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To submit articles for consideration in future volumes:

•Please consult the Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation on the inside back cover of this volume.

•Submissions for the 1993 edition (Volume 2) will be accepted through **November 1, 1992.**

Cover design by Jim Farrand '92.

A Note from the Editor

Marie E. Oamek

It is difficult to articulate how I feel as the inaugural edition of the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs goes to press. I have a sense of achievement, and also of awe. We have accomplished so much in such a short period of time. The editorial board has worked on the process of creating this Journal since the summer of 1991. We have progressed from a concept to an end product in less than a year. We have developed a mission statement and goals, written job descriptions, recruited funds and assistance, and collected, evaluated, & selected articles. We have designed a cover and a layout, and arranged for the journal to be printed. The project is almost complete.

Most of us on the editorial board are preparing to graduate and move on from CSU this semester, but it is with a feeling of accomplishment that we pass on to future classes the structure with which to produce a quality scholarly journal. It is amazing to me all the skills possessed by the people involved in our Student Affairs in Higher Education program. We are all very lucky to be a part of such a diverse and talented group. This Journal is an excellent demonstration of what students are accomplishing here.

Articles from current students, alumni, faculty, and staff in Student Affairs here at Colorado State University are included in the Journal. The range of subjects covered is diverse: from minority identity development to orientation, legal issues to eating disorders, suicide to gender roles, and more. We also have included a variety of types of articles. Our program director has contributed an update on the "State of the Program," some articles contain program suggestions, one involves longitudinal research, and others offer opinions and personal experiences. We even have a book review, detailing one of the most current books out on leadership.

I hope you share our excitement about the inaugural edition of the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs! Enjoy it in good health and good spirits!

Acknowledgements:

The **Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs** would not have come into being if it were not for Dr. Keith Miser. He sparked the idea of a journal, supported us, challenged us, and believed in us. Keith also helped make the final product a reality with funding from the Division of Student Affairs. We are grateful to Keith for all he has done for this Journal.

There are others who have helped to pave the path to success for the Journal. Grant Sherwood provided funding from Housing and Food Services, as well as telephone and postage support from the Student Affairs in Higher Education program. Mannie Cunard of the Lory Student Center provided funding for the project, and Dave McKelfresh of Residence Life provided access to the department's Macintosh lab to give the final product a quality touch. Martha Fosdick of the Vice President for Student Affairs Office was an invaluable source of information and support.

Of course, without the efforts of all who researched and wrote articles there would be no Journal. Thanks to all the authors who submitted articles this year. Be thinking about your plans for next year!

And finally, a heartfelt thank you to all of you who have supported us, encouraged us, and shown your enthusiasm for the project. We appreciate your belief in us and in the value of having a scholarly journal for Student Affairs in Higher Education.

Sincerely,

The Editorial Board,
Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs

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The State of the Program

Grant P. Sherwood
Program Director
Student Affairs in Higher Education

I thought it appropriate in this first edition of the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs that we bring our alumni and friends an update on the graduate program. Many changes have occurred since entering the decade of the 90's. Faculty and students are enthused by changes in curriculum and graduation requirements and our graduates continue to compete very favorably in the job market.

In one of his first official acts as University President, Dr. Albert Yates advocated the move to a new Master of Science degree, Student Affairs in Higher Education (formerly M.Ed-CSPA) before the Colorado Commission on Higher Education. After discussion the Commission voted unanimously to approve the new degree and a new era in the life of our graduate program was born.

This Fall (1991) twenty one newly admitted students began their quest for an M.S. degree under the leadership of seventeen faculty members, most of whom are full-time administrators in the Division of Student Affairs. A total of 43 students are currently enrolled in the degree program. Additional courses have been added to the curriculum and students must complete 48 semester credit hours to graduate.

Assistantship opportunities have been broadened and the number of ethnically diverse students serves as a model for the rest of the institution. Scholarship opportunities have also been enhanced through on-going gifts from ARA Services and Hardees.

Our program continues to blend a focus on administrative/student development theory with extensive experiential opportunities through practicums and assistantships. The redefined "Goals for the Program" reflect a sense of purpose and relationship with our students. The faculty and students in this program are dedicated to excellence in the field of student affairs. The following are the program goals for the M.S. in Student Affairs in Higher Education:

- To provide a graduate program representing a coherent and progressive curriculum in the following core areas: the historical, philosophical, social, and economic foundations of higher education administration; the nature, scope, and functions of administering college student affairs services; college student development theory; organizational behavior and development, the helping relationship, planning, management, and evaluation of student affairs; campus ecology and the college environment; institutional diversity, and research in student affairs.

• To instill in each degree candidate the necessity of lifelong professional development and the significance of being a student affairs administrator.

• To assist students in identifying, developing, and maintaining the essential knowledge base, personal characteristics, and competencies necessary for a career in student affairs administration.

• To be proactive and responsive to the needs of the audiences served by the program. The audiences for this program are pre-service and in-service personnel employed or seeking employment in the administration of student affairs within:

* Colleges
* Universities
* Community Colleges
* Technical and Occupational Centers
* Private Post-secondary Institutions

• To conduct evaluation and research that will increase the expanding knowledge base in the field of student affairs.

• To maintain faculty involvement and encourage student participation with professional associations at the local, state, and national levels.

• To enlarge the cadre of competent student affairs administrators. By 1995, to realize the goal that eighty percent of the graduates of our program are administering or serving in professional leadership positions in the field of Student Affairs in Higher Education.

• To maintain high standards and a highly selective enrollment. Currently we are admitting less than 25% of our applicant pool.

A unique perspective gained from the CCHE review process came in the form of letters of support from academic programs directors and professional student affairs leaders around the country. Our program was consistently commended for its curriculum development, quality of faculty, national reputation, and successful alumni. The CAS Standards were carefully reviewed and used as a guide for curriculum development and program administration.

Speaking of our alumni, we now have over 250 graduates of our program. Our research shows that over 75% are actively contributing to the field of student affairs. Our Alumni Directory has recently been updated and is available to all program graduates.

This Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs is a professional extension of our graduate program. As this first edition clearly illustrates, the Journal will serve to highlight the many contributions our students and faculty make to the student affairs profession.

The New Professional's Frustration: Creating Change In The Established System

Guy Arnesen

Sue was extremely energetic when she began her first professional position as a Hall Director in a university system which housed 5,000 undergraduate students. At first the prospect of running a hall of 450 students and supervising a staff of fourteen undergraduates was unsettling, but she had both education and practical experience on her side, and the nervousness soon gave way to confidence and anticipation of good things to come.

Sue had recently completed her Masters education at State University, an institution of comparable size, and had completed a two year graduate assistantship as a Head Resident with State's Housing Department. Although that position in a hall of 200 residents did not carry all the responsibilities of her current position, she had learned a great deal from the selection, training, and supervision of a staff of six Resident Assistants.

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Within two weeks of entering the new job Sue's enthusiasm began to slide. The lines of communication between the central Residence Life Office and the individual halls were not what she had previously experienced. The support and resources did not seem to be in place as she ran into problems at the hall level, and she was constantly reminded of the way she should be approaching situations. Sue saw inconsistency and lack of communication between the individual residence halls and soon realized the need for a centralized staff selection and training approach as was used at State U. Sue's frustrations doubled as she voiced her ideas but received little response when explaining how well the process worked at State U. She began to feel as though she was the only one who was working to improve things, and the only one willing to go beyond a job description. The others really didn't seem to care. She was unhappy, was being seen as the youngster, and was tired of not seeing any consideration given to her helpful solutions to *system wide problems. Within a year Sue decided to look for work at other schools... perhaps State U might have some openings soon.*

This scenario may echo the frustration many new professionals feel when coming into a new system ready to change the world... beginning in the workplace. This article will share some thoughts on how new professionals can prepare themselves to come into a new position, develop relationships, and use research as a tool to motivate change in an established system.

Many entry level professionals would assume they have little power or freedom to motivate and create change in an established system. They would argue that the ability to create change will depend almost completely on the attitude and flexibility of those in higher positions in the system. If supervisors are open-minded and flexible, the new employee will get the opportunity to express good ideas and be trusted to carry them out. Creating change would seem to depend on how quickly, and what amounts of power the new employee can gain in the system. Although we would probably all agree that there is some truth in these opinions, it is the bland acceptance of these *truths* that may keep the new professional from initiating the process of change and improvement within the system. The dilemma arises: If the new professional waits to be given power to create change in a system they will most likely wait a long, long time. If they push strongly for change they ruffle feathers and become the naive young whipper-snapper who's ideas are discounted until they grow up a bit.

The first recommendation on how to gain voice and respect in the new system is to volunteer. When a problem is being discussed, volunteer to research the situation in order to gain information, develop recommendations, and suggest an inexpensive response to the problem. Keep in mind the following three things while establishing yourself in the system.

Power is not given - It is *not* a common practice in most systems to hire for an entry level position and then give the new employee the keys to the universe.

Power is not successfully taken - To *take* usually means that one person's gain is another's loss-- not a very pleasant way to become popular with fellow workers (especially for new kids on the block). When the new employee participates in a competition for power within the system they risk the possibility of closing doors to future relationships and support within that system. Most likely the winner will someday be needing the support of those individuals they so readily matched up against.

Power can be created - New professionals can create their own power within the system and then share it with others to improve, simplify, and make the wheels of the system turn more smoothly. By developing relationships through using research as a change tool, they can make everybody's job more pleasant (and fulfill personal needs at the same time). Employees showing skills in this area will also end up receiving more opportunities to use their talents. This process involves the basic and simple (yet hard to put into practice) ideas of cooperating, sharing, and supporting others, rather than competing with them. In competition one person's victory is another's loss, and a system really doesn't need half of its members succeeding at the expense of the other half. The net gain is still zero (or less than zero as friction takes its toll). Cooperation allows everyone to win; staff members, the department, and eventually the students who receive better services.

For the entry level professional to begin to create change in the system they should first find the answers to some extremely important questions.

What is motivating me to create change in the system?

This might be the hardest question to answer honestly. Initial answers from a new hall director might include something similar to establishing *a smoother centralized training process, to reduce system stress, to provide a better prepared staff, to provide better services to students, or to ultimately improve the resident living experience in the hall.* These are great answers, but what this question really addresses are the needs that one personally has around the issue of change. New professionals may feel they must prove to others (and themselves) that they are *movers and shakers*, and that it was not a mistake to hire them. Most of us get a charge out of doing something important, to say *I am unique, I am special, and I feel appreciated.* There are many ways for the new professional to begin to feel confident and supported in the workplace, but trying to create change to fulfill those personal needs may not be the best solution. Knowing internally where the motivation for creating change will help keep the focus moving in the right direction, towards services to students and improvement of the system.

What homework must I do before creating change?

This answer is simple... research. One needs to understand what they are attempting to change as well as what they are changing. What needs can be fulfilled through change that are not being met with the current approach and programs? There needs to be clear purpose to the change, based on solid research, and one must understand all areas effected, both inside and outside the system.

Do I truly understand the cur-

rent approach in the system?

The current approach has a history of how it developed to its current structure. Events and needs have developed the values and philosophy, and most importantly the mission that it works towards. Sometimes a mission is set, the vision and philosophy are created, and ways to accomplish those goals are developed. In the following years the vision is somehow lost (or it changes), but the system still concentrates on the process that is used, not remembering that it is a means to an end. If the current process clearly accomplishes the mission and vision of the system, change will most likely be resisted, and the task at hand may become an effort to alter parts of the process to keep the system evolving with the needs of our changing student population.

If there is really a need for the change, to what degree?

Is the change needed merely in tactics and pieces, schedules and timelines, approaches, or ultimately a whole change in the vision and philosophy of the department?

Who agrees that change needs to take place, or at least that things could be improved?

Have you talked with students, staff, receptionists, administrators, faculty, and other offices? What messages do you get about the problem? Are personnel happy or complainers in the work place? Are they proud to be part of the system? Are students involved in the system or busy in their own private experiences? Are staff supportive or judgmental of others? The answers to these questions may be very easy for the new professional to assess if they realize the importance of research. Asking people their opinions and listening to the answers will provide most of the needed information.

Change does not happen by itself, and one person can not change a system. The process of change needs involvement and commitment by the folks who make up the system if it is to be successful. Top down decisions don't necessarily work towards goals if the line workers don't understand the purpose and don't commit to the process. The best administrative alcohol policy in the nation will not help students if the Resident Assistants pick and choose what parts of the policy they will enforce in the residence halls. Bottom up change may be threatening to some administrators, creating a feeling of *giving up control*, and although the intention and ideas may be on target, the inability of an administrator to enable and empower others (and get past personal agendas) may kill the process.

Successfully creating change in an established system requires a system commitment from all levels of the organization. A system commitment to the vision and philosophy of the department will create an environment where change is used to provide for the changing needs of a diverse student population. This commitment is met when all members of the system understand and have input in creating the planning and process behind the change itself. Research not only provides information, but can allow all people in the system to feel important, share their ideas and solutions, understand the vision and purpose, and finally become a part of the solution. By getting people involved, the new professional may be able to turn all that energy lost on complaining into brainstorming power and commitment. Through good research a foundation can be built on which change is not seen as a threat, but actually the cement for the structure.

The following three actions can help the new professional create power in the workplace:

1. Building Relationships Take time to open the eyes and ears to hear what people mean when they speak and to watch the behaviors and actions of system members and students. Care enough about others to seek out their experience, opinions, and to appreciate and value their differences in approach and working styles. Positive relationships will quickly create positive communication and generate energy within the working environment.

2. Gaining Knowledge - Through the effort of asking questions and truly listening to the answers will come knowledge of how things are perceived by members of the system. The way different areas of the system visualize the goals, successes, and failures of the system may vary, and collecting and sharing this information can create new understanding. The history of the system, and under what circumstances change has occurred in the past gives knowledge that is very important to improving and growing as a system.

3. Modeling Involvement - Choose behaviors and approaches that help move the system towards the goals and vision of the organization. Role model energy, communication, concern, and a positive attitude in a day to day routine. Refusing to compete with others, making efforts to work with others, sharing ideas, knowledge, and power within the system will all motivate others to do the same.

The Research Cycle as a Change Process

There are a variety of tools for creating change within a system. Unfortunately many of those tools may not be available to new professionals. Some power for change comes from position or status in the system, having the ability to reward and give negative consequences, having the availability of resources or information within the system, or having valued expertise and experience within the system.

The power of authority comes with position and longevity in the system, while power of influence comes with communication and relationships within the system. The new professional will be given limited power of authority, and probably can not gain the power of influence quickly. Influence takes time to develop. New professionals must create their own power base, thus research becomes an important tool. Research can take ideas and energy from the entire system and focus them in an area of study. It provides a base to build from, and can span the entire scope of the issue.

The following process is a seven step process that will collect the wisdom of the entire system and utilize the members to create discussion of issues, revitalize energy and vision, make members feel a part of the process, and create options to be considered. Perhaps the final outcome of the research process will not be the total change of a staff selection process that has been in place for years, but it will produce new energy, involvement, and ways of thinking for the system members.

1. Know the Mission of the Department

The first thing one must do when entering a new system is to learn everything possible about that new system. What are the values and philosophy of the system, and are they visible in the mission and goals of the department that you work for? Is there vision and energy within the system, or do the members rely on comfortable traditional approaches to the new problems arising in providing services to today's college student? What services are being provided by the system, and of these, which are the pride of system members? Are programs following the values and philosophy of the system? What steps are being taken to put theory into practice? What are the current short and long term goals of the department, and what is the history of the goals within the department? What decisions have been made to get things to where they are now, and who made them? Can members of the organization verbalize the goals of the department and system? If they can, do they agree with them?

2. Identify the Concern

What is the problem that you wish to tackle? Where is the breakdown in the system? Is it in the basic philosophy, mission and goals, outdated ways of reaching goals, or are members of the system hindering a process that could be successful? If the problem is personnel, is it because they don't understand, are frustrated, or don't have the skills or abilities? What are the behaviors or observations that visibly effect the process?

3. Utilize Resources

Gather the input of the entire system. Identify all levels of the organization and gather the views of each on the subject. What do they see from their area that is impacted or not taken into consideration? This process gains commitment of all in the system as members realize that one area's concerns are also impacting their area. This process empowers members to become a part of the solution by providing the opportunity and invitation to volunteer data, ideas, and feeling as part of the research and change process. Contact all subgroups and collect as much data as is reasonable, and time permitting, this can be accomplished most successfully through individual interviews and discussions with groups. Surveys and questionnaires are another approach, but they tend to lose the opportunity to develop relationships and personal connection.

4. Create a Vision

Take all the information and knowledge that you have received from members of the system and put it together to create a new approach/solution to the problem. Make a rough draft based on fulfilling needs, but also address the concerns of all the subdivisions of the system. This draft should contain the new approach, the purpose behind each part of it, and the process that went into determining it's development.

5. Gain Commitment

Share the rough draft with the members of the system, from top to bottom. Explain how and why decisions were made, and help each see their part in determining the new process. For parts that differ from their point of view, help members see where other concerns came into play. Gather evaluations of the plan, including what was missed or still needs to be changed. If suggestions have already been addressed, explain the other considerations. Finally, ask for a commitment from all to support the effort, to give it time to work, to watch it closely to see if it accomplishes what the goals are, and finally to be prepared to give suggestions and evaluation after the project is completed.

6. Do it

Volunteer once again to coordinate, facilitate, and evaluate the change. Be the guinea pig! Do it with the intention of giving it all that you have. Follow the plan outlined unless small corrections are needed during the process. Share the investment of time and energy (and credit) with others who wish to be involved.

7. Process the Process

Evaluate the results of the task with those who were effected by it, benefited from it, and were involved in implementing it. Did you accomplish what you started out to do? Did the process respect all the areas that needed to be taken into consideration. Document the observations, suggestions, and considerations and share them with all parts of the system who gave input. Let them react to the results and enjoy the fruits of the process. Don't forget to say thank you!

On Becoming a Racial Being: Exploring Ethnic Identity Development Theory

Richard T. Okamoto

Introduction

In the National Association of Student Personnel Administrator's A Perspective on Student Affairs (1987), we find that it is our mission to see that all students who enter our campuses are treated as unique individuals, valued as persons with dignity and worth, not victims of bigotry, assisted when personal circumstances interfere with learning, able to find a supportive and friendly community, and have the freedom to doubt and question assumptions. This sounds like a monumental task— and it often is. As our society becomes more ethnically diverse the above tasks will become all the more difficult.

Researchers such as Harold Hodgkinson (1983) forecast demographic changes in the early eighties. He noted that we would be seeing a larger number of minority students in our public schools and that they would represent a larger percentage (30%) of our public school enrollment. The tomorrow that he talked about is today.

We have all heard the cries for multiculturalizing our campuses. The solutions have ranged from simply recruiting more ethnic minority students and faculty to the complete restructuring of campus curricula to better represent the diverse cultural backgrounds and histories of our students. We have seen the rise of "political correctness" as a response to the growing diversity on our campuses. It is becoming difficult to know just how best to serve our students.

In all the confusion a couple of questions come to mind which include: do we do the politically correct thing and develop diversity programs without giving any attention to whether they are appropriate for our "majority culture" students? And how do we heed the cries of our ethnically diverse students when we do not understand their needs?

As student affairs practitioners we learned to develop programs and services to meet student needs based on theories and models. Few of us are ever

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exposed to any theories that deal with issues of racial identity development. Most of the developmental theories which we studied in our graduate programs were based on the assumption that all of our students were white and from fairly homogeneous backgrounds. As our student populations become more diverse and complex we need to learn new ways to understand them.

Unfortunately, researchers have done few empirical studies in the past on how students develop a sense of racial identity. Despite the lack of empirical research several theories do exist. It is my intention to expose the reader to two theories on racial identity development. One is Helms' theory on White identity development and the other is Cross' model on Black identity development.

I have chosen Helms' model on White identity development because it is one of the few proposed theories that deals with the majority culture's reaction to ethnic minorities. It also has some potential programmatic applications. Cross' model on Black identity development has received the most research attention and is one of the most quoted of all ethnic identity development models (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). I found Cross' insights to be helpful in understanding issues of reference group acceptance, not only for Afro-American students but for other ethnic minority students as well.

Helms' White Identity Development Model

Janet Helms' (1984) model for White identity development is a cognitive development theory. Helms based her model on personal observations and interviews, addressing Whites' reactions to Blacks. However, I believe that her model could be used to describe Whites' reactions to other ethnic minorities as well, due to similarities in socioeconomic power. Because I believe that this theory has more universal application, I will be using the terms "majority" and "minority" when talking about Whites and other ethnic minority groups respectively.

Originally Helms' model had only five stages. Due in part to some more recent research, Helms (1990b) has revised her theory, and now believes that the majority culture's racial consciousness develops along a progression of six stages. She indicates that there are two phases through which a majority culture person becomes aware of racial and ethnic differences. The first phase is "abandonment of racism" (Helms, 1990b) which includes the following stages: Contact, Disintegration, and Reintegration. During this phase the majority culture person experiences various stages of denial regarding racial differences. The second phase of this process is the development of a "non-racist" majority identity. This phase includes the following stages: Pseudo-independence, Immersion/Emersion, and Autonomy. During this second phase the majority individual accepts and welcomes differences as a part of life in a heterogeneous world.

The first stage of development is the Contact stage. During this stage the person first becomes aware that minority culture people exist. This contact may be direct (my roommate is a black) or vicarious (parent tells person about the existence of ethnic minorities). They do not see themselves as racial beings. Often a person at this stage has never encountered anyone who is that different from themselves racially.

Typically, persons in this stage may have their first encounter with a minority culture person when they go away to college. Because of this lack of experience they tend to approach these encounters with a certain amount of naivete. They either ignore the existence of cultural differences (I don't see you as Asian) or minimize their importance (people are people). Either way the interaction with a minority represents a minor crisis because there is uncertainty about the proper way to act.

Once a person has their first interaction with a minority person they may either choose to cut the relationship off or satisfy their curiosity by continuing it. A person may discontinue the relationship because of a negative encounter or because they do not wish to be ridiculed by other majority culture persons. If they discontinue their contact, a person can remain fixated in this stage and each new encounter with that minority group will continue to be a minor crisis. If they continue the relationship, then several things might happen. They may continue to have confusing experiences with other minorities due to their lack of knowledge. An inner conflict might result as they try to justify the messages they have heard about how to treat fellow human beings. The resolution of this inner conflict propels the person towards the Disintegration Stage.

In the Disintegration stage the person acknowledges their membership as a majority culture person. The person at this stage faces the fact that differences do exist and that their culture may have had something to do with the oppression of the minority culture. This may cause the individual to experience feelings of guilt. At this point a person might do one of three things: 1) over identify with the minority culture and try to take on their customs or dress; 2) become paternalistic towards those in the minority culture; 3) retreat back to the contact phase and limit their interactions with those in the minority culture. The person who chooses the third option will avoid moving into the Reintegration phase. According to Helms the person following the first two options eventually will face rejection by the minority culture and/or the majority culture. As a consequence of resolving feelings of rejection or guilt resulting from being a part of the majority culture a person moves towards Reintegration.

During the Reintegration stage a majority culture person fully acknowledges their majority identity. The person now becomes more hostile towards the minority person and more positively biased towards their own race. This is one way of resolving their feelings of guilt. They do not have cause to feel guilt or anger if they do not feel responsible for the minority person's status. It is at this stage that a person tends to "blame the victim." During this stage the person believes that the minority person is oppressed because of their own shortcomings and/or racial inferiority. This is a progression from the Disintegration phase in that the person can identify distinct cultural and ethnic differences although those differences will be seen as stereotypes. A person may remain at this stage by doggedly holding onto their beliefs or move onto the next stage by addressing their feelings of anger or fear. When the latter choice is made, the person moves out of the last stage of the "abandonment of racism" phase and into the "non-racist" phase.

The Pseudo-independence stage is the first stage in what Helms (1990b) calls the development of a "non-racist" majority culture identity. In the Pseudo-independence stage the majority person is able to accept ethnic differences on an intellectual or conceptual level. There is a growing curiosity about the minority person, but this is different from the naive approach that was a part of the Contact phase. At this phase a majority person actively begins to question the negative stereotypes and conditions that are a part of the minority race. In this quest for more knowledge about ethnic differences a person also begins to ask about their own identity. When this quest becomes an active search for new information and experiences a person moves into the Immersion/Emersion stage.

During the Immersion/Emersion stage a person begins to replace all the old myths he or she may have held about the minority person as well as any misconceptions about their own racial identity. During the Immersion phase a person may seek out people who have made a similar journey of discovery. During the Emersion phase of this stage the person begins to restructure their own identity and actively help others toward a similar change. A person moves towards the Autonomy stage when they have solidified their own new majority identity.

There is an acceptance of differences as being positive when a person internalizes a new majority culture identity in the Autonomy stage. They seek to involve themselves in cross-racial interactions because they value the differences and are secure in their own identity. This is a significant change because the majority person can see things contextually and is able to enter cross-racial encounters with some knowledge and respect.

In examining Helms' model of White ethnic identity development we have discussed the majority culture persons' transformation in their ability to deal with differences when interacting with ethnic minority groups. Persons from various ethnic minority groups go through a similar yet distinct process in becoming aware of their own racial reference group. Cross' model describes this process for African- Americans.

Cross' Model of Black Identity Development

William Cross first developed his theory of Black identity development in the early seventies. He based it on self-analysis and participant observations (Cross, 1991). He originally postulated a "Negro-to-Black Conversion Model" (Cross, 1971). He believed that this process involved casting off what he perceived as a negative traditional Negro identity for a positive new Black identity. Subsequent research and revision have led him to the current five stage model I will describe below.

He has changed his thinking slightly and now views this change process as more a change in the valuing of a Black person's reference group (Cross, 1991). Cross' model does not strictly involve the development of one's personal identity but more the development of one aspect of that identity.

Before proceeding further, it is important to present a definition of racial identity. Janet Helms developed the definition which will be used here. Helms (cited in Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991) lists three different components to a person's racial or ethnic identity: 1) personal identity (one's feelings about oneself); 2) reference group orientation (extent to which a person identifies with a particular ethnic group to define oneself); 3) ascribed identity (the individual's personal choice or commitment to a particular ethnic or racial group). Cross' model addresses development in the latter two areas.

I believe that this process which he describes for Blacks is similar to that experienced by other ethnic minority groups. So I will again use the terms "majority" and "minority" when making references to Whites and other ethnic minority groups respectively. The five stages of Cross' model are Pre-encounter, Encounter, Immersion—Emersion, Integration, and Integration—Commitment.

The minority person in the Pre-encounter stage does not see themselves as a racial person. Their definitions for success and acceptability are based on majority culture values and mores. Persons at this early stage may follow one of several paths. They may minimize racial differences (I don't see myself as Asian) or not identify themselves with their own racial group. Due to lack of experience with their racial group they tend to be very naive when discussing issues of race.

On the other hand, a minority person may be hostile towards their own kind due to negative feelings that they may feel towards members of their own race. They may view their race as a "negative reference group" because of their own stereotypical beliefs about this group. One example of this type of person is the Black policeman from "Boyz in the Hood" who went out of his way to harass the two young Black protagonists in the movie. A person enters the Encounter stage when some sort of challenge or confrontation occurs that shakes their current beliefs about their reference group.

This encounter may be through some major event or a series of experiences with racism at school or at work. Cross (1991) mentions that the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. jolted many Pre-encounter Blacks into a search for their racial identity. After so many incidents a minority person slowly becomes aware that they are seen as different even though they may not feel that way. It is at this point that the person is made aware that their race is no longer something they can ignore because others will not let them do so. As the individual begins to ask more questions about their own racial identity they move towards the Immersion—Emersion stage.

At the Immersion—Emersion stage an almost dualistic passion with one's own racial and ethnic history occurs. A person goes through a rejection process of their old (majority) identity and the development of a new (minority) one. Again in this context identity is defined as reference group orientation.

This is a stage of great internal change and struggle as the minority person begins to develop a new consciousness. They may begin to attend rallies, go to cultural events and adopt different clothing and hair styles. Students in the Immersion part of this stage are often characterized as "militant" and "overly sensitive" about race. An example might be students pushing for Afrocentric curricula on campus. There is a rejection of all majority culture values and mores. A student may experience many conflicting feelings about being "ethnic enough." During the Emersion part of this stage the minority person begins to move out of the either/or mentality about their racial identity. Once the minority person has worked through much of the anger and confusion about their own racial identity and have begun to solidify their beliefs about their reference group, they move to the Internalization stage.

At this point in the model the minority person has internalized their racial identity and is able to deal with the majority culture without seeing them as the enemy or a threat. There is a new sense of confidence in one's self and internal congruence between how one feels about one's self and their reference group.

According to Cross (1991) the internalized identity serves the following three functions: "to defend and protect the person from psychological insults that stem from having to live in a racist society; to provide a sense of belonging and social anchorage and; to provide a foundation or point of departure for carrying out transactions with people, cultures, and situations beyond the world of Blackness." The person may develop an interest in other minority people and their struggles and concerns as well as the issues of other oppressed groups. When a minority person begins to act on these interests they move into the Internalization—Commitment stage.

In the final stage of Cross' model the Internalization—Commitment stage a person does not differ greatly from someone in the Internalization stage. Cross (1991) felt that one at this stage differed only in that they have a sustained commitment and interest in minority issues and affairs. Parham (as cited in Cross, 1991) felt that people recycle through the five stages as they go through various stages in their lives. A person may first go through the cycle when they go through college. Then as this person enters the workplace, gets married, and has children, they may learn where there are "gaps" in their thinking about their ethnicity. At this point they may recycle through the various stages again.

The process that Cross described above is very complex and not always linear. A minority person may find him or herself recycling or fixated at any particular stage. Given the five different stages we would expect to find students on our campuses represented in all the stages. There will inevitably be a diversity of experience levels within any minority group. Thus is the challenge to those of us hoping to help students of color to adjust to a university or college.

Future Implications and Uses

We are reaching a very critical period in higher education. This is a time when many campuses are reexamining how to be more relevant to all of their students. The debate on how to multiculturalize our campuses continues to rage on. Helms' and Cross' models represent only two explanations for differences in ethnic identity development. The closing paragraphs discuss some cautions and possible implications of these theories.

As stage theories both Helms and Cross' models present ethnic identity development in a linear fashion. Unfortunately, linear models do not always account for times when a student may fixate or recycle through various stages in the model. For example, in Helms' model a student may return to the contact phase when interacting with a different minority group for which they have no prior experience.

It is important to note that both theories describe very complex processes which are not completely understood or verified empirically. Due to the lack of research, reliable assessment tools have yet to be developed. So it is important to be cautious before hastily "labeling" someone as belonging to a certain stage.

Helms' model does have some applications in the area of training of staff and programming. When training staff on multicultural issues it is important to assess what stage the group is in. If one can get a general idea of where the target group is then one can design appropriate programs to satisfy their needs. For example, when one has a group that is primarily in the contact stage, where they have issues of lack of exposure to cultural differences, then the types of activities one generally might use would be those that expose them to the culture, history, or cuisine of various ethnic groups. When working with a group of students where perhaps there are a mix of stages, it is important to vary the training provided to hit as many of the groups as possible. There are other practical uses for Helms' theory, but unfortunately it is not within the scope of this article to provide an in depth discussion on training.

Personally, I found Cross' theory to be useful in understanding my own development as an ethnic minority. My own journey followed a similar path to the one described by Cross. I became painfully aware of how little I knew about my own culture when I was first asked to sit on a "diversity" panel as a spokesperson for Asians. At the time I was asked to do this I was in the Pre-encounter phase. In many ways I was aware of about as much as most of the students I was speaking to at the time. I have since sought out more about my own Japanese-American background but I am still in the process of doing so.

I also found Cross' theory useful when working with minority students especially when trying to organize outreach programs for these students. I learned that just because students are African-American does not mean that they are all going to support a program on Martin Luther King, Jr. Some students of color may not even want to participate in or support "diversity" programs. Their reasons may vary from not seeing the need for such programs to not wanting to support the majority culture. And as demonstrated by my situation above, we need to be careful when choosing students for "diversity" panels. If one chooses a student who perhaps sees their ethnic group in a negative way, that student may be a source of misinformation about that group.

The cries for multiculturalism are very strong now on most of our campuses. In the past our paradigm for multiculturalism has been the "melting pot" where all races and creeds lose their individual character and blend together into one— Americans. A new "salad bowl" paradigm is emerging where people retain their individual uniqueness just as the lettuce, cucumbers, cherry tomatoes, and kidney beans retain their distinctness in a salad. Yet, each ingredient adds to and is valued as a necessary element to the taste of the whole salad.

We need to understand our differences in order to embrace our commonalities. It is through understanding our commonalities that community can begin. Our mission in student affairs is to help students to enter into our academic communities. By understanding how people change in their awareness of racial identity, we will be able to lobby for necessary changes on our campuses to help students of color to successfully enter the academic community.

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Freshmen and Personal Development: A Twenty-Year Follow-Up Study

Dr. Keith M. Miser

In 1971 a comprehensive study was conducted at Indiana University to assess freshman perceptions of the collegiate experience. A section of the study assessed freshman attitudes about their personal development and values they deemed appropriate during their college experience.

A twenty-year follow-up study was conducted in the Spring Semester, 1991, at Indiana University to chart freshman perceptions of their experience. A simple comparison was made to note change over that period.

Indiana University is very different in 1991 than it was in 1971. In 1971 the University and all of American higher education was immersed in a period of campus dissent. The collegiate environment was responding to the basic issues born out of the turbulent 1960's. At Indiana University three campus-wide issues were dominant.

A significant number of students were concerned over the legal status of in-loco-parentis and the subsequent institutional control over their lives, the areas of grading, curriculum, residence hall rules, the discipline system, freedom of speech, and the right of the campus media to function in complete freedom.

Secondly, many students, faculty, and staff were committed to the Civil Rights struggle that was continuing to unfold in 1971. This issue had a major impact on Indiana University. Fraternities and sororities were beginning to admit minority students, and Indiana University had elected its first Black student body president in 1970. The Klu Klux Klan, however, remained active in the local community and often threatened campus leaders for endorsing social change. Black students waged numerous demonstrations, and they were a powerful force for social change,

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both on campus and in the local community.

The third issue of this turbulent era was the role of the United States in the Vietnam War. The campus was torn apart with protest on this issue. In 1970 the library was burned by a dissenting graduate student, who later was diagnosed as being mentally ill. In May, 1970, responding to the shooting at Kent State University, over 13,000 students gathered to protest. The war affected everyone and the draft had a significant impact on freshmen males who were facing the prospect of the draft if they quit school.

In general, the collegiate culture was very unique in 1971 reflecting the unique world environment surrounding it.

In 1991, Indiana University was more peaceful although during the survey period, the United States was at war in the Persian Gulf, racism was a volatile campus issue, and the University again was assessing campus rules and in-loco-parentis. In 1991 the concerns included campus safety, liability, and the maintenance of an environment that would reinforce academic development. Ironically, these same three issues were on the agenda twenty years ago even though the national and international context in 1971 was very different.

The University

Indiana University is one of the four major state institutions in the State of Indiana. In 1971 Indiana's enrollment was approximately 30,000 students and increased to 34,000 in 1991. The campus had a policy of moderately selective admissions in 1971 but was selective in 1991. About seventy percent of the students are in-state residents and about twenty-five percent are graduate students. Primarily residential, the campus is located in Bloomington, a city with a stable population of about 60,000. The city is located about 50 miles south of Indianapolis, the largest city in the state. The campus has a basic science and liberal arts curriculum with a large school of business, school of environmental affairs, and law school. The University has a strong culture, a loyal alumni constituency, and a quality NCAA Division I intercollegiate athletics program.

Related Research

In the literature of higher education from the late 1960's and early 1970's, much was written about the impact of college on students, particularly about their personal and value development and attaining identity (Blocher,1966). Researchers (Chickering, 1960, Katz, 1968, and Sanford, 1962) emphasized the "press" of the college environment on value development. The college environment was seen as a place of freedom to help students build their individual characters through this exploratory journey (Sanford, 1964, Heath, 1965, and Kauffman, 1968).

More recently, researchers (Knefelkamp, 1978, Barr and Upcraft, 1990, Upcraft and Gardner, 1989, Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991) again have defined the college environment as a place to foster growth through personal and academic development. Ernest Boyer recently wrote of the positive impact of the undergraduate experience on the total character development of students (Boyer, 1987). He focused on the value of the entire campus community in providing a stimulus for intellectual growth (Boyer, 1990). These and other authors make a strong case for the impact of post-secondary education on student values, attitudes, and identity development as a critical part of the collegiate experience.

Development of the Instrument

The instrument was designed as the Indiana Freshman Environmental Perception Survey. The specific section on personal development was developed from a section of Alexander Astin's (Astin, 1971) 1970 Student Information Form to assess some 272,268 freshmen at 425 institutions.

The description of the two scales used are as follows:

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT I (from Section 23 of the 1970 Student Information Form). "This section assesses personal development in response to the question, 'What is your best guess as to the chances that you will?'. This section investigates personal growth in vocational choices, future plans, personal foci of importance, and feelings about independence, autonomy, and personal direction." (Miser,1971).

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT II (from Section 34 of the 1970 Student Information Form). "This scale responds to the statement, 'Indicate the importance to you personally of each of the following:' It responds to personal value goals touching on identity, autonomy, and feelings of personal worth and value." (Miser,1971).

These two scales were included in the final questionnaire with a forced choice scale to allow respondents to agree to each individual item.

Method of the Study

The questionnaire was mailed in January, 1971 to all 5,041 first time, entering freshmen with a cover letter from the Dean of the University's freshmen college. It strongly encouraged the respondents to return the completed instrument. A total of 3,823 questionnaires were returned or a 75.8% return for analysis.

In March, 1991, the follow-up identical questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 500 first time freshmen in the entering class of 1990. A letter from the Dean of Students accompanied the questionnaire encouraging early returns. In the 1991 follow-up study, a total of 145 questionnaires were returned, totaling a 29% return for analysis.

The results were analyzed, calculating the percentage and response for each item, both for the 1971 and 1991 surveys. The items were ranked in order of the degree of change.

Results

Figure 1 displays the responses for the scale, Personal Development I, noting only those responses of "very good" from a scale of very good, good, poor, and very poor.

The results from Figure 1 showing the change in responses from 1971 to 1991 are interesting. The scores increased for all seventeen items with gains over 40% for seven items. The two items showing the most significant changes--*Be more successful after graduation and Be elected to an academic honor society*--

Figure 1
Indiana Freshmen Environmental Perception Questionnaire
Personal Development I

	% Very Good Chance 1971	% Very Good Chance 1991	% Change
What is your best guess as to the chances that you will:			
1. Be more successful after graduation than most students attending this college?	12	73	+61
2. Be elected to an academic honor society?	03	47	+44
3. Be satisfied with your college?	54	94	+40
4. Graduate with honors?	04	48	+44
5. Join a social fraternity, sorority, or club?	19	58	+39
6. Get married while in college?	14	49	+35
7. Change career choice?	26	56	+30
8. Drop out of this college temporarily (exclude transferring)?	05	35	+30
9. Transfer to another college before graduating?	11	40	+29
10. Be elected to a student office?	03	31	+28
11. Be drafted while you are in college?	02	27	+25
12. Change major field?	26	37	+11
13. Author or co-author a published article?	05	16	+11
14. Get married within a year after college?	31	41	+10
15. Fail one or more courses?	08	15	+ 7
16. Drop out permanently (exclude transferring)?	05	35	+ 3
17. Enlist in the Armed Services before graduating?	02	04	+ 2

suggest that students have a great deal more confidence today than in 1971. The next two largest changes--*Get married while in college and Join a social fraternity, sorority, or club*--indicate the more conservative nature of students today.

The three items with the least change--*Fail one or more courses, Enlist in the armed services before graduating, and*

Figure 2
Indiana Freshmen
Environmental Perception Questionnaire
Personal Development II

	% Essential 1971	% Essential 1991	% Change
Indicate the importance to you of each of the following:			
1. Having an active social life	15	86	+71
2. Obtaining recognition from colleagues for contributions in my special field	09	76	+67
3. Being very well-off financially	10	75	+65
4. Having friends with different backgrounds and interests from mine	23	86	+63
5. Helping others who are in difficulty	26	85	+59
6. Raising a family	30	88	+58
7. Becoming an authority in my field	20	77	+57
8. Influencing social values	08	58	+50
9. Having administrative responsibility for the work of others	04	48	+44
10. Becoming a community leader	04	40	+36
11. Becoming an expert in finance and commerce	04	30	+26
12. Influencing the political structure	05	27	+22
13. Participating in an organization like the Peace Corps or Vista	04	18	+14
14. Writing original works (poems, novels, short stories, etc.)	07	19	+12
15. Creating artistic work (painting, sculpture, decorating, etc.)	09	19	+11
16. Making a theoretical contribution to science	03	14	+11
17. Never being obligated to people	08	17	+ 9
18. Becoming accomplished in one of the performing arts (acting, dancing, etc.)	09	12	+ 3

Drop out permanently--indicate consistency in attitudes and values about continuing one's college career.

Figure 2 displays the responses for the scale, Personal Development II noting only those responses of "essential" from a forced choice of essential and not essential.

The results from Figure 2 showing the change in responses from 1971 to 1991 have some significant implications for student affairs educators.

In this section, eight items showed a change of over 50 percent. The largest changes—*Having an active social life, Obtaining recognition from my colleagues for contributions in my special field, Becoming an authority in my field, and Being financially well off*—indicate a strong desire in today's students to be successful, both professionally and socially. Another large change—*Having friends with different backgrounds and interests from my own*—suggests that today's students are more aware of differences among people and view interacting with different people as positive. A third large gain—*Helping others who are in difficulty*—may indicate that the college students of the 1990's are more interested in social action than the students in the early 1970's even though this support may take different forms than those of the 1970's.

The items showing the least change were—*Becoming accomplished in one of the performing arts, Never being obligated to people, and Creating artistic work.*

<u>Implications for Educators</u>

The most significant implication of this study is the realization of how much students have changed over twenty years while many of the programs, philosophies, and approaches used by student affairs programs in 1971 have changed little since then.

Many freshmen today are children of parents who were college freshmen in the late 1960's and early 1970's. Freshmen today, as in the past, exhibit behavior, espouse values, and demonstrate beliefs that are embedded in the contemporary culture of the campus and America.

Today's freshmen may possess similar values to those of their parents but they articulate them in the context of the current culture. The following are some general conclusions drawn about today's students from the perspective of twenty years:

- Students have a strong interest in social, professional, and financial success.
- Students have more interest in being materially well off.
- Students have an interest in knowing others different from themselves.
- Students have a strong interest in leadership in one's profession and community.
- Students believe that education and graduation from a post-sec-

ondary institution are important.
• Students have an interest in getting married soon and raising a family.

The results of this survey present significant challenges for student affairs professionals. These recommendations emerge from the study:

1. The study indicates a strong interest in career development and financial success. Divisions of Student Affairs should build even stronger career planning and placement programs that are intentionally linked to the students' academic and intellectual experience.

2. The interest in social success calls for new approaches to assist students in exploring personal social issues and to create avenues for students to become comfortable with contemporary social issues. Opportunities can be created to assist freshmen in their personal social development.

3. The study indicated a strong interest in getting to know others different from oneself. This is very positive since the freshmen of today will be the leaders in the next century where society will be extremely diverse. Student affairs programs must respond by creating opportunities to help all students accept, learn about, and celebrate differences, whether racial, ethnic, socioeconomic, gender, sexual orientation, age, national origin, or disabilities.

4. Today's freshmen are interested in marriage and raising a family even though a large number of their parents are divorced. Opportunities should be created to allow students to learn about marriage and the family.

5. Most students in the study felt it was very important to graduate from college. Programs should be enhanced that focus on retention and academic success. These initiatives could involve student centers, residence halls, Greek organizations, reading and study skills programs, advising, counseling, and career centers.

6. Students in 1971 did not aspire to be leaders. Today this is an important goal of many freshmen. Student Affairs must become involved in leadership development from a formal perspective in the classroom and informally through advising student leaders and supporting the development of student groups.

In the next decade, the challenges facing student affairs professionals will provide numerous avenues for creativity and cooperation. It is clear that students do not differentiate between their personal and academic lives, consequently, it is incumbent on the campus community to not do so either; hence, providing opportunities for shared programming, initiatives, and dialogues with faculty and staff in addition to student affairs.

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Searching for An Alternative Philosophy to *In Loco Parentis*: We Need Courage and Conviction

Shouan Pan

College authorities stand *in loco parentis* concerning the physical and moral welfare, and mental training of the pupils, and we are unable to see why to that end they may not make any rule or regulation for the government or betterment of their pupils that a parent could for the same purpose... (*Gott V. Berea College*, 161 S.W. 204, 206 1913).

This landmark case of 1913 centered on a dispute between a local restaurant owner and Berea College in Kentucky as to whether the College had the right to prohibit its students from patronizing local restaurants. The case has historic significance in that its court ruling introduced the legal principle of *in loco parentis* to higher education for the first time. For the subsequent forty some years, this principle defined the relationship between institutions of higher education and their students.

Under the philosophy of *in loco parentis*, colleges and universities stood in the position of surrogate parents to their students. College administrators served as "the de facto and de jure guardian[s] of students' health, welfare, and morals" (Gibbs & Szablewicz, 1988, p. 100). They were free to make elaborate rules and regulations to control students' lives both inside and outside the classroom.

However, in the wake of World War II, student population and societal trends underwent great changes, which drastically altered the relationship between the college and its students. Student veterans and other non-traditional students were no longer willing to comply with *in-loco-parentis* mode of restrictions; the political and social turmoil of the 1960s led to increased student demands for the right to participate in making decisions that affected their college life.

Further, *in loco parentis* was discredited by court decisions.

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Gradually, courts began to look at college students as adults rather than minors and granted them more legal rights. According to Fowler (1984), the court ruling of *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961)* in essence sounded the "death knell" of *in loco parentis.*

During the 1970s and 1980s the political climate in the academy changed again. Ample evidence suggests that "the campuses became litigious, adversarial, and contractual along with the rest of society" (Morrill and Mount, 1986, p. 35). In many instances, courts held colleges liable for harm and injuries done to students (*Peterson v. San Francisco Community College District*, 1984; *Zavala v. Regents of University of California*, 1981; *Mullins v. Pine Manor College*, 1983; and *Whitlock v. University of Denver*, 1985).

To cope with the ambiguous student-college relationship, lawyers and educators across the country have experimented with different legal theories to manage their day-to-day business and to settle disputes. For instance, courts have used these legal principles in defining the student-college relationship: the student as a consumer, the college as government, the college as expert, and the college as fiduciary.

Implicit in the model of consumerism is a contract between students and the institution, with terms and conditions on each side. Students receive education and ancillary services from the college in return for paying tuition and fees (*Carr v. St. John's University*, 1962; *University of Miami v. Militana*, 1966). Because this theory sets the student and the college on opposite sides of the bargaining table, it invariably makes the relationship adversarial. In recent years, students began to expect their colleges to establish their careers and to get them jobs—an obligation that any educational institution would find difficult to fulfill.

The idea of college as government stresses that public institutions are funded by state governments; therefore, it should function like public organizations concerning due process rights of students (*Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education*, 1961). This theory has apparent merit, but it only addresses a specific aspect of student-college relationship.

On certain occasions, courts apply the principle of college as expert in academic matters. Courts recognize the college's legitimate right to make decisions regarding evaluating students' academic performance and initiating academic dismissal when necessary (*Board of Curators of the University of Missouri v. Horowitz*, 1978). This theory seems to give due respect to academic freedom, but more often than not, the line between academic and disciplinary matters is not clear cut.

One other theory that has seen more and more use by courts to define the student-college relationship is tort (i.e., negligence) theory. Courts have increasingly viewed the college as the ensurer of students' safety. When students file law suits against colleges for failing to protect them from physical harm, courts have held the colleges liable in many instances (*Zavala v. Regents of University of California*, 1981; and *Whitlock v. University of Denver*, 1985). This theory may be more realistic in reflecting today's student-college relationship, yet it implies that the relationship is nothing more than the one between a defendant and a plaintiff. It errs, just as the theory of consumerism, in diminishing the sense of community on campus and perpetuating separation between students and their college.

Meanwhile, there are others who see the emergence of, and have proposed theoretical models that bear resemblance to *in loco parentis*. For instance, Parr and Buchanan (1979) suggest *in loco uteri* (in place of the womb) as a theoretical model to define the student-college relationship. The fundamental assumption of *in loco uteri* is that present colleges not only play parents' roles for their students, but they perform them in many new areas that did not exist before the demise of *in loco parentis*. The legal obligations accepted by colleges include protecting their students from sex, race, age, or physical ability discrimination; following minimal procedural due process; teaching them how to study and socialize; providing them with psychological counseling; assisting them in job placement; and so forth. (Parr & Buchanan, 1979).

Similarly, Pitts (1980) coins the term of *in loco parentis indulgentis* to explain the student-college relationship. According to Pitts, the college has an extremely parental role to play in facilitating the total development of its students. "Colleges are still in the nurturing business, operating in a quasi-parental (albeit permissive) role" (Pitts, 1980, p. 22).

In short, there are compelling reasons to believe that *in loco parentis* no longer applies to higher education. Colleges and universities may still take on different "parental" roles, but the ways they are carried out have to be more subtle and developmental in approach. The days are gone when colleges could freely impose rules on their students. Both courts and higher education institutions have struggled and will continue to struggle with this new and elusive student-college relationship. The post *in-loco-parentis* theories may have explained some aspects of this new relationship, but the above analysis has shown that they fall short of capturing the fundamental nature of this dynamic relationship. More importantly, none of the models are encompassing or advanced enough to reflect true complexities of student life.

Clearly, there exists an urgent need to develop a comprehensive model that explains the new student-college relationship and guides those who work with students. Morrill and Mount (1986) state, "Although *in loco parentis* is no longer dominant, no comparably controlling ethos has emerged in its place" (P. 35). Recently a special report by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) also points out that few colleges have had the "imagination or courage to replace the abandoned rules with more creative views of campus life" (CFAT, 1990, p. 5).

People outside the academy seem to share this view, too. A state legislator and trustee from South Carolina puts it bluntly, "Colleges and universities have done a great disservice to parents and students in backing off from *in loco parentis*.... I think students need a more structured environment" (Collison, 1989, p. A39).

This urgency is made all the more acute by a host of problems confronting the nation's colleges and universities. In 1989, the CFAT launched a nation-wide study of campus life. According to its report Campus Life: In Search of Community (CFAT), the quality of campus life is seriously deteriorating. Student apathy, alcohol and substance abuse, sexual harassment, racial and ethnic violence, and other acts of incivility are serious concerns for American institutions of higher learning.

In facing such campus life problems, however, student affairs professionals are often "ambivalent about how they should respond" because they do not have a guiding legal principle. As CFAT points out in the report, higher education institutions have managed to maintain their standards in academic life, but when it comes to enforcing rules and regulations in non-academic matters, they become reluctant.

It is not surprising at all that 86 percent of presidents in large universities who participated in the survey by CFAT cited "new and revised statements on civility and respect for others" as the way to improve campus life (CFAT, 1990). This article, therefore, supports the position of Earnest Boyer (1990), who maintains, "What we need is a new, post *in loco parentis*, theory of campus governance—a set of agreed-upon standards to guide the conduct of all members of the community and give direction to the institution overall" (p. 9).

Though not impossible, it is a formidable task to develop an overarching philosophical model that can address our needs and direct our action. Obviously, a return to *in loco parentis* and applying arbitrary rules will not help. Perhaps the answer lies in a process that has faculty, staff, students, parents, law makers, and politicians talking to each other, struggling together, and reaching a consensus on these essential questions:

• What is the mission of higher education?

• Where does the obligation of higher education institutions begin and end in relation to their students?

• If institutions are responsible for the total development of individual students, should there be standards for non-academic as well as academic matters?

• Should the college teach their students certain basic moral and ethical values along with academic values during their college career? If so, what should the basic values be? And should it be the responsibility of the institution alone to inform students of these values?

Answering those questions requires establishing a set of well-defined codes of conduct that apply within and outside the classroom. One promising place to start building such standards is the community model proposed by CFAT (1990).

The Special Report, Campus Life: In Search of Community (1990), presents six principles of student governance. Each principle addresses a specific area of concern for student affairs professionals.

First, a higher education institution should be an educationally purposeful community. In such a community, faculty and students share and pursue the same academic goals; academic and non-academic worlds are integrated; and teaching and learning are strengthened.

Second, an institution should be a just community. All members in such a community, despite differences in their racial and ethnic backgrounds, gender, age, physical ability, or sexual orientation, should treat each other with dignity and respect. They all should have an equal opportunity to learn and contribute to their fullest potential.

Third, an institution should be an open and honest community. In this community, free speech is unrestricted in any form, and uncivil and indecent remarks are confronted and denounced.

Fourth, an institution should be a disciplined community. Members of such a community should clearly define and vigorously uphold codes of conduct; they should fulfill their obligations to the community.

Fifth, an institution should be a caring community. It should be a community where members are genuinely concerned about each other's well being and are willing to serve in the collective interest of the community.

Finally, an institution should be a celebrative community. Members celebrate institutional norms and traditions and welcome changes.

These six principles are basic but encompassing, familiar but profound. When taken together and vigorously pursued, they promise to provide solutions to the campus life problems and to strengthen the integrity of the entire higher education community. At the heart of this model are individual freedom and responsibility, self-governance, collective decision-making, social responsiveness and mutual affirmation; but these ideas are expressed in such simple and succinct terms that they can hardly be misunderstood.

The principles represent more than abstract ideas. They suggest strategies for decision making, community building, and caring confrontation. To student affairs professionals, these are powerful ideas for stimulating student growth, resolving conflicts, and addressing misconduct without resorting to professional jargons.

The principles are also enforceable because students, regardless of their developmental stage, could not easily refuse to live by a set of values that they learned in their kindergarten days. The key is to put the responsibility of enforcement in the hands of students. Student affairs professionals should work closely with student leaders and empower them with leadership and decision-making skills so that they can exert positive influences on their peers.

In conclusion, the student-college relationship has undergone tremendous changes, and the reality is still unfolding. It is critical that institutions find ways to work with current and future student generations without returning to *in loco parentis* control. CFAT's principles suggest an exciting framework for redefining the student-college relationship. What we need is courage and conviction in applying them to daily campus life. Only by making a steadfast commitment to these enduring values can we bring structure to the collegiate environment and improve campus life across the nation.

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Single-Sex Colleges: A Public Issue or Private Virtue?

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Introduction

Are single-sex colleges unconstitutional? Is there a difference if a single-sex college is public or private? Are single-sex colleges needed in today's society? These are questions which have been debated in recent years. There seems to be no definitive congressional stand on the issue of single-sex colleges. In two similar cases, Mississippi University for Women (MUW) v. Hogan and The Department of Justice v. the Virginia Military Institute (VMI), the issues appear to be the same, but with different outcomes. Does the recent ruling to maintain the Virginia Military Institute as a school only for men help, hurt, or have no effect upon the question of single-sex colleges?

Many believe that private schools should be free to establish their own policies. One question to consider is, are these schools truly private? For private schools to be affected by state or federal laws there must be some over-lap between the private school and the state (Kaplan, 1985). For example, if a private school awards state financial aid dollars to its students, or is granted tax exempt status, it may be considered accountable in a court of law.

In the case of Bob Jones University v. United States the courts ruled "that the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) had correctly interpreted the IRS Code in denying tax-exempt status to private schools which discriminate on the basis of race" (Dubnoff, 1984, p.298). Again the question becomes, are these schools truly private? Dubnoff (1984) states:

> Since most private colleges and universities receive financial support from the government and benefit greatly from tax-exempt status, the threat of withdrawal of these privileges along with the likely ineligibility of students to receive government assistance means that these institutions must in practice comply with constitutional restrictions (p. 298).

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Where a private institution receives federal funds and also discriminates on the basis of race, the courts have found it justifiable to withhold federal dollars, as it would in the case of a public institution.

Does it then follow that the courts would rule that it is unconstitutional to discriminate on the basis of sex at a public or private school? This article will discuss the issues surrounding single-sex colleges, focussing on Mississippi University for Women v. Hogan, and the Department of Justice v. Virginia Military Institute. This article will conclude with a discussion of the effects of single-sex colleges, and whether they benefit society today.

<u>Relevant Legislation</u>

Title IX, of the Educational Amendments of 1972, positions Congress to assure educational equality for women by prohibiting federal funding for schools which discriminate on the basis of sex (Dubnoff, 1984). Title IX, noted as the primary legal source governing sex discrimination in admissions policies (Kaplan, 1984), states in part that:

> (a)No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance, except that:
> (1)in regard to admissions to educational institutions, this section shall apply only to institutions of vocational education, professional education, and graduate higher education, and to public institutions of undergraduate higher education;....
> (3)this section shall not apply to an educational institution which is controlled by a religious organization if the application of this subsection would not be consistent with the religious tenets of such organization;
> (4)this section shall not apply to an educational institution whose primary purpose is the training of individual for the military services of the United States, or the merchant marines;
> (5)in regard to admissions, this section shall not apply to any public institution of undergraduate higher education which is an institution that traditionally and continually from its establishment has had a policy of admitting only students of one sex (Kaplan, 1984, pp. 520-21).

Kaplan (1984) further explains that, "Title IX regulations specify in much greater detail the acts of discrimination prohibited in programs and activities receiving federal financial aid" (p. 521).

<u>Relevant Cases</u>

In the case of Mississippi University for Women v. Hogan, Joe Hogan, a registered nurse, wanted a baccalaureate degree and so applied to the MUW School of Nursing's baccalaureate program. He was told he could audit courses, but could not be admitted as a regular student on the basis of his sex. Believing his Fourteenth Amendment rights had been violated, Hogan filed charges. The defendants arguing for MUW said that the school has a legitimate interest in providing the greatest practical range of educational opportunities for its female students. The Federal Court of Appeals ruled that a state-supported university which accepts only female applicants violates the Fourteenth Amendment rights of a male applicant. The defendants appealed to the Supreme Court for a rehearing based on section 5 of Title IX (Dubnoff, 1984, & Young & Gehring, 1986). The issue then became, "does the state statute that excludes males from enrolling in a state supported professional nursing school, violate the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment" (Young & Gehring, 1986, p. 4 - 28).

The Court reasoned that in order to uphold a statute which classifies people on the basis of their gender, a party must show "exceedingly persuasive justification" for that classification. The classification must serve a governmental function and show that if discriminatory means are employed they must be related to governmental objectives and must be free of traditional ideas of the roles of men and women (Young & Gehring, 1986). Although the defendants argued that the single-sex environment of MUW benefited women and was designed to compensate them for past discrimination, the Court declared it did not provide education equal to men, but offered women education in traditionally female areas. Some single-sex colleges might compensate women for past discrimination; not all do. In the case of Mississippi University for Women the School of Nursing tended to perpetuate the stereotypical view of nursing as a woman's job.

Compare the MUW v. Hogan case with the Department of Justice v. the Virginia Military Institute case. The issues seem to be the same, but the outcomes are different. In the VMI case, a female high school student in Northern Virginia was interested in attending the Virginia Military Institute. The school's admission policy prevented her from doing so. Women are allowed to take night and summer courses which do not require live-in status. This seems to be the crux of VMI's case. The student wrote a letter to the Justice Department which decided to investigate. The Justice Department brought suit against VMI claiming that, under the Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause, the exclusion of women from the state school was unconstitutional.

District Judge Jackson L. Kiser did not agree. When presiding over the Virginia Military

Institute case, Judge Kiser cited the MUW case claiming that in the MUW case a single-sex policy was not necessary to achieve an important educational goal. As stated, in the Mississippi case the courts found that the all-women's nursing school did more to perpetuate traditional stereotypes than it did to further an important educational goal. Kiser believed that the Virginia Military Institute's educational goals could not be achieved if women were admitted.

> In his 21-page opinion, Judge Kiser took note of the school's traditions. VMI's freshman class members-the "rats" as they are called-are hazed unmercifully, forced to live under Spartan conditions and confronted with demeaning physical demands. Kiser observed that the "rat line" creates a "bonding to their fellow sufferers and former tormentors." Any changes made in the rat line to accommodate women, he said, would thwart the college's mission. (Mitchell, 1991, p. 66)

Kiser further argues that the men-only policy "promotes diversity" within Virginia's higher-education system, and that if they were to admit women it would harm the institute by forcing it to change many of its policies (Jaschik, 1991, p. A15). For example:

> "Allowance for personal privacy would have to be made. Doors would have to be locked, and the windows on all the doors would have to be covered"....the institute would no longer be able to pass the same tests of physical endurance because most women would not be able to pass them...."the presence of women tend to distract male students from their studies. It would also increase pressures related to dating, which would tend to impair the *esprit de corps*" (Jaschik, 1991, p. A19).

The prevailing belief of people associated with the Virginia Military Institute is that, "'This educational experience cannot be achieved in coeducational situation where privacy and separation in living conditions would have to be honored'" (Lohmann and Whitley, 1989, p. 14). Judge Kiser concluded that to admit women would jeopardize the educational mission of the Virginia Military Institute.

What are the differences between these two cases that would cause one school to become co-educational and one to remain an all men's college? The points in the MUW case which caused it to have to admit men are: 1) It perpetuated a traditional stereotype of careers for women. Therefore, the defense of righting past wrongs done to women in education does not hold true. 2) Mississippi University for Women School of Nursing allowed men to audit courses. This is a contradiction to their proclaimed mission of an all women environment being necessary to benefit women in education. Therefore, under Title IX and the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment the Mississippi University for Women School of Nursing had to admit men.

The points in the VMI case which allowed it to remain an all men's school are: 1) Admitting women would thwart the educational mission of the institution because men would not be able to bond in the "traditional" manner if they had to provide privacy within the living environment. As well, women would not be able to pass the challenging physical endurance tests, which are also part of the institutional tradition. 2) Remaining a men-only institution provides diversity in Virginia's higher education school system. Under Title IX (a)(5) Judge Kiser ruled that the Virginia Military Institute could remain an all men's institution because it had been so since its inception and it was a necessary part of its educational mission.

Both institutions are arguing that they want to remain single-sex because of their educational missions. Why then was one allowed to and the other not? Teaching women to become nurses perpetuates a stereotype about the types of careers into which women should enter. Therefore, the decision in the MUW case seems justified. Does not a military institution for men perpetuate an historical stereotype of careers into which men can enter and women cannot?

VMI does not give adequate justification for the purpose of hazing as part of its educational mission. For this justification to be adequate they should explain why women can not be a part of the hazing/bonding rituals. Women are not allowed to fight in combat, although they are allowed to participate in all other military activities including preparation for combat. Mitchell (1991) states that:

> "We're not talking about whether there is a role for single-sex education,...The real question is, can the brother rats have male bonding with tax money from the state of Virginia?" In the wake of Operation Desert Storm, in which women died alongside men for their country, Judge Kiser's ruling seems rather jarring—especially since female tax payers help pay for V.M.I.'s different drummer (p. 66).

Another similarity between the two cases is the fact that they both allowed members of the opposite sex to audit or take night and summer courses. Due to this, the court said MUW did not maintain a single-sex environment, which MUW argued was needed to benefit women. This same argument was not considered in the case against VMI.

A final point to consider is the fact that although VMI receives a third of its budget from the state for military education, only 15% of VMI graduates enter the armed forces upon graduation. "The majority move smoothly into the Old Dominion's most powerful business and political ranks. Barring women from the school effectively curtails their access to that old-boy network" (Mitchell, 1991, p. 66). Thus, VMI receives a great deal of money from the state, which, in turn, gives men the opportunity to either move into the military or into influential business and political positions. Women may not be getting these positions because they are not a part of the school's network. In comparison to the MUW case, VMI's logic does not seem justifiable when considering the above observations.

> The Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause places restrictions on public undergraduate schools even if they are single-sex schools exempt form Title IX....Our decisions also establish that the party seeking to uphold the statute that classifies individuals on the bases of their gender must carry the burden of showing an "exceedingly persuasive justification" for the classification....Care must be taken in ascertaining whether the statutory objective itself reflects archaic and stereotypic notions (Kaplan, 1985, pp. 239-240).

In an article in the Roanoke (Virginia) Times and World-News (1989) the governor of Virginia, Gerald Baliles, made the following comments:

> Clearly there will be those who...cling to this particular VMI tradition, even when similar tradition has not prevented West Point, Annapolis, and the Air Force Academy from opening their doors to all qualified candidates, regardless of their gender. History does not negate our responsibility to the present. The historic fact that VMI has never admitted a woman student, by itself, does not justify the continuance of that policy today (p. 46:B7).

Based on the burden of proof necessary, the authors feel that VMI has not been "exceedingly Persuasive" in their justification.

On the outset it appears that the VMI decision helps other single-sex colleges, most of which are women's colleges. What has not been discussed is the need for single-sex colleges in today's society. Many believe that, although there is a place and need for single-sex colleges in society today, schools like VMI do not fill that need, but instead hinder educational opportunities for women.

The coeducational classroom climate for women is not equal to that for men.

> A fairly large body of evi dence now indicates that women learn more, learn faster, and emerge more con fident at women's colleges that at coed colleges... [M]uch... seems to depend

> on the larger number of female teachers, who serve as mentors and role models, and the gearing of education to female strengths and sensibilities....Most of these studies point to a loss of confidence among many women at mainstream colleges (Leo, 1990, p. 21).

Historically, institutions of higher learning were created for men. At the onset of higher education in the United States, the men who attended colleges were Anglo, of high socioeconomic status, and usually entering the clergy. Women's colleges began in order to give women an opportunity for higher education which had been denied to them. Because of the supportive educational atmosphere on these campuses, they have continued. Existing research, as noted above, points to these institutions as places for a supportive educational environment where women excel scholastically.

> Some gender-specific action may "[increase] women's access to new social roles."...there is evidence that single-sex education may have that effect. While permitting gender distinctions often involves placing the interest of one of the sexes over that of the other, this is not always the case....Since post-secondary educational facilities do not generally represent a scarce resource, males probably will not suffer a significant injury by being excluded from a relatively small number of schools with females-only admissions policies (Dubnoff, 1984, p. 334).

Depending on the mission of the single-sex school, there could be a place for them in society. As indicated, women's colleges provide an education for women which may not be found at coeducational institutions. Where the Mississippi University for Women perpetuated a stereotype of traditional roles for women, remaining women-only does not seem justified. In the same sense, where the Virginia Military Institute also perpetuates traditional role stereotypes, remaining men-only does not seem justified. This may not be the case for many other single-sex institutions.

Summary

This article began by asking a series of questions about single-sex colleges. Are single-sex colleges unconstitutional? The most recent ruling, The Department of Justice v the Virginia Military Institute, indicates that they are not unconstitutional. It was found that this school could remain all men. The courts have stated that for an institution to remain single-sex, the school must prove the justification for this classification. It is not enough to rely on tradition. The educational mission must not perpetuate gender specific stereotypes.

Is there a difference if a single-sex college is public or private? The courts do not make a distinction between public or private schools in regards to race if the private school is receiving federal funds or claiming tax-exempt status, as seen in the Bob Jones University case. To date the courts have not dealt with the public-private issue in regards to sex.

Are single-sex colleges needed in today's society? The literature indicates that, based on the history of education, and current teaching practices in coeducational institutions, there may be a need for women's colleges.

> [Women's colleges] have an important function in building confidence and leadership potential. In addition, it seems sensible to view women's colleges as laboratories where we will discover what teaching works best with women....The fact is that we know very little about the education of women. We have simply assumed that one-size-fits-all education will apply equally well to males and females. This is very likely not the case (Leo, 1990, p. 21).

The issues surrounding single-sex colleges are not resolved, and will be at the forefront of much discussion with Student Affairs professional in the coming years.

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Orientation at Randolph-Macon Woman's College: The Importance of "What I Did Last Summer"

Emily A. Langdon

Orientation has come into its own. The ACPA Commission for Admissions and Orientation is contemplating branching out and having Orientation represented separately, or teamed with Assessment, in place of Admissions. Why all the fuss?

The literature on orientation stresses its importance, reviews its purposes and goals, and then charges us with the responsibility of implementing it. This article explores the opportunity to be creative with these programs and gives examples of approaches that have worked on our campus. The entire 1991 entering class of Randolph-Macon Woman's College in Lynchburg, Virginia spent the first day on campus on a ropes course and volunteered for community service groups around the city. All the orientation activities were tied together with the theme: Get a Global Perspective!

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What is Orientation anyway? "Orientation means 'turning toward the East', facing a new dawn; it is commonly defined as 'adjustment of one's self to one's environment" (Wrenn, 1951, p. 274). By definition, orientation suggests a transition, a period of change. With that newness probably comes uncertainty and anxiety.

Perigot & Upcraft offer a definition of how orientation fits into the post-secondary institution: "Orientation is any effort to help freshmen make the transition from their previous environment to the collegiate environment and enhance their success" (p. 82).

What are the purpose and goals of orientation programs? Orientation is an opportunity to increase the student's chances of succeeding at the college or university (Perigot & Upcraft, 1989). Thus, it is an obligation of any post-secondary institution. "The major purpose of orientation to higher education is to communicate to the new student that college is a self-directed, intellectually oriented experience" (Shaffer & Martinson, 1966, p. 23).

Next on this list of purposes is providing information about the institution to the student and parents, advising students, and enrolling the student in the first term. Perigot and Upcraft (1989) list some of the goals of orientation as increasing the student's academic success, aiding in the personal transition and increasing personal growth opportunities, and addressing the concerns and roles of the student's family.

There are as many varieties of orientation programs as there are post-secondary institutions. Programs vary in time, place, content, length, scope, personnel, and sponsors. Much of the literature is devoted to describing the different programs offered (Treeger & Easton, 1986; Klostermann & Merseal, 1987; Holland & Gillingham, 1980; Gerber, 1970; Fley, 1962; Stonewater, Stonewater & Allen, 1983). Orientation programs provide an introduction to personnel services as well as facilities and academic curriculum. Some include a broader orientation of the world outside the college setting, to prepare students for life after graduation (Wrenn, 1951).

As far back as 1926, there was concern for the quality of orientation: "Standardization, characteristic of mass production in an industrial age, carried over into schools and colleges had resulted all too frequently in placing emphasis on the mechanisms of education instead of on the individual" (Doermann, 1926, p. 21).

The Involving Colleges literature from Kuh, Schuh, Whitt and Associates addresses the role of orientation at a post-secondary institution. "A combination of formal and informal induction activities prepares students for being successful and meeting their own learning and personal development goals. Through these activities, which are different at each college or university, the bonding process of student to institution and student to student begins, an Involving College says to its newcomers: "We were expecting you!" (p. 132).

In the conclusion of Involving Colleges, one recommendation advises institutions: "Make it clear to students that they are expected to attend orientation" (p. 359). The authors stress that participating in orientation will help the students function on the campus and get to know the environment they have entered. "No matter where a student goes to college, he or she will learn a lot about the institution by taking part in the events the institution had planned to introduce new students to college life..." (p. 359). Thus, the astute student will read the messages sent by the orientation program, and glean information about his or her new home from those first experiences.

It is the responsibility of the institution and the student affairs professional planning orientation to decide what messages to send the incoming students. Sending consistent messages is one key to linking orientation to the remainder of the first year experience. What is said and done during the week before classes should mirror what is said and done during the academic year.

For example, community service is important on the campus of Randolph-Macon Woman's College. We wanted to send that message to the incoming students from the beginning. Community service is on the rise among college students. Many campuses have active service clubs or students who volunteer regularly. Some institutions have provided full-time or part-time staff to help organize the volunteerism efforts on campus.

During Orientation '91, we organized an afternoon of volunteer opportunities in which the freshwomen participated with their Orientation Leaders and Orientation Groups. We sent 250 students into the community for an afternoon of service. Students painted the homeless shelter, read stories on a pediatric ward, washed dogs at the ASPCA, and a host of other activities around the city. Not all the jobs were fun or glamorous. Some students picked up trash along the strip of highway that R-MWC has adopted. All the students attended a wrap-up session at the end of the day to process the events. How did the afternoon make them feel? Some felt fortunate, some felt sad, most felt good about giving their time to a group or project that needed attention.

This project met several of our goals. First, it communicated to the Class of 1995 that women at Randolph-Macon Woman's College participate in volunteer activities. It showed the variety of service opportunities available in the Lynchburg community, and it boosted interest in our campus community service organization B.I.O.N.I.C. (Believe It or Not I Care). B.I.O.N.I.C. had record sign-ups at the Involvement Fair, where students went to find out about co-curricular activities on campus and had the chance to sign up for a club or committee.

The experience also helped new students get excited about and involved in our campus-wide efforts with Habitat for Humanity. R-MWC, with our two other local colleges, built a house for a needy family. A quarter of the student body actually worked on the house, framing the walls, hanging drywall, and shingling the roof.

Another message R-MWC tried to convey with our orientation activities is the importance we place on community. We dedicated the first full day of orientation events to a ropes course experience for the entire first year class. The previous year, we took the students to a regional retreat center and used its ropes course facility, but due to scheduling conflicts, we were not able to return there. We felt the experience was so beneficial to the incoming students that we searched for other facilities but none could handle the number of students we had. Finally, we built low ropes course apparatus and used our own playing fields and grounds for the day. The experience began with the entire Class of '95, the residence life staff, and even the college president on the soccer field for warm up New Games. We broke the 214 new students into residence hall groups of 10-12 for the rest of the morning. Half of the groups went through a three hour experience of trust activities and low ropes course challenges.

The other groups had indoor activities to help with roommate relations. The Resident Assistant facilitated conversations between roommates, using open ended sentences (e.g. When I am stressed, I will...). The areas covered by the sentence starters included family background, living and studying habits, emotional style, and reactions to the conversation. The RA gave them time to discuss each section but between sections, the pairs played a cooperation game. As the conversations continued, the games involved higher levels of trust. At the conclusion of the conversations, the RA discussed the Roommate Contract and the pairs of students read and signed the agreement.

As the various groups discussed the roommate issues, Spirit Leaders roamed from group to group. They taught the new students some school spirit songs and the Alma Mater. Singing spirit songs and the Alma Mater is an intricate part of R-MWC tradition. We felt that learning them as soon as possible would help the new students feel a part of campus life.

After lunch, the groups switched. At the end of the day, the entire class came together again for some final new games and then the spirit group led the class in songs, finishing with the Alma Mater. The day was long and tiring, but it allowed the residence groups to begin the bonding experience. We felt it was important to invest our time and resources where they would pay off. We continue to reap the benefits of that day of trust and team building, as the freshwomen have developed a deep sense of community on their floors and a strong and cooperative class.

We worried about losing the special retreat atmosphere of the previous ropes course experience by having the event on our campus. We used the concept of an Orientation theme; It's a Small World: Get a Global Perspective, to try to create a unique experience. We wanted to send the message that orientation was a time to learn about the small, intimate world they had entered and to learn about the specifics of Randolph-Macon, from her resources to her traditions. Orientation, however, also is a time to explore the big picture. In our orientation programming, we address broad topics such as diversity, relationships, honor and self-respect, community, and communication.

To follow our global theme, each of the six residence halls was assigned a continent. The staffs did a terrific job decorating the buildings with their theme continent, and some used it as a springboard for programming during the year. Wright Hall (South America) created an information bulletin board about the destruction of the rain forests.

With the continents covered, we dedicated the rest of the globe to our ropes course day. Eighty percent of the earth's surface is water and our outdoor experience was titled Macon Waves! The ropes course facilitators obliged and changed their story lines to fit into our marine theme (Instead of trying to escape a spider's web, for example our groups were dolphins caught in a tuna net!). The groups were given water names, identifying themselves with starfish, stingrays and sea horses. The food service decorated the dining hall for lunch with goldfish and other nautical paraphernalia.

These events may be difficult on larger campuses, but perhaps the lessons can be transferred into different scenarios and on different stages. The idea of using orientation to lay the foundation of what is important on your campus is not new, but creative activities to send those messages engage the students and make orientation an enjoyable learning experience.

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Cross-Campus Collaboration in Developing and Teaching a Course in Men's Studies

Douglas M. Gertner

Prologue

The residence halls were filled to overflowing during the 1988-1989 academic year, my first at Colorado State. With the stable budget this produced, the director offered to fund our attendance at two professional conferences. In March, at ACPA in Washington, D.C., I found my way to the Standing Committee for Men which had been formed only a few years before. I attended a day-long workshop on "Finding Our Fathers" and became acquainted with the counselors, programmers and teachers who make up the Committee. In June of the same year I attended the 14th Conference on Men & Masculinity (M&M 14) in Pittsburgh and the first-ever Men's Studies Conference (MSC) which was held in conjunction with M&M 14. It was during the latter meeting, a diverse assemblage of scholars discussing new approaches to the study of masculinity, that an idea began to form.

I resolved to develop and teach a general course about men at Colorado State the following year. It would be the first such course at CSU and one of only about 300 being taught nationwide. Thanks to an agreement with the School of Occupational and Educational Studies, our department is able to teach courses for purposes of training and leadership development under the general heading of "group study in education." My initial plan was to create a syllabus, with the help of contacts from Washington and Pittsburgh, and to teach it for the benefit of residence hall staff members and anyone else who might hear about the class and be interested in the topic.

Attending those conferences had a substantial impact on me as I was immersed in issues of gender and personal development, and I sought out Karen Wedge, Colorado State's Director of Women's Programs and Studies, to share my new insights, ideas and enthusiasm. Over dinner, I described my experiences and the

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idea for a men's studies class. Karen suggested that, rather than rushing a syllabus into production, I take the time to participate in the Gender Studies Integration Project and develop a course to be offered as part of the Women's Studies curriculum. Her wisdom and support were the catalyst for the process I recount herein.

Gender Studies Integration Project

Colorado State was one of only eleven universities to receive funding from the U.S. Department of Education, through the Southwest Institute for Research on Women, to initiate a Gender Scholarship Program. This program sought to integrate teaching and research about women into selected courses. These funds sustained the program from 1984-1987 after which time Colorado State chose to continue the effort by creating the Gender Studies Integration Project with funding from the Office of the Provost. In Fall of 1989, I joined six full-time faculty members from such diverse disciplines as art history, English, sociology and communication disorders for a series of monthly seminars in which we discussed our ongoing work. Each of these faculty members received several hundred dollars from the Provost to facilitate the redesign of an existing class syllabus to integrate issues of women and gender. And with equal funds from the Office of Women's Programs and Studies, which has ties to both Student Affairs and Academic Affairs, I was developing a syllabus for a comprehensive course about men.

At the first meeting of this group I was introduced to Pam Thoma, an instructor in the Department of English, who would serve as a Research Assistant for the project. (In a classic case of "it's a small world," Pam and I had attended the same Ohio high school a few years apart.) Her assistance was invaluable to me as she tracked down numerous sources, photocopied countless articles, and spent many hours with me, often on weekends, brainstorming and narrowing the idea for topics which would eventually become the course. We even discussed co-teaching the class and decided that the instructors, at least initially, should be male.

The finished syllabus featured twelve topic areas to be covered during weekly, three-hour seminar style classes. The focus of these, in order of presentation, was as follows:

1) Introduction: A Case for Men's Studies
2) Power and Patriarchy
3) Men and Multiculturalism
4) Men in Families
5) Men and Spirituality
6) Male Sexuality
7) Male Violence
8) Men's Health
9) Men at Work
10) Male Friendships and Intimacy
11) Men at Work/Men at Play

12) Men's Culture
13, 14, 15) The final two weeks of the semester, and the final exam period, were set aside for in-class presentation of students' final projects.

Selecting Co-Teachers

Seeking to offer a broad expertise in the subject, I asked Karen Wedge who she thought might be an appropriate co-teacher. She mentioned a new member of the staff of the University Counseling Center, Carl Davison, whom I had once met briefly. Before I had a chance to contact him on campus, I encountered Carl at a meeting of the Standing Committee for Men at ACPA in St. Louis. We immediately connected on this common interest and he eagerly agreed to co-teach the class.

A few months later, during the second Men's Studies Conference and M&M 15 in Atlanta, I met Sam Sappington. A member of the governing committee for the National Organization of Men Against Sexism (NOMAS, the conference sponsors), Sam has long been active in the pro-feminist, gay-affirmative, male-positive men's movement. When I learned that he had just accepted a position in the counseling center at Colorado State I asked Sam to join me and Carl in teaching the class.

Together, we three instructors offered a striking diversity of backgrounds and experiences to the class. Between us we were African- and Anglo-American, gay and straight, married and unmarried, a new father, and a Jew. We had worked with AIDS patients and with men who batter, served in residence life, student activities and admissions offices, as counselors and therapists and as a professional musician. Our range of experiences, made possible because of the cross-campus cooperation in teaching this class, was an important element of the eventual success we achieved.

Carl, Sam and I met numerous times and split the course topics between us, each taking the lead in facilitating several class sessions. We supplemented the resources that Pam and I had gathered and assembled a large collection of readings which were duplicated and sold at Kinko's Copies for over $40.00. (Ironically, it was during this semester that a court ruling made such packets illegal unless publisher's consent was granted.)

Teaching the Class

During the first class meeting, Carl, Sam and I introduced ourselves and outlined the syllabus and our expectations. I introduced the first of what would be many experiential exercises which we would use along with didactic instruction. As I gave the students instructions for what to do with their "mask of masculinity" - depict their inner and outer selves to facilitate an introduction to their classmates - I noticed the only freshman male student in the class grimace and slump progressively lower in his chair. At the break, before students were to discuss their masks, this student was gone, reinforcing the notion that younger students are not developmentally ready to examine and explore issues of gender in their lives.

Those twenty students who did stay for the semester were a truly diverse group. Thirteen men and seven women, they were mostly juniors, seniors and graduate students from nearly every college at Colorado State. Many were non-traditional age students and several community members, including the campus minister, registered through Continuing Education. By the completion of that first activity it was clear to me and my co-teachers that we had an exceptional group of students. They took risks and shared themselves and their experiences openly and honestly from that first day and in subsequent class sessions, through their five journal entries, and in the presentations of their final projects.

Following a feminist approach to education, we continued to employ experiential activities on numerous occasions during the semester. For the session Carl led on multiculturalism students played BaFa', BaFa', a simulation game about the experience of being an outsider.

The class on spirituality was held in the campus chapel and began with students participating in a moving continuum exercise, responding to and discussing questions such as: "I am a religious person," "I am a spiritual person," "I believe in a supreme being," and "God is male." This activity was followed by one drawn from the mythopoetic men's movement. As I kept a pulsing drum beat, a storyteller related an old, Scottish traveling tale. The storyteller stopped at designated points and I led the class in processing their feelings and reactions to the themes of the story. This unique approach provoked a great deal of introspective thinking and generally yielded many positive reactions.

To explore issues of sexuality, the class viewed a video titled "Finding Our Way" which offered a rare opportunity to hear a diverse group of men talk openly and candidly about their sexual experiences and feelings. This was followed by the men and the women in the class participating in separate "fishbowl" exercises, discussing questions of sexuality as the other sex looked on.

The topic of men at work was highlighted by simulated job interviews conducted with a strict set of rules to approximate the white male system in the world of work. (Carl even brought in a bunch of neckties to fit with the dress code of corporate America.)

It was ironic that, given the role of males in world governments, our class about men and society began one week after the first bombs were dropped in the Persian Gulf. We set aside time the first day to discuss the situation as part of a campus-wide "teach-in" and revisited the topic in a later class session as planned.

During the first part of that class meeting (held after the cease-fire), students formed dyads and discussed their own feelings and experiences during the war and how these related to what they were learning and thinking about men's issues. In a purposeful juxtaposition, the second half of that class titled "Men at War/Men at Play" was spent outside experiencing a number of non-competitive games and activities.

Our final topical class session took up men's culture. It began with Carl playing a piano composition based upon a melody made from a series of musical notes chosen by each member of the class. This was followed by poems and songs offered by several of the students and concluded with a number of challenging exercises facilitated by a visiting artist.

Class projects were featured during the final weeks of the course and truly reflected the diversity of the students. For instance, a computer science major wrote a series of poems from the perspective of his own life-course. A student in the Student Affairs in Higher Education program researched, wrote and produced a brochure for "changing men." There were also analyses of images of men in the media and of men's clothing fashions throughout history. One Masters of Social Work student in the class showed slides to reflect on his father while another took up the topic of journaling and a third shared original research on men and the men's movement. The variety and creativity of these projects reflected well on the class and provided an opportunity to integrate and personalize the information and experience of the course.

We did two evaluations of the course, one at mid-term and one after the semester. Positive feedback about the content of the course and our approach to teaching affirmed the process that had brought about the class. Several helpful suggestions were the bases of reflection and improvement of the course. Some comments from male students included:

The class has allowed and encouraged me to analyze who I am and who I can be.

Great class! It has opened me up, developed my sensitivities, and given me information and tools that I can use to facilitate others' development around these issues.

Please offer more men's classes in the future.

The class discussions, journals and diverse reading assignments were what the students said they most enjoyed while a number of improvements were suggested for specific topic areas.

For me, there were several unexpected outcomes from the class. My professional and personal relationships with my co-teachers and several students have been ongoing and have grown strong. My own growing knowledge and interest in men's studies has opened many doors for me on campus and beyond.

Epilogue

Developing and teaching a course in men's studies has involved collaboration and cooperation across the campus and across the country. Several student affairs and academic affairs offices and colleges were involved in this venture and the class has touched students throughout the University and Fort Collins communities. My co-teachers and I presented our course model at ACPA and MSC and we are preparing to teach the class for a second time this semester.

Personally, this course has helped me come to some important professional decisions. Last Spring during my oral defense of my comprehensive exams for my doctorate I was asked to explain the relationship between the new scholarship on masculinities and student affairs work. My continued interest in this area has led me to a dissertation topic involving men's studies which is, along with my work in residence life and my teaching duties, the current focus of my attention.

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Male Gender Role Conflict: A Proposed Program for Training and Outreach

Adam Wolfer

The era of the 1960's and 1970's was a time of radical social change in the United States. The changes occurring throughout the country led to an interest in civil rights and equal access. Part of this social change was women and their role in society. Women began to seek greater roles for themselves in society—in occupations, politics, and relationships. As women explored new roles they left some male counterparts feeling confused and defensive about their own roles (May, 1988). In the late 1970's, men began to see how their own roles had been prescribed for them and began to explore other possibilities (O'Neil, 1981). As men explored these new, less restrictive roles, many began to experience the strain and conflict associated with refusing to follow societal norms. This conflict has been labeled *gender role conflict* (O'Neil, 1981).

O'Neil and others (O'Neil, 1981, 1982; O'Neil, David, & Wrightsman, 1982; O'Neil et al, 1984) have explored male gender role conflict and its effect on society. Gender role conflict is "...a psychological state where gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others" (O'Neil, 1981, p. 203). Gender role conflict can cause excessive mental or physical tension in the lives of any person; this excessive tension has been labeled *gender role strain*. Gender role conflict and sexism are both by-products of socialization; they also work together to devalue women and men restricting them from reaching their full potential (O'Neil, 1981). Much of the gender role strain men experience is caused by the fear of being perceived as a woman or like a woman. O'Neil (1982) identified six patterns of men's gender-role conflict and strain: a) restrictive emotionality; b) homophobia; c) socialized control, power, and competition issues; d) restricted sexual and affectionate behavior; e) obsession with achievement and suc-

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cess; and f) health care problems. Many of the difficulties that men experience are caused by them attempting to live within the restrictive male gender roles that society places upon them (O'Neil, 1981).

This article proposes a model training program for student affairs personnel that will assist them to work with and counsel college men undergoing difficulties caused by gender role conflict and strain. Both professional and paraprofessional student affairs staff will be taught strategies for working with men exhibiting gender role strain and associated behaviors. They will also be supported in their confrontation of conflict in their own lives. The most important part of the program will aid male staff in becoming positive role models for male students.

Program Proposal

The necessary components for this program are in place at Colorado State, but there is no comprehensive program. The proposed program will remedy this by bringing the various components together. Ideally, the program will be housed and supervised by a proposed Office of Men's Studies and Programs, and will consist of three stages: 1) training of professional staff, 2) training of student paraprofessional staff, and 3) outreach to the campus and community.

Professional Staff

Because of the longevity and impact on students of professional student affairs staff, their training serves as the foundation of this program. Professional staff come from varied backgrounds and have different knowledge about gender roles and associated strain, so adequate planning must go into their training. Eichenfield and Stevens (1987) have identified variables to consider in designing a training program, the most important of which are: current level of counseling skills, previous knowledge of subject matter, expected future training opportunities, and trust level of participants.

Three unique groups will be formed for professional staff. The three groups are: 1) an educational group for all professional staff, 2) a continuing support group, and 3) a training group for trainers. These groups are not mutually exclusive and some staff members may want to participate in all three groups. Due to the differing goals and needs of the various units in student affairs, each division may need to develop its own training program.

Educational Groups

The educational group will inform staff members about gender role conflict and means of intervention in students' lives. The workshop outline will vary depending on participants and time constraints, but may follow a format such as below (see Table 1). The major goal of this educational group is to provide professionals with information that they can integrate into their work with students and colleagues. As staff members become more comfortable with this subject they can have a greater impact on students and create a more accepting environment for those student exploring different roles.

Support Group

The purpose of these groups is to offer support for staff members who are experiencing difficulties, either professionally or personally, due to gender role conflict. The groups could be all-male, all-female, or mixed gender, based on the needs of the staff members identified in the screening process (see Silverberg, 1986). It is important that leaders consider the ability of men to open up about their sexuality and conflict when in a group with female participants.

It is important that all staff members who choose to participate feel comfortable in the group. This may require referring members to outside support groups if they feel uncomfortable opening up to coworkers. The leaders of the educational groups should watch for participants that may be looking for this support and refer them to the support groups.

Training Groups

Many of the units in student affairs have student paraprofessionals working in the unit, and some of these students have responsible positions. The purpose of the training group will be to instruct professional staff in teaching student staff. Student staff will be trained to aid students experiencing gender role difficulties. The staff will counsel students on the recognition of gender role strain, interventions such as programs and modeling behavior, and referral of students to counseling or support groups.

Paraprofessionals

Student affairs paraprofessionals are very visible on campus, and serve as role models for fellow students. Paraprofessionals confront the same personal and academic difficulties as other students while also experiencing those unique to their positions (see Dodge, 1990; Eichenfield, 1988; Schuh, Shipton, & Edman, 1986). Because of the unique position these students hold, they need opportunities for training and support. The paraprofessional portion of this program will consist of three sections: 1) educational/training groups, 2) support groups, and 3) presentation training. These groups are not mutually exclusive nor are they sequential.

Educational/Training Groups

Training for paraprofessionals must be at a more concrete level than that for professionals, because they have more immediate needs and lower levels of personal experience than professionals. The training will include a brief overview of gender role conflict and strain, behaviors

Table 1
Sample Outline of Educational Group

1. Outline and Expectations of Session
2. Discussion of Gender Role Conflict
    a. Role in Staff Member's lives
    b. Sharing by Male Participants
3. Role of Conflict in Students' Lives
    a. Exploring Roles
    b. Behaviors
4. Interventions
    a. Example of Intervention (Brainstorm)
    b. Formal Methods
        i Presentation
        ii Group Discussions
    c. Informal Methods
        i Role Models
        ii Posters and Other Materials
5. Discussion of Staff Roles as Role Models
6. Evaluation

Note: For counselors practicing in the Counseling Center, the format proposed by Eichenfield and Stevens (1987) would be more appropriate

associated with conflict, and strategies to aid students. They must also be given enough information to help determine when a student should be referred to a professional staff member or the Counseling Center. It is important to remember that counseling fellow students is on of the most difficult tasks asked of paraprofessionals (Schuh et al., 1986).

Support Group

As with the professional staff members, supporting each other and support from peers is important for paraprofessional staff members. The optional support group for paraprofessional staff will share the same outline as for professional staff, and should be coordinated through the Counseling Center.

Presentation Training

Student paraprofessionals can have an important impact on their peers; this is true in workshops as well as in other interactions. Students that attend workshops presented by fellow students will be more apt to accept what they hear (Warshaw, 1988).

Training for paraprofessionals as presenters should include topics of group leadership, group dynamics, teaching strategies, and workshop presentation. They will also be taught the necessary information to be included in workshops they present. Information on language used and modeling behaviors should be included in their training. Professionals responsible for training will also serve as ongoing advisors for the paraprofessionals.

Outreach

Outreach will consist of workshops and Men's Studies courses coordinated through the Office of Men's Studies and Programs.

Workshops

Workshops will be presented throughout campus in living groups (residence halls, fraternities, etc.), other student groups, leadership conferences, relevant classes, and local middle and high schools by paraprofessional and professional staff presenters.

Men's Studies

Men's Studies programs have been suggested as a way to educate men and women about male gender role conflict and male socialization (Brod, 1987; Good & may, 1987; Scher, Canon, & Stevens, 1988). Brod (1987) identifies Men's Studies as the study of average men in society and the study of their socialization. This is opposed to traditional social research, which studies the men of power and historical significance but not men as human beings. A variety of courses should be provided to serve the campus.

Modeling Behavior

Workshops can be very useful in stimulating thought and conversation about the topics associated with male gender role conflict, but they will not prove successful without positive role models throughout the campus. Both professional and paraprofessional student affairs staff must be supported and trained to be role models of expected behavior. The training and support groups discussed earlier will greatly enhanced staffs' abilities to serve in this capacity.

An important aspect of role modeling that has not yet been discussed is encouraging appropriate and positive behavior. skills in giving positive feedback should be included in all training.

Resources

Several books which have been published talk exclusively about working with males and male problems from counseling and psychotherapy perspectives (Scher, Stevens, Good, & Eichenfield, 1987; Silverberg, 1986; Skovholt, Schauble, & Davis, 1980; Solomon & Levy, 1982). Another resource that is useful is a special edition of The Personnel and Guidance Journal, edited by Murray Scher (1981), which contains articles on men's development, counseling men, and working with special populations of men. May and Scher

(1988) have compiled an important resource for student affairs professionals in their book, New Directions For Student Services: Changing Roles For Men On Campus. There are also helpful resources that are more accessible for students, paraprofessionals, and professionals, and these include: The Forty-Nine Percent Majority (David & Brannon, 1976), Men in Difficult Times (Lewis, 1981), the Hazards of Being Male and The New Male by Herb Goldberg (1976, 1979), and Sam Keen's (1991) Fire in the Belly. When dealing with topics of date rape, Warshaw's (1988) I Never Called it Rape and Beneke's (1982) Men On Rape are valuable resources.

Conclusions

The proposed program will serve as the beginning steps in a process that will reduce the effects of gender role conflict and strain on campus. The program will serve to train those individuals that most often experience the results of conflict and strain, so that they may be a positive and proactive influence on the campus environment and culture. As this program progresses, the campus culture will be positively impacted, and new campus norms will result. As this program is implemented, it should be studied to ensure that the program is having the desired effect. This will help in guiding the program, so that it remains a positive force.

The ultimate goal will be to have an Office of Men's Studies and Programs guiding, supporting, and presenting on men's concerns. This office will be closely allied with the Office of Women's Studies and Programs; with both providing services and classes to help the campus community in understanding the role of gender in our society.

Student affairs must take the lead in helping students cope with gender role conflict and associated behaviors. As long as there are colleges and universities, students will be coming to campus and using that opportunity to explore new roles. Providing an environment that supports this exploration in a positive and non-judgmental manner is important for all involved.

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Eating Disorders: Taking the Facts Into Account

Emanuelle F. Pallia

Today's college student has heard the terms anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa at some time or another."American culture encourages people to base self-worth on body weight and shape - if you aren't thin as a fashion model or as muscular as a fitness fanatic, you may see yourself as a less valuable person" (American College Health Association [ACHA], 1990).

Whether through personal experience, the media, or educational sources eating disorders are prevalent on college campuses. Depending on the study, research states that 1% to 34% of college students suffer from an eating disorder. Carter and Eason (1985) found that 34% of their sample were self-induced vomiters. On the other hand in a study using stricter guidelines Drewnowski, Hopkins, and Kessler (1988) found only 1% to be bulimic. According to Holleran, Pascale, and Fraley (1987) 2% are anorexic and 3.9% to 23% are bulimic. The range expressed here is based on differences in the criteria establishing that the subject had an eating disorder and will be further discussed in this article. While approximately 90% of students with eating disorders are women, about 10% of those suffering are men (National Dairy Council, 1985). This article will analyze the two major eating disorders among college students. Attention will be given to whom they affect, why, how they can be addressed and treated, issues with which student affairs professionals should be concerned, and proactive measures which can educate students to the history and dangers of these disorders.

Anorexia nervosa is defined in simple terms as self-imposed starvation. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (3rd ed. rev. 1987) [DSM IIIR] the following criteria need to be met for clinical diagnosis:

A) intense fear of becoming obese which does not diminish with weight loss

B) weight loss of more than 15% below normal body weight

C) disturbance of body image

D) in females, the absence of three or more consecutive menstrual periods which are otherwise expected. (p. 67)

There are many physical signs and symptoms of this illness.

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These include but are not limited to the following: loss of 15% or more of the normal body weight, loss of menstrual period in women, disturbed body image, hyperactivity, excessive exercise, growth of fine body hair, loss of hair on scalp, nervousness around mealtimes, playing with food, frequent weighing, isolation, self-critical attitude, sensitivity to cold, brittle nails, and dry scaly skin (Jacobson, 1985; About Anorexia, 1990; ACHA, 1990). If someone exhibits one or two of these symptoms, depending on which ones, there may not be a problem; however, it may be worth keeping an eye on her or him just in case. In addition to these symptoms, anorexics may suffer from several health problems which can become life threatening . These include: dizziness, light headedness, amnesia, fatigue, lack of energy, electrolyte imbalance, shrinkage of internal organs, low pulse rate, kidney failure, nerve/tendon injury, digestive problems, swelling of joints, muscle cramps, inability to reproduce, and heart failure (Jacobson, 1985; About Anorexia, 1990). On the surface, the anorexic is usually a high achiever. In reality, however, this person is insecure, self critical, a perfectionist, and very concerned with how others view them. There is some speculation that a fear of growing up and/or a fear of sexual encounters may be part of the underlying problem (Kubistant, 1982).

Bulimia nervosa/bulimarexia is defined as a binge-purge cycle where the victim consumes large quantities of food and then rids themselves of it through the use of laxatives, diuretics, or vomiting. In many cases, a combination of these methods, along with fasting, are used. Of the two mentioned eating disorders, bulimia is more prevalent among college students. This may be due to the fact that it seems almost contagious in group living situations such as a residence hall or sorority house. Kubistant (1982) states that "women who privately starve themselves through the use of laxatives and diuretics or by vomiting, are often publicly admired as people who possess control and discipline" (p. 334). The DSM IIIR criteria for clinical diagnosis are as follows:

A) recurrent episodes of binge eating (rapid consumption of a large amount of food in a discrete period of time)

B) fear of losing control and not being able to stop the binge

C) regularly engages in either self-induced vomiting, use of laxatives, rigorous dieting or fasting to counteract the binge

D) minimum of two binge eating episodes per week for at least three months

E) persistent over concern with body shape and weight. (p. 68-69)

Similarly to anorexia, bulimia has several physical signs and symptoms which include but are not limited to the following : secrecy, weight changes, abuse of laxatives/diuretics, depression,rashes, dry skin, swollen salivary glands,abnormal interest in food, severe dieting and exercise, substance abuse, and disappearing after meals (Jacobson, 1985; About Bulimia, 1991). Again, one or two signs may be insignificant depending on which ones they are; however, it is a good idea to be aware and alert if any do develop. There are many serious health complications which may arise in a bulimic individual. As with anorexia, some can be fatal. These include: tooth decay and gum damage, muscle cramps,stiffness, numbness, swollen salivary glands, sore throats,a ruptured esophagus, kidney damage, diabetes, amenorrehea, nausea, stomach cramps, ulcers, a ruptured stomach,and heart failure (Jacobson, 1985; About Bulimia , 1989). The bulimic can be categorized as being of near normal weight , healthy in appearance, a perfectionist, a high achiever, and very concerned about their looks and acceptance by others. They are often emotionally insecure, feel inadequate in relationships, and lonely. On the outside they appear independent and confident, when in reality they have a low self esteem and lack self confidence. "The most obvious commonality of bulimarexics is that they are bright, successful, and achievement-oriented young women" (Kubistant, 1982, p. 335).

In both types of eating disorders, the underlying problems are where treatment begins. The type of treatment(s) used depends on the individual and their needs. Family and friends can provide stability and support during the recovery process. Some families may undergo family therapy if the problems are rooted in the home. College student personnel such as resident assistants, student assistants, hall directors, resident directors, etc... can be an excellent source for information, guidance, and referral as well as support through the process. In addition, university counseling facilities may be an excellent place to begin. The specific types of therapy include: support groups, individual counseling and/or psychotherapy, and in some cases hospitalization. Support groups serve as an arena where students with the same problems can talk to each other with a facilitator present. They help the patient feel like they are not alone. Individual therapy provides a private atmosphere for the anorexic or bulimic to work through underlying issues. Finally, hospitalization can be necessary when the patient is unable to control the disorder and their life may be in danger. Some people enter programs before this point to aid their recovery before it becomes too late. This environment provides different types of therapy in a controlled setting. If a person recovering from an eating disorder is not in need of hospitalization, the best treatment is a variety of those mentioned, when possible, to ensure a stable and lasting recovery. Although not all anorexics or bulimics will respond to every method, they should consider the options.

As student affairs professionals, there are several factors we need to consider when looking at eating disorders. We need to consider the number of college students with some type of eating disorder, the most likely settings where they will occur, and how we can intervene and educate. As stated in the introduction, there are conflicting views in research as to the number of students with eating disorders. The lowest given percentage is 1% (Drewnowski, Hopkins, &Kessler, 1988). This percentage was found using strict clinical guidelines set forth by the American Psychological Association. Kathleen Berg (1988) found that approximately 8% were bulimic by modified clinical standards. Since we are concerned with the well being of our student population, we need to consider the whole picture and not simply the clinical criteria. What the doctors are neglecting to see is that clinical diagnosis had to begin someplace; and that if the problem had been discovered earlier, the student may not have incurred some of the serious health problems. According to the DSM IIIR criteria, there needs to be a weight loss of 15% under normal body weight to be diagnosed anorexic and two binge eating episodes per week for three months to be diagnosed bulimic. The conflict here lies in the fact that these are already drastic problems. If a student has binging episodes 3 - 5 times per week for two weeks there is a problem; however, that student would not be considered bulimic by clinical standards for another 2 1/2 months. These are the students that need our help, those who have been clinically diagnosed will in many cases need hospitalization because the situation is so far advanced. If the disorder is caught early, the student may be able to handle it on an out-patient basis and avoid some of the more serious complications brought on by long term behavior. Therefore, we need to look at the higher figures and plan our programs with those numbers in mind. Another area we need to consider is the frequency of eating disorders among those living in our residence halls. Berg (1988) states:

Because the majority of these students are away from home for the first time, it is possible that residence hall living is a situation that could serve as a catalyst for the development of anorexia and bulimia or that could exacerbate existing eating problems (p. 126). She also found that there is a higher prevalence among those living in coed versus those living in single sex environments. With this information we know where to target our programs and interventions. These programs and interventions can include the following: training staff in the halls to spot warning signs of eating disorders, informing residents about eating disorders and their dangers, and sponsoring programs by health center and counseling center staffs on related topics such as eating patterns, disorders, sex role development, and self image. In taking such proactive measures we can begin to tackle this growing problem among today's college students.

In conclusion, we as student affairs professionals in the 1990's need to be aware of the continuing increases of eating disorders among our college students. Society has drawn a picture of the ideal man and woman and our students are trying to live up to that picture. One of the statements made by Drewnowski, Hopkins, and Kessler (1988) is that, "The prevalence of bulimic behavior as opposed to bulimia nervosa was somewhat higher...since these women denied losing control during a binge, they did not satisfy the strict DSM IIIR criteria for bulimia nervosa" (p. 1322). It is not surprising that these women did not admit losing control since they are characteristically perfectionists and have a fear of not having control. These bulimic behaviors need to be addressed just like an eating disorder. The same holds true for anorexic behaviors of self starvation--they should be addresses before they become a larger problem beyond control. We as student affairs personnel are in a unique position to be able to instill proactive measures into our systems. In doing so we may be able to start diminishing these disorders that are infesting the students of today, by giving them a ray of hope for a better tomorrow. Eating disorders have become a rampant reality in our society; we need to start taking the facts into account.

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Suicide and Today's Student

Brad A. Lau

> *My most important lesson was almost fatal. I was alone on the night that I received this knowledge. Due to problems with parents, friends, school, and, I felt, life itself, a violent depression was upon me, and on that night I decided that there was only one solution. I sat upon the floor with the sleeping pills in front of me. In my mind all of the bad events of my life were played again and again. I turned on my radio and opened the pill bottle (Battle, 1990, pp. 253-254).*

This opening paragraph to a freshman essay illustrates well a growing and alarming problem in today's colleges and universities. Most people rightfully think of college as a time for frivolity and fun. Tragically, however, there is also a very dark side to college life. College students are considered to be the group most at risk for suicide (Domino & Leenaars, 1989, p.161). Further, the suicide rate is much higher for college students than for those not attending college.

Suicide has become the second leading cause of death among those that are15-24 years of age. Over the past 25 years the United States has seen a 250% increase in the number of suicides occurring in this age group (Howze, 1988, p.42). This alarming growth in this country's suicide rate reflects worldwide trends (Battle, 1990, p. 253). Rudd concludes from his research that while there are more than 6,000 suicides each year, there are possible 50,000 non-fatal attempts every single year (1989, p. 174). In fact, some raise this figure to 250,000-500,000 (cited in Rudd, 1989, p. 174). As Rudd continues, "The present study supports claims that, contrary to public opinion, suicide is a problem faced by a large number, if not the majority of young Americans" (p. 175). With these staggering statistics in mind the Student Affairs professional is placed in the position of understanding and attacking the problem of suicide in our colleges.

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Understanding the Issues

Many significant studies discuss suicide as it relates to today's college student. Two recent studies aid our current discussion. The first is a study by Domino and Leenaars on the different attitudes toward suicide that are held by Canadian students as opposed to students in the United States (1989, pp. 160-170). One of the most interesting aspects relating to this study is that there are very few cross-cultural studies that assess the issues surrounding suicide. The sample consisted of 100 Canadian students at the University of Windsor and 100 U.S. students from the University of Arizona. It was carried out by administering the Suicide Opinion Questionnaire (SOQ) to these students. This instrument consists of 107 items with 100 of those covering attitudes toward suicide and seven items covering demographics.

Several interesting attitudes were uncovered in the research. A few examples will help us understand the issues and attitudes that are involved. Item 10 on the SOQ contains the statement: "Most suicide attempts are impulsive in nature." While 34 percent of Canadian students agreed with this statement and 32 percent of U.S. students agreed, 59 percent and 55 percent respectively disagreed. Hence, most suicides are seen as involving some level of planning. Item 14 states: "Those who threaten to commit suicide rarely do so." This is seen as a common misconception, and yet, 48 percent of Canadian students and a full 77 percent of U.S. students disagreed with this statement. The study also found that 74 percent of Canadian students and 82 percent of U.S. students disagreed with the statement: "Suicide is normal behavior." A further finding was that 92 percent of Canadian students and 93 percent of U.S. students agreed that "A suicide attempt is essentially a cry for help." One other item of note is that 58 percent of Canadian students and 39 percent of U.S. students disagreed with the statement: "People who attempt suicide are as a group less religious." However, Domino and Leenaars hasten to point out that very little research has been done in this area.

A second study of note is that of Rudd who surveyed 737 university students using the ten items of the Suicide Ideation Scale (1989). In his research, Rudd found that 43 percent of the students surveyed had experienced some type of suicidal ideation and 14.9 percent of those had acted on it by either telling someone or actually trying suicide. Rudd found several items of note in analyzing the data. There was no significant difference between men and women insofar as ideation is concerned (13.59 percent of males and 12.89 percent of females had experienced "serious suicidal ideation"). However, it was found that completed suicides were three times higher for males and attempted suicides were three times higher for females. This is due in part to the lethality differential in the attempts of men and women. Also, women tend to be better at crying out for help and expressing emotion than many men.

An additional finding was that only 11.68 percent of students from a nuclear family (mother and father living together) experienced serious suicidal ideation, while 17.55 percent of students from "disrupted" families experienced this level of ideation. Rudd considered this to be significant and consistent with other research. Rudd's study also assessed a students' self-identified political persuasion as it related to their suicidal ideation. He found that 20.9 percent of those identifying themselves as "liberal", 11.31 percent of those identifying themselves as "moderates", and 8.5 percent of those identifying themselves as "conservative" had experienced serious suicidal ideation. It was found that the more liberal one was, the more serious was the ideation. Rudd suggests that this may be because more conservatives tend to have religious values that are prohibitive against suicide as an option. However, he hastens to point out that this is mere conjecture and much more research is required. This is the same basic conclusion that was reached by Domino and Leenaars (1989) though they found that the majority of students felt that religion had little or no effect on suicide rates.

Rudd (1989) arrives at three conclusions that are very significant for our study. First of all, he points out that suicide is a far greater problem than most professionals care to admit. Second, he concludes that suicide for males employs a greater degree of lethality than suicides attempted by females. Finally, Rudd points out that thoughts of suicide do have a relationship with certain demographic factors. Because of this, he contends that we can use this information to target "high-risk" populations. Hopefully, examining these recent studies has proven helpful in ascertaining some of the issues that are involved in combatting suicide on our college campuses.

Reasons for Increase in Suicide

Certainly, there is not any one reason for the alarming rate of suicide which we currently face. However, there are a number of factors that seem to contribute to this problem. First of all, the increasing use of alcohol and other drugs seems to have an impact on the suicide rate ("About Suicide," 1979). A second reason identified by Battle is the increasing attitudes of hopelessness among today's students (1990, p. 254). In fact, one of the greatest worries of today's college student is finding a meaning and purpose to life. This should speak loudly and effectively to Student Affairs practitioners. A third reason is the desensitization toward violence that is all too apparent in today's culture and forms of entertainment. Fourth, many students have difficulty adjusting to the rigors and demands of college life. All too often, they are ill-equipped to cope with the stress (Howze, 1988). Indeed, Americans, emphasizing success at any cost, tend to place themselves under more stress than individuals in many cultures (Wodarski and Harris, 1987).

A fifth reason is that many of today's students live in what this writer calls an "exaggerated reality." Problems become all-consuming and reality becomes distorted because of obstacles that seem insurmountable. Wodarski and Harris identify four components to this faulty reasoning process (1987). First, they point to "arbitrary inference" by which the student concludes something based on circumstances that are not supported by the facts. A second distortion is "overgeneralization" whereby a student takes an isolated incident and extends it to all of life. Third, they point to the magnification of small problems into giant ones. Finally, Wodarski and Harris point to what they term "cognitive deficiency" where a student ignores vital considerations is overcoming a problem or circumstance.

Though many more reasons for the increase in suicide could be considered, one more should suffice for the purposes of this discussion. This problem is well-stated by Wodarski and Harris:

> Growing up today is different from growing up in the 1960's. Then most children had relatively warm, caring families; stable school environments; and trusting adults. In contrast, a significant percentage of today's teenagers are maturing in a state of relative fear (1987, p.477).

This is even further specified by Wodarski and Harris when they conclude; "Sociological researchers tend to view the phenomenon of adolescent suicide as reflection of the turmoil in American families" (1987, p. 479). This emphasis on family background is also supported by Howze (1988). Thus, to understand students, the Student Affairs professional must understand the homes from which they come and the demographics of those homes on a national level. This should give us a partial framework from which to address the problem of suicide as Student Affairs professionals.

Addressing the Problem of Suicide

Look for the Warning Signs

It is vital when responding to the issue of suicide that Student Affairs personnel be informed as to the warning signs of a potential suicide. This education must extend to every level of the department. Further, it is important that sensitivity to individual issues be maintained in this process. Staff may have dealt personally with a suicide or an attempted suicide by someone who is close to them, possibly even in their own lives. There are many indicators that may identify a person who is "at risk." However, let it be unequivocally asserted that the presence of one or more of these factors does not necessarily mean that a student is going to commit suicide. Nonetheless, the principle "better safe than sorry" is a good standard to follow when a person is obviously suicidal.

Some of the warning signs to which we should pay attention in the lives of students are as follows:

1) excessive and prolonged depression

2) verbal statements expressing hopelessness

3) giving away prized possessions

4) truancy or severe disciplinary problems

5) severe behavioral changes such as extreme boredom, loss of appetite, loss of or dramatic increase in sexual activity and/or appetite

6) severe mood swings

7) extreme pessimism

Shneidman identifies ten characteristics of a potentially suicidal individual which prove helpful to our discussion (1987, pp. 56-58):

1) "unendurable psychological pain" which must be lessened by the counselor

2) "frustrated psychological needs" which must be addressed

3) a frantic search for any kind of solution to one's problems

4) an attempt to end consciousness through escapism

5) helplessness and hopelessness

6) perception of very limited options

7) ambivalence

8) a clear communication of suicidal intent (note: about 80 percent of those attempting suicide give clues as to their intent)

9) escapist attitude

10) abnormal coping patterns and problem-solving capacity

With these typical patterns in mind, the Student Affairs practitioner can be prepared to respond to cries for help.

Respond to Warning Signs

There are numerous steps in responding to a potential crisis. First, as professionals we must be concerned about how a potential or actual suicide will affect the community at large. Dismuke offers several steps in preparing for potential tragedy:

1) plan ahead as to how the community will respond

2) organize a committee to respond to a suicide

3) identify clearly experts and resources

4) never do anything that would "glorify" death or suicide

5) be aware of "at risk" groups

6) prepare a plan as to how the institution will deal with the media if a tragedy occurs

7) watch for environmental influences that might induce suicide (1988, p. 21)

Second, Student Affairs professionals must educate and respond to "at risk" individuals. This involves confronting, listening, breaking confidentiality, removing potential weapons from the environment, and not leaving the individual alone without accountability depending on the severity of the behavior (Howze, 1988, p. 42).

In addition to the above responses, we should be aware of how students communicate; whether verbally or written. This involves teaching basic communication skills to students. Further, we must encourage the development of an individual's capacity to make informed, wise decisions and resolve personal problems in a healthy way. Only when some of these basic and essential skills are mastered can we prepare students to face the problems of an increasingly complex and challenging society.

A Challenge to Student Affairs

As is the case with many issues, the tragedy of suicide on our nation's campuses must be met by Student Affairs. It is up to us to provide the support and education that will encourage and give hope to students across our nation. To accomplish this, I would echo the challenges that have appeared in this paper and add one other. It is the feeling of this writer that the twin philosophical pinnacles upon which current student development theory is based - those of existentialism and pragmatism - must be reexamined. Existentialism, which is known in philosophical circles as a philosophy of despair, seems a strange bedfellow for a profession that seeks to bring hope and meaning to students. By the same token, pragmatism seems an odd philosophy to embrace as what "works" is often not what is "right" or "beneficial" to the individual or to the community. Suicide often "works", but that does not mean that it is an acceptable solution to one's problems.

The challenge before us is clear. The freshman, with whose essay this paper opened, did not stop writing after the first paragraph. He found that there were many who cared about him and supported him in finding solutions to his problems. He discovered that life is worth living and that suicide is not the answer. That is the message which Student Affairs must communicate loud and clear!

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The R.E.P.S. Program: Mediation Training For Residence Hall Staff

Maggie Miller

The Problem

As a hall director at Colorado State University, I encountered a situation familiar to any residence life staff member; an abundance of roommate conflicts throughout the hall. These conflicts were the result of any number of issues from habits of cleanliness and personal hygiene to value differences regarding alcohol and sexual behavior. The common denominator in most of these conflicts was the inability to communicate. Students lacked assertiveness and instead spoke aggressively or passive-aggressively, they did not know how to demonstrate listening behaviors, and they tended to jump to solutions before gaining a full understanding of the problem. Sometimes this lack of communication accompanied an unwillingness to work together; quite often, however, the willingness was evident but the skills were lacking.

Roommate conflicts tend to arise early in the semester when two people make the initial discovery of incompatibility. These often smooth out over time as the roommates discover the more positive aspects of their relationship and learn to adapt to each other. Sometimes the initial conflict is 'brushed under the carpet' because neither resident is comfortable confronting the situation. Most of us have been conditioned to avoid conflict. Brushing something under the carpet, however, does not make it go away. During midterms and finals weeks, the original problem arises again, often in exacerbated form. Now the conflict becomes a crisis.

Resident advisors are usually the first of the residence life staff to become aware of potential roommate conflicts, because they live in such close proximity to their residents. They are also possibly the best suited to work with roommates in conflict because they have good rapport with their residents and a reputation of impartiality. However, all too often, resident advisors do not receive training in conflict management. Many administrators believe that the abilities for which resident advisors are hired and the skills picked up in basic

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training will be sufficient to see them through resident roommate conflicts. Usually the training schedule for staff is reserved for bottom-line basics such as fire safety procedures and community-building. Whatever the reason, the resident advisor is often faced with roommate conflicts without a solid background in dispute resolution theory and practice. When confronted with a roommate conflict, many resident advisors 'encourage the roommates to talk to each other,' or 'encourage communication and then patience.' When residents lack the skills to effectively 'talk to each other,' and when patience wears thin, the default option is usually a room change.

It is the goal of residence life staff members to foster an environment which enhances the development of students. The greatest disadvantage of changing rooms without addressing the conflict is that each resident moves on, believing that the problem was the fault of his or her roommate. In this scenario, roommates take their own contributions to the conflict - be it intolerance, insensitivity, inability to communicate, or objectionable hygiene habits - with them. The pattern of conflict-avoidance is reinforced and a rich opportunity to learn about communication, human relations, and one's identity is lost.

Many resident advisors attempt to 'speak to the roommates individually and then together,' or 'get the three of us to talk.' This initiative on the part of the resident advisors is commendable. However, most people who have supervised resident advisors know that the R.A. untrained in mediation may spend hours mired in the conflicts of his or her residents. Some R.A.'s get caught in the middle, literally going back and forth between two roommates, trying to convince each of the other's position. Others take on an arbitrator role which may force them to make decisions that they should not or need not make. Still others give so much time and attention to the problem that their own grades and sleep patterns suffer. Many professionals and paraprofessionals in student affairs have tendencies toward co-dependency, helping others in order to satisfy their own need to be needed. This opportunity to be caring, supportive, and important to people in crisis is like quicksand. Resentment and burnout are typical results of this pattern.

<u>Mediation: A Possible Solution</u>

There is a way for resident advisors to assist in roommate conflicts, providing a developmental opportunity for residents and protecting their own mental health in the process. In the last few years, various forms of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) have become popular substitutes for traditional modes of conflict management. Psychologists, consultants and lawyers are learning these methods and finding them applicable to their work. One ADR technique, mediation, has become a popular approach to conflict and negotiation in higher education settings.

Mediation is a voluntary process in which a neutral third party facilitates negotiation between two or more disputants. The mediator begins the process by defining mediation, describing his or her role, and setting communication ground rules. He or she then works with the disputants to clarify the interests of each. During this stage, the mediator uses reframing techniques to clear toxic language from the discussion and make it easier for each person to understand the interests of the other(s). (For example, one resident may say, "my roommate is such a *slob*... he's *always* leaving his **!@$* laundry *everywhere*!" After clarification, the mediator could reframe this as, "You get angry when your roommate leaves his laundry on the floor of the room.") After the interests of the individuals have been articulated, the mediator sets the agenda of issues to be addressed, and helps the parties generate, evaluate, and agree upon solutions for each issue. At the close of the mediation process, the disputants record their solutions and sign this 'contract.' A simple roommate conflict (a cleanliness issue or the problem of a significant other who spends too much time in the room) may be mediated in one or two hours. More complicated scenarios may take more time.

Mediation is useful in the residence hall because it gives students an opportunity to experience positive resolution of conflict. The mediator provides plus-one modeling of communication skills. Practice of these skills will help the residents in their other relationships. Successful communication brings new levels of intimacy. Roommates who are able to resolve differences may experience more support from each other after this experience. Mediation gives us the opportunity to see ourselves as others see us, which is helpful to identity development. Resident advisors who successfully facilitate mediation gain increased self-confidence and greater credibility among their residents.

Given the pervasive problem of roommate conflicts on college campuses and the positioning of resident advisors as potential problem solvers, and given the possibilities of mediation as a developmental tool in the halls, I decided to develop a mediation training program at Colorado State University for paraprofessional residence life staff.

The Residential Experts in Problem-Solving (R.E.P.S.) Program

My first step was to generate interest among student staff in the residence halls and assess their perceptions of roommate conflicts. I distributed a "Roommate Conflict Resolution Survey" to

141 staff members on campus. Sixty-one (43%) of these were returned. For the specific purpose of establishing a training program, I was most interested in the answers to the question, "Would mediation training have helped in your job?" Thirty-seven people (61%) responded affirmatively. (Some people answered, "it did," or "No, it already did." These respondents had apparently received some training in this area, and they expressed that it had been helpful, which is what I wanted to know. I felt that for the non-scientific purposes of my survey—this project was, at the time, more of a hobby than a real study—I could interpret these answers as affirmative.) Six (10%) answered "maybe," eleven (18%) answered negatively, and six (10%) either answered 'N/A' or wrote no response. One person answered 'any,' which I could not interpret.

These results, which indicated that about 70% of the respondents thought that mediation training might help R.A.'s do their job, were encouraging. I reviewed the literature to learn more about mediation training programs on other campuses. Although I found useful information on roommate communication skills workshops (Koenigsberg & Susman,1985; Waldo, 1985; Waldo, 1989; Waldo & Morrill, 1983), and some interesting work on mediation in higher education (Hayes & Balogh, 1990; McCarthy, 1980), there was little information on the resident advisor as a mediator of roommate conflicts. Hayes and Balogh provide the interesting fact that of 1019 NASPA member institutions surveyed regarding mediation programs, only 29 were identified as having formal programs. This seems consistent with the lack of research in this area.

Hayes and Balogh also note that

> The lack of formal training in the mediation process provided for directors and mediators was a definite weakness among the institutions surveyed. Although 41% of the directors had not received any such training, the majority of those serving as mediators (69%) received their training "in-house." This suggests that many mediators were trained by people who did not have formal training themselves. (p. 238)

My own lack of formal training was of concern to me and the University Ombudsman, who was advising me on this project. The Code of Professional Conduct for mediators (Moore, 1982) suggests that mediators should "constantly upgrade their skills and theoretical grounding..." (p. 13). The Ombudsman suggested that I receive forty hours of training myself before attempting to teach others. During the summer of 1991, I attended a week-long program on the mediation process, presented by the Center for Dispute Resolution (CDR) in Boulder, Colorado.

This instruction was extremely helpful and gave me a variety of ideas for designing my own training session. In August and September of 1991, I met with fourteen members of the Residence Life and Apartment Life staffs. Through the survey, I had identified eleven resident advisors who expressed interest in receiving mediation training. In the Fall semester, a number of those originally interested were unable to attend, but new recruits (not necessarily resident advisors) took their places. These included graduate student staff in the Department of Housing and Food Services, many of whom were not live-in. They attended the workshop because they were interested in the topic, but were not planning to apply the material in their jobs.

In the first session, introductions were made and the topics of attitudes toward conflict and interest-based bargaining were addressed. A colleague from Off-Campus Student Services, who had attended CDR's training for her own professional development, assisted in the second session. In this session we presented all of the steps of the mediation process. Practical and theoretical perspectives were explored, and each technique was introduced through lecture, case-study, and role-plays. We also discussed the limitations of mediation, self-care for the mediator, and the logistics and ethics of conducting mediation in the residence halls. Altogether, eight and one half hours of training were provided. While the training moved along at a quick pace, sufficient time was allowed for questions and answers.

A month after the training, I distributed evaluation forms which used a five-point Likert scale and solicited comments. I wanted to learn if the training had been useful for participants. Ten of the fourteen evaluations were returned. All those who responded had found the training interesting and the presenters well-prepared. All indicated that they would recommend the workshop to others, and nine of the ten respondents circled "strongly agree" on this question. This feedback was extremely gratifying.

To the question, "I have found the training applicable to my job," five people answered affirmatively, two answered negatively, and three circled the middle number 'three.' To the question, "I have used some of the skills I learned," four answered affirmatively, two negatively, and four circled the number 'three.' These results did not surprise me, considering the final composition of the class.

Originally, I had hoped to establish monthly follow-up meetings with the fourteen participants of the workshop. I had also hoped to develop a second training session in the Spring semester for those who had been interested but unable to attend the Fall program. Finally, I wanted to create an ongoing training *system* which could continue at CSU in the coming years. Unfortunately, time is a limited resource, and other projects such as my professional paper and the job-search process have taken precedence as I near graduation. I am extremely satisfied with this experience, however, and believe that it can provide a foundation for future mediation programs.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Mediation as a problem-solving process and an opportunity for student development is still relatively underutilized in residence halls. The survey I used in this project supports the idea that mediation training can be useful to residents advisors. I hope that the workshop described here will serve as a model for other residence life staff who want to integrate alternative dispute resolution into their procedures for handling roommate conflicts.

Training takes time, and time is limited during the opening months of the Fall semester. My training program lasted eight hours, however I would prefer to use ten or twelve hours if I conduct this program again. There is much information to be covered and much practice needed before participants feel comfortable working in actual conflict situations. Many staff members do not have twelve hours to commit during the opening of the halls. I recommend that if resident advisors are to receive this training, they should receive it on a voluntary basis in the Spring before the term of their employment. If they receive it in the Fall, I suggest that they be relieved of other responsibilities during that time.

Creating this program also took time. A full time professional staff member might be able to reserve more time for this process than a graduate student conducting a practicum. Developing a *system* for using mediation in the residence halls would take a few years. The relative longevity of a professional staff member, contrasted to that of a student, would be favorable for establishing such a system.

Mediation has its limits. Ideal conditions for mediation include voluntary participation, interdependent relationships between disputants, and a low level of hostility in the conflict. Not all roommate disputes are characterized by this description. In some cases, the situation is unmanageable and a room change is the best option. However, many conflicts, if they are addressed by trained staff before they reach crisis proportions, can be resolved through mediation. In the developmental setting of a college campus, mediation may be considered successful even if it results in a room change, provided that the participants learn something about themselves, each other, and the nature of constructive communication.

Mediation is also limited because it is based on a middle-class, White, Western model of communication, which supports the practices of assertiveness and directness. The mediation model may be unrealistic in international student housing or other diverse settings. Encouraging mediation without respecting the background of residents demonstrates a lack of respect for cultural differences and perpetuates Eurocentric thinking. It would be useful to explore the cultural limits of mediation and to examine methods of alternative dispute resolution in other cultures.

Despite the limitations of mediation, it is an excellent tool for teaching and community living in university housing. Integration of this process in residence life settings has only begun. There are still many studies to conduct, articles to write, and programs to create. The impact of an in-hall mediation system on student satisfaction and retention is worthy of examination. The applicability of lessons learned in mediation to student development, on both interpersonal and cross-cultural levels, would make a fascinating study. I hope that this article presents an inviting preview of the enormous potential of alternative dispute resolution on the residential college campus.

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Principle-Centered Leadership

Stephen R. Covey
New York, NY: Summit Books, 1991
334 pages, $20.00

Review by
David A. McKelfresh

Principle-Centered Leadership introduces a new paradigm - that we center our lives and the leadership of our organizations and people on certain inviolate principles. Stephen R. Covey, author of the nationwide best-seller, *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, provides an empowering philosophy for life that demonstrates how lifelong learning can transform personal and work relationships. Covey makes the case that "ineffective people try to manage their time around priorities, whereas effective people lead their lives and manage their relationships according to principles — natural laws and governing values that are universally valid."

The book is organized into two sections: the first section is comprised of thirteen chapters focusing on personal and interpersonal effectiveness, the second section embodies eighteen chapters regarding managerial and organizational development.

In section one Covey suggests that real character and skill development is irrevocably related to natural laws and governing principles. Two master principles covered in this section are 1) trustworthiness at the personal level, and 2) trust at the interpersonal level. One chapter of note in this section is titled "Moral Compassing." Covey maintains that that a "map" is of limited value when managing in the wilderness of changing times, and that what is needed is a "moral compass" — principles, core beliefs, the verities of life, true north.

In section two Covey focuses on issues and challenges that face all managers — supervision, delegation, participation, expectations, and performance agreements. Two master principles of management and leadership covered in this section are 1) empowerment at the management level, and 2) alignment at the organizational level. Covey's

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suggestion in one chapter is this: "Manage from the left, lead from the right." Covey applies research on brain theory to help in understanding why some people are great managers but weak leaders and states "leadership deals with direction, management deals with speed." Covey suggests a functional balance for the strategic leader who intends to provide direction and vision and motivation.

The major contribution of *Principle-centered Leadership* is its ability to open the mind to the "permanent things" — values, family, relationships, and communicating. Covey has again contributed a valuable publication for personal and leadership effectiveness. Student affairs administrators will do well to carefully examine this book as a guide to responding more effectively at home and at work. In summary, this clearly written book can well serve as the stimulus for the members of the higher education community to practice empathy and synergy in their efforts to be proactive and productive.

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Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs

Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

Purpose. Manuscripts should be written for the student affairs generalist who has broad responsibility for educational leadership, policy, staff development, and management. The Editorial Board invites submission of the following types of articles:

- •Quantitative or Qualitative Research Articles
- •Current Trends in Students Affairs/Higher Education
- •Editorial Articles
- •Opinion Pieces
- •Book Reviews

In addition, the Editorial Board will include information on the state of the Student Affairs program and alumni updates.

Procedure. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,000 words (approximately 12 pages of double-spaced, typewritten copy, including references, tables and figures), and should not be less than 1,000 words (or about four pages). Exceptions should be discussed with the editor prior to submission. Before submitting an article:

1. Prepare the manuscript in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Third Edition.
2. Send the original and three copies of the manuscript to the Journal's Content Editor.
3. Place the name of the author(s), position(s), and institutional affiliation(s) in a separate title page.
4. Double-space all portions of the manuscript, including references, tables, figures and quotations.
5. Avoid sexist terminology; see pp. 43-45 of the publication manual.
6. Do not use footnotes; incorporate the information on the text
7. Use the APA reference style, listing only references cited in the text.
8. Use the active voice to the largest extent possible.
9. Check subject and verb agreement; singular/plural.
10. Use verb tense appropriately: past tense for the literature review and description of procedures, and present tense for the results and discussion.
11. Proofread and double check the references before submitting your manuscript.
12. Use Microsoft Word (4.0) or internet system whenever possible. Submit a "rough" hard-copy manuscript. Final drafts can then be submitted by disk or internet.
13. Submit only manuscripts not under consideration by other journals.

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