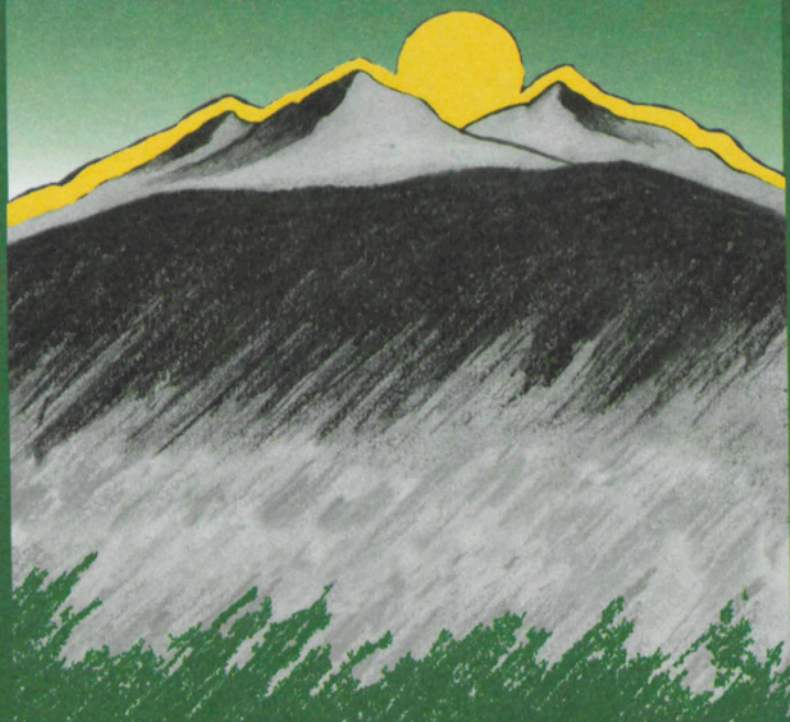# JOURNAL OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

Colorado State University

Knowledge to Go Places

10th ANNIVERSARY

VOLUME X, 2001

Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs

Mission Statement and Goals

MISSION STATEMENT

The mission of the *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs* is to develop and produce a scholarly publication that reflects current education issues and the professional interests of student affairs practitioners. Specifically, the *Journal* provides an opportunity for the publication of articles by current students, alumni, and faculty of the Colorado State University Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program.

GOALS

The *Journal* will promote scholarly work reflecting the importance of professional and academic writing in higher education.

The Editorial Board of the *Journal* will offer opportunities for students to develop editorial skills, critical thinking skills, and writing skills while producing a professional journal.

The *Journal* will serve as a communication tool to alumni and other professionals regarding the status of the Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program.

Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs

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Director's Perspective

David A. McKelfresh
Interim Director
Student Affairs in Higher Education

This past year has been an exciting and busy time for the Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program. Keith Miser, Vice President for Student Affairs, accepted a position at the University of Hawaii at Hilo as Vice Chancellor and began his responsibilities in August. Grant Sherwood was appointed as interim Vice President for the Student Affairs Division and has served in that role with distinction. In January, Linda Kuk was selected as the new Vice President to officially begin April 2. Linda Kuk is an alumnus of the SAHE program (CSPA, 1973). Grant will return to his duties as Director of the SAHE program in the latter part of Spring Semester.

The SAHE program continues to attract strong candidates and admit highly motivated students. Currently we have 40 students in the process of completing their degrees.

The faculty continue to provide relevant and focused course content and experiences to respond to the changing issues of our profession. The addition of a new counseling course, taught by Anne Hudgens and Sharon Anderson, has been well-received and is highly popular. Graduates are well-prepared for the work environments they enter and leave CSU in a position to make choices and make a difference.

We hope you enjoy this volume of the journal. My thanks to all who have contributed to the *SAHE Journal* and a special note of appreciation to the *Journal's* Editorial Board.

Student Affairs in Higher Education
Diversity Scholarship Recipients

Fall 2000 Recipients

Mercedes Benton
500.00

Rebecca Newman-Gonchar
500.00

Jose Luis Riera
500.00

Sarah Woodside
$500.00

Spring 2001 Recipients

Mercedes Benton
500.00

Lisa Campos
700.00

Jessica Chavez
700.00

Carl's Jr. in the Lory Student Center has donated funds to establish grants for the Student Affairs in Higher Education program to enhance racial and ethnic diversity.

Congratulations!

Note from the Editors

Christopher E. Bryner
Lance Wright
Rebecca Newman-Gonchar
Sarah Woodside
José-Luis Riera
Jody Jessup

This year marks the tenth anniversary publication of the *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs*. There is a sense of tradition and continuity in each publication. However, each edition is also unique, taking on the personality of its authors, contributors, and editors. As an Editorial Board, we strove to maintain the consistency of the *Journal* while making it our own.

One common theme that has emerged over the last year both in the SAHE program and on the Editorial Board is the need for balance. Individually, we committed ourselves to managing our well-rounded lives, and yet we found ourselves taking on the challenge of creating a scholarly publication in addition to our assistantships, class work, and relationships. What were we thinking?

We all believed that the opportunity to be a part of the *Journal* was a worthwhile undertaking. To this end we made it a point to share as much of the work as possible with each other. We worked collaboratively, trusted each other's decisions, and rolled up our sleeves to ensure the success of the 2001 edition.

The desire for balance in our personal lives extends to the *Journal* as well. We sought to include a variety of topics that would contribute to the professional growth of the practitioner, the development of the student, and the diversity of scholarship associated with the student affairs profession.

We hope that you find the tenth anniversary edition of the *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs* as challenging, thought-provoking, and balanced an experience to read, as it was to create.

Acknowledgements

*The 2001 Journal of Student Affairs Editorial Board wishes to
thank the following individuals for their contributions:*

- Paul Shang, Director of the Help/Success Center and SAHE faculty
  member. Paul served as our advisor this year, and his energy and
  guidance directly contributed to our success.

- Martha Fosdick, who retired this year from her positions as Assistant
  to the Vice President of Student Affairs at Colorado State University
  and *Journal* advisor, yet continued to offer assistance throughout the
  process. Her years advising the *Journal* have helped it to become a
  scholarly publication.

- Grant Sherwood, for his continued support and leadership in the
  SAHE program, even as he is called to serve as Interim Vice President
  for Student Affairs.

- David McKelfresh, Director of Residence Life at Colorado State
  University, for his willingness to serve as Interim Director of SAHE,
  albeit temporarily, and his contributions to this year's *Director's
  Perspective.*

- Wendy Wallace, Complex Coordinator, Colorado State University.
  Wendy had served on the board while she was a SAHE student, and
  her experiences and insight were instrumental in this current issue.

- The Reader Board and fellow classmates, for there professionalism,
  patience, and dedication to their work on behalf of the *Journal.*

A Framework for Organizing the Scholarship of Campus Ecology

James H. Banning and Christopher E. Bryner

Campus Ecology is the conceptual framework focused on the dynamic relationship between students and the campus environment. This article brings together the scholarship related to the campus ecology movement and places it into a conceptual framework. This framework divides this scholarship into seven distinct categories with the intention of creating a user-friendly resource for the further study and application of campus ecology in higher education.

Campus ecology is a conceptual framework focused on the dynamic relationship between students and the campus environment. It is a framework that allows the student affairs profession not only to think about its work as encompassing students and their development, but also to develop and change campus environments to foster student learning and development. The "campus ecology" movement began in the early 1970s and significant scholarship associated with campus ecology has been published during the past thirty years. The resources representing this scholarship have been scattered across several fields (student personnel, counseling psychology, and ecological/environmental psychology) and have never been brought together into one location.

The purpose of this article is two-fold: (1) to bring together the body of work related to the development and application of the campus ecology movement in college and university student affairs work, and (2) to present this literature within a conceptual framework. Through the search for campus ecology related material, approximately one hundred articles, monographs, and books were located. Chronologically, the literature begins with Lewin's (1936) book, *Principles of Topological Psychology*, and ends with the Strange and Banning (2000) publication, *Educating by Design: Creating Campus Learning Environments that Work.*

The conceptual framework is built around the following structure: (a) foundation scholarship associated with the *ecological/environmental perspective,* (b) foundation scholarship associated with the *college environment* literature,

James H. Banning is a professor in the School of Education at Colorado State University. Christopher Bryner ('01) currently serves as the Aggie Village Manager for Apartment Life at Colorado State University.

(c) works focusing on the conceptual framework of *campus ecology*, (d) works with a focus on *campus assessment and design* from the campus ecology perspective, (e) scholarship relating to *student development theory/practice* and campus ecology, (f) resources focusing on *campus programs* (i.e. administration, admissions, college unions, counseling programs, housing, ombudsman programs, and outdoor programs), and (g) resources which focus on *campus issues* from the campus ecology perspective (i.e. academic integrity, student activism, diversity, first year students, student involvement, and issues of student outcomes and retention).

FOUNDATION – ECOLOGICAL/ENVIRONMENTAL

The campus ecology perspective builds on the foundation provided by the scholarship in ecological and environmental psychology. Grounded within this scholarship is the notion that there is a mutual interdependence among personal and environmental factors in behavior determination. Within this foundational literature, the ecological equation of behavior being a function of both the person and the environment ($B= f(P,E)$) emerged. This formula was first presented by Kurt Lewin in *Principles of Topological Psychology*. In addition, the ecological/environmental foundational scholarship points to the importance of the physical environment and its particular role in determining human behavior. The following articles represent the ecological/environmental foundation for campus ecology including the contributions from the fields of environmental psychology, ecological psychology, social ecology, and human development.

Barker, R.G. (1968). *Ecological psychology: Concepts and methods for studying the environment of human behavior*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Bookchin, M.(1982). *The ecology of freedom*. Palo Alto, CA: Cheshire Books.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gerst, M., & Moos, R. (1972). The social ecology of university residences. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 63*, 513-522.

Insel, P., & Moos, R. (1974). Psychological environments: Expanding the scope of human ecology. *American Psychologist, 29*, 179-189.

Lewin, K.(1936). *Principles of topological psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Moos, R. H., & Insel, P. (1974). *Issues in social ecology*. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books.

Moos, R. H. (1976). *The human context: Environmental determinants of behavior*. New York: Wiley.

Pervin, L. A. (1968). Performance and satisfaction as a function of individual-environment fit. *Psychological Bulletin, 69*(1), 56-58.

Proshansky, H., Ittelson, W., & Rivlin, L. E. (1970). *Environmental Psychology: Man and his physical environment*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Sommer, R. (1969). *Personal space*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Stern, G. G. (1964). "B=f(P,E)". *Journal of Personality Assessment, 28*(2), 161-168.

Stern, G. G. (1970). *People in context: Measuring person-environment congruence in education and industry*. New York: Wiley.

Walsh, W. B. (1978). Person/environment interaction. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs*. (pp. 6-16). Cincinnati, OH: National Association Student Personnel Administrators.

Walsh, W. B., Craik, K. H., & Price, R. H. (1992). *Person-environment psychology*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Witt, P. H., & Handal, P. J. (1984). Person-environment fit: Is satisfaction predicted by congruency, environment, or personality? *Journal of College Student Personnel, 25*(6), 503-508.

FOUNDATION — COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

The foundational scholarship pertaining to the college environment establishes the college environment as a unique setting and highlights the importance of established ecological/environmental variables in understanding campus environments. It represents the beginning efforts to both assess and manage the college environment in relationship to student outcomes. Critical to these resources is the early work of Alexander Astin, who brought to the attention of researchers and practitioners in higher education the importance of the campus environment, and the role it plays in the student experience. The following literature also presents the early formulations that focused on the relationship between students and the campus environment. These resources serve as the foundation for campus ecology as a perspective for student affairs.

Astin, A. W. (1968). *The college environment*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education.

Astin, A. W., & Holland, J. L. (1961). The environmental assessment technique: A way to measure college environments. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 52*, 308-316.

Crookston, B. B. (1975). Milieu management. *NASPA Journal, 13*(1), 45-55.

Pace, C. R., & Stern, G. G. (1958). An approach to the measurement of psychological characteristics of college environments. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 49*, 269-277.

Stern, G. G. (1965). Student ecology and the college environment. *Journal of Medical Education, 40*, 132-154.

Walsh, W. B. (1973). *Theories of person-environment interaction: Implications for the college student.* Iowa City, IA: American College Testing Program.

CAMPUS ECOLOGY CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The resources in this section present the scholarship directly related to the understanding and development of the campus ecology model and its relationship to the field of student affairs. Included are frameworks relating to the campus ecology model, the ecosystem design process, the conceptions of the campus environment, and the application of the model to the field of student affairs. These references represent the birth of the campus ecology movement.

Banning, J. H., & Kaiser, L. R. (1974). An ecological perspective and model for campus design. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52*(6), 370-375.

Banning, J. H. (1980). The campus ecology manager role. In U. Delworth & G. R. Hanson (Eds.), *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 209-227). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Banning, J. H. (1980). Campus ecology: Its impact on college student personnel work. In D. G. Creamer (Ed.), *Student development in higher education: Theories, practices, and future directions* (pp. 129-137). Cincinnati, OH: American College Personnel Association.

Banning, J. H., & McKinley, D. L. (1980). Conceptions of the campus environment. In W. H. Morrill & E. R. Oetting (Eds.), *Dimensions of intervention for student development* (pp. 39-57). New York: Wiley and Sons.

Banning, J. H. (1988). Ecological transitions. *The Campus Ecologist, 6*(4), 1-3.

Banning, J. H. (1992). The connection between learning and the learning environment. In E. Hebert & A. Meek (Eds.), *Children, learning, & school design* (pp. 19-30). Winnetka, IL: Winnetka Public Schools.

Banning, J. H. Ed. (1978). *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs.* Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Coffman, J., & Paul, S. C. (1987). Operrationalizing the ecological perspective. *The Campus Ecologist, 5*(1), 1-2.

Gertner, D. M. (1990). James H. Banning: College environments and the survival of the "fittest:" An interview with the "stepmother" of campus ecology theory. *New York Journal of College Student Personnel, 7*(1), 26-48.

Gonzales, G. (1989). Understanding the campus community: An ecological paradigm. In D. Roberts (Ed.), *Designing campus activities to foster a sense of community*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Huebner, L. A. (1980). Interaction of students and campus. In U. Delworth & G. R. Hanson (Eds.), *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 117-155). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Huebner, L. A. (1979). Emergent isssues of theory and practice. In L. A. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kaiser, L. R. (1978). Campus ecology and campus design. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs* (pp. 24-31). Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Ortiz, J. (1990). Music as sound campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 8*(4), 1-4.

Paul, S. C., & Morrill, W. H. (1979). Applying the ecosystem perspective to the ecosystem perspective. In L. A. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments* (pp. 85-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sorenson, D. M. (1987). Introduction to the campus ecology issue. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 2-4.

Strange, C. C., & Banning, J. H. (2000). *Educating by design: Creating campus environments that work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Wedge, K. (1983). The ecological perspective: Strengths and concerns. *The Campus Ecologist, 1*(4), 1-3.

Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. (1973). *The ecosystem model: Designing campus environments*. Boulder, CO: Author.

CAMPUS ECOLOGY ASSESSMENT AND DESIGN

This section of resources pertains to the general application of the campus ecology perspective to the assessment and design processes applicable to the college environment. A number of different strategies are presented for the assessment of campus environments including the ecosystem design model, the consultation, the application of ethnography, and the employment of surveys. Works included here examine such campus ecology factors as behavioral traces and way finding. This section includes examples of some of the first practical applications of the campus ecology model on college campuses.

Aulepp, L., & Delworth, U. (1978). A team approach to environmental assessment. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs* (pp. 51-71). Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Aulepp, L., & Delworth, U. (1976). *Training manual for an ecosystem model.* Boulder, CO: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education.

Banning, J. H. (1979). Consultation for environmental change: An administrator's view. In M. K. Hamilton & C. J. Meade (Eds.), *Consulting on campus* (pp. 47-56). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Banning, J. H. (1988). Behavioral traces: A concept for campus ecologists. *The Campus Ecologist, 6*(2), 1-3.

Banning, J. H. (1991). Ethnography: A promising method of inquiry for the study of campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 9*(3), 1-4.

Banning, J. H. (1996). Wayfinding: Welcoming? or a sign of the two ecology problem. *The Campus Ecologist, 14,* 2-4.

Banning, J. H. (1996). Bumper sticker ethnography: Another way to view the campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 14*(3), 1-4.

Banning, J. H. (2000). Bumper sticker ethnography: A study of campus culture. *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs, 9,* 11-17.

Barrow, J., Marsicano, L., & Bumbalough, P. (1987). Adapting the ecosytem model for environmental assessment and design. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 28*(4), 378-379

Conyne, R. K., & Clack, R. J. (1981). *Environmental assessment and design.* New York: Praeger.

Corazzini, J. (1980). Environmental redesign. In U. Delworth & G. R. Hanson (Eds.), *Student Services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 350-367). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fawcett, G., Huebner, L., & Banning, J. H. (1978). Campus ecology: Implementing the design process. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs.* Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Huebner, L. A. (1979). *Redesigning campus environments.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Huebner, L., & Corazzini, J. (1984). Environmental assessment and intervention. In S. Brown & R. Lent (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling psychology* (pp. 579-621). New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Huebner, L., & Banning, J. H. (1987). Ethics of intentional campus design. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 28-37.

Huebner, L. A., & Paul, S. C. (1978). The assessment of environmental quality. In T.O'Riordan (Ed.), *Resource management and environmental planning.* New York: Wiley.

Huebner, L. A. & Lawson, J. M. (1990). Understanding and assessing college environments. In D. Creamer (Ed.), *College student development* (pp. 127-145). Alexandria, VA: American College Personnel Association.

Kaiser, L. R. (1975). Designing campus environments. *NASPA Journal, 13*(1), 33-39.

Kaiser, L. R., & Sherretz, L. (1978). Designing campus environments: A review of selected literature. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs* (pp. 72-111). Cincinnati: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Lewis, J. C. (1979). Annotated references. In L. A. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments* (pp. 99-104). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Tisdale, J. (1991). The college catalog: A barometer of campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 9*(4), 3.

Treadway, D. M. (1979). Use of campus-wide ecosystem surveys to monitor a changing institution. In L. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments* (pp. 37-50). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

CAMPUS ECOLOGY AND STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

The scholarship referenced in this section highlights the importance of the relationship between campus ecology and student development. Campus ecology is not a student development theory, but a method of conceptualizing the processes associated with student development. The following resources not only address the relationship between campus ecology and student development, but also highlight the environmental factors that are important to student development. Environmental concerns are often neglected in a traditional "person" only focused developmental theory, one that only takes into account the "person" element of $(B=f(P,E))$. The following body of work underscores the importance of the college environment and its transactional relationship with students. A useful definition of traditionally focused development theory along with an ecologically focused perspective can be found in the Banning (1989) article referenced below.

Banning, J. H., & Cunard, M. (1986). Environments supports student development. *ACU-I Bulletin, 54*(1), 8-10.

Banning, J.H. (1989). Creating a climate for successful student development: The campus ecology manager role. In U. Delworth & G. R. Hanson (Eds.), *Student Services: A Handbook for the profession* (pp. 304-322). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Blocher, D. H. (1974). Toward an ecology of student development. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52*, 360-365.

Blocher, D. H. (1978). Campus learning environments and the ecology of student development. In J. H. Banning (Ed.), *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs* (pp. 17-23). Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Delworth, U., & Piel, E. (1978). Students and their institutions: An interactive perspective. In A. Parker (Ed.), *Encouraging development in college students*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Gertner, D.M. (1991). Men and student development: Emerging notions from the perspective of campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 9*(1), 1-4.

Hurst, J. C. (1987). Student development and campus ecology: A rapprochement. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 5-17.

Oetting, E. R. (1967). Developmental definitions of counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 14*(4), 382-385.

Rodgers, R. F. (1990). An integration of campus ecology and student development: The Olentangy project. In D. Creamer (Ed.), *College student development* (pp. 155-180). Alexandria, VA: American College Personnel Association.

Sorenson, D. M. (1987). The journey is the reality: Developmental-ecological programming at Brigham Young University. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 38-44.

Sullivan, C. E. (1987). Developmental, ecological theories and wellness approaches: A synthesis for student life programming. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 18-27.

CAMPUS ECOLOGY AND CAMPUS PROGRAMS

The scholarship presented in this section pertains to the application of the campus ecology perspective within particular organizational settings on the college and university campus. Various methodologies including the ecosystem model and the use of ethnographies are used to evaluate the campus ecology of specific programs, offices, and residential living environments. While this material focuses upon particular campus programs, the strategies for assessment presented within the literature can be applied to other campus programs and organizational settings.

Administrative Programs

Banning, J. H. (1995). Ecological thinking and moral behavior in student affairs organizations: Importance of feminist leadership. *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs, 4*, 2-7.

Hurst, J. C., & Ragle, J. D. (1979). Application of the ecosystem perspective to a dean of student's office. In L. A. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hurst, J. C. (1980). The emergence of student/environmental development as the conceptual foundation for student affairs and some implications for large universities. In D. G. Creamer (Ed.), *Student development in higher education: Theories, practices, and future directions* (pp. 151-163). Cincinnati, OH: American College Personnel Association.

Admissions Programs

Williams, T. E. (1986). Optimizing student institutional fit: An interactive perspective. *College and University, 61*(2), 141-152.

College Union Programs

Banning, J. H., & Cunard, M. (1996). An ecological perspective of buildings and behavior: Implications for the renovation and construction of the college union. *College Services Administration, 19*(4), 38-42.

Banning, J. H. (2000). Brick and mortarboards: How student union buildings learn and teach. *College Services Administration, 23*(3), 16-19.

Counseling Programs

Banning, J. H. (1989). Ecotherapy: A life space application of the ecological perspective. *The Campus Ecologist, 7*(3), 1-3.

Conyne, R. K. (1975). Environmental assessment: Mapping for counselor action. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54*, 151-154.

Conyne, R. K., & Rogers, R. (1977). Psychotherapy as ecological problem solving. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice, 14*(3), 298-305.

Conyne, R. K., Banning, J.H., Clark, R.J., Corazzini, J., Huebner, L., Keating, L., & Wrenn, R. (1979). The campus environment as client: A new direction for college counselors. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 20*, 437-442.

Conyne, R. K. (1985). The counseling ecologist: Helping people and environments. *Counseling and Human Development, 18* (2), 1-11.

Hurst, J. C., & McKinley, D. L. (1988). An ecological diagnostic classification plan. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 66*(5), 228-233.

Morrill, W. H., Oetting, E. R., & Hurst, J. C. (1974). Dimensions of counselor functioning. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52*, 354-359.

O'Halloran, S., & Spooner, S. (1992). Eating disorders and applied campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 10*(3), 1-2.

Tracey, T. J., & Sherry, P. (1984). College student distress as a function of person-environment fit. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 25*(5), 436-442.

Housing Programs

Banning, J. H. (1995). Environmental scanning: Application to college and university housing. *The Journal of College and University Student Housing, 25*(1), 30-34.

Banning, J. H. (1995). Cocooning: A qualitative analysis of the ecology of college housing trends. *The Campus Ecologist, 13*(2), 1-4.

Banning, J. H. & McKelfresh, D. A. (1998). Using photographs of the housing mission statement in staff training. *Talking Stick, 15*(8), 22-24.

Schroeder, C. C., & Freesh, N. (1977). Applying environmental management strategies in residence halls. *NASPA Journal, 15*(1), 51-57.

Schroeder, C. C. (1981). Student development through environmental management. In G. Blimling & J. Schuh (Eds.), *Increasing the educational role of residence halls* (pp. 35-49). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schroeder, C. C., & Jackson, G. S. (1987). Creating conditions for student development in campus living environments. *NASPA Journal, 25*(1), 45-53.

Schuh, J. H. (1979). Assessment and redesign in residence halls. In L. Huebner (Ed.), *Redesigning campus environments* (pp. 23-36). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Wilson, K., & Banning, J. H. (1994). From home to hall: An ecological transition. *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs, 2*, 69-73.

Ombudsman Programs
Hobson-Panico, P., Ahuna, L., & Hobson-Panico, S. (1985). Can ombudsmen influence organizational effectivenss through the practice of campus ecology? *The Campus Ecologist, 3*(4), 1-3.

Outdoor Programs
Banning, J. H., & Burfeind, H. S. (1993). Why ropes courses work: An ecological perspective. *Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs, 2*, 27-31.

CAMPUS ECOLOGY AND CAMPUS ISSUES

The scholarship referenced in this section describes campus ecology as it pertains to different campus issues. In this section the researcher will find both the theoretical and practical application of the campus ecology model, using various methodologies. A large portion of the work listed here deals with the examination of campus artifacts within the environment and their interaction with students. Campus artifacts are believed to send nonverbal messages to the observer, in this case, students. Using photography, much like an anthropologist would to conduct an ethnography, campus artifacts are captured on film to allow an examination of their content, value, and type. This method has been used to examine campus artifacts and their potential messages of sexism and multiculturalism. Relevant journal articles are referenced below.

Campus Activism
Banning, J. H., & McKinley, D. L. (1988). Activism and the campus ecology. In K. M. Miser (Ed.), *Student affairs and campus dissent: Reflections of the past and challenge for the future* (pp. 41-54). Cincinnati, OH: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, Inc.

Campus Diversity

Banning, J. H., & Hughes, B. M. (1986). Designing campus environments with commuter students. *NASPA Journal, 24*(1), 17-24.

Banning, J. H., & Luna, F. C. (1992). Viewing the campus ecology for messages about Hispanic/Latino culture. *The Campus Ecologist, 10*(4), 1-4.

Banning, J. H. (1992). Visual anthropology: Viewing the campus ecology for messages of sexism. *The Campus Ecologist, 10*(1), 1-4.

Gerst, J., & Fonken, M. A. (1995). Homoprejudice within the campus ecology. *The Campus Ecologist, 13*(3), 1-2.

Love, C. T., Banning, J. H., & Kotisiopulos, A. (1998). Visual diversity for a family and consumer science higher education facility. *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences, 90*(3), 52-54.

St.Clair, D. (1994). The drum: Improving the campus ecology for Native American students. *The Campus Ecologist, 12*(2), 1-4.

First Year Students

Banning, J. H. (1989). Impact of college environments on freshman students. In M. L. Upcraft & J. N. Gardner (Eds.), *The freshman year experience* (pp. 53-63). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Student Involvement

Kuh, G. D., & Schuh, J. H. (1991). The ecology of involving colleges. *The Campus Ecologist, 9*(4), 1-3.

Student Outcomes

Baird, L. L. (1976). Structuring the environment to improve outcomes. In O.T.Lenning (Ed.), *New directions for higher education: Improving educational outcomes, 16.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

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SUMMARY

The body of work associated with the campus ecology movement has been presented within a structure that will allow writers and researchers in student affairs to quickly locate needed foundational material. The intention of this article was not to develop a full integration of the campus ecology scholarship, but to bring it together in one place within a conceptual structure. In addition to

providing a "central location" of the student affairs topics that have been addressed from the campus ecology perspective, the user can quickly see there are many topics yet to be addressed from the campus ecology perspective within the field of student affairs.

Of the many potential topics for the future, two important campus issues would be well served by scholarship designed and implemented from a campus ecology perspective. First, understanding the issues surrounding diversity and how to enhance the campus environment's tolerance and celebration of all kinds of differences is critical to today's higher education. Campus ecology grew out of a 1970s era of "activism for change." The passion associated with these times is again called upon to bring about change in the campus ecology that will enhance the growth and well-being of all students.

Second, a very important current movement within the higher education environment is focus on small learning environments. Freshman interest groups, small living learning groups, first-year seminars are all examples of the focus on small learning environments. Again, these efforts would be well served by scholarship that looks at the developmental and cognitive outcomes of these unique "small learning environments." As the researchers of the future move forward on these two topics, as well as others important in the lives of students, it is hoped the resources and the conceptual structure of this article will familiarize them with the significant work associated with campus ecology.

Challenges African American Students Face at Predominantly White Institutions

Mercedes A. Benton

In the twenty-first century, African American (black) students will continue to enroll in predominantly white institutions (PWIs) at greater rates than black students enrolling at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs); yet, if this current trend continues, over half of black students at PWIs will fail to persist and graduate (Allen, 1992). Several factors can facilitate or frustrate African American students who wish to complete a degree at a PWI. PWIs can play a vital role in contributing to the success of their students. HBCUs have found a formula for success in graduating large numbers of black students and PWIs may find that utilizing the HBCU model will lead to significant increases in retention and graduation rates of African American students and reduce the challenges these students face.

The desegregation of public schools with the landmark *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954) decision granted African Americans access to white institutions of higher education. The goal of integration appeared to bestow equal opportunity to blacks to further their education. Moreover, the approaching implementation of desegregation seemed to suggest that African Americans would begin to matriculate speedily and graduate from PWIs at the same or greater rate that they had achieved at HBCUs (Arminio, Carter, Jones, Kruger, Lucas, Washington, Young & Scott, 2000). Prior to 1954, HBCUs housed the majority of black students; by 1973, three-fourths of black students attended PWIs. Despite the increased enrollment of African Americans at PWIs, HBCUs still graduate a disproportionate number of black students in comparison to their historically white counterparts (Allen, 1992; Easley, 1993). What inhibits black college students from fulfilling the goal of integration and what policies and philosophies of PWIs have kept the accessibility of a college degree to a bare minimum for black students?

Arguments have surfaced regarding the inequity in higher education for African American students. In general, black students seem academically, culturally, and economically incompatible with the PWI model of education (Hunt, Schmidt, Hunt, Boyd, & Magoon, 1994). The PWI model caters to individuals

Mercedes A. Benton ('01) currently serves as the Associate Manager for Lory and International House for Apartment Life at Colorado State University.

who academically meet white-created standards, such as high grade point averages and standardized test scores (Delgado, 1998; Easley, 1993; Sedlacek, 1999; Suen, 1983), who have culturally assimilated into mainstream society, and who possess the financial resources to pay for the rising cost of education. In effect, any student who does not identify with the tenets of the dominant paradigm in the United States can potentially struggle at PWIs. To cope with this system, some African American students have developed unique mechanisms to increase their chances of persistence (Kimbrough, Molock, & Walton, 1996), while many others who fail to establish those tools of persistence have fallen short in overcoming the challenges they face at PWIs. Some challenges that many blacks encounter at PWIs are hostile campuses, culturally ignorant students and staff, limited and decreasing economic assistance, lack of black faculty, and cultural alienation and isolation (Easley, 1993; Hawkins, 1989; Nagasawa & Wong, 1999; Taylor, 1989). By classifying and understanding the issues faced by African Americans at PWIs, the United States system of higher education can assist African American students to graduate and participate equally in education today.

THE CHALLENGES

When legally mandated to open their doors, PWIs admitted cultural outsiders with relatively little thought given or action taken to accommodate the 'stranger' (Saddlemire, 1996; Taylor, 1989). With no real change in the PWI model as more blacks were admitted into white institutions, tension between cultures escalated (Taylor, 1989). The unchanging nature of most PWIs conveyed to some that white institutions were superior and students attempting to maneuver through them must conform to the institutional standards rather than evolving standards more appropriate for the needs of a diversifying student body (Taylor, 1989). According to Saddlemire (1996), African American students continue to perceive PWIs as hostile, unsupportive, and unwelcoming. One way that hostility manifests itself at white institutions is through peer culture. Fellow students' negative attitudes about the presence of blacks produces an unfriendly environment for blacks to reside and learn (Saddlemire, 1996).

Faculty and staff aid in constructing an adverse atmosphere for African American students (Kobrak, 1992; Saddlemire, 1996). Some faculty and other front-line college employees maintain elitist attitudes toward education; professors and other staff view their role as research and academically-oriented rather than as a retention agent or facilitator (Kobrak, 1992). The lack of African American faculty and staff also contributes to the problems that African American students face at PWIs (Allen, 1992). Another significant factor in formulating a stressful college climate for African American students is

individual and institutional racism. What black students experience in the classroom with instructors serves as a catalyst for racist behavior by students and other faculty (Kobrak, 1992).

At PWIs, African American students confront ignorance about black culture (Allen, 1992). The curricula, teaching styles, student services, and the campuses in general are tailored to white students (Taylor, 1989). For example, when black students read history books or are taught math, the curriculum is usually derived from a monocultural perspective. Most of the curriculum reflects the dominant culture's perspective and generally excludes nonwhites' cultures and perspectives (Taylor, 1989). Moreover, even when the minority voice is conveyed in the classroom, it is piecemealed into the learning process as a "side dish" to the white American "entrée" (hooks, 1992). Consequently, when non-white students embark on the educational process at PWIs, they are met with indifference because their perspective is not incorporated into the fabric of the university (Easley, 1993).

Ignorance not only plagues PWIs' administrations and staff, but also incubates within majority students. Saddlemire (1996) conducted a qualitative study of white students' attitudes about African Americans. His findings indicated white freshmen had little or no contact with African Americans, yet they harbored negative assumptions about blacks and black culture. These students felt that black students intentionally secluded themselves from whites. Several indicated they rarely interacted with African Americans on their college campus. However, when these students did have positive interactions with black students, it was always stated as an exception. The exceptions that were mentioned were African Americans who culturally identified as white (Saddlemire, 1996). Current literature about white student attitudes regarding African American students is scarce. Although many researchers assume that majority students harbor negative feelings toward black students, the literature is actually inconclusive (Saddlemire, 1996). Although Saddlemire's results are not generalizable, they can help people realize the kinds of attitudes white students have towards blacks.

Understanding the frame of reference that many black students come from may shed light on their current situation in higher education. In comparison to white students, African American students have parents that generally live in urban areas, acquire fewer educational degrees, labor in lower status jobs, make less money, and divorce more often (Allen, 1992; Leslie & Brinkman, 1988). Furthermore, black students at PWIs have higher attrition rates, poorer academic performance, and are less likely to pursue graduate degrees than white students (Allen, 1992).

A key component in comprehending African American culture is understanding how blacks generally fashion their cultural values and beliefs. Often, African Americans who attend PWIs are accused of self-segregating (Stewart, Russell, & Wright, 1997). However, what is seen as separation can be interpreted as a coping mechanism. African Americans tend to construct their social values more from a family or group orientation (Kimbrough, R. M., Molock, S. D., & Walton, K., 1996; Thompson & Fretz, 1991) than other ethnic groups. Hence, when black students enter a PWI which possesses an invalidating and hostile environment, some blacks resort to their social values and seek out other black students to create allies amidst opposition (Fleming, 1984). Thus, white students and staff assist in creating an atmosphere where feelings of alienation, marginalization, and isolation are common among blacks who then find it necessary to establish their own social networks (Allen, 1992; Nagasawa & Wong, 1999; Willie & McCord, 1972). These social outlets include black student unions, historically black fraternities and sororities, and other such organizations (Culbert, 1988; Kimbrough et al., 1996). The genesis of many of these black organizations stemmed from exclusion from the larger campus community (Williams, 1994).

An additional facet of black life at PWIs entails the duality of black students' existence. Dubois (1965) pointed out that African Americans must not only look at society through their own eyes, but also they must look at it through the majority culture's eyes in order to survive in the majority-dominated society. Black college students must be able to balance both cultural worlds (Kimbrough, R. M., Molock, S. D., & Walton, K., 1996; Thompson & Fretz, 1991). However, some students would be labeled 'black' in societal terms, but do not identify easily with black culture. These students are not the individuals that the research studies. The problem arises when black students who wish to retain their cultural identity struggle to operate successfully in a predominantly different culture without being marginalized.

PAST SUCCESS: LOOKING AT THE HBCU MODEL

Poor campus climate, attitudes of indifference, ignorance, and other issues all emerge as challenges that African Americans deal with at PWIs. However, PWIs have been touted and assumed to be the best places for black student development (Allen, 1992; Fleming, 1984). A negative stigma clouds the success of HBCUs (Lang, 1994). In terms of prestige and values in this society, degrees from PWIs seem to carry more clout than degrees from HBCUs (Lang, 1994). Despite this notion, blacks who have successfully completed degrees from black colleges have gone on to lead successful lives. The continued

dominance of HBCUs in graduating proportionately more black students is significant (Lang, 1994). The model that HBCUs utilize appears to be a successful formula for black student graduation that PWIs could learn from and adapt (Robinson, 1990).

In the HBCU model, colleges attempt to educate and graduate all students who are admitted. Financial disadvantage, low SAT or ACT scores, or mediocre high school grade point averages do not always hinder HBCUs from admitting students (Robinson, 1990). The HBCU philosophy asserts that they take students where they are and help them get to where they need to be. On the other hand, PWIs generally look for just "the best and the brightest" and weed out students that cannot meet the standards. Black students that attend HBCUs have significant identity development advantages over their counterparts at PWIs (Lang, 1994). Some of these benefits are that African American students at HBCUs are more psychologically adjusted, perform better academically, and have a better sense of their cultural identity (Allen 1992).

CONCLUSION: ACTION PLAN FOR PWI'S

There are various factors that affect any student's ability to successfully complete a college degree. In terms of African American students attending PWIs, unique challenges have continued to stifle the numbers of black graduates at PWIs. These challenges range from hostile environments to societal issues. Given the HBCU model, concrete strategies can be used to eradicate some of the obstacles that blacks encounter at PWIs.

One of the major challenges for African American students is the campus environment. Human development models suggest that humans develop best in surroundings where they are valued, feel safe and accepted, and have social networks (Allen, 1992). Currently, PWIs fail to provide black students with an environment that values them on a consistent basis. Recruitment of black students to some PWIs is a purely cosmetic endeavor (Hawkins, 1989). Some African American students believe they are getting a cruise boat with all the fixings because PWIs imply they have many black students or substantial services for students of color. However, when black students step foot on predominantly white campuses, they get a tiny tugboat, like black student services being located in an obscure place and very few black students in attendance. Because PWIs possess the ability to empower individuals through education, the people they employ must recognize they have the power to facilitate or frustrate student success. With that in mind, PWIs need to consciously reevaluate the campus environment in which students learn and grow. For PWIs to realistically provide education and service to the entire

student population, a commitment to diversity must come from the highest administrator (D'Augelli & Hershberger, 1993). Predominantly white institutions should judge the worth of college as more than an academic function. Teacher-student relations can promote a healthier climate; African American students need those relationships because they can ultimately determine a student's academic success (Kobrak, 1992). Moreover, colleges need to take deliberate steps to understand why African American students are not succeeding and devise plans to encourage success.

The lack of success of African American college students at PWIs points to a larger societal issue. To totally understand the predicament of African American students at PWIs, there must be comprehension of the plight of blacks in the United States (Allen, 1992). Black students undoubtedly face challenges at PWIs. There are concrete solutions to help ease the problem. Hiring black faculty and staff (Karpinski, 1996), providing support services that target black students, implementing cultural and social services, and devising comprehensive retention plans all will be steps that can facilitate black student achievement at PWIs (Arminio et al, 2000).

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Throwing a Pebble Into the Pond: The Impact of the President's Leadership Program on Students' Ethical Leadership Development

Laura L. Dicke

The purpose of this qualitative, phenomenological study was to explore the impact of Colorado State University's President's Leadership Program on students' ethical leadership development. Specifically, the intent was to capture the essence of the phenomenon of how the Program impacted students' understanding of ethics, and of the relationship between personal ethical development and leadership. Five themes emerged from the obtained information: (1) defining ethics, (2) influences on ethical leadership development, (3) ethics and leadership, (4) challenges in embracing an ethical code, and (5) the impact of the President's Leadership Program. Sub themes emerged within each of the five themes.

Many Americans are concerned about the type of standards being set for and the messages being sent to people of all ages in the United States today. Issues such as youth violence and crime, drug and alcohol-related incidents, harassment and abuse, and the lack of ethical public figures make it challenging for individuals to develop strong personal ethical codes and values. It has been argued that the use of innovative technology and new inventions are corroding an already foggy ethical landscape (Kidder, 1995). Therefore, higher education institutions are in a critical position to create ethical learning communities that foster appropriate behavior in students.

Although the process of exploring and acquiring personal values begins at an early age, research indicates that traditionally-aged college students often are at a stage of questioning their assumptions of right and wrong, the values they embrace, and the relationship between personal values and ethical action (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). The collegiate environment offers a variety of perspectives and beliefs, a myriad of behavior patterns, and an atmosphere that encourages exploration and risk-taking. Consequently, the inquisitive mind has

Laura Dicke ('99) serves as an Area Coordinator in the Office of Residence Life at John Carroll University, located in University Heights, Ohio. This article is based on a qualitative research study she conducted in 1998-99 for her Master's thesis.

ample opportunity to learn from others, to make individual value choices, and to develop a solid foundation for ethical action.

Having a strong ethical foundation is imperative for the leaders of today and of the future because of the speed and complexity of societal change. Integrity is an essential ingredient for successful leaders. Such leaders are, and will continue to be, faced with a diversity of issues reflective of changing racial, ethnic, and cultural patterns, religious beliefs, and gender ratios that will call on their ability to make fair and ethical decisions.

Effective leadership programs that include an ethical leadership component provide incredible opportunities to prepare students for the future by promoting their development of strong personal ethical codes. The unique experiential nature of being in a leadership program can create an atmosphere conducive to exploring, validating, sharing, and learning from one another. Students can learn necessary skills and recognize personal talents, gain an awareness and appreciation of others, and become better equipped to handle the challenges associated with holding positions of leadership and influence.

Little research exists on the impact of leadership programs on students' development as ethical leaders. This qualitative study explored the impact of Colorado State University's President's Leadership Program on students' ethical leadership development. By exploring this phenomenon through the participants' voices, an added depth of understanding was acquired to augment the current body of knowledge. This examination resulted in the students' definitions of ethics, the influences on their development, the challenges they face, and their thoughts on the relationship between ethics and leadership.

THE PRESIDENT'S LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

Colorado State University's President's Leadership Program (PLP) is a purposefully designed, interactive program for undergraduate students who want to develop leadership skills and explore personal values. There are five components to the PLP: (1) a year-long class that meets once each week for three hours, (2) a leadership retreat held in the Fall semester, (3) a cross-cultural communications retreat held in the Spring semester, (4) the opportunity to develop a mentoring relationship with a professional in the campus or local community, and (5) a service learning project developed and decided on by the students in the class. All of these components create a unique experience that challenges students to examine and evaluate themselves, helps them to create the life-long skills that are needed to succeed in our world, and provides an

opportunity to be part of a diverse team of students with varying perspectives, beliefs, and values (Colorado State University, 1998).

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative, phenomenological methodology was chosen for this study because the purpose was to determine how something happened, rather than determine the outcomes or results. This study attempted to capture the essence of the participants' experience in the President's Leadership Program through rich description and personal stories.

Three selection phases existed in this study. The first phase, which took place prior to the start of this study, involved the selection of students for participation in the PLP through a personal application and interview process. The second phase consisted of the observation of 22 Program participants in class discussions and activities during the Fall 1998 semester, including a review of their end-of-the-semester reflection papers. Four 90-minute focus groups, conducted by the researcher, comprised the third phase of this study. An intensity sampling strategy comprised of "information-rich" participants was utilized (Patton, 1990); the researcher formed a selection panel of individuals who were familiar with both the PLP and the topic of ethics to recommend 16 focus group participants. Fourteen students actually participated in one of the four focus group sessions, which took place during the month of December.

All of the focus group sessions were transcribed and analysis of the data was performed using the grounded theory method of coding (Creswell, 1998). Issues of validity and reliability were addressed through the use of several verification strategies for increasing trustworthiness including: clarification of the researcher's bias; triangulation, the method of obtaining various types of data; keeping a reflective journal; peer examinations; and maintaining an audit trail (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

FINDINGS

Drop a pebble in the water: just a splash and it is gone;
But there's half-a-hundred ripples circling on and on and on
Spreading – spreading from the centre, flowing on out to the sea
And there is no way of telling where the end is going to be.

(Author Unknown, cited in Pearse & McCutcheon, 1987, p. 5)

Morris and Pai stated, "Just as a pebble thrown into a pond produced wider and wider concentric circles of effect on the pond's surface, so likewise does a human act produce wider and wider effects as the products of this act flow into the community" (as cited in Brock, 1991, p. 58). This analogy initially was identified during the researcher's review of literature. Both Morris and Pai (as cited in Brock, 1991) and Boatman (1992) described the impact the process of gaining an awareness of personal values and ethical actions can have on the greater community, the society, and the world. When the data analysis process began, the researcher determined that this analogy and the poem shared at the beginning of this section were appropriate and accurate for this study because of how many students continually discussed how their thoughts and actions were impacted by the thoughts and actions of another.

The impact of a variety of influences on the participants' development clearly was evident throughout the PLP's class sessions and during all four of the focus group sessions. The participants continually identified that their upbringing, their life experiences, and society had, and continue to have, a substantial impact on their personal values and ethical actions. Indeed, one cannot overlook how a single kind act often produces many kind acts, resulting in a ripple of positive reinforcement, an awakening of human spirit, and a far-spread inspiration to brighten the lives of others. The pebble analogy and the poem paint a picture that captures this phenomenon beautifully.

The Themes
Five themes emerged from the obtained information: (1) defining ethics, (2) influences on ethical leadership development, (3) ethics and leadership, (4) challenges in embracing an ethical code, and (5) the impact of the President's Leadership Program. Sub-themes emerged within each of the five themes.

Defining Ethics
The derivative of ethics is "ethos" from the Greek words, "character" and "sentiment of the community" (Toffler, cited in Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998, p. 88). Other definitions of ethics include "rules or standards that govern behaviors," (Toffler, as cited in Komives, et al., 1998, p. 88) and "the principles of conduct governing an individual or a profession" (Shea, as cited in Komives, et al., 1998, p. 88). Despite the seemingly simplistic words, the participants in this study had difficulty defining ethics for themselves.

At first, the PLP participants and the focus group participants struggled to provide a framework and offered little concrete information regarding their personal ethical codes. Instead, the students discussed the complexity of ethics, stating that defining ethics can be confusing and broad due to the variety of interpretations individuals have, that individual values often conflict with one

another in different situations, and that values evolve and change as one grows older and interacts with others throughout his or her life. These findings mirror the findings of many authors including Boatman (1990), Boller (n.d.), Wueste (1990), and Simon, Howe, & Kirschenbaum (1995), who discussed how the myriad of choices and behavior patterns that confront individuals in today's diverse society make the act of choosing which values to embrace infinitely more difficult.

Additionally, it is well known that the collegiate experience presents an array of behaviors, values, and beliefs for students to choose from. College students travel through various developmental stages, facing many new experiences that challenge their personal values. This journey includes thoughtful consideration of personal values, an exploration of personal and societal influences, and, finally, the confident demonstration of personal values in ethical actions (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Perry, as cited in King, 1978; & Kohlberg, as cited in Smith, 1978). The growth process is not easy. Students may become confused and unsure of themselves and those around them. Many times the confusion can result in developmental delays, thus inhibiting students' abilities to affirm and to communicate the values they personally embrace (Perry, as cited in King, 1978).

Although guiding values are among the hardest concepts for individuals to articulate, the students' immediate inability to define ethics was somewhat surprising. Their struggle in identifying personal values and definitions of ethics poses an interesting question for student affairs administrators: Is the expectation of students' developmental level too high? Perhaps interventions designed to stimulate ethical awareness need to provide opportunities for extensive values clarification, including an exploration of students' life experiences, how their experiences and their interactions with others have shaped their values, and a philosophical discussion about the definition of ethics. These pieces often are overlooked, forgetting that the clarification of values is an integral component of successful leadership practice.

When encouraged to further explore and reflect on their personal definition of ethics, the students were able to identify that ethics relate to personal values, understanding the difference between right and wrong when making decisions, and remaining true to personally embraced values. Both the focus group and the class participants identified a similar list of values including integrity, family, love, respect, and benefitting others.

Influences on Ethical Leadership Development
The students identified a variety of influences on their ethical leadership development. Two broad sub-themes emerged: internal and external forces. Four out of the fourteen participants identified that their internal guide provides them with a "check point" for consistency, integrity, and appropriate behavior. Although these internal feelings were an important force for four out of the fourteen participants, little information was found in the literature beyond the idea that personal values and beliefs guide individuals in making decisions. Perhaps more research needs to take place on the influence of intuition on personal decision-making.

The external forces students identified included parents and family; life experiences; others, such as bosses and teachers; spirituality; society; and environment. Overwhelmingly, the students identified their parents and their families as the primary influences on their ethical leadership development. The students discussed the important role their parents and extended family members had on their exploration and assimilation of values, claiming that they set a positive example for ethical living. Students also discussed the challenges and personal growth opportunities associated with life experiences, recognizing that they were, and will continue to be, an integral influence on their development.

The influence of others, spirituality, and societal and environmental standards cannot be overlooked. Most interesting were the conversations regarding the conflicting messages transmitted through unethical famous figures. Although the students easily could identify ethical role models in their personal lives, naming ethical societal role models proved to be a substantial challenge. This challenge made the participants feel uncomfortable and uneasy, often resulting in a discussion about how, unfortunately, it is possible to be a leader without ethics.

These findings parallel the literature. The exploration and acquisition of values begins at an early age. Personal values are the product of self-exploration, background and experiences, and interactions with peers and role models (Boatman, 1990). This process can be challenging, however, especially in today's fast-paced, complex world. The literature consistently points to heightened levels of crime and abuse, graphic images on television, poor role models in Washington, D.C., the breakdown of the traditional family, and new technology and inventions as sending mixed-messages to today's citizens, thus making it difficult for individuals to build a positive foundation for ethical living (Bennett; 1998; Dosick, 1995: Flint, 1997; Wood, 1994; and Ziglar, 1985).

It is imperative that student affairs administrators "model the way." They must lead by example, by setting high standards for personal and professional

integrity, and by demonstrating consistency between their behavior and personal and organizational values. Kouzes and Posner (as cited in Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R., 1998) stated that what one stands for "provides a prism through which all behavior is ultimately viewed" (p. 92). The impact for influence always should be at the forefront of student affairs administrators' minds.

Ethics and Leadership

Without a commitment to doing the right thing or a sound code of ethical standards, leadership cannot emerge.   Although some argue that the phrase "ethical leadership" is redundant because leadership cannot be experienced without an element of ethics, we feel that leadership that lacks ethical behavior and actions is anything but leadership. (Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R., 1998, p. 91).

Consistent with the work of Boatman and Adams (1992), Grace (1996), and Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (1998), when discussing the relationship between personal values and successful leadership, students suggested that they are inextricably woven together. The importance of having a strong understanding of internalized values and consistently demonstrating them was central to this discussion. The students mentioned how these values guide successful ethical decision-making and how they provide a foundation for positive role modeling and ethical action.

The students also identified that ethical leaders embrace values that focus on relationships, similar to the literature written by Grace (1996) and Burn's (as cited in Boatman & Adams, 1992) concept of transformational leadership. The students believed that ethical leaders appreciate differences and have an open mind, and that they treat everyone equally, by being inclusive and sensitive to individual needs and goals. Additionally, setting an example for others by demonstrated values in action, making a difference in others' lives, making thoughtful decisions, and learning from mistakes were identified as characteristics of ethical leaders.

Representing others without compromising personal values was the fourth sub-theme that emerged from the students' discussions about the relationship between personal values and ethical leadership. The students mentioned a potential struggle for ethical leaders, identifying both the importance of being true to personal values and of representing the interests of the group or organization with whom the leader is working. No literature was found on this concept.

Challenges in Embracing an Ethical Code

A theme emerged as a result of the students' identification of challenges associated with embracing a personal ethical code. The students discussed how people face day-to-day challenges, that living with integrity can be difficult, and that working with people's differing values can be a struggle. These challenges also have been identified in the literature.

The students suggested coping techniques for dealing with ethical challenges including: using challenges as chances for implementing change, finding balance in your life to make facing challenges easier, and considering them as "positive challenges" for growth and learning. No techniques for coping with ethical challenges were found in the literature review. Consequently, student affairs administrators are encouraged to provide students with some of the published frameworks and ethical checklists for making ethical decisions. Blanchard and Peale (1988) and Kitchener (as cited in Shellogg, Daniell, & Goodstein, 1988) provide such models.

The Impact of the President's Leadership Program

The PLP overwhelmingly was identified as an enriching educational experience. It was described as impactful, both on a personal and on a leadership level, and as a unique opportunity for personal growth and exploration. The students also identified that they were gaining many of the critical skills necessary to be ethical leaders.

Specifically, the students discussed how the PLP helped them to gain an awareness and appreciation of differences, how they have had the opportunity to explore and affirm personal values while learning from and assimilating the values of others, and that what they have learned from participating in the Program has inspired them to lead by example. Clearly, the PLP is teaching students the theoretical and practical concepts critical to effective ethical leadership.

The PLP's strengths lie in its experiential nature, the supportive and safe atmosphere created by both the participants and the facilitators, and the diversity of participants – by ethnicity, age, gender, majors and career tracks, sexual orientation, ability, personal experiences, religion, and personal values. Additionally, the formal and informal opportunities for students to participate in a cross-cultural communication retreat, to get to know each other on a deep personal level, to plan and conduct a service project of the group's choosing, to create a relationship with a mentor from either the University or the surrounding community, and to personally explore, reflect, and grow, offer a wealth of practical information that may not otherwise have been obtained during their collegiate   experience.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The President's Leadership Program does contain all of the necessary leadership competency components identified by Caruso (cited in McIntire, 1989), Gregory and Britt (1987), and Romano and Hanish (1992). However, specific recommendations related to values clarification and ethical leadership development can be made for the PLP and other similar programs happening across the country, based on the literature and the findings of this study.

The first recommendation pertains to personal reflection. Through their end-of-the-semester reflection papers, the students demonstrated true emotion, understanding, and revelation regarding their ethical leadership development. Students should be encouraged, if not required, to keep a journal specifically related to their development as leaders, and on how weekly story telling, individual/group activities, and awareness of themselves and others, will aid in their ability to serve as ethical leaders. Examples of reflection questions are: How will they handle the ethical dilemmas they face in the future? What did they learn from those around them? How will they apply that learning in their daily living? What is their personal statement of ethical principles? What would make that statement evolve and change?

The second recommendation specifically refers to values clarification and exploration class sessions. The intentional use of values clarification strategies and exercises can help students to demonstrate personal commitments, goals, and values, to consider alternatives before making decisions, and to act according to personal beliefs and values (Sommers, 1993; Raths, cited in Simon, et al., 1995). Assuming ethics truly is at the heart of leadership, values clarification exercises, including class discussions and activities, theoretical constructs, and personal reflection, should be infused throughout the entire curriculum. Examples of values clarification activities and exercises that could be utilized include:

(1)   Ropes courses often are used for teambuilding purposes, but they also can serve as a method of teaching ethical leadership development. Students can explore through ropes course experiences how risk taking, culture shaping, trust, integrity, honesty, and understanding the wants and needs of others, specifically relates to ethical leadership (Cosgrove, 1988).

(2)   Strong arguments exist for the benefits of service learning as an integral part of ethical leadership development because these activities give students a broader worldview and a wider perspective. Having the opportunity to confirm personal values by turning ethical reasoning into ethical action enables students to turn the philosophical into the practical (Grace, 1996). Purposeful discussions on local, national, and

(3)   global citizenry, the interconnectedness of today's world, and the substantial opportunity for positive impact encourage the personal examination of civic responsibility and ethical leadership. Harmin (1990) suggested the use of four teaching tools for assisting students with ethical leadership development: (1) beginning class sessions with new or good news in students' personal lives, which will help students get to know and to appreciate one another; (2) having community assessment time, which will help students share responsibility for their class experience by asking them to assess how they are doing as a group and how they can better achieve their individual and group goals; (3) encouraging ethical awareness and ethical acts, by having students report on good deeds of which they are aware; and (4) having an opportunity for "intuition checking." Intuition checking reminds students that they always can enlist the help of an often forgotten form of intelligence, their "inner wisdom bubble," when rational thought processes cannot be utilized in a particular situation.

(4)   There are many games that can help students engage in personal values exploration such as "A Question of Scruples," manufactured by Milton Bradley, and "Where Do You Draw the Line," manufactured by Simile II. Both of these games help students focus their energy on ethical leadership development by posing ethical dilemmas designed to stimulate critical thinking and ethical judgments relevant to college students in leadership programs. Participants not only have an opportunity to explore why they think and react the way they do, but also they are able to discover what others may think and do in the same situations (Menzies, Mullen, & Plakidas, 1990).

(5)   Students also can be asked to participate in role play exercises, to solve case studies, and to reflect on questions such as the following (both as a group or as an individual): (1) What are your positive and negative beliefs concerning ethical leadership? (2) Think of a national, historical, or local person that you consider to be an ethical leader. What characteristics does this person have that leads you to believe this? Students also can do the same regarding an identified unethical leader. (3) How would you approach someone with whom you interact, either on a personal or organizational level, whom you think is acting unethically? How would you seek to understand that person's beliefs and values? How would you educate them about yours? (4) Think of a time when you, or someone else, served as a transformational leader. How did that feel? What was that experience like for you? How did you, or the individual, inspire others to act with high standards of integrity (Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R., 1998)?

(6)   Lastly, pairing students with mentors and role models are key elements of success. While both provide wonderful learning opportunities for students, there is a difference. For example, mentors are available and approachable, and provide support and guidance whenever needed. They also challenge students to reach their potential, by challenging themselves and experimenting with a variety of styles. Role models provide inspiration for the way students desire to lead and live out their personal values. Both provide students with concrete applications of ethical leadership, and opportunities to see theory in action. Students who desire to be paired with a mentor should be matched in the early stages of a leadership program. This will enable students to gain a more comprehensive understanding of what the mentor does and believes, and ample opportunity to learn from and incorporate newfound ideas, values, and behavior patterns into their daily lives.

The third, and final, recommendation is offered as a suggested framework of facilitator responsibilities. When encouraging students to develop ethical leadership characteristics, Boller (n.d.) suggested that effective facilitators: (1) are accepting and nonjudgmental; (2) encourage diversity, and realize that there is no absolute right or wrong answers to another's values questions; (3) respect the individuals' choice to participate or not; (4) respect the individuals' responses, without attempting to impart personal values on them; (5) encourage each person to participate with honesty and authenticity; (6) listen and raise clarifying questions with students; (7) avoid questions that may threaten or limit the thinking process; and (8) raise questions of both personal and societal concern.

FINAL THOUGHTS

Colorado State University's President's Leadership Program is unique. It sends students on a personal soul-searching journey, ignites sparks of excitement and enthusiasm, and inspires students to become transformational leaders. In this regard, the PLP truly represents a pebble that has been thrown into a pond. A pebble thrown into a pond creates ripples that effect that pond's surface and spread a great distance. In the same regard, the impact of the knowledge, understanding, and appreciation gained by these students' experiences in the PLP will have a positive, and lasting, effect on the community, the society, and maybe even the world. Consequently, it is crucial for student affairs professionals to continue to provide similar leadership programs that create this kind of "ripple effect" for students across the nation.

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He Said/She Said: The Legal Issues
Surrounding Sexual Assault on Campus

Keith Edwards & Heather S. Gasser

Managing claims of sexual assault can be one of the most challenging issues, both intellectually and emotionally, for members of the student affairs staff. Recent legislation and legal precedent have noticeably altered the responsibilities and limitations facing employees of colleges and universities. How are issues such as due process rights, privacy rights, and liability implemented with genuine care and concern for alleged victims and with ethical and fair treatment of alleged perpetrators? The authors conclude with recommendations for reporting standards, victim assistance, and adjudication.

Some of the pleasures of working in higher education include the personal connections and opportunities to impact and empower students on campus. Through advising a student organization, supervising residence hall staff, or conducting a judicial hearing, many opportunities arise for staff to connect with and serve as mentors to students. As trusted individuals and mentors, student affairs professionals working directly with students often share in not only the students joys, successes, and triumphs, but also their pains, failures, and negative experiences.

While many professionals are working to create positive and healthy communities, sexual assaults negatively impact the safe college environment. Unfortunately, incidents of sexual assault are not rare on college and university campuses. While the authors acknowledge that sexual assaults do occur between people of the same gender and that men are victims of sexual assaults perpetrated by women, this article will focus on sexual assaults in which the alleged perpetrator is male and the alleged victim is female. In 1985, Mary Koss (1988) studied sexual assault by interviewing approximately 3,000 female and 3,000 male students at thirty-two higher education institutions. According to the data Koss (1988) gathered, one in four women had been a victim of sexual assault and eighty-four percent of these victims knew her attacker. The possibility that twenty-five percent of the female population at colleges and

Keith Edwards ('00) is currently a Complex Coordinator with the Office of Residence Life at the University of Delaware. Heather S. Gasser ('00) is currently an Assistant Director of Student Life Programs at Indiana State University.

universities has or will likely face a sexual assault before graduation is alarming to parents, students, and especially to student affairs administrators. In 1999, *The Chronicle of Higher Education* reported that in 1997 there were 1,053 forcible sex offenses reported on campuses in the United States (http://chronicle.com/free/v45/i38/stats/1year .htm, 1999). These statistics prompted an in-depth analysis of the legal issues that student affairs professionals face when confronting incidents of sexual assault.

HISTORY AND CONTEXT

The concept of sexual assault on college campuses has evolved over the past thirty years. Previously, "rape" was typically defined as a violent sexual assault by a stranger. In the 1970s, date or acquaintance rape began to be recognized in academic and feminist circles as a form of sexual assault. Unwanted sex after a consensual date or even previous sexual interaction was recognized by feminists and academics as "sexual assault," but not by society as a whole. Women, now more comfortable with asserting their rights against a stranger, were reluctant to be accused of giving mixed signals and facing a "he said - she said" argument, which often included blaming the victim. In the 1980s, while college administrators and students more readily accepted date rape as a crime comparable to sexual assault, feminists began to include other situations under the category of sexual assault. For example, sex under the influence, even though it may have been consensual at the time, was introduced as a form of rape or sexual assault (Fossey and Smith, 1995).

Given recent legislation, philosophical changes, and increased levels of crime nationwide, higher education's response to sexual assault has evolved over the last several decades. The outcome of legal cases, as well as the introduction of new government statutes and laws, dictates the response required of higher education administrators, at both public and private institutions. Victims of violent crimes that occur on campus are treated with a very serious response because of the potential impact a legal case could have on the institution.

The beginning of institutional legal liability for crimes on campus lies in the philosophy of *in loco parentis*. A commonplace doctrine in American higher education through the 1970s, *in loco parentis* (loosely translated from Latin to mean in place of the parents) permitted colleges and universities to exert almost limitless authority over the students' lives. Beginning in the 1940s with the G.I. Bill, colleges and universities started to realize that an *in loco parentis* relationship with students was no longer relevant or needed. The emergence of the student veteran, the loosening of the educational pattern (going directly to

college after high school), and the increase in the age of the average student all contributed to the breakdown of *in loco parentis* (Kaplin & Lee, 1995).

Recently, the courts have struggled to impose liability on institutions for negligence based on the duty of a special relationship, established by *in loco parentis*. The courts in *Bradshaw v. Rawlins* (1979) and *University of Denver v. Whitlock* (1987) decided that institutional liability cannot be based on the *in loco parentis* doctrine because universities today have no duty to shield their students from the dangerous activities of other students (Kaplin & Lee, 1995). However, as the cases described below will prove, the courts have imposed a duty of protection from and prevention of campus crime if it is reasonably foreseeable. This is evident in the courts' decision in *Nero v. Kansas State University* (1993), as well as in *Mullins v. Pine Manor* (1983). These cases show that *in loco parentis* is not completely obsolete. The opposite extreme of *in loco parentis*, or a completely hands off approach, is equally unsettling. Snow and Thro (1994) state "in the face of increasing violent crime on campuses in the past few years, students, parents, and lawmakers have been strong and vociferous advocates of expansion of institutional responsibility for harm to persons in the campus community, particularly in proprietary areas" (p. 543).

LEGAL PRECEDENTS OF INSTITUTIONAL LIABILITY FOR SEXUAL ASSAULT ON CAMPUS

The societal acceptance of rape and sexual assault as crimes has provided more opportunities for victims to confront their perpetrators in court. In addition to the case against the attacker, recent civil cases involving sexual assaults occurring on campus increasingly have found colleges and universities liable for the harm done to victims *(Peterson v. San Francisco Community College District*, 1984; *Mullins v. Pine Manor*, 1983; *Nero v. Kansas State University*, 1993). The courts have said that institutions owe students a duty to take reasonable precautions against foreseeable dangers, and to provide a reasonably safe environment for their students and employees (Bhirdo, 1989). A breach of that duty resulting in a sexual assault on campus could subject colleges and universities to incur liability, potentially resulting in monetary damages owed to the victim. The following brief case descriptions illustrate the legal precedent on which institutional liability claims could be based.

The 1984 California Supreme Court case of *Peterson v. San Francisco Community College District* found that the college breached its duty of reasonable care because the parking lot, in which the sexual assault occurred, was poorly lit and surrounded by thick foliage. In addition, the college was

aware of previous assaults occurring in the lot yet had failed to warn students of the potential danger.

In *Mullins v. Pine Manor College* (1983), the court held that the college had a duty of care based on two theories: "residential colleges have a general legal duty to exercise due care in providing campus security," and that a "duty voluntarily assumed must be performed with due care" (Kaplin & Lee, 1995, p. 259). The *Mullins* court held that parents, students, faculty, and the general community, because the steps taken by the university to protect the campus (hiring security guards, fencing in the campus), had an "enforceable expectation that reasonable care would be exercised to protect resident students from foreseeable harm" (Fossey & Smith, 1996, p. 33).

In *Nero v. Kansas State University* (1993), the court established the precedent that if a crime is reasonably foreseeable, the institution has a duty to protect its students from harm. At issue was whether Kansas State University had a duty to protect residents of university residence halls and if so, the nature and extent of that duty. The *Nero* court found that liability might be imposed upon a university, at least in part, based upon the unique university-student relationship. While not an insurer of safety, the University has a duty of reasonable care to protect a student against certain dangers, including criminal actions against a student by another student or third party if the criminal act is reasonably foreseeable.

A further issue in this case is the administrator response to Davenport's plea of not guilty of the other assault. The dissent in *Nero* (1993) states that Davenport's sexual advances against Nero were not reasonably foreseeable. As a result of the *Nero* decision, University administrators are confronted with a difficult situation in working with students who enter pleas of "not guilty" in a legal proceeding: is the prudent administrator to assume such students are guilty until proven innocent (Nero v. Kansas State University, 1993)?

In addition to lawsuits filed by victims of assault, there have also been some civil cases brought against colleges and universities by perpetrators of assault. Rulings by many lower courts have stated that students have a property and liberty interest in public education and a binding contract with private institutions (Picozzi, 1987). If a student can prove this interest, then there must be some form of due process before they can be deprived of their rights or breach of contract (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993). In general, the courts (such as in *Steadman v. University of New Hampshire*, 1991) have given state institutions great leeway in interpreting due process. "The problem is that there are no Supreme Court decisions that outline what is expected of universities, for this reason, one has to rely on lower court decisions" (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993, p.

83). Clearly, university administrators must be aware of the legal issues on both sides of sexual assaults.

Incidents of college and university liability to the victim have followed several themes. First, institutions have a responsibility to protect students within the community from foreseeable dangers. Second, colleges and universities have a duty to take extra precautions to warn students of known assaults that have taken place in certain locations. In general, institutions are held to the same standard of care required of landlords to warn tenants of potentially dangerous conditions. An institution's knowledge of a student's previous criminal record, or the institution's geographic location (i.e. an urban area) could impose a greater liability. Civil cases brought by perpetrators against a public college or university primarily involve the deprivation of property or liberty interest (in pursuing an education) or breach of contract without proper due process.

LAWS AND STATUTES AFFECTING CAMPUS POLICIES AND PRACTICES

The increase in court cases affecting institutional liability for sexual assaults occurring on campus has influenced federal legislation. In the last decade, the United States Congress has enacted several laws and statutes mandating the responsibility of colleges and universities to promote and maintain safe campus environments.

The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (Clery Act, 1998), originally known as the "Campus Security Act," is applicable to all public and private institutions of higher education that receive federal student aid. The primary impetus for this legislation was the 1986 rape and murder of Lehigh University student Jeanne Ann Clery while she was asleep in her residence hall room. The Act requires colleges and universities to publicly disclose campus security information. At a minimum, this information must include statistics for seven crime categories (homicide, sex offenses, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson) for the three most recent calendar years and statements of security policies.

Congress amended the security provisions of the original version of the Clery Act, previously known as the Campus Security Act (1990), in 1992 with *The Campus Sexual Assault Victims' Bill of Rights* (the Ramstad Act). The law specifically requires institutions to adopt policies to prevent sex offenses and procedures to clarify the process of dealing with sexual assaults once they have occurred. In addition, it requires colleges and universities to take preventative

measures by promoting campus awareness, prevention, and education of sexual assault through educational programs. The main tenets of the Amendment require schools to support both the alleged victim and the alleged perpetrator of sexual assault (The Clery Act, 1998).

Protection under Federal Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) would require institutions to keep all information involved in disciplinary cases confidential. While it does not specifically address incidents of sexual assault, FERPA, also known as the Buckley Amendment, is relevant in that it requires institutions to respect the privacy of an individual's official educational record. This affects the ability of victims to know the outcome of hearing proceedings. However, the *Ramstad Act* requires both parties to be informed of the outcome of any disciplinary proceedings brought alleging a sexual assault. *The Ramstad Act* specifically states that this is not a violation of FERPA (The Clery Act, 1998).

In summary, current legislation requires colleges and universities to keep accurate records of crime occurring on campus. These statistics must be made available to current and potential students, campus employees, and community members. The legislation also mandates educational programs addressing sexual assault awareness, prevention, and reporting (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993). Colleges and universities also may be required to revise or rewrite their policies and procedures in adjudicating sexual assault.

CURRENT CASES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Through sexual assault awareness workshops on college campuses and increased acceptance of a broader definition of sexual assault, the rate of reporting by victims has increased greatly. However, the personal nature of the crime still makes sexual assault a drastically under-reported crime (Koss, 1988). For university hearing officers, one of the more difficult situations to confront is adjudication of sexual assault. Carefully balancing the rights of the accused and the obligations to the alleged victim present critical due process considerations.

The political climate has swung dramatically in favor of the alleged victim in recent years. Efforts to protect the victim have become the primary focus. As seen in *Nero,* even though the alleged perpetrator had not been convicted criminally, nor had any university disciplinary proceedings been initiated against him, the court claimed the college had a duty and responsibility to protect or warn the victim. This case, in 1993, is indicative of a political climate that is so frustrated with sexual assault on campus that it has swayed the legal expectations of universities to protect the alleged victim even at the expense of

due process and assumption of innocence for the alleged perpetrator. This changing political climate has created a major problem for university officials attempting to respond fairly and objectively to a sexual assault involving students. Current court cases, still undecided at the time this article was written, illustrate the myriad of issues and the lack of clear solutions. The question that remains is, with the increasingly broad definitions of sexual assault, should there be different punishments in campus judicial sanctions or should all sexual misconduct or sexual offenses be dealt with in a similar manner?

Currently pending legal cases against colleges and universities demonstrate the litigious nature of American society (especially toward institutions with "deeper pockets") and the uncertain climate in which institutions of higher education must operate. Many questions as to the proper procedures and policies an institution of higher education should adopt in order to prevent sexual assault on campus remain unsolved. The legal implications of universities and colleges not protecting an alleged victim from foreseeable circumstances have been established. With the added challenge of alleged perpetrators suing institutions of higher education for violating their rights, adjudicating sexual assault allegations with fairness, and respect for due process and privacy continues to test the legal savvy of university officials.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

The aforementioned laws, statutes, and court decisions require institutions of higher education to directly study the effectiveness of their policies and previous programs as well as the fairness of the reporting and adjudication procedures. Civil suits filed against institutions can stem from claims made by either the victim or the defendant. In Table 1, Bohmer & Parrot (1993) outline various civil allegations that could develop from poorly handled sexual assault situations on campus.

The following recommendations focus specifically on the campus response to sexual assault required by the laws, statutes, and court decisions. Institutions of higher education must comply with the legal statutes and act in congruence with various court decisions in order to maintain their federal funding and to avoid civil suits that can negatively impact the financial resources and reputation of an institution.

Table 1
Potential Grounds for Lawsuits Resulting from Campus Sexual Assault

Plaintiff	Defendant	Grounds

Victim	College	Tort Law
		(i) Premises liability claims
		    (a) Landowner - invitee
		    (b) Landlord - tenant
		    (c) Special relationship of college and student
		(ii) Other tort claims
		    (a) Violation of alcohol policies
		    (b) Responsibility to provide safe
		        educational environment
		(iii) Intentional infliction of emotional distress

Victim	College	Contract law (breach of contract to provide safe educational environment)
Victim	College	Civil rights claims
Victim	Assailant	Intentional tort
Victim	Other third parties (e.g., fraternities)	Tort claims (similar to those above against college, depending on circumstances)
Defendant	College	Violation of due process in dealing with campus sexual assault
Defendant	Victim	Defamation, abuse of legal process, intentional infliction of emotional distress
Fraternity	College	Violation of due process in dealing with fraternity

Reporting Statistics to the Department of Justice

The Clery Act mandates that colleges and universities report any crimes of murder, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and sexual offense, both forcible and non-forcible. The U.S. Department of Justice (1992) describes forcible sexual offenses as, "any sexual act directed against another person, forcibly and/or against that person's will: or not forcible or against the person's will where the victim is incapable of giving consent" (p. 21-22). Such crimes need to be reported if there is a degree of certainty that would lead police to conclude the crime did occur, an arrest or a conviction is not necessary. "A written report or complaint seems to be a minimal prerequisite" (Gehring, 1996, p. 23). These statistics only need to be reported once each year, so as to allow time to conduct investigations and determine whether or not it is likely that a crime has been committed (Gehring, 1996). Additionally, the number of murders, forcible rapes, and aggravated assaults that, "manifest evidence of prejudice based on race, religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity" must also be reported (The Clery Act, 1998).

Reporting to Campus Community

The same crimes that must be reported as formal crime statistics to the Department of Justice also must be reported to the campus community if the "campus authorities consider the particular crime to represent a threat to students and employees" (Gehring, 1996, p. 24). Furthermore, notice must be timely, in order to prevent the reoccurrence of similar crimes. Campus administrators are allowed to use reasonable discretion in the timeliness or seriousness of the reports. For example, a robbery would not need to be reported if it was discovered that a student's friend had taken his or her books as a prank. However, the campus would be required to communicate an assault in a parking lot to the campus community, so that students and employees on campus could make informed decisions in an effort to prevent another assault (Gehring, 1996).

The university must report all crimes that are considered a threat and are "reported to campus security authorities as identified under the institution's current campus policies" (The Clery Act, 1998). Campus policies must carefully identify the person(s) to whom students and employees should report crimes. The regulation also includes campus law enforcement and "an official of an institution who has significant responsibility for student and campus activities, but does not have significant counseling responsibilities" as members of the "campus security authorities" (The Clery Act, 1998). Gehring (1996) recommends that institutions identify campus police as the department for all criminal reports and allow that organization to make the decision about what reports go out to the campus community. Beyond The Clery Act, colleges and universities have a duty as landowners to warn students, employees, and others on campus of foreseeable crimes (Nero v. Kansas State University, 1993).

Many institutions encounter a public relations dilemma in reporting data regarding crime on campus. A perception that crime is high on a certain campus could negatively impact that institution's public image and enrollment.

However, any effort to mask crime statistics in an attempt to portray the campus in a favorable light violates the laws outlined previously. Potential and enrolled students, their parents, and other members of the campus community should realize that no aspect of society is crime-free. Even on the most secure campuses, unpreventable crime exists. Any attempts by an institution to represent its campus as free of crime will only undermine internal and external constituencies' trust in universities' crime prevention efforts. Regardless, failure to report the statistics or alert the campus community would be a violation of The Clery Act (Gehring, 1996).

Victim Assistance
Beyond the mandatory reporting requirements, institutions of higher education must also provide information to assist the victim after an assault has occurred. This information must include "both on-and off-campus counseling, mental health, and other victim services as well as a statement that victims have the option to notify law enforcement authorities and that institutional officials will assist victims in contacting local authorities if the victim elects to do so" (Gehring, 1996, p. 26).

Institutions with on-campus medical clinics need to insure that health care professionals are aware of the psychological consequences of sexual assault related trauma as well as the legal obligations outlined above. The health care staff also needs to understand the importance and method of collecting evidence in treating sexual assault cases (Fossey and Smith, 1996).

In the event of a sexual assault accusation, administrators must also accommodate changes in the academic and living arrangements of a student, if alternatives are reasonably available. The regulations are clear; only a request by the alleged victim of a sex offense and reasonable availability are needed to change living or academic situations (The Clery Act, 1998). In academic situations when there is no reasonable alternative, the university is encouraged to promote independent study as a reasonable alternative. Further, as landlords, institutions have a duty to protect the campus from a foreseeable future incident (Gehring, 1996). Given recent court decisions, alleged perpetrators may need to be suspended pending a hearing or at least transferred out of a coed hall to avoid institutional liability (Nero v. Kansas State University, 1993).

Adjudicating Sexual Assault
The Sexual Assault Victim's Bill of Rights Amendment to the The Clery Act outlines both the required policies in responding to a sexual assault, as well as required prevention programs. Universities must have specific procedures detailing "whom to contact, to whom the offense should be reported, and why it is important to preserve evidence" (Gehring, 1996, p. 25). This internal grievance information should also be coupled with information on criminal and civil options (Fossey and Smith, 1996). While the procedures only target students, Gehring (1996) also recommends including university employees in these procedures as well.

For incidents of sexual assault, the regulations require "a clear statement that the accuser and the accused are both entitled to have others present during the hearing" (Gehring, 1996, p. 25). If the current disciplinary hearing procedures do not allow for this, the authors recommend that such procedures be revised or rewritten. It should be made clear to those involved in an alleged sexual assault

that having "others present" does not always indicate attorneys. Institutions are not required by law to allow the presence of an attorney in disciplinary ·proceedings (Gehring, 1996).

Disciplinary procedures need to be clearly outlined and articulated to all of the university staff members who participate in campus judicial proceedings. It is important that all staff members understand their roles, obligations, and limitations. Furthermore, the institution should have a clear policy detailing which sexual assault allegations will be handled internally and which should be referred to the criminal authorities (Fossey and Smith, 1996). Waiting for the outcome of a criminal proceeding, in lieu of conducting a university disciplinary hearing, could put the university in a position of greater limitations and liability (Snow & Thro, 1994).

Colleges and universities must also outline the possible sanctions that may be imposed upon those who commit sexual offenses. Sanctions for sexual assault must be individualized and severe enough to fit the crime. In 1994, the Department of Education issued a notice of probable violation of Title IX to the University of California at Santa Cruz for inadequately suspending a student found responsible of sexual assault. The Department of Education requires universities to place the sanction and a "coded notation indicating the basis of the sanction …on the student's official transcript" for rape, sexual assault, or serious sexual harassment (U.S. Department of Education, 1994, p. 4).
Finally, an institution must include a clear statement that both the accused and the accuser will be informed of the outcome of the hearing. The improper handling of this may result in FERPA violations. However, the legislation states that adherence to this policy is not in violation of FERPA, "only the institution's final determination with respect to the alleged sex offense and any sanction that is imposed against the accused" (The Clery Act, 1998). Gehring (1996) recommends that the institution provide this information in writing along with warning that redisclosure of the information to anyone else without the consent of the accused could result in privacy or civil rights violation claims.

Further Recommendations to Avoid Lawsuits
These recommendations will help institutions avoid possible lawsuits. The following recommendations are made based on Bohmer and Parrot (1993).
*   Adhere to codes of conduct, policies, and procedures strictly, both as they are written and as they have been exercised in the past.
*   Treat both alleged victims and perpetrators with respect.
*   Do not be intimidated by threats of lawsuits by students, parents, or attorneys. Most legal threats do not materialize. Refer such threats to legal counsel.

- If served with papers or contacted by attorneys, refer all communications to legal counsel to avoid making damaging statements or admissions inadvertently.
- Closed hearings should be an option whenever possible.
- Accord both the alleged victim and perpetrator the same rights.

CONCLUSION

Sexual assault on campus can easily be the most emotionally charged situation dealt with by student affairs officers. It is easy to let emotion and bias cloud the adjudication process, especially when administrators know either the alleged victim or alleged assailant. Unfortunately, the mismanagement of sexual assault responses can lead to campus political disruptions and internal and external constituencies' lack of faith in the institution. In addition, the legal ramifications of liability for sexual assault or procedural due process violations can be tremendous. For these reasons, it is important to implement well thought out policies and procedures to refer to when incidents arise. It is especially critical to follow through with such policies and procedure in order to be fair to all involved. These actions will help administrators handle such situations fairly, ethically, and legally, despite the intense and complicated nature of sexual assault.

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Day in the Mountains: International Student Orientation and Cross-Cultural Seminar

Jason A. Kinnear and Wendy S. Stultz

This article discusses a model of cultural orientation for new international students and an intercultural workshop for domestic students, faculty, and staff. Day in the Mountains is a day long retreat held off campus in the mountains near Colorado State University. The history, goals, structure, and outcomes of the program, as well as the importance of the program as a vehicle for community and campus interaction, will be examined in this article. Suggestions are made to improve the effectiveness of the program and ideas are provided for replication on other campuses.

Colorado State University's Office of International Programs has established a unique cross-cultural orientation program for newly arrived international students, domestic students and community members. Day in the Mountains, a cross-cultural retreat, dates back almost 25 years and draws participants from over 90 countries. The Fall 2000 program involved approximately 170 participants. The purpose of the Day in the Mountains program is to examine cultural sensitivity and awareness, break down negative stereotypes, provide an open forum for discussion, and place a value on cultural differences and similarities with a focus on how to translate that value into interpersonal communication situations. The program is designed to provide both domestic and international participants and facilitators an opportunity to discuss transition, culture shock, group and personal identity, and other culturally linked expectations, while concurrently promoting cultural growth opportunities and experiences. The goal of Day in the Mountains is to assist international students with their transition to life in the United States while simultaneously internationalizing the campus and the community by bringing a more global view to the domestic attendees. Holding the retreat off campus establishes a relaxed atmosphere, which improves the group's trust and mutual support, lessens distractions and non-culturally sensitive comments, and increases environmental/ecological awareness among the participants.

Jason A. Kinnear is the Program Coordinator for the Office of International Programs at Colorado State University. Wendy S. Stultz ('02) serves as Program Assistant for the Office of International Programs and Coordinator of the Passport to the World program at Colorado State University.

As a function of the international student advocacy office, Day in the Mountains provides opportunities for international and intercultural involvement, while providing a forum to address miscommunications or misunderstandings. International students often have some trouble adjusting to the culture of the United States. They appreciate meeting and talking with domestic students who are interested in them, their cultures, and other worldviews. The program has contributed to active community involvement and a shared sense of support. By utilizing the skills and views of matriculated international and domestic students, the office not only provides opportunities for leadership and increased cross-cultural understanding and empathy, but also facilitates a close and necessary relationship with the university campus and community. In addition, the program boasts a high participant retention rate among domestic and international graduates who choose to remain in the northern Colorado area, often long after degree programs are completed. Graduates and community members have cited Day in the Mountains and other international programs, offered largely through the cooperation of CSU and the community, as additional reasons to remain in the Fort Collins area.

The authors will examine the history, goals, current and past structures of the Day in the Mountains program and the changes that have been made. They will also examine the initial and continuing need for such a program at Colorado State University and in the surrounding Fort Collins community. As Day in the Mountains has served as a model to be implemented at other institutions, this article will also address philosophical and functional differences through a variety of community driven factors. Also discussed are proposed future developments of the program based on a sustained critique of the Office of International Programs mission statement, the Colorado State University mission statement, the expressed needs of local international community organizations, interviews with past participants, and evaluations conducted at the events, as well as other historical data.

HISTORY

The staff of the Office of International Programs realized a need to provide an addition to the traditional orientation for new international students, one that addressed the students' and staff's specific concerns. These concerns include adaptation skills and cultural norms. Created as a biannual event in 1976 by Jean Griswold, former International Student Coordinator and former Director of International Education at Colorado State University, Day in the Mountains

originally sought to provide a cultural orientation for international students and an intercultural workshop for domestic students and community members. Throughout the years, the structure and content have changed to reflect the changing demographics of the participant population and the changing views of those planning the program. One such structural change was to move to once a year, fall seminar because of inclement weather and a low attendance rate due to a small number of newly arriving international students during the Spring semester. As student populations have continued to grow more diverse and their development has grown more complex, the issues and discussions addressed have needed to be continually reexamined (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Theories concerning cross-cultural adjustment have continued to develop, and the program has been adapted, leading participants in discussions regarding health and counseling, as well as allowing for informal communication time.

PROGRAM GOALS

The goals of Day in the Mountains have remained consistent for the twenty-five years the program has been in existence. The goals of the program are:
- To create a welcoming, open, and non-judgmental environment away from campus for students;
- To provide a forum to discuss cultural similarities and differences, culture shock, intercultural living, community involvement, health and wellness, and other issues that may be important to students;
- To promote student development and stimulate personal growth;
- To facilitate the development of friendships and mentoring relationships;
- To enhance the retention of international students;
- To provide leadership and service opportunities for matriculated international and domestic students who serve as organizers and facilitators for the program;
- To increase student, staff, faculty, and community interaction; and
- To allow students the opportunity to demonstrate their culture through greetings, entertainment, and stories.

STRUCTURE

While the goals of Day in the Mountains have remained constant, the structure of the event has changed often to address the shifting needs of the participants. Day in the Mountains caters to newly arrived international students, community members, Office of International Programs staff, matriculated domestic and international students, and many other Colorado State University personnel. All

new international students are encouraged to attend, though participation is not mandatory. Since the day is focused on intercultural communication, inclusion of the United States perspective is as important as the variety of international perspectives.

Day in the Mountains is held the first weekend after classes begin, allowing students to experience being on campus and attend university classes before they have fully adjusted to the United States and Colorado State University. Most likely, international students have arrived with stereotypes and preconceived notions of communication and life in the United States based on comments from friends, media, and English as a Foreign Language classes (Samovar & Porter, 1997). These notions are bound to be confronted, sometimes disillusioning students, adding to the numerous other issues with which they are dealing, and propelling them to experience culture shock. McCrillis (2000) lists a variety of pressures faced by international students such as familiarity with the campus and city, difficulties with the language, and establishing contacts and friendships, which the authors believe contribute to each student experiencing culture shock. As these students wrestle with their expectations and reality, Day in the Mountains provides support and validation for their feelings. The seminar is structured to discuss these issues and suggest ways to resolve problems.

On the day of the event, participants meet on campus to travel to the event site. Upon arrival, the day begins with breakfast, followed by a welcome session. At this point, participants from the cultural groups represented are assigned to a small group of 13-15 individuals and two facilitators. Cultural differences and gender roles, as well as relational issues between nations, are taken into account when the groups are formed. Through the years, organizers have learned to mix the composition of the groups as much as possible. This mixture not only encourages the participants to communicate only in English, which they will find necessary in classes, but also provides the greatest variety of views and cultures in each small group.

The Office of International Programs recruits participants of the program to be facilitators, creating a group of leaders composed of international and domestic students, staff, and community members. This process occurs during the preceding Spring semester with a one-day training in August. The training focuses on program logistics, cross-cultural communication, and group facilitation skills. Facilitators are urged to include all individuals in their group conversations and interactions and to address the specific needs of their group members.

In addition to small group time, several other sessions are scheduled throughout the day, focusing on various elements such as culture shock/acculturation, the

iceberg analogy of culture, stumbling blocks in intercultural communication (Barna, 1994) and cultural similarities and differences. For example, the iceberg analogy asks participants to think and talk about a list of cultural factors that may appear obvious and visible. However, just as only a small proportion of an iceberg is visible above water, cultural factors might contain different cultural meanings below the surface when history and tradition are taken into consideration. Bennett (1986) explains that there are several stages that a person goes through in developing intercultural sensitivity. These stages include feelings of superiority or inferiority to another culture or person of a different status. Bennett's Model of Intercultural Sensitivity continually lists active discussion and an attempt to understand another person as methods to help individuals grow and question their own worldview.

In past programs, individuals from Colorado State University's Office of International Programs, University Counseling Center, and the Hartshorn Health Center have presented these issues to the entire group of participants at the beginning of the day. One disadvantage to this method of presentation is the difficulty in keeping all participants involved in the discussion. For the Fall 2000 program, the structure of the day was changed to address this problem. These issues were offered as small group presentations, enabling the presenters to have more personal interaction with the participants. While this allowed greater discussion of these important issues, less time was available for the small groups to interact and bond.

Other elements of Day in the Mountains include: lunch, relaxing activities such as a hike, an opportunity to process the day's activities, and entertainment. Before the hike, community members discuss the importance of environmentalism to the ethos of Colorado and how to incorporate environmental awareness into the daily lives of the participants. Tradition for the hike is so strong that participants have been known to hike in the rain and snow. The day concludes with entertainment; students from each of the countries represented sing, dance, or perform skits.

EVALUATION

Traditionally, coordinators of Day in the Mountains have conducted extensive evaluations in order to continually improve the seminar's effectiveness. Evaluations are conducted on the day of the event, as well as several weeks later. The authors of this article assessed these evaluations and conducted interviews with past participants of the program in the hopes of providing recommendations for future programs.

The interview questions and a summary of responses from the 2000 Day in the Mountains included:

1. *Why did you choose to attend Day in the Mountains?* Responses varied, ranging from attendance because of publicity from the Office of International Programs, advice from friends, or to see the mountains.

2. *How important is Day in the Mountains?* Examples included appreciation of the information presented, the ability to establish new friendships, and the chance to learn about other cultures

3. *What would you suggest for future events?* Some suggested to include more time for small group interaction while others wanted more time for hiking and outdoor activities.

4. *If you have been before, which format did you prefer? If you have only attended once, what did you think of this year's format?* Answers were mixed. While most enjoyed the informational aspect of the presentations to the small groups, many lamented the lack of time to develop relationships.

5. *Will you attend again next year? Why or why not?* Most individuals responded that they would attend the event again in the future, with some inquiring about becoming facilitators. Many times, those who said they would not attend again said they were graduating from Colorado State University and would not live in the area.

SUGGESTIONS FOR REPLICATING DAY IN THE MOUNTAINS

Day in the Mountains could easily be replicated on another campus. One of the main goals should be the desire to create an atmosphere of mutual respect and openness that provides the basis for the event. Many other factors, such as community and university support and donations, contribute to the success of the event. Organizers should attempt to utilize the variety of views, experiences, histories and personalities of facilitators and participants. Timing for the event has proven critical to attendance; holding the seminar too early in the semester means that not all students have arrived, too late may prevent them from attending due to homework or other activities. Finally, a location away from the campus setting can be chosen to reflect something important to the local culture. Thus, Day in the Desert or Day in the Park could be just as beneficial and successful.

CONCLUSION

Globalization and internationalization have recently become popular topics among educators, leading to the creation of a focus meeting held by the Carnegie Corporation in January, 2000 (Barker 2000). The current working definitions of an internationalized campus, one with programs of specific area studies, foreign language studies and study abroad, seem limiting and incomplete. The Office of International Programs strives to integrate global competency and understanding throughout all areas within the university. Day in the Mountains brings international and domestic individuals together for a deeper philosophical purpose, allowing each participant an equal opportunity to express their own personal views and those of their nation, while also learning and receiving feedback from others. Within Fort Collins and the Colorado State University environment, events such as Day in the Mountains seems to be a much stronger method of globalization than the indirect knowledge of textbooks or distance learning. In addition, Day in the Mountains simultaneously engages more members of the communities than would otherwise be able to participate in traditional international studies or study abroad programs.

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The Beast Within: An Exploration into Eating Disorders Among College Women

Kerry Knowlton

A pervasive beast lurks on college campuses all over the nation. It is affecting the lives of many, particularly female college students, in devastating capacities. Yet, it remains to be determined just how extensive a problem this beast has become. Research estimates that five to seven percent of this nation's undergraduates are afflicted with the beast (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999). Moreover, the problem remains seemingly masked and unpurged by the public eye. The following article provides a profile of the beast that resides within the body and mind of many college women; the beast is an eating disorder.

A terrible beast has found its place on college campuses. This figurative beast lives, festers, and grows, within the minds and bodies of many female college students. The beast is an eating disorder. College women today are fighting an internal battle with the beast in record numbers (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999). College campuses all over the nation are dealing with women who have this pervasive illness, and the personal paths of destruction that ensue from its existence. To be more proactive in dealing with this "problem that is raging on college campuses" (Hubbard, et al., 1999, p. 54), student affairs professionals must first understand both the college student and the beast that resides within. Although eating disorders can affect males, this article will focus on the adverse effects related to women, who make up the majority of sufferers. The author will profile today's typical female college student with an eating disorder and the issues she faces resulting from the disorder. Additionally, options for campus intervention and treatment measures will be offered.

BACKGROUND

Every fall, eighteen-year olds all over the nation prepare to leave home and embark on their newest life path: college. Most college women, "must adjust to being away from home for the first time, maintain a high level of academic achievement, and adjust to a new social environment" (Ross, Niebling, & Heckert, 1999, p. 313). This transitional time can greatly increase the stress

Kerry Knowlton ('01) currently serves as the Hall Director for Braiden Hall at Colorado State University.

level for female college students. Furthermore, "transitions present young women with challenges that expose both their vulnerabilities and their strengths" (Beeber, 1999, p. 232). In addition, Beeber (1999) theorizes that many women feel a lack of control in their new environment and become susceptible to depression and/or an eating disorder.

Three major categories of eating disorders plague the nation's teens and college students: a) bulimia, identified as bingeing followed by purging; b) anorexia, identified as a pathological fear of weight gain leading to extreme weight loss; and c) binge eating, identified as compulsive overeating (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999). Bulimia involves consuming large quantities of food in a short amount of time, then vomiting or purging, to cleanse the system. In contrast, anorexics literally starve their bodies by fasting, or by eating minimal amounts of food. An estimated five to seven percent of the United States' undergraduates are afflicted with one or more of these eating disorders (Hubbard, et al., 1999), and another 61 percent have displayed eating disordered behaviors (Alexander, 1998). Eating disorder behaviors include "use of laxatives, diuretics, [and] diet pills" and "an intense exercise [routine] for weight control" (Krahn, Kurth,& Nairn, 1996, p. 69), all of which can become very harmful and even fatal. Each disordered behavior perpetuates the beast's strength and decreases the sufferer's own control.

PROFILE OF A STUDENT WITH AN EATING DISORDER

To gain a clearer understanding of female college students who deal with eating disorders, it is useful to have a general profile of this unique population. Whereas, case studies often portray the individuality of specific women suffering from eating disorders in college, the following profile will clarify some fundamental similarities found among many afflicted college women.

A profile of this group entails examining the desires, needs, challenges, and fears of college women while they transition into their new environment. Most first-year students are typically away from home for the first time and may be lacking the support of friends. First-year women are oftentimes thrust into a residence hall or a sorority filled with unfamiliar faces. The pressure to fit in is extraordinary and can leave them with "feelings of loneliness and nervousness, as well as sleeplessness and excessive worrying" (Wright, 1967, p. 372). Excessive worrying coupled with feelings of inadequacy and lack of control can be just what the beast needs to take control. Many of these transitions and their adverse side effects manifest themselves as an eating disorder. Hubbard, et. al. (1999) state that, "college women are away from their families, and there's tremendous pressure to find their way in the world...food is the one thing they

can control" (p. 55). These issues of control are the foundation for an eating disorder and inevitably they shape who the victim becomes.

Who is the female college student with an eating disorder? She is Sara Hunnicut, a "hard-driving popular student who was president and one of three valedictorians of her 1995-96 senior class"(Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999, p. 57). She is the homecoming queen, who at age 20, suffers a heart attack from bulimia complications and laxative use; she is Anna Eidson, who became so homesick she starved herself to have an excuse to go home, and she is literally the girl next door (Hubbard, et. al. 1999). Studies have shown her most likely to be caucasian, from a high socioeconomic status, with many internal conflicts, such as a strive for perfection (Schwitzer, Bergholz, & Dore, 1998). She has been found to display perfectionism, a fragile sense of self, dependency, and a struggle for power (Schwitzer, et. al. 1998). The perfectionist in her tends to strive for the "ideal" body, relationship, and grades, while her fragile sense of self and dependency drive her to feel inadequate (Schwitzer, et. al. 1998).

College is a time when she needs to feel socially accepted, and in her mind, "she needs to be perfect to pass muster"(Johnson, Brems, & Fischer, 1996, p.78), or 'informal social tests' at her sorority, or within her new social circles. She may become depressed and exhibit signs of "low energy, cognitive difficulty, irritability, sad mood, guilt, low self-esteem, social introversion, pessimism, and instrumental helplessness" (Wilcox, & Sattler, 1996, p. 270). She may also reflect "maturity fears"(Alexander, 1998, p. 67), which show her "desire to avoid entering adulthood to remain in the safety of childhood"(p. 270). This fear has been attributed by psychodynamic theorists as being a "factor in the development of eating disorders" (Alexander, 1998, p. 269). These behaviors further push her towards trying to control her body and food intake in order to feel in control of herself (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999).

To further the profile of the female college student with an eating disorder, it is useful to examine her social environment. Many undergraduate women participate as members of sororities, and yet sorority life can have an increased impact on the development of an eating disorder. Specific studies have been conducted with undergraduate women living in sorority houses to examine if factors such as, self-image, persistency of eating disorders, and perceived popularity or 'belonging' within the group have played a role in eating disordered behaviors of members (Alexander, 1998). It was found that sorority women were considered at high risk with regard to eating disorders, because they have to create and maintain an "effective social façade" in addition to meeting certain social expectations (Alexander, 1998, p. 67). For instance, at a large northeastern university sorority house, sandwich bags were disappearing from the kitchen. They were found, full of vomit, hidden in a basement

bathroom. The building's pipes had already been eroded by gallons of stomach acid and needed replacement (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999). In a recent college study, it was found that 80% of the sample's high-frequency purgers were affiliated with a sorority chapter (Meilman, VonHuppel, & Gaylar, 1991). However, it is unclear whether or not women who are attracted to Greek life may be more prone to bulimic behavior, or whether the Greek system pressures women to be body conscious. Other factors may play a heightened role as well.

Studies have shown that external factors, such as: fashion magazines (Turner, Hamilton, & Jacobs, 1997), the media (Rabak-Wagner, Eickoff-Shemek, & Kelly-Vance, 1998), and society (Monteath, & McCabe, 1997), are contributing influences to the body image of teen and college-aged women. Models in popular magazines are unattainably thin and surreal due to standard airbrushing. Most women in the media are slim, fit, and ideally beautiful as perceived by dominant culture. College women and adolescent girls look to these unrealistic portrayals of what it is to be a woman. These pressures, coupled with the stress of being a college student and wanting to fit in, can be tremendous. The beast creeps in.

COLLEGES LOOKING TOWARD THE FUTURE

What can colleges do to address this devastating issue that has been affecting so many women? What actions should universities take to rid the nation's campuses of this beast? There are many options available to college and university administrators.

Many colleges have taken varying measures to arm themselves against the beast and to positively impact the student population. Charles Murfosky, President of the New York City-based American Anorexia Bulimia Association, says: "virtually every college has some kind of program, either a student-run group or treatment options through health services"(Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999, p. 53). A variety of different tools can be utilized in the battle against the beast.

Proactive measures include establishing many contacts with students in order to educate them on the issues of college transitioning and eating disorders. First-year orientation programs are a stepping stone. These programs can include information on eating disorders and some of the major stresses encountered at college pertaining to transition issues. In addition, college campuses can participate in nation-wide screening programs. For instance, "In February, 1998, more than 600 college campuses participated in a National Eating

Disorders Screening Program; of the 26,000 students who [completed] questionnaires, 4,700 were referred for treatment"(Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999, p. 53). Programs that reach out to students can have a positive impact. Almost 20% of the students who completed this national survey were referred for treatment—perhaps continued use of this measure would decrease the percentage in subsequent years. Additionally, this 20% may receive the treatment they need through the referral they receive. The women screened at this program, and the colleges they attend will benefit.

Being informed as a student affairs professional or health center practitioner, is one way to be a better resource for students with eating disorders. Greek life directors should be aware of the studies that indicate the "potential risks of group membership for college women...."(Alexander, 1998, p.72). Furthermore, residence life directors need to be knowledgeable about the specific needs of the eating disordered population in order to create a supportive environment for all students. It is imperative that both directors of residence life and greek life critically look at their organizations and make changes.

Fall and Spring training sessions for staff are a starting point. These sessions should provide in-depth, tangible specifics about eating disorders, what they are, and how they affect the college student population. Additionally, training sessions should paint a picture of what indicates eating disordered behavior, so that administrators and staff members have the insight to notice when one of their students is suffering. Training sessions should not simply scratch the surface or glaze over the issue of eating disorders. The startling number of student sufferers will not decrease without intervention.

One study outlines a "framework for intervention" (Schwitzer, Bergholz, & Dore, 1998, p. 202) for colleges. The proposed framework consists of three components:

> Prevention aimed at students who are susceptible to the development of eating problems during their college years; intermediate services that address the moderate, diagnostically subthreshold eating problems most prevalent on campuses; and, where resources allow, remedial treatment for anorexia and bulimia (Schwitzer, et. al. 1998, p. 202).

This framework would assist in the creation of a committed college environment that takes action against eating disorders before, during, and after they occur.

Dining centers can aid by making food choices easier for students who are dealing with an eating disorder (Schwitzer, Bergholz, & Dore, 1998). Posters displaying healthy food choices and offering nutrition information on meal selections can be helpful for students (Schwitzer, et. al. 1998). Although eating

disorders are spurred by issues of control, not necessarily issues with food, dining centers that provide nutritional choices and healthy options give some of the control back to students suffering from eating disorders. After one college cafeteria provided informational menu boards and other information, "students consumed more low-fat milk, more vegetables, and more nutrient-dense foods" (Schwitzer, et. al. 1998, p. 204) than they had been consuming.

The most encompassing, and possibly the most important strategy for preventing eating disorders on a college campus is to provide the necessary support for transitioning students who could potentially develop an eating disorder. A recent study has shown that providing resources alone is not enough to diminish the effects of the beast, rather, "improving the relationships that provide the resources" would be of greater benefit (Beeber, 1999, p. 231). Women focus heavily on social supports and relationships in their lives to get through tough situations and experiences (Beeber, 1999). Without these supportive constructs, college women are at a higher risk of allowing the beast to fester inside them.

Colleges are often forced to "have to make choices about how they use funds: for education on drug and alcohol abuse, or date rape, or eating disorders" (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999, p. 53). Treating eating disorders can be a lengthy and expensive process that may not seem cost-effective to colleges. "As colleges are discovering, however, not intervening can be far costlier" (Hubbard, et. al. 1999, p. 54). Anorexics have a 20% mortality rate, and bulimics can develop heart problems from using laxatives and vomiting (Hubbard, et. al. 1999). The subsequent health issues that arise due to eating disorder behavior result in numerous health center visits, and potentially rising costs. In addition, the beast could win the battle by taking the lives of afflicted women.

CONCLUSION

Millions of women leave their homes to attend college each year. Thousands of them will be exposed to more than English literature or mechanical engineering during their studies in college. Many will meet the beast. The beast is the lack of control a woman feels during her transition to college; it is the self-loathing inner monologue that plays over and over in her head; it is the brief sense of accomplishment she feels after she purges; it is her warped view of herself when she agonizes in the mirror; it is societal, social, internal, and mysterious; and it is very, very real. As afflicted women are "struggling to meet new demands and roles as university" students, the beast is battling them every step of the way (Beeber, 1999, p. 229).

The tools that college administrators, faculty, staff, and health-care professionals utilize can prevent, or at least diminish some of the struggles and battles college women face. In a recent poll of those respondents who knew someone with an eating disorder, 45% said the person sought help through a "college staffer" (Hubbard, O'Neill, & Cheakalos, 1999, p.54). Through the implementation of educational programs, and a desire by college staff to help, the beast may release its grip.

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Substance-Free Housing: A Solution to the Binge Drinking Problem in Today's College Fraternity

Joseph J. Lanter and Mark Koepsell

Substance-free programs, sponsored in part by the North-American Interfraternity Conference (NIC), have been received well by media, university administrators, parents, and some students. Aside from lowering the levels of binge drinking by social fraternity members, substance-free housing, when successful, has been shown to: increase an organization's cumulative grade point average, increase the rate of freshman retention, improve the quality of chapter facilities, and help create an environment which promotes behavior consistent with fraternal ideals, goals, and standards. Examining the issue of substance-free housing for the college fraternity, this article addresses significant barriers faced by administrators and national officers throughout the duration of program implementation.

In the wake of the deaths of young fraternity men from Louisiana State University in 1997 (Haworth, 1998), the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1997 "MIT Student," 1997), and most recently the California State University at Chico in 2000 (Bulwa, 2000), university officials have placed increased emphasis on decreasing binge drinking among members of Greek-letter societies. The stigma associated with the film *Animal House* (1978) has negatively branded fraternities since its release. Unfortunately, this stereotype depicting a keg-throwing, panty-raiding party animal has often been replicated at college or university fraternity houses. Despite stringent efforts by the national organizations of many chapters, binge drinkers occupy an alarmingly high percentage of fraternity houses (Weschler, 1996). The Harvard School of Public Health (1993) defined binge drinking as consuming five or more drinks in one sitting at least once in a two-week period (as cited in Weschler, 1996). Substance-free housing has been the proposed solution at some universities and national fraternal organizations. This article examines the issues of alcohol and other drugs facing fraternities and the recent development of substance-free solutions.

Joseph J. Lanter ('02) currently serves in the Campus Activities Center at Colorado State University. Mark Koepsell is the Associate Director for the Campus Activities Center and Director of Greek Life at Colorado State University.

Student affairs professionals have dealt with alcohol abuse in fraternities for many years and the time has come to address possible solutions to this potentially fatal problem. As the millennium begins a new era for higher education, it is vital that every effort be made to help fraternities meet the standards all members pledge to uphold at their initiation. These efforts must be made in order to preserve the support fraternities provide by complementing a valuable university experience. Fraternities, as referred to in this article, are all-male Greek letter organizations. Each of the twenty-six all-female member sororities that constitute the National Panhellenic Conference (NPC) have maintained substance-free housing policies since their respective inceptions. Despite the historical presence of these policies, there is an ever-growing problem with binge drinking among sorority women as well. The authors do not wish to exclude any student from information regarding this dangerous trend by focusing solely on male organizations.

To assist in the examination of the problem of binge drinking among fraternity members, three components of the dilemma are delineated: (a) the group dynamics within fraternities and the impact of these relationships on individual members, especially new initiates; (b) the presence of alcohol in fraternity houses and the high frequency of binge drinking among members; and finally (c) the implications of any correlation between a fraternity's group dynamics and its members' responses to alcohol and other drugs, specifically binge drinking.

FRATERNITY GROUP DYNAMICS AND ALCOHOL

The relationship between a fraternity and its members has long been a subject of study for organizational psychologists. A fraternity house is a breeding ground for peer pressure. Leavy (1979) called the social situation in fraternities a strange form of education where the members are students, the subject is drinking, and the classroom is the fraternity house. The relationship between fraternities and alcohol has been an important dynamic of university life studied more frequently due to the increase in binge drinking among college students in recent years. Clearly, alcohol abuse is causing tremendous problems in Greek letter organizations (Riordan, & Dana, 1998).

A large amount of research has been conducted to better understand the impact of group dynamics on individuals. Moos and Gerst (as cited in Schrager, 1986) performed a landmark inventory, as they developed, tested, and standardized the University Residence Environment Scale (URES). The URES investigates the social climate of a group as characterized by the "members' perceptions of the attitudes, values, and behaviors that are characteristic of the group" (p. 266).

Simply put, the URES attempts to identify the influences a group has on its individual members. Schrager's (1986) study compared the relationship between a living group's social climate and academic performance among first year students in 36 fraternity groups and 18 male residence hall groups.

The dynamics of fraternity life are such that prospective new members or pledges subject themselves to the influence of active members due to perceptions of complete trust. Pledges are called upon to study the fraternity's history and traditions, which, as told by the active members, may or may not be accurate. For example, if John is a pledge, and the active members inform him of a tradition that all new members shave their heads upon initiation, he has limited resources available to determine if the information is accurate. Active members, to demonstrate some values of the fraternity, often create traditions. "Long viewed as 'tradition' and a 'rite of passage,' the misuse of alcohol plagued the fraternity system in this decade, setting the stage for the next ten years" (Phi Gamma Delta, 2000). In a study of over 2,000 fraternity and sorority members and their experiences with alcohol, Goodwin (1989) identified some of the innate causes of denial that have allowed alcohol abuse to remain a problem. "Members of both high-drinking subgroups tend to underestimate the extent of their drinking and share a rejection of the idea of any external control over drinking, whether by the university or by the interfraternity or panhellenic organizations" (p. 457).

Pledges find difficulty in maintaining a sense of individuality. As Schrager (1986) states, "this press toward involvement, social support, and conforming behavior is consistent with the aims of social fraternities...They tend to foster a collective orientation, while inhibiting independent behavior that deviates from group norms" (p. 274). It is important to understand that fraternities were originally formed to provide opportunities for individuals to express themselves and were designed as forums for original thought that members created to escape an overly oppressive educational system (Whipple & Sullivan, 1998). This dynamic has changed over time, bringing a pressure of conformity to the forefront of fraternity life.

THE PROBLEM: FRATERNITY LIFE AND ALCOHOL ABUSE

How the transition from scholarly social groups to an "animal house" mentality occurred is not clear. Today's social fraternities place a large emphasis on the social portion of their classifications. According to Kuh, Pascarella, and Weschler (1996), fraternities and alcohol go hand in hand. Most researchers identify alcohol as the key component in the creation of the animal house mentality. In a 1993 study conducted by the Harvard School of Public Health of

over 17,000 students at 140 four-year colleges in 40 states, researchers found that 86 percent of students who lived in fraternity houses were binge drinkers compared to 50 percent of non-members (Riordan & Dana, 1998). What role does alcohol play in fraternity life?

Social interaction is a defining component of Greek life. Fraternities are designed to increase campus involvement, academic achievement, and community service, and to also function as a social outlet in typically chaotic campus environments. Parker and Gade (1981) examined the perceptions fraternity and sorority members have of their living environment. Using the URES, they concluded that members of fraternities and sororities perceive a "high need for social dependency" (p. 361). This dependency is seen in many group living environments. "We live together, and we party together," as the saying among fraternity members commonly goes. Alcohol has become a focus in the social lives of many fraternity men. One example of this centralization concerns a fraternity's relationship with various sororities. Due to national policies prohibiting alcohol consumption in their houses, sorority women have traditionally sought social opportunities at fraternity houses (until this most recent semester, Fall 2000, when the NPC collectively put an end to sororities engaging in any alcohol related events hosted on any fraternity property). Interaction between men and women is an integral feature of college life, and alcohol is a common source of 'courage' to initiate these interactions. Without alcohol, many fraternity men believe life would be dull. As Goodwin (1989) pointed out, "reasons for drinking continue to emphasize sociability and release of tension" (p. 449).

IMPLICATIONS

Understanding the relationship between fraternity dynamics and alcohol is an important aspect of the binge drinking problem on college campuses today. The emphasis placed on alcohol is disturbingly strong in many fraternal relationships. Membership in a fraternity greatly increases the likelihood that an individual will abuse alcohol. "Virtually every study of drinking in college shows that fraternity members tend to drink more heavily and more frequently and to have more alcohol-related problems than their fellow students" (Wechsler, Kuh, & Davenport, 1996, p. 261).

The rationalization that accompanies alcohol abuse in fraternities is an important focal point of this problem. "When used in combination with hazing episodes, alcohol becomes interwoven into a complicated system of rewards and sanctions to which newcomers must conform…and learn to become loyal to the group in resisting external threats, including institutional sanctions" (Wechsler, Kuh, &

Davenport, 1996, p.275). Wechsler, et al. described groups like fraternities and sororities as "powerful conformist cultures" that socialize their new members through the use of alcohol (p. 275).

SUBSTANCE-FREE HOUSING

Recognizing the impact of alcohol on the fraternity experience, the challenge to student affairs professionals is clear: something must to be done to change Greek culture to ensure a positive college experience for all members without the negative implications of alcohol abuse. The discussion of substance-free housing has recently become an increasing prevalent topic regarding Greek life.

Substance-free housing is a comprehensive effort to remove the emphasis on alcohol from the daily lives of residential fraternity members. Alcohol can still be served at functions on third-party premises with licensed vendors, who are responsible for controlling the distribution of alcohol in a legal and appropriate manner. The option of substance-free housing has become practical for many chapters on many campuses in light of the following issues addressed by the North-American Interfraternity Conference's (NIC) (1998, April) monthly publication *Campus Commentary*:

1. The negative effect that alcohol has been shown to have on members' scholastic achievement, health, and well being;
2. The dilapidated condition of many chapter homes resulting from years of large, uncontrolled parties;
3. The spiraling costs of liability insurance for members fueled by the increasing number of claims and injuries related to the abuse and illegal use of alcohol;
4. The recent decline in the number of new men joining fraternities coupled with the changing needs and desires of today's college men.
5. Incoming students are increasingly shying away from entities that emphasize alcohol, partying, etc.
6. The option for substance-free residence halls is being offered on a growing number of college campuses.

The NIC's monthly publication identified deterioration to chapter facilities as perhaps the most significant reason to institute substance-free housing (1998, April). The millions of dollars spent on repairs, due to damage caused directly or indirectly by alcohol use and abuse, are constant reminders that a problem exists. When a chapter cannot make renovations to upgrade the quality of life in a fraternity house because funds have been allocated to repair damages from

years of alcoholic wear and tear, it is difficult to remove the emphasis on alcohol from the members' lives.

Aside from the property issues regarding substance-free housing, it is important to recognize the health benefits substance-free housing can provide. NIC (1998, April) has indicated the following statistics in regards to fraternity-related insurance claims that involved alcohol: ninety-five percent of falls from high places (roofs), ninety-four percent of fights, ninety-three percent of sexual abuse allegations, eighty-eight percent of fatalities, eighty-seven percent of automobile accidents, eighty-one percent of paralysis cases, seventy-eight percent of psychological injuries, sixty-seven percent of slips and falls, sixty-six percent of serious physical injuries, forty-nine percent of hazing incidents, and fifty-six percent of minor injuries. In recent years, the national headquarters of Sigma Nu, Phi Delta Theta, and Delta Sigma Phi, among others, have made commitments to make all of their chapter facilities substance-free. It seems ironic that on many campuses, including Colorado State University, one or more of these chapters has continued to have alcohol related problems. This is due in part to the Greek culture.

It is difficult to change traditions in the middle of an organization's tenure. A bulletin published by Phi Gamma Delta (2000) identified specific concerns of current undergraduates regarding substance-free housing. One student stated, "The biggest challenge our chapter will face is enforcing the fact that members who live in the house who are 21 years old are not allowed to drink, even in private in their rooms" (p. 4). Another student commented, "...while this policy may be beneficial for many chapters, it could be suicidal for others...Eliminating alcohol from the chapter house will almost certainly deter all seniors from living there and providing the under classmen with a responsible voice of leadership" (p. 4).

The aforementioned group dynamics in fraternities is an important focal point for considering substance-free housing. The proposed initiatives must be a two-tiered approach. The first needs to convince older members of its value without spawning a backlash, while the second will focus heavily on the individuals who will carry the chapter in future years: new members. It is important to directly combat the peer pressure that causes many of the problems relating to alcohol and other drugs in the first place. In a bulletin published by the Higher Education Center for Alcohol and Other Drug Prevention, Enos and Pittayathikhun (1996) state that the primary problem in initiating successful substance-free programs "is not that chapters do not want to try going substance free but that they do not feel they can enforce a substance-free policy" (p.11). Support must be abundant in order for these programs to work. National headquarters, specific campuses, as well as alumni and parents' associations

must make a consolidated effort to aid these young men as they attempt to change their traditions. Mo Littlefield, past Executive Director of Sigma Nu, one of the first fraternities to make a commitment to be substance-free nationally, contributed to the Center for Alcohol and Other Drug Prevention bulletin noting that, "the purpose of this [substance-free] initiative is about protecting property, protecting people, and addressing why we are in the [fraternity] business in the first place. We must deal directly with the thing that causes so much grief on college campuses – alcohol" (Enos & Pittayathikhun, 1996, p. 11).

The national trend toward substance-free housing continues to grow. Currently twelve fraternities have adopted substance-free policies, which are or will be in effect by 2005 (Phi Gamma Delta, 2000). Fraternity chapters with substance-free housing have shown increases in cumulative chapter grade point averages; stronger recruiting and membership; improved chapter facilities and house maintenance; and lowered insurance costs (Phi Delta Theta, 1998; Phi Gamma Delta, 2000). In 1998, all twenty-six NPC sororities passed a resolution that pledges support for substance-free fraternities and included policies and protocol for substance-free social events and activities (Phi Gamma Delta, 2000).

Parents also favor an environment that is substance free. In their recent study, Phi Gamma Delta (2000) found that 78.5% of parents said that they support this movement. Only 23.4% felt that Greek Life provided a "highly positive" perception, as it currently exists on college campuses (Phi Gamma Delta, 2000).

A lingering question continues to be "Does substance-free housing work?" Early data gathered by Phi Delta Theta (2000) indicate that substance-free housing does work. In 1999, the average number of new members increased for chapters with alcohol-free housing (17.67 to 17.73) and for chapters without property (11.19 to 12.39). The average number of new members decreased in the last year for chapters without substance-free housing (17 to 15.24). Several chapters that have adopted the policy report increases of more than 0.5 points in the chapter's average GPA. In addition, overall insurance premiums for substance-free chapters of that fraternity have reduced by 33% (Phi Delta Theta, 2000).

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research should investigate the possible long-term effects of substance-free housing on fraternities. The idea of removing alcohol from all fraternity houses is a relatively new one, surfacing only within the past ten years. Fraternities can benefit from a return to ritual, which has been corrupted by

alcohol for many years. Kuh, Pascarella, and Wechsler (1996) questioned the value of fraternities, "Almost monthly, a college or university fraternity makes the national news because of an escapade of underage drinking or a hazing episode resulting in bodily injury or worse...Such incidents tarnish the image of fraternities as a locus of brotherhood" (p. A68). Although negative media coverage may alter their perceptions, student affairs professionals must have faith in the Greek system which has positively influenced the lives of its members.

CONCLUSION

In an ever-changing world, the impact of the college experience is a vital component of a student's growth. Greek life can be a defining part of the undergraduate experience. Unfortunately, for some fraternity members, alcohol plays a substantial role in the development of their fraternal values. Binge drinking appears to be at an alarmingly high level, with 86% of fraternity members included in a continual growth of college students considered to be binge drinkers (Riordan & Dana, 1998). As the relationship between fraternities and alcohol becomes better understood, student affairs professionals must continue to work within the goals of substance-free housing and with students in providing a solution to the challenges associated with alcohol.

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A Journey Through Adult Student Involvement on Campus

Wendy Morgan

Astin's (1984) involvement theory suggests that student involvement has a positive impact on development and learning. He hypothesized, "the greater the student's involvement in college, the greater will be the amount of student learning and personal growth" (p. 307). Additionally, he postulated that student involvement leads to increased satisfaction with the entire college experience and increased retention rates. Astin's philosophy on involvement has been foundational for additional research consideration. However, there has been little research applying this theory to adult learners. This article explores available research on the needs of adult learners, types of involvement that might enhance their learning and personal growth, and how faculty and student affairs professionals can assist this growing population of adult learners.

During the past forty years, students who attended college likely heard the slogan, "Get involved!" all over campus. People may wonder why faculty, administrators, and other students persist so doggedly to involve undergraduates in both academics and experiences offered outside the classroom. Is it because groups represented by these enthusiastic individuals simply need members to survive and carry out their goals and purposes? Or, does active participation have some benefit to the students who choose to take advantage of those opportunities? According to Astin's (1999) theory of involvement, students can actively participate in creating a positive impact on their own development and learning. He also postulates that student involvement leads to increased satisfaction with the entire college experience as well as increased rates of student retention.

Astin's (1999) theory, originally published in 1984, has since spurred considerable research and discussion on the impact of student involvement. However, few studies examine how this theory applies to adult learners. This article explores the available research on the needs of adult learners, and the types of involvement that might enhance their learning and personal growth. It also addresses faculty and student affairs professionals can assist the growing population of adult learners in becoming involved in beneficial opportunities. In addition, the author will examine the limitations of the current body of research

Wendy Morgan ('02) serves as a Hall Director in the Towers Complex for Residence Life at Colorado State University.

and suggest possibilities for further exploration. In order to examine these issues critically, it is important to explore both Astin's foundational study and the ways in which adult learners differ from traditional students.

THE FOUNDATION

Astin's (1999) research has served as the catalyst for many additional studies on student involvement; thus, it is important to first review his primary findings. In examining the college environment for influences on students' development and retention, Astin discovered that almost all of the following influences directly correlated to students' levels of involvement: place of residence, participation in athletics, membership in student government, activity in honors programs, academic involvement, type of employment, and interaction between students and faculty (or other college personnel). The most persuasive types of involvement "turn out to be academic involvement, involvement with faculty, and involvement with student peer groups" (Astin, 1996, p. 126).

Astin (1999) defined involvement as both the ". . . quantity and quality of the physical and psychological energy that students invest in the college experience" (p. 528). In other words, students' physical engagements (participating actively through observable behaviors) and mental applications (through aspects such as concentration, commitment, and motivation), together compose involvement. Involvement then can be measured both quantitatively (by determining how many hours a student spends studying, attending meetings, or thinking about a subject) and qualitatively, by examining a student's comprehension of material, role in participation (being a member of a group versus being a leader), or depth of reflection. Astin (1996) suggested that levels of involvement occur along a continuum, varying in intensity for each student, and differing between students. He suggested that student time is a resource, claiming that the degree of development a student accomplishes in any area is related directly to the quality and quantity of time and effort (involvement) dedicated toward achieving any goal. Thus, a greater amount of student involvement results in a greater gain in learning and personal development. Astin concluded that the usefulness of educational policies and practices could be measured by the degree of student involvement each elicits.

In addition, Astin (1996) found negative outcomes associated with forms of involvement that "either isolate the student from peers or remove the student physically from the campus" (p. 126). He referred to these as types of "noninvolvement". Specifically, he listed "living at home, commuting, attending part-time, being employed off campus, being employed full-time, and watching television" (p. 126) as components of "noninvolvement."

ADULT STUDENTS

Although all students are considered to be adults when they enter college, for the purposes of this article, adult students or adult learners refer to undergraduate students who are 22 years old or older. Adult students represent a diverse population; they are "working and nonworking; married and single; parents and nonparents; self-supporting and needing financial aid... male and female" (Greenfeig & Goldberg, 1984, p. 83). Adult learners have unique pressures compared to those of traditional students. "Many returning adults are suffering from low confidence and low self-esteem and are very unsure of their abilities and self-worth" (p. 82). They may believe that their study skills are rusty and fear they will not be able to compete with undergraduates coming directly from high school. In addition, "returning adult students and transfers often suffer because of their isolation from each other. They have difficulty finding other students with whom they share common interests and concerns" (Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984, p. 11). Interpersonal relationships are important elements to students' success in college (Billson & Terry; Fiedler & Vance; Simpson, Baker, & Mellinger as cited in Upcraft et al, 1984). Adult students must make new friends, while "maintaining meaningful yet changing" preexisting relationships with family members and others (Upcraft et al., 1984, p. 16). Types of adult student involvement should include opportunities which build confidence and self-esteem, consider the multiple demands on their time, and involve peer interaction.

INFLUENCES ON STUDENT LEARNING AND PERSONAL GROWTH

Following Astin's original postulations, several other researchers have revealed benefits associated with student involvement. According to Abrahamowicz (as cited in Hunt & Rentz, 1994), student involvement has been found to; positively affect students' overall satisfaction with the college experience, foster the continuing pursuit of academics, and facilitate personal growth and development. When students are involved, they are likely to identify more closely with their institution and feel they play an important role within it. Positive feelings about their institution contribute to an enjoyment of academics and learning, and promote the desire to further their education beyond the undergraduate years. Finally, personal growth and development occur when students are involved in opportunities that provide stimulation, challenge, and exposure to diversity. The more involved students are, the more likely they are to benefit intellectually and personally. Miller and Jones (as cited in Fitch, 1991), went even further asserting that extracurricular programs should be viewed as essential components to overall education since they provide such strong benefits, rather than being considered merely supplemental, as they are by many administrators.

BENEFITS FOR ADULT STUDENTS

Similar benefits have been found relating to adult student involvement. Whitt (1994) established that, "Involvement in high quality out-of-class experiences contributes to the learning, development, and satisfaction of adult students" (p. 312). Adult learners reported increased confidence, better time management skills, and a connection to the university. Adult students showed special interest in clubs and organizations related to their majors, but "not to the exclusion of more traditional student activities. [Students] were involved in activities ranging from adult student orientation to homecoming, from student government to volunteering in the campus daycare center" (p. 313). Many adult students want a sense of belonging and want to play active roles at their universities and colleges.

INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE

As mentioned previously, student involvement can influence students' identification with the institution and their desire to play an important role within it. Reciprocally, Astin (1999) suggested that "it is easier to become involved when one can identify with the college environment" (p. 524). According to the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, "Generally speaking, when there is a congruence between an individual and the campus environment, that student will be happier, better adjusted, and more likely to achieve personal and educational goals" (as cited in Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984 p. 10). Adult students may be challenged because they often are attending institutions designed to fulfill the expectations and needs of younger students (Nutter, Kroeger, & Kinnick, 1991). Although some adult students are involved, the campus structure and environment does not currently support adult development. "One step in the investigation of the match or 'goodness of fit' between institutions and adult learners is to examine to what extent students use the major resources for personal growth available in the college environment" (p. 349).

TYPES OF INVOLVEMENT

Involvement opportunities take many forms including participating in one's learning and academics, interacting with faculty/staff, interacting with peers, participating in athletics, joining student organizations, honor societies, or student government associations, doing community service, and working in a part-time or full-time job (Eklund-Leen & Young, 1997; Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lovell, 1999; McCannon & Bennett, 1996). Although many

benefits have been found related to specific types of involvement, there are many unanswered questions with regard to how these involvement types relate to adult students.

A major limitation of current research is the lack of analysis regarding how the involvement theory applies to adult learners (Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lovell, 1999; Nutter, Kroeger, & Kinnick, 1991; Whitt, 1994). Most studies have focused on students of traditional age, 17-22 years old. Yet, over 45% of all undergraduate and graduate students were over the age of 25 in 1991 (Nutter et al., 1991) and, more recently, the Census Bureau (1998) identified 55.8% of undergraduate students as being over the age of 22 in the Fall of 1998. There is a great need to explore types of involvement opportunities and their benefits for adult students.

On the other hand, Astin's (1999) types of 'noninvolvement' are found to be congruent with the lives of adult students. Most adult students live off-campus, commute to school, attend part-time, and are employed off campus, often full-time. These activities remove adult students from the university campus and decrease the likelihood of positive involvements and interactions with peers who share similar struggles and experiences.

Studies have indicated that personality and values may influence the types of individuals who are likely to get involved (Fitch, 1991). Then again, students only have limited time and energy to give to each part of their lives. It is important to determine when a students' involvement in organizations can be too demanding and start to negatively impact other areas of their lives. If there is disequilibrium and a disproportionate amount of time given to one form of involvement, other areas of a student's life may suffer. These results have considerable implications for how administrators in higher education should encourage future involvement and better support adult students. If time is considered the most valuable student resource (Astin, 1999), it may explain why it is difficult to involve adult students, who not only have the regular time demands of other students, but also may have careers and families demanding their time (Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984).

NATURE VERSUS NURTURE

The college experience is a combination of what students bring to college and what the institution provides during their enrollment (Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984). Unfortunately, although adult students bring many skills, they may lack confidence; "When we ask returning adults to list their strengths and weaknesses, their list of weaknesses is often twice as long as their strengths"

(Greenfeig & Goldberg, 1984, p. 82). Adult students possess many assets, such as "strong academic abilities, unique life experiences, and strong motivation" (p. 82). Academically, they have an advantage over traditional undergraduates by having specific goals and by dedicating more time to studying. Adult students typically are more satisfied by their courses (Greenfeig & Goldberg, 1984). They have valuable experiences from volunteering, working, parenting, and balancing family roles. They can apply this knowledge in their courses and interactions with others. In addition, adult students have a greater sense of purpose, motivation, direction, and commitment to both their studies and the institution. Regrettably, adult students do not easily recognize their strengths and their opportunities to share with others.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Student affairs professionals and faculty members need to realize the impact they can have in involving adult students. For example, Whitt (1994) found that encouragement by peers, faculty, and other staff members provided essential support to get adult learners involved. Often, these supportive individuals demonstrated their belief in a student's capabilities and potential, which encouraged self-confidence and, thus, involvement. Peers especially increased adult students' feelings of acceptance and allowed them to share common experiences and address similar concerns.

Edwards and Person (1997) provide specific examples of how student affairs professionals and peers can assist adult students through providing information and resources to help them feel more compatible with their educational institution. These opportunities begin with adult students' first visits to campus. Adult students often benefit most from one-on-one counseling, which allows them to explore options and discuss their individual concerns related to the academic and social expectations of college life (Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984). Concerns may include academics, time constraints, finances, personal needs, and family support (Edwards & Person, 1997). Providing effective, individual attention and care helps adult students feel welcome and supported. First-year seminars, which include or are specifically designed to meet the needs of adult students, should also be provided. To support both their educational objectives and their transition to college, "the curriculum should include current literature on issues facing the adult learner population in the classroom and should incorporate articles, media presentations and class discussion of the students' experiences" (Edwards & Person, 1997, p. 19). Since many adult students have multiple demands on their time, campus offices can assist them by providing some extended hours weekly, during evenings. Finally, matching new students with peer mentors or second-year adult learners will create peer

connections and support for discussing concerns and their orientation to the campus. These partnerships give new students a link to the institution through students within the population. Providing information and resources, thereby helping students to feel supported by their college or university, can increase students' institutional commitment and involvement (Tinto as cited in Edwards & Person, 1997).

Non-traditional aged students often do not live on campus and generally have other priorities such as work and family, which can limit their availability to participate in many common forms of involvement (Greenfeig & Goldberg, 1984; Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984; Whitt, 1994). A priority among current and future faculty and student personnel administrators should be to conduct and implement research on ways to consider the specific needs of an adult population and provide more flexibility. Some suggestions from current research that may address the particular needs of this population are: a) using multiple approaches for a variety of needs, b) providing child-care services, c) initiating peer support groups, d) allowing family involvement in activities, preferably for free, e) providing opportunities with multiple levels of involvement to consider time restrictions, and f) incorporating academic support services to boost confidence and update skills (Greenfeig & Goldberg, 1984; Whitt, 1994).

Ultimately, there is no perfect formula for encouraging adult student involvement. It is difficult to know which type of involvement would be best for which students or how to create the perfect involvement experience for any one student. There are too many variables to consider, and many have yet to be researched. Even if every variable could be considered, students remain individuals and thus, have diverse preferences, abilities, and needs.

Nevertheless, theories, such as Astin's (1999) theory of involvement, give professionals a framework to begin to understand how to provide better opportunities for a diverse population of students. Professionals in higher education continue to learn more about adult student needs and to formulate new ways to provide effective services. Faculty members and student affairs staff should work together to utilize the current body of knowledge and should continue to ask questions worth researching to assist adult students and encourage their involvement. This will include incorporating new information as it comes along, especially as technology continues to progress at its current rapid pace. The journey toward greater understanding of adult students' needs and the exploration of ways to maximize their involvement opportunities and experiences has barely begun. However, it promises an exciting territory for student affairs professionals.

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Destination: Belize

José-Luis Riera and Sarah Woodside

As a part of the Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) master's degree program at Colorado State University, the authors participated in a field experience course in Belize. This two-week course surveyed the primary, secondary, and post-secondary educational systems of Belize. In addition to an educational focus, an in-depth study of the culture, people, history, government, and the natural environment were critical components to this experience. This article offers observations of Belizean society and, in particular, its educational system. The authors convey how the influence of this experience impacts their philosophy of student affairs and education within the United States. In their conclusion, the authors hope to relay how a valuable field experience of this nature contributes to the positive development of a student affairs professional.

The following paper is a compilation of the authors' experience during a study tour of Belize. In February 2000, the authors had the privilege of participating in HE 582, Education in Belize: A Study Tour. Under the instruction of Keith Miser and Cheryl Presley, eleven students toured Belize from the north to the south, studying the educational system within the country.

Prior to the actual tour, students participated in a seminar that highlighted the history and the culture of Belize. In addition, students were briefed on the educational system of Belize and had the opportunity to engage in a discussion of the current issues at the forefront of national dialogue in Belize.

The three texts, used to further the preparation for the study tour included: *Belize Handbook* by Chicki Mallan and Patti Lange, published by Moon Travel Handbooks in 1998; a compilation of articles prepared by the instructors; and *Inside Belize* by Tom Barry with Dylan Vernon, published by Resource Center Press in 1995.

The study tour consisted of visits to two elementary/secondary schools, Stann Creek Ecumenical High School in Dangriga and Maya Central Village School at

José-Luis Riera('01) serves as the Coordinator for Central Programming and Leadership Development with Residence Life at Colorado State University. Sarah Woodside ('01) serves as the Coordinator for Multicultural Training and Leadership Development with Residence Life at Colorado State University.

the Maya Center Village. Participants also toured three Sixth Forum (equivalent to United States high schools) and Junior College educational facilities. They included Corozal Junior College in Corozal, Muffels Junior College/Sixth Forum in Orange Walk, and Belmopan Junior College in Belmopan. Finally, the students toured two higher education institutions, including The University College of Belize (the only four year institution in Belize) and The Belize College of Agriculture. In addition to the tours and studies of educational institutions, the participants had the privilege to speak to His Excellency Coville Young, the Governor General of Belize, on issues concerning the Ministry of Education.

Throughout the tour, participants used journals as a means to record their experiences. In addition, a question would be posed every night to the group in order to reflect upon the experiences of the tour. At each school, participants met with administrators, faculty, and students. Participants listened to lectures about the schools and the educational system. Belizean students presented cultural pieces, such as dances and songs. Participants asked questions in both public and one-on-one settings with administrators, faculty, and students.

In light of the opinions that are expressed, the authors recognize and acknowledge that there are limitations and biases based on their United States perspective and experiences in Belize. Therefore, the reflections presented are induced by emotions and observations that will warrant the use of the first person in order to express the true experience.

BACKGROUND

The colors of Belize range from dark to light within lush valleys, thick rainforests, sugar cane fields, and dense hills of green. As far as the eye can see, Belize is full of unique treasures and a mixture of people, culture, languages, and shades of skin. A dark-skinned young woman dances in a colorful outfit of white, bright yellow, and outstanding blue. Her thick, distinct accent proudly declares, "Belize – many people, many cultures, that's our Belize" (personal communication via monologue, February 9, 2000). This is the image from Belize that we take with us: the pride, the appreciation of culture, and the celebration of a myriad of ethnicities. "As the Creole saying goes, *All a we mek Belize* –we all make up Belize" (HE 582 Education in Belize: A Study Tour, 2000, p. 67).

In a foreign land, our United States-born lenses sought to analyze the culture, environment, politics, people, and above all, the educational system of Belize. Although an enriching experience, we question our right to scrutinize and

criticize a culture not of our own. Ethically, it would only be right if we were now willing to take the information, the emotions, the insights that we have gained through the Belize study tour and use them to better both American and Belizean society. We feel that inspiring students' experiences through our own is essential.

The study tour has served to demonstrate and reinforce one fact for us: humans all have a lot to learn from one other. Each individual's responsibility should be to be accepting, be conscious of personal biases, and work hard to *listen* to others with open eyes, ears, and hearts. Through these experiences, we have come to realize that, as student affairs professionals, we need to be culturally aware and willing to expand others' horizons, as well as our own.

We will convey how the influence of our experience impacts our philosophy of student affairs and education within the United States. A valuable field experience of this nature contributes to the positive development of student affairs professionals. In light of the recent destruction created by Hurricane Keith that has devastated Belize, we have come to realize the importance of connections and inter-cultural understanding. The relationships developed with the culture, the people, and the educational system in Belize have a lasting and profound effect on our student affairs philosophies.

FIELD EXPERIENCE

As Barnhart and Groth (1987) acknowledge, "international awareness and knowledge are important in the total being of an individual living in our contemporary times" (p. 78). A sense of international awareness for students is gained through study abroad experiences. As Kitty McCarthy, Assistant Director of Admissions at the University of Rochester stated, "students who have participated in a study abroad program seem to express broadened awareness of another culture and a greater acceptance of others" (cited in AIFS, 1987, p. 2). Goodwin and Nacht (1988) outlined the prospective outcomes of a study abroad experience: to become cultured citizens and broader intellectuals; globalizing or internationalizing the populations; to fulfill institutional missions; to explore one's background or heritage; to gain fluency in a foreign language; to use the world as the laboratory; to enhance personal knowledge; to learn from others; and to improve cross-cultural relations. Increasingly, study abroad has been seen as a means to develop the necessary skills to compete in an interdependent, multicultural world.

The study tour in Belize played a significant role in how we shape our student affairs perspective. The opportunity to truly experience a student's life in

another country allowed us to become even more knowledgeable of what students around the globe experience. As participants, we observed how faculty and administrators react to students and how those reactions contrast with faculty and administrators in the United States. Societal and cultural values were interwoven more into education in Belize than they appear to be interwoven into education in the United States. By examining the cultural perspective of Belizean administrators, we were challenged to examine our own philosophies. Barrows, Clark, & Klein (1980) indicated that any student graduating from college today must realize that they are living in a world where people and institutions are increasingly interdependent. Study abroad experiences have allowed students to examine these realities from a different perspective than their own culture's perspective. A student's entire outlook on life may be changed as a result of the experiences encountered while participating in international education (Carsello & Greaser, 1976). We were able to benefit from this interchange of ideas and perspectives in both our personal and professional lives.

OBSERVATIONS OF BELIZE

Observations were an integral part of the study tour. The study tour consisted of a series of interpretations based upon the various people and places we visited, including schools, cultural centers, governmental figures, administrators, faculty, and students. We concentrated on obtaining an understanding of the individual situations, values, and experiences. By dialoguing with the larger study tour group, we placed those individual experiences into the larger context of education in Belize. Overall, through the observations of Belizean education and culture, the participants gained an immense understanding of Belize.

EDUCATION

One of the most beneficial components of the study tour was having the opportunity to visit and explore several different educational institutions throughout the country. The educational system in Belize varies greatly from the educational system in the United States. Harrington and Leiva (1996) described the Belizean educational system as "an eclectic mix of internal traditions and external linkages, Belize defies easy categorization" (p. 10). The educational system in Belize changes and transforms continuously. Through conversations at each school, we learned the importance of education to Belizeans. Both the educators and the students expressed their desire to continue with their education, to improve upon the system, and to establish the importance of education within their lifestyles.

Educational Comparisons

The differences between the Belizean educational system and the United States educational system were seen in its faculty, in its campuses, and in its values. Belizean faculty were qualified with similar educational backgrounds to their counterparts in the United States. Belizean academic faculty priorities lay in teaching rather than in research or service, which is dissimilar to United States' academic faculty. A focus on teaching, rather than on research, may benefit students in Belize because the faculty concentrate on their courses and their students. Students in Belize were asked to select their major or academic focus even before beginning their education. Fewer academic disciplines were offered and the most popular majors focused on practical career paths. The importance and significance of education depended on the nature of the school and the varied approaches to education. Each of the schools we visited varied in terms of their finances, populations of students, goals, and administrative styles. For example, many of the junior colleges catered to students in the area and thus had a student population, which mirrored the mixture of that area. Administratively, the Belize College of Agriculture had strict discipline policies because their students lived on campus, whereas the non-residential University College of Belize rarely dealt with student discipline. By virtue of each junior college's mission or focus (i.e. agriculture, liberal arts, professional trades, etc.), their educational goals differed, requiring a large range of decentralized programs.

Cultural Influence on Education

Perhaps the most striking element of the Belizean educational system was the impact that culture has had on education. Belizean education is conveyed through a specific cultural context. Education is not the same all over the world. It is not taught, nor understood, in the same manner. Even teaching and learning occurring on the same topic but within different cultures will be taught and learned differently.

While on the study tour, a common theme was the shift from an English curriculum to a Caribbean curriculum. Being under English colonization, the British system heavily influenced the structure and foundation of the educational system in Belize. As Belize examines its current needs, the system of education is no longer suitable for their young people. There are conscious efforts being made towards improving the educational system.

According to Harrington and Leiva (1996), "the historical grounding in British educational practice is reflected in a continuing emphasis on a system of external examinations as certification and selection devices…that disproportionately serve the minority of academically talented children and youth" (p. 10). Students in Belize are seeking practical degree programs as "the majority of Belizean students enroll in higher education programs designed not

to prepare them for A-Level [English/British standardized tests] examinations but to prepare them for jobs or for transfer either to the University College of Belize or to U.S. institutions for completion of their baccalaureate degrees" (p. 11). Belizean students are interested in the outcomes of their higher education.

Government Influence on Education
The government's control over the educational system is astounding. Finances are sparse in Belize, especially within the educational system; the government controls where the money is spent. The principal education administrators at the various institutions repeatedly explained to the participants that primary education is the emphasis in Belize. The government funds teachers' salaries, and thus the operation of primary level schools. Currently, children are required by law to attend school up through the United States' equivalent of the sixth grade. Recently, the government has made a commitment to invest 30 million dollars in higher education (P. Saqui, personal communication, February 9, 2000). Higher education administrators and faculty were excited about the prospect of a new educational facility titled, "The University of Belize."

If a new government comes into power believing the priority for improving Belize is not in higher education, the money could be shifted to other needs. This is truly the definition of organizational instability. The government has control over access and opportunity to education, as well as other areas of society. Due to the large number of different ethnic groups living within the country, the majority ethnic group in the government has an advantage for their own people. The majority control of access, therefore, limits minority group access in education, government, and society in general.

Educational Improvement
Compared to other educational systems within Central America, Belize's educational system ranks highly; however, the system still has areas in need of improvement (Barry and Vernon, 1995). The areas for improvement are the shortage of qualified teachers, a lack of sufficient funding for adult and technical education, and a lack of bilingual education in a heavily influenced multilingual society (Barry and Vernon, 1995). The administrators and faculty have one goal: the betterment of their students as scholars and as functional citizens of the Belizean society. For example, Belize has begun to establish a four-year institution, "The University of Belize," which will bring many of their existing schools under one administrative umbrella. The creation of this institution will benefit students and faculty alike and will provide the society with a focused value of education. They hope that more faculty will be interested in conducting research and in providing unique opportunities that allow their students to be involved in research and development. Growing campuses equipped with

numerous services for students will also improve college life and in turn, attract more Belizeans to take advantage of the educational opportunities.

CULTURE

Human nature extends beyond culture, race, and ethnicity. This is perhaps the most fundamental lesson we learned on our study tour. The manner in which people relate to one another is what defines the human race. The culture and people of Belize are unique. They are excited, prideful, willing to share their culture, and beautiful on multifaceted levels. However, historical discrimination and the resulting Belizean nature has led to somewhat negative interactions among the various cultures of Belize. The people experience barriers due to their heritage, ethnicity, and/or culture. The social dilemmas were pronounced most clearly through the educational system.

We admire their respect and interest in preserving their land, environment, and resources. The customs, foods, dances, and traditions that are celebrated within each ethnic group characterize the intriguing culture of Belize. The Belizean culture has had a profound impact on our perceptions of Belize. "Despite the recent influence of American culture on young people, most Belizeans are still proud of their culture...Belize's work environment is much more relaxed than in industrialized countries" (HE 582 Education in Belize: A Study Tour, 2000, p. 70).

Ethnicity
Only native Belizeans can distinguish easily between the various ethnic groups. Creoles, Garifunas, Mayan, Mestizos, and Blacks encompass many of the ethnic groups in Belize. Observers from the United States would recognize them all as *blacks*. Despite the racial similarities, racism and discrimination run rampant. Mestizos dominate government; therefore, Mestizos have privilege to higher education. Higher education requires money, mostly in the form of scholarships. The social connections are rather clear because scholarships are granted by the government. As we visited the various schools, we noticed an abundance of cultural pride. However, as we carefully observed the dynamics between students, we noticed the culture represented at each particular school was the majority culture. Mention of Mayans was minimal and when school administrators were questioned about the "numbers" of different ethnic groups, they seemed to avoid the question and, perhaps, the racism that exists.

Language
The mixture of languages has also helped to establish a unique culture. They have integrated all the languages within the culture, yet each defines a portion of

what it means to be Belizean. Although English is the official language, Spanish, Creole, English, and other native languages are heard in the streets, markets, government, and educational settings. The mix of people, origins, beliefs, and traditions are distinct, and each expresses a different history particular to Belize. Although each group of people is present in society, discrimination still exists. It exists on a different level than it does in the United States.

In the district of Corozal, the Belizeans spoke Spanish as their first language, English as their second, and Creole as their third. In the street, we heard many languages and dialects, but we did not hear English. Barry and Vernon (1995) suggest that, "English remains the language of business and politics, [but] Spanish is becoming more widely spoken...the Garifuna and several Mayan communities speak their own languages...[and] Creole is also being used more as a common language" (p. 71). The variety of languages spoken creates a unique atmosphere in Belize. The common languages of Creole and sometimes English provide the ability to feel connected to one another. Without at least one common language, Belize's culture and society would feel disconnected. Observing the differences in language, their expressiveness when they spoke Creole, and their embarrassment when they spoke English, was a remarkable element of the cultural learning experience.

Belizeans
The differences of people create an extraordinarily diverse society, culturally, ethnically, historically, and linguistically. It would be rare to find a Belizean who claimed to have originated from the native population of American Indians. This rare characteristic accounts for the incredible history of each ethnic or cultural group of people who all claim to be Belizean. At the beginning of the trip, we, as United States citizens, wondered what exactly it meant to be Belizean. Throughout our travels, we received several different answers. Each of the groups, including the Mayans, Whites/English, Creoles, Garifunas, Mestizos, West Indians, Mennonites, refugees from Latin America, and the Tawainese, have a history that ties them to Belize. "For most Belizeans the presence of so many different ethnic groups in their country is as much a national treasure as the Barrier Reef or Mayan ruins" (HE 582 Education in Belize: A Study Tour, 2000, p. 67). All their histories combine to form the diverse cultures that define Belize.

The myriad of people in Belizean society was intriguing and led to some fascinating group discussions throughout our journey. We truly felt that there was an understanding of the diversity existing in Belize. Although Belizeans struggle with their own diversity, we found their acceptance to be broader than the United States' connotation of multiculturalism. United States citizens have

an awareness that there are differences between people in the society, but they hardly address the issues nor do they truly accept their neighbors. Belizeans recognize, welcome, and attempt to understand the various cultures.

Discrimination

Acceptance only reaches so far; discrimination is where Belizean culture is lacking. Augustine Flores and Pio Saqui discussed the idea that discrimination is evident in Belizean society (personal communications, February 10, 2000). They admitted honestly to the discrimination that exists because of the diversity in Belize. Both Flores and Saqui are very proud of their cultures and backgrounds as Garifuna and as Mayan, respectively. Their histories are extremely important to their culture. Each of their cultures is changing along with the rest of Belize. Both Flores and Saqui felt that culture is important to Belizeans and that no one group should lose sight of their own cultural practices. In other words, Flores felt that it was important for people to acknowledge the differences and those aspects that characterize Belizeans, without oppressing one another (personal communication, February 10, 2000).

Barry and Vernon (1995) also suggest that, "racial divisions certainly exist in Belize but are manifested more in racial stereotyping than in direct competition or overt strife" (p. 71). We found this to be accurate, but we were surprised to find that, even though stereotyping was present, it was based less on ignorance than is typically the case in the United States. Belizeans generally knew more about the histories and ethnicity's of cultures other than their own more than citizens in the United States. Inequalities still exist among cultures, but general awareness and knowledge is greater among Belizeans than among residents in the United States. Hopefully, the future will bring more open conversations about how to end discrimination and how to appreciate fully the richness of diversity in Belize. Just as a Belizean politician describes "I think I see a new Belize where the Creole, the Mestizo, the Garifuna and the Maya, are not separated as I have listed them, but united as Belizeans" (HE 582 Education in Belize: A Study Tour, 2000, p. 67).

APPLICATION

By attempting to remove our United States-born lenses, we were able to internalize our impressions in order to understand Belize and what it means to be Belizean. We were frustrated that the United States appears to be the model for education and lifestyle, which is used all over the world, and Belize is no exception. It emulates the United States' system. The United States' media and cinema portray United States' lifestyles, which greatly influences the Belizean way of life. We grapple with whether the United States' model is the best

model. Does the United States decide which is the most beneficial form of education or lifestyle for Belizeans? Is the United States trying to have this affect on other countries? Or is it simply the perception of western culture that causes other cultures to change and adjust accordingly? Is the United States trying to build one culture? Would this one culture destroy the unique differences within Belize? However, focusing on the United States as a model may be detrimental to Belize. The United States' goal of diversity may differ from Belize's and, in fact, may need to cater to different needs.

As student affairs professionals at the beginnings of the 21st century, we realize how far the United States educational system has evolved. However, through its evolution, we realize it has lost simplicity, pride, and culture. Students do not latch onto education for education's sake, instead they connect with culture. Culture drives the desire to learn, to be able to give back to society, and to stimulate character and civility.

The way people in Belize are willing to learn about one another's culture is extremely valuable to note. They may not be in a position to politically break down the power structure (government/majority rule), but, as students and faculty, they are interested in accepting one another. This phenomenon characterized our perceptions of Belize in reference to our United States' perspective. The educational system of the United States may be in a better place to "accept" all students and, politically, the United States may be structured in a manner that does not "openly" discriminate based on status. However, the United States does not seem as well prepared to comprehensively appreciate one another to the extent we observed in Belize. We noticed that there exists a different set of inter-cultural challenges for Belize and the United States. In Belize, cross-cultural discrimination manifests itself through limited access for ethnic minority groups to higher education. In contrast, the manner in which Belizeans embrace one another's cultures forces us to recognize a critical disparity of cross-cultural communication in the United States. By recognizing this need for increased appreciation, we, as student affairs professionals, can introduce this concept to our students and encourage them to get to know their classmates and to try to understand others.

Sharing our experiences of Belize with our students may give them a new perspective. The overall theme, which we did not expect, became the fact that we were taken out of our normal paradigm and challenged without realizing the effect. It is extremely valuable to allow participants to actually see and experience another culture and perspective. Realizing that this is impossible to do for every student, the United States' higher education system has the responsibility of creating an environment that will allow students of various

races, backgrounds, cultures, languages, and religions to interact with each other.

CONCLUSION

Education is an international phenomenon. It ranges from formal to informal, but always serves as a basic need for human development. After experiencing our studies in Belize, our United States' lenses have been transformed. Not only have we realized the strength of education in Belize, but we have, in turn, come to understand the strengths and weaknesses of education within the United States. Through the process of analyzing another cultures' educational system, we have been able to come to a deeper understanding of what motivates the educational philosophies in the United States. By recognizing these philosophies, which have now become a part of how we shape our student affairs practices, we have come to understand how limited they are. By integrating these new ideals, philosophies, and practices, we are able to challenge and broaden our ideas to understand education within the United States. By practicing this, we can make a conscious effort to enhance the college experiences for the students we serve.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The Community Action Plan: Adding Intentional Interventions to the Residence Hall Experience

David Rosch

This article describes a new way to structure the activities that take place within the Residence Halls at Syracuse University, called the Community Action Plan (CAP). The Community Action Plan is of interest to residence life practitioners as a new way to focus activities within residence life, as well as to student affairs generalists as an example of innovation. The goals and details of the program will be discussed, as well as avenues to achieve success. The Community Action Plan includes typical residence life activities, such as floor meetings and programming, as well as suggestions on how to build community and achieve multicultural awareness. In addition, the Community Action Plan includes roommate living agreements, floor standards, and the integration of the University's academic mission with residence hall activities. The Community Action Plan is recent; therefore, thorough research has not been completed, but initial results are positive.

Many students complete their college experience stating that the majority of their learning occurred *outside* the classroom (Chickering, 1969). Student development theorists, such as Astin (1996), Pascarella and Terenzini (1991), and Tinto (1987), suggest that student learning is most effective when inclusive of more areas of life that students deem important. The Community Action Plan, implemented at Syracuse University, was designed to better promote holistic student learning by seamlessly infusing learning activities into the residence halls.

Residence life programs must continue to address problems, such as Resident Advisor (RA) retention, vandalism within the residence halls, and the scarcity of academic programming in the residence halls (Schroeder, 1994). In response, Syracuse University has attempted to develop a plan that fundamentally shifts the everyday activities of Residence Life staff within the residence halls from traditional discipline and programming activities to community building.

David Rosch is a Residence Director at Syracuse University, where he has worked since graduating from Colorado State University's SAHE Program in June 1999.

The Office of Residence Life (ORL) at Syracuse University has developed an innovative, structured, and focused syllabus to better direct the student learning that occurs inside the residence halls. This syllabus, entitled "The Community Action Plan (CAP)," has led to the restructuring of how the ORL does business, altering the roles that residence hall staff play, the programming in the residence halls, and fall and winter paraprofessional training. The CAP is important to a variety of student affairs practitioners for its intentional purpose and for its collaboration among offices across the Syracuse University campus.

THE GOALS OF THE COMMUNITY ACTION PLAN

Describing the CAP as a syllabus is intentional. Most institutions attempt to provide their residential students with as many learning opportunities as possible during their time in the residence halls. Students and professionals often offer programs designed either haphazardly or purposefully to provide students with opportunities along a broad, ill-defined, and diffuse spectrum of student wellness. However, Syracuse University deliberately provides its residents with structured and intentional experiences, developed with clear goals and learning outcomes similar to a syllabus for a course. This syllabus includes five goals listed in the order that the ORL believes they exist in the community. Placing these goals in order lends significance to staff and students as they concentrate their resources to meet them. These goals detail the subjects in which the department wishes each student examine and include the areas of personal development, academic development, community development, multicultural awareness, and knowledge concerning alcohol and other drugs. RAs are instructed to make efforts throughout the year to engage their floor or area in activities concerning these goals.

Personal Development
Most current college students intend to learn skills and develop abilities that will help them along their chosen career path (Magolda, 1997), but the ORL believes that residential living should be designed to support students along their journey to find themselves. The goal of personal development is broad and crosses common developmental theories, which detail paths along which students mature including: Chickering's (1969) Seven Vector's, Perry's (1970) stages of Intellectual Development, and Kohlberg's (1973) stages of Moral Development. RAs are directed to engage their floor in ways that stimulate personal development in relation to other learning goals.

Academic Development
Since the emergence of the Student Learning Imperative (ACPA, 1994), institutions across the United States have focused on ways that seamlessly

integrate student academic learning, while rejecting the existence of educational silos. The ORL attempts to accomplish this by placing academic development as the second of the five learning goals. In order to educate students and allow learning to become more seamless, an environment must be created which encompasses personal development and is conducive to academic success. The department hopes to blur the boundaries between learning inside of the classroom and learning outside of the classroom by dialoguing with faculty and fellow students, programming by residence life staff, and collaborating with academic affairs.

Community Development
The ORL realizes that to be successful citizens in the twenty-first century, adults must not only have knowledge of themselves, but also knowledge of how to communicate with others, work in groups (either short-term or long-term), and be part of a team. Under the CAP, residential students participate in activities that primarily create pockets of intentional communities, and then invite residents to be active members of those communities. These efforts are made with the hope that residential students will feel engaged in their communities. Through the support of residence hall staff, these students can learn the skills and abilities necessary to take on healthy roles in groups, often as involved members of their floor or building-wide community.

Multicultural Awareness
Multicultural awareness is essential for students to be successful members of the global community. The global community is closely related to community development in that interpersonal relationships are stressed, but with student diversity used as a focus. Students should recognize and celebrate interpersonal differences, as well as possess the ability to interact and develop relationships with people from different cultures who have different value foundations. The term "multicultural" in this context encompasses a broad spectrum of meanings, similar to the usage of "academic development" mentioned earlier. In this learning goal, residential students are exposed to and actively explore issues related to race, gender, class, ability, sexual orientation, and religion. While most programs incorporate at least one of these topics, the ORL believes learning about multiculturalism is broader than the other six learning goals and should include a myriad of ways to express difference. The ORL continues to build stronger bridges with those in academia while fulfilling the goal of academic development and strengthens the connections with the Office of Multicultural Affairs while constructing the goal of multicultural awareness.

Knowledge about Alcohol and Other Drugs
Many institutions have problems related to alcohol and drug abuse; Syracuse University is no exception. Therefore, all residential students are exposed to

alcohol-related education. Education in this sense does not necessarily equate to classroom-style learning, but is structured, dialogue-based programming in which residents are asked to examine their own intentions related to alcohol use, the positive and negative effects of peer pressure, and the effects of alcohol and drugs on academic and social development. The ORL staff constructed many of the specifics of this goal in partnership with the Substance Abuse Prevention and Health Enhancement (SAPHE) Office, another office in the Division of Student Affairs, an additional example of how partnerships between the ORL and other important campus offices can strengthen.

CONTEXTS OF THE COMMUNITY ACTION PLAN

Motivating students to achieve the CAP's goals begins with residence hall professional staff, and most importantly, the Resident Advisors. Therefore, six "contexts" of the CAP have been developed to help RAs structure their time with their residents, thus increasing their effectiveness in reaching the five learning goals. These six contexts include Individual Interactions, Living Agreements, Floor Meetings, Floor Programming, Floor Standards, and Hall-wide Programming. Many of these contexts overlap, but each context requires that the RAs spend time on their floors or in their areas. This ensures that all residential students are being reached effectively and holistically.

Individual Interaction
This context deals with the informal time each RA spends with his or her residents. This context is most effective when used in conjunction with the other five contexts, serving to reinforce the learning that takes place in the community environment. For example, if at a Floor Meeting, a discussion took place concerning gay rights, the RA is encouraged through the Community Action Plan to follow up with a resident who appeared visibly uncomfortable. While this may occur even without a CAP structure, RAs are instructed about the importance of individual interactions and how those interactions can effect their residents. In this manner, the RA is better able to become an educator and change agent on their floor or in their area. Without the benefit of CAP, the work that an RA accomplishes in his or her area by simply having individual relationships with residents could be discounted or allowed to happen in a haphazard way. Adding structure to this context allows for ease in training RAs and recognition for those RAs that are skilled in this area.

Living Agreements
Living Agreements are written contracts between roommates or suitemates, pertaining to not only the five main goals, but also the issues regarding how they will succeed in the roommate/suitemate relationship. Topics roommates

typically agree to in the written contracts include: cleanliness, noise issues, gossip on the floor, and academic environment. Each roommate/suitemate group constructs these Living Agreements with the help of their RA two weeks into the academic year. Residents have the chance to interact for two weeks before compromising on agreements concerning quiet times in the room, how to handle gossip, and how to support each member's academic efforts. The Living Agreements are completed with the help of an RA and are filed centrally. They are often referred to in times of roommate/suitemate conflict and are used as a source of information for the RA describing how to effectively motivate particular residents via the CAP.

Floor Meetings

The RA on each floor also facilitates Floor Meetings. It is expected that each RA facilitate one floor meeting every week to build community on their floor and construct an arena to discuss floor problems, standards, and programs. Further, it is expected that each RA spend time marketing the importance of Floor Meetings to his or her residents, planning an agenda that touches on all or part of the goals of the CAP, and practicing their facilitation skills. While Floor Meetings are not mandatory for residents to attend, RAs stress the importance of being an active and concerned member of one's community, and encourage residents to be consistent participants. While each RA brings a unique facilitation style to the meetings, the department expects that each RA attempts to accomplish the unified goals of the department. Without these expectations, an RA may believe a Floor Meeting filled with quick announcements and reminders meets the department's expectations. With clearly delineated expectations, RAs have a better idea of how to become a successful facilitator of Floor Meetings.

Floor Programming

A variety of residential higher education institutions emphasize Floor Programming. Many of these institutions teach a variation of the Wellness Wheel. At Syracuse University, each RA is required to facilitate activities that incorporate the five learning goals of the CAP throughout the year. There is no minimum number of programs that an RA is required to reach by a given deadline. The ORL realizes that adding four of the remaining five contexts to the plate of an RA is significant in terms of the time commitments of the job. If RAs are encouraged to prioritize their academics, they should be given realistic expectations concerning the amount of time they should be spending on their job. Furthermore, if RAs demonstrate effectiveness in the other five contexts, the need for Floor Programming diminishes considerably. If RAs are effective in the other contexts, each resident will already feel part of their floor community, have a personal relationship with their RA, and be exposed to a number of experiences which will help them reach the goals of the CAP.

Floor Standards

Each floor/area has open discussions throughout the year concerning how residents will interact with each other, which helps them develop Floor Standards. These Standards do not come from the RA (or any authority figure in the residence hall), but from consensual decisions made by the residents themselves, reflecting their own values. The RA on the floor/area facilitates the floor discussions during which Floor Standards are created. Standards often change throughout the year, as residents become more comfortable with one another. Standards at the beginning of the year often involve rules, such as quiet hours and cleanliness. As the year progresses, standards set by the residents often are expanded to include such things as how birthdays and good grades are celebrated on the floor and how Floor Programming can be accomplished with resident involvement.

Hall-Wide Programming

RAs are asked not to engage in this context of Hall-wide Programming because it would take them away from the scope of their role in their area. The responsibility for Hall-wide Programming generally falls to each hall's Community Council, which consists of popularly elected leaders within each hall, and acts as a hall government for their hall or area. The CAP relieves the responsibility of Hall-wide Programming from an RA's plate by allowing them to spend more time and energy in their own areas without the concern for constructing a building-wide community. Further, this initiative allows students who are not RAs to have the opportunity to learn leadership skills while addressing necessary goals within their buildings and areas.

Summary

Relating the six contexts to the five learning goals of the Community Action Plan can be daunting even to the most experienced RA. However, the ORL has set guidelines to help RAs structure their efforts across the contexts and the learning goals. Each RA-sponsored activity that works to further the CAP should include some amount of dialogue and interaction for the participants. Participants are influenced by their peers when they are given the opportunity to share their beliefs and values. Kohlberg (1973) stated that many college students are in a developmental stage where the statements and actions of their colleagues, friends, and associates greatly affect their own thoughts, decisions, values, and experiences. Encouraging students to speak about their own thoughts, feelings, and decision-making processes encourages students to learn from each other, including the structured curriculum of the CAP as part of their conversations.

Five grids were created for the CAP which correspond to each of the five learning goals (see Appendix for Academic Development Grid). The rows

describe the six contexts and the columns describe the overall learning goal. At each intersection of column and row, there is a particular question that an RA can ask students that would spur dialogue. The question is followed by a related activity that would accomplish the same purpose.

What has been traditional within residence life programs must be changed before the CAP could be implemented effectively. These changes have affected RA training, supervision of RAs, advising Community Council, and the intent and structure of RA staff meetings. Other changes have also occurred.

LIMITATIONS

The Fall 2000 semester is the first semester that the plan has been in full implementation. Therefore, research pointing to its successes and failures does not exist. However, initial evaluations have been positive (T.E. Ellett, personal communication, October 5, 2000). The department has seen a marked increase in the number of students who are active in their living communities. Participation in the Residence Hall Association and in Community Councils has increased. Collaboration between the ORL and other departments across campus has been more consistent. While rigorous research to determine the effectiveness of the Community Action Plan has not been released, indications such as informal student feedback and anecdotal research conducted by the author throughout the Fall 2000 semester point to its early success (S. St. Onge, personal communication, October 9, 2000). While the Community Action Plan may not be applicable to all residence life programs, it will hopefully stimulate innovation.

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GOAL: Students Will Increase their Academic Learning Potential	OUTCOME A: Students Will Understand the University's Academic Expectations for Quality and Effort	OUTCOME B: Students Will Develop Academic Confidence	OUTCOME C: Students Will Recognize the Importance of their Active Engagement in the Learning Process
INDIVIDUAL INTERACTION	Question: How would you know the University's academic expectations for quality and effort? Activity: Door to Door and in Passing interaction.	Question: Tell me about how your classes are going. Activity: Door to Door and in Passing interaction.	Question: How do you actively engage in the learning process? What is your learning style? Activity: Door to Door and in Passing interaction.
FLOOR MEETINGS	Question: Where do find and what are the University's academic expectations for quality and effort? Activity: Dialogue and Newsprint Listing.	Question: How can we recognize academic achievement? Activity: Reading the academic Shout Out Board (see below).	Question: How can we actively engage in the learning process in our community? Activity: Facilitate a meeting or presentation individually.
FLOOR STANDARDS	Question: How do the University's academic expectations mesh with your needs in this community? Activity: Dialogue of quiet hours, lounge use, etc.	Question: How can we recognize our academic successes? Activity: Visible academic Floor Shout Out Board.	Question: What are your needs on our floor in regard to being able to be actively engaged in learning? Activity: Dialogue of quiet hours, lounge use, etc.
FLOOR PROGRAMMING	Question: How well do you know the University's academic expectations for quality and effort? Activity: 5-Core/Honor Code Jeopardy, Decoding your Syllabi.	Question: How can we recognize our academic successes as a floor? Activity: Floor Pride Week highlighting academic achievement and statistics.	Question: If you were watching a student study, how would you know they were actively engaged? Activity: Dialogue about different learning or studying strategies.
LIVING AGREEMENT	Question: How would the University's academic expectations mesh with your needs in your room? Activity: Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA.	Question: Describe a way that you have the means to set up your environment to facilitate your academic achievement. Activity: Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA.	Question: What are your needs in your room in regard to being able to be engaged in learning? Activity: Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA.
HALL COUNCIL (Building-Wide Programming)	Question: Where do the University's academic expectations for quality and effort come from? Activity: Review Organizational Chart of the Structure of the University.	Question: How can we recognize our academic achievement as a Hall? Activity: Hall-Wide Pride Day highlighting academic successes and statistics.	Question: How can we encourage students to be active about the learning process? Activity: HC lecture series, brown-bag lunch series.

GOAL: Students Will Increase their Academic Learning Potential	OUTCOME D: Students Will Understand the Advantages of Collaborative and Cooperative Learning	OUTCOME E: Students Will Understand the Interconnectedness of Academic and Social Experiences and Personal Interests	OUTCOME F: Students Will Identify and Make Appropriate Use of Academic Resources and Support
INDIVIDUAL INTERACTION	**Question:** Tell me about group projects that you have collaborated on. **Activity:** Door to Door and in Passing interaction.	**Question:** Tell me about how you successfully balance your academic, social, and personal experiences. **Activity:** Door to Door and in Passing interaction	**Question:** Tell me about the ways in which you use academic resources available to you. **Activity:** Door to Door and in Passing interaction.
FLOOR MEETINGS	**Question:** How can we as a floor facilitate collaborative learning in relation to our academic classes? **Activity:** Course Board.	**Question:** How can we share our academic, social, and personal interests or successes? **Activity:** Newsletter, Bulletin Board, Presentations, and Exhibits.	**Question:** What are the academic resources in the University community? **Activity:** Listing on Newsprint, Student Handbook, and Resource binder.
FLOOR STANDARDS	**Question:** What are your needs on this floor in regards to using the lounge as a cooperative learning setting? **Activity:** Discussion.	**Question:** How can our community facilitate time management skills? **Activity:** Discussing, setting, and maintaining quiet hours, social gatherings, meeting, etc.	**Question:** How do you see our community as an academic resource? **Activity:** Dialogue about quiet hours, lounge area, etc.
FLOOR PROGRAMMING	**Question:** Who are the people in our neighborhood? **Activity:** Open Dialogue of Majors, interests, courses, etc. Billboard of people on the floor.	**Question:** How can we share our academic projects on the floor? **Activity:** Bulletin Boards, exhibits, presentations of academic projects.	**Question:** Making use of your academic resources. **Activity:** Field Trips to Bird Library, Scavenger Hunts, Finding resources in home colleges.
LIVING AGREEMENT	**Question:** What are the needs in your room in regard to cooperative learning with your roommate or other floor mates? **Activity:** Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA.	**Question:** What are your needs in your room in relation to time management? **Activity:** Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA	**Question:** How do you see your room as an academic resource? **Activity:** Discussion between roommates facilitated by the RA.
HALL COUNCIL (Building-Wide Programming)	**Question:** How can we as a building utilize our community members to learn better? **Activity:** Common classes bulletin board, study groups.	**Question:** How can we incorporate our academic interests with our personal interests? **Activity:** Social dance classes, Foreign film series with discussion, karate demos.	**Question:** Know your academic resources. **Activity:** Guest Lecturers, Publications available in main lounge, etc.

Class of 2000

Each year, students of the graduating SAHE class conduct original research in the form of a thesis, or prepare a professional paper in order to meet graduation requirements. The Editorial Board is pleased to share the research topics from the Class of 2000.

The following is a list of the current positions of the members of the Class of 2000, followed by the title of their research. Please feel free to contact the author if you would like more information about his or her research. A copy of each author's thesis or professional paper is also be kept in the SAHE Library, located in the Palmer Center on the Colorado State University campus.

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Purpose

Manuscripts should be written for the Student Affairs generalist who has broad responsibility for educational leadership, policy, staff development, and management. Articles with specialized topics, such as harassment, should be written to provide the generalist with an understanding of the importance of the program area to Student Affairs; such an article should not take the form of a program specialist writing to a program specialist.

The Editorial Board invites submissions of the following types of articles:

* Quantitative, Qualitative, or Emancipatory Research Articles
* Editorial Articles
* Historical Articles
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* Book Reviews

Research articles for the Journal should stress the underlying issues or problem that stimulated the research. Treat the methodology concisely; and most importantly, offer a full discussion of the results, implications, and conclusions.

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 fewer than 1,000 words (approximately four pages). Exceptions should be discussed with the editors prior to submission.

Suggestions for writing

* Prepare the manuscript, including title page and reference page, in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Fourth Edition.

- Include an article abstract and brief description of the author. The abstract should clearly state the purpose of the article and be concise and specific, limited to 120 words. Refer to page 9 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

- Double-space all portions of the manuscript, including references, tables, and figures.

- Avoid bias in language; refer to page 46 of the Publication Manual for assistance.

- Do not use footnotes; incorporate the information into the text.

- Use the active voice as much as possible.

- Check subject/verb agreement, singular/plural.

- Use verb tense appropriately: past tense for the literature review and description of procedures, and present tense for the results and discussion.

- Proofread and double-check all references/citations before submitting your draft.

- Use Microsoft Word (7.0) or higher, PC version whenever possible.

- Any article under consideration for publication in a nationally distributed journal may not be submitted to the Colorado State University *Journal of Student Affairs*.

*Adapted from the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

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Student Affairs in Higher Education, Graduate Program
Colorado State University
Palmer Center
1005 West Laurel Street
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