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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 1995 edition (Volume Four) will be accepted through **November 1, 1994.**

Cover design by Jim Farrand '92.

Notes from the Editorial Board

The editorial board is pleased to offer the 1994 edition of The Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs. The articles included in this volume represent the growing diversity of questions that must be considered if we are truly concerned about meeting the needs of all constituencies.

From one perspective, Michael T. Miller and Glenn M. Nelson note that "one of the foremost difficulties in embracing and developing consensus on a knowledge base for higher education has been the disparity of thought over what is and should be required basic understanding of the field" in their article **Reading Materials Perceived to be Basic in the Study of Higher Education**. However, we must also insure that the evolving theoretical knowledge base is truly representative of the diversity of campus experience.

Theoretical perspectives continue to emerge as educators acknowledge the limitations of traditional models. As Sue Reimondo points out in her article **Identity Development: Is One Theory Enough?**, "these theories which are the underpinnings of the profession today are based on the assumption that all students develop according to models based on a homogeneous campus population." While it continues to be important to recognize the contributions of the historical models, we must infuse higher education with an equal representation of diverse theoretical perspectives.

The consequences of not educating ourselves about the differing identity development theories are significant to our success. Rosanna Duester identifies that "our educational system is failing to educate its minority populations" in her article **A Study of the Effects of a Mentoring Program on Minority Students' Perceptions and Retention.** Given the increasing demographic shift away from a homogeneous population, such short-sightedness signals a challenge for our future. We must continue to expand our vision as professionals in order to anticipate the ever changing needs of the campus. New pathways must be identified and methodologies created to insure their successful implementation.

We believe the articles in this edition can begin to change our perspectives. We hope you find them as challenging and thought provoking as we have.

Acknowledgements:

The 1994 Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs Editorial Board wishes to acknowledge the following for their faithful participation in the production of this edition.

Grant Sherwood, Director of the Student Affairs in Higher Education Program at Colorado State, has provided valuable assistance with all the administrative aspects of production. It is the technical assistance provided by the Department of Housing and Food Services which makes the publication of the Journal possible. Nancy Venturato was helpful as always in providing the Board with information about budgets and alumni.

We would like to thank Manny Cunard, Keith Miser and Grant Sherwood for their generous financial contributions. Without their support, the Journal would not be possible.

The students currently enrolled in the Student Affairs in Higher Education Program also are an invaluable resource to the Editorial Board. All the students who participated in the Reader Board helped to strengthen the intellectual integrity of the Journal's content.

The faculty of the Student Affairs in Higher Education program at Colorado State University deserve credit for creating an environment where difficult questions can be asked, and the traditions of the past can be challenged.

Finally, the willingness of alumni and colleagues to share information and insights with other professionals through forums such as the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs is fully appreciated. Such an exchange of ideas is integral to the on-going development of the profession.

The Editorial Board,
Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs

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The State of the Program

Dr. Grant P. Sherwood
Program Director
Student Affairs in Higher Education

My congratulations to our students and faculty for their efforts in producing the third volume of our Journal. Our academic program continues to grow and mature. We currently are reviewing data collected from recent graduates in assessing the relationship of our preparation program and their readiness to perform as a professional staff member. This data is being compared to recent research findings at Columbia Teacher's College and University of Kansas.

Additionally, we are reviewing the relationship of our Division of Student Affairs and the SAHE program. The question remains: How can we enhance this symbiotic relationship? We have now established two Foundation Funds to support the work of faculty and students. One is dedicated to scholarship assistance and the other to general operations.

Finally, on a very exciting note, I am pleased to report that our SAHE program has gone international. Besides welcoming our third international student (from China) to our program next fall, six of our current students had an opportunity to visit/study in England for two weeks in January. We hope to have additional opportunities like this in the future.

I personally continue to be challenged by the changes and opportunities our academic program creates. On behalf of our students and faculty, I want to thank everyone who took the time to contribute to this year's Journal.

Training Student Staff in the Use of Basic Helping Skills: Teaching Problem Solving

Guy Arnesen

Where is the line drawn? What do we dare ask our student staff to attempt when coming upon students struggling with transitions and crisis in their lives? What is our student staff's role in helping the student sort out the problems, concerns, and crisis that sometimes seem to dominate their lives during the college years? Our University Counseling Centers are packed, and the waiting period for an intake interview may be weeks.

Those of us in Housing know who is in the best position to help these students; the talented, concerned, and eager student staff who live in the communities where the constant struggle occurs. Still, we hesitate to challenge and prepare our student staff for the work because we have the constant fear of loading so much responsibility upon their shoulders, and sometimes doubt their maturity level for handling the task (not to mention the usual excuse of legal liability).

We are a part of an educational institution. Our staffs consistently include some of the most talented student leaders that our institution has to offer. The role of these leaders should be that of the teacher; helping the students in transition and pain to learn the skills and self-confidence to begin taking control of their lives through the use of problem solving skills. Many systems limit the involvement of student staff; they are to listen, reflect feelings, and refer to the campus experts. It is only the system's lack of confidence that limits the possibilities, for our student staffs are capable of going well beyond this expectation. As long as our staff remember that it is essential to use our counseling centers, academic advisors, and other university services as a part of the student's action plan, we can train and empower them to do much more for our students.

Our tool, the Ten Steps to Using Basic Helping Skills, is an approach that we created based on the Reality Therapy techniques of Glasser (1965). It presents a

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step by step process for helping, and provides a foundation to build upon, as staff develop and incorporate their own skills and creative styles. The purpose of helping skills training is to provide student staff with a process that is easy to understand, simplistic in nature, easy to use, and always provides direction and goals for the helper. Many student staff members feel comfortable listening to and reflecting feelings, but they have frustration with forever listening, rehashing problems, and never getting any movement towards a problem solution. Where are the results? This frustration seems to lead to one of two things. The staff members will either end up taking responsibility and solving the problem for the student, or they will finally give up on the student who continues to do a lot of complaining and never seems to feel any better. Staff frustration increases because they do not know where to go from that place in the helping situation. The Ten Steps give helpers an ultimate goal of teaching students to become confident and able to problem solve on their own (to teach life long skills).

This helping process helps students learn to look at their situation and current behaviors. They then brainstorm possible options and consequences, make a plan of action, and follow through with new actions and behaviors. Through this process the students learn they can produce better results, improve situations, and have some control of the path that their lives take.

This article will explain the ten step process that student staff can be taught to improve their own skills, and also learn to teach others to problem solve in their own transitions to college and residence hall living.

STEP ONE: PREPARATION

Gain the skills and information needed. The housing department and the student staff members have obligations in preparing staff for the helping role. The housing department has the obligation to provide information, skills training, support, and resources that will help staff develop their skills. Staff have the obligation to make a commitment to helping others, to begin looking at personal motivation, to understand the goals of the helping role, and to develop skills for working one on one with students. These skills will include attending skills, listening skills, reflecting skills, questioning techniques, and the use of resource information.

STEP TWO: DEVELOPING RELATIONSHIPS

Make yourself approachable. Students in need will approach those people they are comfortable with; those who seem open and accepting of differences. It is important for staff to consistently show others that they are people who care about others and have the ability to help (role modeling).

Staff members who greet

students and parents, provide information, answer questions, and are easy to talk to show themselves as potential helpers. As students go through the tough adjustment periods they will feel more comfortable approaching the people who have been open and have shown an interest in them.

When sitting down with a student who is struggling, the staff member should relax a bit and take time to first ask questions to get to know the student better. After the relationship begins developing, both the student and staff member will feel more comfortable and the two can begin to start discussing concerns and looking for solutions.

STEP THREE: LISTENING AND GATHERING INFORMATION

Use active listening skills. Sitting face to face, the staff member should first try to get a complete picture of the problems and concerns of the student who comes to him/her for help. This is done through a combination of listening and questioning techniques. This is an information collecting time, not a problem-solving session. Helpers should not be trying to make points, share their ideas, or find solutions in this step. This step concludes when staff feel they have a good idea not only what is concerning the student, but also what other factors in the student's life are affecting their decisions and actions.

Attending behavior, listening skills, and reflection of the student's feelings are essential as the helper and student discuss concerns. The training through the Housing Department is critical to help this discussion go well. If done successfully, this step will give the student a chance to express feelings and frustrations, and to re-examine the problem. It also will help staff gain the *total picture* involved with the student's concern.

STEP FOUR: PROCESSING CURRENT ACTIONS

Ask questions. This is the time when most helpers make mistakes in attempting to help someone. The heart is in the right place as they start giving advice and *helping* the student do the *right thing*. They end up taking control and responsibility for making things better for the student. The helper's role is to help students begin to look at their current actions and decisions, and then think about how they are dealing with the situation. It is not extremely important what the staff member feels should happen at this point, for their role is to help the student look at his/her own attempts, if any, to work on the problem.

Although this may seem to be a complex task, it is really done very easily by asking some basic questions to get students to examine their current efforts. What are you doing now to work on the problem? If nothing, what have the consequences been? What actions have or have not

been successful?

STEP FIVE: REVIEWING OPTIONS

Begin exploring choices. The next goal for the helper is to help the student begin thinking of possible options that can be attempted to solve the problem. What are the possible consequences for each option? What else can you try to make things better? What things do you think might happen if you try that? How do you want things to be? What other actions would make things better?

Students have now reviewed the possible factors involved in the problem. They also have begun to think of possible things that can be done to help improve the situation, and to examine possible consequences for each of the actions that could be taken.

How does the helper get the student to do something to improve the situation? At this point in the process the student must begin to make some decisions and come up with a plan of action. Staff can assist in this process by helping students review the factors involved and begin dealing with them one at a time. Some factors might be put on hold while students make plans to tackle other concerns. Together they begin to come up with concrete actions and tasks that the student can try, and the staff can help by making sure students are realistic in how much to start with. Students should narrow down the options to what they feel will bring about the most positive consequences in improving the situation. The plan of action should include definite guidelines; and helpers should record all the decisions made and tasks planned in these areas: What does the student want to achieve with the plan and what should the outcomes be? What behaviors will they change? Where will they go for information or assistance? Who will they contact? By what day will they complete these tasks? When will the student get back together with the helper to discuss the progress made with the problem?

STEP SIX: GAINING COMMITMENT

Make a commitment. The student has realized the importance of changing behaviors and taking action. If the situation is to get better, students must do something to improve it. If they spend time processing the situation and coming up with their own possible solutions, the student will be more apt to believe in the plan and commit to following through with the actions that may bring change. Since the plan is tailored specifically to them, the students may have more confidence in its successful completion. Students should be feeling more in control of their own destiny if they can see how the plan can affect the problem. They will feel less helpless because they have already improved in taking control through better understand-

ing the predicament, coming up with possible solutions, and making a plan of action.

The students must give an honest effort to following through with the tasks in the plan. Students must give the plan a reasonable amount of time to succeed or fail. Students must be patient and realistic. Problems tend to make individuals very emotional. Students should accept this and commit to realizing that if it has taken a while for things to get bad, it will also take a while for things to get better. Students must be persistent. Students must keep communicating with the helper.

STEP SEVEN: SUPPORT AND CHALLENGE

Put the plan into action. The students should contact the people they need to, communicate when expected to, and begin to change the habits and behaviors that have been selected for change in their plan.

Positive reinforcement from staff is needed as the student follows through with the plan, and challenge to take action should be expected if the student doesn't. The helper's role is to be sure that no excuses are accepted for students not following through with the plan. Things cannot get better without the effort of the student.

STEP EIGHT: EVALUATION AND PROCESSING

Review the process. The staff member and student come back together at the predetermined time and discuss what has happened since the plan was put into action. After giving students a chance to initially talk about their feelings and thoughts concerning the problem situation, helpers can begin asking questions to help students process what has been accomplished since the last time they met.

This step gives students a chance to review the situation and how it compares to the present concern. Helpers should make use of listening and questioning skills and continue to let students process and control the situation. They should discuss how the plan has been carried out. They should discuss how successful the plan was in improving the problem situation. They should discuss the problem situation now that the student has had time to begin working on it.

STEP NINE: RECYCLING

Explore new actions. If the plan has worked well for students and the problem is under control, they may feel comfortable continuing on their own. At this time helpers switch roles and keep in touch with students mainly as friends.

If students wish for helpers to remain involved in the situation and feel uncomfortable with the outcomes from the plan of action the next step will be Recycling. Recycling takes the action of going back to other steps in the helping process and attempting to attack the problem from another

angle. Recycling may start at just about any of the previous steps depending on the individual and the current problem situation. The student and helper must redefine the problem and pinpoint how it differs from the original concern. The student may need to redefine the goals that the student and helper hope to reach to clear up the problem situation. The student and the helper need to look at the options, review what has been tried, what else can be tried, and what possible consequences both positive and negative, may occur. The student needs to put together a new plan with the assistance of the helper and make the commitment needed to follow through with it. The student needs to put the new plan into action.

STEP TEN: CONTINUATION

Never give up. Helper goals for the process may be slightly different from those of students, and the helper needs to make the commitment to continue assisting as long as students are in need of help. While students mainly wish to solve the problem at hand and lessen pain, helpers hope to teach a problem solving technique which will help students develop the skills to problem solve on their own, and learn to take responsibility for their actions and situations.

Students may catch on very quickly, but in some cases helpers may need to be prepared to go through the Recycling process as many times as it takes for students to either solve the problem, get help elsewhere, or refuse to see the helper any longer. The situation can't get better if the student refuses to do the work and follow the plan. The helper may have to be willing at some point to call a halt to talk sessions if the student isn't following through. They must let the student know that they will be available when the student is truly ready to work toward making things better.

TRAINING STUDENT STAFF IN HELPING SKILLS

In setting up a program to teach basic helping skills to student staff members, there are some important factors that must be taken into consideration. Carkoff's (1983) techniques for teaching skills in listening and reflection of feelings have been widely used in university settings.

The following are the goals for this training program:

A. The training must not try to push too much into one session and overwhelm the student staff with an excess of information.

B. The process must be easy to understand and make sense to the student staff so they will commit to learning and using it.

C. The training must follow a logical sequence of presentation so staff can start a foundation and later add information to completely understand and use the helping process.

D. The training must be on-going and build upon the base of

information to increase skills and effectiveness, and to provide feedback.

E. The training must be specific so that student staff know what to do, when to do it, what to work toward, where to go for help, and what outcomes to accomplish.

The following areas must be offered in training to help the student staff confidently and successfully approach the helping role:

Role Expectations

Student Staff must understand the helping role. As helpers in the residence hall setting, what are Student Assistants expected to do when working one on one with students? What are their responsibilities, goals, and limitations?

Tool

The training must provide a tool for the student staff members to use while helping students. As Student Assistants increase their skill level, The Ten Steps to Using Basic Helping Skills will help them accomplish the goal of teaching students the life skills of problem solving for their own problems and concerns.

Skills

The training must incorporate teaching basic skills essential to the helping role. Included skills are attending behavior, listening and reflecting feelings, and questioning techniques.

Practice

The more staff members get the opportunity to practice with the tool provided in training, the more confident and successful they will be as helpers. Helping, like basketball dribbling, is a skill, and the more the individuals practice, the more successful they become at the skill.

Information

Student Assistants must be equipped with information about services available and contact people. It is important that they understand the referral procedures for helping resources such as the University Counseling Center, and what their role would become in crisis management situations where professionals are being called in.

Evaluation

Follow-up opportunities must be available so that after working in the helping role for a period of time Student Assistants can meet with the facilitator and other staff members to review, question, process, and evaluate their personal approach to the helping role. This is a time to share ideas, talk about experiences and situations, and get help.

Housing departments have traditionally overlooked their strongest resources when attempting to teach residents new ways to deal with the transitions to college life. They have hired some of the University's outstanding student leaders, but have backed away from training and empowering those staff members to teach the skills of problem solving. It's time to change from those doubts of ability to action; train staff to be listeners, and teachers of problem solving skills.

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Burnout and Resident Assistants

Jodi Berman

The undergraduate resident assistant (RA) position is one of great value in any Department of Residence Life. The RA serves many roles, primarily serving as the main link to the students living on individual floors. The students who fill these roles are asked to build community among the residents of the floor, maintain order, provide interactive and educational opportunities, and respond to crises; among a myriad of other aspects which are included in the job description. It is not uncommon for a contract to end with the responsibility of "other duties as assigned," after a lengthy and exhaustive list has already been detailed. This creates a work environment such that several students who occupy these positions are lost to burnout each year.

"Maslach (1978b) defined 'burnout' as 'the gradual loss of caring about the people with whom one works,'" (Fuehrer and McGonagle, 1988). There are several theories which address the stages and aspects of burnout and how it can take its toll on these undergraduate resident assistants. Numerous studies have been conducted which attempt to correlate burnout with various demographic, situational, and personality characteristics.

There are several components which contribute to how and whether one will experience burnout, and it is of consequence that residence life administrators attempt to assist the staff in preventing burnout from occurring. In order to do this effectively, it is of consequence to discover what aspects of the organization contribute to the experience of burnout among staff members. Once identified, change can be made through more effective supervision and training.

In order to understand the burnout syndrome in resident assistants, it is imperative that a review of the many definitions be examined. According to Garden (1989), "[b]urnout is a concept that may be understood as a form of psychological distress arising

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from overextension of the self that manifests as a severe loss of energy and a deterioration of performance" (p. 223). It is no wonder that these students have a predisposition for burnout since,

> RAs are expected to explain and enforce policies, perform administrative tasks, implement educational programs, establish a healthy community living environment, provide information, and assist students with personal problems. They are faced with a myriad of personal problems presented by residents including roommate conflicts, dating, isolation, academic problems, racial conflicts, birth control and abortion, sexual identity, alcohol abuse, rape and assault, death and suicide. (Heatherington & Kerr, 1988, p. 26)

Heatherington, Oliver, and Phelps (1989, p. 266) contend that burnout is a response to the chronic emotional stress of continued work with other human beings. Maslach (1982) has added that "... the burnout syndrome appears to be a response to the chronic, everyday stress (rather than to occasional crises)... what changes over time is one's tolerance for this continual stress, a tolerance that gradually wears away under the never ending onslaught of emotional tensions"(p. 11).

There are several models of the burnout syndrome (Maslach, 1982; Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1988; Leiter, 1989). Ash (1990) adds his definition in which there are three stages:

> The 'Gung-Ho' stage [in which] the potential victims regard their careers as all-important, and they are confident that an all-out effort will insure their success... they push themselves too hard, and set unrealistic standards that are difficult to meet. The 'Guilt' stage of burnout [in which] they blame themselves for their disappointment, feel that, somehow, they have done all the wrong things. To compensate, they push themselves even harder, growing more and more tired in the process. [Finally, t]he 'Chronic Fatigue and Disillusionment' [phase in which they feel that] 'nobody out there will ever appreciate what I do'. (p. 2)

There are several recommendations for resident assistants, supervisors, and organizations who hope to avoid the experience of burnout. Heatherington, Oliver, and Phelps (1989) say that "RAs will profit from a self-focus that includes greater attention to feelings and acceptance of personal limits. Training, role models, staff support, and knowledge about balancing a healthy lifestyle can be the first steps in helping RAs decrease self neglect and potential burnout" (p. 269).

continued

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESIDENT ASSISTANTS:

1. Recognize personal limits, and adhere to them. "...[I]gnorance of your personal limits means you are likely to exceed them. The emotional overload that precipitates burnout is more likely to occur if you do not know when it is time to stop, say no, or to make changes" (Maslach, 1982, p. 65).

2. Develop a strict wellness program that meets your needs, and make sure to take time out for yourself. It is important that resident assistants take time for themselves both for mental and physical rejuvination. Positive health habits, including exercise, hygiene, and good eating habits help to maintain a balanced attitude, and allows the RA to spend some time nurturing his/herself. "The chance to get away from it all can be particularly helpful for someone who is struggling with the stress of burnout" (Maslach, 1982, p. 125).

3. Develop and utilize social support networks to help alleviate the stress of their position. Social support can come from supervisors, peers on staff, and friends outside of residence life. Supervisors can provide needed respite, if necessary, and fellow staff members can share similar experiences. Friends outside of the hall and/or residence life will provide the opportunity to discuss issues that do not pertain at all to the position, and this can be a welcome relief.

4. Discover new and exciting ways to carry out the duties of the position. Maslach (1982) states that, "(b)y choosing to do things in different ways and varying your work routine, you can get out of that rut and feel more in control of your job" (p. 90). It is easy to feel as though one knows the ins and outs of the position in a few months, and this feeling creates the opportunity to stop changing and growing. The greatest value of the resident assistant position is that its excitement comes from the constant learning and growing challenge given to the individual in the job.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SUPERVISORS:

1. Build social support among staff members. The community that is built among the staff will often be left to the individual hall directors. Getting work accomplished is important during staff training and throughout the year, but it is imperative that accomplishments do not override the necessity for staff development.

2. Check with the staff members periodically to make sure that they feel a sense of accomplishment. Recognize all positive achievements. It is key that staff feel as though they are accomplishing good things. Recognition from supervisors may be crucial to a student's self-esteem which can increase the sense of personal accomplishment in the position.

3. Continue to incorporate stress management and time

management discussions throughout the year during staff development activities. As the semester progresses, it becomes easier to assume that the staff is maintaining a balanced and healthy lifestyle. Continued discussion is imperative to helping staff avoid burnout.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DEPARTMENTS OF RESIDENCE LIFE:

1. Develop a comprehensive staff training program that includes discussion about wellness and burnout. "Training topics to assist RAs in coping skills may include stress management, knowing one's limits, group management and leadership, career development, and balancing the RA job with academic and personal life. A self-care approach can be integrated into the training sessions that focus on taking care of other people and tasks" (Heatherington & Kerr, 1988, p. 27). Other topics can include coping skills, assertiveness, mental and physical relaxation, and minimizing poor health habits.

2. Role model positive behaviors throughout the system from the Director of Housing down to the hall directors and resident assistants. Very often, residence life professionals will preach wellness and will work twelve hour days. It is important that all members of the organization are maintaining balanced behaviors, and recognizing personal limits. This is especially important for people who supervise RAs.

3. Continue to examine the demands of the resident assistant position, and make changes and adjustments, as necessary. Residence life administrators continue to change the demands of the RA position, usually by adding more responsibilities. While this does provide an atmosphere in which students feel valued and intrinsic to the mission of the department, it tends to expand the job beyond the limits of being reasonable. As responsibilities are added, it is important that others are lessened or eliminated.

4. Question the motives of students who would like to return to their positions. Students who are burned out need to have the organization help them to make the decision to leave the position. Very often, it is difficult to tell a student who has done a good job that he/she is not welcome to return. However, students that are quickly approaching the burnout syndrome must receive guidance from the system so that they can truly consider whether or not returning is in their best interests.

It is certainly not always possible to prevent the experience of burnout, even if every recommendation is followed. It is most important that students and staff continue to discuss the issues around burnout, and remain ever-vigilant about its prevention. The effort must come from students, supervisors, and organizations as

a group in order for any prevention program to be effective.

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Political Correctness: A Student Development Perspective

Randy Chittum & Kristen Uden

Political correctness was first used by the Marxists as a term of self-criticism mindlessly adhering to the party line (Forney, 1993). The term was used as satire in the 1980s as a way to describe a "mindless adherence" to a new liberal set of beliefs such as women's rights, affirmative action, and diversity. More recently, conservatives have used the term to ridicule any ideas which they oppose. This historical confusion has left many uncertain as to whether the term "political correctness" is a compliment or an insult.

A 1990 Newsweek (Adler, Starr, Chideya, Wright, & Haac) article reported on a student at the University of Connecticut who was banned from campus university residence halls and cafeterias after charges of violating the student behavior code. This student put a sign on her room door naming a list of people that would be 'shot on sight'- included were 'preppies,' 'bimbos,' 'men without chest hair,' and 'homos.' Formal charges were brought against the student after an outraged gay, lesbian, bisexual community protested. Conforming to higher standards of the First Amendment, the university was forced to let her return to the residence halls.

At Colorado State University, evidence of similar phenomena is not hard to find. The Collegian, Colorado State's school newspaper, has been inundated with recent editorials regarding politically correct topics including gay, lesbian, bisexual rights, animal rights, and the celebration of Columbus Day. The power of political correctness on this campus is apparent through the prevailing campus culture which socializes students to the campus community. The politically correct "answers" are obvious to most members of this community.

Forney (1993) posits the following definition for political correctness as suggested by Mackenzie (1991):

> Political Correctness is a pejorative term for a pattern

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> of behaviors in which discourse, argument, and good sense are stifled by an imposed conformity that places maximum values on giving no offense to such 'marginalized' groups as women, people of color, gays and lesbians, Jews, Muslims, and the poor. (p. 5)

Any societal consideration of political correctness necessarily requires a value based response. Seldom are people's opinions evaluated on the merit of the ideas which support them, but are instead evaluated in light of politically correct dogma. However, the premise of this article is that a developmental understanding of students provides a more value free arena in which to contemplate political correctness. The developmental approach suggests that students move from a blind acceptance of politically correct values to a place where they are truly committed to their own set of values.

The remainder of this article will detail three developmental approaches to understanding political correctness: cognitive, moral, and psychosocial. The final section will invite the reader to consider various implications for student affairs practice.

A COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT APPROACH TO UNDERSTANDING POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

Perry's (1970) theory of cognitive student development will be used as the primary tool for considering the cognitive approach to understanding political correctness. Perry offers four primary stages of cognitive growth. A traditional age college learner will likely begin their college experience reasoning at a *dualistic* level. Dualism is simply defined as a preoccupation with the right facts and the right information. All knowledge is known and the job of the learner is to learn as much as possible. The next stage, *multiplicity*, is characterized by a broadening world in which alternatives can be considered. In this stage a learner still believes all knowledge is knowable, but now the **process** for learning the right answers is all important. The person reasoning multiplistically believes that if there are alternate ideas and knowledge, then all ideas must be valid. In the third stage of *contextual relativism*, the learner accepts the fact that all ideas are not valid and can be judged using rules of adequacy such as support and logic. Finally, the fourth stage of *committed relativism* requires the learner to not only judge ideas, but also begin to choose among them. The themes that tie these choices together then become our sense of self.

Relating political correctness to Perry is probably most easily demonstrated by using the extreme stages of dualism and committed relativism. In the context of dualism, political correctness is seen as the **right**

way to be. A student in this stage looks to **good** authority figures for the right answers. The student then mimics what has been modeled by these authority figures. For example, if a teacher talks about the equality of all people the student then takes this opinion on as his or her own. The reasoning behind this belief is not considered by the student. The fact that the teacher believes this is all that is needed.

Political correctness considered in terms of someone in the committed relativism stage is quite different. A person in this stage is not **just** politically correct because they think it is the "right" thing to do, they have explored and chosen from alternatives. These choices are founded on what Perry describes as a person's sense of self. This suggests that a person committed in relativism has certain beliefs because they are a part of that person's sense of self instead of an externally constructed reality.

A MORAL DEVELOPMENT APPROACH TO UNDERSTANDING POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

Kohlberg's (1972) theory of moral development is commonly used as a way to understand ethical and moral decision making. It is also a useful context in which to consider political correctness. A very brief description of Kohlberg's theory in lay terms is offered below:

- fear of punishment - a person makes a choice based on fear of consequences or punishment
- instrumental - I'll scratch your back if you'll scratch mine
- peer group - the person's peer group defines morality
- law and order - law is the guide for moral decision making
- social contract - each of us has certain obligations as members of society
- principled reasoning - certain moral principles are considered higher than anything else

A person in fear of the punishment stage might be politically correct in order to avoid "punishment" in terms of disapproval from friends, peers, and /or family. The "I'll scratch your back if you'll scratch mine" stage may be played out by someone who thinks that being politically correct pleases someone he or she knows and therefore implies reciprocity. In Kohlberg's next stage, a person's values are defined by the standards of her or his peer group and therefore may be considered politically correct because values are provided by the peer group. In the fourth stage, law, or maintaining the social norm, is the guide to a person's set of values. Similar in process to the peer group stage, at this stage values are dictated by an external source and may be thought of as politically correct. Affirmative Action, for example, has become a social norm that a person may choose to uphold regardless of his or her personal views. A person proceeding

through the social contract stage has become more personally committed to an internally constructed set of values as they relate to societal obligations. The final stage of principled reasoning suggests a set of values that are also internally constructed but no longer related to social contracts. Therefore, the final two levels of commitment imply that a person is no longer just politically correct.

Carol Gilligan (1982) approached morality less from the justice perspective offered by Kohlberg and more from a care and relationship orientation. It is this philosophical orientation, which is attributed in greater numbers to women, which has been her major contribution to understanding moral development. She suggests that people go through three orientations in moral decision making. A person may reason at a selfish orientation and be primarily concerned with how a particular decision will affect themselves. She believes the next orientation is one of self sacrifice where the decision maker does not consider his/her own needs. Finally, some balance between these is found when care is thought of as a universal obligation. From this perspective, self and others are equal contributors in the decision making process.

A gay, lesbian, or bisexual person might be politically correct for selfish reasons if she or he is reasoning from the first level of Gilligan's theory. As shown in Kohlberg's fourth stage, someone at Gilligan's second level might support and encourage Affirmative Action policies regardless of what that might mean to their own chances of employment. The "care and universal obligation" orientation is marked by an emphasis on relationships. Unlike a person with the previous perspective, support for Affirmative Action would not be thought of as a sacrifice, but rather as a responsibility to historically oppressed groups.

A PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT APPROACH TO UNDERSTANDING POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

Chickering postulated the following developmental tasks, which he called vectors. They are called vectors because "each seems to have a direction and a magnitude - even though the direction may be expressed more appropriately by a spiral or by steps than by a straight line" (1969, p. 8). Development through the vectors was seen as a process of differentiation and integration. This concept is in large part what makes the theory a psychosocial one. Chickering wrote that development in the vectors was a process of encountering more complexity that eventually will not fit into one's current frame of reference. This required the person to grow and develop a new frame in order to integrate new information, feedback, and feelings. The role of the environment in providing

stimuli for differentiation was critical. Following is a brief description of Chickering's seven vectors.

Achieving Competence involves "a three tine pitchfork" (p. 8). The three areas of focus are on achieving intellectual competence, physical and manual skills, and social and interpersonal competence. A traditional age student, new to the collegiate environment, must resolve the competence task early in order to be successful.

Managing Emotions involves first learning about feelings and then learning to trust them. As a person experiences this developmental area, she or he will learn to use feelings as a viable component of behavior and decision making. This area is in agreement with Erikson's (1968) writing about the hormonal changes and subsequent feelings that accompany adolescence.

Becoming Autonomous requires some work in the previous two areas as it necessitates both instrumental and emotional independence. The autonomous person also recognizes their interdependencies and is able to work without constant reassurance from others.

Establishing Identity is the hub around which the other vectors revolve. There must be some resolution of the first three developmental tasks in order to establish identity. Chickering wrote that an establishment of identity involved a sense of inner consistency and a strong sense of self. Some sense of identity must be established in order for the final three vectors to receive appropriate attention.

Freeing Interpersonal Relationships involves both developing a tolerance for a wide range of people as well as understanding how trust and interdependence can make one warmer, friendlier, and more respectful. These types of relationships are called freeing because they supposedly bring less anxiety and inappropriate needs to the relationship.

Clarifying Purpose involves making plans and commitments about occupation, avocations, and interests.

Developing Integrity primarily involves the humanizing of values, personalizing of values and then making one's values and behaviors congruent. Integrity carries a sense of internal consistency about what one believes.

It is more likely that a person who has developed a sense of his or her own identity, a sense of tolerance and interdependence in relationships with others, and a sense of purpose will be committed to the values often associated with political correctness. In addition, the development of integrity, along with the congruence between values and behaviors, will allow the person to clearly demonstrate those associated values. Unfortunately, the development of a sense of identity is contingent upon the successful resolution of earlier

vectors such as competence, autonomy, and managing emotions. We must realize that this development through the first three vectors will take time.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Political correctness is currently thought of as a social and political phenomenon. This often leaves people confused about a person's real values as opposed to the regurgitation of accepted dogma. This article has introduced a new paradigm which suggests that political correctness can be considered from a developmental perspective. This article uses three families of developmental theories to demonstrate the developmental nature of political correctness versus committed values. What does this mean for the Student Affairs practitioner?

Perhaps the most important implication is that the Student Affairs practitioner is looked to as an important authority figure by students. They will accept our dogma if we allow them to do so. It is crucial that the Student Affairs professional understand this phenomenon. In order for students to eventually develop their own sense of values, they must be encouraged to debate and explore alternatives. This will not happen in an environment where the focus is providing students with the "right answers." Administrators and programmers have a special obligation to create environments that support the free exchange of different points of view.

A second important question is about being a value free organization. The authors do not suggest that the environment described above does not allow room for institutional values. Instead, those values may well be the source of dissonance and differentiation for students which leads to growth and development. It is crucial, however, that students be encouraged to develop their own set of commitments.

Finally, the Student Affairs profession is built around the notion of the development of the whole student. Student Affairs administrators inherently value process over content in efforts to support and challenge students. The value of those efforts are best evaluated in terms of developmental change, not how many students accept a preconceived way of seeing the world.

In closing, this article does not intend to suggest that Student Affairs professionals should not be value based in their practice. However, creating Politically Correct students who are not necessarily committed to those values associated with political correctness is a small accomplishment when compared to developing students who are committed to those values which we hold dear.

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A Study of the Effects of a Mentoring Program on Minority Students' Perceptions and Retention

Rosanna Duester

This research study investigates the correlation of minority students' participation in a student-faculty/staff mentoring program with (a) the students' perceptions of their satisfaction with their collegiate experiences, (b) their perceptions of their personal growth and development, and (c) their retention as measured by perceptions of their mentors' influences on decisions to continue their college education and their academic performances, and by their cumulative GPAs. Specifically, the study surveyed all minority students who were participating in Colorado State University's Center for Educational Access and Outreach Mentoring Program during Fall Semester 1992. Out of the 68 minority students participating in the program, 59 students returned the survey in usable form.

The study findings indicated that overall the students participating in the mentoring program were "generally satisfied" with their collegiate experiences. Yet the correlational analysis between "quantity of mentoring" and "overall satisfaction with collegiate experience" was found to be not significant. The finding in relationship to "quantity of mentoring" and the students' overall "perceived personal growth and development" also was found to be nonsignificant. The variable examining the "quantity of student-mentor experience" with "the influence of the students' decision to continue the college education" was found to be significant. Therefore, the quantity of mentoring was found to be positively related to influencing the students' decisions to remain in school and their academic performances. However, the third aspect of this question on retention, "quantity of mentoring" and the students' "cumulative GPAs," was found not to be significant.

INTRODUCTION

Dramatic demographic changes are occurring in the United States today. One such

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change is the significant increase in the minority population as compared to whites. Presently there are approximately 29.9 million African-Americans, 22.3 million Hispanics, 7.3 million Asian-Americans, and 1.9 million Native Americans in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 1992). By the year 2000, one-third of the nation's population will be nonwhites, and by the year 2056, there will be an estimated 115 million people of ethnic origin (Henry, 1990). This growth of minority population suggests major changes in our nation's educational future.

To understand better how minority population growth will affect our education system, it is important to examine the present status of our public educational system. Presently, 18 states have minority public school enrollment above 25 percent, and seven states are above 35 percent. By the year 2000, 42 percent of all public school students in the United States will be from minority populace (American Council on Education and Education Commission of the States, 1988). Research has indicated that our education system is failing to educate its minority population (Christoffel, 1986; Finn, 1989; Jaschik, 1988). The literature documents a substantial loss of minority student enrollment occurring at each educational level (Roueche, Baker & Roueche, 1987). There is a higher percentage of African-American, Hispanics, and Native American youth who discontinue their formal education earlier than do their white counterparts (Carter & Wilson, 1991). An even lower proportion of them continue their formal education beyond the secondary school level.

Throughout the literature, there is a constant theme of disparity in regard to minority student education or lack of it within the United States. Ethnic minority students are not being retained in the educational system at an equitable rate as compared to the non-minority students (Astin, 1982). The American Council of Education and Education Commission of the States (1988) urges colleges and universities to improve the prosperity for minority students and address the core problem of finding ways to motivate and provide more incentives for minority students to participate in post secondary education. The challenge is to find new and better ways to motivate and inspire young minority students to continue their education at the post secondary and graduate level. One such way to motivate and inspire minority students to continue their education is through mentorship. Since the challenge is to inspire young minority students to continue their education and mentorship is known as a means of helping young inexperienced individuals advance into the adult world, mentorship is one vehicle which should be examined to determine whether such an alliance between

faculty and minority students can play a role in influencing the latter to stay in college.

Student-Faculty Relationship

The philosophy is that a close, informal student-faculty interaction outside the classroom has been both theoretically and empirically justified when linked with minority student retention. Sedlacek (1983) reports that the overall single, most important thing for graduating seniors was not what they learned, but the special relationships they developed with particular faculty members. Pascarella and Terenzini (1980) report that students' informal interactions with faculty members are positively related not only to their academic performances but also to other personal and educational benefits. The authors further conclude that the students' perceptions of the informal student-faculty interaction principally impact their educational aspirations and career decisions. The authors found that in addition to achieving greater academic and personal development, students also reported a greater satisfaction with their college experiences.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1980) found evidence that the informal student-faculty interaction or "mentor relationship" is beneficial as early as the freshman year. The "critical timing" factor is supported by another researcher who not only believes it is important to the outcome of the relationship between students and faculty but also identified "timing" as a factor related to student attrition or retention (Noel, Levitz, Saluri, et al., 1986). The study also discovered that the greatest percentage of attrition occurs between the freshman and sophomore year. The "critical time" period was identified as being the first few weeks in the freshman semester for establishing one-on-one contact between the students and their faculty advisors. Regardless of when the student-faculty mentor relationship begins, there are consistent findings (Astin, 1977; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1980) that demonstrate a significant relationship between faculty-student mentorship, informal interaction, and a positive measure of a student's intellectual and personal development. Noel et al. (1986) believe this type of relationship contributes to the students' academic success as well as enhances their learning and development, and can be affected by the quality of the relationship between student and faculty. In addition, Sedlacek (1983) and Nettles and Johnson (1987) believe that a student-faculty mentor relationship is an important factor in minority student retention.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this investigation was to study the correlation between students' extent of participation in mentoring relationships and their perceptions

of their collegiate experiences, personal growth and development, and decisions to continue their college education. This investigation sought to examine the following three major research questions:

1. To determine the correlation between participation in a student-faculty mentor experience and the minority students' perceived satisfactions with their collegiate experiences. 2. To determine the correlation between participation in a student-faculty mentor experience and the students' perceived progress in their personal growth and development. 3. To determine the correlation between participation in a student-faculty mentor experience and minority student retention as measured by (a) students' perceptions of the influence of their mentors on their decisions to continue their college education, (b) perceptions of influence of mentors on their academic performances, and (c) their cumulative GPAs.

METHOD

Subjects

The theoretical population chosen in this study consisted of all undergraduate minority students (Hispanics, African-Americans, Asian-Americans/ Pacific Islanders, and Native Americans) at Colorado State University. The accessible population was those minority students who had been involved with the Center for Educational Access and Outreach Mentoring Program during Fall Semester 1992. This entire population was invited to complete the survey and, thus, constitutes the sample population. No international students were used in this study. The Center for Educational Access and Outreach is a division of the University Student Affairs Program. The various services offered through the program are designed to help minority students adjust to Colorado State University. One of the programs offered through the Center for Educational Access and Outreach is the University Mentoring Program called "Partnership for Success." This mentoring program pairs minority students with faculty and/or staff mentors.

PROCEDURE

A questionnaire (coded for identification of the respondents) and letter of transmittal explaining the purpose and potential value of the study were mailed to each student participating in the Minority Mentoring Program. The questionnaires were mailed at the beginning of the 1993 Spring semester. A reminder letter was sent two weeks later to everyone who had been sent a questionnaire, either thanking them for their responses or reminding them to return their questionnaires. To those students who did not respond within the following two weeks, a phone follow-up was conducted using the same questionnaire as originally sent.

DESIGN

An ex post facto design was used to obtain data for answering the posed research questions. This study was a correlational study to examine the relationship between minority student participation in a student-faculty mentor experience and (a) their perceived satisfactions with their college experiences, (b) perceived progress in their personal growth and development, and (c) college retention. Since no one particular instrument was found that could collect the data for this study, an instrument was developed using a combination of other instruments. Face and content validity was established using a panel of six experts in the field of human development, minority student issues, instrument construction, and statistics. The Cronbach alpha analysis was used to determine internal consistency reliability of the instrument scales. The internal consistency reliability of the College Satisfaction section had a high alpha of .90, and the Personal Growth and Development section had a high alpha of .94.

RESULTS

Findings Related to the Research Question One

Pearson product-moment correlations were done to determine the relationship between quantity of mentoring and each individual satisfaction with a collegiate experience question. The data analysis shows a .30 correlation between quantity of mentoring and satisfaction with diversity of minority faculty/staff members at a .05 significance level (two-tailed test) (S6). This implies that students who spent more time with their mentors felt more satisfied with the ethnic diversity of CSU faculty and staff. No other questions were found to be significantly correlated with the quantity of mentoring. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for the overall student satisfaction with their collegiate experiences. The correlation between the independent variable (Quantity of Mentoring) and the dependent variable (Overall Collegiate Satisfaction) is .11 ($p<.05$). This correlation was found to be not significant ($p<.05$). Therefore, the results of these findings indicate that the extent of the student-mentor relationship is not significantly related to how satisfied students are with their overall collegiate experiences.

Findings Related to Research Question Two

The Pearson product-moment data analysis was computed for each of the individual questions in this section. The findings demonstrated that there was no significant correlation between the quantity of mentoring and each individual question about the students' perceived personal growth and development at either the .05 or .01 significance level. Therefore, it would seem to generalize that the students'

perceived personal growth and development was not related to and does not seem to be affected by the amount of time spent with their mentors. The Pearson product-moment data analysis was used to correlate the independent variable (Quantity of Mentoring) with the dependent variable (Overall Personal Growth and Development). The results of these findings at .10 ($p>.05$) indicate that there was no significant relationship between the two variables.

Findings Related to Research Question Three

The quantity of mentoring had a positive significant correlation with influencing the students' decisions to continue their college education, and the students' academic performances at .51 and .56, respectively (.01 significance level). Thus, the more students met with their mentors, the more they said that their mentors had positive impacts on their decisions to continue with their college education and the more influence they felt their mentors had on their academic performances. The frequency of student-mentor interactions and cumulative GPAs has correlation of .17, which implies there was not a significant relationship between these two variables.

DISCUSSION

Mentoring Experience with Students' Satisfaction with their Collegiate Experience

The findings correlating the independent variable of quantity of mentoring and each of the 24 satisfactory questions showed only one factor to be significantly correlated. The only question that was significant was the dependent variable related to diversity of the faculty. What this seems to imply is that the students who spend more time with their mentors were more satisfied with the diversity of CSU's minority faculty-staff members perhaps because meeting frequently with their mentors exposed them to more minority faculty and staff. None of the other 23 dependent variables was found to be significant. Therefore, overall, it would seem reasonable to conclude that the amount of time students spent with their mentors really had no impact on their perceptions of their college satisfactions.

Mentoring Experience with Students' Personal Growth and Development

The research findings on the correlational analysis between the two variables, "quantity of mentoring" and the questions of "personal growth and development," showed no significant correlation with any of the 17 items. Therefore, it would seem reasonable to conclude that the amount of time students spent with their mentors had no influence on the students' perceived personal growth and development.

Mentoring Experience and Student Retention as it Relates to Three Dependent Variables

The first relationship examined in this section is between the quantity of the student mentor experience and students' perceived influence of the mentors on their decisions to continue their college education. This data analysis demonstrated a significant positive correlation between the two variables at $r = .51$ ($p<.01$). Thus, it seems that the more the students met with their mentors, the more they felt they were positively influenced to continue their college education. It only seems to make sense that the mentors would want their students to continue their education and provide positive attitudes in regard to furthering their education. Another strong area of possible influence in a positive direction to continue their education is the fact that they see their mentors as positive role models who are educated, successful, and yet genuinely caring about them as individuals. This point relates back to Sedlacek's (1983) findings that minority students are better retained if they can develop a sense of belonging and the sense of feeling cared about as individuals by a significant person at the university. This helps the students stay in school. This particular point seems to be supported by this research since 72 percent of the surveyed students reported that the quality they valued most about their mentors, which added to their relationships, was the attribute of "caring."

The second relationship examined in this section is the one between the quantity of student-mentor relationship and its perceived influence on the students' academic performances. There was a correlation of .56 ($p<.01$) between these two variables. Therefore, it would seem that students who met with their mentors more frequently are positively influenced not only to continue their college education, but also to perform better academically. It would only stand to reason that the more time students spend with their mentors, the more assistance they will get in whatever areas they need support, whether it be academic or boosting their sense of self-esteem and self-worth by receiving positive feedback and emotional support. According to Sedlacek (1983), it is important for the students to have emotional support through student-faculty relationships in minority retention. If the mentors instill the idea in the students that they are capable individuals who can handle the academic work stresses placed upon them, the researcher believes they will develop higher levels of self-esteem and then become better able to handle the situations. This point again was supported by Sedlacek's (1983) findings, whereby he believes that an increase in minority students' self-esteems is a key to students performing better; therefore, it is

indirectly related to retention. The third area of study was to examine the independent variable of quantity of student mentor relationship and the dependent variable of student retention as determined by students' cumulative GPAs. This correlation showed no significance, thereby concluding that the more time students spend with their mentors had no bearing on the students' cumulative GPAs in either a positive or negative manner. It would be expected that the students who spend more time with their mentors and felt that the mentors have positive influences on their academic performances also would have a significant correlation with GPAs. However, the majority of the students were freshmen, and most only had mentors for one or two semesters. Thus it would seem unlikely that within that short period of time the mentors could have made significant influences on the students' actual cumulative GPAs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following suggestions are made for further research in this area of student-faculty mentor experience in the academic setting.

First, further studies should be done at this institution encompassing other mentoring programs involving other departments that involve ethnic minority students in mentoring programs. An expansion of this study on a large scale which would generate a larger sample size may lead the findings to be more accurate and possibly demonstrate areas of significance that this study missed due to a relatively small sample size.

Secondly, future studies of this type should assess student-faculty mentor relationships in various universities around the country which may have a more heterogeneous representation of minority students. Colorado State University has a small representation of minority students, whereby they may not truly represent the national minority student populace. With several universities across the country participating in an affiliated study, the findings then could be cross-compared to determine whether various factors were significant. Thirdly, a control group following mentored and unmentored minority students would provide valuable information which may uncover specific outcome effects of college satisfaction, personal growth and development, and retention.

Lastly, a longitudinal study following students from their freshman to senior years may be useful in investigating other variables not examined in this study such as student and faculty personality characteristics, family history, or other predisposed factors or needs that may enhance a student's willingness to engage in the mentoring relationship. A longitudinal study would allow the researcher to track student retention and dropout rates and

possibly identify specific factors that lead students to drop out. Preventive measures could then be taken that may be associated with the mentoring program.

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The Minority Identity Development Model and Hispanic Students on Campus

Jeremy M. Eaves

The Minority Identity Development Model (MIDA) is one of the few models applicable to student development theory which addresses the development of students of color. Although the model faces several criticisms, it is one of the most effective and frequently cited models to explain minority identity development. This journal article explores the development model and integrates factors specific to Hispanic experiences in the United States which contribute to the struggles of depreciation. This depreciation includes attitudes that focus on the external/internal locus of control, as well as attitudes toward self, others of the same minority group, other minority groups and the dominant culture. The Hispanic population is identified because of the implications this minority group has on higher education in the near future with the population increasing almost exponentially each year. These factors are used to build a foundation for universities to integrate multicultural support efforts that can accommodate the emerging Hispanic population on campus. Suggestions also are offered to give institutions of higher education an opportunity to become recognized as systems supporting Hispanic student success, retention and graduation rates.

Significant racial tension, emphasis on hierarchy over cultural contrast, antagonistic views of the underclass, and violence toward ethnic groups have long plagued the American system (Pedersen, 1988). Institutions of higher education across the country have fallen victim to these views influenced by a Western cultural bias and indirectly send negative messages to students of color pursuing post-secondary educations.

Rapid growth in the minority population suggests that American colleges and universities should consider revising the

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institutional focus to accommodate this emerging population. Estimates suggest that in the next 20 years, one-third of the entire United States population will be classified as minorities (Jones, 1990). This population growth already has impacted colleges and universities. In the last ten years, minority student enrollment increased almost 15 percent while white student enrollment increased only 5 percent (Shang & Moore, 1990).

Although Hispanics rank among the lowest in terms of high school completion, college entrance, and graduate and professional education degrees (Kitano, 1991), new patterns for college-bound Hispanics are emerging. The Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities noted that during a two year period, Hispanic enrollment in institutions of higher education increased 11.5 percent, while Anglo enrollment increased only 3.8 percent. Approximately 120 colleges and universities currently have an Hispanic enrollment of at least 25 percent and Hispanic enrollment at community colleges and large urban universities is steadily increasing (Puente & Diaz, 1992).

Interest in Hispanic groups accelerated in the 1960s because of ethnic awareness and self-enhancement interests within the culture (Newton, Olmedo, and Padilla, 1982). However, as of today, very little cultural or historical literature exists on the Hispanic group as a whole (Jones, 1990). It is important for colleges and universities to start collecting information on this culture because statistics show that the Hispanic population will double its size in the next few decades (Barry, 1991) making the Hispanic population the fastest growing population in the United States (Jones, 1990).

Most institutions currently operate under traditional theories of individual development that do not place emphasis on cultural identity. Very few models concentrate on cultural, racial and ethnic identity, but the Minority Identity Development Model (MIDA) is the most widely cited of existing models (Jones, 1990).

It is difficult to assess the degree of acculturation and assimilation on ethnic and cultural experience since each minority has different cultural experiences (Shang & Moore, 1990). Another important component in understanding the application of MIDA is that different minority groups have different experiences which separate their development from other ethnic groups (Pedersen, 1988). Individuals do not progress through the stages of the model according to age, so it is very possible that students of color may enroll in colleges and universities at different stages of the development process.

The *conformity stage* is the first stage of the Minority Identity Development Model and is characterized by a preference for dominant culture values rather than those of their own culture.

Individuals in this stage have a self-depreciating view of their culture and low self-esteem. They display discriminatory attitudes toward others of different minority status and view anything other than the dominant culture as unimportant and secondary (Pedersen, 1988).

The second stage of the identity model is represented by *dissonance* and the individual displays confusion and conflict toward both the dominant and minority culture. The minority person struggles with many conflicts surrounding self-perception, and attitudes towards others of the same and different cultures are varied. In addition, the individual finds conflict with the dominant culture in attitudes, beliefs and values (Pedersen, 1988).

Resistance and immersion into one's own minority culture characterizes the third stage of MIDA. During this stage, the minority person submerges into his or her own culture and develops a negative attitude toward the dominant group. The individual actively accepts his or her own cultural traditions and customs in response to the alleviation of the dominant culture from their lifestyle. There is still some conflict evident in the attitude toward others from a different minority group. Feelings of empathy for other minority experiences in combination with feelings of cultural centrism contributes to this attitude of dissonance (Pedersen, 1988).

The *introspection* stage of minority identity development finds the individual questioning values in both the minority and majority culture. Concerns over unequivocal group and self-appreciation are evident and questions arise about judging other minority groups. Minority individuals within this stage of development also begin to question the appropriateness of devaluing another culture (Pedersen, 1988) and realize it is a hypocritical response to the dominant society.

The final stage of the Minority Identity Development Model involves *synergetic articulation and awareness.* It is in this stage that the individual develops to their fullest potential and adopts a cultural identity that selectively displays elements from the minority and dominant cultures. This stage of development is characterized by the individuals appreciation for others of the same minority group, different minority groups and the dominant society. In addition, the minority person has a positive self-image (Pedersen, 1988).

THE HISPANIC EXPERIENCE

Many factors contribute to the self-depreciating views in the Hispanic population under the Minority Identity Development Model. One factor directly attributed to a self-depreciating view is the reality of racism and poverty experienced in the United States (Jones, 1990). Hispanics

have been victims of "cultural poverty" to a much higher extent than the general population. Low incomes, unemployment, poor educations, inadequate housing and language barriers are characteristic of many Hispanics in today's American society (Chunn, Dunston, & Ross-Sheriff, 1983). The Hispanic poverty level is so bad in fact, that Hispanics receive the worst health care, housing and education in the United States (Kitano, 1991). Drug abuse is rising to epidemic proportions in the Hispanic community and can be directly assessed to the economic, social and health conditions of the population (Saba, Karrer, & Hardy, 1989).

Racism and discrimination are all too familiar for many Hispanics in today's society. On college campuses alone, 25 percent of minority students experience some form of racially motivated attack during an academic year (Shang & Moore, 1990), and Hispanic students endure these conditions in a stressful and exclusive educational climate (Puente & Diaz, 1992). Other factors which indirectly contribute to the racism and discrimination experienced by the Hispanic culture includes segregation, isolation and exclusive curricula (Kitano, 1991).

Biculturalism and the impact of the external environment on Hispanics plays a large part in the level of acculturation and assimilation for the minority group (Jones, 1990). The Spanish language is the dominant language of the Hispanic culture and serves as a unifying function for all Hispanics to preserve culture and communicate values (Chunn et al., 1983). Many Hispanics speak both Spanish and English in order to alleviate language barriers, but educators have blamed bilingualism for education problems and say the Spanish language should be abolished both in and out of the classroom (Kitano, 1991). As a direct result, many Hispanics feel the pressure to abandon characteristics of their own cultural origin. Unfortunately, studies show that individuals who migrate to bicultural communities have a tendency to become maladjusted when they become monocultural (Chunn et al., 1983).

These indirect messages inbred into the American system leave many Hispanics in a difficult situation. The Protestant influence brought about by settlers in early America has developed many achievement-oriented ethical beliefs. These ethical achievement values force many Hispanics to go against their cultural values and create conflict as well as a loss of self-esteem. Additionally, the American belief in independence differs from the Hispanic culture that practices a family-centered concept. This paradigm shift leaves the American society with a view of the Hispanic population as overly dependent (Chunn et al., 1983). As a result, the United States has unintentionally created a system that perpetuates racism

and oppression throughout society.

AN INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

To better understand racial identity, institutions of higher education need to develop new models and integrate existing models (Hardiman & Jackson, 1992). Predominantly white colleges and universities do not integrate many theories, programs, curricula or viewpoints representative of the diverse cultures on campus (Pedersen, 1988). As a result, colleges and universities exhibit a lack of appreciation for cultural heritages and fail to represent any values other than those indicative of a dominant society (Shang & Moore, 1990). Students of color are forced to participate in an educational system that neglects their heritage and forces them to conform to campus norms (Jones, 1990).

This is not to say that institutions of higher education make no efforts to accommodate the minority population enrollment. University administration and faculty have concentrated on increasing interactions among diverse groups of students (Hardiman & Jackson, 1992) and integrating multicultural counseling, skill improvement, new environment orientation and economic status compensation on university campuses (Shang & Moore, 1990). Unfortunately, these efforts generally take the form of mere recommendations, endorsements and guidelines (Jones, 1990). In addition, a majority of students who participate in these programs often are labeled high risk, regardless of the student's self-perception (Shang & Moore, 1990).

Campus populations will continue to diversify. Therefore, it is important for institutions of higher education to design and implement programs for students of color. Emphasis needs to be placed on the recognition of various social oppressions, such as racism and ethnocentrism, and efforts must focus on creating supportive collegiate environments (Hardiman & Jackson, 1992). Institutions of higher education must develop a model that accommodates the Hispanic student, as this population is increasing at an extremely rapid rate. As mentioned earlier, a system needs to be designed to accommodate Hispanics at all identity development levels to ensure a supportive environment. By targeting this population in advance and working with the Hispanic student, the university inevitably will make a positive environment that creates a good experience for the students and the university as a whole.

Hispanic students should be given an opportunity to submit entrance exam test scores that reflect attitudes and cultural experiences more predictive of college success for students of color. Many researchers suggest that the Noncognitive Question-

naire (NCQ) is a better predictor of student success than the College Board's Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) (Shang & Moore, 1990).

Financial aid offices are critical to the success of a Hispanic-serving institution. Many Hispanic-serving colleges would shut down from lack of attendance if financial aid decreased or was simply not available (Barry, 1991). Institutions should take the responsibility to locate, establish and contribute to minority student development projects that ensure proper funding to the Hispanic student.

Services need to be enhanced to aid students who did not have proper preparation in high school due to poor incomes and educational quality. It is important to approach the Hispanic student as a successful student with potential so as not to send an indirect message of a possible high risk probability.

Since the Hispanic culture usually reflects a strong familial relationship, there is an increasing number of Hispanic commuter students who live at home. Institutions of higher education have a responsibility to target this commuting population and make them feel supported by the university. Commuting often makes the college connection very fragile for the Hispanic student (Barry, 1991) and should be strengthened to ensure a positive experience with the university environment for the student.

Finally, since the role of family does play an important role in the lives of Hispanic students (Chunn et al., 1983), it is necessary to ensure a clear line of communication. Communication should consistently be exchanged between the Hispanic family unit and the university through newsletters and other means to encourage, support, personify and integrate relationships between the Hispanic family and the university.

Multiculturalism should play a key role in the university's mission for all students of color on campus. The campus environment should reflect a greater awareness of contributions made by Black, Hispanic, Asian, American Indian and international cultures. In addition, these contributions must reflect and respect the conditions under which people of color live and are educated in today's society (Shang & Moore, 1990). This type of training and education should be implemented into faculty, staff and administrative roles at the university.

Student affairs professionals have a responsibility to support ethnic groups on campuses so each group can explore its own cultural heritage. Essentially, student affairs professionals, faculty and university staff need to evaluate their own tendencies to perpetuate racism within institutions of higher education. Learning needs to take place by both the student and the administrator to develop multicultural

sensitivity and awareness (Jones, 1990).

By continuing to concentrate on the Hispanic student development and implementing possible accommodations for this emerging population, all students on campus will benefit from the knowledge of racial and cultural similarities and differences. Every student also will have an opportunity to develop and share an appreciation for all cultures (Jones, 1990). Theories about the campus environment confirm the importance of positive interaction between the student and the environment. By recognizing diversity and celebrating individual differences in society, an environment is created in which the student can achieve the optimum level of development.

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Homosexual Identity Development: Challenges for Student Affairs Professionals

Mary J. Frank

Given the statistics from the Kinsey report, minimally 10 percent of the student population in our institutions are lesbian, gay, or bisexual. The student development model offered by Vivian Cass gives Student Affairs professionals another theory to help themselves and students understand one of the issues that students will face during their college years. The development theory has six components that deal with a variety of developmental issues for students questioning their sexual orientation. The challenge to Student Affairs professionals is to integrate these issues into the other theories of student development.

According to Miller and Winston (1990), traditional psychosocial student development theory "is concerned with those personal, psychologically oriented aspects of self and the relationships that exist between the self and society" (Creamer,1990, p. 101). Because of the previous statement and according to an article by Evans and Levine (Moore, 1990) a concern must be addressed. This is the fact that most social, psychological, cognitive, or psychosocial theories usually are based exclusively on the experiences of white heterosexual men. This can become a problem then for any group outside of this population. There are a number of other studies that have been done applying current theories to other populations (Moore, 1990; Rodgers, 1990). The population that seems to be most underrepresented by these studies is the lesbian, gay, and bisexual population. This paper will attempt to explain the psychosocial theory model by Vivian Cass entitled "Homosexual Identity Formation." This paper will focus on the model offered by Cass and also will address issues within the model. These issues surround the gender

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differences that affect gay men and lesbians, and the questions surrounding bisexuals. Finally, it will address how this theory can be used by student affairs professionals in meeting the needs of the homosexual population on their campuses.

The Cass model is based on Dr. Cass's clinical observations and on her research involving gay and lesbian subjects in Western Australia. Although the theory is based on the Australian populations, many psychotherapists and social scientists in the United States find her observations and conclusions to be accurate in describing American lesbians and gay men.

The Cass model consists of six stages of development. Cass theorizes that many of the other theories apply to white men, but at the same time if they are gay they will be going through a parallel development with their sexuality. It is this parallel journey that adds a challenge to Student Affairs professionals as they try to reach this particular segment of the population.

Most psychosocial models suggest the following (Creamer, 1990, p. 102):

1. Psychosocial development is continuous in nature.
2. Psychosocial development is cumulative in nature.
3. Psychosocial development progresses along a continuum from simpler to more complex behavior.
4. Psychosocial development tends to be orderly and stage related.
5. Psychosocial development is reflected in developmental tasks.

These characteristics are found in some form in Cass's model. What does become evident is that although the above psychosocial models suggest linear movement, identity development models would suggest that it is not linear but more circular or spiral.

HISTORY

As mentioned earlier, there are many heterosexist assumptions in all the traditional student development theories. The first departure from the traditional white male study populations was Carol Gilligan's work on women. Until this work was done most of the theories were applied to women and the other subcultures of students without those groups being represented in the research populations. As indicated in Moore (1990), a few researchers have tried to apply traditional psychosocial theory to lesbian and gay populations. In their literature review, Evans and Wall (1990) found very few definitive studies, thus indicating the need for more research. In order to understand the need for a specific theory for lesbian, gay, and bisexual students, the Student Affairs professional must understand why the current theories do not always apply.

A student is typically confronted with many issues. Chickering suggests traditional

age students struggle with developing self-esteem and a distinct identity during the college years (Widick, Parker and Knefelkamp, 1978). When a student believes s/he may be lesbian, gay, or bisexual, "Knowing what many people in our society think of homsexuality, a gay, lesbian or bisexual student would have an extremely difficult time answering the question, 'Who am I?'"(Wall & Evans, 1990). Socially, the lesbian, gay or bisexual student may not have a social group, and so s/he is forced to either "pass" as a heterosexual or not participate in activities that encourage the community building so important in the first months of the undergraduate experience. Another issue is that of religion. Many students during their undergraduate experience are away from home for the first time and may be making decisions concerning religion and spirituality. Many of the arguments surrounding religion and being lesbian, gay or bisexual can be very confusing for a young person. Many ask the question "Can I be lesbian, gay or bisexual and still have religious beliefs and be accepted by my religious community?" (Wall & Evans, 1990, p. 30). Finally, the community in which the institution is located can impact the development of the lesbian, gay or bisexual student. The student many times must function outside the walls of the institution. If that community is conservative and/or heterosexist, the lesbian, gay or bisexual student will have an added challenge in their development.

In looking at the lesbian, gay, and bisexual population, it is important not to group them altogether. As with any population, White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, or lesbian, gay or bisexual, the people within the group may be very diverse. Gender, age, cultural background, and experience are four factors when combined can create very distinct identities and experiences. Also, as with any group, differences between female and male members are prevalent. Being an invisible minority is a very powerful experience for a young lesbian, gay or bisexual person. The lack of community and peer support can make having a positive undergraduate experience difficult.

CASS'S MODEL OF HOMOSEXUALITY IDENTITY FORMATION

Cass's model consists of six stages. These stages are based on a person's perceptions of his/her behaviors and the actions that arise as a consequence of these perceptions. The model assumes that the person has an active role in the acceptance of a homosexual identity. Cass's study also assumes that the person accepts homosexuality as a positive status (Cass, 1979).

The first stage is *Identity Confusion*. It is in this stage that a person becomes aware of behav-

iors, thoughts, or feelings that could be defined as homosexual in nature. For many, this is a time of great confusion and challenge to what is considered the norm. Most people in this stage have, up to this point, identified themselves as heterosexual or non-homosexual. Cass suggests that a person at this stage approaches this issue in three ways: First, that this behavior is perfectly acceptable and correct. At this point the person may seek to find more information about homosexuality. Second, that the behavior is correct but undesirable. Many times denial and an attempt to ignore all feelings and thoughts is the action taken. The third possibility is that the behavior is both incorrect and undesirable. If this is the case, the person will, according to Cass, try to redefine homosexual activity. For example, women may say that it is perfectly natural for two heterosexual women to kiss, touch, and feel a strong emotional attachment to each other. Men may suggest that it is just normal adolescent sexual experimentation. In this first stage it is very seldom that the person discloses how and what they are feeling to anyone (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1990; Evans & Levine, 1990).

The second stage is *Identity Comparison*. This stage finds the person struggling with the lack of social community. The feeling of not belonging becomes very strong during this stage. A student at this stage, living in a residence hall, may feel like the "only one" thus intensifying the feelings of isolation. Many times a student will start to recognize the fact they have have felt different much of their life. As the student starts to accept being different from everyone else, they will continue to act as a heterosexual in their public life (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1990; Evans & Levine, 1990).

In the *Identity Tolerance* stage of this model, the student begins to tolerate the idea that indeed s/he is a homosexual and not heterosexual. The student may start to ask questions of people to find others that are similar to him/her. They may seek out local hangouts such as bars, restaurants, bookstores, and meetings of local organizations. Seeking and finding others like themselves will start the process of positive self-identity and empowerment (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1990; Evans & Levine, 1990).

The fourth stage is *Identity Acceptance*. The positive contacts with the lesbian, gay and bisexual community will serve to validate and help the student feel " a part of" instead of "a part from" again. It is in this stage that the conflict between private and public life tends to surface. The conflict often times centers around questions like, "who is safe to 'come out' to?, who can I still associate with from my 'straight life?'." Many times a person may stay in this stage for a significant amount of time. If

they are able to find a place in both communities (gay and straight) with little or no conflict, this can be a safe place to stay. However, if a person starts to feel somewhat schizophrenic, that may push them into the fifth stage (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1990; Evans & Levine, 1990).

Identity Pride is the fifth stage and is characterized by high levels of conflict between a student's private and public life perceptions. A desire to just "be" becomes a very high priority in this stage. Many times the conflict is resolved by the individual choosing in which community they wish to reside. If the person truly is committed to their gay identity most likely they will gravitate towards the gay community and ties may be broken with the heterosexual community. Negative responses from the straight community will serve only to reinforce the broken ties. If however, the responses from straight friends and organizations is positive, the individual will most likely move to stage six (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1990; Evans & Levine, 1990).

Stage six is entitled *Identity Synthesis* and is the last stage of this model. In this stage the public and personal lives now can be merged. The recognition that sexuality is just a part of one's life is now identified. Additionally, if the individual has found a supportive community with members of both the straight and gay community, the conflict within and outside diminishes. Although that conflict does diminish, it will never completely disappear given the homophobic nature of society in general (Cass, 1979; Wall & Evans, 1991; Evans & Levine, 1990). Thus, the necessity for acknowledging a non-linear indentity development model is demonstrated.

In these six stages Cass does not take into consideration the differences between gay men and lesbian women. As in basically all development theory, the theory is assumed to be applicable for both genders. Previous researchers (DeMonteflores and Schultz, 1978; Henderson, 1984; Marmor, 1980) have found that women tend to develop a lesbian identity later than men develop a gay identity. Evans and Levine (1990) stated the following: "many women identify lesbian identities before becoming sexually involved, emotional attachment is more important than sexual activity for women, the idea of homosexuality is less threatening for women than men, and sexuality tends to be more contextual, relational, and fluid for women than for men" (Moore, 1990, p. 52). Even with the comprehensive model that Cass has proposed there is still very little differentiation between the needs of men and women within the model. Additionally, there has been very little research done on the bisexual community. Most people who self indentify experience discrimination from both the heterosexual and homosexual community, thus

creating an even created challenge in their identity development.

APPLICATIONS FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS ADMINISTRATORS

It is clear to this author, that in most of the traditional models of development for students, the issue of sexual orientation is not addressed. The need for and the development of a comprehensive model for this population is critical for Student Affairs professionals. Whether it is helping students in the residence halls, in the classroom, in the public sphere, or in their own personal lives, Student Affairs professionals need to be able to identify where they personally are on the issue before they help students. Assuming that minimally ten percent of an institution's student population may be gay, lesbian or bisexual, Student Affairs professionals have a responsibility to address not only the needs of that population, but also the needs of the homophobic and/or heterosexual population. The nature of the Student Affairs profession demands this issue be challenged and developed.

It is the challenge and the responsibility of Student Affairs professionals to provide lesbian, gay, bisexual and heterosexual students with accurate information and a supportive environment in which to begin asking questions and finding answers for the variety of issues that surround sexual orientation on campuses today.

One way of meeting the challenge is to encourage top administrators to not only write, but live by, non-discrimination policies that include sexual orientation in the institutional language. Another way would be to apply sexual orientation non-discrimination statements to all student affairs policies, including those in the residence halls, on-campus apartments, programming statements, and hiring practices for graduate assistants, professional staff and faculty. Clear judicial policies regarding crimes of violence against lesbians, gays and bisexuals is another way Student Affairs professional can be pro-active.

Lesbians, gay men and bisexuals traditionally have been "in the closet" for a number of reasons, but primarily because of discrimination. For Student Affairs professionals to provide support and recognition in an educational environment is critical. Lesbian, gay, and bisexual students need positive role models. Students need to see lesbian, gay, and bisexual student leaders, and lesbian, gay, and bisexual staff, and they need to see those people being supported and recognized just like everyone else.

Student Affairs administrators can take a leadership role in the educational community by providing environments that encourage and demand equal opportunities and support for

lesbian, gay and bisexual people within their communities.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Cass's model provides student affairs professionals and paraprofessionals some clear stages with which to integrate other development theories. To really help the lesbian, gay and bisexual student, Student Affairs professionals will need to go the next step and integrate Cass's theory with Chickering, Gilligan, Perry, Astin and others. Until this first step is taken, attempting to help lesbian, gay, and bisexual students, and heterosexual students is only a band-aid. Recognizing and working with the various levels of development of all students, faculty and staff is critical to the continued success and growth of the Student Affairs profession.

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A Feminist Critique of the Ethics of Care and Justice

Kelly E. W. Messick

The argument in moral development circles has, for two decades, focused on the ethic of care versus the ethic of justice. These two camps have been split, in most cases along gender lines: women in the former and men in the latter (Bell, 1993). We have divided ourselves on the assumption that the natures of men and women are very different and this difference necessitates two distinct, and often opposing viewpoints regarding moral development and ethical reasoning. I propose that not only are these two camps artificially constructed by the dominant culture, but that there is a third view of ethical reasoning. It is the ethic of freedom. This paper will discuss the two opposing ethics and will critique both with the ethic of freedom. In addition this paper will offer some implications of its use in the student affairs profession.

The basic principal of Kohlberg's ethic of justice (Smith, 1978) is that moral reasoning, as a stage theory, moves from egocentric judgment to universal judgment. This means that to move from one stage to the next one must become more autonomous and less concerned for one's own needs. In the first stage, or pre-conventional stage, a person is concerned, when making moral decisions, whether this decision will result in punishment. An example of this is the boy who does not take cookies from the cookie jar because he fears he will be caught and sent to his room. The second stage is the conventional stage. At this level one makes moral decisions based on their legality and how their decision will look in society's eyes. In this example, the boy would not take the cookies from the cookie jar because his father will tell him he is wrong and a bad boy. In this case, the legality of the situation rests in the authority of the boy's father. The highest stage of Kohlberg theory is the post-conventional stage. In it decisions are made based on whether they uphold or destroy the social fabric of one's community. In this example, the boy would not take the cookies because it is intrinsically wrong for him to steal. In this stage a society's laws may be broken if they go against one's own moral code of conduct.

The ethic of justice has been attributed historically to more men then women. In fact,

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Kohlberg has stated that women do not have the ability to reason at the post-conventional level because of their inability to separate themselves from relationships with others (Gilligan, 1978). Kohlberg, along with Erickson and others, see men's ability to separate themselves from others, to be rational and objective, signifies the highest stage of development (Gilligan, 1990). Women who display the ethic of justice are most often those few women who have succeeded in becoming part of the dominant culture. In response to the void left by Kohlberg's ethic of justice, Gilligan (1977) constructed the ethic of care.

The ethic of care is centered around relationships. Making moral decisions in this ethic entails looking at how your decisions will affect other people and your relationship with them. The first level is the orientation to individual survival. In this phase one's own welfare is the sole motivation for decision making. Gilligan's (1978) example of this is the woman, who discovering she is pregnant, makes the decision to have an abortion because she "didn't want it" and she, "wasn't ready for it. " (p. 492). This lack of awareness of other relationships in this decision is indicative of this phase of moral reasoning. In the transition from this stage, from selfishness to responsibility, one becomes aware that the actions of the self have an effect on others. There is a realization that relationships are critical to the decision making processes. In the second phase, goodness as self-sacrifice, one takes the opposite position. The other in the relationship is not only recognized, but also given paramount importance. The responsibility to others' needs first is seen as making one a "good" person. The above example of the pregnant woman's decision to abort her baby would have a very different outcome in this phase of moral development. The woman may decide to keep the child for the sake of the person she is involved with. In doing so, she is not considering her needs, but the need to be accepted and good. She may also decide to abort the baby to keep the relationship with the person. In either case, her needs are not a factor in the decision. In the transition from this stage to the next, or from goodness to truth, Gilligan states that one begins to see the relationship between self and other and to begin to question the legitimacy of self-sacrifice. The third stage is the morality of non-violence. At this level one "finds a way to reconcile the initially disparate concepts of selfishness and responsibility through a transformed understanding of self and a corresponding redefinition of morality" (p. 504). This is the time when one blends the care for others with a care for self. Decisions made at this level are weighed using the relationships involved. These decisions are made in the context of both self and other. Looking again at

the abortion example, the needs of the mother and the child are equally important. This decision process is more complex because there are two parties involved, as well as the relationship between the two. At this level the decision to have an abortion would be larger than just what the mother or child needs. It would have to include how the decision would effect both parties and how both parties would benefit or be harmed by the decision. Morality is based solely on the importance of the relationship.

The ethic of freedom is not a stage theory. Rather, it is a set of principles by which one can create a new base of moral decision making. Freedom is defined as the absence of oppression and its means: violence. There are five major principles in the ethic of freedom.

The first principle is that all oppressions are interconnected (Bell, 1993). To only speak of sexism is misleading because not only do you leave out the connections with other oppression, you also fail to communicate how sexism is perceived by those women and men that are not of the dominant culture. This is because sexism is defined by the dominant culture. It is described only with white women in mind. Sexist oppression is seen very differently by Asian-American women because of the interaction of racism and classism. Therefore an Asian-American woman may be damaged very differently than women of other ethnicity's. To see the connection of all oppression is to see how their differences are used to divide those persons not in power. The ethic of freedom requires us to see all oppression as the same and to fight oppression from all perspectives. This cannot be done in the ethics of care or justice. The ethic of justice is the ethic of the dominant culture. This is the culture that creates and reinforces the status quo of oppression. It leaves out all who are not rich, white, able-bodied, heterosexual men. Care ethics are forged out of the prevailing roles that the dominant culture has socialized in women. Socialization into nurturing roles and the exclusion of the female perspective in the larger society have molded women to think in a connected fashion. This is a generalization of the nature of womankind and it is this very generalization, while making a compelling argument for the ethic of care, undermines its effectiveness by reinforcing the status quo of oppression.

The second principle is that all ethics are constructed in an oppressive society (Bell, 1993). Justice ethics are grounded solidly in the system of crime and punishment. Care ethics can only go so far in a system that does not value the contribution of women's perspective. The ethic of freedom calls for close examination of moral principles and to ask not only why they are, but who is benefiting from them? This is not an easy task because all of us have been socialized to perpetuate

oppression.

The third principle is that ethics are not just personal beliefs. It will take more than a personal code of conduct to eradicate oppression (Bell, 1993). It is true, as well, that ethics are effective only if all persons are ethical. This is clearly not the case in our society. The ethic of freedom keeps the attention focused on a "larger cultural framework" (Bell, p. 27). Justice and care ethics focus on how ones personal decisions are made, but there is no mention of how those decisions could effect the larger society. The ethic of care is a very personal and connected way of looking at the world. It is because of this individual perspective that makes this ethic impractical when dealing with problems on a societal level. The ethic of justice also calls for individual morals at the highest level of ethical reasoning. It is true of the feminist axiom that the personal is political. Moral acts must be made public to affect change on a societal level.

The fourth principle is that all acts of change are co-opted by the dominant system (Bell, 1993). This principle ties in directly with the third principle. When we focus on individual acts of resistance they can easily be dismissed as the solution to the larger problem of oppression. An example of this from the ethic of justice is statutory rape laws. By passing legislation forbidding adults to have sex with minors we mistakenly believe we have solved the sexual exploitation of children problem. What we have done in reality is to ignore the issue of male sexual access rights to women and girls. We have only legislated that girls, and to a lesser extent boys, are off-limits until they reach adulthood. Care ethics can also be co-opted. Women, because they have been socialized into the care giving role, have been unable to defend themselves with anything other than the insanity plea when they kill their abusive partner in self-defense. It is inconceivable that a woman could be abused for years and "suddenly" decide to take justice into her own hands. In the case of Loreena Bobbitt, who cut off her husband's penis while he slept, it is incredible that the public is outraged at her act, but finds commonplace the fact that she withstood years of emotional and physical torture. Violence, the tool of oppression, is so normal that any resistance to it is labeled as insanity.

The fifth principle is the importance of the struggle against oppression (Bell, 1993). In this struggle we must keep in mind the first four principles. The ethic of freedom suggests that to change the dominant culture we must be careful not to disconnect the different forms of oppression. And we must realize that all of our moral actions are constructed in oppression. We must realize that any act we do must be aimed at the larger society and that all of our actions will be co-opted and used against us. This is an uphill

battle. The solution to the perception of futility is play. Play is defined as the ability to recognize and to not take seriously the oppression that we see around us. Furthermore, we must take an active stance in playing. "Play begins as soon as a [person] apprehends himself [herself] as free and wishes to use his [her] freedom, a freedom by the way, which could just as well be his anguish" (Bell, 1993, p. 239). It is the realization that one has a choice whether to take part in the system or to oppose it. This is contrary to the status quo, which would have you believe that there is no other way of being then it. Anger at and separation from the dominant culture can be used against us in a way that play cannot. Play directly confronts the seriousness of the dominant culture.

How can the student affairs profession use the principles in the ethic of freedom? We can start by educating ourselves and our students to see the interconnectedness of oppression. This is a painful process because once we see the oppression we can never go back under the cover of ignorance. In knowing the oppression in our community we must act on it. To not act when one has the knowledge is to be an accessory to the oppression.

Secondly, we must educate ourselves and our students to question not only the accuracy information we receive, but also who benefits from the dissemination of this information? Third, I think we need to educate ourselves and our students to see our place in the dominant culture. In which situations are we oppressed and in which situations are we the oppressors? Fourth, we need to look at the policies we make as administrators and determine who benefits and who is harmed by them. Are we oppressing others with our good intentions?

The combination of the ethics of care and justice is a satisfactory one. But, we should not be satisfied with principles formed in an oppressive system. We must continually challenge them and change the society that perpetuates the system that oppresses all of us.

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Reading Materials Perceived to be Basic in the Study of Higher Education

Michael T. Miller
Glenn M. Nelson

A persistent problem within the study of higher education is the lack of consensus on a guiding knowledge base and theoretical framework. To assist scholars and practitioners within this frame of reference, there exists a real need to determine what is expected from higher education preparation programs. This study was subsequently undertaken to examine expectations of reading materials through the revisiting of Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski's work at the University of Pittsburgh in the early 1980's.

Varying somewhat from the forecasts of early scholars, the study of higher education has become an increasingly complex and dynamic field within the general context of education. A consistent problem for higher education as a field of study, however, is the inconsistency of a knowledge base for the field. Indeed, the field of higher education draws upon a wide selection of theoretical frameworks and constructs. One of the foremost difficulties in embracing and developing consensus on a knowledge base for higher education has been the disparity of thought over what is and should be a required basic understanding of the field (Dresel & Mayhew, 1974; Cooper, 1980). Even the development of criteria for identifying outstanding graduate programs in the field has met with some difficulty (Keim, 1983).

In response to the challenge of identifying and building a knowledge base, several scholars have turned to the understanding of books believed to be basic reading within the field of higher education (Bender & Riegel, 1973; Drew & Schuster, 1980; Weidman, Nelson, & Radzyminski, 1984). In each of these research efforts, scores of reading materials were identified, but little consensus was developed. Only two books were common in all three investiga-

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tions: Cardinal Newman's The Idea of a University: Defined and Illustrated and Christopher Jencks and David Riesman's, The Academic Revolution.

A very real need exists to clarify what the higher education community expects from graduate students. Additionally, current changes underway in higher education administration and systems provide a solid rationale to examine if what is being prescribed for our students has changed from Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski's work at the University of Pittsburgh over a decade ago.

METHODS

This current examination was designed as a replicative follow-up to Bender and Reigel's (1973) work, based in part on the interpretation of their work by the Pittsburgh team in 1984. The sample for the investigation included 419 members of the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) and several additional faculty in the field of higher education identified through professional networks. The total sample consisted of 490 faculty and administrators.

The survey instrument was developed to be consistent with the earlier attempts to identify books considered basic to the study of higher education. Bender and Reigel's original classification of faculty areas of primary specialization were included on the survey instrument, including: history of higher education; higher education sociology and change; administration and organization; curriculum and instruction; research, planning, assessment, and evaluation; student personnel work and student counseling; adult and continuing education; comparative higher education; governance; finance; college teaching; community college; college student and student development; and teacher education.

Respondents were asked to identify their primary and secondary areas of specialization on the listing developed by Bender and Reigel. They were asked to identify what they considered to be books or reading materials basic for graduate students concentrating in their areas of primary specialization. Respondents were also asked to identify books or reading materials they considered "basic reading" for all students of higher education. The survey instrument was administered in the spring and summer of 1992.

RESULTS

Of the surveys mailed, 23 were returned for bad or incomplete address information, resulting in a total of 467 possible respondents. A response rate of 23% (n=107) was achieved. While this response was lower than desired for survey research, the majority of respondents were full-time higher education faculty members we wanted to reach. The response rate did represent an 12.9 percent (n=38) increase from the 1984 effort at Pittsburgh.

Respondents identified a total of 695 different reading materials, ranging from periodicals and specific articles to directories and books. The identification of materials included 331 materials for specific content areas and 364 materials for all students of higher education. In reporting results by area of specialization, only those reading materials which were mentioned by at least five respondents were included. Two specialization content areas included reading materials with at least five mentions: administration and organization and college student development.

Of the reading materials previously identified for specialists in administration and organization of higher education, only one selection, Cohen and March's (1974), Leadership and Ambiguity: The American College President, was mentioned more than five times and qualified for this current list. Other reading selections in this category were all contemporary, (publication dates ranged form 1988 to 1991) with Robert Birnbaum's, How Colleges Work, and Lee M. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal's, Reframing Organizations, heading the list (See Table 1). Similarly, all four of the reading materials identified for specialists in college student development were of a contemporary nature, being published between 1990 and 1992 (See Table 2).

In Weidman, Nelson and Radzyminski's 1984 article, no materials received enough support to be listed for specialists in student development. The two areas of specialization, curriculum and instruction and the community college, that did receive enough support in 1984 did not qualify this time, although one community college text, Cohen and Brawer's, The American Community College, did make this basic reading list. In comparing these results with the Bibliography of "Great Books" in Student Affairs listed in the Fall 1992 edition of the NASPA Journal, only two books, Delworth, Hanson and Associates', Student Services and Creamer and Associates', College Student Development: Theory and Practice for the 1990's were on both lists. Neither the Kuh and Schuh book, nor the Pascaralla and Terenzini book included on the current list were eligible for the NASPA listing according to the criteria cited. Student Services was the second highest "rated" book on the NASPA list exceeded only by A. W. Chickering's, Education and Identity. Ten other books in the NASPA compilation received more support than D. W. Creamer and Associates' book.

Ten reading materials were mentioned more than five times for all students of higher education, with Pascarella and Terenzini's (1991), How College Affects Students, being mentioned the most (See Table 3). Rudolph's, The American College and University: A History (mentioned 19 times) and

Brubacher and Rudy's, Higher Education in Transition: A History of American Colleges and Universities, 1636-1976 (mentioned 13 times) were both mentioned in studies by Bender and Riegel, Reid and Goetz, and Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski. Clark Kerr's, The Uses of the University, also was mentioned by Bender and Riegel and Weidman and Associates, and was identified as essential reading for all students of higher education by 12 respondents.

On Weidman, Nelson and Radzyminski's (1984) basic reading list for students of higher education, only one of the twelve Study of Higher Education books listed was included on a specialist listing. In contrast, the current list includes three of the specialist books listed among the ten cited as basic reading for all students of higher education.

An addition to the listing of reading materials for all students of higher education, and the only non-book to be identified at least five times was The Chronicle of Higher Education. Other monographs, papers, and articles were identified by respondents, but no consensus was reached on those materials.

DISCUSSION

This examination of what the higher education community expects its students to read provides both a clear and compelling portrait of expected knowledge. As illustrated in Table 3, students of higher education are expected to be current and knowledgeable of traditional and contemporary student development issues, higher education history, and the administration and philosophy of higher education. Only one reference was made to the community college, and although it was on the reading list for all students, it was not included on the community college specialist list contained in the 1984 study by Weidman and Associates.

In all, three reading materials could be classified as "classics" based on the fact that they were published over twenty years ago, yet retain their importance in the field of higher education. These texts include Rudolph's, The American College and University: A History (1962), Brubacher and Rudy's original (1958) Higher Education in Transition: A History of American Colleges and Universities, and Kerr's, The Uses of the University (1963).

Additionally, several reading materials identified could be classified as "contemporary classics" based on the strong degree of consensus each achieved. In particular, the current data were interpreted to indicate both Pascarella and Terenzini's How College Affects Students (1991) and Birnbaum's How Colleges Work (1988) to fit the criteria of contemporary classic. As noted (See Table 3), both of these contemporary classics were published by Jossey-Bass. Only two of the eight reading materials identified

in the content areas were not published by Jossey-Bass. Consistent with Weidman and Associates' comments a decade ago, Jossey-Bass continues to be a major factor in the publication of materials related to the study of higher education.

Ginn Press, however, appears to be gaining strength in the publication of materials related to higher education. Ginn Press publishes the ASHE Reader Series which was named to the basic reading list for all students of higher education. Each "book" in this series is composed of articles and manuscripts relating to a particular content area. The efforts of Jossey-Bass and Ginn should be applauded, as well as those independent university presses who continue to recognize the significance of the field of higher education.

In reviewing the content of reading materials identified, few differences were noted with the materials identified by Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski. In each case, the history and functioning of higher education institutions dominated thought about what to expect of higher education program graduates.

Three primary differences exist between the 1984 work and this study, the first of which is the strength of college student development reading materials. In 1984 this area of specialization did not generate its own list of books and Chickering's, Education and Identity was the only student development book to be listed as basic reading for students of higher education. The emergence of student development related readings in 1993 may at least, in part, be due to the current climate within higher education which dictates or alludes to the quality of student life and the role and importance of climate and culture in achieving academic success.

The second difference was the identification of The Chronicle of Higher Education as an expected reading for students in higher education. By citing this as required reading material, respondents seem to be indicating that students have an obligation to be aware and knowledgeable of the different current trends and issues which affect higher education.

The third difference was the omission of books for 10 specialists in both curriculum and instruction as well as the community college. In fact, none of the texts listed by Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski in 1984 on those two lists were included on the current lists. Also worth noting is that the only two books, besides Cohen and March's text, that continue to be listed as basic reading for all higher education students are both historical, Rudolph's, The American College and University: A History and Brubacher and Rudy's, Higher Education in Transition: A History of American Colleges and Universities.

Respondents seem to be indicating that higher education

students should have a general knowledge of the history of higher education, an understanding of what enhances and diminishes student success on campus, the functioning and purpose of a higher education institution, and a general knowledge of current trends in higher education. These themes add validation to the 1984 work, but expand its base to a broader interpretation suggesting that students must be not only an expert in an area of specialization, but a well-rounded generalist. However, despite this broader base, these lists continue to have a highly restricted national (USA) and temporal (all but two published in the last two decades) focus (Drew & Schuster, 1980; and Weidman, Nelson, & Radzyminski, 1984).

While this examination of reading materials perceived to be basic to the study of higher education provides some framework for a better understanding of the expectations of higher education program students, the need continues to pursue a foundation of commonalties between programs to fully comprehend what it is we expect of our students. Through a continued examination of reading materials and other resources for student learning, we, as a community of scholars, can better decipher our roles and responsibilities within programs, institutions, and professional networks.

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Table 1.
Reading Materials for Specialists in Administration and Organization

Title	Total Mentions
Birnbaum, Robert. How colleges work. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1988.	9
Bolman, Lee G. and Deal, Terrence E. Reframing organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1991.	9
Cohen, Michael D. and March, James G. Leadership and ambiguity: The American college president. Second Edition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1986 (1974).	6[a,b,c]
Peterson, M. W. and Mets, L.A. (Eds). Key resources on higher education governance, management, and leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1989.	6

[a]Cited by Drew and Schuster (1980).
[b]Cited by Reid and Goetz (1982)
[c]Cited by Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski (1984).

Table 2.
Reading Materials for Specialists in College Student Development

Title	Total Mentions
Delworth, Ursula, Hanson, G.R., and Associates. Student Services. Second Edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990.	8
Kuh, George D. and Schuh, J. H. Involving colleges. Washington: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1992.	7
Pascarella, T. and Terenzini, P. How college affects students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1991.	7
Creamer, D. G., and Associates. College student development: Theory and practice for the 1990's. Alexandria, VA: American College Personnel Association, 1990.	5

Table 3.
Basic Reading Materials for All Students of Higher Education

Title	Total Mentions
Pascarella, T. and Terenzini, P. How college affects students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1991.	21
Rudolph, Frederick. The American college and university: A history. New York: Vintage Books, 1962.	19[a,b,c]
Birnbaum, R. How colleges work. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1988.	18
Brubacher, John S. and Rudy, Willis. Higher education in transition: A history of American colleges and universities, 1636-1976. 3rd Edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1976 (1958).	13[a,b,c]
Association for the Study of Higher Education Reader Series. Lexington, MA: Ginn Press.	13
Kerr, Clark. The uses of the university. Revised Edition. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1972 (1963).	12[a,c]
Clark, Burton. The higher education system. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1983.	10
Delworth, Ursula, Hanson, G. and Associates. Student Services. Second Edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990.	10
Cohen, A. M. and Brawer, F. B. The American community college. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972.	10
The Chronicle of Higher Education	10

[a]Cited by Bender and Riegel (1973).
[b]Cited by Reid and Goetz (1982).
[c]Cited by Weidman, Nelson, and Radzyminski (1984).

Beyond the Dilemma of Political Correctness: Proactive Approaches to Battling Campus Intolerance

Tom Parent

A trend has emerged. Political correctness is a societal movement that has manifested itself on many college campuses in recent years, and as a result, has made the desire to curb hate speech among students a priority. For better or worse, this trend has stirred up several issues regarding First Amendment freedoms. Its ramifications are far reaching, leaving no public institution or its policies untouched. How institutions respond to First Amendment challenges under the weight of political correctness, will define how effectively they can build an environment where differences are appreciated and respect for all is honored.

Under any moniker, the movement unquestionably had noble beginnings. What reasonable institution would not want to hold students responsible for the negative impact their speech or their actions had on the campus community? But despite the benevolent intentions of political correctness, legality dictates that schools must tread carefully when First Amendment issues are involved.

Recently as many as three hundred institutions of higher education have adopted codes that in some way limit students' free speech (O'Sullivan, 1992). Young and Gehring (1977) have identified the need for institutions to enact and enforce necessary rules and regulations to ensure that a campus' educational mission is upheld. Yet despite the Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier (1988) decision, the courts have been reluctant in many cases to freely allow institutions to limit their students' free speech solely on grounds that the speech is inconsistent with the school's educational goals (Black, 1991). According to the ruling in that case, if a school can justify regulation of students' speech on

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the grounds that the speech runs counter to the school's educational mission, the court will uphold the regulation. School officials can control free expression if, in the words of the Supreme Court, "their actions are reasonably related to legitimate pedagogical concerns" (cited in Price, et al., 1988, p. 10a). Although Hazelwood dealt specifically with secondary schools, Price, et al., (1988) worry that if the courts are willing to let the high schools determine which speech is acceptable, then administrators at the post-secondary level might soon get the chance as well.

As much as some schools would want to enact speech codes that follow politically correct guidelines, thus disallowing potentially hurtful speech, this does not always pass constitutional muster. "Campuses wishing to attack intolerance through rules and regulations must do so in a manner consistent with today's legal standards" (Black, 1991, p.3). This dilemma has been a source of confusion and frustration for student affairs.

The Supreme Court has set guidelines as to the degree and extent of First Amendment freedoms (Black, 1991). However, colleges and universities have often gone beyond those guidelines in attempting to assure the safety of one group, while curbing the freedoms of another. This dilemma is at the crux of the political correctness movement. By discouraging some types of speech, schools are curtailing the free and open expression of students. How far can post-secondary institutions go? More importantly, how far will schools be able to go in the future, given the dynamic composites of the courts and the effect they have on Constitutional interpretation? We also cannot overlook the academic overtones of the political correctness movement. Some faculty have noted that to stifle open debate in the classroom and on the campus is to stifle true learning (O'Sullivan, 1992; Henry, 1991).

BATTLING INTOLERANCE WITHOUT CENSORSHIP

In order to put weight behind their commitment to diversity and the fight against intolerance on campus, some institutions have attempted to curb student expression by enacting hate speech regulations. On campus and in the community, these regulations have not fared well when juxtaposed against the First Amendment. In a recent court decision, the city of St. Paul, Minnesota was blocked from enforcing a municipal ordinance that placed a general ban on hate speech. The U.S. Supreme Court said that the law was too broad, in that it imposed special restrictions on those speakers who "express views on the disfavored subjects of 'race, color, creed or gender.' At the same time, it permits displays containing abusive invective if they are not addressed to those topics" (RAV v. City of St. Paul Minnesota, 1992).

Additionally, the court ruled that the law went beyond the regulation of content; it in fact attempted to regulate a viewpoint. The ordinance was declared unconstitutional, in part because it prohibited otherwise permitted speech solely on the basis of the subjects the speech addresses.

Recently, the University of Wisconsin at Madison developed a strategy to deal with intolerance, insensitivity and harassment on its campus. That plan too was struck down by the courts, in essence, on the grounds that it was overly vague and unduly broad. The court argued, and many scholars agree, that the policy actually discouraged rather than promoted diversity by stifling the invigorating exchange of ideas. "An atmosphere of censorship inhibits honest dialogue and legitimate scholarship" (Pavela, 1990, p. 97).

For post-secondary institutions, this means that while regulations regarding hate speech and offensive language may be consistent with the school's educational mission, they may not be consistent with the law under the First Amendment. "Campus attempts to address intolerance through rules and regulations without a careful assessment of legal risk and impact on academic freedom are destined for failure" (Black, 1991).

The trend toward politically incorrect speech regulations have focused attention on the dilemma between the right of students to speak freely, and the right of others to have a safe haven from hurtful environments. This dilemma also raises the philosophical question: Do institutions of higher education have the obligation to create an atmosphere in which all students are respected and free from abusive verbal behavior? Or do they have the obligation to create on their campuses an atmosphere where free and open expression is embraced and the robust exchange of ideas is paramount? Are the two mutually exclusive? Obviously, they do not have to be. Institutions should work towards creating an environment in which free dialogue is encouraged, while at the same time, respect for differences is honored.

There are effective ways to battle intolerance without significant risk of running afoul of the First Amendment. The institution must create an environment in which people feel safe from abusive speech, but at the same time feel free to speak their minds. For a campus torn apart by intolerance, this will not be accomplished overnight. Only through deliberate and thoughtful strategies can schools foster this kind of accepting atmosphere.

Institutions should place emphasis on education and student development, rather than punishment, when dealing with incidents of intolerance. When an incident occurs, faculty and student affairs staff should respond by engaging the campus in discussion around any issues the event may have aroused. This is a slow, deliberate process and

should be done through as much individual contact as possible. Person-to-person conversations by student affairs staff at all levels, including greek leaders, residence hall directors, student government advisors, etc., is essential. The campus will want to discuss the incident, and this is a great opportunity for faculty and staff to bring the issues out into the open, where invigorating dialogue can take place, rather than choosing to not engage the community, thus relegating the incident to the darkened corners of the campus rumor mill.

If incidents of intolerance do occur on campus, or if hate groups come to speak, the institution should embrace it as an educational opportunity and program around it. Institutions who have dealt with this very issue, such as Fort Lewis College in Durango, Colorado, have found that turning a potentially explosive situation into an educational one was an effective response, which aided in defusing the heightened tensions. What better time to get the campus talking about race relations than when a hate group is scheduled to appear? After hateful words have been uttered, after racial epithets have been hurled, after controversial speakers have visited the campus, that is when students and the campus community are ripe to discuss, argue, and ponder the meanings of these events.

Substantial emphasis should be placed on multicultural seminars and workshops. These should be facilitated by personnel learned in student development theory, and with multicultural training and should be integral components of areas such as student staff training, student government sessions, and student leadership development programs. These workshops should not be seminars on political correctness; rather they should reflect the institutional commitment of respect for all campus groups while embracing free and open student expression.

Programs, such as freshman orientation and tours of campus by the admissions office, can set the standard by making it clear from the outset the institution's policies and commitment to free speech and dissent. These are excellent forums for discussion, and effective utilization could maximize their effectiveness. A very clear and early message should be sent that the school actively promotes the difference of opinions, under the auspices of mutual respect for all students. Statements such as these, however, are of little use if the institution does nothing to support their rhetoric. Students will be able to tell, almost from the first day they arrive on campus, whether or not the school really is committed to these ideals. After the first incident of intolerance, students will watch to see how the school reacts. If the institution does nothing to address the issue, a very clear message is sent to the campus community that intolerance will be tolerated. That is

why discussions, programs and workshops are so important. They reflect the institution's commitment to fighting intolerance in a tangible way.

Institutions should develop integrated academic courseloads that reflect the school's commitment to diversity. Students should be required, or strongly encouraged, to take classes which discuss multicultural issues. If these classes do not exist, they should be developed and integrated into all segments of academic discourse. In all disciplines, the institution's commitment to these topics should be reflected.

Institutions should publicize their commitment to an environment of diverse opinions in as many ways as possible, repeatedly sending the message to the campus community that intolerance is not acceptable in an educational environment. All forms of media should be utilized including campus publications, campus radio station, admissions applications, housing contracts, faculty recruitment information, etc. A continual onslaught of institutional messages should make clear exactly where the school stands on these issues.

Lastly, and most importantly, it is essential that student affairs professionals role model appropriate behavior at all times. They should not let acts of intolerance go unchallenged, and they certainly should not be involved in any similar acts, on or off campus. Students will be looking to the student affairs professionals as leaders in the fight to end intolerance. Absolute adherence to positive role modeling is critical.

The fight to end intolerance on campus is by no means an easy one. Nor is it something that will be accomplished without several potentially significant setbacks, such as backlash by groups opposed to the institution's message of mutual respect. But the commitment to these issues must not falter. Respect for all and free and open expression can exist at the same time. An institution can and must create an atmosphere where these two ideals are fostered and embraced.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CREDIBILITY AND STRONG LEADERSHIP IN STUDENT AFFAIRS

In order to effectively respond to First Amendment challenges on campus, a student affairs division needs to have already formed strong relationships with the many influential segments of the campus community. It is important that the student affairs staff establish trust, respect, good communication and a reputation of fairness among all components of the institution, including students, staff, faculty, and campus and administrative leaders. It is imperative that when the school is faced with these challenges, student affairs professionals have the mechanisms in place to

respond with strong leadership. This can only be accomplished through first gaining the respect and influence of the campus community. There should be no question in the eyes of the campus in times of crisis, that the student affairs department is a capable organization ready to effectively and equitably handle the situation. This, obviously, cannot be achieved overnight. Rather, it is a long-term accomplishment, coming to fruition in the day-to-day contact that student affairs leaders have with all segments of the campus community.

If the student affairs department has the reputation of being an effective leader, its decisions will be more easily accepted by the campus community. Establishing this foundation of trust is not easy, but strong student affairs leadership will serve to greatly facilitate this relationship, and thus the perception of effective handling of First Amendment challenges.

GENERAL STRATEGIES FOR FIRST AMENDMENT AWARENESS

Student affairs professionals need to understand the complex role that the First Amendment plays in regard to students' rights. As leaders in higher education, student affairs leaders must become educated on the subject, and in turn, find avenues to educate the campus about the rights and privileges guaranteed by the First Amendment.

An extremely useful way to educate student affairs professionals about the intricacies of the First Amendment in higher education is through graduate coursework for students entering the field. New professional classes focus on virtually every other area of the relationship between higher education and the student. Academic emphasis needs to be placed on the law and its effect on the student affairs profession.

Student affairs, as a viable and vital entity in post-secondary education, cannot afford to let new professionals enter the field who are blind to the responsibilities, rights, privileges, and obligations of the First Amendment. The resulting breach of student faith, caused by ignorance of those who work closely with them, could seriously undermine the credibility of the profession.

Tying in closely with the academic approach, is the importance of frequent seminars, workshops and staff development training on the topic. Student affairs staff need to keep in touch with the issues that could affect their relationships with students. As institutional policies react to changes in the law, the profession needs to effectively adapt. Perhaps annual student affairs conferences such as the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) or the Association of College Personnel Administrators (ACPA) would be appropriate forums for these seminars.

While student affairs staff

should have a good working knowledge of the First Amendment's implications on higher education, they cannot be expected to be legal experts. That is why a strong relationship with the institution's legal counsel office is important. Student affairs staff should feel comfortable in utilizing the expertise of the staff attorneys.

The education of student affairs professionals on the intricacies of the law and the First Amendment in higher education is essential to an effective student affairs department. Preparation, with emphasis on the resources available to student affairs, needs to start at the graduate level and continue throughout one's career. With a solid background in the legal issues affecting education, student affairs administrators will be able to more effectively advise and educate students.

NEW CHALLENGES AWAIT

As higher education approaches the 21st Century, one can only speculate which issues will be at the forefront of discussion on college campuses in the years to come. Students, it seems, will always use the college campus as the sounding board for new and controversial ideas. This should continue to be encouraged. Student affairs professionals must continue to clarify and enhance their role as leaders and educators devoted to helping students grow, develop, and ask questions. They will need to be ready to meet the new challenges awaiting the next generation of campus officials. Through proactive preparation and purposeful leadership, student affairs professionals in higher education can meet these challenges.

The assurance of First Amendment rights to students must not be circumvented. If student affairs professionals intend to build a community of learning, one which positively supports student development and growth, the right to question, dissent and speak one's mind must be guaranteed on college campuses. Institutions need to realize, however, that hurtful speech and degradation can negatively affect students' development, learning, and sense of belonging. That is why schools must battle intolerance, not through censorship, but through fostering an environment in which differences are appreciated. Institutions of higher education should not tolerate intolerance. But, they also cannot advocate censorship. A common ground must be achieved, one in which First Amendment rights are guaranteed, and respect for all is assured.

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Identity Development: Is One Theory Enough?

Sue Reimondo

There is a great deal of argument among Student Affairs professionals concerning identity development theories. One debate I find particularly troubling is whether student affairs administrators should develop and use one comprehensive identity development theory for all students or should a number of theories be employed, each of which addresses the unique needs and experiences of a particular subgroup of students.

This author believes it is unrealistic to assume that one identity development theory could ever be comprehensive enough to incorporate all subgroups currently populating our campuses. The theories of Erikson (1968), Chickering (1969), Kohlberg (1969), and Perry (1970), which are the underpinnings of the profession today are based on the assumption that all students develop according to models based on an homogenous campus population of eighteen-to-twenty-year-old, middle class white males. Theorists, such as Gilligan (1982), have shown that this traditional model is inadequate when attempting to explain the moral development of women. Evans, and Levine (1990) discuss numerous theories which address the issue of identity development in gays, lesbians, and bisexuals. Ethnic influences create obvious differences in attitudes, values, learning styles and goals of minority students. Jones (1990) compares and contrasts Eurocentric, Afrocentric, Sinocentric, Hispanic, and American Indian cultural identities making a compelling argument for understanding these differences in order to support the developmental needs of many different people. Cross (1987) and Schlossberg et al., (1989) have determined that adult learners come to higher education with a unique set of issues and concerns which are not addressed by traditional theories.

There is a danger in believing that one identity development theory can be developed which would provide adequate insight and understanding of all groups of people. The thought itself may stem from a lack of cultural identity in Euro-Americans. The concept of identity development is culture bound. Consider the fact most white Americans cannot

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identify their cultural heritage, claiming instead to be "all American" or part of the great American melting pot. Thus, the majority population in our society find the concept of cultural identity alien and, understandably, react with impatience or even anger to minority groups who identify strongly with their cultural heritage. Jones (1990) explains that for many white Americans the concept of cultural identity does not exist.

> These whites have divorced themselves from their own ethnic history...It is reasonable to assume that whites who deny their own ethnicity will reject ethnic groups who want to stress and celebrate their own cultural uniqueness. Educational pursuits that focus on nonwhite cultures can frustrate white students who deny the value of ethnicity. They continue to believe that everyone could or should assimilate. (pp. 63-65)

Student Affairs is predominately a Eurocentric profession grounded in Eurocentric theories of student development. There is a danger in insisting that all students conform to existing campus norms with minor adjustments made to accommodate primarily convenience needs of an increasingly heterogeneous population. The belief that one comprehensive theory can be developed and used for each subgroup perpetuates notions of cultural superiority, sexism, racism, classism, ageism, and homophobia.

There is no one theory large enough to explain how the earth turns, why seasons come and go, or how new life is created. Instead, principles and theories of biology, chemistry, physics and philosophy are drawn together to explain the behaviors of our natural world. Why is there not room enough in identity development theory for thought and ideas which may thoroughly explain the behaviors of only a subgroup of our campus populations but when drawn together offer a comprehensive and dynamic whole?

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From Home to Hall: An Ecological Transition

Kym Wilson
and
James H. Banning

INTRODUCTION

Since over two-thirds of students entering four-year institutions of higher education live in residence halls during their freshman year (Boyer, 1987) and spend approximately 70 percent of their time in their residential environments (Baum and Valins, 1977), on-campus housing facilities can be considered a "home away from home." In addition, the student's move from "home" to "hall" can be viewed as an ecological transition. Bronfenbrenneer (1979) defines an ecological transition as occuring "whenever a person's position in the ecological environment is altered as the result of a change in role, setting or both." The general application of the concept of ecological transition to freshman year adjustment has been suggested by Banning (1989). The purpose of this article, however, is to look specially at the "home to hall" move as an ecological transition and to use the description of the student's room at "home" in comparsion to the students room in the "hall"as a way to view the potential stress of the tranistion. If the sending environment (home) is significantly different from the receiving environment (residence hall), the degree of stress on the student will be more severe and perhaps the likelihood of attrition will increase. As noted by Astin (1977), student satisfaction with campus housing is a critical factor of success and retention in the campus environment.

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THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE HOME

Three hundred forty-five students returned a survey which ask them for a description of their furnishings in their room at home (See table 1).

THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE HOME

Critical to understanding the home bedroom social environment is the question of occupancy or sharing of the room. The survey results indicated that of the 345 students completing the

survey, 89 percent indicated that they *did not share* their room with any other family member. Eleven percent shared their room with at least one sibling. Thirty-three percent indicated they *did not share* a bathroom.

Other questions of importance are the social issues of autonomy and responsibility of the home bedroom. Several of the survey questions gathered information in this area. The study showed that 85.5 percent of the students were able to decorate their room (most of the time), 44.9 percent purchased the decorations (most of the time), but only 16.5 percent indicated they actually purchased the appliances.

TABLE 1

Type of Furnishing	%Y	% N
Television	42.6	57.4
Bed	98.6	1.4
Couch	8.4	91.6
Table	29.0	71.0
Chairs	64.9	35.1
Mirror	75.9	24.1
Closet	95.4	4.6
Desk	75.4	24.6
Refrigerator	4.3	95.7
Microwave	2.0	98.0
Toaster Oven	1.4	98.6
Bookshelf	75.7	24.3
Stereo	84.6	15.4
Posters	89.6	10.4
Lamp	90.1	9.9
Air Conditioner	21.2	78.8
Dresser	89.4	10.4

PHYSICAL/SOCIAL INTERACTIONS

Important to all ecologies is the physical/social interaction. This relationship is also important to understanding the home to hall transition. Most bedrooms in middle class homes in America run about 10' by 9' in size plus or minus a few square feet. On the other hand, most university residence hall rooms run about the same size, but are most often occupied by *two persons rather than one*. While the furnishings provided by most universities are similar to the home (bed, table, desk, chair, closet, dresser, and lamp) and most campuses allow amenities (television, stereos, and fans), they have to fit in half the space of the home bedroom due to the prevalent two per room policy on college campuses. This interaction basically produces an increase in social density and at the same time produces an increase in physical density (half the physical space for the typical furnishings). In the environmental psychology literature, both of these conditions have long been associated with increased stress.

The bathroom environment also represents similar dynamics, in that social density is increased for nearly every student. Many students (one-third) had private bathrooms and none shared their bathroom facilities with 20 to 30 students as would be the case in the common "gang" bathroom arrangements in most college and university residence halls. In

addition, no one in the home environment will find the bathroom 30 to 40 feet down the hall!

These descriptive comparisons show the contrast between the sending environment and the receiving environment in terms of both physical space, social space, and the interaction of physical and social density. Added to these differences is the usual situation in which the roommate is assigned rather than chosen and is unknown in terms of personality and life-style preferences.

The "implications" question is whether the nature of the transition from home to school produces stress that is appropriate "grist" for the development of students or whether the stress is another piece to the attrition and failure rates of students in higher education.

IMPLICATIONS

New construction

The majority of residential buildings on college campuses today were constructed in the late 50s and 60s. Because of the rapid increase of people returning to universities during this time, many institutions were prompted to construct large facilities quickly to accommodate these students. Most of these buildings were designed with large community bathrooms and small rooms where two students were expected to live (Corbett, 1973). This arrangement is referred to as the traditional double-loaded corridor. Riker (1956) notes that the "rooms" of this arrangement contain about the same space needed to park two cars. (Maybe this fact holds a possible solution to the campus parking problem!) The corridor arrangement appears to be no longer satisfactory or acceptable to an increasing number of incoming students (Sunstad, 1991). As summarized by Einhorn (1988), the corridor society and shared facilities of traditional residence halls leave much to be desired in terms of aesthetics, privacy and opportunities for social interaction. The concept of ecological transition helps to understand this increasing level of frustration with university housing. What information should new construction take into account? Several trends are clear. One, students have their own bedrooms in their homes. Sharing a bedroom in the home has decreased from 16 percent in 1950 to only four percent in 1990 according to the reports of the U.S. Census Bureau.

Second, students arrive on campus with *twice as many* personal items as their predecessors (Donnelly, 1992). Third, the social trend of "cocooning" should be taken into account. Popcorn (1991) defines cocooning as "the impulse to go inside when it just gets too tough and scary outside." It is a gathering of personal items into a personal space that is warm and safe. She also notes it is not about "home," but it is a state of mind and we "want our cocoon to travel with us." How safe, cozy, and personal

are current residence halls? Student residences in the future (not dorms nor halls) should be designed to house students in single rooms that are larger and provide more opportunity for personalization (bring more personal furniture and other items from home). How do you balance this prescription with the issue of cost? It seems that historically the balance was on the side of cost, not on the side of student need and comfort. Despite the claims for the "grist" this imbalance produces for the "developmental mill," it will probably be more cost effective in the long run to take into account student needs and the nature of the ecological transition from home to hall.

Programmatic Implications

Several options are open to housing personnel short of demolishing old buildings! One option is to revisit room furniture policies. Heilweil (1973) states room furniture is the single most important factor in the student's room and is perhaps the least understood. Many institutions require the student use only the university owned furniture, but to allow the student to bring their own furniture from home would serve the dual purpose of easing the ecological transition from home to hall and produce an environment more conducive to feeling safe and at home (cocooning).

To accommodate the opportunity for students to bring their own furniture and to allow more students to live by themselves, the single room programs recently implemented by many institutions may need to be expanded even more. Again, there are cost issues associated with presenting traditional double occupancy rooms as singles, but the student market may demand such a move.

Finally, where new construction is not an available option and the policy changes of more personalization and increased singles are not viable options, then more staff and programmatic efforts will be needed to somehow make the "home" away from "home" more homelike.

SUMMARY

Indeed the home environment of many of our current students is quite different from the "hall" environment being offered by colleges and universities. Viewing this difference from the concept of an ecological transition highlights both the physical and social aspects of the "home to hall" move. The importance of this transition is captured by Schlossberg (1989):

> For an individual undergoing a transition, it is not the event or nonevent that is most important but its impact, that is, the degree to which the transition alters his or her daily life . . . we may assume that the more the transition alters the individual's life, the more coping resources it requires,

and the longer it will take for assimilation or adaption. One way of examining the impact of a transition is to assess the degree of difference between the pre-transition and the post- transition environments. (p. 52)

Despite costs, despite tradition, despite "grist" for the developmental mill, it is far more logical and feasible to make changes in the post-transition environment (the hall) than to ask families to make changes in the pretransition environment (the home)!

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What Matters in College: Four Critical Years Revisited

Alexander Astin
Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1993
482 pages, $30.95

Review by David A. McKelfresh

What Matters in College extends the research about how students change in college and why they change as they do. Alexander Astin, founding director of the Cooperative Institutional Research Project (CIRP), provides a major contribution to the literature on college-effects. While *What Matters in College* is organized in a similar fashion to Astin's earlier work, *Four Critical Years* (1977) this book is an entirely new study.

In his latest book, Astin studies the effects of college on 24,847 freshmen in 1985 who completed a follow-up questionnaire in 1989. *What Matters in College* provides 192 measures of the college environment which comprise five categories, three relating to the institution and its faculty (Institutional characteristics, Curricular characteristics, and Faculty environment) and two pertaining to the student body (Student environment and Individual involvement). Although this book runs the risk of subjecting the reader to information overload, Astin's latest study reports what Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) concluded in their review of approximately 3,000 studies — college has strong effects on students. Students develop a greater sense of interpersonal and intellectual competence and a greater commitment to developing a meaningful philosophy of life. They report substantial increases in knowledge and skills, with the exception of mathematical or quantitative ability. College students tend to become less materialistic and more idealistic during the college years.

Astin found that the faculty also have a strong impact on students. Campuses on which faculty have a strong orientation toward students have important effects. Students on such campuses are more satisfied with the institution, the curriculum, and

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other aspects of the educational experience and are more likely to develop academically.

Astin especially notes the following three items: 1) That being in a particular type of institution does not necessarily limit the effectiveness of undergraduate education, and that what really matters is the environment created by the faculty and students; 2) The kinds of colleges and college experiences that favorably affect the student's performance on standardized tests are quite different from those that enhance retention and other cognitive and affective outcomes; and 3) The single most important environmental influence on student development is the peer group.

As in previous studies, Astin shows that students are the most important influence on other students' affective development. Students values, beliefs, and aspirations change in the direction of the dominant values, beliefs, and aspirations of other students. Astin suggests that a college's judicious and imaginative use of peer groups can substantially strengthen its impact on student learning and personal development.

Astin makes no pretense that *What Matters in College* is a comprehensive review of the literature on college impact. He notes that his book focuses almost exclusively on the traditional-age college undergraduate who enters college soon after completing high school. Astin further concedes his study is limited to students who begin their college studies on a full-time basis (even though many will become part-timers).

As *Four Critical Years* has been the single most frequently cited work in the higher education literature (Budd, 1990), *What Matters in College* seems destined for similar appeal and influence with educators. Administrators and policy makers will find considerable interest in the effects of different kinds of institutions, patterns of resource utilization, and the campus "climate" on students. Astin (1992) contends that "in choosing a college, students and their parents may find many of the results useful, especially those having to do with type of college attended and patterns of student involvement" (p. xii). For the faculty or staff member interested in how students change and develop in college and what can be done to enhance that development, *What Matters in College* will undoubtedly be popular for years to come.

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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 submissions of the following types of articles:

- Quantitative to Qualitative Research Articles
- Current Trends in Student 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 Editorial Board prior to submission. Before submitting an article:

1. Prepare the manuscript in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 3rd Edition.
2. Send the original manuscript and three copies to the attention of the Journal's Content Editors.
3. Place the name of the author(s), position(s), and institutional affiliation(s) on 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 in the text.
7. Use the APA reference style, using 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 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 (5.0) 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 previously published or under consideration by other journals with national distribution.

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