Colorado
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Journal
of
Student
Affairs

Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs
Mission and Goal Statement

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 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 updates and the status of the Student Affairs in Higher Education Graduate Program at Colorado State.

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Table of Contents

PROGRAM EVALUATIONS

SAHE ALUMNI CONNECTIONS

Director's Perspective

Grant P. Sherwood, Ph.D.
Director
Student Affairs in Higher Education
Graduate Program

It was almost 35 years ago, the summer of 1964 to be specific, when the Dean of Men at the College of Wooster called to ask me if I would consider a Head Resident position at the College. "What's a Head Resident?" I exclaimed. The response was not that clear or reassuring, however this exchange put me on a career path called student affairs.

Our students of today tell similar tales. Rarely does one attend undergraduate school with the goal of becoming a student affairs professional. Experience, mentors, and fate all influence the decision to pursue a Master's degree in our field of many names...student affairs, college student personnel, student development, or higher education administration.

Today, applicants for our SAHE Program seem to reflect similar experiences. Many academic majors are represented, however students speak to their unique individual experiences as a dominant reason for applying. Some have been admissions guides, some program for diversity, some are community volunteers, some resident assistants, while others are leaders in clubs or campus organizations. In some way, most have been paraprofessionals in a position to help others and contribute to the campus culture during their undergraduate years.

As Master's candidates in our Program, students bring an excitement to continue this type of work, a passion for helping others, and a curiosity about higher education and new technology. The challenge for our faculty is to take this energy and help them develop the skills and understanding that allow for progressive work in our discipline. Our faculty members are committed to this role as evidenced by our work underway to review/revise this core curriculum. As we enter the new millennium, our Program is relevant and is responsive to change and our faculty is dedicated to this effort.

Hardees/Student Affairs in Higher Education Diversity Scholarship Recipients 1998-99

Spring 1998 Winners

Jennifer Roy
Tanya Dommel
Glenn DeGuzman
Kyle Funakoshi

Fall 1998 Winners

Jennifer Roy
Tanya Dommel
Tami Gonzales

Hardees in the Lory Student Center has donated funds to establish two research grants for the Student Affairs in Higher Education Program to enhance racial and ethnic diversity. Two $1,000 diversity research scholarships are awarded to two continuing students in the SAHE program during the fall semester. In addition, four diversity research scholarships for $500 each are awarded to four first-year students during the spring semester.

Congratulations Scholarship Winners!

Note From The Editor
Kirsten Peterson ('99)

This has been a challenging year for the Editorial Board of the Journal of Student Affairs. In addition to the work we all have faced with our assistantships, classes, and research papers, our community has faced some tragedies.

I believe educators across the nation were shocked only a few months ago by the brutal beating and death of Mathew Shepard. The gay University of Wyoming student was pistol-whipped and lashed to a fence on the Wyoming prairie. As he lay in the hospital dying, Mathew Shepard became a symbol across the nation for many issues. One that struck the heart of many is the importance of education. In the student affairs field, we strive to provide students with challenging experiences, which help them to grow and mature into sensitive, caring people. We encourage diversity and seek methods to bring it into the lives of our students. We want our students to go beyond a tolerance of differences. We strive to impact them in a way that encourages them to appreciate and value those who are different from them. For many, this last year has confirmed those values of the student affairs field.

This year, the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs has striven to provide a diverse range of articles. It is important to us that the Journal be able to continue to provide articles from alumni, faculty, and current students, on a variety of topics. Not only do we need to find ways to incorporate holistitc education into the lives of our students, but we also must seek out ways to educate ourselves and professionals and as a field.

Thank you for all of the hard work you put into the field of student affairs.

Acknowledgments

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- Dave Rosch ('99), who gave a great deal of time in the planning and development of the Journal, and always could make us laugh.

- The Reader Board, for their valuable input into the editing process. The Reader Board went through the time- intensive process of editing articles in this Journal.

- Keith Miser, the Vice President for Student Affairs at Colorado State University, for his continued support of the Journal.

- Mark Denke, the Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs at Colorado State University, for his assistance in bringing the Journal online.

- The Alumni of the CSPA/SAHE Program at Colorado State University. We value the time many have taken over the last several years, and especially this year, to submit articles to the Journal, and to continue to support the program.

- Beth Yohe ('98) who was instrumental in assembling the SAHE Alumni Connections component of the Journal.

ARTICLES

An Educational Advantage for Women:
Women's Colleges

Katy Casserly

This article explores alternatives for women attending college. It is suggested that attending a single-gender institution of higher education has multiple educational and social advantages for women. Furthermore, research indicates women who have attended women's colleges are more successful during and after their college years.

INTRODUCTION

Students may investigate many variables when exploring options for higher education. The size and location of the institution, types of majors offered, and the amount of financial aid available are just a few of the considerations for potential college students. However, few students stop to contemplate the gender composition of their future institution. While some students might not consider attending single-sex colleges and universities, there are numerous benefits in single-gender institutions. In fact, research suggests there are multiple educational advantages for students, and for women in particular, who attend single-sex colleges or universities. As stated by Riordan (1994),

> Coeducation is one of the least studied of all major topics in education. Researcher have attacked the issues of race and social class integration relentlessly. Likewise, the question of ability grouping (separate or mixed) has been investigated extensively. The pros and cons of mixed- and single-sex schooling, on the other hand, have received little attention. (p. 486)

This paper attempts to examine the benefits of a single-sex education for women at the collegiate level. These benefits may come in the form of academic success, identity formation, leadership potential, or future success. It is important to consider the history of women's institutions, as well as the benefits gained by women attending an all-female college or university. In addition, it is notable to consider the challenges presented by a single-sex education. It also is necessary to explore the different educational options provided to women and the viability of each option. Finally, the future of women's institutions is important to examine,

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especially in a time of social and cultural integration.

HISTORY

"The history of women's education does offer a high road into the fascinating world of women's perceptions of themselves and the world..." (Fox-Genovese, 1997, p. 203). The need for women's institutions was realized in the early 1800s. In 1821 Emma Willard, a pioneer for change in the education of women, founded the Troy Female Seminary in Troy, New York, (Komives & Woodward, 1996). As a whole, the southern United States made the first concentrated effort to establish women's institution of higher education. By the 1850s 30 of the 39 chartered female colleges in the country were located in the South. The stated goal of the first southern women's institution, Georgia Female College, later known as Wesleyan College, was to formulate an education for women identical "to that available at the highest levels for men and to use the term *college* in doing so" (Fox-Genovese, 1997, p. 204). The white male population believed that women could benefit from education, as a woman's role changed following the American Revolutionary War. Women were considered guardians of moral standards, since they provided their children with training and discipline. It was clear that women would need to be educated in a more orderly fashion (Komives & Woodward, 1996).

The process of educating women initially centered on the teaching of others. At the time, teaching seemed to be a natural extension of the woman's role as a nurturer and moral guardian. However, women's colleges eventually matched the proficiency of men's colleges in teaching modern languages such as French, German, Spanish, and Italian (Fox-Genovese, 1997). In addition, women's institutions surpassed men's institutions in the teaching of the arts, foreshadowing modern degrees in the fine arts. Women's schools also offered instruction in science and mathematics, and there were no "discernable differences" in the performance level of men and women (Fox-Genovese, 1997, p. 205).

BENEFITS TO WOMEN

As stated previously, research has suggested women benefit from attending a single-gender institution. Studies have indicated the primary advantages for women educated at single-gender institutions were improved academics and emotional confidence (Smith, Wolf, & Morrison, 1995; Kim & Alverez, 1995; Monaco & Gaier, 1992; Riordan, 1994). Additional benefits included increased opportunities for leadership positions and enhanced post-graduation achievement.

The rationale for improved academic performance for women at single-gender

colleges or universities was based upon research comparing coeducational and women's institutions. Research implied that a "chilly climate" in the coeducational, college classroom not only drives women from some "masculine" fields, such as engineering and science, but also hinders their learning processes (Riordan, 1994). "Male students generally receive more attention from teachers, and they dominate discussions and classroom interaction at all levels" (Riordan, 1994, p. 489).

A coeducational climate may dissuade female students from participating in class, prevent them from pursuing help outside the classroom, and cause them to avoid "sexist" classes or professors. Women's institutions, in contrast, "provide special innovative programs for women and, in some cases, tailor to the learning style of women" (Riordan, 1994, p. 490). For example, Ursuline College, in Cleveland, Ohio, has designed its curriculum to emphasize group discussions and collaborative learning, as it has been shown that more women learn in a social context (Gose, 1995). In addition, the mere presence of women, as well as encouragement from female peers, appears to be important in the development of women's interests in academic achievement (Riordan, 1994).

Another possible educational advantage for women attending single-sex institutions is the percentage of same-gender role models. Women at women's colleges and universities are much more likely to consider female faculty as role models (Whitt, 1994; Kim & Alverez, 1995; Monaco & Gaier, 1992; Miller-Bernal, 1993; Riordan, 1994). Some argue this is a result of a higher percentage of women faculty and administrators. According to the website for Scripps College, a women's college in Claremont, California, "more than 80% of all women's college presidents are women, compared to 12% at coed institutions, and the faculty, senior administration, and boards of trustees at most women's colleges are equally divided between male and female" (Scripps College, 1998, On-line source). Miller-Bernal (1993) concluded that students perform better in an atmosphere where it is perceived that the faculty and staff are sufficiently concerned with their needs. A greater proportion of women faculty, staff, and administrators may increase this perception of concern.

One of the many advantages to attending a women's college is gaining a higher level of self-esteem. Monaco and Gaier (1992) state, "Women in single-sex settings are also exposed to an atmosphere in which high-achievement women are the rule rather than the exception" (p. 586). Environments that promote highest potential performance, while at the same time support them in all facets of their education, boost their self-esteem. Miller-Bernal (1993) suggested the key reason women's colleges benefit their students is because the environment encourages students to be more confident in themselves. Miller-Bernal (1993) also proposed

a women's centered curriculum, one that focuses on the learning styles of women, among other concepts, is an important instrument from which women learn to value themselves.

Single-gender institutions for women also increase the availability of extracurricular activities and access to leadership positions for females. All leadership positions at women's colleges are open to women. Phinney (1998) confirmed that attendance at a women's college increases the chance of women acquiring leadership positions during college (Collegexpress, On-line source). In addition, Monaco and Gaier (1992), in their study on adolescent females, observed how single-gender institutions address leadership for women. "First, they give women a better opportunity to become class president and vice-president, instead of secretary and treasurer. Second, they eliminate the conflict between assertiveness and sex-role stereotypes for women" (p. 587). In addition, women at single-gender schools are exposed to more leadership experiences, and these experiences are typically of a "higher quality" (Monaco & Gaier, 1992, p. 92).

An additional advantage for women attending a single-gender institution is success after graduation. Many women's colleges expound these successes on their websites:

> Of Business Week's list of 50 female "rising stars" in corporate America, 30% graduated from women's college (Collegexpress, 1998, On-line source).

> One out of every seven cabinet members in state government attended a women's college (Judson College, 1998, On-line source).

> Graduates of women's colleges are more than twice as likely as graduates of coeducational institutions to receive doctoral degrees, to enter medical school, and to receive doctorates in the natural sciences (Judson College, 1998, On-line source).

While this is not a comprehensive list, it is a sample of some of the successes of graduates from women's colleges. Women's colleges are quick to give evidence of their successful graduates. However, little research exists to support the notion that attendance at a women's university guarantees success for females. According to Miller-Bernal (1993), "Entering Wells students [an all women's college] were more likely to have definite career goals" (p. 28). Further studies have suggested that perhaps it is the successful nature of the students who choose to attend women's colleges, rather than the institution itself, that leads to women's college graduates' achievement (Marsh 1989). "When controls were made for women's

background characteristics, precollege aspirations, other institutional characteristics, college academic and social experiences, and marital status, institutional gender had only nonsignificant and trivial impacts on women's postcollege educational, occupational, and economic attainments" (Riordan, 1994, p. 488).

CHALLENGES AND ALTERNATIVES

Although there are many benefits for women attending single-gender schools, there also are some challenges. Many women's institutions are small, private, liberal arts schools. Such small schools, ranging in size from 500 to 2,000 full-time, traditionally-aged students, provide little margin for diversity. In addition, there is limited socioeconomic class disparity at women's colleges. Without much economic diversity, students at women's institutions have less interaction and experience with different economic classes. Also, students at women's colleges and universities do not gain the experience of leading men or working with men. Women's colleges and universities have been "criticized for not preparing women for the 'real' world of leadership" (Whitt, 1994, p. 203).

While it appears from the above information that there are educational advantages for women attending women's colleges or universities; there also are alternatives which may offer similar advantages. Miller-Bernal (1993) explored four different types of institutions of higher education: Wells, a women's college; William Smith, a coordinate college; and Middlebury and Hamilton, two coeducational institutions. All of these institutions are small (between 500 and 1,500 students), private, liberal arts schools, located in small communities in the northeast United States. Via questionnaire, the study tracked 260 women, some from each institution, during their undergraduate experience. Students at William Smith, the coordinate college (which is comparable to a "sister school" for a men's college), had similar experiences inside and outside of the formal classroom setting to the students at Wells, the women's college. In fact, on some variables, female students at William Smith fared better than Wells' students. These variables included having taken at least one course on women's issues, and the amount of concern they feel the administration and faculty express for female students (Miller-Bernal, 1993). This study supports the notion that a coordinate school may be another viable alternative to women's college education.

THE FUTURE OF WOMEN'S COLLEGES

At this point in time, the future of women's institutions is uncertain. Women's colleges were established in the 1800s because at the time there was no other higher education alternative. Throughout the last 100 years, the number of

coeducational colleges and universities has increased, while the number of women's colleges has decreased (Smith et al., 1995). While there were 268 women's colleges in the 1960s, presently only 84 women's colleges exist. These numbers are not encouraging; however, women's colleges have moved forward with the times, incorporating innovative learning opportunities, such as collaborative learning and group discussions, for their students. The future of women's colleges and universities lies with these innovations. Riordan (1994) stated, "A choice of single-sex education is a proacademic/prowomen choice. This choice-making process clearly involves the concept of a shared 'value community'" (p. 491). There always will be a need to produce strong, intellectual women. Women's colleges need to continue to fulfill this role.

In conclusion, Riordan (1994) suggested there are ten theoretical rationales that support the notion that women's colleges may be more productive academic environments than coeducational schools for females. These rationales include:

1. The diminished strength of youth culture values
2. A greater degree of order and control
3. The provision of more successful role models
4. A reduction of sex differences in curriculum opportunities
5. A reduction of sex bias in teacher-student interaction
6. A reduction of sex stereotypes in peer interaction
7. The provision of a greater number of leadership opportunities
8. A proacadmic parent/student choice
9. Possible provision of special programs for women
10. Accommodations to gender differences in learning (p. 491)

The exploration of these explanations may suggest there are conceivable reasons to attend single-gender schools. While every institution has positive and negative qualities, prospective students need to examine all aspects of an institution to find one that best suits their needs. Research shows that women's colleges and universities are viable and promising choices for female high school students.

Women who attend, or have attended, women's colleges feel there are definite advantages to these kinds of institutions. According to a Wells College graduate, "The best thing [about a women's college] is the friendships I've formed. I feel like there is a special bond among the women here" (Wells College, 1998, On-line source). Another graduate expressed her feelings about a single-gender education by stating, "The most important thing to me was the experience in the classroom, the feeling that the professors expected nothing less than the best...a lot of it was about women being able to speak up, not silenced" (Phinney, 1998, On-line). Although an education is a valuable possession, an education catering to specific

gender needs and created to help maximize learning, has even more value. Women's institutions may provide the quality and experience that students are seeking. As women's colleges and universities offer precious rewards in learning, self-esteem growth, identity formation, and leadership potential, it is important to recognize them as valuable institutions of higher education.

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How Women Administrators in Public Higher Education Institutions Choose their "Battles"

Stephanie Clemons, Ph. D. and Gene Gloeckner, Ph. D.

The purpose of this qualitative, phenomenological study was to assess perceptions of women administrators in public higher education institutions on how they choose their "battles." What "battles" the women chose related to their demographic information, organizational culture, leadership style and conflict management skills.

INTRODUCTION

Women leaders who hope to attain or retain a higher education administration position need effective conflict management skills to negotiate through the organizational culture and demands of the position. Studies of over 200 women in leadership positions in business and higher education indicate that conflict is one function of organizational performance (Singleton, et al., 1994). Some researchers propose that certain types of conflict are healthy and lead to creative solutions, while other types of conflict – involving personal animosity – provoke distrust, cynicism, and apathy (Amason & Thompson, 1995).

Much has been written concerning effective conflict resolution techniques used to diffuse the possibility of an altercation (Drake, 1996; Fennell, 1994; Grab, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Keane, 1996). In addition, much has been shared concerning conflict management (Kormanski, 1982). However, little research has been conducted to identify the decision-making process women administrators in higher education employ when determining in which conflicts to engage. A conflict can escalate to such a level as to be considered as a "battle." Some articles or newsletters, documenting women administrators' opinions contain references of "having to pick and choose...battles" (Albino, 1992; Westerhof, 1995). How do women administrators choose which "battles" to "fight?"

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BACKGROUND

Decision-making and Conflict
Decision-making is a critical role of the educational administrator. It is largely a cognitive task concerned with achieving a "best" decision or solution for a given situation. Decision-making has been defined as the reduction of informational uncertainty (Fann & Smeltzer, 1989) or as efforts to analyze a task, assess evaluation criteria, and identify the positive and negative qualities of alternative choices (Hirokawa & Rost, 1992).

During the decision-making process, conflict can occur when differing perspectives, or orientations to the problem, make a single solution unlikely or impossible. Conflict is an inevitable and normal event of organizational life. Research indicates that certain conflicts typically arise over differing values, scarce resources, rewards, status, and power (Schockley-Zalabak, 1981).

Although conflict is recognized as essential for organizational growth, conflict can produce both positive and negative outcomes. Strategies are needed to handle the resulting tension from conflict situations. Research indicates that women frequently encounter stereotypes concerning their conflict management skills when seeking educational administrative positions. Women are sometimes perceived as less capable in terms of attitudes and skills needed in managerial work. In addition, women are sometimes viewed as unwilling to exercise power, conflict avoid-ers, indecisive, valuing harmony over productivity, and lacking in assertiveness (Childress, 1986; Fortinberry, 1986; Jacobson, 1985; Kagan, 1980). However, research on conflict management models typically has involved male subjects and been conducted by male researchers (Formisano, 1987).

Many conflict management strategies have been suggested to women administrators, such as withdrawing or suppressing the conflict, integrating conflicting ideas to form a new solution, working out a compromise, or using power to resolve the conflict (Kormanski, 1982). Occasionally, conflict management strategies are not enough and escalation occurs to a new level informally referred to as a "battle" situation.

Battles
Although the term "battle" rarely is used in a formal sense within the educational arena, the colloquial phrase "pick your battles" is referenced when discussing strategies for successful management as an administrator and leader. Ondrovich (1997) discussed twelve cardinal rules for dealing with educational conflict. She advocated that confronting the problem directly may not always be the best plan. "Picking your battles carefully and choosing the ones you can win is essential

to...survival" (Ondrovich, 1997, p. 12). Westerhof (1995, p. 6) quoted the Vice Chancellor from the University of Colorado at Denver: "What bothers her most as an administrator is having to pick and choose her battles."

The phrase "choose your battles carefully" seems to involve strategy. According to Judith Albino (1992), past president of University of Colorado, the word "strategy" seems to be a "dirty word." Albino advocated that strategizing is a skill needed in the educational field because most women are competing (another "dirty word") primarily against men who seem more versed in strategy, competition and a few other job related skills. A study of women college administrators identified four abilities of successful women in the field, one of which was the ability to use strategy (Albino, 1992).

Conflicts are commonplace in organizations, including educational institutions. Conflicts can escalate to a "battle" situation when individuals are under emotional stress, or when there is a climate of distrust, competition, or miscommunication. What types of strategies do women administrators use when choosing their battles? What is the decision-making process engaged in prior to the decision to enter into an escalated conflict or battle? How do women administrators in public educational institutions "choose their battles?"

METHODOLOGY

This study uses the phenomenological method of qualitative inquiry (Moustakas, 1994). This particular study attempted to capture the meaning of the experienced reality, with the focus of the process on *how* something happened rather than on outcomes or results.

Twelve women in administrative positions in community colleges or universities were invited to participate in the study. Two declined the invitation. Sampling was performed using a theory-based or operational construct selection technique (Patton, 1990).

Personal interviews, from 60 to 90 minutes in length, were conducted at the participating administrator's institution. After the interviews were transcribed, analysis was performed using analytical methods associated with grounded theory (Patton, 1990). The issues of validity and reliability were addressed in a number of ways. To enhance the validity of the study four verification procedures were incorporated: compilation of a reflexive journal (Creswell, 1998), member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), peer examination (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and clarification of the researcher's bias (Creswell, 1998). The issue of reliability was addressed with the use of an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

FINDINGS

Demographics

Of the ten women interviewed for this study, six were employed by universities and four were employed by community colleges. Half of the women held non-academic positions. The titles held by these women ranged from dean of a college to president of the institution. Four of the women had served in administrative positions for 16-20 years and half of the women held a Ph.D. as their most advanced degree. Of the participants, seven were married and six had children at home while serving as an administrator. Half of the women were between the ages of 46-50. Three administrators indicated their ethnicity was not Caucasian.

Leadership Philosophies and Administrative Roles

To derive some understanding of the phenomenon of "how women administrators in public institutions choose their battles," it is important to describe the philosophy these women advocated concerning their personal leadership or management style. The participants' described their leadership styles as "participative management," "advocate of positive morale," "collaborative," "consultative," and "collective." In addition, these women administrators believed "praising employees is important," "patience with committees" is necessary, and decision-making should be an "inclusive process."

The women perceived their administrative roles differently depending on their position at their institution. Top level administrators perceived themselves as CEOs with the mission of preserving the vision of the organization. One woman, in a mid-management position, perceived herself as a "servant" who "quietly and nobly" served her unit. Other women administrators perceived their roles as facilitators, advocates, collaborators, the institution's representative, or a "voice" to present another's perspective.

Use of the term "Battle"

The word "battle" elicited a strong negative response from every administrator interviewed. Their negative perceptions seemed grounded in the belief that "battles" are antagonistic, confrontational, adversarial, and dictatorial, with a "winner" and a "loser" or "pro" and "con" positions. Some women were offended by the word "battle" and indicated they felt extreme discomfort or were "put off" by the use of the term.

It is important to note that three of the women indicated they almost refused an interview because of the research question. One woman said she had refused to participate in the study until she found herself in a conversation with a colleague

participate in the study until she found herself in a conversation with a colleague and actually used the word "battle" herself. However, many of the women admitted that "battles" were a part of their administrative lives. This is where a pattern begins to emerge. Every one of the women in middle management positions indicated that the word "battle" is an accurate term to describe the amount of conflict inherent in certain situations or events. As one administrator said:

> I think 'battle' is not a bad word – I think it is actually pretty accurate. There are battles. There are winners and losers sometimes. There don't have to be winners and losers in a total battle. ...just in parts of the battle.

Another middle management administrator confirmed that the word "battle" is accurate. When asked why, she responded, "because it is full of maneuvers and strategies and I associate it with war language. I think it is a good analogy." A third administrator said, "in rare cases the word 'battle' is accurate."

Women administrators in upper management positions also indicated discomfort with the word "battle," but were willing to use the term and discuss the decision-making process that is inherent in a "battle" situation. One woman said:

> I don't like the word battle, but there <u>are</u> some battles. My preference is to think in terms of negotiating and so the primary part of my work is to select the ways in which I will negotiate for what needs to happen. There are occasional battles, but for me and the style that I work and what has been most successful for me has been negotiate, negotiate, negotiate. And if there are battles, they had best be very, very, very significant.

Top level administrators indicated they did not think in "battle" terms at all. Rather, they thought of conflict situations as opportunities for "facilitation" and "problem-solving" that involved certain strategies. One top level administrator said:

> I wouldn't always call them battles in that we're not always lining up with someone in a "pro" position and someone in a "con" position. I think a lot of them are "pro, pro" or "con, con." I wouldn't call them battles because there is no fight. There is nothing to be won. You just need to take a stand on particular issues.

The emerging pattern indicated that administrators in mid-level positions were willing to label the conflict situations as "battles," while top level administrators

considered the conflict situations as opportunities for "facilitation." Based on that emerging pattern, the researcher asked the remaining few women who were interviewed if they had viewed battles differently in earlier administrative positions. They confirmed that when they held faculty positions, they remembered being more confrontational, than facilitative.

Battle Definitions and Perceptions
When defining a battle, the women administrators used such phrases as: being assertive, being aggressive, a chess game, choosing to "be out there," a compromise, a conflict, the defense of an issue, an issue with a significant effect, a difference of opinion, maneuvers or strategies, not a "win-win situation," constructive problem solving, putting an issue on the line, setting priorities, taking a risk, a tough stand, or advancing a cause.

One woman administrator said the "battle" is:

> ...often times not a win, win situation, but it's a compromise achieved. Or putting it on the line. It is being up front, being assertive with your thoughts and our actions. I think a lot of people interpret it as being confrontive, but I'm not so sure that it always needs to be confrontive. I think it's being direct. I think for women to do battle, it's being direct and being straight and acknowledging the issues, but it doesn't always have to be seen as confrontive.

The women administrators had many comments and perceptions concerning "battles" that emerged when discussing the decision-making process of choosing to "battle." The perceptions ranged from the beliefs that battles are situational, political, and contextual in nature, to personal and territorial. Battles can be energy-consuming, risky, and emotionally demanding; therefore, they need to be worthwhile. Battle lines shift, they can move fast, and they can be a 24-hour, everyday engagement of resources. Size-wise, battles can be system-wide and complex, or simplistic. Battles also can range from small skirmishes to a series of battles commonly referred to as a "war."

The Decision-Making Process
The decision-making process to choose to "battle" was different for every woman administrator interviewed. It is important to note that for those women who did not like to use the word "battle," another phrase, selected by the administrator at the onset of the interview, was used. Therefore, although the word "battle" predominates in this study and in the interviews in an attempt to understand this phenomena, other words or phrases such as "conflict" or "a tough stand" can be used in replacement.

The question of how women administrators choose their "battles" revealed a decision-making process that leads up to a "battle" situation. Five themes emerged from this decision-making process. They were: a) choosing to battle; b) identifying battle issues; c) evaluating the potential battle situation; d) negotiating and communicating techniques; e) avoiding battles – pro and con. In the following section, each theme is identified, defined, and discussed. Women administrator's voices will be shared to support the findings.

Choosing to Battle

An issue arises that demands the attention of the administrator. Conflict and differing opinions result. Most likely, the battle is brought to the administrator. In rare instances, the administrator instigates the battle. One top-level administrator made the following statement regarding issues and her choice in battle situations:

> It depends on the issue and it depends on whether it's important that I speak out on that issue. You're not in a battle until you choose to be in that battle. There are times when people will start arguing and my thought is 'Man, I'm staying out of this one.' I mean there is nothing to be gained by jumping in on either side. And so I just won't say anything. People might ask your opinion and you say 'Well, I really don't think there is an institutional position on this issue.' You're not going to take sides in a particular issue.

When asked whether they always feel that they choose their battles, a number of women indicated they lacked a choice.

> Sometimes battles are imposed upon me. It's not always my choice. There is a battle going on right now in [our state] over a degree that we offer...I didn't choose that battle. I don't want that battle. But it's mine and every other [upper-level administrator] in the state. So...I have no choice.

Another woman administrator disagreed. She said choosing a battle is always a conscious decision:

> It has to be a strategic battle. There's always battles going on every day, but I turn my back and walk away from them. And you know, I can only choose so many. I'd like to say I choose one a year. It sometimes has to come up to about three a year. But they're exhausting, and incredibly demanding. It is the way, I think, administrators are making change.

A common theme emerged from these women administrators in identifying potential issues that could bring conflict into their environment. Some of the women felt they did choose their battles, consciously and deliberately. Other women felt that certain battles were brought to them and it was part of their job to negotiate through them. They felt they had no choice in whether to engage in certain battles. Regardless of their instigation, as one administrator put it, it is important to choose. She said:

> Participant: It's important for women to choose.
> Interviewer: Not just to go at every battle all the time?
> Participant: Right. Nobody has that level of energy. To be effective, you have to choose. If you are seen as somebody who is onto everything in a very, very energetic way, then you may not be effective on anything.

If there is a choice in choosing certain battles, the women administrators firmly pointed out that they needed to be selected carefully and wisely. In addition, they felt it was more important to battle issues that threatened common goals of the organization. One woman discussed the rationale supporting the belief that choosing battles that are selfish or petty is self-defeating.

> There are certain battles I don't choose, by the way. Because it's looked at as petty. And I want to deal with more important big issues – issues that people would perceive as useful and not just lethargic. [Those petty issues] detract from the real serious problems. So, yes, you choose your battles that will be the most helpful. You start off with what you think are abuses and are really fundamentally hurting the institution, if any exist. Then you start looking at ways to make a vital, operating, stirring place.

The phrase "the right thing to do" was used repeatedly. Many of the women administrators indicated that regardless of the costs, personal or professional, they had the moral, professional, and ethical responsibility to "go to bat" for others because "it was the right thing to do" given the situation.

Although the costs of a battle are previously weighed, the women administrators felt they must take on a battle to support their personally held principles and values. Regardless of the choices presented to them, the administrators all advocated that analyzing all sides of the issue was a key decision-making part of the process.

Identifying Battle Issues

Issues these woman administrators felt were worthy of a battle typically involved personally held values or beliefs. Certain broad-based battle issues involved ethics, justice, equality, diversity, racism, sexism, and sexual orientation. As one administrator said:

> I'd probably go to battle unquestionably anytime that I feel someone is being treated unfairly or unjustly, whether it's discrimination, race, gender, or sexual orientation. I have very strong values about people being oppressed and how that plays out.

Other issues that generated a battle situation included fairness, honesty, mistreatment of others, equitable treatment and pay, and diversity of opinion. One woman felt very strongly about gender discrimination concerning equity pay. Earlier in her career she had been given a raise $200 lower than any other faculty member who had been hired at the same time. When reviewing her performance with her boss, she discovered it was not her performance that was inferior, rather the reverse. It was because her husband had a job that contributed to her household income. The woman administrator said:

> The bridges were totally destroyed that meeting [when I discovered the truth]. And I left that university because I will not work for someone who makes that kind of decision. It's important to me that I'm dealt with in an equitable manner. And I will not stand for anything that's not equitable.

Still other issues involved respect for others, being excluded from decisions or critical information, being blind-sided, or questioning their integrity. The administrators indicated that battle issues were not black and white, that they rarely disappeared if lacking attention, and that they considered them a part of their job.

Evaluating the Potential Battle Situation

Evaluating a potential battle situation involved many skills. One of them was the gathering of critical information. How and when this was done seemed to shape the battle situation. One of the key pieces of information was to determine if a battle was really inevitable.

The women administrators felt other questions needed to be asked when gathering critical information. The following is a list of those questions according to the women.

Who are the stakeholders?
What are the pros and cons of the situation?
What is the worst case scenario?
What is the possible outcome?
Is the battle "winnable"?
What are your own priorities for the battle?
Who is in the battle?
What is your realm of influence?
What are the costs and possible gain of going into battle?
What are the risks?
How many other battles is the administrator currently engaged in?
What is the possible impact on the administrator and others?

Following are two women administrators' voices evaluating a potential battle situation.

Well, I think you should have all your facts. I think one thing I've learned early on and I watch is that you should always look into both sides of the story. There are usually two sides to stories. And you should have all your facts before you proceed.

I think I spend a lot of time determining whether or not it's worth my energy. I mean, there are things, you know about the circles. [She drew three concentric circles on a sheet of paper – See Figure 1.] What you have learned is in the outside circle, and the next area is your area of influence and in the center is your area of control. I think for me, I measure is this an area I have control over? Or is this an area I can have influence over? Or is this an area that the best I'm going to do is learn from it? I need to decide when I can influence. Often times, I look at my realm of influence and I say, "What can I bring to the table? What is my area of expertise? How well do I know that individual? How well do I know their reaction?

Figure 1. Realm of Influence (see page 33).

Weighing factors

Once the information is gathered, the potential battle is weighed against other activities or skirmishes going on in personal and professional lives. Weighing factors that emerged from the coding of the data included:

What are the battle costs or the "fallout"?
What can be gained?
What are the projected or desired outcomes?

What is the context of the battle (political agendas)?
What will be the personal impact (personal energy involved)?
What other people will be impacted?
Are there personal and professional costs?
What are the issues initiating the battle?
Is the timing right?

Negotiating and Communicating Techniques

The main goal of the decision-making process concerning a potential battle was to diffuse the situation enough to circumvent one. This phase involved the administrator's use of communication and negotiation skills, in an attempt to achieve a win-win situation – which seemed to be the goal of the women administrators. As one woman said:

> I think that most situations are "win" situations. And I think that is optional. I think people can choose to view things as a "lose" situation. And I guess that's their choice. But I think most things can be a "win" situation. It's not a battle, but there's negotiation. How can we do that? What kinds of ways can we do that? I think you can prevent most battles unless you're caught off guard and something comes up.

Communication skills involved careful listening and determining how other people may hear the message best. One woman administrator related a powerful story of working in an all-male office and how she discovered a way they would hear her best, whether negotiating or communicating. The method involved the use of a man on the committee! She said:

> I have been a single female administrator among ten or fifteen male administrators—the only female perspective and minority perspective. In discussions and in dialogue, I would be present at the table, but invisible in terms of what I had to say. They would, you know, nod their heads, but not hear what I was saying. The strategy that I began to develop was to lean over and whisper to the male next to me, and then that person would say my idea and it worked.
> Interviewer: So, voice...it is who is the mouthpiece. You found a different mouthpiece where your ideas could be shared.
> Participant: Yeah, and it is okay that I didn't have credit for it. I just wanted the problems to be solved and I needed solutions.

Lastly, communication techniques mentioned by these women administrators involved being clear about goals, keeping the superior apprised of the situation, being sure to communicate clearly and honestly, choosing words carefully--

especially in written communications, and being very clear about their stance.

In summary, these women administrators implemented strategies for circumventing a battle through techniques of conflict resolution. Discussions indicated they did not strive to put someone in a figurative "corner," but rather tried to listen and perceive another's viewpoint. Critical thinking was perceived as important. One woman felt strongly that it was important to avoid the appearance of "digging in" or entrenchment before the battle had ever begun. Instead, there needs to be acceptance that there are two sides to every story and different lenses through which to view the same situation or world. Listening and gathering a clear picture of the situation is a valuable technique of conflict management.

Avoiding Battles – Pro and Con

Women value personal relationships. Battles are perceived as a way to sever relationships because of the harm inflicted on another individual. Therefore, avoiding a battle, if possible, is an understandable step in the midst of a conflict situation. Although the majority of the women administrators strongly advocated the use of negotiation and compromise to avoid a battle, one woman discussed the belief that at some point avoiding battles is harmful.

> I think when it becomes negative is when we avoid it--when we avoid the opportunity to do battle. And I think for many of us that is what we do. We avoid the battle rather than doing it. If we always avoid doing battle because we don't like to do it, --because it's difficult, it's confrontive –then I think everything goes underground, and then I think it's a much bigger issue than we ever assumed it was going to be.

At some point in a conflict situation, after many attempts have been made to resolve the issue or to achieve a compromise, a stand must be taken. However, taking a stand should be used sparingly--especially a tough stand. If a tough stand is taken sparingly, the chances of winning increase.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The review of literature indicated that a consuming task for higher education administrators is the management of conflict that results from organizational growth and change. Conflicts can escalate to such a level as to be described as a "battle." This qualitative research study assessed perceptions of women administrators in public higher education institutions on how they elected to "choose their battles." Although the ten women used slightly different decision-making processes in choosing their "battles," the analysis of the data revealed an

overall decision-making model that could reflect all ten participants. (See Figure 1.) The disadvantage of the overall model is that it becomes "watered down," losing the complexity and dynamics of the individual decision-making process.

In studying the decision-making model, the women administrators used a series of evaluative questions to determine whether the battle was worth fighting. Some of these questions assessed the real issue, type of resources, time available in their work schedule, whether it was an important value or principle, severity of the risks, and potential gain and losses. What "battles" they chose related to their: a) demographic information; b) organizational culture; c) leadership style; and d) conflict management skills.

Organizational Culture and Leadership Style
Interestingly, the women's perception and definition of a "battle" seemed to differ depending on the level of influence they held at their institutions. The women in mid to upper level administration perceived the word "battle" accurately described the particular situation or event. Their comments indicated a type of confrontation that was "face-to-face"--where the opponents could be seen, talked to, and heard. The issues were not necessarily more personal in nature, but more immediate to their surroundings, as if they were closer to the battle lines. The women seemed to have a personally held, vested interest in the outcome of the battle.

This did not seem to be the case with the top-level administrators. Their position during the "battle" seemed to be more removed, facilitative, and global. The process was one of negotiation, collaboration, and cooperation to achieve the "common good," than of a one-on-one "battle" situation. An analogy could be drawn that their role was to study the global picture of the "battle" from the "war room," working with their teams of experts to identify potential conflict situations.

This study was not an in-depth look at women's leadership skills in higher education. However, it was evident that *how* these women administrators selected their "battles" directly correlated to their individual leadership philosophies. In fact, each of the women discussed their decision-making process of choosing a "battle" within the context of their personal leadership style.

The women administrators in this phenomenological study described their leadership styles as being "participative management," "collaborative," "consultive," and "collective." Their philosophy of accomplishing common goals was one of a more "web-like" structure (Helgesen, 1990), than a dictatorial hierarchy. Many perceived their role as a leader, whether in the organization or

in a "battle," as acting as an advocate for others. Use of networks, negotiating, and empowering others also emerged as communication techniques or strategies used in this decision-making process.

Numerous women in this study discussed their decision-making process as situational. One woman indicated it would be very difficult to predict her reaction to a conflict, that every event necessitates different evaluation and techniques.

Finally, similar to a recent study of theoretical leadership (Irby, 1995), the participants tended to use strong leadership characteristics: a) seeking input; b) encouraging others to be involved in decision-making; c) sharing power and credit; d) empowering others to improve skills; and e) maintaining open communication. Only when the women were pushed or forced into a figurative "corner," would they act in a more direct style, perhaps because that was the style "heard best" by that group of individuals.

Conflict Management Skills
The women indicated conflict that could evolve into a "battle" situation could be minimized or managed. Effective leadership mandates both knowledge of and skill in conflict management techniques. A great deal of research has been conducted on strategies for managing conflict – otherwise known as conflict management. Wheeless and Reichel (1990) found that a supervisor's use of solution-orientation strategies (a combination of collaboration and compromise) related positively to subordinates' satisfaction with supervision. The use of non-confrontation strategies (a combination of avoiding and accommodating) and control strategies (i.e. forcing) related negatively to task attraction of the supervisor. Therefore, the women administrators' use of compromise and collective collaboration would wield positive results to conflict situations.
Counter Story and Final Remarks

There is the possibility of a counter story in every research study (Gardner, 1995; Jablonski, 1996). In these interviews, the women administrators may have presented their sense of what they wanted to be or what they were trying to be, rather than how they really were. They may unintentionally have omitted "negative" perceptions they had received about themselves, or they may have wanted to portray a more positive image for this study. A counter story only can be assessed after interviewing others who work or participate in the phenomenon with the participant.
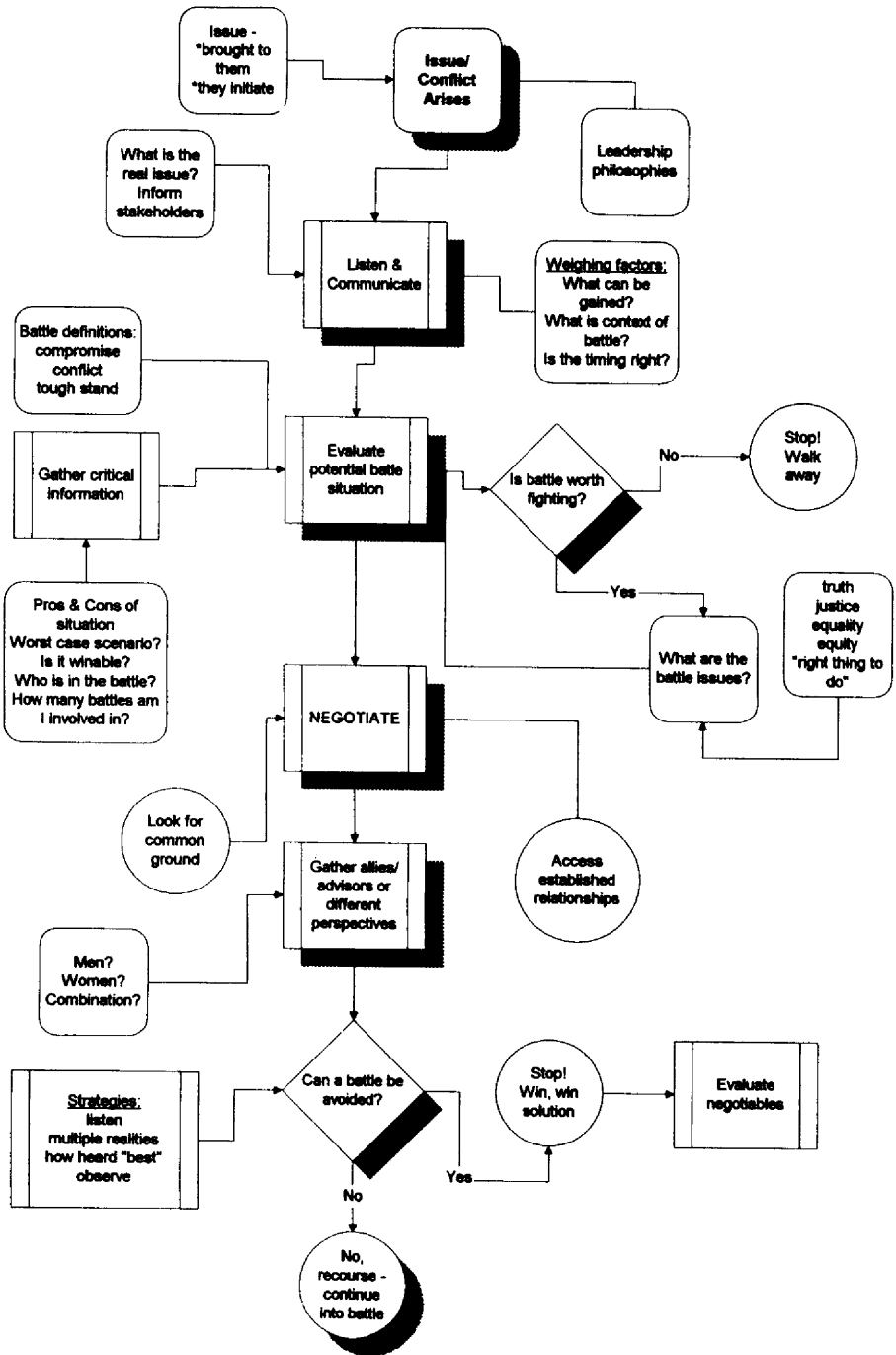
In conclusion, the women administrators were powerful – perhaps more so because they rarely used the word. They were highly educated, experienced

administrators who had survived and thrived in a male-dominated, hierarchical environment. They chose their "battles" cautiously and carefully, realizing their resources were limited and the costs high. They exemplified a new style of leadership for the next century-- not one that is devoid of leadership characteristics typically associated with males, but one that works well with the *individual*, regardless of their gender status.

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Issue -
*brought to them
*they initiate

Issue/ Conflict Arises

Leadership philosophies

What is the real issue? Inform stakeholders

Listen & Communicate

Weighing factors:
What can be gained?
What is context of battle?
Is the timing right?

Battle definitions:
compromise
conflict
tough stand

Gather critical information

Evaluate potential battle situation

Is battle worth fighting?

No

Stop! Walk away

Pros & Cons of situation
Worst case scenario?
Is it winable?
Who is in the battle?
How many battles am I involved in?

Yes

truth justice equality equity "right thing to do"

What are the battle issues?

NEGOTIATE

Look for common ground

Gather allies/ advisors or different perspectives

Access established relationships

Men?
Women?
Combination?

Strategies:
listen
multiple realities
how heard "best"
observe

Can a battle be avoided?

Yes

Stop! Win, win solution

Evaluate negotiables

No

No, recourse - continue into battle

Responding to Off-Campus Student Misconduct

Laura L. Dicke and Wendy M. Wallace

This article provides an exploration of the major legal issues involved in responding to off-campus student misconduct. The authors outline the historical and current relationships between institutions and students, the historical and current scope of jurisdiction, handling simultaneous campus and criminal proceedings, sample codes of conduct, and recommendations for taking disciplinary action.

INTRODUCTION

In September, 1997, several hundred Colorado State University students were involved in block parties that became "riots" off-campus, two weekends in a row. Town officials and police officers reacted with a demand for action by University officials. In September, 1998, a University of California at Berkeley student failed to report what he knew of his best friend allegedly attacking and killing a 7 year-old girl (Berkeleyan [On-line], 1998, September 2). The University of California at Berkeley student body reacted with a great moral outcry and charged the Berkeley administration to take action against that individual. In October, 1998, police charged a University of Wyoming student with being an accessory to a crime in which another student, Matthew Shepard, was robbed, beaten, and killed off-campus. An interesting question lingers for student affairs professionals: will this student be charged with a violation of the student code of conduct on campus?

Based on these incidents, several questions arise:
- Can a college or university take action against students based on codes of conduct and scope of jurisdiction for incidents that occur off-campus?
- What is the historical and current relationship between students and institutions of higher education?
- What, if any, are the ramifications for students when they are involved in criminal activities?

Whether campus administrators can take action and how they should proceed is in part determined by their legal relationship with the student, existing codes of conduct, and scope of jurisdiction. The applicability of campus codes of conduct to off-campus criminal actions is a question all student affairs administrators must

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consider. Serious political, legal, and ethical problems can arise if policies are not clearly stated and understood.

Much has changed during the last 50 years. Today, many students are more aware of their legal rights and less concerned with administrative authority. Students have begun to seek opportunities to challenge and question even the most basic institutional policies and procedures. This awareness and interest has forced colleges, universities, and courts to take positions and provide answers for off-campus discipline. Many students believe action taken for off-campus misconduct is outside an institution's jurisdiction, and therefore an infringement of their rights. Nevertheless, courts continually have upheld college and university policies for judicial action in response to off-campus conduct, as long as the prescribed regulations advance legitimate institutional interests and are relevant to any lawful mission, process, or policy established by the institution (Walker & Sheridan, 1997).

MAJOR LEGAL ISSUES

Institutions and Students: A Look at Historical and Current Relationships
Student discipline once was central to the mission of higher education. Few other issues force colleges and universities to examine and question attitudes about their relationship with students and their definition of their duty, as much as the challenge of disciplining students (Dannells, 1997). Student discipline policies date back to the beginning of higher education. According to Dannells (as cited in Rentz & Saddlemire, 1988), "The president and the faculty exerted total behavior control over their students as part of the strict moral, ethical, and religious training that, along with the classical curriculum, was the accepted role and mission of the institution" (p. 127). Strict and detailed codes of conduct existed for the students of the institution. These codes included harsh penalties, such as public confessions and ridicule, fines, and even corporal punishment. Trustees learned about the extreme cases of misconduct, while faculty had less extreme cases delegated to them (Dannells, 1988).

In Loco Parentis as a Doctrine
The *in loco parentis* doctrine literally means "in the place of a parent" or "instead of a parent." An early English common law doctrine, this concept generally is believed to have been first applied to the college-student relationship in *Gott v. Berea College* in 1913 (Dannells, 1997). In this case, the Kentucky Court of Appeals ruled that a college or university has the right to "act on behalf of the parents for the benefit of protecting the safety, morals, and welfare of its students" (Barr, 1990, as cited in Busher, 1996, p. 19). This doctrine allowed the college to step into the role of the parent and gave administrators the right to exert parental authority over a student's physical, intellectual, and moral development. In addition, the student had the obligation to obey the university just as he or she

would obey his or her parents. Giving administrators almost total control over the students, this concept provided great latitude in decisions regarding sanctions, including the right to expel them for almost any reason (Nussbaum, 1970). In addition, this doctrine held institutions to a high standard of care and assumed colleges and universities would protect students from foreseeable dangers the students would not necessarily understand or consider as serious (Hoekema, 1996). This doctrine commonly described the college-student relationship for most of the pre-1960s period in American higher education (Dannells, 1997).

This paternalistic approach to discipline and behavior control evolved as a result of the rise and recognition of the public university, the broadening of university missions and objectives, the increasing secularization and pluralism of higher education in general, and increasing student enrollment (Rentz & Saddlemire, 1988). The campus activism that occurred throughout the late 1960s and early 1970s was a demonstration against the rigid controls placed on students and a demand for fundamental student rights (*Bradshaw*, 1979, as cited in Aurand & Snow, 1998). Consequently, colleges and universities began to change their approach. As stated by Dannells (as cited in Dannells, 1997), "the obvious difficulties, both in law and in actual practice, were well apparent, and the doctrine as it had been applied to college student discipline was generally considered impractical and untenable, if not simply dead" (p. 13).

This shift from rigid behavior control to a greater emphasis on self-discipline and self-governance was a result of the introduction of the German university model. The methods of discipline used became more humanitarian and individualized, and student-led democratic systems evolved. Administrative staff selected faculty members who had good rapport with the student body to handle non-academic related misconduct. The concept of the "student as a whole" began to develop, the first deans of men and women were appointed, and counseling as a form of corrective behavior modification became popular (Dannells, as cited in Rentz & Saddlemire, 1988). According to Dannells (as cited in Rentz & Saddlemire 1988):

> Throughout the 1950's and 1960's, disciplinary affairs became less punishment and control oriented, less autocratic and more democratic, and more aimed toward education and rehabilitation....The 1960's and 1970's were characterized by increased student input into disciplinary codes and processes, broadened legal and educational conceptions of students' rights and responsibilities, and the introduction of due process safeguards in the hearing of misconduct cases. (p. 129)

The Shift Away From *In Loco Parentis*
The shift away from *in loco parentis* resulted in an important change in the nature of the relationship between academia and the law. Many legal cases cite the

courts' rationale for disregarding the use of *in loco parentis* as an argument, including *University of Denver v. Whitlock* (1987), *Bradshaw v. Rawlings, et. al* (1979), and *Nero v. Kansas State University* (1993) (Aurand & Snow, 1997). The discussion about the student-university relationship in the *University of Denver v. Whitlock* case (1987) revolves around the "outmoded *in loco parentis* doctrine" that once "...imposed a duty on the college to exercise control over student conduct and, reciprocally, gave the students certain rights of protection by the college" (*Bradshaw v. Rawlings*, 1979, as cited in Aurand & Snow, 1998, p. 310). However, in the past 40 years, there has been a "gradual reappointment" of university responsibilities toward students. Today's colleges and universities are regarded as educational institutions, rather than custodial ones. Students demand autonomy and freedom without the supervision and guidance of college administrators and faculty. As a result of these demands, current students are regarded as adults, rather than children as in the past, capable of making their own decisions regarding personal safety and private entertainment. In this case regarding an off-campus incident, the Court determined the University of Denver was not involved in a relationship that placed a duty on the institution to protect the student from injuries suffered. The imposition of a duty to protect would have contradicted the policy of fostering an educational environment of student autonomy and independence previously mentioned (*Bradshaw v. Rawlings*, 1979, as cited in Aurand & Snow, 1998).

Similarly, in *Bradshaw v. Rawlings* (1979), the balance of students' individual interests in defining and regulating their own lives versus institutional interests in the nature of its relationship with its adult students is readily apparent. In this case, the Bradshaw Court cited the diminished authority of and constraints placed on today's administrators from constitutional amendments, written and unwritten law, and the evolution of new customs and procedures. Many of the rights previously entitled to administrators have been transferred to students. As a result, students now have greater privacy rights, and university regulations for on and off-campus behavior have narrowed in scope (Aurand & Snow, 1998).

Today's society views the competing interests of the student and of the institution much differently than in the past. The shift to viewing students as adults, rather than as children "of tender years," has completely redefined the scope of the duty of colleges and universities to protect students. In *Nero v. Kansas State University* (1993), the Court again reasoned that a plaintiff "cannot predicate a university's liability on 'the outmoded doctrine of *in loco parentis*' and that in general, universities today 'have no legal duty to shield their students from the dangerous activities of other students'" (Aurand & Snow, 1998, p. 326). *Bradshaw* (1979) was cited in the Court's arguments.

In the court cases discussed above, as well as others such as the *Alumni Association v. Sullivan* (1990) regarding an incident occurring at Bucknell

University, the courts' decisions often have relied on general standards of reasonable care, rather than the *in loco parentis* doctrine. However, courts continuously uphold the right of colleges and universities to impose reasonable restraints on student conduct and to enforce the rules with fundamental fairness. Although today's institutions can no longer rely on *in loco parentis*, an alternative that has been suggested is *in loco avunculi*, "in the place of the uncle." This doctrine encourages an approach that is "neither coercive nor neutral in matters of right or wrong" and it places institutions in a role that falls within the mission of colleges and universities in protecting and teaching students, but refrains from curtailing their fundamental rights (Hoekema, 1996, On-line Source).

The demise of *in loco parentis* and the evolution of student status as adults have left many campuses without guidance for engaging in student discipline. Faculty members rarely are involved in the day-to-day dealings regarding student conduct, and many administrators are unclear or undecided about the duty that exists regarding student discipline. This shift, coupled with increasing demands from families and communities for student supervision, and the need to create a disciplinary approach that correlates with the institution's educational purpose and mission, while still recognizing student rights, has taken on new importance. Today's institutions need to clearly define, understand, and communicate their purposes for engaging in student discipline, without simply reacting to the outside pressures of families and the media (Dannells, 1998).

Historical and Current Scope of Jurisdiction
Another key issue regarding student conduct in higher education is the scope of a college's or university's jurisdiction. Several legal questions arise from this topic: Are institutions limited by incidents that only occur within campus boundaries, or can institutions also hear cases that occur outside of their walls? Should a college choose to hear a case that occurred off-campus, and if the student also is being tried in the criminal court system, does this result in double jeopardy? And, if a hearing is held both on and off-campus, can a student avoid the on-campus proceedings in order to not incriminate him/herself? In a recent issue of *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (1998, October 9), Gose raised several more questions with regard to off-campus behavior: Is the institutional process arbitrary and capricious? Is it relevant to academic lives? What are the outside pressures to punish for off-campus misconduct? Exactly how far should colleges and universities intrude into the off-campus lives of their students? What is considered reasonable? Kaplin and Lee (1997) have suggested that significant policy and legal questions arise when institutions extend their codes of conduct to address off-campus activity.

Historically, colleges have had the responsibility of educating the whole student and maintaining control over their behavior, which is described above as *in loco parentis*. "In this century, the movement was clearly away from that position

toward more permissiveness and less control, at least until recent years when we have witnessed some evidence of increasing regulation of students' out-of-class lives" (Dannells, 1997, p. 15). In his 1990 study, Dannells (1997) found that institutions of higher education have increased their control over students' behavior. He found that from 1978 to 1988, the percentage of four-year institutions considering both on and off-campus offenses had increased from 35.7 to 45.7 %, and those schools only looking at on-campus behavior had decreased from 56.4 to 43.3 %. In a recent *Chronicle of Higher Education* article (Gose, 1998, October 9), the author found that of 520 institutions, three-quarters have policies that address off-campus behavior.

Disciplining Students for Off-Campus Misconduct
Not all courts have upheld the authority of higher education institutions to discipline for off-campus misconduct. Kaplin and Lee (1997) discuss *Paine v. Board of Regents of the University of Texas System* (1972), in which "the institution automatically suspended students who had been put on probation by the criminal courts for possession of marijuana" (p. 329). This automatic reaction of the University was invalidated by the Court because the off-campus issue did not pose a threat to the institution. In *Thomas v. Granville Board of Education* (1979), the Court also found that high school administrators had to limit their power to the boundaries of the school (Kaplin & Lee, 1997); thus, the decisions effecting secondary schools also could be related to higher education.

Several cases establish the legal right of colleges and universities to create policies regarding students' off-campus behavior, and as long as the regulations advance authentic educational concerns, courts have upheld these regulations (Walker & Sheridan, 1997). In *Kusnir v. Leach* (1982, as cited in Walker & Sheridan, 1997), a student at Clarion State College faced charges on campus because of his alleged disorderly conduct at an off-campus party. The student challenged the college's authority to discipline for off-campus conduct. The Court found that "...[an institution has] a vital interest in the character of its students, and may regard off-campus behavior as a reflection of a student's fitness to be a member of the student body" (Walker & Sheridan, 1997, conference proceedings).

In *Krasnow v. Virginia Polytechnic Institute* (1977, as cited in Young, & Gehring, 1986), the Court determined the university "...clearly has the prerogative to determine that any unlawful possession of drugs or criminal conduct on the part of students is detrimental to the university" (p. 14-3). In *Ray v. Wilmington College* (1995, as cited in Walker & Sheridan, 1997), a student was accused of physically and sexually assaulting a female student at his off-campus apartment. He also challenged the college's authority to discipline him. The Court found that "an educational institution's authority to discipline its students does not necessarily stop at the physical boundaries of the institution's premises" (p. 3)

and the Court reaffirmed the decision to allow institutions of higher education to determine what types of off-campus conduct is detrimental to the university or college. Based on these court decisions, administrators may discipline students for violating university standards while off campus *(Due v. Florida A&M University* and *Gabrilowitz v. Newman*, as cited in Gehring & Bracewell, 1992).

Handling Campus and Criminal Judicial Proceedings
In addressing the double jeopardy issue, the *Paine* Court (1972, as cited in Young, & Gehring, 1986) found that the same crime is not tried twice in the same court — a potential violation of the Fifth Amendment clause of the Constitution— because of the differing state interests (criminal justice system versus university discipline system) and sanctions (educational versus punitive) imposed. "The disciplinary processes used to maintain order on campus are not criminal or even civil proceedings," (Gehring & Bracewell, 1992, p. 93) and each constitute separate jurisdictions imposing "different kinds of punishment to protect different kinds of state interests" (Kaplin & Lee, 1997, p. 331). Institutions of higher education, typically, have an educational focus in their sanctions, such as attending an ethics workshop or alcohol education classes, rather than punitive criminal sanctions, such as loss of freedom or monetary fines.

Several cases have addressed the issue of postponing a college disciplinary hearing until the results of the criminal case are determined (*Grossner v. Trustees of Columbia University* (1968), as cited in Kaplin & Lee, 1997; *Furutani v. Ewigleben* (1969), as cited in Stein, 1972, and Kaplin & Lee, 1997; *Nzuve v. Castleton State College* (1975), as cited in Gehring & Bracewell, 1992, and Kaplin & Lee, 1997; *Hart v. Ferris State College* (1983), as cited in Kaplin & Lee, 1997). The *Furutani* U.S. District Court, the *Hart* Court, and the *Grossner* Court all ruled that colleges are not required to postpone hearings until after the determinations of civil or criminal authorities, "even though actions [of courts and college disciplinary officials] arose out of the same activity" (Stein, 1972, p. 44). Some students reason that not postponing higher education hearings poses a threat toward their Fifth Amendment self-incrimination rights. However, courts have determined there is no threat to these rights in college hearings (Stein, 1972). Students can choose to remain silent during campus proceedings; the *Furutani* Court emphasized that if students are forced to incriminate themselves during campus proceedings and that testimony is subpoenaed and later offered in criminal proceedings, then the student can oppose the offering of his or her testimony at campus hearings (Kaplin & Lee, 1997).

In cases where universities wait until the outcome of criminal proceedings, "the students must be given an opportunity to show that, despite their conviction and probation, they posed 'no substantial threat of influencing other students to [commit illegal acts]'" (*Paine*, as cited in Kaplin & Lee, 1997, p. 332-333).

Administrators may not automatically "convict" students in a disciplinary setting at an institution of higher education without due process or consideration of the educational mission (Kaplin & Lee, 1997).

Woven throughout much of the information is the defense that if a college or university has written into its code of conduct that off-campus behavior may be examined by on-campus officials, then courts generally have upheld the decision of the officials to discipline for off-campus behavior.

CODES OF CONDUCT REGARDING OFF-CAMPUS MISCONDUCT

As stated by Walker and Sheridan (1997):

> When acts of serious student misconduct occur, whether on or off campus, most people immediately turn to the host institution to remedy the situation. An effective off-campus misconduct policy – one which satisfies the law, matches the institutional mission, and receives consistent application – can further a college or university's ability to respond in a fair, firm, and responsible fashion (conference proceedings).

Institutions are influenced by many factors, including mission and philosophy, size, type, surrounding community, current trends, state and national issues, and legal rulings. Therefore, campuses also vary widely in their application, specificity, and breadth of discipline for off-campus behaviors that fall within the scope of the institution's code of conduct. In addition to the factors listed above, these codes also may be influenced by local concerns, recent incidents, and practical considerations, including case volume, desire to remain free from local law enforcement, and staffing (Walker & Sheridan, 1997).

In recent years, federal legislations have forced colleges and universities to review their positions with respect to disciplining students for off-campus misconduct. The "Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act" in the late 1980s, the "Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act of 1990," and the "Higher [Education] Amendments of 1992" have challenged institutions to review their existing codes and their enforcement of them. Extensive media coverage of recent campus incidents and the issue of campus safety and security as a topic of numerous documentaries, talk shows, and movies has only heightened the awareness and concern for the creation and modification of campus policies and procedures (Walker & Sheridan, 1997).

Sample Codes and Policies
The following are examples of policies employed by colleges and universities for responding to off-campus student misconduct (Walker & Sheridan, conference proceedings, 1997):

Example 1
The University reserves the right to take necessary and appropriate action to protect the safety and well-being of the campus community. Such action may include taking disciplinary action against those students whose behavior off University premises indicates that they pose a serious and substantial danger to others. The University will not routinely invoke the disciplinary process for student misbehavior occurring off University premises. Nonetheless, it will be necessary to endeavor to protect the campus community when there is reasonable grounds to believe that a student may pose a substantial danger to others. Normally, such "substantial danger" may be manifested by a pending criminal charge, usually relating to a crime of violence, burglary, substantial theft or fraud, the sale of illegal drugs, or the possession of substantial quantities of illegal drugs. Students may be accountable to both civil authorities and to the University for acts that constitute violations of law and of this Code. Disciplinary action at the University will not be subject to challenge on the ground that criminal charges involving the same incident have been dismissed or reduced.

Example 2
Students are required to abide by the Student Conduct Code and other University policies and under the jurisdiction of the University Judicial System while on University-owned, controlled or operated property, and at University sponsored functions on or off-campus throughout the duration of their enrollment at the University....Additionally, students are subject to the jurisdiction of the University judicial system for charges or convictions of off-campus violations of local, state, or federal laws which the President or his designated agent determine threaten the safety of members of our University community or threaten the educational process of the University and which occur while the student is enrolled for classes.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION

Based on the issues of the relationship between students and institutions of higher education, scope and jurisdiction, conduct codes, and national and legal trends, administrators should review administrative policies and practices for effective legal compliance and elimination of practical difficulties. The following are recommendations for college and university officials undertaking this process:

1. If institutions desire to implement disciplinary action against students for behavior in off-campus settings, administrators must establish and provide to students clear and concise policies. These policies should not be vague or overbroad, and they should identify "the behavior that puts the student at risk for disciplinary action, and they must not prohibit protected behavior" (Gehring & Bracewell, 1992, p. 92). A list of considerations for addressing issues surrounding the implementation of judicial policies follows (Whitfield, 1995):
   - Define the term "student."
   - Define the boundaries where off-campus misconduct will be enforced. Will the institution consider the surrounding community, the state, the nation, and/or the world?
   - Include the crimes or offenses the institution can address.
   - Apply judicial procedures and institutional responses consistent with the institutional mission.
   - Determine the institutional stance on the timing of disciplinary hearings. Will they happen before, concurrently, or after criminal proceedings and convictions? Will each case be reviewed independently?
   - Determine admission policies for applicants with past criminal convictions and how these policies will be administered.
   - Decide how or if the institution will handle charges brought or resolved after a student's graduation.
   - Discuss due process requirements for students involved in proceedings for off-campus misconduct. Due process requirements for students involved in criminal proceedings should be increased.

2. In choosing to hold on-campus disciplinary proceedings for off-campus action, Walker and Sheridan (1997) suggested administrators explore the following issues:
   - whether the college sponsored the activity (i.e. sporting events, retreats, etc.)
   - whether codes of conduct authorize charging students for violations
   - nature and severity of the offense
   - whether the student "presents a clear and present danger to campus community"
   - historical action taken by the university and student's history of behavior
   - status of victims
   - whether charges have been filed in criminal or civil courts
   - whether campus or local police referred the case
   - whether media coverage occurred
   - status of the institution (private, public, two-year, or four-year)
   - location of institution (rural, suburban, or urban)

- resources the university has to handle the case

3. In determining whether to hear a case based on the seriousness of the charge, officials can use a case-by-case determination or predetermined guidelines. In considering the potential sanction and whether or not to hear an off-campus case, officials should consider if the sanction merely would mirror a sanction applied by the legal system, or if additional educational sanctions are necessary (Stein, 1972).

4. Colleges and universities are advised to continuously assess and review current policies and practices pertaining to off-campus student misconduct. Crime rates, new laws and policies, student development theory, relationships with the surrounding community, demographic changes, and evolving institutional values are all important factors to be discussed (Walker & Sheridan, 1997).

5. Campus administrators should fully explain the issues and rationale behind double jeopardy in their codes of conduct.

6. Stein (1972) also challenges university officials to follow a rational framework in determining the appropriate course for a violation, rather than emotional dictates.

7. Administrators always should continue to meet with legal counsel to ensure legal compliance.

8. Student affairs professionals should have a strong understanding of the ethical principles and standards published by the *National Association of Student Personnel Administrators* and the *Association of College Personnel Administrators* with regard to care for students, professional obligations, and the philosophical foundation of the Profession.

CONCLUSION

An in-depth exploration of the cases presented in the beginning of this article can aid student affairs professionals in understanding the action taken by the universities and the reasoning behind the administrators' decisions. In the Colorado State University incident, where students rioted off-campus, the university judicial officer held several hearings. A statement in the Colorado State University brochure entitled, "Student Rights and Responsibilities," supported administrators' actions by informing students that off-campus misconduct may be heard through the University's discipline system.

University of California at Berkeley administrators chose not to hear the case regarding the student who witnessed a felony and did not report it, despite the campus community's clamor for justice. The administrators' reasoning was based on the fact that a Good Samaritan Law did not exist in the State where the crime occurred, or in the University's code of conduct. However, this case has caused the University officials to examine their codes and consider adding a Good Samaritan rule. An interesting point has been the student response to adding this rule: while it would addresses the current case and provide a rational basis for response to similar incidents, the rule also would require students to turn in colleagues who cheat on tests. When explained in that light, the students opted not to support the Good Samaritan rule.

At the time of press, administrators at the University of Wyoming had not yet decided how to act with regard to the student being charged as an accessory to a crime. Therefore, the process of addressing the student's involvement in this off-campus incident, undertaken by University of Wyoming administrators, will be an interesting one for student affairs professionals to examine, explore, and reflect on its implications at their own institutions.

In handling cases such as these, student affairs professionals must be knowledgeable of the college's or university's current relationship with students, scope of jurisdiction, and codes of conduct that comply with legal regulations. The current relationship between students and institutions of higher education is one of reasonable care. Policies related to off-campus misconduct should reflect this relationship and respond in instances where the campus community is at risk or in danger, the institutions' reputation is negatively effected, or the administrators perceive the student cannot make a positive contribution to the campus community based on his or her behavior. Codes of conduct should be clear and concise, and identify the behavior that puts students at risk of disciplinary action. Conduct codes should not prohibit constitutionally protected behaviors (Gehring & Bracewell, 1992). A complete and continuous understanding of these important issues will help safeguard colleges and universities from unwanted legal action.

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A Qualitative Study of the Experiences of Black Students Attending a Canadian University

Jennifer Hamilton and Paul Shang, Ph. D.

In-depth interviews were conducted with Black students attending a Canadian university. This study considered Canadian Black students' experiences and comparisons were made with African American students' experiences on predominantly white campuses in the United States. Common themes provide the impetus for further research and recommendations to Canadian universities.

INTRODUCTION

As with most public colleges and universities in the United States, Canadian higher education institutions now are considering how shifting societal demographics will change the racial and ethnic composition of students on campuses. The purpose of this study was to develop information about how Black students viewed their experiences in predominantly White Canadian higher education institutions in order to expand the knowledge base pertaining to students of color in Canada. The results and recommendations from this study may prompt many other questions about Canadian campuses, the experiences of Black students, as well as other students of color, and how to manage anticipated changes in college student demographics. Finally, by describing the perceptions of some Black Canadian students, guidance will be offered on the applicability in Canada of the substantial research and programming experience based upon serving students of color in colleges and universities in the United States.

RACIAL DIVERSITY IN CANADA

The population of Canada has been changing in ways very similar to that of the United States. By the year 2001, the projected percentage of people of color (persons who trace their origins to Africa or the Middle East, Asia or the Pacific, or Central or South America) in major Canadian cities will be anywhere from 11-45% (Samuel, 1992). Black Canadian citizens or permanent residents were 19% of all people of color in 1986 and increased to 22% by 1996. The prediction is that Canadian people of color will increase 3.5 times from 1986 to 2001, or from 6.3% of the population in 1986 to 17.7 % in 2001. By comparison, in 2001,

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between 23 and 28% of the United States will be people of color, and in California, people of color will make up 43 to 60% of the population (Bouvier & Davis, as cited in Samuel, 1992).

At the time of this study, there was little, if any, record of the experiences of students of color on Canadian college and university campuses. In fact, there is not even a record of the numbers of students of different ethnic backgrounds participating in higher education in Canada. "The extent to which Canadian universities have or have not reflected the growth of racialized social groups proportionate to the population as a whole is completely unknown" (Richer and Wier, 1995). It is extremely difficult then, to gather and analyze statistical information about Black students attending institutions of higher education in Canada including the number of applicants, admissions, and graduation rates, along with any assessment of their experiences while they attend college.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the United States, studies have shown that 70% of all Black students who enroll in four-year colleges drop out at some point, as compared to 45% of White students (Steele, 1992). This is one example from a large body of research showing that Black students experience college differently than White students. Fleming's (1985) work, *Blacks in College,* outlined the major issues in the education of Black students as a social adjustment "crisis," racial mistrust, isolation, and financial difficulties. Fleming was concerned with both the intellectual and social lives of individual Black students, though she determined that the two were inseparable.

> The stress of racial tension and inadequate social lives borne by Black students in White schools generates feelings of alienation that often lead to serious adjustment problems. These stresses lead to psychological withdrawal that impairs academic functioning. The factors that provide a positive climate at predominantly Black colleges are largely absent or unavailable to Black students in White schools. Consequently, Black students perform below ability levels. (Fleming, 1985, p. 3)

Allen, Epps, and Haniff (1991) determined that Black students had higher attrition rates, weaker educational backgrounds, less satisfactory relationships with faculty, lower grade point averages, and lower enrollments in post-graduate programs. These factors were attributed to the fact that "Black students experience considerable difficulty making adjustments to an environment which is culturally different, academically demanding, and socially alienating" (Allen, Epps, & Haniff, 1991, p. 96).

In *Racism in American Education,* Sedlacek and Brooks (1976) outlined how institutional racism manifests itself in higher education, and described student characteristics that were determined to be helpful in overcoming these institutional barriers. These six "non-cognitive variables," which assist students in overcoming barriers and racism in the institution include: having a positive self-concept, the ability to deal with racism, a recognition of personal strengths and weaknesses, long range goal development, a strong support system, and previous leadership and/or community involvement experiences (Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976; Sedlacek, 1987).

Many published studies exist on the topic of African American students at predominantly White institutions in the United States (Allen, 1985 and 1992; Kraft, 1991; Love, 1993; and Nottingham, Rosen, & Parks, 1992). In Kraft's qualitative study, Black students at predominantly White institutions were interviewed to report on how students perceived their academic experience. Kraft found "that students attributed their academic success or failure to a combination of two or more factors" (Kraft, 1991, p. 431). Factors included discipline (organized effort), ability, ambition, effort (hard work), high school preparation, interest, self-confidence, supportive faculty, support of fellow students and parents, and not being intimidated by White faculty and students. Kraft pinpointed interaction with faculty, advisement, and interaction with White students as troublesome issues for Black students. Nottingham, Rosen, and Parks' (1992) study determined that most Black students attending predominantly White institutions experience more difficulty adjusting academically and socially to campus life than White students. Another study presented a list of factors that seem to predict or improve academic success for students of color. According to Love (1993), the factors that contribute to attrition include White racism, lack of institutional leadership by students and/or faculty of color, lack of social integration, finances, cultural dissonance, and environmental incongruence. Love concluded, "the research has consistently shown that the experience of Black students in White institutions is substantively and qualitatively different than the experience of White students in White institutions" (1993, p. 34).

Research also has shown that the expectations, as well as the experiences of American students of color vary (Malaney & Shively, 1995). Malaney and Shively measured the difference between students' initial expectations upon entering college, and subsequent perceptions after one academic year. This study showed a significant decrease for Black students in feeling like they belonged to the community (-11.3%) and feeling like the institution was making an effort to make them feel comfortable (-12.7%). The decrease was more significant for Black students than for Asian, White, or Latino students. African-American students also had the largest increase (+24%) in participation in extracurricular activities (Malaney & Shively, 1995, p. 13).

Although several researchers have investigated the Black college student experience in the United States, very few studies in Canada have focused on institutions and issues related to students of color. One study was conducted to determine differences in retention based on race at a large public institution in Toronto, Ontario. Few differences were found in the retention rates of students of diverse racial backgrounds (Grayson, 1995). While the study did support the hypothesis that first year students of different races experience college differently, the results of Grayson's study did "not support the conclusion that the experiences of non-European origin are uniform and necessarily negative, while those of European background are positive" (1995, p. 2).

METHODOLOGY

The use of qualitative research has become widely used in student affairs to understand the meaning students attribute to their experiences. In-depth interviewing, or "a conversation with a purpose" was the methodology utilized for this study. The fundamental idea of qualitative research is that the participant's perspective on the phenomenon should unfold as the participant views it and not as viewed by the researcher (Marshall & Rossman, 1995).

Procedure

Approval was requested and granted from the Human Subjects Committee at Colorado State University. The Office of Research at the host university gave the required approval for contacting students on the campus. Students were contacted by placing several advertisements in the campus newspaper requesting volunteer participants to contact the researcher at an email address or by telephone. Because initial response was very low, letters and advertisements soliciting volunteers for the study were targeted to several on-campus student clubs and organizations. University offices that had greater contact with Black students also were contacted. Clubs and student organizations contacted included culturally or ethnically focused clubs, the women's center, the campus radio station, the student-run human rights office, and the main student governing office.

Participants

A total of nine students were interviewed for this study (three men and six women). All of the participants were Canadian citizens. There was difficulty in finding a homogeneous group of students with similar ages or at similar points in the completion of their degree. Some of the participants were not born in Canada, but had lived in Canada for most of their lives, attended and completed high school in Canada, and were enrolled in or had recently completed bachelor's degree programs at the Canadian university in this study.

The participants ranged in age from 20 to 35. Seven of the participants were undergraduate students at the time of the study and two of the nine students just

had recently completed their undergraduate degree. All participants were African Canadian, or Canadian of West Indian origin. For the most part, they had lived and attended high school in large cities in Canada, namely Montreal, Toronto, Ottawa, and one student was from the city of Guelph.

Setting
The institution chosen for the study is a mid-sized, undergraduate and graduate degree granting university in southern Ontario. The institution has no records describing the number of Black students on campus; however, it is estimated that students of color comprise approximately 10% of the campus population.

Many students are involved in campus clubs, athletics, student government, or other extra-curricular activities. Student-driven initiatives exist to address the issue of race relations, or attempt to address the needs of students of color on the campus. Clubs and associations that are primarily identifiable by their ethnic or national affiliation are examples of informal initiatives to support students of color. A student-run and maintained "race relations" office assisted in the development of a race relations policy. A collective group of students operate a center particularly for students of color, which provides resources, support, and a "safe space" for non-White students. The main student governing body appoints and pays two student human rights officers who serve as advocates for students of color and who do programming around current issues. These are examples of significant involvement by students in the creation of a positive campus environment.

Instrument
The researcher was a White female in her mid-twenties and an alumna of the university used in the study. In-depth individual interviews were conducted with each participant. Each interview was tape recorded, and lasted an average of one hour. Participants signed a consent form; names, places, and any other identifying information revealed in the interview were kept confidential in reporting results.

Five questions were designed by the researcher to allow students to share their experiences as university students. The questions were general, open-ended, and intentionally broad so as to allow students to describe their own feelings on important issues, rather than the researcher trying to focus the interview on particular topics or attempting to obtain certain kinds of responses from participants. The questions asked of all participants were:

- Can you describe your experience as a university student in general?
- In what ways has your experience been different as a student of color, than perhaps a White student on this campus?
- In what ways has your experience been negative or frustrating?

- Can you describe the most positive aspect of being a student of color on this campus?
- What kind of visible support, either formal or informal, have you experienced as a student?

Students were given the opportunity to ask the researcher questions in order to clarify their answers or to expand on their comments.

Data Analysis

An inductive analysis of the data was conducted by first transcribing all nine interviews from tape. The data was organized and themes and categories of data were generated. Analysis of data was supported by descriptions (verbatim quotations provided by participants). Themes and categories then were compared to the literature on African American college students in the United States and explanations were developed by analyzing themes and descriptions.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this research provided rich and descriptive information, which will be very useful for further research and consideration for staff and faculty on Canadian campuses. However, there are a few limitations that should be mentioned.

The impact of the researcher's race on the responses of participants is unknown. All participants seemed open and comfortable in the interview setting. However, one potential participant declined involvement in the study because of her uncertainty about the motives of the researcher. This poses an interesting situation for qualitative research and brings into question the ability of researchers to fully understand the perspectives of participants in a study and how participants may answer questions based on their perceptions of the researcher.

The second limitation is that nine students, six women and three men, were interviewed. It would be very difficult to make sweeping generalizations about Black college students in Canada with a small sample, however the purpose of qualitative research is not to generalize about a population. There was redundancy and themes that recurred in the responses from participants, which leads to the belief that interviewing more students would not produce any additional information. The door is left open for continued, repeated, and further studies.

FINDINGS

Participants' responses to questions generated four overall themes. Respondents seemed to have had an overall positive college experience, they had maintained or developed a positive sense of self within the context of their own ethnic group,

they recognized that the existence of a strong Black community was an important factor, and, they identified strongly with being a "new" or immigrant Canadian.

Although the respondents had experienced personal difficulties, identity crises, feelings of isolation, and encounters with racism, all but two seemed to have a general feeling of satisfaction with their college experience. Participants' experiences were positively affected by relationships with professors, involvement in a club or student organization, or living in a residence hall.

> I can't really think of anything [negative]. I would say I have had it really good. I know my profs, there is a really nice interaction. It is what I imagined university life to be like. (participant two)

> I don't regret this experience, it is great. I lived in residence for three years. I really enjoyed my experience in residence. (participant six)

> It is a great university, I like the atmosphere, we help each other through our homework, there is always somebody there to help you. It is like a family, [you] live, work, do homework, and eat together. (participant five)

Since participants were at different stages in the completion of their degrees, the intensity of how positively or negatively they viewed their university experience varied. Two participants seemed to have an indifferent or overall negative feeling towards their university experience. For one student, the feeling seemed to be centered around her disinterest with her major.

> It is kind of weird, I didn't really want to be here, I still don't. I am in physical sciences, it is okay, I don't really know that much about it...Negative or frustrating? My marks, and the fact that I just don't want to be here. Should I be doing something else? But I don't know what, I would probably be playing the piano, but I know I can't do that 24 hours a day. (participant one)

Another student had some negative encounters with students, professors, and teaching assistants based on race.

> In general, being a Black person on this campus at times is good and also a bad experience. In high school, I ended up being friends with mostly immigrants, I got along better with them than I did [White] Canadians. I thought university was going to be different. It was very difficult. (participant seven)

Throughout her interview, this respondent also remarked on the curriculum, how difficult it was, and how it did not relate to her own experience.

> I don't know why in the educational system, they ignore a lot of things in this country, they just focus on Western culture. (participant seven)

During the course of their studies, all but one of the research participants had developed a positive sense of self, a concern for self-definition, questions about their relationships with White students, and perspectives about the importance of racial group membership. Almost all of the participants spoke of the importance of being able to relate to other Black students as well as being able to define their own goals and values.

> To sum up my ideas I would like to reiterate are the things that I believe in and the experiences that I have had are very different from the majority of Black females on this campus. I was cultured, but I was able to maintain my Black identity. I am still trying to fit in. I haven't completely yet. I look at the students who listen to rap and hip/hop, how they dress. Then corporate America, you have to dress conservatively, no braids and what not. If I don't then I am pretending to be something that I am not. I haven't evolved completely to the person that I want to become. (participant four)

The third major theme that emerged for some participants was the importance of a strong community of students of color. The participants' overall experiences were improved by the support network developed among and between other Black students and students of West Indian origin on the campus. The level of involvement and trust within this community varied. For those students who did not remark on the importance of a community of other Black students (three participants), perhaps their experience would be improved by increased participation in the Black community on campus.

> I was a member of [the West Indian student club]. I could meet people from Trinidad, and we could chat in our native dialect, and I needed that. It was part of finding myself. Going back home in a way. I needed that balance. I needed to meet people who understand me and my culture. (participant three)
> Our club has always been so active in the general community. People are shocked at how many Whites there are [in the West Indian club]. My experience has been great for that, but I am not sure what other students will tell you! (participant eight)

For two participants, the level of support from the Black student community diminished as they became more involved outside of that community.

A final theme which emerged was the recognition for many of the respondents that they were relatively "new" Canadians, meaning that they were not born in Canada or had not lived their whole lives in Canada. Participants could identify strongly with being an "immigrant," and their experiences could be compared to those of international students. Although all of the participants had lived in Canada for a number of years, and had attended both secondary school and university in Canada, their "newness" played itself out in different ways. One issue was the prevalence of students having an accent when they spoke. Participants remarked that this was something that made them "stand out" or feel apart from other students. Participants viewed this "difference" or "otherness" as both positive and negative.

> I felt that I was separated because I was from a different culture. I spoke differently, they couldn't understand me. My accent was much stronger. I detested that. (participant nine)

> How my accent draws people to my attention, and they come and speak to me, and even on campus, people smile at you, when people think you are from the Caribbean. They tend to want to get to know you and find out what it is like there. People are interested. (participant eight)

These reminders of their "home" culture made it difficult for students to feel that they were truly "Canadian." Students felt that it was not only the fact that they were Black that made them feel separate from the majority of students, but the fact that they had "missed out" on something by not having lived in Canada their whole life.

> Sometimes I wonder if it is because I was not born here, if that is a factor. If I was born here things would be different, at least I would have something to talk about, you know the Blue Jay game or this and that. (participant seven)

One student who was born in Canada but had spent his childhood in the Caribbean and later moved back to Canada in adolescence described his perspective towards being a Canadian:

> I am Canadian, I was born here, but I still feel Caribbean. I don't feel Canadian, I am not Trinidadian [in terms of citizenship], but I would never say I am Canadian. I want to go back to Trinidad. (participant nine)

On the other hand, a participant who was a first generation Canadian (she was born and lived her whole life in Canada) remarked that there were differences

between newer Canadians and Black Canadians who had lived in Canada for a generation or more.

> For me personally, I would identify my experiences more with the White students than the Black students on this campus. I think that has a lot to do with how I grew up. I lived in a predominantly White neighborhood, I went to a predominantly White school. I was in "Girl Guides." I went to the ballet, to Europe. I feel like I have always been on the outside looking in because of the fact that I am also first generation Canadian. I joined the [West Indian Student Club], but the students were from the West Indies. They have been there, lived there or were born there. They have had experiences that I have never had. I am like 'what is a guava?!'. So I connected based on color, but not based on common experience. (participant four)

Another student who had lived her whole life in Canada remarked that there is a lot of ignorance around the issue of Canadians not having any idea of who fellow Canadians are, and how people automatically assume you were not born in Canada if you are a person of color.

> I told [my physician] that I was working at a Jamaican vegetarian bakery. He said 'Oh, I didn't know you were Jamaican', I said I am not, and there was this look of confusion accompanied by a long pause. Finally, I said 'I am not vegetarian either'. There is always the assumption that you are from the Caribbean. People are always asking you what island you are from. They always look surprised when I say 'Montreal!'. (participant two)

DISCUSSION

For the participants in the study, just as with African American students in the United States, racism was part of their university experience. The relatively few numbers of other Black students on campus led to these students feeling some social isolation; the curriculum was not inclusive and professors often were distant; and, the presence of a small Black community was supportive as well as oppressive. While it is difficult to make generalizations about all Black students in Canada, what these nine students at one mid-sized institution, in one province experienced was not as socially or academically adverse as studies have indicated is true for African American students in the United States.

Speculation about why this might be is made even more difficult by the dearth of information about Black and other students of color in Canada. The nine study participants did give some suggestions for interesting future research. For instance, does the Canadian tradition of student involvement differ substantially

from the social and cultural organizations, fraternities and sororities, and other opportunities for involvement prevalent on American campuses? In Canada, at least at the institution chosen for the study, there are very few if any formal, organized "support services" designed for or accessed by Black students. Because many changes to the campus environment or ways to assist students to cope are brought about primarily by the students themselves, perhaps the leadership development experienced and the sense of empowerment contributes to students addressing the adversities of the environment.

Another interesting direction for future discussion is to explore the importance of the immigrant status, even if self-bestowed. In the United States, recent immigration is offered as an explanation for the successes experienced by some students of color in higher education despite other significant disadvantages. It would be interesting to assess the differences of attitudes, perceptions, and satisfaction of Black students who are newer to Canada, as compared to students whose families have lived in Canada for one generation or more.

One last research direction comes from the recognition that higher education in Canada still is an elitist pursuit. While some of the nine participants in the study complained about how difficult class assignments and content can be, only one expressed any lack of confidence in her or his preparation prior to enrolling in college. Is access an issue, particularly for students of color? How many students are discouraged from pursuing a higher education? And, what is the cost of this for Canadian society?

Finally, it seems clear that Canadian educators can learn a great deal from the research that has taken place in the United States about students of color attending institutions of higher education. Not so much from the conclusions reached or the programming or service recommendations made, but from the questions asked. The time has come for Canadian educators and institutions of higher education to systematically collect more information about students in Canada and to begin to ask questions about the experiences of these students for themselves.

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Student Relationships:
An Analysis of Peer, Faculty, and Staff Effectiveness

Brian Keintz

This article describes the results of a qualitative analysis of student relationships on a university campus. A group of students and staff were interviewed regarding who at their institutions had an influence on their learning, and whom they would identify as a mentor. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with students and identified mentors. An analysis of the data led to conclusions that peer relationships are very influential for college students. The development of close, interpersonal relations with students is essential in student success.

INTRODUCTION

This article will examine the results of a qualitative study at a four-year, public institution in the western United States that generated data about those college relationships that are important for students. The two primary questions of this qualitative study were: (1) Who in the university environment influences the learning and development of students?, and (2) Why are these identified relationships central to student success? Selected students, and faculty or staff mentors identified by these selected students, were interviewed about their perceptions of the impact of student peer and mentoring relationships. Their answers provided insight and validation for college and university administrators on the value of cultivating relationships with students to foster student learning and development.

Many researchers such as Astin (1993) and Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) have attempted to identify those experiences within the college or university environment that impact student learning. Extensive longitudinal studies were conducted, and reviews of the historical literature were utilized. Astin (1993) considered longitudinal data collected over 20 years. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) reviewed 30 years of research on the developmental impact of college on students. These two landmark studies provided extensive evidence that relationships are important for student persistence and learning and advance the idea that student-peer and student-faculty relationships play a role in student success. This paper, through attempting to address the questions identified previously, will validate these findings and addresses the question of why these relationships are so important.

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METHOD

Four college students between the ages of 18 and 25 years old were interviewed for this study. Students completed a demographic survey that included information to further define qualities, characteristics, and background of the subjects. Additionally, students were asked in the survey to identify a faculty or staff mentor. Six mentors total were identified by the four students. Two mentors were selected to be interviewed for this study based on the criteria that (1) students confirmed in the interview that they indeed shared a mentoring relationship with the self-identified faculty or staff; (2) the identified mentor was an employee of the university; and (3) the mentor was available and willing to participate.

Characteristics

An equal number of male and female students participated in the study. These students performed better academically than the institutional average and were involved in co-curricular activities, including intercollegiate athletics, campus programming, organizations, professional honoraries, Greek life, and residence hall and student government. Students reflected some of the diversity of the institution. Three students were residents of the state, while one student attended the university from a midwestern state on an athletic scholarship. One student reported Hispanic or Chicano as the ethnic origin. The other three students did not identify with an ethnic origin. Three students attended the university directly after obtaining their high school degrees, while one student previously attended a community college. The students majored in education, speech pathology, business, and zoology and physiology.

One male and one female administrator were selected from a total of six identified by students. Both were employed by the university in the division of student affairs. Their jobs required them to advise students on a day-to-day basis. One mentor had been a student affairs staff member for over 30 years, while the other had worked in student affairs for less than 10 years. Both were identified by name as a mentor by one of the students interviewed for the study.

Research Setting and Data Collection

Students were selected for the study based on their background and interest in participating. Upon agreeing to participate, students completed a demographic survey and read and signed a consent form. The students were scheduled for an interview to be held in the student union. The location was familiar to all of the students and was convenient for them.

A semi-structured interview was conducted with six structured questions asked consistently of each student. Probing questions then were asked based on student

responses to the structured questions. These interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes. Student responses were recorded, and detailed field notes were taken. Mentors were interviewed in a similar manner. The exception, for the purpose of convenience, was mentor interviews were conducted in each mentor's office. The name of the student who identified them for this study was shared with the mentors during the interview. Permission was asked of students to have their identity disclosed to their mentor if the mentor was selected to be interviewed. Students and mentors were asked to select a pseudonym to maintain confidentiality in the written report. The student pseudonyms selected were Flo Jo, Anna, Dean, and Austin. The mentors selected Hoosier and Elizabeth.

Data Organization and Analysis
Qualitative researchers triangulate (Mathison, 1988) by collecting data from two or more independent sources. To achieve triangulation, three forms of data collection were utilized in this study. The data forms included demographic surveys collected prior to interviews; tape recordings transcribed to field notes; and researcher reflexive journaling done following the interview, while compiling data, and during the analysis phase.

The investigator coded data by printing transcripts onto preassigned colored paper for easy identification. Also, reflexive journal notes by the investigator were written into sections within the interview transcripts and marked "observer comments" or "OC." This process tracked investigator feelings and reactions during the process of interviewing (Bogdan & Biklin, 1998). The data was read by the investigator five times from start to finish with categories of data identified during the fifth reading. Data segments from the transcripts were grouped by writing the category and page number in the margin. These segments were then cut into strips and taped onto blank white pages of paper by category. The organization of data in this manner helped in defining themes for greater evaluation.

A total of nine categories were identified addressing several elements of the physical and academic environment related to learning. While each of these categories provided insights into an element of the living and learning environment of the institution, only one, entitled "people relations," was singled out for this article. A preliminary report of the study was prepared. A member check (Guba & Lincoln, 1981) was conducted where participants were asked to review the results and provide reactions. Improvements to the report were made based on the member check and reviews by associates.

FINDINGS

The most powerful findings of this study are the impact of student relationships on student satisfaction with the college experience, and what relations do students themselves deem important. Further, the findings provide a view of why relationships, student relationships with peers and student relationships with faculty, are the difference between success and failure in navigating the campus community.

Relationships

A conference focused on enhancing community at the university was held in November of 1994. The conference was designed to bring students, faculty, staff, and administrators together from across the institution to discuss living and learning environments. Various small focus groups worked together to determine how the environment may be enhanced for the benefit of student learning and development. While summarizing conclusions developed by his focus group, Dr. James Hurst, Vice President for Student Affairs (personal communication, 1994), said, "No student... should be an isolate. Building relationships with students is the best thing we can do for student success."

The fostering of strong student relationships should be a high institutional priority in higher education when consideration is given to its impact on student persistence and success. The findings of this study emphasize Hurst's statement on the value of a strong learning community and buttress the challenge to prevent isolation (personal communication, 1994).

Student Peer Interactions

A number of studies on student development have determined the importance of student peer interactions (Astin, 1977; Bowen, 1977; Chickering, 1969; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) wrote, "The weight of evidence is quite clear that both the frequency and quality of students' interactions with peers and their participation in extracurricular activities are positively associated with persistence." They also found "it is less clear... that peer relationships and extracurricular involvement have a net influence on persistence when student precollege characteristics or other measures of the college experience are taken into account" (p. 391).

Students interviewed for this study consistently listed peers as the individuals who have the greatest impact on student learning and development. Peers provide career counseling, companionship, and support, and also serve as role models. Flo Jo identified a person she considered a mentor by stating:

> This may sound weird but this is a person I go to class with. We take a lot of the same classes. She's a student. [She] is also in Speech Pathology and she is a swimmer. We are the same age. She got into Speech Pathology at the same time I did. I see her as a mentor because she helps me so much in my classes and I have always been at the same level as her as far as school and athletics. She is someone who has practiced every day like me. She is just someone who has helped me stick it out and I guess I really value that. (March 11, 1998 interview)

Flo Jo provided an accurate description of the nature of student peer relationships and the critical support and camaraderie mutually gained by each student in the relationship. Other students made similar references to the influence student peer relationships had on their learning. Some students cited peer relationships as a primary reason for them to attend college and as an argument for residential living.

Staff mentors spoke highly of the value of student peers in learning. Hoosier, a staff mentor, was asked whether student, faculty, or staff relations have a greater influence on students. Hoosier stated:

> I would have to definitely say that peer interactions are the greatest influence on students. Their peers are with them where they live and eat. These influences are significant to the student and no other interaction will be able to have a greater influence. We may not like the peers that students choose to follow, but they are a great influence non the less. (March 13, 1998 interview)

Dalton (1989), in his study of college student peer culture, reports that many faculty, staff, and administrators are not as insightful as Hoosier (March 13, 1998 interview) appeared to be during the interview. Dalton (1989) described peer culture as essentially invisible to staff and faculty except for outward signs and symbols like dress, behavior, and language. The invisible quality of student peer interaction leads to overlooking or underestimating peer influences on student development.

Students referred often to the influences of student peers on their college experience. When they did not speak directly about peer relationships, they talked about experiences through involvement in a student activity, discussions within a class, or the value of living on campus that included interactions with peers. The learning and enjoyment of students in this study depended heavily upon interactions with other students. Students who seek and foster healthy peer relations appeared happier and consequently more successful than students who were more recluse. Students who become "isolates"vor those who are influenced

by peer groups with negative behaviors are at risk of failure (Hurst, personal communication, 1994).

Astin (1993) made one of the strongest statement in the literature on the influence of peers in the college environment. "The student's peer group is the single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years" (p. 398). Astin's findings in some ways are more significant than others offered in the literature because his research successfully compared the influence of peers against other factors like faculty, curriculum, and institutional type.

Faculty-Student Relations
Faculty-student relations were a consistent topic of questioning within the interview protocol of this study. This study was designed with the intention of having students identify faculty or staff who have served them in a mentoring capacity during their college careers. The idea of students finding one or more faculty or staff members at the university with whom they could trust and find support seemed to fit with Hurst's (personal communication, 1994) idea of students not becoming isolated. The investigator speculated there would be many faculty and staff identified since the size of the institution with approximately 8,500 students, 700 faculty, and 1,200 staff provides a favorable ratio of students to faculty and staff.

The existing literature supports this study's findings. Astin (1993) identified faculty interactions as a significant aspect of college student development. Astin (1993) found that faculty positively influences the development and success of students in the learning environment at institutions with a student development and teaching orientation. Faculty influence declines significantly at institutions with a research orientation. Many studies support Astin's research that the most successful classroom teachers also are accessible to students outside of the classroom. (Wilson, Gaff, Dienst, Wood, & Bavry, 1975; Wilson, Wood, & Gaff, 1974). Conversely, there are those who argue the causal direction of faculty interactions with students is unclear, since it could be found that students who are more academically skilled seek faculty interactions (Pascarella, 1989; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Lorang, 1982). Terenzini, Pascarella, and Blimling (1996) argue that the direction of the influence is not as critical as realizing that student-faculty contact is important to student learning. Looking for ways to foster these interactions in the college environment should be the primary goal.

The findings of this study were that students did not value relationships with faculty. Students were asked to identify faculty or staff at the university whom they considered to be a mentor. While six mentors total were identified, only one student out of the four interviewed could identify faculty or staff whom they considered to be mentors. Mentors were identified only after some degree of

probing and it was clear the students struggled with this activity. Two students identified other students as their mentors without probing or explanation.

The student using the pseudonym Dean may have provided the most discouraging dialogue on faculty-student interaction found in this study. Dean was a bright and academically experienced student who had been at the university for five years. Dean's success since coming back to the university after a two-year break was apparent through his involvement in student activities and high academic achievement. Dean selected his brother as the person who has influenced him the most, and as the person he considers his mentor. His brother, who was not a student at the time of the interview, took two years off to go on a mission for his church. Dean had gone on a mission himself the two years prior to his brother's departure. Dean explained why he could not identify a faculty or staff mentor by saying,

> I don't think that I have known anyone at UW well enough to be able to call them a mentor. They may exhibit qualities and characteristics that I know I want in my life, but I have never known anyone here to that degree. (March 13, 1998 interview)

Dean was asked to explain his feelings about not being able to identify a faculty or staff mentor. Dean continued,

> I find that wrong. I think it's really too bad that I can't identify someone like an academic advisor or a professor who has influenced me toward my field of study, or can influence me toward my continued field of study. I think it's wrong. I think it's too bad. And, do I find it interesting? Yes, I do. I think it says a lot about the limits of my experience here. Although I have gained a lot, I think I am limited here. Yeah, I do find it interesting. (March 13, 1998 interview)

Dean's assessment of his experience exemplifies the distance discovered between faculty or staff and students participating in this study. Dean was asked about his desire for a mentoring relationship. He said he desired a mentoring relationship, but found it very difficult to access faculty in that way (March 13, 1998 interview).

Elizabeth was one of the mentors identified by a student in this study. As a student affairs professional, she has considerable experience with student retention issues and she was not surprised by the findings of this study. Elizabeth works with students involved in an honorary organization who ask undergraduate seniors each year to identify a faculty or staff member who is a

mentor to them, so they can honor these individuals with a special award. Elizabeth commented,

> How difficult it is for these students to identify even one person who has made a difference for them in the classroom or who knows them on a personal basis. That has (sic) what's been a really sad eye opener for me. I watch senior students say, "Who can I invite? Who do I know? Who knows me? Who's made a difference?" (March 24, 1998 interview)

Lack of Definition

A lack of understanding of mentoring may be an explanation for the responses from students in the study. The literature indicates there is confusion about the definition of mentoring among experts. Given this confusion among experts on mentoring, some uncertainty among undergraduate students is understandable. Levinson (1978) provided the most extensive work historically on the mentoring relationship. He described the mentor as a teacher, sponsor, and counselor, developer of skills and intellect, host, guide, and exemplar. Levinson also was criticized for the fact that the research was conducted exclusively on males. Many others have followed Levinson in studying the mentoring relationship. They defined the mentor as a person who is highly respected for guiding the career, interpersonal, and psychosocial development of the protégé (Bolton, 1980; Cox, 1993; Sheehey, 1976). Merriam (1983) conducted an extensive literature review on mentoring, only to conclude,

> No distinct line of research can be traced with respect to mentoring in academic settings. Given the idiosyncratic nature of available studies, little can be said with regard to either the prevalence or importance of mentoring for students, teachers, or administrators in educational settings. (p. 169)

Similar confusion exists about the definition of advising, as well as making the distinction between advising and mentoring. Kelly (1995) wrestled with differing viewpoints of exactly what the faculty advising role is. He found definitions of advising that range from "ten glorious minutes each quarter discussing Beethoven and mountain climbing" to advising as "an extension of teaching." There also were those who considered it "nothing more than signing forms" (p. 23).

While the disclosures of most of the students in this study were limited regarding student-faculty interactions, a student using the pseudonym Austin easily listed several mentors related to his academic program and his involvement in student government. He included two staff members, a faculty, and an administrator on his list. Austin described the support provided by his education professor saying,

She has really made me realize my potential as a teacher and made me realize this is the field that I really do belong in. She has not only helped me with the academics of this class, she has helped me with certain outside issues that I have been facing. She is always encouraging me to keep going and to always do my best. (March 16, 1998 interview)

Austin's experience in working with several mentors was the kind of data expected in this study. The lack of connection between the other students in the study and faculty or staff is a serious concern. Strong mentoring relationships between students and faculty or staff would be an identified strength in many institutions of 8,500 students, 700 faculty, and 1,200 staff. Also, as institutions grow in size and the ratio of students to faculty and staff become greater, the challenge of providing effective mentoring to students become more precarious. This investigator was disappointed not because of a belief that the students are wrong, but because of a general sense of responsibility for the lack of mentoring these students communicated.

CONCLUSIONS

This analysis provides a viewpoint that could challenge institutions of higher education to examine relationships between students and their peers or advisors.

Students Are Our Job
Students in this study were embarrassed when they could not identify one mentor within the university. Elizabeth (March 28, 1998 interview), one of the staff mentors interviewed, reflected on the discomfort felt in her student honorary organization when senior students could not identify one faculty or staff who had influenced them. Mentoring relationships must be attended to mutually in order to thrive, but institutions have to take the lead in order for these relationships to be firmly established. The data from students in this study indicates that relationships with faculty and staff may never have been established early in the student's campus experience. Students are more dependent as freshman and sophomores and are looking for ways to strengthen their affiliation with the institution. These early interactions by students are extremely important in the establishment of relationships of all kinds that can be depended upon when they become upper class students. Leadership by the institutions is critical for faculty or staff and student relationships to flourish.

The literature cited suggests an institution that is research-oriented or student oriented has an impact on student perceptions of faculty. Research orientation of an institution was found to have a negative effect on student perceptions of faculty (Astin, 1996). Institutions make choices in terms of the value placed on

mentoring relationships. Valuing student interpersonal relationships may not be explicitly expressed by an institution, but students know the truth through their experiences with institutional priorities.

Student learning and development is the work of higher education. We cannot make excuses for the deficiencies in student and faculty or staff relationships and students should not feel the need to share the blame. The responsibility falls to those who are in the business of serving students - those who work for the institution.

Student Peer Relationships - A Vast Resource
The data on student peers in this study should not be surprising considering the literature cited in this study (Astin, 1977; Bowen, 1977; Chickering, 1969; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). Peer influence either can be supportive of the individual student's goals for education or it can be harmful. The key is for students to connect with other students through common goals. Advisors and programs can influence the decisions students make regarding peers, but the ultimate control is the students'. The individual faculty or staff member must look for every opportunity to integrate the building of student peer relationships into their work.

Limitations and Questions
This study does not seek to provide data for all higher education institutions. The responsibility of utilizing and drawing conclusions belongs to the reader (Bogden & Biklin, 1998). The intent of this study was to provide a perspective on student relationships with members of a specific higher education institution. The limited amount of time spent with the students in an interview can be criticized. More sessions would have allowed deeper analysis. Finally, researcher bias has impacted the findings of this study. The professional relationship of this investigator to the students, the *a priori* investigator knowledge of the literature, and the imbalance of power between the investigator and the students were all factors affecting the results.

This study does pose some interesting questions to be considered in the future. What do faculty and staff view as an advising or mentoring relationship, and how does that compare to the perspective of students? How do different ethnic cultures or adult-returning students (adult students over 26 years of age) view the mentoring or advising relationship? How do peer relationships impact feelings of success in students at various types of institutions? What is the impact of peers on students who withdraw from the institution?

Qualitative methodology is an effective approach to answering many questions on student relationships. This study demonstrates one approach for inquiries into

how and why relationships affect students. More research must be conducted in this area to answer these questions. Without a better understanding of how relationships can be enhanced to address issues of retention and success among students, the potential of advising and student services at higher education institutions may never be reached. Peer mentoring and advising programs are successful approaches at many campuses, but an understanding of how faculty and staff can share the success of student peers is extremely valuable for the future of student services and student success.

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The Importance of Programming in Family Housing

Gregory R. Kish

This article discusses the importance of educational and developmental programming in college and university family housing. Historical origins of family housing serve as determining factors in the present state of programming. The changing student population, the ACUHO-I standards, and current practices are discussed, as well as the institutional obligation to provide such programming as a way to distinguish university family housing from apartment housing provided in the private sector.

INTRODUCTION

Programming in college and university family housing varies widely across institutions. At some, programming and staffing resemble that of residence halls, while at others the programming aspect is nonexistent. Historical factors have contributed to the lack of programming at some institutions; however, the changing student population and relationship with higher education call for family housing to provide an educational component often reserved exclusively for single student housing.

HISTORY

Family housing at colleges and universities has existed only since the 1940s, when the need arose to house World War II veterans who, with the help of the GI Bill, arrived on college campuses across the nation (Moen, 1992). The number of married students on college campuses in the United States has increased over the years from three to six percent in 1945 (Flores, 1972) to a steady range of 10 to 20% (Moen, 1992). Since many university administrators thought that married students would be a temporary population on campuses, institutions designed family housing as a temporary arrangement; many married students lived in converted army and navy barracks. This temporary attitude toward families on campus still lingers in the facilities management and the service delivery of family housing today (Moen, 1992).

The student population of colleges and universities, and therefore, the resident population of family housing, differs greatly from that of years past. Between 1980 and 1994, most of the enrollment growth at colleges and universities

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occurred in students who could be described as nontraditional (Levine & Cureton, 1998; U.S. Department of Education, 1996). In fact, the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education predicts that, by the year 2000, 50% of students in higher education will be 22 years of age or older (1980). Predictions aside, many of today's colleges and universities are finding that married students comprise 20 to 25% of their student populations, a "sizable and potentially powerful minority" (Greenberg & DeCoster, 1976, p. 25). In addition, single parents account for a growing part of the nontraditional student group (Holliday, 1985). Since students who live in family housing fall mainly into these categories, housing administrators must carefully consider how these population trends will affect their campuses in the years to come.

BENEFITS OF PROGRAMMING FOR STUDENT FAMILIES

Much evidence confirms the value of educational and developmental programming for student families. Riker and DeCoster (1971) stated that learning related to most major goals of higher education takes place where the student lives. Schuh (1985) and Moen (1992) discussed the importance of implementing educational and developmental programming in family housing, and Conneely (1992) and J. M. Schmidt (personal communication, October 21, 1998) described the commonly held belief among housing professionals that a well-developed sense of community leads to resident retention, resulting in a win/win situation for student and institution alike. Residents who feel more connected to the community are more likely to stay, resulting in fewer costs associated with turnover and vacancy of apartments. This scenario makes funds used for programming in family housing an investment rather than an outright expense. In addition, the diversity of age in the residents of family housing provides an optimal environment in which to reap the benefits of intergenerational programming described by Berkowitz and Benderly (1989). Clearly, the value of programming in family housing has been well established.

In fact, the Association of College and University Housing Officers - International's (ACUHO-I) Standards for College and University Student Housing (1991) refer numerous times to the importance of providing such programming. Most broadly, the Standards state that, "The mission of Housing and Residence Life includes...providing a learning environment and related cocurricular programs which promote maturity and academic success..." (p. 1). In addition, the Standards include an entire functional area devoted to education/programming where they state that students should have opportunities "to develop a mature style of relating to others...to live cooperatively with others...for the development of appreciation for new ideas, cultural differences, and life-style...[and] to identify, develop, and/or confirm a sense of identity" (p. 7-8). Since educational and developmental programming can provide an effective

means to meet these Standards, and since the Standards apply to all residents of college and university housing, one can conclude that ACUHO-I considers this type of programming to be beneficial to residents of family housing. Nevertheless, many family housing operations fail to offer this component to their residents.

CURRENT SHORTFALLS IN PROGRAMMING

Despite the changing student population, the established value programming and the standards of a professional organization, many family housing operations have not kept pace with the changing needs of their resident populations. Residual effects of the "temporary" attitude of the 1940s have resulted in many housing organizations delivering only the business side of family housing, providing a clean, safe, and well-maintained environment devoid of much programming and community development activities. This environment meets students today who come to college with more emotional problems than in the past (Levine & Cureton, 1998), therefore requiring more support in their development as students. Beyerlein, Brandel, Hamilton, Nededog, and Thoman (1982) identified support from upper-level administration as a promoter of community development in family housing; however, Moen (1992) noted that higher education administrators (vice-presidents, directors, etc.) often overlook or disregard education and programming in family housing (p. 13). J. M. Schmidt (personal communication, October 22, 1998) stated that programming in family housing is not a priority in most housing operations across the country, and Moen (1992) wrote that the socially oriented activities in which married students most often participate "leave a great deal to be desired as activities designed to encourage leadership, personal growth and development, or spouse enrichment" (p. 4). In a survey of live-in apartment staff, Whalen (1989) reported that "doing educational programs for residents" was a task that live-in staff performed an average of about once a month. Clearly, the current state of programming in many family housing operations does not adequately serve the resident population. This lack of educational and developmental programming has left a sea of uncultivated opportunities for student development.

THE NEED FOR PROGRAMMING

College and university housing operations have the obligation to provide educational and developmental programming for residents of family housing. The primary reason for the existence of all university housing lies in the belief that the residential component of a student's life on campus contributes significantly to the total educational experience. Shaffer (1969) stated that, "If a student's residence has a significant educational contribution to make, colleges have an obligation to organize and administer housing to achieve the maximum

possible educational benefits. This is a vastly different concept than just being in the housing business" (p.121). University housing that does recognize and implement its educational mission should abdicate its position as a provider of housing and leave students to seek shelter in the private sector (Busselen & Busselen, 1975). In fact, many state anti-competition laws prohibit educational institutions, especially public institutions, from being solely in the "housing business" (Fuchsberg, 1988). Institutions must demonstrate that the housing services they provide support the educational mission and goals of the institution in order to legitimately operate as a part of that institution. Without the programming component of family housing, the residential experience holds minimal ties to the educational missions of most institutions. Above all, student affairs administrators have the obligation to concern themselves with the development of each student, regardless of the student's familial status and living arrangement.

CONCLUSION

Though the history of family housing has led it to a point where programming and a focus on building community are not priorities in many housing operations, current student population shifts show an increased market for family housing and a need for this type of programming. University housing operations cannot afford to miss out on the opportunities for growth that family housing offers, and they must provide a unique residential learning environment for families that distinguishes itself from the private sector. Fortunately, the diverse student population of family housing, including single parents, international students, nontraditional students, and in some cases gay and lesbian couples, offers developmental opportunities that cannot be found anywhere else in higher education (Moen, 1992). As the traditional student population shrinks, housing operations will be forced to evaluate the continually blurring line between residence hall and apartment housing and to consider which populations should benefit from educational and developmental programming. In light of the information presented in this article, family housing operations should take a close look at the residential environments they provide to students and consider increased programming as a way to retain residents and provide a living environment closely related to the mission of the institution. Family housing offers an unparalleled venue for growth in the area of student development, and this uniqueness can give family housing the competitive edge that it needs for the future.

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Career Centers: Changing Needs Require Changing Paradigms

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This article looks at the past, present, and future models of career services. Showcasing the College Career Liaison model at Colorado State University, the authors discuss how student affairs actively is collaborating with academic affairs to meet the challenges of today's learning-centered campus.

INTRODUCTION

"Today the academy is being asked, and in some instances mandated, to adjust its thinking from an internal model of curriculum development to an external model of effectiveness and accountability" (Kretovics, in press). This climate of accountability has placed an increased emphasis on outcome measurements as parents, students, and governing boards want evidence that they spent their money, time, and energy well. The ultimate criterion in the minds of many of these stakeholders is whether or not the student is able to obtain a job after graduation (Feldman & Turnley, 1995). Employment as the end result of an education has brought career services to center stage at many colleges and universities across the country. On most campuses, career services is the department directly responsible for connecting students with employment opportunities. This new-found interest in career services has prompted taking a closer look at where career services has been and where it is heading.

Ironically, as the world outside of academe demands employment statistics, career services within the academy has recently completed a transition away from the placement model. Within career services the early emphasis was on job placement (1940s & 1950s). This emphasis then shifted toward a career planning model (1960s & 1970s), which now has moved into the current model of networking (1980s & 1990s), which eventually may evolve into a another model, perhaps the liaison model as implemented at Colorado State University.

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Over the years, career service operations have evolved by adapting to the changing economic conditions, diverse student population, and dynamic structures and theoretical constructs within departments and divisions of student affairs. As the career centers have changed, so too has the role of the career counselor/career services specialist. This article will examine some of the factors involved in this change and a discuss how the Career Center at Colorado State University is leading the way in implementing the newest model -- the College Career Liaison (CCL).

CAREER SERVICES: FROM YESTERDAY TO TODAY

The roots of today's career center date back to the late 1800s in Europe. The first career centers appeared in the United States in the early part of this century (Herr, Rayman, & Garis, 1993). Frank Parsons is credited with bringing career and occupational research to the foreground. In 1901, he established the Civic Service House for immigrants and young people seeking work. Later, he was named the Director of the Breadwinner Institute which became the Vocation Bureau in Boston in January, 1908 (Zunker, 1998). Parsons' work in career and occupational selection was adopted later in college and university settings.

At the turn of the century, college faculty were responsible for assisting students with their career planning needs. Professors viewed students as candidates to be groomed, advanced, and mentored into a promising profession (Herr, Rayman, & Garis, 1993). Herr et al. (1993) described this metamorphosis from student to professional as a sponsorship. In this model, the highly qualified student need only enroll in college and the faculty mentors planned the student's future employment, thus the term "placement" resulted. As time progressed, universities and workplaces changed and the placement center replaced mentoring or sponsorship by professors as the primary means for finding employment, allowing all students access to job opportunities instead of just those with a faculty mentor (Herr, et al. 1993). Yale University established one of the earliest prototypes of the placement center in 1919 (Teal & Herrick, 1962).

The placement center staff consisted of professionals trained in vocational guidance hired to advise and counsel students for job placement (Teal & Herrick, 1962). According to Zunker (1998), Parsons' three-part Trait and Factor Theory provided the underlying theoretical assumptions of the placement center:

- A clear understanding of yourself, aptitudes, abilities, interests, resources, limitations, and other qualities.
- A knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensations, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work.
- True reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts. (p. 10)

As employer demands for young, talented workers increased, the interest in placement centers, employment offices, and career development on college campuses began to emerge. These services, combined with the efforts of faculty, student affairs professionals, and alumni worked to match students with employment opportunities (Lorick, 1987).

This placement model articulated the *in loco parentis* philosophy of institutions of higher education. Institutions were viewed as needing to provide for the student in lieu of the student's parents, including job placement assistance. The placement model also was greatly enhanced by the post-World War Two (WWII) economic expansion. Corporate America was anxious to hire students directly from college campuses, thus creating an increased demand for college graduates. In addition, numerous job-related training and rehabilitation programs increased the attention paid to placement centers on the university campus (Bishops, 1966).

The *in loco parentis* driven placement model remained in place through the 1950s and into the early 1960s, before it was replaced by the planning paradigm (Casella, 1990). The 1960s were a time of significant change within the country, especially within higher education. College enrollments never had been higher, and the post WWII expansion began to slow, creating a surplus of college graduates. Changes in economic conditions coincided with a philosophical change within higher education. *In loco parentis*, the dominant paradigm for the past few decades was now giving way to developmental theory. As developmental theory began to take hold, higher education became more interested in developing rather than parenting the student. This movement toward a student development paradigm coincided with the transition from the placement model into a career planning or career development model (Bishops, 1966).

The planning model lasted from the turbulent 1960s through the recession of the 1970s and into the economic expansion of the 1980s. Central to this model were the processes of planning, self-discovery, and self-assessment which were all consistent with the more goal oriented "Me" generation of the 1970s and 1980s. Career theory made the transition from Trait and Factor (abilities, preference, attitudes, job requirements, performance demands), used primarily in early placement centers, to a more humanistic emphasis on counseling and the application of student development theories (Rentz & Sanddlemire, 1988). The combination of placement activities with counseling provided a more full and developmental perspective of the progress, purpose, and pursuit during a student's academic journey. Placement still had a role, but it was no longer the focal point. As Herr, et al. (1993) states:

> The placement event needed to be viewed as the end of a process of career development that involved knowledge, exploratory activities, the

development of skills, career planning, the choice of a major as an intermediate career decision and learning that began before entrance to college and continued through diverse learning in higher education and that ultimately brought the student to the activity called placement. (p. 3)

COLLEGE CAREER CENTERS OF TODAY

As the student affairs profession shifts its emphasis from student development toward student learning (Blimling, 1998; Schroeder, 1998; AAHE, 1998), career services is transitioning from the placement and planning models to the networking model. While placement and planning models can still be found, the dominant model for today's career services is the networking model (Casella, 1990). This model is characterized by Casella (1990) as:

An intersection where students and alumni, employers, and faculty and staff meet to deal with all the many varieties of career matters in an active association of . . . human, print, and electronic career resources [as] the most efficient and effective method of performing both the job placement and career planning activities. (p. 33)

Increasingly, the main focus of a career center's activity revolves around acquiring and dispensing more comprehensive information at a faster pace. Several recent efforts have been undertaken in an effort to understand the effects of this paradigm shift upon the roles of professionals within the career service field (Casella, 1990; Wessel, 1996). Casella (1990) stated that the networking era ushered in a new criterion for career counselors' performance reviews including the term coordination, which refers to mobilizing the efforts of departments, campus organizations, and external agencies and employers in common goals of service. In a 1994 survey of 784 career center directors, Wessel (1996) reported that 41% of directors characterized career professionals as organizers, rather than employment specialists or skilled clinicians. Ninety percent of the directors stated that their client base now included faculty, alumni, and staff, along with the more traditional student and employer base. Thirty percent of those directors mentioned connecting student candidates and employers as the career center's main function. This certainly reflects a movement away from the placement and the planning models toward the networking model of today (Casella, 1990).

In addition to the changes required of the career center staff, the physical environment also has changed. Placement and planning models focused on interview and counseling rooms while the networking model emphasizes access to information and technology as well. Centers now include expanded resource libraries and computer labs with access to a variety of databases and internet

connections. The requirements of the networking model also impact students. Students need to take a more active role in the career development process. The networking model requires the student to learn the process rather than just participate in the process, emphasizing self-help or self-reliance. This is exemplified by the greater emphasis on internships, providing additional career fairs, and expanding activities that are designed to connect students with alumni and other potential employers.

THE COLLEGE CAREER LIAISON AT
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY

Colorado State University (CSU) responded to the shift from planning to networking by developing and implementing a College Career Liaison (CCL) program in 1993. The Career Center staff at CSU believes that the CCL program epitomizes the application of the networking model.

A CCL is a career counselor who is dedicated to a specific academic college within the University. However, the University did not simply take an existing counselor and assign her or him to work with students from a selected college. Instead, the Career Center and the participating colleges recruited counselors to serve as links between the Career Center and the academic college (Kretovics, Cornell, Dixon, & Johnson, 1997). The CCLs have either a degree represented within their colleges or significant work experience in those academic areas. This gives the CCL credibility among faculty, employers, and students as both a career counselor and a subject matter expert.

Currently, the liaison system is implemented in six of the eight academic colleges at CSU, including: Agriculture, Business, Liberal Arts, Natural Resources, Natural Sciences, and Veterinary Medicine and Biomedical Sciences. Beginning its sixth year, the CCL program has been viewed as having positive impact on the campus by the participating colleges and the Career Center. The colleges have acknowledged a greater appreciation of, and a higher commitment to, the efforts of the Career Center. Additionally, the Career Center staff has gained first-hand experience in academic affairs, which has resulted in a better understanding of the complex nature of that portion of the University operation (Kretovics, et al., 1997).

Initially, the job descriptions for all six liaison positions were identical, differing only in the specific degree and/or work experience required. However, each liaison has modified his or her position to meet the needs of his or her respective college. As the needs of the colleges and Career Center change, so does the working position description of the liaison counselors. For example, in addition to the traditional career counseling and career marketing functions, each liaison

provides unique services to their respective college. For example, the Natural Resources liaison conducts many of the college's orientation and admission sessions, the Business liaison is involved in the teaching of an introductory business course and an outcomes assessment program, the Liberal Arts liaison is building stronger relationships with alumni, the Natural Sciences liaison is active in job development, the Vet-Med liaison co-teaches a senior seminar in Environmental Health, and the Agriculture liaison coordinates the college's career fair.

While each liaison has customized her or his position, each remains a member of both the Career Center and the college staff. This unique model appears to be effective and beneficial to both the participating colleges and the Career Center. The college gains an in-house expert to provide career services to its students and the Career Center has an additional staff member to assist in handling the continuously increasing work load.

The funding for these positions is shared equally by the Career Center and college involved. Each department pays 50% of the salary and benefits, and both units provide office space for the liaison. Other expenses such as office supplies and travel also are shared as well. However, this partnership involves more than just shared expenses. The partnership is a commitment from the academic unit to support the Career Center on an institutional level. Each of the academic departments have been involved from the very beginning with the initial hiring and continue to be involved in the on-going evaluation process for each Career Liaison. The search process for each position includes representation from the Career Center staff and the respective college's faculty and staff. Evaluation of the CCLs varies as each college has its own review process and schedule, which may not always coincide with the Division of Student Affairs. Therefore, one or more colleges may prefer to conduct a separate evaluation process, while the others may choose to conduct a joint review with the Career Center. The success of this process lies in its ability to adjust for the needs of both units involved.

As indicated above, the CCLs report to both the college Dean (or Associate Dean) and the Director of the Career Center. Having two supervisors may seem rather confusing from an outsider's perspective, however, from the liaisons' view, this structure works well. The liaisons attend all of the Career Center staff meetings and also work closely with their college supervisors. This open communication keeps both the Career Center and the college informed of the counselor's actions, thus continuing to strengthen the relationship between the participating colleges and the Career Center.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER PROFESSIONALS

Within the networking model, the career professional's role has expanded to include the coordination and connection of the service efforts between departments, campus organizations, and employers and external agencies (Wessel, 1996). The former roles of the employment specialist in the placement model and the skilled clinician in the planning model are being replaced by an increased demand for the flexible generalist in the networking model. As a flexible generalist, the counselor needs to have the ability to use technology, make presentations, and teach effectively; market services, outreach to an increasingly diverse clientele, research, and write; as well as continue to advise and counsel (Murray, 1995). Career counseling is moving in the direction of less therapeutic counseling and testing of the planning model into more information giving and providing networks of alumni and employers to students (Casella, 1990). Career counseling goes beyond identifying and developing student skills by teaching self-reliance and self-responsibility for many careers within a lifetime. Career counseling also is being transformed by the effects of technology. Internet job posting and career related information, plus career exploration data bases such as Discover, Eureka, and SIGI-Plus work for the student with or without a counselor present. Other telecommunications, such as faxing, emailing, and teleconferencing have begun to reframe the traditional appointment approach to counseling. As the paradigm continues to shift from planning to networking, career professionals will continue to face many changes driven by internal and external forces. The primary challenge for career counselors is to provide viable and current information consisting of a whole-system approach in which the tools of the trade, theory and assessment, are utilized with a savvy knowledge of the effects of national and global economic trends on careers (Honaker, 1996).

At CSU, the CCL program is meeting the challenges facing today's career services by employing the networking paradigm. This program requires counseling professionals to bring additional skills to the positions, enabling each liaison to work more effectively with his or her academic college. In addition, each liaison also stays current in the general practice of career counseling. This dual focus has created a program that requires the counselor to be a flexible generalist that allows him or her to adapt to the challenges of the 21st century.

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The Historical Development of Chicano/a Student Organizations: Their Role in Post-Secondary Education Recruitment and Retention

Susana M. Rundquist

This article considers the role Chicano/a student organizations have played in the recruitment and retention of minority students on college campuses. The author examines the historical development of the Chicano/a Student Movement, and the current accomplishments and struggles that effect the educational attainment of Chicano/a students. Finally, recommendations are included for student affairs professionals to consider.

According to United States census figures, Latinos are the country's fastest growing racial/ethnic minority population. In fact, current population projections show Latinos becoming the largest U.S. racial/ethnic minority group by the year 2010, and by 2050, they will account for almost one-quarter of the total U.S. population (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1996). However, the rising educational attainment of Latinos does not coincide with the growing population, as the proportion of Latinos/as graduating from four-year post-secondary institutions is disproportionately lower than their U.S. population total. Even more discouraging is census data indicating that approximately 50% of Chicanos/as leave high school before graduation (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1994). Within that context, this article will evaluate the role of Chicano/a student organizations in the recruitment and retention of Chicano/a students in post-secondary academic settings. A brief discussion of Latino ethnicity and labels is necessary to better understand this article. This, in turn, will be followed by discussions on (1) the historical development of Chicano/a student organizations; (2) the accomplishments of Chicano/a student organizations; and (3) the contemporary struggles facing Chicano/a student organizations, with recommendations for the continued improvement of Chicano/a student recruitment and retention at the end.

LATINO ETHNICITY AND LABELS

The historical mixture of Spaniards with the indigenous inhabitants of the Americas gave rise to La Raza, or "the people." These mestizos, or mixed blood people, have come to be labeled "Hispanic" (Guerrero, 1993). As Gimenez (1997) noted, this label is a generic umbrella term coined by U.S. census officials in the wake of 1960s civil protest in order to categorize individuals who could

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trace their ancestry from Spanish speaking countries. Although the term Hispanic became necessary in order to determine how affirmative action policies and programs could best be implemented, this term ignores the varied historical, social, economic, and political experiences of Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and other Central and South American peoples in the United States.

Hayes-Baustista and Chapa (1987) argued that the term incorrectly characterizes the "Hispanic" experience as a European experience with minimal difficulty in acculturation and integration into U.S. society. They argue for the use of the term "Latino" which gives more emphasis to the indigenous roots of "Hispanics," and correctly characterizes their U.S. experience as one deeply rooted in U.S. policies with the overall effect of social, economic, and political exploitation of Latin American peoples and resources. They also argued that the use of "Latino" instead of "Hispanic" allows for the development of a more relevant collective memory and history for members of this group, which in turn leads to a strong sense of self and group pride. More importantly, Padilla (1985) emphasized that Latino ethnic consciousness is situational and specific to individuals who share common ideologies, demographics, cultural interests, and experiences. With Mexican-American/Chicanos (individuals who can trace their ancestry to Mexican origins), class differences, cultural differences, music, and border regional differences have played a role in the subculture realities embedded in Mexican-Americans. In fact, Chicano ideologies and political identities vary from state to state. For example, individuals living in California and Texas have evolved with different Mexican-American ideologies and even consider themselves "Californios" or "Tejanos." In the northern part of New Mexico, the majority of the Mexican-Americans pride themselves on their Spanish legacy over Mexican traditions (Munoz, 1989). The different opinions and perspectives on Chicano/Latino/Hispanic terminology and identity are an implicit debate concerning assimilation and pluralism more readily understood by exploring the historical development of Chicano student organizations.

HISTORY OF CHICANO STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Chicanos mark the beginning of their struggle with the arrival of Spanish explorers on Mexican soil and continued the miscegenation of La Raza through either marriage or rape of indigenous women (Guerrero, 1993). Most agree that Chicano student activism began on college campuses in the 1920s when Ernesto Galaraza, a Stanford University graduate student in history, spoke in support of oppressed Mexican immigrant workers in California during a National Conference on Social Work. Without the support of any social, academic, or cultural organization, Galaraza rebuked racist notions and perceptions of Chicanos as lazy and unable to assimilate. Contrary to public opinion, Galaraza stated that, "the very economic structure of the United States rests on the blood

and sweat of the [Mexican] immigrant without any true commitment for the well being of the people" (Munoz, 1989, p. 23). Galaraza wanted society to recognize that Chicanos had contributed to the building and growth of the United States through hard labor.

Chicanos were treated like second-class citizens, and the majority Eurocentric culture tried to systematically transform them into a product of mainstream society through acculturation (Munoz, 1989). The public and private school systems gave Mexican American children a large dose of White-American traditional values, which contributed to the erosion of indigenous cultural pride. Mexican American youth were confused about their self-identity because the schools promoted one set of traditional values, while individual families remained loyal to Mexican virtues and values. These issues with Chicano youth became an important stepping stone for creating community support systems. Thus, during the 1940s and 1950s, Chicanos directed their energies to trying to gain power by creating community and political organizations that would address Chicano issues. These organizations included the Mexican American Movement (MAM), the Association of Mexican American Educators (AMAE), the Political Association of Spanish Speaking Peoples (PASSO), and the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) (Munoz, 1989).

During the late 1960s, the quest to diversify college campuses began with Rodolfo "Corky" Gonzales, who led and hosted the first National Chicano Youth Liberation Conference in Denver, Colorado (Munoz, 1989). This conference set the stage for the dissemination of information about civil rights, nationalist ideology, and Chicano self-identity to the youth not only on college campuses, but also throughout Chicano communities. Students began to understand the purpose of taking a revolutionary stance by making their college education beneficial to the overall Chicano community, rather than using education as a stepping stone to increased individual socioeconomic mobility—an accepted core value of American society. This motivated Chicanos to enter their colleges with a nationalist and revolutionary attitude towards attaining their degrees. Chicano student activism was born. Also during this conference, an important document titled *El Plan Espiritual de Aztlan,* or the Spiritual Plan of Aztlan, was written to give Chicanos not only a vision, but also a framework to build a Chicanismo presence in higher education (Munoz, 1989). Approximately one month after the National Chicano Youth Liberation, a group called the Chicano Coordinating Council on Higher Education (CCHE) held a conference at the University of California at Santa Barbara to discuss how the community and the students could work together to increase educational access. In attendance were hundreds of student leaders, community activists, and graduate students. They published *El Plan de Santa Barbara* (Munoz, 1989) that sent a strong message to universities:

Chicanismo draws its faith and strength from two main sources: from the struggle of our people and from our community's strategic needs. We recognize that without a strategic use of education, an education that places value on what we value, we will not realize our destiny. In order to develop our communities, Chicanos recognize the importance of participating institutions of higher learning. We go further by stating: we believe that higher education must contribute to the development of the holistic student containing freedom and values. The destiny of our people will be fulfilled. To that end, we pledge our efforts and take as our credo what Jose Vasconcelos once said at time of crisis and hope: 'At this moment we do not come to work for the university, but to demand that the university work for our people.' (p. 192)

This conference is known in Chicano history as the "founding" of the Chicano Student Organizations, and it also became a critical time for Chicano students to take an active role in addressing the needs of Mexican Americans at institutions of higher education. In addition, *El Movimento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlan*, or the Chicano Student Movement of Aztlan (MEChA) formed as an organization at many campuses and advocated educational civil rights and equal access (Munoz, 1989).

CHICANO STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS' ACCOMPLISHMENTS

MEChA was a fairly radical group with many establishedchapters across the nation (Estrada, Flores-Macias, Garcia, & Maldonaldo, 1991, p. 162). This organization started the movement towards increasing resources for student support servicesin order to meet the needs of Chicanos. As Chicanos, these students were tired of changing themselves to fit in the "American" college environment (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993). One direct result of the Chicano Student Movement struggle was the establishment of Chicano Studies programs. The Chicano Studies curricula revolved around history, current issues, and trends, thus, giving students a sense of belonging and self-identification that also produced a number of Chicano scholars such as Rodolfo Acuna, Ana Castillo, and Carlos Munoz (Aguirre & Martinez,1993). The Chicano model for educational access (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993) evolved from *El Plan de Santa Barbara*. The following are three principles that guided the relationship Chicanos have with higher education institutions:

1.   Funding for recruitment activities should be determined by the qualified Chicano students who are interested in enrolling instead of letting the amount of funding available determine the number of students that should be enrolled.

2.   Proportional representation of certain geographic areas should mirror the representation of Chicanos on that particular college or university.

3.   Proactive initiatives for Chicano students and faculty recruitment and retention will be administrated by Chicano students, faculty, student affairs officials, or community activists (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993, p. 22).

The general attitude reflected by many MEChA members was that if the institution was not going to take responsibility for the Chicano student population on campus, then MEChA was ready and willing to be accountable for its people. Over the years, MEChA has evolved and changed to meet the needs of today's generation. Not only does MEChA symbolize the historical progress of Chicanos (Munoz, 1989), it also plays an important role in establishing Chicano cultural centers, Chicano Studies programs, and strategic recruiting plans targeting Chicanos (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993). Today, MEChA continues to be a strong voice for Chicano students on many campuses. Yet, it is learning to deal with the contemporary struggle for Latino panethnicity (Munoz, 1989).

CONTEMPORARY STRUGGLES AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Like the 1960s, Chicanos still are experiencing struggles of equity and racism on college campuses. Bigotry on college campuses has become a force that creates competition for valued resources between minority and white students. Research refers to racial and ethnic bigotry as an attack against minority students in order to deprive them of valued resources; in this case, education (Aguirre & Messineo, 1997). Examples of areas where there is competition for resources includes race-based financial aid, minority support services, ethnic studies, and cultural houses. Instead of viewing these services as support, the mainstream culture would argue that they create separatism, and thus are exclusive (Rodriguez, April, 1994). Even though minority students experience a "chilly" climate on college campuses, it also is important to acknowledge that this is not a universal experience for all students of color on all college campuses (Smith, 1989). Regardless, many MEChA members, as well as members of other Latino organizations, experience harassment. The following are examples of racial incidents targeted at Latinos/Chicanos off and on college or university campuses:

At St. Mary's University in San Antonio, Texas, MEChA members received a memo from the Student Publications Board that instructed them to cease the MEChA newsletter from further publication because members did not receive "approval," even though they had been publishing on campus for three years and had a letter from the Dean recognizing the publication. Also, students at the same institution

succeeded in gaining a new Chicano cultural room, but only had room capacity for 20 people. This was viewed as a major defeat because Latinos at St. Mary's University make up 50% of the total enrollment (Rodriguez, December, 1996b).

While Chicanos were participating in a spiritual ceremony on the University of California-Los Angeles campus, members of traditionally white fraternities and sororities threw tortillas at the crowd from the back of a truck (Rodriguez, 1995).

At Baylor University in Waco, Texas, the Phi Beta Phi sorority hosted a "Head for the Border" theme dance. In an attempt to stereotype Latinos, sorority sisters dressed in black mini-skirts and appeared pregnant, and white fraternity brothers dressed as cholos [Latino gangsters], in baggy pants and with bandanas on their heads (Estrada, 1998).

Two teachers were fired in Vaughn, New Mexico for teaching about Cesar Chavez's labor movement accomplishments, showing the documentary "Chicano, History of the Mexican American Civil Rights Movement". This documentary teaches students about the men and women who helped lead the Chicano movement. The teachers were also fired for allowing some students to form a MEChA group that provided a forum where they could express their pride for their culture (Aguilar, 1997).

Although students still endure racial tensions on many college campuses, issues such as these have awakened student activism on many college campuses. MEChA, along with other Latino and multicultural student organizations, have worked cooperatively to protest racial harassment and demand a more inclusive campus environment.

Even though Chicanos have encountered many issues on campuses, there have been many accomplishments that Latino communities can cherish. For example, on October 12, 1996, a Latino march in Washington, D.C. demonstrated unity and national recognition of the many issues Latinos face. Maria Jimenez, a long-time human rights activist and Director of the Immigration and Law Enforcement Monitoring Project with the American Friends Service Committee in Houston said, "The October 12th Latino march on Washington, D.C. was the culmination of 25-30 years of struggle of the Chicano movement" (Rodriguez, 1996, p. 7). Jimenez viewed the Latino march on Washington D.C. as Chicanos/Latinos coming together from all parts of the United States to support a common cause

in order to gain a national presence and to send the message that, "We're here, we've always been here and we're not going away" (Rodriguez, 1996a, p. 7).

Other accomplishments include: the establishment of nationally recognized Chicano Studies Programs and Scholars, National Association for Chicano/a Studies conferences are held that discuss research on Chicanos in many aspects of our society, the formation of predominately Latino/a sororities and fraternities, such as Sigma Lambda Gamma National Sorority, Inc., renowned research institutes such as the Julian Samora Research Institute at Michigan State University, and higher education entities, such as the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU) (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993). These are just a few strides Chicanos have made in higher education.

DISCUSSION

This article has discussed the history of the Chicano student movement and the positive impact the movement has made for Chicano/a college students. While Chicano/a students, as well as other minority students, struggle with unwelcoming campus climates, institutions are faced with the challenge of creating a more diverse environment in order to promote racial and ethnic understanding (Smith, 1989).

One way institutions can increase recruitment and retention among students of color is through support services and an institutional commitment to diversity (Smith, 1989). Instead of questioning what is wrong with students of color, institution should evaluate their own campus environments. This will allow student affairs administrators to propose a strategic plan to meet the challenges of retention on college campuses (Jeria & Roth, 1992). How can institutions create a welcoming environment for Chicanos? By revisiting the three principles of *El Plan de Santa Barbara* and by utilizing existing Chicano/Latino student organizations, college and universities can work cooperatively to better meet the needs of Chicano/Latino students. With Aguirre and Martinez's (1993) Chicano model for educational access in mind, this author offers four recommendations for colleges and universities to enhance Chicano recruitment and retention:

1. Utilizing Chicano/Latino student organizations in the recruitment and retention of other Chicano/Latino students. By empowering Chicano/Latino student leaders to become ambassadors of their communities or liaisons to the administration, student affairs professionals will proactively develop recruiting and retention initiatives that serve the needs of the students.

2.   Latino retention is tied to the presence and involvement of Chicano/Latino faculty. Implementing a Chicano Studies program enables students to take pride in learning about themselves and their heritage. In essence, students who participate in Latino/Chicano studies classes can be the "teachers" of their history to their peers.

3.   Universities must make connections with Latino communities. Outreach to the high school population may allow universities to influence enrollment and build relationships with the public schools in that area. Once the communities are familiar with the admission counselor or minority affairs representative, they will feel more at ease sending their children to that particular institution.

4.   Provide adequate funding for minority student support offices and cultural theme houses. This is basically a "home away from home" tactic of retention. If students see part of themselves on campus though multicultural centers or minority affairs offices, they feel like they are a priority on campus. It also can provide services and support that will help minority students with their transition into college life.

Chicanos/Latinos student organizations play a vital role in recruitment and retention of students of color on many college and university campuses. Although, Chicanos have come far in higher education, student affairs administrators must develop proactive initiatives for the educational attainment of not only Chicanos/as but for all students of color. The quality of higher education depends on the incorporation of minority perspectives into the mainstream university frameworks. Yet, the students stand strong and the struggle for educational equality will continue.

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Senior Year Transitions:
From College to Career and From Undergraduate to Graduate School

Heather D. Shea

This article will describe the qualities, unique needs, and concerns of traditionally aged college seniors as they graduate. Following the description is a discussion regarding the specific programs and interventions that colleges and universities can provide for their graduating seniors to help them transition into the workforce or graduate school.

INTRODUCTION

Today's group of traditionally aged college students (age 18-23) was born between 1975 and 1980. This generation has emerged with the label "Generation X," though according to Levine and Cureton (1998), only one in ten young people would use this phrase to describe themselves. Some call them upbeat and optimistic, while others say they are slackers, and still others characterize them as angry at past generations for the problems they have inherited. While describing some individual characteristics, these designations give little indication about the generation as a whole. If anything is known about today's college students, it is that this group is difficult to generalize or label.

However, it is known that today's college students lack a singular, impactful, and defining moment comparable to their parents' Vietnam, or their grandparents' World War II. Therefore, although enthusiasm for student activism is widespread, there are many themes and few common causes. While few political and social events have initiated a generation-wide response, several incidents have been identified by today's students as significant. According to Levine and Cureton (1998), students today ranked the Persian Gulf War (89%), the *Challenger* explosion (84%), the fall of the Berlin Wall (84%), the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill (84%), the Rodney King incident (83%), and the breakup of the USSR (81%) as significant. It also is interesting to note that the world they understand always has known the AIDS virus, MTV, and personal computers. For many incoming first-year students, the primary motivation for attending college is related to job preparation and increasing earning potential. Going to college has become a "means to an end," because students perceive it to be the only way to

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get the job, family, and life of their parents' generation. According to Levine and Cureton (1998), the most important reason students cite for going to college in the 1990s is to prepare for a career. Due to this reason, it becomes necessary for colleges and universities to examine the level of preparation afforded to their graduating seniors to enter the career world.

COLLEGE SENIORS AS PEOPLE IN TRANSITION

Approximately 1.2 million college seniors officially will complete the academic requirements necessary to receive a baccalaureate degree at the end of this academic year (Gardner, 1998). Most of the students in this group have identified personal, professional, and educational goals for their futures. For some, this includes searching for a first job or starting their own business, others are prepared to pursue an advanced degree, and still others are concerned about financially preparing themselves to pay off debts and support a family. Whatever their future goals, every class of college graduates faces a transition in their lives upon graduation. Given this reality, how prepared are graduates to face an unsettled economy, a competitive job market, or the rigors of graduate and/or professional school? Many seniors are concerned about their level of preparedness and ability to adapt to life outside the university setting.

TRANSITION TO THE WORKING WORLD

For many students, the job search process begins well before their senior year. In fact, 85% of students report coming to college with a specific career in mind (Levine & Cureton, 1998). Throughout college, some students participate in internships or other practical experiences to determine their interest in a certain company or field, as well as to work on compiling their resumes and writing their cover letters. Many students attend career and job fairs, searching for possible employment opportunities as the job search nears its end during their senior year. Other students are members of campus professional clubs associated with their career track of interest such as business, science, and engineering. In fact, professional clubs can be found on more than three-quarters of all college campuses and are the largest and most popular student organizations on campus today. Furthermore, the need for many students to work part-time while attending college (60%) and even to work full-time while in attendance (24%) results in a very purposeful, career-oriented mind-set about the undergraduate experience (Levine & Cureton, 1998).

For those students who have had few opportunities to work during their college years, the transition from student to employee can be a dramatic shift. While it is difficult to generalize about every job, many have strict time schedules, lack constant feedback (like grades for example), and give employees little

independence or flexibility as opposed to college life. Experiencing a smooth transition to a work environment can be a struggle for some students if they are not prepared to develop a different mind-set. According to Holton (1998), if seniors are not taught about the workplace environment, they may unknowingly continue to expect their first job to be like college. Many of the behaviors that managers label as "immature," or "naive," are behaviors higher education not only has tolerated, but rewarded and encouraged (Holton, 1998). Some behaviors that could hold graduates back include the following: inability to work independently without constant feedback or direction, complaining about not being allowed to use the skills that they were taught in college, and challenging the established policies and procedures too quickly at their new job. A new employee's concern may arise as a result of these untold directions.

As mentioned earlier, a majority of students are motivated to attend college because they expect their classes, and ultimately their degree, to prepare them for work in their desired field. Traditionally, students spend between four and five years pursuing an education, in hopes that they are receiving adequate training for their first job. The reality demonstrates that many graduates are forced to look outside their field of study for their first job, or find they are unable to apply their major course of study to their job. According to Pascarella and Terenzini (1991), most evidence consistently indicates that only about 50% of college graduates report a close or direct relationship between their undergraduate major and their job(s). However, employees found that there is more of a connection between specific learned skills and their utilization in the first job after graduation compared to subsequent jobs (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

TRANSITION TO GRADUATE SCHOOL

In the minds of many students, the master's degree has replaced the bachelor's degree as entry-level criteria for most professional jobs (Levine & Cureton, 1998). From one perspective, the pursuit of advanced degrees has become more common, as the National Center for Education Statistics recorded a 36% increase in the number of master's degrees awarded between 1984 and 1994. Given this, it is interesting to note that those individuals with advanced degrees still are a relative rarity in our society, with only 5.1% of the population holding master's degrees and only 1% holding doctorates (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1995). The high number of college students intending to go directly into graduate school has changed the way graduate school is viewed in the United States. Graduate programs often are thought of as specialized, focused study, with much personal attention and guidance given to graduate students. Because of these characteristics, the academic rigor of the schoolwork is the greatest shift seniors are forced to make when entering graduate school.

Do seniors contemplating graduate school fully realize the differences between graduate-level expectations as compared to those at the undergraduate level? Students accustomed to participating in a wide variety of social and recreational activities may find they have little time for these pursuits. Instead, conducting research, working with professional organizations, and attending conferences and seminars becomes a part of graduate student life. Focusing on one concentrated area of study is a key component to graduate school. Because of this focus, graduate students may enjoy the opportunity to work or teach in their field through assistantships. While completing a bachelor's degree, courses within a certain department or major arre only part of the academic requirements. Outside of his or her major, an undergraduate may study many subjects he or she may or may not enjoy, but are required to complete to fulfill the school's curriculum or basic studies requirement (Lawhon, 1998). Thus one of the main differences between undergraduate and graduate and/or professional school is the level of depth and focus of study.

TRANSITION TO LIFE OUTSIDE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

A great myth exists that all seniors are ready for graduation and their impending transitions. A student's state of readiness for a successful transition is not realized simply by the timing of graduation. In fact, many seniors are unclear about their goals, confused by the graduate school and job search processes, and worried about their futures (Smith & Gast, 1998). Adjusting to a new job is only part of the transition college students will make when they graduate. Upon leaving the college campus environment, students suddenly may realize how different life is now that they are not constantly surrounded by hundreds of people of approximately their same age and pursuing similar goals. For some graduates, entering the real world can be a tremendous adjustment because this is the first time they are responsible solely to themselves. Part of the transition includes focusing on repaying debts and other financial obligations, balancing work and family (but taking school out of the equation), as well as mentally preparing themselves to leave the higher education environment.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR EASING THE TRANSITION

College and University Responsibility
Beyond conferring academic skills to students, colleges and universities have a responsibility to prepare the whole student for the process of leaving the institution. College and university programs for graduating seniors can take many forms depending on the students' needs. Advising and counseling seniors through the job search process, providing some type of closure on the college experience, motivating alumni relationships, and evaluating experiences are some

of the responsibilities institutions have in easing the transitioning process. Campus career counseling services are unique in that they have a strong linkage to employers, and have a responsibility for aiding the transition from college to the workplace (Holton, 1998). This critical link between the college and potential employers, if utilized, can be one of the most effective ways for seniors to find employment. Incorporating career planning into the educational experience increases a student's level of preparation and understanding about the job search process. Career services can assist students in many ways throughout their time on campus. Administering personality inventories early on helps students clarify their interest and direction of study, offering internships and co-op relationships with local employers offers students actual work experience, and hosting job fairs and on-campus interviews brings students face to face with potential job opportunities. In addition, career services offices can provide feedback to academic departments on the kinds of skills employers are looking for in students.

There are many ways to bring closure to a student's collegiate experience. The senior year, depending on the academic major, can be a time when students are engaged in senior seminars, portfolio reviews, senior projects, theses, exit examinations, departmental reviews, and capstone classes. These various experiences allow seniors to apply their knowledge, and demonstrate their skills and competence in the field they are about to enter. Beyond departmental graduation requirements, a potentially impactful closure activity could be a university-wide required class for graduating seniors parallel to entry-level University 101 classes (often taken as an orientation to the university when students are first-year students). Class discussion and assignments could revolve around the transition experience and self-assessment, as well as analysis, evaluation of, and reflection on their undergraduate experience.

Motivating alumni involvement and contribution is another key component of senior year programs at colleges and universities. However, development of school pride and appreciation should not begin during the student's final year on campus. According to Johnson and Eckel (1998), most students who graduate know very little about how or why alumni involvement is crucial or their options for continuing a close relationship with their alma mater(s) after graduation. In addition, faculty and staff fail to see that today's seniors are tomorrow's alumni, and that fostering their commitment to the institution during their senior year will have a direct effect on the level of commitment they have after their graduation.

While alumni financial donations are central to the financial health of the institution (Johnson & Eckel, 1998), other benefits to the institution include alumni resources, talents, and positive reflection of the university and its values to the greater public. In order to cultivate an involved group of alumni from each senior class, it is necessary for colleges and universities to start informing

students about an alumni connection early. First, it is essential for students to understand why they should be involved and how they can fulfill their roles. Second, alumni activities should be inclusive of current students, full of tradition, and instill pride in seniors so that they want to be a part of the group. Finally, commencement should be an event that cements the connection, as it is possibly the student's last formal involvement with the university.

Student Responsibility
Of course, a certain amount of the responsibility for a smooth transition rests with the students themselves. Colleges and universities can offer career services, job fairs, internship opportunities, capstone classes, and alumni involvement activities for students, but it ultimately is the responsibility of each individual student to take advantage of these resources during his or her senior year. While it is impossible to force students to seek out services that will make the transition easier, having them available certainly is a strong first step.

Employers' Responsibility
It may be easy to assume that workplaces can do more to prepare their new hires for the transition into their companies. However, is this really an employer's job? If the point of education is to give employees skills and competencies so they can work, if that is not happening, is it not the institution's responsibility to change? At the end of the 1980s, college advisers and faculty began hearing criticisms of their students' skills and workplace competencies from employers (Gardner, 1998). Unfortunately, some of the skills that were missing can not be taught or gained in the classroom setting. This is where employers can play a role in easing college seniors' transition into workplace environments. Learning outside the classroom can take many forms; internships, cooperative experiences, and independent studies are among the wide range of activities that students can receive credit for while pursuing their degrees. Businesses that offer internship experiences to college students play a part in helping them to develop essential skills for work after graduation. The responsibility for holding the student accountable, however, rests with the university. According to Gardner (1998), faculty can exert influence by setting rigorous standards and evaluation criteria for internships; an internship that merely allows a student to file papers offers little expert practice and should not be viewed as acceptable.

CONCLUSION

Through orientation programs, first-year seminar classes and other activities, first-year students typically receive a great deal of attention during their initial experiences on college campuses. Four or five years later, the same students typically receive minimal attention. For the most part, the unique needs of seniors

at colleges and universities have been neglected and even ignored. This may be a result of the fact that colleges assume seniors are the least "needy" group on campus. College seniors have survived the shaky periods and most likely will successfully graduate from colleges and universities. However, as has been made clear throughout this article, seniors have unique needs related to the transition they are about to undergo. The potential for difficulty during the transition from college to career or from undergraduate to graduate school deserves serious consideration and attention from the colleges and universities. As discussed, there are many steps institutions can take to make the transition easier on graduating seniors.

Why should colleges and universities allocate resources for easing this transition? There are three main reasons why the needs of seniors should be a focus for colleges and universities. First, seniors have high expectations of their lives after college. For many, the main reason they attended a college or university was to prepare them for a career and to increase their earning potential. Second, graduating seniors are the school's ambassadors to employers, the general public, and potential future students. Third, the dedication, appreciation, and donations provided by alumni will help keep the institution funded in the future.

The outcome of any undergraduate experience should be more than just a framed diploma. Colleges and universities can and must intentionally and successfully influence and enhance outcomes in a variety of specific ways (Gardner, 1998). Institutions of higher education to have an obligation to help students complete the educational process and enjoy a smooth transition from campus life to life after college.

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PROGRAM EVALUATIONS

Student Affairs in Higher Education: How Are We Preparing New Professionals?

Kris Binard

This article addresses the question of preparing student affairs professionals for a future in higher education. Research was conducted in the summer of 1998 to question the Faculty in the Colorado State University Student Affairs in Higher Education graduate program. Responses related to the future of higher education, the curriculum in the current master's program, and challenges to higher education.

INTRODUCTION

According to the *Student Personnel Point of View* (1937), the student affairs profession exists "to assist the students in developing to the limits of [their] potentialities and in making [their] contribution to the betterment of society" (American Council on Education, 1937, p. 1). Although simple, this statement describes the essence of the field. Student affairs professionals at times believe they must explain their role as it relates to higher education, because the purpose of student affairs is often questioned by members of the college community. Manning (1996) stated "student affairs educators consider their role as essential, not because of their relative importance to the academic mission, but because their purposes and mission are intrinsically essential to the mission of higher education" (p. 42). Since the role of student affairs is a component of higher education, student affairs programs are available to students who wish to become professionals in the field.

An attrition study on the field of student affairs revealed role conflict and role ambiguity as the two most common reasons student affairs professionals leave the field within five years (Ward, 1995). An effective student affairs administrator can help eliminate this role ambiguity by clarifying expectations, discussing roles within the organization, and improving communication. In light of this, student affairs graduate programs need to provide new professionals the tools to be successful. Preparing future student affairs professionals for the work they will encounter in the field is one strategy for providing the tools necessary. Ward (1995) asserted "persons preparing to enter student affairs must be given accurate, honest appraisals of the nature of the work, particularly those aspects pertaining to role behavior" (p. 41). Students should leave graduate programs with a full philosophical understanding of the career they have chosen.

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Student affairs professionals first must analyze some of the recent data on student affairs to determine what student affairs graduate programs need to include. Students in the 1990s are different from college students thirty years ago. Today's undergraduates have full lives, including families and full-time jobs, and many undergraduate students are over the age of 25. Research conducted by Levine and Cureton (1998) revealed that

> Higher education is not as central to the lives of today's undergraduates as it was to previous generations. Increasingly, college is just one of a multiplicity of activities in which they are engaged everyday. For many, it is not even the most important of these. (p. 15)

Delivering student services will become even more of a challenge for student affairs professionals as they serve a changing population of students. Student affairs professionals will need to look for new ways to deliver student services and provide avenues for student development. Astin (1998) compared interviews with undergraduate students from 1966 and 1996 and found that the comment, "developing a meaningful philosophy of life" is declining, while the comment, "being very well off financially" has been increasing (p. 124). Statements similar to these reveal the changing values of students in higher education today. New student affairs professionals should be aware of these changes to better understand the changing student population.

When asked to identify key skills that student affairs professionals will need to understand to succeed in higher education, selected chief student affairs officers responded with several qualities, including leadership, student contact, communication, and personnel and fiscal management. A review of current literature has also revealed many of the issues student affairs programs should include to be successful. Some of the skills identified were professional development and research and evaluation (Fey & Carpenter, 1996). This kind of knowledge and skill development should be required for students who are participating in student affairs in higher education or similar graduate programs.

In a recent presentation at Colorado State University, Carol Christ, Vice Chancellor and Provost of the University of California-Berkeley, listed several challenges universities will face in the 21st century. These challenges include fiscal management, access, public identity, technology, accountability, and distance learning (1998). Each of these challenges will effect a new student affairs professional.

Because college students and their needs in student services are changing, student affairs graduate programs should examine how they are preparing new student affairs professionals. This study examined what skills and knowledge need to be

addressed when developing a student affairs in higher education graduate program.

METHOD

In summer 1998, a Student Affairs in Higher Education Questionnaire (see Appendix) was sent to 20 faculty members who teach in the Colorado State University Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) graduate program. The questionnaire was developed by the author to assess responses about the Colorado State University SAHE graduate program. The questionnaire included open-ended questions on what to teach, how to teach, the organizational structure of the department, and challenges to higher education. Twelve of the completed responses were usable for this study.

RESULTS

The responses from theFfaculty at Colorado State University mirror many of the challenges Christ (1998) mentioned above. Listed below are the responses from some of the faculty at Colorado State University.

Future of Higher Education
One of the questions on the questionnaire related to the topic of the future of higher education. The faculty answered the question, "What does a leader in higher education need to know to be successful in the next five to ten years?" The responses fell into four broad categories: change, skills, trends, and orientation.

Change included:
• Understanding the change process
• Changing according to the needs and learning styles of college students of the next century

Skills included:
• Technological skills and distance learning
• Communication skills
• Leadership

Trends included:
• Diversity issues
• National trends regarding budgets, admissions, and affirmative action
• Policy issues surrounding the cost of higher education

Orientation included:
- Commitment to access and quality education
- Clear set of values

Curriculum Changes
These responses are similar to the research Fey and Carpenter (1996) reported which identified professional development, research, and evaluation. Colorado State University SAHE Faculty currently is examining courses to determine if they address those issues. When asked to suggest some curriculum changes, their answers fit into two categories, which could be classified as skills and knowledge.

Curriculum changes to address the skill level include:
- Adding a counseling course
- Focusing on how to facilitate change
- Planning for the future of the institution
- Adding a technology course
- Revising academic requirements at a higher standard to require research projects

Knowledge responses included:
- Ethics course
- Specific information related to the area of student affairs
- Current and future trends of student affairs
- More theory courses

The Faculty answers to the curriculum question specifically relate to the skills identified as important in the 21st century. The only specific change mentioned by the Faculty was to change the requirement of the pre-practicum course to seven weeks and add an ethics course for seven weeks. Changes similar to these were made for the 1998 Fall semester. The practicum experience relates directly to the issues of role ambiguity mentioned previously and helps to create an understanding of the specific departments within the field of student affairs. The ethics course gives students an opportunity to discuss the types of ethical dilemmas they will encounter as professional staff members.

Challenges for Higher Education
A third question was asked of the Faculty regarding their opinion on the greatest challenges they see higher education facing in the future. Once again, responses addressed two themes: instruction and access to higher education.

Instruction responses included:
- Technological delivery system
- Learning environments instead of teaching environments

Access included:
- Diversity/Access
- Public confidence
- Cost to students

These responses had a commonality not found with any of the others. The Faculty focused on access to higher education by addressing the cost of higher education. Instruction was mentioned through their responses on technology, including how technology will be delivered and how it will affect the curricular and co-curricular education of college students. According to these responses, student affairs professionals need to be prepared for future challenges in order to be successful in higher education.

In order to prepare student affairs in higher education graduate students to face these challenges, Colorado State SAHE Faculty members suggested:
- Incorporating technology into the classroom
- Continuing to give and possibly increase student opportunities to get practical experience
- Infusing diversity issues into the curriculum
- Incorporating reflection and case studies of "real life" experiences

The last question related to how the Colorado State University SAHE Faculty can meet the challenges of teaching courses in higher education. Some suggestions included:
- Faculty seminars on topics of interest
- Professional development
- Continuing education
- Library of current information
- Technology courses for faculty
- Diversity training
- Resources for instruction such as classrooms and technology
- Time to prepare and keep current of trends

From this list and the frequency of responses, time to research and prepare, as well as access to literature on higher education are the most critical pieces. Faculty struggle with the balance of being a professional in the field and teaching and advising students. The Colorado State University SAHE Faculty are concerned that they are not staying abreast of current trends in higher education.

A specific question dealt with the issue of part-time versus full-time faculty teaching in the Colorado State University SAHE Program. Ten of those who responded believe that full-time faculty is important to the SAHE Program. These respondents felt that full-time faculty could engage in more research and

spend more time with the students. In addition, they noted the need for a balance of both part-time and full-time faculty. Only two felt that part-time and full-time roles should be the same, and that the practical experience from a part-time faculty member is crucial in understanding the practical issues in student affairs.

According to the American College Personnel Association (ACPA)(1994), certain criteria are important for a student affairs in higher education graduate program. These criteria are (a) at least one full-time faculty member in the program; (b) at least four content courses about student services/affairs/development and the college student/environment; (c) a program of at least two academic years; and (d) at least one practicum opportunity for students in the program. While the ACPA believes that at least one faculty member should be devoted to teaching in the program full-time, it also would seem that Colorado State University Faculty would agree that some full-time faculty are needed for the Program to be successful.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The SAHE Program Faculty at Colorado State University responded to many issues about the future of higher education. Their answers included skills, trends, and knowledge as important foundations, as well as issues such as instruction, change, access, and orientation. Due to the Colorado State University SAHE Faculty responses, the curriculum could be evaluated to see how it currently reflects these changing needs or may adjust to do so in the future.

When examining the literature that suggests that student affairs professionals leave the field within five years (Ward, 1995), it is important to know why and how changes in the curriculum might effect this phenomenon. More research needs to be conducted to determine how student affairs programs can assist in the attrition rate within the profession.

Current research also suggests a need for a changing curriculum to reflect the changing needs of college students. As Levine and Cureton (1998) pointed out, current undergraduates are in need of four things: hope, responsibility, appreciation of differences, and efficacy. Students need to believe that they can make a difference, and student affairs professionals should be prepared to deliver opportunities that will allow students to make these differences. Therefore, new student affairs professionals should be prepared for the next generation of undergraduate students.

More research needs to be conducted to determine what student affairs professionals need to learn and be able to do to be successful in higher education in the next millennium.

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Appendix
Student Affairs in Higher Education Questionnaire
Colorado State University

This questionnaire is designed to examine the Student Affairs in Higher Education master's degree program at CSU to determine how student affairs professionals are trained and taught. Your thorough response is appreciated. All responses will be compiled into a final document; however, specific individuals will not be mentioned.

Name: _____

Title: _____

Courses you have taught or are currently teaching:
_____
_____
_____

What do you believe will be the biggest challenges to higher education in the future? _____
_____
_____

How are you preparing graduate students to handle these challenges?
_____
_____
_____

What does a leader in higher education need to know to be successful in the next 5-10 years? _____
_____
_____

Do you see your student affairs program changing in the near future as it relates to core requirements? If so, how? _____
_____
_____

What are some suggestions in regards to changing the curriculum requirements of the program?
_____
_____
_____

What are the tools you need as a faculty member to meet the challenges of teaching higher education?_____

_____

_____

What are your thoughts on the role of full-time versus part-time faculty? Do you see these roles as being different from one another?   If so, how?

_____

_____

_____

Overview and Evaluation of the Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program

Keith Edwards

The author of this article investigated and evaluated the University of Delaware's Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program. This overview and evaluation will address the need for such programs to help educate and develop our Greek organizations into an integral part of a University's educational mission. Suggestions for implementation at other institutions, and considerations for designing programs for success also will be examined.

INTRODUCTION

Greek organizations on campus have been under increasing scrutiny for decades. In 1978, fraternal organizations (the words "fraternal" or "fraternity" refer to both men's and women's Greek letter organizations) suffered from the perpetuation of stereotypes in pop culture. The movie *Animal House* (1978) portrayed a fraternity as men sharing a house with no interest in scholarship, showing little respect for women, and having a serious commitment to alcohol and parties. In recent years, there has been an increase in the debate over the contribution of these organizations to the educational mission of universities. In fact, many argue institutions actually are harmed by such organizations. In Fall 1997, Greek-related incidents at Louisiana State University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology resulted in the deaths of two fraternity men, thus increasing the intensity of Greek criticism across the nation (Kalb & McCormick, 1998).

DESCRIPTION

Many higher education institutions have responded to such incidents described above and criticism of the Greek system by limiting or removing all institutional support for Greek organizations. Ironically, only a small number of educational institutions have taken a developmental and educational approach. One strong example of an educational approach can be found at the University of Delaware, which has taken a positive step by developing and instituting what they term the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program.* According to Noel Hart, Director of Greek Life at the University of Delaware, the program is the tool the University was looking for to help make the Greek system at the University of Delaware a positive experience for students involved in Greek organizations. Based on similar programs at the University of Maryland, Utah State, and the University

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of Arkansas, the University of Delaware designed the Evaluation Program as a direct response to binge drinking, hazing, and a general degradation of Greek housing (N. Hart, personal communication, September 30, 1998).

Fraternal organizations were founded on core values such as, trust, loyalty, mutual respect, and concern for others. The *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program* is based on a return to those espoused core values. The Program is meant to reward chapters for excellent work, sanction chapters that are not living up to their core values, and identify areas of improvement for all chapters to strive for excellence. The Program utilizes a point system based on earning points in five basic areas: academics, financial management, university/community relations and service, campus involvement, and new membership recruitment and education program. A total of 494 points are available. Any chapter earning 90% of the possible points is awarded five star status, 77% earns four star status, 64% earns three star status, 51% earns two star status, and 37% earns one star status. Points can be earned in a variety of ways. For example, a chapter can earn 94 points for having an average grade point average (GPA) that exceeds that of the University average for the gender of the chapter. A variety of smaller points can be earned for having a GPA requirement for potential new members, having a chapter budget approved by the organizations advisor, and member participation in community events (University of Delaware, 1998).

STEPS TO IMPLEMENTATION AND POSITIVE IMPACT

The University of Delaware has seen impressive improvements in its Greek system after implementing the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program* for three years. For example, the all-fraternity GPA average is higher than the all-men's average GPA at the University. In addition, the three chapters that earned five star status had very successful recruitment periods this past fall. This has improved the attitude and image of Greeks throughout the campus community. Recognizing this success, the University of Delaware continues to raise the standard by increasing the percentages needed to earn points (N. Hart, personal communication, September 30, 1998).

Institution-wide support has contributed to the success of the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program*. The sanctions for not meeting the standards of the program are upheld, and benefits rewarded for exceptional chapters, because the Faculty Senate of the University of Delaware approved the Program. Since the Faculty Senate creates institutional policy at the University of Delaware, failure to meet the goals of the Program violates the University's policies. Therefore, the Greek Life office and the Greek student governing boards have the authority to enforce the sanctions associated with the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program*. Chapters that do not cooperate with the Program are subject to judicial board

review and sanctions. The judicial board can issue a variety of sanctioning efforts ranging from requiring an improvement plan to revoking University recognition of the chapter's charter, which essentially would close the chapter (N. Hart, personal communication, September 30, 1998).

Student input through InterFraternity and Panhellenic Councils also was essential in developing the Program. A two-semester warning and education period was instituted to allow chapters to adjust to the new standards for evaluation before sanctions and restrictions were imposed. Mid-term assessments without sanctions also are provided to help chapters identify areas of improvement (N. Hart, personal communication, September 30, 1998).

Due to the fact that chapters report their own results which are verified by the Greek Life office, the chapters cannot sabotage each other by providing information that would ruin another chapter's status. This is a non-competitive system based on self-reporting, which helps the chapters focus on all positive aspects of Greek life, rather than simply focusing on avoiding judicial sanctions. The system allows each chapter to reach its fullest potential, while maintaining positive relations between chapters (N. Hart, personal communication, September 30, 1998).

EVALUATION

With increased media attention on Greek organizations, many colleges and universities are struggling to find the rationale to keep Greek organizations on their campuses. Why would any university, such as the University of Delaware, invest the time and effort to be supportive of organizations viewed in such low esteem by many in the higher education community? The Office of the Vice President of Student Affairs at the University of Maryland at College Park (1995) has adopted a relationship statement, illustrating the benefit Greek organizations can and should have on an educational environment. The following is a portion of the statement between the University and Greek organizations suggesting the benefits of being involved in healthy Greek organizations:

> The document recently developed by the American College Personnel Association, *The Student Learning Imperative: Implications for Student Affairs* (1994) states that the "Hallmarks of a college-educated person include: ...(b) an ability to apply knowledge to practical problems encountered in one's vocation, family, or other areas of life; (c) an understanding and appreciation of human differences; (d) practical competence skills (e.g. decision making, conflict resolution); and (e) a coherent integrated sense of identity, self-esteem, confidence, integrity, aesthetic sensibilities, and civic responsibility." Given the intensity of

daily life and the range of developmental challenges that exist in a college setting, fraternities and sororities remain perhaps the most productive living-learning experiences available to students that will allow them to achieve these competencies. (p. 1)

The *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program* is an excellent tool that can help institutions mold their Greek systems into a vital part of how the college or university meets the goals of the *Student Learning Imperative*. The Program is designed to provide incentive for students to take a leadership role and initiate changes benefiting the chapter and all of its members. Greek organizations that meet the challenge and goals of the Program, not only will be better able to be an integral part of the University's educational mission, but also are more likely to meet the organization's self professed core values and beliefs.

This system certainly has worked for the University of Delaware and a select other institutions that have implemented similar programs. However, this is not a cure- all for any Greek system. The program must be tailored to the specific institution if it is to be successful. Colleges and universities must independently define the criteria of the program to reflect the culture and values of the institution and its students. In an ideal situation, the program helps each Greek organization act in harmony with the institution's values and the organizations specific core values. Institution-wide support, such as approval by the Faculty Senate at the University of Delaware, is critical in making the program enforceable, as well.

Student input in the development and implementation of the program is critical in order for it to be successful. Without student support, the program will simply suffocate and punish organizations. Including the students in the development of the program helps to insure that their views of appropriate challenges and goals are included. This partnership will allow for the students to promote the program to other students, avoiding the appearance of another administrative mandate.

Once the program has been properly developed with students to reflect the appropriate values, it is critical to allow students time to adjust to a new method of chapter evaluation. A two-semester phase-in, similar to the University of Delaware's Program, would be appropriate. After a full year of students and administration working in partnership to develop and organize the program, a yearlong trial period could be implemented. Fraternities would be asked to report information verifying that they had met the goals of the program. After each semester, the chapters would receive a progress report with their five star status. This would not carry with it any of the privileges or sanctions. During this period the university could work with the chapters to help them reach their goals, avoid sanctions, and become a healthy organization for student involvement. Keeping

these factors in mind, colleges and universities can use the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program* to help all chapters achieve success meeting the goals of the organization and the university.

CONCLUSION

If colleges and universities are indeed looking to educate and improve Greek chapters, rather than disassociate with and eventually eliminate Greek organizations from their campuses, programs like the *Five Star Chapter Evaluation Program* could be used as a successful tool to help reach their goals. Universities should include their own institutional values and help the chapters adjust to new programs, in order to provide chapters with the instrument to be successful. With such tools, Greek organizations can return to their original values of building meaningful personal relationships, scholarship, community service, leadership, and involvement. This return to fraternal core values can help Greek organizations once again become an integral part of the educationl mission of colleges and universities across the nation.

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SAHE ALUMNI CONNECTIONS

Reflections from a Student Affairs in Higher Education Program Graduate: Five Years Later

Kate McCaffrey

I would like to take this opportunity to thank the friends and colleagues who helped in making this article possible. Without many people's input and ideas it would not be the final version you see before you. Though the miles may come between us, the support and camaraderie still remain.

My intent for this article is for it to be a discussion. Really, there is no statistical or research basis for it, just some thoughts and comments from someone who left the doors of the Colorado State University Student Affairs in Higher Education (SAHE) program a little over five years ago. Although I am sure there is a research project here somewhere, that is not my intent, or desire. I invite you to sit back, relax, grab a cup of coffee, tea, or whatever refreshment you most enjoy in this crazy student personnel world, and embark on what I hope will be an entertaining, yet thoughtful conversation.

At this moment, here I sit on my highly suggested/encouraged day off by my supervisor. It has been a little stressful on our campus of about 2,000 18 -22 year-olds since early August. But, whose life in student affairs isn't stressful all year round? We deal with things sometimes on a day to day and a week to week basis. Often our best laid plans are interrupted by a student in crisis or a community issue. When the idea for this article came to mind, I never thought I actually would write it. However, the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs Board seemed to think it was worth putting these thoughts on paper. I should know better than to say never. Last time I said that I ended up living in Wisconsin for three years, and that is where my story after Colorado State begins.

This is my reflection on life as a student affairs professional, five years after the SAHE program. I sometimes liken the work we do to that of mountain biking, something I learned to do while living in Fort Collins. There are days when I am moving downhill so fast, it feels like I will never stop and everything around me is a blur. There are also those days when the view is so clear and brilliant, I am utterly amazed at the capability of the students with whom I work. Then, there are the times when I feel as if I am avoiding boulders and stumps in just enough time to save myself from falling off the edge. And, yes, there are rattle snakes in

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my path, as well as field mice. But somehow, we all learn to live and work in a community together.

In preparing to write this article, I utilized the technological phenomenon called e-mail. I did receive a few responses from some very dear Colorado State friends. Here is what they had to say when I asked them if they were happy with their choice to lead a life in student affairs.

The answer was a resounding "yes." We all know of people who may have left Colorado State at the same time we did who are no longer in student affairs. Those who have left the field said they do utilize the knowledge and skills from their student affairs experience often, only in a different setting. Others who affirmed the student affairs profession had several reasons why they are happy with this choice. One person mentioned his sense of freedom in working with those in academia, along with his opportunity to impact a community. Student affairs is by no means a traditional field, so therein lie many opportunities to go beyond where a "traditional" position might develop. In reference to his happiness in student affairs, one colleague mentioned, "I am in a profession that seeks to develop students into what and who they want to develop into. There are many personal rewards that go along with this work." Another friend's response was very positive: "I enjoy coming to work everyday. I don't know many people who can say that. I work in a dynamic, stimulating, and ever changing environment in a beautiful part of the country. Over the years, it is the people I come in contact with and work with everyday that makes what I do so enjoyable." I agree wholeheartedly with these comments. The connections that a profession like ours is able to create are truly amazing, especially given how far reaching the Colorado State SAHE Program is. Wherever you go, you almost always meet someone who did his or her graduate work at Colorado State University or knows someone there. This creates a very, special connection.

On the flip side, I asked a few colleagues what they perceived to be the most frustrating or difficult aspect of working in a student affairs position. What they said was not at all surprising: being an administrator who supervises professional and support staff positions. We find ourselves having very difficult, often painful conversations around issues of promotions, expectations, and basic work ethic. I personally have had to use the term "counsel out of the position" more frequently than I would like. Supervising others takes tremendous expertise and energy. Those discussions regarding someone's future in a position can be very difficult. It also takes time to be a good supervisor and have those positive, nurturing professional relationships. Fortunately, at Colorado State these types of professional relationships were role modeled, giving the graduate students a good idea of how this aspect of the profession works.

Another aspect that can be particularly difficult is that of conduct, discipline, judicial decisions, or whatever term you may use to identify the process where students learn the consequences of their poor choices. Let's face it, the judicial process can, and does, get ugly. Who could have imagined, that all that time spent worrying and agonizing about Brian Snow's law class would be one of the courses I reflect upon almost daily within my work. The legal issues involved in some cases can be overwhelming. Thank you, Brian, for giving us the courage, if nothing else, to dive in and have a discussion. This is one of those areas where there always is someone to turn to with more expertise than myself. I think we quickly learn to utilize these networks and resources very well, another well-modeled aspect of student affairs at Colorado State.

One of the most difficult aspects for me is the seeming hopelessness of today's student. It saddens me to see so many of our students suffering from so much. I have learned more about learning disabilities, depression, eating disorders, drug overdoses, and suicide attempts than I ever thought I would. On the other hand, it also can be rewarding and reassuring to see students work through some serious issues, and then see them walk across the stage at commencement. This truly is an incredible feat for some.

Arthur Levine spoke at last year's NASPA Conference in Philadelphia. I could truly relate to what he said about the students of today. I run into many who are so hopeless and fearful, I worry if they will make it from day to day, and most of the time with a little help from those of us in the student affairs arena, they do. It is difficult to keep the issues some students are dealing with day in and day out separated from my emotions. Sometimes I think that life would be better if I worked in another profession for a while. A few moments alone, or a conversation with an ambitious student leader can help me gain new perspective that can be so rejuvenating.

Just when I think I have truly made the decision that student affairs is not for me, and that I would have less stress if I worked in a florist shop, arranging and delivering flowers, I receive a note from a student. One note with only a few words, from maybe one student a year, and then I think, "Hey, what I do is pretty cool, maybe I'll stay for a while longer." Yes, I return to that idealism and hold on tight, because I know that what I do does make a difference in someone's life. And I believe the college years are the best time to make that difference.

When I asked my friends if they had any final thoughts about their experiences at Colorado State or reflections from the SAHE program, they had much to say. "I look back with a tremendous amount of fondness. A happy, yet challenging time," one friend said. Another colleague stated, "My graduate years are still the best of my young life. I grew up a great deal in two years, and feel I was

prepared in entering my first full-time professional job. I had excellent colleagues, supervisors, and advisors who trusted, encouraged, challenged, supported, and cared about me. A feeling I have not experienced since leaving Colorado State. And I realize that was a very special time."

I agree. There is not a day that goes by that I do not think about Colorado State and the people there in some respects. Whether it is a fond memory of life outside the perennial classroom, an advisor or supervisor, or thinking about how someone from a class or setting at Colorado State might react or respond given my particular situation. The SAHE program is a very special experience. It prepared me for life in the administrative world; to leave its doors and suddenly travel three states away and go from being a graduate student to a supervisor of a graduate student was quite a challenge. Oh my, those first few months in that new position. I think about that feeling so often in my daily work. As Tom Hanks said in the movie *A League of Their Own*: "It's the hard that makes it good." The hard does make it good. It is through the difficult and challenging times that we grow the most. I think about the SAHE Program in ways that I hope I always will think about it. I do not want to become an administrator who stays in a position for twenty plus years, turns cynical, and becomes trapped in the politics of it all. I hope that all those reading this also will believe and remember what the SAHE Program does and can do for student affairs professionals world wide: prepare and teach good student affairs practice.

Regardless of when we graduated or where our professional travels have taken us, I hope we can look back and gain perspective on our daily lives by reflecting on the time spent in student affairs. The work we do as student affairs professionals is valuable and important to many on our campuses. Let us remember this, and return to the basics of what we learned, sometimes muddled through, and frequently discussed during our time in graduate school. Our foundation at Colorado State was solid, and for that we will be forever thankful.

Class of 1998

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 1998.

What follows is the current placement of the members of the Class of 1998, followed by the title of their research. Please feel free to contact the authors if you would like more information about their research. Copies of their thesis or professional paper also are kept in the SAHE Library, located in the Palmer Center on the Colorado State University campus.

Kristin Anderson
Hall Director
University of Portland
Portland, Oregon
Speak Up! The Design and Implementation of a Programming Model

Matt Bruderle
Resident Director
Emerson College
Boston, Massachusetts
Realistically Previewing the RA Job for Potential Applicants

Jake Brumfield
Activities Advisor
Wichita State University
Wichita, Kansas
How Do We Sustain the State Classified Staff: Needs Assessment in the College Union

Soyon Bueno
Resident Director-- Union Coordinator (Fall 1998)
Institute of Shipboard Education Semester At Sea
In Defense of Affirmative Action: Debunking the Model Minority Myth

Sebastian Contreras, Jr.
Assistant Director of Student Activities
Rollins College
Winter Park, Florida
Issues in Identity Development for Latino Gay Males

Lucia Delgado
Hall Director
University of Arizona
Tuscon, Arizona
Culture Shock: Preparing Students of Color for Predominantly White University Campuses

Anjanette Gautier
Hall Coordinator
University of Texas
Austin, Texas
Liberatory Pedagogy: A Perspective from Mexican Student Affairs Educators

Jennifer Gelbmann
Residence Hall Director/Coordinator of Student Programming
Hamline University
St. Paul, Minnesota
Sexual Assault Prevention Programming for Residence Hall Communities: An Integrated Programming Model

Nichol Kleespies
Admissions Counselor
Buena Vista College
Storm Lake, Iowa
The Experience of Women Faculty Members with Leadership and Tenure at Colorado State University

Becky Martinez
Residence Life Coordinator
University of California, Irvine
Irvine, California
The Transition Issues and Experiences of Current Students with Former Gang Affiliation in University Environments

Troy Noeldner
Assistant Director of Apartment Housing
University of North Dakota
Grand Forks, North Dakota
Response to Disaster: A Case Study of the Responses by the Lory Student Center Staff

Ashley Struck
Area Coordinator (Fall 1998)
Smith College
Northampton, Massachusetts
Creating Inclusive Residence Hall Programming for Women

Beth Yohe
Education Director
Anti-Defamation League, Mountain States Region
Denver, Colorado
Incorporating White Racial Identity Development into Resident Assistant Multicultural Training

Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs
Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

Purpose

Manuscript 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
- Opinion/Position Pieces
- 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.

To submit an article:
1. Prepare the manuscript, including title page and reference page, in accordance with the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Fourth Edition.*
2. Send the original the manuscript to the address listed for the editorial board.
3. Include an article abstract and brief description of the author.
4. Double-space all portions of the manuscript, including references, tables, and figures.
5. Avoid sexist terminology; refer to page 50 of the *Publication Manual* for assistance.
6. Do not use footnotes; incorporate the information into the text.
7. Use the active voice as much as possible.

8. Check subject/verb agreement, singular/plural.
9. Use verb tense appropriately: past tense for the literature review and description of procedures, and present tense for the results and discussion.
10. Proofread and double check all references/citations before submitting your manuscript.
11. Save your article in Rich Text Format (.rtf), IBM versions, whenever possible.
12. Authors will be provided with a 3.5" disk on which to type their article; this disk should be submitted with your final copy.
13. Any article under consideration for publication in a nationally distributed journal may not be submitted to the Colorado State Journal of Student Affairs.

PAST EDITORS

As we produce the eighth edition of the Colorado State University Journal of Student Affairs, we want to acknowledge those who have layed the foundation for our success:

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