants were selected through convenience sampling. Parameters required participants to be student-veterans between the ages of 18 to 65. The age parameters limited the study to veterans who served starting from the Gulf War to the present Operation New Dawn. All branches of service were accepted for participation in the study.

### **Instruments**

A questionnaire comprised of three sections was employed by this research: a short demographic section, the Veteran Involvement Questionnaire (Grover, 2014) and the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (Baker, 2017).

The Veteran Involvement Questionnaire (VIQ), adapted from Grover's (2014) Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ-HS), is a 40-item, Likert-type scale that measures veterans' self-perceived level of participation in school activities/events and school organizations. Grover's (2014) original FIQ-HS measured parents' level of participation in his/her teenager's school and academic work by measuring the amount of assistance he/she provided to his/her teenagers. The FIQ-HS responses range from 1= "rarely" up to 4= "always" (Grover, 2014). Scores for the FIQ-HS range from 40-160, higher scores indicate a greater level of involvement (Grover, 2014). The Cronbach's alpha score for the FIQ-HS is .93 (Grover, 2014). The estimated time for completion of the FIQ-HS was 10-15 minutes (Grover, 2014).

Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ-HS). For the purposes of the present investigation the FIQ-HS was modified. Modifications consisted of changing “parents” to “professors” and “teenager” was changed to “student.” No further modifications were made to the original FIQ-HS. The Cronbach’s alpha for the VIQ in the present study was .964

Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ), developed by Baker and Siyrk (1989), is a nine-point, Likert-type scale that measures students self-perceived level of adaptation to his/her university (Baker, 2017). The SACQ’s responses range from 1 = “does not apply to me at all” to 9 = “applies very closely to me” (Keller, 2013). Scores for the SACQ range from 67-603 with higher scores indicating a more positive adjustment to the university (Keller, 2013). The SACQ is comprised of four subscales: academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and attachment (Keller, 2013). The Cronbach’s alpha score for the SACQ is .93 (Keller, 2013). The estimated time of completion for the SACQ is 15-20 minutes (WPS: Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire, 2017).

## **Procedures**

Because only eleven percent of the total population reported that they had lived on campus, questions A26 “I enjoy living in a college dormitory” and A33 “I am getting along very well with my roommate(s),” were omitted from the study. This revision changed the SACQ’s Cronbach alpha score to .80.

Student veterans who entered the veteran service center were asked, on an individual basis, if he/she would be willing to complete an anonymous questionnaire. Upon assent the subject was given the questionnaire to complete. A pilot study found that each veteran took approximately twenty-five to thirty minutes to complete the questionnaire (Fagan, 2016). To ensure that the subjects did not feel rushed, forty-five minutes was given to each participant to complete the questionnaire. Participants were escorted to an office, provided by the military and veteran service center, to complete their questionnaire. The only additional information given to the participating veterans was that the questionnaire was exclusively for veterans and he/she should answer the questions honestly. After completion of the questionnaire, the subjects were instructed to return their questionnaire to the researcher.

Upon completion of the study, a standardized email was sent to all student veterans who were currently enrolled in the university and college. The standardized email primarily served to debrief all participants regarding the study’s purpose and results. Secondly, the email served as an informative piece of literature to the student veteran population who had been searching for ways to ensure completion of their higher education.

## **RESULTS**

Of the demographic data collected, 50 students were from the university campus and 50 were from the college campus. As well, 81% of the subjects who participated were male and 19% were female. To include, of the 100 participants, 16% identified their ethnicity as white and 84% identified as non-white. Also, 21% of the subjects stated that they are non-Hispanic and 79% stated that they are Hispanic. The participants ages ranged from 19 years old to 65 years old. Ages 26 and 27 each accounted for 10% of the total population, making them the mode among the participants. Regarding the subjects’ military demographic data, 30% indicated the United States Marine Corps as their branch of service, 43% annotated their branch of service as United States Army, 18% specified United States Navy, 5% stated United States Air Force and 4% selected United States Army Reserve as their branch of service. As far as the subjects’ current military status, the mode of subjects, 56%, indicated that they reached their end of active service and are presently out of the military. As well, only 11% of the subjects indicated that they still have military obligation with the Individual Ready Reserve, 5% of the subjects are still on active duty status and another 5% still have reserve obligations. Only 3% of the subjects are active reservist, 10% are fully retired from military service and finally another 10% have been medically retired from active service.

Regarding deployment location, 40% of the participants indicated that they participated in Operation Enduring Freedom and/or Afghanistan. Also, 15% stated that they have participated in Operation Iraqi Freedom and 14% specified that they participated in the most recent military offensive, Operation New Dawn. Lastly, from the participants surveyed, 26% indicated that they have never deployed, 34% stated they have only deployed once and 23% said that they have deployed at least twice.

### **Data Analysis**

To examine the hypothesis, a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated to examine the relationship between participants' perception of participation in school activities, events and/or organizations and their perceived ability to assimilate into the campus culture. A significant positive correlation was revealed  $r(98) = .318, p < .01$ , indicating a significant linear relationship between the two variables. Adjusted was .101; indicating that the variable in the model explained 10% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation.

### **DISCUSSION**

The results revealed a significant correlation between veterans' participation in school activities/events and school organizations and their perceived ability to assimilate into the campus culture. Accordingly, the hypothesis was confirmed. Therefore, veterans who participated at higher levels in school activities/events and school organizations revealed an increase in their perceived ability to assimilate to the campus culture. However, the correlation between the two variables, participation and assimilation, differed as a function of the location for collection of data: University or College.

In an effort to explore potential relationships between the variables, the data were subjected to further analyses. The following analyses were performed to explore any potential relations and/or threats to the validity of the cited results. A second Pearson product moment correlation was calculated, on only those responses collected from veteran-students enrolled at the university location. A weak positive correlation was found ( $r(48) = .208, p > .05$ ), indicating a non-significant linear relationship between the two variables within the university context. A third Pearson product moment correlation was calculated on the data collected from the college location. In obvious contrast to the results from the university campus sample, a strong positive correlation was discovered ( $r(48) = .426, p < .01$ ), indicating a significant linear relationship between the two variables. Adjusted was .181; indicating that the variables in the model explained 18% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation for the college campus. The disparities between the campuses led to the need to consider the impact of institutional size on the relationship between these variables. That perhaps the disparity is due to the size of the campus. An explanation consistent with the position taken in this investigation, these results could indicate that because the college population is smaller, perhaps developing meaningful relationships with faculty and staff may be easier. However, other interpretations are possible. Further exploration of the data also revealed significant correlation between the variables when other factors such as race, ethnicity, number of deployments and branch of service were examined.

When the fourth Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated to examine the relationship between the variable of race (white/non-white) a strong, significant, positive correlations was found ( $r(14) = .656, p < .01$ ) for subjects identifying as white. For non-white participants, ( $r(82) = .267, p < .01$ ), the data also indicated a significant linear relationship between the two variables. Adjusted was .430; indicating that the variable in the model explained 43% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation for the participants who identified as white. For non-white student veterans, adjusted was .071; indicating that the variable in the model explained 7% of the variance in student's perception of participation and assimilation. The data suggest that participants who have identified as white may assimilate at a slightly higher rate than non-white participants. The slight disparity among race could imply cultural differences amongst white and non-white participants. Further research is required to understand what cultural differences could be causing the disparity amongst white and non-white participants.

Another Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated to examine the relationship between the variable of ethnicity (Hispanic/non-Hispanic). A strong significant positive correlation was found ( $r(19) = .620, p < .01$ ) for non-Hispanic participants. A slightly weaker positive correlation was found ( $r(77) = .260, p < .05$ ) for Hispanic participants. Adjusted for non-Hispanic was .384; this indicated that the variable in the model explained 38% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation. Adjusted for Hispanics was .067, which indicated that the variable in the model explained 7% of the variance in the students' perceptions of participation and assimilation. Interesting enough, this calculation coincides with the previous Pearson product moment correlation coefficient conducted for the participants' race; further reiterating the need for continual exploration on the impact race and ethnicity has on the participants perceived level of participation and assimilation.

A sixth Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the effects of the number of deployments experienced by the participants. The only significant correlation was discovered for participants who reported only one deployment ( $r(32) = .406, p < .01$ ), indicating a significant positive correlation between the two variables. Adjusted was .164; suggesting that the variables in the model explained 16% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation. However, after further examination of the number of deployments, a trend began to emerge. As the number of deployments increased, after one deployment, the weaker the correlation between the variables became. Based on the declining trend, it could be speculated that as the number of deployments increased, the more dissociated the veterans became with others. Further exploration of deployment frequency must be conducted to understand the psychological effects repetitive deployments have on a veteran's perceived ability to participate and assimilate into a culture outside the military.

A final Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the relationship between each branch of service. The data revealed a significant positive correlation amongst participants who had identified as Army, Navy and Air Force. For participants who had identified as Army revealed a significant positive correlation of ( $r(41) = .347, p < .05$ ). Adjusted for Army veterans was .120, which indicated that the variable in the model explained 12% of the variance in students' perceptions of participation and assimilation. A significant positive correlation was also discovered for Navy veterans ( $r(16) = .418, p < .05$ ). Adjusted for Navy veterans was .174, suggesting that the variable in the model explained 17% of the variance in the identified variables participation and assimilation. Lastly, a significant positive correlation was found ( $r(3) = .838, p < .05$ ) for Air Force. Adjusted for Air Force was .702; signifying that the variable in the model explained 70% of the variance in the students' perception of participation and assimilation. However, participants who had identified as Marines did not show a significant correlation between the variables. Lieutenant Colonel Grossman (1995) indicated in his book, "On Killing," Marine boot camp has always been known for being one of the most grueling military training in the world. Every facet at Marine boot camp is intended to train new recruits to accept the role of an infantryman above all other duties (Grossman, 1995). Perhaps there may be more to the notion "The few, the proud, the Marines." It could also be probable that reason for the disparities may be because the duration of boot camp for each branch of service. For example, the duration of Air Force boot camp is six weeks, Navy boot camp is eight weeks, Army boot camp is ten weeks and finally, Marine Corps boot camp is thirteen weeks. It could be speculated that the longer amount of time spent at boot camp the more acculturated the veteran becomes to the military lifestyle. Thus, leading to a higher difficulty of re-aculturating to life as a civilian when the veteran exits the military. Further investigation into the matter may yield data that would support this speculation.

The explored data suggest that there is a multitude of factors that have a direct impact in how the variables participation and assimilation interact with each other. By obtaining a better understanding of the veteran culture and the steps taken to acculturate a civilian into the military lifestyle, universities and colleges can apply the same principles and methods to assist student-veterans in the assimilation process to life as a college student. Perhaps, universities and colleges can create an orientation course that provides the necessary tools and knowledge that will assist student-veterans in the assimilation process. Just as the military uses a methodical process to deculturate a civilian, the same process can be used to assist in the acculturation, of the service member, to the campus culture.

As well, because the student-veteran population has drastically increased in the most recent years, college professors must now be aware of the many psychological complications their student-veterans struggle with daily. One such complication is being able to reach student-veterans in a manner that they understand. By having a better insight in how a student-veteran views authority, professors can utilize their position of authority in the classroom to guide and mentor their student-veterans.

Inherently, professors have legitimacy in the classroom setting; with their legitimacy, professors gain authority over the classroom. Therefore, just as Lieutenant Colonel Grossman (1995) described the Milgram experiment on obedience, professors can be trained to utilize their position of authority in the classroom to guide and direct their student-veterans to success in the classroom. By providing a familiar form of authority, student-veterans can be “directed,” towards a path of successful assimilation.

### **Limitations**

Even though the posed hypothesis was confirmed, and a significant correlation was discovered between participation and assimilation, the study was not without its limitations. The first limitation noted is that both campuses were non-traditional campuses. That is to say, both campuses were commuter campuses. In a commuter campus, most of the student population do not live in student housing (Horn & Berkold, 1998). Further, as the name states, students have to travel to campus to attend classes (Horn & Berkold, 1998). Many commuters simply stayed on campus just to attend class (Tenhouse, 2017). Rarely do commuter students spend any time outside the classroom and on campus. In fact, most commuters would either leave for home or go to work after class having no desire to socialize with other students (Tenhouse, 2017). This characteristic seriously limits the opportunity for students to participate in social events and activities and the ability to assimilate.

The second limitation to the study was the sample size. The study was limited to 100 participants. Therefore, the sample size limited the possibility of having a more diversified participant population among sex, race and ethnicity. However, the researcher found this limitation to be inevitable. Due to the geographical location of both campuses, the majority of the participants were non-white Hispanic males. Perhaps extending the research to residential campuses in other regional locations may provide differing results.

### **CONCLUSION**

The study revealed an obvious correlation between participation and assimilation. Accordingly, as the level of student-veteran participation in school activities/events and/or organizations increased, the more likely they were to reveal higher assimilation into the campus culture. Ultimately, one would “hope” leading to a higher probability of graduation. The post hoc exploratory analysis revealed stronger correlations when demographic variables were entered into the model. The stronger correlations suggest possible avenues for future research on this topic.

Further studies of the subject will prove to be beneficial to veterans who are planning to attend an institution of higher education. This information may provide veterans with the knowledge and tools they will need as they face the challenges of acculturating to civilian life. This awareness may then create a greater probability of adaptation into their campus culture. As well, this information proves to be useful for institutions of higher education. Universities and colleges could be better trained and equipped to deal with the rising student-veteran population.

No longer should veterans accept the fact that only 51.7% of their fellow comrades are graduating from college (Zoroya, 2014). No longer should institutions of higher education fail to meet the needs of the student-veteran population. Colleges and universities must ensure its student-veterans are given every opportunity and all resources necessary to assimilate into their campus culture. Accordingly, a higher probability of graduating from college may be possible. Another opportunity to achieve mission success for both the institution and the student-veteran population.



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