INDIANA UNIVERSITY
STUDENT PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION

INDIANA UNIVERSITY

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EDITORS' COMMENTS

Institutions of higher education are influenced by a myriad of factors. The rapid pace of change, not only on our campuses but in the larger society, has a significant impact on our daily activities. Reflecting on these changes and assessing the ways in which we respond is essential to meeting the ever-evolving needs of our students, our institutions, and our profession. This issue of the *Journal* addresses the many ways we evaluate the nature and quality of our work.

The following articles are a product of the authors' personal interests, academic accomplishments, and professional experiences. As such, they represent a wide variety of perspectives within the field of student affairs.

The first article in this year's edition reports the results of a recent survey of IU CSPA alumni, revealing very positive responses about the quality and relevance of the program to professional positions in student affairs. "New Student Affairs Professionals: Moving Up, Turning Over, and Burning Out" explores the nature of various challenges in the field for new professionals. "Women's Perceptions of Body Image, Dieting, Exercise and Self Concept in an Undergraduate Residence Center" is an environmental assessment that provides valuable information relating to eating disorders and important implications for practice. "Cost and Quality in Higher Education: Finding the Balance" discusses the importance of educational quality in a period of tight budgetary resources. Finally, "Historically Black and Predominantly White Higher Education Institutions: How Do They Compare?" examines the experiences of African American students at these two types of institutions, while Marylu McEwen's article discusses the specific responsibilities of white student affairs professionals in understanding and addressing racial issues on campus.

We are grateful to several individuals without whom production of this year's *Journal* would not have been possible. We thank the outstanding Editorial Review Board for their careful evaluation of articles, the authors for their committed efforts to incorporate revision suggestions, and George Kuh for his continued support and advising of the *Journal* staff.

The members of the *Journal* staff have not escaped the current climate of change in higher education. Since some of the traditional sources of funding for the *Journal* are no longer available, many individuals have committed significant time, effort, and creativity to ensure the continued publication of the *Journal*. We express our appreciation to the Indiana University Student Association, the Indiana University Student Personnel Association, the

Department of Residence Life, the Association of College Unions-International, and especially the many generous alumni whose financial contributions made publication of the *Journal* possible. It is our sincere hope that alumni will continue to contribute in order to provide adequate funding for future issues of the *Journal*. Once again, thank you for your continued support of our efforts.

Melody M. Snyder is a second year master's student in CSPA. She completed her B.A. in English and German at the University of Nebraska at Kearney in 1993. While at Indiana University, Melody served as a Graduate Resident Assistant in McNutt Residence Center and as a Leadership Consultant and Graduate Program Advisor for the Indiana Memorial Union Board of Directors. Upon completion of her degree, she plans to move to the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area and pursue a career in student affairs.

Lisa Lorden, a second-year CSPA student, received her B.A. in Psychology from University of California-Santa Barbara. While at IU, Lisa has worked with the Arts & Sciences Placement Office, the MBA Program in the IU School of Business, and the Union Board of the Indiana Memorial Union. After completing her degree, she plans to return to Southern California.

STATE OF THE PROGRAM
George D. Kuh

Greetings from Bloomington! As I write, spring has finally arrived, with the green of grass and trees, and blooming plants, making Bloomington and Indiana University a very attractive place to live and work. You remember those days, don't you?!

Don Hossler is presently in China helping a small group of administrators from Indiana University establish a partnership with a counterpart institution in Beijing. From China he will head to Russia where he is working on a funded project with a group of institutions there.

Again this year, the Bloomington campus and the School of Education have committed fellowship monies to permit us to support four master's degree and two doctoral students from historically underrepresented racial and ethnic groups. These students, committed to a career in higher education and student affairs, also bring to their assistantship appointments additional much needed diversity to the staff ranks at IU.

The Indiana University Student Personnel Association has had another active year. As you know this organization is key to successfully recruiting and orienting newcomers to the master's program. Representing IU this year in the NASPA case study competition in San Diego were Darnell Cole (who did his undergraduate degree at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte), and Eileen Stanko (who is a graduate of Florida State University). Darnell and Eileen were cited at the closing session at NASPA as one of six outstanding teams; they were noted as being particularly strong in the application of theory.

In January, I became the coordinator of doctoral programs in higher education. This summer, I will include coordination of the master's program as well into these duties on a trial basis. In the past, the responsibilities for these programs have been kept separate due to time demands associated with each. I trust, with the good help of my colleagues and Joyce Regester, not too many important things will fall through the cracks!

Finally, inserted in your *Journal* is a letter from me explaining the particularly difficult circumstances facing further issues of the *Journal of IUSPA*. Please read and respond accordingly. Please help us by continuing to recommend IU to outstanding prospects, sharing news of your recent accomplishments, and earmarking some of your precious discretionary dollars for support of IUSPA and this *Journal*.

AWARDS AND HONORS

Congratulations to these members of the Indiana University family on the following recognitions:

Marylu McEwen	1995 Elizabeth A. Greenleaf Award
Rodger Summers	1995 Robert H. Shaffer Award
Deanna Armstrong	1995 Elizabeth A. Greenleaf Fellowship Award
James W. Lyons	1995 Indiana University School of Education Outstanding Alumnus Award
Lawrence Tyree	1995 Indiana University School of Education Outstanding Alumnus Award
Sarah Westfall	1994 Raleigh W. Holmstedt Fellowship Award
Flo Hamrick	1994 Raleigh W. Holmstedt Fellowship Award
William Shipton	1994 Kate Hevner Mueller Award

CALL FOR NOMINATIONS

Nominations of individuals for the 1996 Elizabeth A. Greenleaf Award are now being accepted.

The Greenleaf Award is presented annually to the graduate of the master's degree program in Higher Education and Student Affairs, "exemplifying the sincere commitment, professional leadership and personal warmth characteristic of the distinguished professor for whom the award is named." Previous Greenleaf Award recipients include Vicki Mech-Fields, Keith Miser, Louis Stamatakos, Phyllis Mable, James Lyons, Paula Rooney, Joanne Trow, Carol Cummins-Collier, Thomas Miller, Frank Ardaiolo, Deborah Hunter, Vernon Wall, William Bryan, and Terry Williams.

The Robert H. Shaffer Award is presented to the graduate of the Indiana University Higher Education doctoral program who exemplifies outstanding service to the student affairs profession. Previous Shaffer Award recipients include John Welty, David Ambler, L. "Sandy" McLean, Thomas Hennessey, Jimmy Lewis Ross, Robert Ackerman, Don G. Creamer, Nell Bailey, and Alice Manicur.

Nominations for both awards will close on February 2, 1996. The awards will be presented at the 1996 NASPA and ACPA conferences. Please direct your nominations and supporting materials (e.g., vita) to George Kuh, W.W. Wright Education Building, Room 4228, 201 N. Rose Avenue, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405. Thank you.

The Program:
A Look Back at Indiana University's CSPA Program Through the Eyes of Recent Alumni

Katherine Keuthan Hale
Beth Pfeiffer
Marianna Savoca

In the past twenty-five years, many studies have addressed graduate preparation programs. Literature on master's-level student affairs programs ranges from curriculum debate to practitioner assessment; however, few published studies examine former students' evaluations of their own programs.

Curriculum questions are a central theme in the literature. Organizational models for student services preparation programs have been offered, containing varying degrees of emphasis on counseling, development, or administration (Delworth & Hanson, 1989; Council for the Advancement of Standards [CAS], 1986). Some research postulates that the benefit of master's work lies in the experiential component -- the opportunities to translate theory to practice and develop personal theories in use (Brown, 1992; Strange & King, 1990). It has also been suggested that the focus of master's curriculum shift from the descriptive to the theoretical, concentrating more on why we do what we do (Manning, 1993). Professional association statements such as *A Perspective on Student Affairs* (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1987), *The Student Learning Imperative* (American College Personnel Association, 1994), and the *CAS Standards* (1986) also contribute to the conversation about the optimal content and process of preparation programs.

Past research includes the history and trends of student affairs preparation programs (Keim, 1991). Additionally, graduate programs have been assessed by chief student affairs officers and other student affairs practitioners (Keim, 1991; Sandeen, 1982). Studies examining whether students are adequately prepared have shown that faculty and employers had different perceptions regarding the competencies of recent graduates (Hyman, 1988; Rhatigan, 1968).

A suggestion for inclusion of graduate input in the assesment process was made by the *CAS Preparation Standards and Guidelines at the Master's*

Degree Level for Student Services/Development Professionals in Postsecondary Education (CAS, 1986). Guidelines indicate that former students should review programmatic objectives and evaluate program effectiveness. Following this advice, the Indiana University Student Personnel Association (IUSPA) curriculum committee administered a survey to recent alumni of the College Student Personnel Administration (CSPA) program. The questionnaire asked alumni to evaluate the value and relevance of course and experiential work to their first full-time position after completing the master's degree. The findings of this study also address perceptions of program effectiveness and what Indiana alumni see as current issues in the student affairs field.

Methods

Subjects

Graduates from the IU CSPA program from 1988-1992 were surveyed, including alumni from both the Bloomington and Indianapolis campuses. One hundred-fifty surveys were mailed; fifty-eight responses were received, for a 39% response rate.

Procedures

Institutions with CSPA programs were contacted and a literature search was conducted to locate evaluation models for student affairs preparation programs. Using this information and consulting with CSPA faculty, the IUSPA curriculum committee developed a survey. The first section included questions regarding alumni's educational background, type of institution in which they are currently employed, and their employment history. The second section asked alumni to evaluate ten required courses on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from not valuable (1) to very valuable (5). The scale included an option of did not take. Space was provided for comments about any of the courses, as well as comments about elective courses. The third set of questions covered experiential learning opportunities, such as assistantships and practica. In the fourth section, graduates were asked to list the top five issues they currently face in their jobs, the degree to which they would recommend IU's CSPA program, and if they had any advice for changes to the current program. Surveys were mailed during the summer of 1993. No follow-up with non-respondents was conducted. Data was collected, coded, and analyzed during the 1993-1994 academic year.

Data Analysis

Fifty-one respondents attended classes in Bloomington; six attended classes in Indianapolis; one attended both campuses. On average, the number of years between completion of a bachelor's degree and entering the master's program was 2.6. The most time spent between attending undergraduate and graduate school was twenty years.

Mean scores were calculated for the Likert-type questions. The open-ended questions were examined for commonalties, and categories were then developed using the super inductive method. This method allowed groupings to emerge from the data instead of fitting the information into pre-determined categories.

Results

Seventeen percent of respondents had completed or were pursuing a Ph.D. or Ed.D. Ten percent had completed a double major in counseling and three percent had completed the minor in counseling. The functional areas in which graduates are currently employed are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Areas of Present Employment

Functional Area	% Responding
Residence Life	21%
Other	16%
Career Services	14%
Student Activities	12%
Student Life	7%
Financial Aid	5%
Alumni Relations	5%
Not Employed	3%
Conferences	3%
Admissions	3%
Academic/Education	3%
Student Discipline	2%
Greek Affairs	2%

Residence life positions were most common (21%), followed by career services (14%), and student activities (12%). Seventeen percent of graduates

presently hold a title of director or above. The "other" category included careers outside of student affairs.

To designate institution type, respondents selected descriptors they thought most represented their institution's type. Some used more than one descriptor; therefore, the numbers reflect some overlap. Most graduates are currently employed at mid-size or large public institutions (41%). Twenty-four percent are presently with small liberal arts colleges (64% of which have a religious affiliation); sixteen percent are with private, non-sectarian institutions; five percent are with religiously affiliated colleges; and two percent are working at community colleges.

Table 2 lists the mean response rate for each of the ten courses evaluated. On a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high), respondents rated U552: The College Student, as being the most valuable course (x=4.29) in preparing graduates for their first job after completing the program. U545: *Student Affairs Organizations and Procedures or Group Development in Campus Settings* was rated as least valuable (x=2.88).

Table 2: Course Evaluation

Class	Mean
U552: The College Student	4.29
U548: Student Development Theory and Research	4.17
G573: Communication Skills	4.17
U553: The College Student and the Law	4.14
U549: Environmental Theory and Assessment	4.02
U544: Introduction to Student Affairs	3.80
U580: Issues and Problems in Student Affairs	3.75
P501: Statistical Methods	3.20
U551: Administrative Practices	3.05
U545: Student Affairs Organizations and Procedures or Group Development in Campus Settings	2.88

Graduates rated highly both assistantships (x=4.2) and practica (x=4.3) in preparation for the first position in student affairs. Most respondents had more assistantships and practica than those required by the program.

Table 3 lists the top ten issues that IU graduates are currently facing in the field. Sixty-two percent of respondents reported the most pressing issues are

financial. Diversity issues were the second most frequently expressed area of concern (45%).

Table 3: Top Ten Issues Faced by New Professionals

Issue	% Responding
Financial Resources	62%
Diversity	45%
Compensation	22%
Legal Issues	17%
Supervision	16%
Time Management	12%
Motivating Student Leaders	12%
Professionalism	12%
Office Politics	10%
Retention	10%

Alumni highly recommend IU's CSPA program (x= 4.2). Little difference was found between respondents who took courses primarily in Bloomington (x=4.2), compared to those in Indianapolis (x=4.3).

Discussion

Responses from the survey yielded some interesting demographics. For example, a wide range of functional areas and staff levels are represented by IU graduates. Seventeen percent are presently serving as directors or deans. This statistic, however, is dependent upon institutional size and departmental organization. Furthermore, the title of director may not convey similar responsibilities across institutions.

In regard to course evaluation, alumni were generous with their replies. For example, with reference to U552: *The College Student,* one wrote, "I still remember it as the best, most interesting, thought provoking course." Others voiced concerns over specific content areas, "I would encourage increasing the credit value to three -- make it one semester and start with creating a sense of self worth among the students, rather than one of guilt or anger. Discussion of diversity issues often focuses on what we as white people [sic] need to learn and feel guilty about, rather than what we can share and learn

about." In fact, due to student and alumni recommendation, U552 was renamed, U546: *Diverse College Students,* and expanded to a three-credit, semester long course in 1991.

The least valuable course, U545 had two titles: *Student Affairs Organizations and Procedures* and *Group Development in Campus Settings* (commonly known as "Groups"). Though some viewed the content and resources as valuable, course organization needed improvement. Respondents indicated that the "textbook is a good reference tool." Once again, faculty responded to student evaluations and recommendations, and phased out this course in 1991.

A few caveats are necessary. Courses were evaluated based on their total value; teaching styles and course content were not evaluated separately. Also, some courses were taught by different instructors over the years. Therefore, generalizations may not reflect the true value of each course. C565: *Introduction to College and University Administration,* which is a required course, was inadvertently omitted and, therefore, could not be evaluated. Finally, potential differences between the Bloomington and Indianapolis versions of the program were not specifically addressed in this survey.

In regard to the experiential component of the program, alumni responses confirmed previous research, which reports that experiential learning has a significant role in preparation. Many comments about practica and assistantships addressed skills that individuals learned from specific experiences. Overall, alumni found the experiences to be valuable even when their permanent positions were not parallel to their graduate work. Respondents emphasized the importance of practica and assistantships in providing opportunities for role models and mentors. The experiential learning component was described as "ideal learning," and "[keeping] me on a high learning curve," and it "allowed for a smooth transition" into student affairs positions. As one respondent remarked, "[these] prepared me for my position in such a manner that instilled both concept and confidence."

The relationship between classwork and the experiential component of the program was not fully examined in this survey. Thus, the question of transferability of classroom knowledge to assistantship and practicum experience could not be attained. It is also difficult to assess preparation since individuals use different skills for different positions, and they bring a variety of experiences before they enter the program. Those experiences may influence how valuable any particular course or practical experience was to an individual.

One way of keeping course material current is knowing what issues professionals face in the field. Financial concerns, the most pressing issue, included themes such as: budget problems, cuts, university and state fiscal crises, fundraising, lack of staffing, collapsing of positions, doing more with less, economic restructuring, and fiscal responsibility. These results were not surprising. Higher education has been facing financial difficulties for several years, and it is clear that student affairs has not escaped downsizing. However, student affairs professionals must be fully aware of the current fiscal trend, and should be prepared to find creative and unusual ways to do more with less and fund existing programs and new initiatives.

Another issue of major concern of recent graduates was diversity, which included themes such as: gender, racism, age, support programs for minority students, and incorporating Americans with Disabilities Act standards. As non-traditional students, students of color, women, and students with disabilities attend college in increasing numbers, it is imperative that an atmosphere of acceptance and an environment conducive to learning be promoted. Several responses about the importance of diversity education were received. Issues and challenges IU alumni face concerning diversity include dealing with "isms," developing "diverse programming for a diverse population," and the "lack of minority student awareness by the administration." Alumni are also struggling with how to take students beyond a simple understanding of diversity issues.

Overall, it appears that IU graduates were quite pleased with the quality of preparation they received in CSPA, with most recommending the program. For example, "I loved my program, loved my profs...valued the experience; as abstract as theory can be, I've needed it for practical everyday planning, writing, and implementing."

Suggestions for improvement included: "The program...is very residential, traditional-age specific, because of IU...[It] needs to focus on the incoming students -- returning, older, commuter." Another suggestion was to increase opportunities for learning by bringing in "speakers or emphasizing perspectives from other than mega-state universities. How about women's colleges, voc-techs, religious, small privates, ag colleges? Encourage field trips or day-in-the-life shadow experiences at other universities in the midwest." Alumni also want faculty to be realistic with both prospective and current students: "Be realistic in telling students about the low pay, long hours, continual lateral movement and difficulty attaining high status without a doctoral degree. Also remind them of the rewards and benefits of working

with people who are changing and growing and seeking goals and objectives not yet clearly defined by them."

New professionals are advised to take advantage of opportunities. "I've learned that the key to success as a new professional is a diversity of experience and not necessarily classroom experience." These sentiments which reflect the importance of applying theory to practice have been echoed by many in the field (Brown, 1992; Strange & King, 1990).

Recommendations

Alumni provide direction for the future by critiquing the curriculum and relating important issues faced in the field. Course evaluations have traditionally provided a method by which faculty obtain feedback from each graduating class. Faculty have also met with students personally to solicit opinions and recommendations. In program creation, organization and evaluation, it is imperative to incorporate not only the perspectives of those training and hiring, but also those of the student and entry-level practitioner. Toward this end, it might be wise to survey recent alumni on a biannual basis.

By identifying current issues faced by alumni practitioners, faculty may consider modifying the program or adapting course offerings to address those issues as part of the curriculum. Given this information, students may take a proactive role in learning more about current issues and locating opportunities to face these issues in a safe environment.

There are several areas of interest that may provide a source for future research. It would be interesting to discover if gender is a basis for difference in responses. Another study could examine differences in the value placed on experiential education and coursework by alumni who enrolled in the program immediately after completing an undergraduate degree, and those who spent time in the workforce before returning to school.

Conclusions

Due to the positive evaluations received, it is evident that Indiana University's CSPA program's goals are congruent with student affairs professionals' needs. By analyzing student comments with regard to courses, faculty have been responsive to adapting the curriculum. Our results confirmed what previous research has indicated -- an experiential component integrated with a strong theoretical foundation is critical to a quality CSPA program. Finally, by identifying key issues in the field, alumni have underlined problems which are currently being addressed in the CSPA curriculum.

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Katherine Keuthan Hale is a CSPA second year. Her undergraduate work was done at Kenyon College where she earned a B.A. in English. Katie currently works in Forest Center as an Assistant Coordinator supervising Diversity Advocates. She hopes to continue working in residence life and diversity education.

Beth Pfeiffer received her B.A. in Psychology from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. After working for six years in social services in Minneapolis, MN, Beth is currently looking for employment in career services, with an emphasis in freshman year programs. She and her husband Dave are hoping to move out West and enjoy the mountains and the ocean.

Marianna Savoca, a CSPA second year, received a B.S. from S.U.N.Y. at Binghamton. Her background includes several years of experience in development / alumni affairs and career services. While at IU, Marianna worked with the Professional Practice Program, the IU Student Foundation, Orientation Programs, and Returning Women Students. Upon graduation, she and her husband Robert will return to the metropolitan New York area.

Cost and Quality in Higher Education:
Finding the Balance

Darnell G. Cole

The acquisition and distribution of knowledge is at the core of higher education. Increasing and maintaining high quality education is an integral part of this core. The study group on the conditions of excellence in American Higher Education defines achieving excellence or quality education as the development of the whole student, student involvement in learning, high standards of academic performance, and regular and periodic assessment (Delworth & Hanson, 1991, p. 568). Quality education is impacted by an institutions' ability or inability to provide resources to support and enhance the academic mission of the institution. In this competitive and tenuous economy, the quality of education is closely linked to an institution's financial expenditures. Over the past few years, several colleges and universities have increased their tuition price in an attempt to balance their financial expenditures. As these costs continue to increase, students have taken the consumer's perspective and have now begun to question whether a college education is worth the price. The goal in effectively managing the relationship between cost and quality is maintaining a relatively low cost for the student while ensuring a high quality education. The ability of colleges and universities to effectively manage both cost and quality presents a difficult task. This paper will discuss institutional quality, the cost of education, the relationship between cost and quality, and recommendations for student affairs administrators.

Gauging institutional resources and the quality of an institutions' student body are two important ways of examining the quality of education at most institutions. Measuring quality from a financial perspective, McPherson and Winston (1993) suggest two issues which should be addressed when gauging the effectiveness of an institution's ability to allocate and distribute resources. First, how does a college manage its resources? The answer to this question provides critical information on whether the "product or service provides good value for the money" (p. 71). It also can provide information on the ability of an institution to produce the same quality and quantity of educational services with fewer resources. In many instances, institutions have had to teach the same number of classes with fewer faculty in order to control costs. Second,

how extensive are the amount of resources an institution makes available per student? In most instances the amount of resources includes all services and activities provided to the student. These questionable activities and services (non-educational) provided by colleges and universities are reflective of an institutions' educational priorities.

In another sense, the quality of an institution can be viewed as the " . . . interplay between the quality of the students and the quality of the school" (McPherson & Winston, 1993, p. 72). Therefore, quality is a function of the student body and the institution's reputation. For example, holding all other resources constant, an institution can improve the overall quality of its student body through merit-based aid and the admittance of students with high standardized test scores. Many institutions use merit-based financial aid as a tool to attract and reward high performing students, but at the expense of providing fewer dollars to support need-based aid. Purely using merit-based aid as a method of gauging institutional quality excludes accessibility as an important student body characteristics, which should not be overlooked when measuring quality. The use of need-based aid is one way an institution can control its level of accessibility, which also contributes to the quality and diversity of an institution. This is not to suggest that all students that receive need-based aid are students from underrepresented groups but to recognize that both merit and need-based aid are useful in measuring institutional quality. Institutional quality is also impacted by the cost of education to students. There are three essential characteristics that inhibit the production of education at a low student price: (1) institutions are based on an intellectual and aesthetic foundation which requires long study and experience to develop exceptional skills, thus slowing the production of scholarship, (2) the nature of this profession requires the physical presence of the instructor, and (3) institutions are "deeply involved in the advancement of human well-being and the cultivating of the civic, cultural, religious, and intellectual life of the nation" (Research Associates, 1991, p. 78). These three characteristics largely influence the quality and financial framework of higher education through the time spent to achieve scholarly works.

The financial framework of institutions are governed by societal and governmental restraints, mission and program emphasis, scale or plant size, design and efficiency of operations, geographical location, and reaction to inflation (Research Associates, 1991). These determinants, not clearly visible to a student paying high tuition prices, are a function of the quality of institution, academic and institutional support, student services and plant

operations and maintenance. The transparency of educational expenditures and rising tuition prices have caused students to be cautious when paying more for what is often perceived as the same service. The caution experienced by students has an effect on whether students will continue to enter institutions of higher education, based on price and perceived quality. This relationship between cost and quality must be understood by institutions and those within the institution in order to create new, innovative ways of maintaining student enrollments. Without the continued flow of students entering into higher education, institutions will not be able to survive.

The relationship between cost and quality is partly influenced by the fundamental assumption that "college and universities naturally believe that education is the vital ingredient for growth and well-being of the individual, society, and the economy" (Research Associates, 1991, p. 82). Institutional survival becomes an immediate concern in attempting to achieve this balance between cost, quality, and access. For example, is it better for an institution to charge a higher price for education to ensure quality at the threat of reducing its accessibility to students? Or should institutions keep tuition low and depend on decreasing resources from external sources to ensure access and quality? Colleges and universities are operating under tight financial constraints and highly competitive economic milieus. It is imperative that institutions keep in mind the balance between their revenues and expenditures, while maintaining their quality without sacrificing accessibility.

The recommendations for student affairs administrators are centered around assessment, evaluation, and redesigning program areas that do not cater to the educational value of the student or institution. Institutions that have evaluated the effectiveness of their program areas and services might find themselves in a more competitive position to recruit quality students to their campuses. For instance, University of North Carolina at Charlotte has built a new and modernized residential facility every two years, since 1986, in order to increase its competitiveness with surrounding apartment complexes and other college and universities in the piedmont area. Institutions that chose to evaluate their services as individual units should consider a more holistic evaluation of student services to ensure efficiency and reduce overlap. The success of student affairs divisions will be dependent upon how well individual units (e.g. Student Activities, Multi-Cultural Affairs, Residence Life) work together, providing support to each other and the best services possible to students. This working relationship between

divisions will increase the overall quality and efficiency of student affairs.

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Darnell G. Cole is a first year doctoral student in Higher Education. He completed his B.S. in Business Administration and B.A. in Philosophy at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte in 1991 and 1993, respectively. He is currently serving as an assistant coordinator in McNutt Residence Center. Upon completing his degree, he plans to enter the professorate and continue his research in higher education.

New Student Affairs Professionals:
Moving Up, Turning Over, and Burning Out

Lisa P. Lorden

The question of whether the field of student affairs constitutes a true "profession" is a long-standing and complex controversy in the literature (Carpenter, 1990). Nevertheless, assuming that "as individuals and as groups we believe ourselves to be `professionals'" (Stamatakos, cited in Coleman & Johnson, 1990, p.57), then there is a need to examine the factors which affect careers in student affairs. In order to appreciate the nature of the profession, it is crucial to understand the people who are successful in the field as well as those who choose to leave (Richmond & Sherman, 1991).

In recent years, the body of literature addressing the career advancement of student affairs professionals has emphasized the experiences of Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAOs), even though only a small percentage of practitioners hold these positions (Evans, 1988). Thus, we need to know more about the careers of the larger population of student affairs administrators, particularly the experiences of new professionals. What is the nature of career patterns in the field? How does continuing professional development contribute to job satisfaction? What factors influence decisions to stay in or leave the profession? Such questions are complicated by the nebulous nature of the field as well as the pace of change in higher education (Holmes, Verrier, & Chisholm, 1983). Increasing concern about the high attrition rate in the field indicates a need to address these issues in order to ensure the attraction and retention of qualified new professionals.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the career experiences of new professionals and the factors that affect their success in the field. The issues that will be examined include career mobility and advancement, professional development, job dissatisfaction and burnout, and attrition. Recommendations and implications for the profession will also be discussed.

Career Mobility and Advancement

Richmond and Sherman's (1991) study of graduates from nearly fifty student affairs master's programs indicated that 79% found their positions immediately after graduating, and 72% stated their jobs were in the area of their choice. However, there is growing concern about the increasingly limited opportunities for mobility within student affairs (Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1988). In fact, only 39% of respondents in the same study indicated they were satisfied with their potential for advancement (Richmond & Sherman, 1991).

One problem is that most organizational structures in higher education are relatively flat, having few levels of supervision (Evans, 1988). Many positions exist at the entry level, but this number decreases drastically at each succeeding level, forming a pyramid-like structure. Furthermore, decreases in retirements and new positions may result in additional barriers to upward mobility (Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1988).

While available data is not sufficient to indicate the true potential for career advancement of new professionals, perhaps most important is the fact that student affairs professionals tend to *perceive* career mobility as limited (Evans, 1988). A primary reason for this is that career paths in student affairs are unclear. Typical patterns of professional preparation and advancement appear to be as diverse as the individuals in the field, making career planning difficult. According to Sagaria and Johnsrud (1988), traditional notions of career paths "may be more confusing than clarifying. Multiple paths seem more the norm than any particular route" (p. 32). Therefore, a definition of career mobility that is limited to upward movement is unnecessarily narrow, in that various types of position change are widely regarded as a means of advancement for student affairs professionals. Position changes take place within and between institutions and may be lateral, functional, or vertical. Accrual responsibility also represents an important means of advancement because expansion or redefinition of a given position often results in an increase in status or earnings (Sagaria & Johnsrud).

Finally, given the limited number of CSAO positions, definitions of professional success should be more broadly defined than simply becoming a dean or vice president. Lawing, Moore, & Groseth (1982) identify two challenges in motivating student affairs staff to remain in the field: "(1) broadening the definition of professional success to allow for those who do not wish to become deans; and (2) helping those who do wish to become a dean" (p. 22). Continued professional development is crucial to meeting these challenges.

Professional Development

According to Coleman and Johnson (1990), the term professional

development is often misused to refer to activities that take place outside of work. However, professional development can occur in the course of daily work and is defined as any "planned experience designed to change behavior and result in professional and/or personal growth and improved organizational effectiveness" (Merkle & Artman, cited in Coleman & Johnson, p. 4). While a graduate degree in college student personnel or a related area provides a fundamental knowledge base, it is only the beginning of the educational process (Stamatakos, 1978). Professional development can assist new professionals in continuing the learning process which is essential in serving students.

Another important aspect of professional development is establishing mentor relationships (Richmond & Sherman, 1991). Mentors can assist new professionals by sharing knowledge, encouraging applications of theory to practice, and providing challenge and support (Coleman & Johnson, 1990). Given the often ambiguous nature of career advancement in student affairs, the guidance of mentors can be essential. According to one study of new professionals, mentors helped ease entry into the field, fostered professionalism, and assisted in identifying areas of concentration (Richmond & Sherman). In addition, supervisors should take active steps to provide counsel that reflects the individual developmental stages of staff members and an atmosphere that encourages professional growth.

Job Dissatisfaction and Burnout

Despite widespread agreement regarding the value of professional development, one study found less than half of student affairs professionals perceived opportunities for personal growth, autonomy, or continued learning in their jobs (Bess & Lodahl, cited in Evans, 1988). Furthermore, Barr (1990) points out that most entry-level positions in student affairs present "less than ideal working conditions" (p. 169). New professionals often find themselves working in environments that are stressful, unstable, confusing, and unpredictable (Evans). Expectations for job performance are demanding, hours are long and erratic, and compensation for student affairs positions is relatively low (Barr). As Stamatakos (1978) states, "With almost masochistic pleasure, student affairs people wallow in unpredictable and continually interrupted professional and personal lives" (p. 329).

As a result of these stressful working conditions, student affairs professionals in the early stages of their careers often experience dissatisfaction and burnout. Studies have identified a myriad of burnout symptoms, including increased tension, sleeplessness, headaches, boredom, defensiveness, lack of creativity, detachment, physical and emotional fatigue, and apathy (Wiggers, Forney, & Wallace-Schutzman, 1982; Forney, Wallace-Schutzman, & Wiggers, 1982).

Both internal and environmental factors contribute to burnout. Since these factors vary among different people and circumstances, no one remedy is likely to be universally effective; rather, individualistic solutions are necessary. One study identified the fundamental cause of burnout as a perceived lack of control (Forney et al., 1982). People who are effective in avoiding burnout are those who "perceive that they have more control and/or take more control of both external situations, represented by their work environments, and of the internal factors that are related to their own feelings, attitudes and beliefs" (Wiggers et al., 1982, p. 14).

Strategies for avoiding burnout involve taking steps to change behavior or the environment (i.e. external strategies) and developing healthy thought processes and attitudes (i.e. internal strategies). External strategies often involve building new skills, such as time management, communication skills, active planning of leisure time, and relaxation skills. Such skills allow professionals to change negative aspects of the work environment. However, some circumstances cannot be changed; thus, internal strategies are needed in order to cope more effectively. Wiggers et al. (1982) state, "It is often necessary for the student personnel worker to gain control of negative feelings about aspects of the environment that are unchangeable or that he/she decides to accept rather than change" (p. 19).

Many authors argue that burnout is a primary cause of attrition in the student affairs profession (Barr, 1990; Carpenter, 1990; Forney et al., 1982). However, Carpenter emphasizes an important distinction between burnout and other issues of job dissatisfaction: "Burnout is avoidable, whereas poorness of fit may not be" (p. 63).

Attrition

A study by Holmes et al. (1983) revealed gradual attrition from the student affairs profession, reaching a 39% retention level by the sixth year. Furthermore, of the new professionals surveyed, only 20% indicated they planned to work in student affairs for their entire careers. The researchers express concern that their study "raises questions about the long-term stability of the student personnel field" (p. 440), and they emphasize the importance of understanding the decision process leading to professionals

staying in or leaving the field.

A myriad of reasons for attrition in the profession have been suggested. According to Lawing et al. (1982), "In response to the need to know more, to make do with less, to be satisfied yet another year with no raise, and, in general, to be wary of budget officers, staff members feel stressed, voice their discouragement, report feeling mired in a no-win situation, and begin to think seriously about greener pastures" (p. 25). It seems clear that some of the reasons people leave the field are the same factors that cause dissatisfaction for those who stay (Carpenter, 1990). In addition to the perceived lack of advancement opportunities previously discussed, other common reasons for leaving the field include: difficulty of relocation, lack of autonomy and personal growth opportunities, boredom, the need for further education, and salary concerns (Evans; Burns 1982; Wood, Winston, Jr., & Polkosnik, 1985). Stamatakos (1978) suggested that new professionals may experience conflicts between their reasons for entering the field (i.e. idealism and student contact) and what they actually do in their jobs, particularly as they progress to higher levels in the administrative hierarchy. In addition, new professionals may experience disillusionment as a result of "knowing what should or ought to be done and what is not being done" (Stamatakos, p. 326).

Recommendations

As Evans (1988) points out, "Given the time, resources, and energy being invested by students, faculty, and student affairs staff in the preparation of new professionals, the revolving door syndrome evident in the profession is a major concern" (p. 19). Solutions to this problem must address the organizational structure of the profession as well as the personal and professional needs of individuals in the field. Burns (1982) suggests that diversified responsibilities within student affairs positions would contribute to individuals' professional growth and that exploration of alternative career options within the field should be encouraged. Through strategies such as increased contact with faculty, job rotation, part-time employment, combined positions, involvement in teaching, and job sharing, "viable and satisfying alternatives can be offered to staff who may feel stifled or unsatisfied in their present positions" (Lawing et al., 1982, p. 25). In addition, formalized performance appraisal and professional development programs should be implemented to address individuals' personal and professional needs (Evans).

The challenge that lies ahead is to identify and meet the needs of an increasingly diverse group of student affairs professionals. More research is needed to determine the extent of the attrition problem and its underlying causes. Then strategies can be developed to increase the long-term attractiveness of employment in the profession (Evans, 1988). Such strategies are essential to the recruitment and retention of qualified student affairs professionals. According to Barr (1990), "To do less would mean that we would not be able to serve both our students and our institutions effectively in the future" (p. 168).

New professionals bring an essential enthusiasm and vitality to the profession and to institutions of higher education in general. If student affairs is to reflect its goals of serving and developing students as well as to achieve recognition as a profession, then it must be continually committed to the process of learning and to providing learning opportunities for those who enter and remain in the field.

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Women's Perceptions of Body Image, Dieting, Exercise and Self-Concept in an Undergraduate Residence Center

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The Briscoe Wellness Center (BWC) is a living learning residence hall on the Indiana University - Bloomington campus. A task force developed the mission of the center based on the "wellness" model:

> Wellness is a process (a way of life) whereby the individual assumes responsibility for making healthy choices regarding the enhancement of the body, mind and spirit. Through this integration of the total being, wellness recognizes that everything a person does, thinks, believes or feels has an impact on his/her state of health. (Briscoe Wellness Residence Center: A Proposal, 1992, p.1)

The BWC promotes wellness through six components of health: emotional, intellectual, social, physical, values, and life planning. Its philosophy states that residents' "attention and energies must be focused on all dimensions for the whole self to function most effectively" (*Briscoe Wellness Residence Center: A Proposal*, p.1).

Given that the BWC's mission is based on the wellness model, one might expect that BWC residents maintain a healthier lifestyle compared with other students on campus. However, several instances of women displaying behavior associated with eating disorders had been reported (A. Cornell, personal communication, September 9, 1994). This incongruence prompted the researchers to question whether factors related to eating disorders are more or less prevalent in BWC students compared to other college students. This study was not designed to identify whether a student has an eating disorder but rather to determine individual perceptions of BWC climate and how these perceptions relate to behaviors.

The purpose of this study was to compare two residence hall floors of BWC with two non-BWC floors to determine whether perceptions of rresidents vary concerning issues of exercise, dieting, body image, and self-concept. The relevance of these factors is explained in the following paragraph.

Review of Relevant Literature: The Four Constructs

The four constructs -- body image, dieting, exercise, and self-concept -- have been cited in the literature as factors related to eating disorder. In a study of 12-14 year old girls, Nassar, Hodges, and Ollendick (1992) identified several factors which may encourage the development of an eating problem. These include low self-concept and an ardent involvement and intense interest in dieting. They found both low self-concept and an interest in dieting were related to poor body image. Walters and Sedlacek (1984) confirmed clinical studies that women, age 25 and younger, were likely to have an eating problem or a distorted image of their body shape. They studied college student attitudes about dieting and exercise and found women were more likely than men to use exercise and dieting as a way to obtain their ideal body type.

Research has shown a relationship between a distorted body image and eating disorders. Rawlings' study (cited in Moriarity, Ford, & Rawlings, 1991) observed that there was a relationship between women who had a highly distorted image of their body and a high score on the Eating Disorder Inventory.

Additional studies have illustrated a relationship between excessive exercise and eating disorders. The authors of *The role of sport/fitness and eating disorders: Cosmetic fitness from starvation to steroids* (1990) discovered that an exercise environment alone does not cause an eating disorder. Anthony, Wood, and Goldberg (cited in Moriarty, Moriarty, Moriarty, & Ford, 1990) found that college students who were majoring in physical education scored lower on the Eating Assessment Test compared to individuals majoring in dance or drama. They suggest that people who may be at risk for an eating disorder may choose activities or environments which stress body image rather than healthy exercise. Perry (cited in Moriarty et al., 1990) describes people who take exercise too far:

> [Behaving] in a way similar to eating disordered athletes in that they must have an exercise fix before they allow themselves to eat anything, use exercise to burn off calories, and won't stop even if they are exhausted or injured. For them, exercise is an excessive and compulsive pursuit of the ideal body, not an activity that enhances well-being. (p.10)

Research that examines these four constructs in a college-aged population was not available.

Strange (1991) states that "environments are defined by the perceptions of the individuals within them" (p. 176). Stern's needs-press model (cited in Strange) will be used to compare women's self-perceptions of body image, diet, exercise, to what they perceive their floormates' behaviors are, thus illustrating whether the floor's press is healthy or unhealthy with respect to the four constructs.

Pervin's transactional approach (cited in Huebner, 1989) focuses on "the discrepancies that exist between the individual's perceived actual and ideal selves" (p. 170). This perceptual model illustrates how students may choose an environment which offers opportunities for them to move toward their ideal selves. When comparing BWC perceptions with non-BWC, one might expect to find BWC actual perceptions closer to their ideal perceptions. In other words, is the environment moving them closer to their goal?

Moos (cited in Walsh, 1978) believes the way people perceive their environment affects how they behave in the environment. Describing the human aggregate model, Holland (cited in Strange, 1991) states that "environments are distinguished by their degree of differentiation and consistency. A highly differentiated (or focused) environment is characterized by the dominance of one type of individual" (p. 167). Based on Anthony et al. (cited in Moriarty et al., 1990), it can be inferred that if the environment emphasizes body image, then residents in that environment will most likely have similar characteristics.

Methods

This study was conducted in Shoemaker Hall, Briscoe Residence Center, Indiana University - Bloomington. Shoemaker is a non-smoking residence hall of eleven single-sex floors, each with approximately forty residents. The residents are predominantly first-year students.

Participants

The study was limited to females, due to numerous research studies which indicate that females are at greater risk for eating disordered behavior and body image distortion (Walters & Sedlacek, 1984). The sample consisted of four floors of approximately 43 students each ($\underline{N}$=175), between the ages of 17-25, representing all class standings and

racial/ethnic backgrounds. Two floors consist of residents in Briscoe Wellness Center, and two consist of resident from other floors in Shoemaker.

Four important distinctions exist between the two groups. First, there is an application process for BWC, whereas non-BWC residents need not apply to live on other floors in Shoemaker. Second, a $50 fee, used for additional programming and activities, is paid each semester by BWC residents. Third, BWC houses fitness equipment and an exercise mat, which are easily accessible to residents. Finally, BWC residents are required to take a one-credit course called "Community Living and Wellness" (U211).

All Briscoe residents must purchase a campus meal ticket and have access to the Briscoe dining facility. Briscoe provides more healthy, low-fat menu choices than other dining facilities on campus.

Instrument

A questionnaire was developed by the researchers. Information on the four constructs was collected through library searches and interviews with four experts: a psychologist specializing in eating disorders, the BWC trainer, the Associate Coordinator of BWC, and the Director of Health and Wellness at the University's Health Center. Questions were derived from several sources: (1) prior research on attitudes toward body image and dieting (Nassar et al., 1992), attitudes toward wellness (Archer, Probert, & Gage, 1987), and body image distortion among college females (Klemchuk, Hutchinson, & Frank, 1990); (2) published assessment tools such as the Eating Disorder Inventory (Garner & Garfinkel, 1979) and the Body Image Quiz (Urbanska, 1994).

The 52-question survey used Likert-type items of always, frequently, occasionally, seldom, and never. A 20-question, fill-in sheet was attached. To ensure content validity, the instrument was reviewed by three university professionals: a professor of Applied Health Science, the Director of Health and Wellness at the I.U. Health Center, and an instructor of a research methods course within the School of Education. After field testing the instrument on six college students, final adjustments were made using results from the field test and suggestions from reviewers.

Procedures

Resident Assistants (R.A.s) were approached and asked to hold a floor meeting during which residents completed the survey. Flyers were posted and incentives for participation (coupons for free ice cream) were advertised. During floor meetings, representatives from the research team assured participants that their responses would be kept confidential. To increase reliability, a standard paragraph was read verbatim. Consent forms were distributed, signed, and returned. Residents completed the surveys in approximately ten to fifteen minutes. R.A.s followed up with non-attending residents within one week of the floor meeting.

Data Analysis

A total of 137 surveys were returned for a 77% response rate. Measures of central tendency and percentages were calculated. For consistency, responses were recorded within Statistical Analysis System so all negative responses would fall toward the always end of the scale. Therefore, always, frequently, and occasionally responses are considered negative; seldom and never responses are positive. T-tests determined statistical significance of the four constructs.

Results

The majority of the participants were between 18 and 20 years old. Residents were 2% Hispanic, 3% Black, 4% Asian and 87% Caucasian. Close to 75% of the participants were currently living at either I.U. or Briscoe for the first time. Approximately 96% of BWC residents had taken the U211 course.

Sample questions comparing frequency of responses between BWC and non-BWC residents are reported in Table 1. For body image questions, analysis indicated more frequently and always responses for BWC. Combining always and frequently percentages for each question and comparing both groups, the largest difference between BWC and non-BWC was 14% for question number 22 (*I am self conscious about the way I look*). T-tests revealed no statistical significance for any individual body image question. However, statistical significance was shown for the overall body image construct for both BWC and non-BWC: BWC: $t(68) = 2.57$, $p<0.05$ and non-BWC: $t(68) = 2.87$, $p<0.05$.

For dieting questions, analysis indicated more frequently and always responses for BWC. Combining always and frequently percentages, the

largest difference between BWC and non-BWC for this group of questions was 19% for question number 26 (*I feel pressure to lose weight*). No statistical significance was found for individual questions or the dieting construct.

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Table 1: Responses for the Constructs: Body Image, Dieting Exercise and Self-Concept

			Frequency			
	BWC			Non-BWC		
Constructs	A	F	O	A	F	O
Body Image						
I put down the way I look to others.	22%	13%	34%	16%	16%	28%
I'm self conscious about the way I look.	33%	33%	20%	24%	28%	27%
I feel pressure to be thin.	30%	26%	22%	28%	15%	28%
Dieting						
I worry about gaining weight.	49%	30%	15%	42%	25%	17%
I diet to lose weight	27%	25%	21%	27%	16%	25%
I read magazines to find diet information.	10%	24%	27%	10%	13%	22%
Self-Concept						
I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	0%	11%	18%	7%	6%	16%
At times I think I am no good at all.	4%	6%	10%	5%	6%	17%
Exercise						
I exercise to burn calories.	43%	29%	12%	32%	26%	29%
I feel as if I'm overweight.	29%	30%	26%	28%	15%	27%
I feel guilty if I miss a scheduled exercise.	25%	20%	23%	19%	13%	19%

Note: A=Always; F=Frequently; O=Occasionally

For self-concept questions, little variance existed between BWC and non-BWC responses. Analysis indicated more frequently and always responses for non-BWC on most questions. No statistical significance was

found for individual questions or the self-concept construct.

For exercise questions, analysis indicated more frequently and always responses for BWC. Combining always and frequently percentages, the largest difference among this group of questions was 14% for question number 11 (*I exercise to burn calories*). No statistical significance was found for individual questions or the exercise construct.

Table 2 shows a comparison of always, frequently, and occasionally percentages for BWC and non-BWC responses. Frequency of responses in these areas was high for both groups. However, for most self-concept questions, response frequency was higher for non-BWC than for BWC. For all questions listed in Table 2, more than half of the respondents answered in the occasionally, frequently, and always categories.

Table 2: Combined Always, Frequently, Occasionally Responses Along the Four Constructs

	Frequency	
Constructs	BWC	non-BWC
Diet and Exercise		
I worry about gaining weight.	94%	84%
I feel pressure to lose weight.	81%	66%
Body Image		
I feel pressure to be thin.	78%	71%
I am self conscious about the way I look.	87%	78%
I am uncomfortable being seen in tight fitting clothes.	83%	77%
I feel as if I am overweight.	86%	69%
Self-Concept		
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	60%	72%
I feel I have a number of good qualities	87%	94%

Table 3 reports percentages for BWC and non-BWC perceptions of actual versus ideal self. A 46% difference was observed between BWC's actual and ideal responses for question numbers 2 (*I have a regular plan of exercise*) and 3 (*I would like to have a regular plan of exercise*).

Table 3: Combined Always and Frequently Responses for Actual versus Ideal Questions

	Frequency	
Actual versus Ideal	BWC	Non-BWC
Actual: I have a regular plan of exercise.	44%	27%
Ideal: I would like to have a regular plan of exercise.	90%	72%
Actual: I eat 3 balanced meals per day.	45%	27%
Ideal: I would like to eat 3 balanced meals per day.	73%	56%
Actual: I considered the caloric/fat content in the food I eat.	68%	48%
Ideal: I would like to consider the caloric/fat content in the food I eat.	84%	65%

A 45% difference was observed between non-BWC's actual and ideal responses for these questions. Comparing differences between BWC and non-BWC, the variance is only 1% for each of the three sets of questions. However, BWC residents' responses show a higher actual and higher ideal percentage for all questions.

Table 4 displays BWC and non-BWC responses to questions comparing perceptions of self with perceptions of floor members. Analysis indicated that both BWC and non-BWC show a high percentage of frequently and always responses for the "I" questions and a low percentage of frequently and always responses for the "floor" questions. One exception to this finding was the results from the paired questions numbered 29 (*I diet to lose weight*) and 30 (*Women on my floor diet to lose weight*), which show a higher percentage of frequently and always responses for the floor questions.

Table 4: Combined Always and Frequently Responses for "I" versus "Floor" Questions

"I" versus "Floor"	Frequency BWC	Non-BWC
I feel guilty if I miss a scheduled exercise time.	45%	32%
Most women on my floor feel guilty if they miss a scheduled exercise time.	30%	16%
I worry about gaining weight.	80%	67%
Most women on my floor worry about gaining weight.	68%	60%
I am self conscious about the way I look.	68%	52%
Most women on my floor are conscious about the way they look.	49%	45%
I diet to lose weight.	52%	43%
Women on my floor diet to lose weight.	55%	45%

Discussion

This study was designed to assess whether perceptions differed between two groups of residents for four constructs: dieting, body image, exercise and self-concept. Results show that BWC residents had more negative perceptions regarding three of the four constructs: body image, dieting, and exercise (see Table 1). These high negative responses indicate a high differentiation of these characteristics for the BWC. Results do not show much variance in perceptions between groups for the self-concept construct. However, BWC residents appear to have a more positive self-concept. Given the high negative perceptions of BWC residents with regard to body image, dieting, and exercise, it is surprising that responses were different for self-concept. In fact, in a study of 158 women, Davis (1990) found that greater body dissatisfaction was related to poor emotional well-being in women who exercise regularly. Davis also cites several studies which have shown a relationship between women's high emotional reactivity and body image preoccupation.

Responses across all floors revealed a high rate of frequency on several questions (see Table 2). This indicates both BWC and non-BWC residents had high negative perceptions overall, thus representing a differentiated environment, perhaps due to human aggregate factors. Irrespective of the

living environment, many women appeared preoccupied with their weight, bodies, and exercise habits. Residents seemed dissatisfied with their physical appearance and with their level of commitment to healthy behaviors. If left unattended, this preoccupation could lead to negative consequences. Silverstone (1992) proposed that chronic low self-concept is a prerequisite for the development of an eating disorder. Williamson, Kelley, Davis, Ruggiero, and Blouin (1985) cite several studies showing negative self-evaluation to be closely tied to eating disordered behavior. Based on this information and combined with our results, we assert that all women surveyed are at risk for developing eating disordered behaviors.

Given that BWC residents perceived higher ideals and higher actuals for every question of this type (see Table 3), two findings are particularly interesting: (1) BWC residents had heightened awareness of body image, dieting and exercise; and (2) BWC residents had more ambitious goals (see Table 3). It was surprising that BWC residents were no closer to their ideal selves than non-BWC residents. By living in a wellness environment, BWC residents could be expected to perceive themselves as closer to their goals, yet results do not support this conclusion. Given that BWC goals (ideals) were approximately 20% higher than non-BWC, one might question whether BWC goals were reasonable and attainable. It is possible BWC residents have a heightened awareness and higher goals because they have taken the wellness course and have easy access to fitness facilities.

This study was also designed to discover whether an environmental press, as described by Stern (cited in Strange, 1991), exists. It was assumed that women would perceive a press from floormates (alpha press) with regard to dieting, body image, exercise, and self-concept. However, results did not support this assumption (see Table 4). Findings indicated that participants exerted a press upon themselves (beta press).

For questions addressing women's perceptions of their own needs compared to the needs of their floormates, six of seven questions yielded a higher negative response for the individual's perception of herself, rather than her floormates (see Table 4). BWC women's perceptions were more negative in all seven cases. The existence of a beta press is consistent with research. Moriarty et al. (1990) stated that family, sociocultural, and individual factors are related to eating disordered behavior. Although results indicate the presence of a beta press for BWC, conclusions cannot be made with great certainty, due to the inability to measure factors outside

the residence hall environment that may contribute to the press. Other influences may stem from American cultural standards for thinness (Davis, 1990), the widespread belief that a perfect body symbolizes control and personal achievement (Brownell, 1991), or media portrayal of extremely lean women as being very successful.

Limitations to this study exist. First, student responses may have been affected by floor meeting conditions. Residents were required to fill out an R.A. evaluation form in addition to the survey during the same meeting. Students may have been anxious to finish and perhaps did not give sufficient thought to answering the questions. Due to crowded floor lounges not conducive to complete privacy, some students may not have answered truthfully. Second, some research questions may be applied to more than one of the four constructs. The overlapping relationship between constructs did not allow for differentiation among some questions. Finally, since little research exists on college students who participate in wellness residence centers, no studies were available with which to compare results.

Future studies should include males to determine whether gender-based differences in perceptions exist. In addition, a longitudinal study could measure the effect that a wellness environment may have on residents over time. Several valid and reliable inventories are available that have been designed to identify individuals who have eating disorders. Using these inventories may provide information to help reduce risk of more serious health problems and lead to early intervention. Additional studies should be created to measure perceptions of women of all ages from various environments. Characteristics of women who choose to enter a wellness environment could also be examined. Finally, the BWC could be examined as a behavioral setting to observe the effect the environment has on residents.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, several recommendations for student affairs practitioners can be made. First, incoming expectations of residents should be assessed prior to acceptance into BWC. R.A.s and Wellness Center staff should work with students to ensure their expectations are moderate, and their goals are realistic and attainable. Second, more information should be provided about general women's health issues. Women who consistently scored at the negative extreme of the four constructs may be at

greater risk of developing an eating disorder. Educational programs should be targeted toward these women to encourage them to achieve balance among the six components of health. Third, R.A.s and Wellness Center staff should be selected for a specialized focus on wellness. These staff members should be trained to use the wellness model as a basis for practice. Fourth, regular, proactive programming for women, which could include setting attainable goals and emphasizing balance among the six components of wellness, should be provided. Finally, this study was designed to obtain perceptions of students at one moment in time. A pre-test and post-test should be designed to measure change, thus helping staff determine whether student perceptions are becoming more positive or negative as a result of their participation in the wellness environment.

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Historically Black and Predominantly White Higher Education Institutions: How Do They Compare?

Kathryn Adams

Literature on African-American college students indicates there are differences between historically Black and predominantly White higher education institutions. Allen (1992) states the assumption that historically White institutions "provide superior environments for Black educational development" (p. 29) is not supported by empirical evidence. For example, Fleming (cited in Allen) has illustrated that, on average, African-American students have higher intellectual gains while attending historically Black as compared to historically White campuses. Similarly, Allen's research reveals the disparity between African-American students' needs and the expectations of historically White institutions. Thus, predominantly White campuses may not provide a better educational environment than that of historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs).

The purpose of this paper is to explore how different higher educational environments affect the academic achievement and level of satisfaction of African-American students. This paper will examine and compare historically White and historically Black institutions. In addition, personal and environmental factors which influence the success of African-American students will be identified. Finally, suggestions will be offered for ways in which student affairs professionals can work within their institutions to enhance the academic achievement and satisfaction of African-American students.

Academic Achievement and Satisfaction: A Comparison

When comparing historically Black and predominantly White institutions, the special mission of historically Black colleges must be acknowledged. Fleming (1984) states that the historical role HBCUs play is one of "helping black people move into the mainstream of American life" (p.1). According to Allen (1988), Black colleges strive to provide opportunities for higher education to students with financial or academic barriers that may otherwise prevent them from attending college. Hence, Black colleges tend to enroll more students who are academically under-prepared and financially disadvantaged. For example, historically Black institutions have a higher proportion of students with weaker high school backgrounds and lower high school grade point averages. Thus, their goal is to "correct their academic deficiencies and graduate them equipped to compete successfully for jobs or graduate/professional school placements in the wider society" (Allen, 1988, p. 405).

Nevertheless, research indicates African-American students on historically Black campuses have higher rates of academic achievement than African-American students on traditionally White campuses. For example, Allen (1988) found that African-American students who attend historically Black campuses have higher college grade point averages than their peers who attend majority White institutions. Fleming (1984) attributes these findings to the fact that in "White colleges, the problems of an unaccepting environment act to thwart intellectual growth" (p. xii).

There are several environmental factors which may affect academic achievement. Fleming (1984) discovered that African-American students attending predominantly White colleges or universities reported they felt institutional abandonment, bias in the classroom, and isolation, which created a "hostile interpersonal climate" (p. 155). Allen (1988, 1992) also found African-American students at traditionally White institutions have a higher attrition rate and experience lower academic achievement than their peers at historically Black institutions. He asserts that this problem may result from the absence of remedial/tutorial programs and a lack of communication and interaction with white faculty and student peers. Historically Black institutions have a distinctive set of issues. Students at these institutions usually have lower socioeconomic status, lower standardized test scores, and weaker high school backgrounds and academic recods. In addition, the quailty of facilities and the size and range of faculty at Black colleges are not equivalent to those at historically White institutions. Black colleges do not typically offer as many majors, nor do they have as many advanced degree programs as their White counterparts (Allen, 1992). So, the educational environment at HBCUs may be limited in terms of faculty and resources.

When examining African-American students' satisfaction with their educational environment, research indicates that a difference exists between historically Black and historically White institutions. Allen (1988) found two-thirds of African-American students on Black campuses stated that campus activities were "somewhat"or "considerably" representative of their interests. On White campuses, only 38% of black students indicated similar feelings. Upon further examination of the responses, Allen discovered 26%

illustrate that the most serious problems seem to come from feelings of alienation and lack of support. Due to these issues, African-American students often feel the need to establish their own social and cultural networks. In contrast, African-American students at Black institutions report "feelings of engagement, connection, acceptance and extensive support and encouragement" (p. 39). Studies conducted by Epps and Fleming (cited in Allen) illustrate that African-American students at historically Black colleges "possessed positive self-images, strong racial pride, and high aspirations [and a] more favorable psychological adjustment than Blacks on White campuses" (p. 29). Research seems to indicate that African-Americans receive an education more tailored to their needs at HBCUs. These findings emphasize that African-American students, "like most human beings, develop best in environments where they feel valued, protected, accepted, and socially connected" (Allen, 1992, p. 39). Thus, historically Black institutions may provide the same type of developmental-educational environment for African-American students as historically White institutions provide for white students (Allen, 1992).

Allen's (1992) findings indicate that several factors affect African-American college student outcomes. African-American students' college achievement, social involvement, and occupationa aspirations are affected by "the immediate surrounding social context" (p. 39). Student outcomes are based on two types of factors. The first is the students' individual characteristics: their intelligence, level of preparedness, personal ambition, and the amount of commitment and discipline they possess. The second factor relies on characteristics of the institution: academic competition, rules/procedures, available resources, relations with faculty, and support networks of friends (Allen, 1988). It is evident that many different elements, both personal and environmental, influence the academic and personal success of African-American students.

It should also be noted that some African-American students who attend traditionally White institutions can and do adjust successfully to their environment.

Implications & Possible Solutions

Student affairs professionals will continue to be challenged to find better ways to support the level of academic achievement and satisfaction of African-American students, especially at historically White institutions. Several different areas must be considered for change. Allen (1992)

indicates that the lack of academic success in higher education found among many African-Americans is due to inherent problems of Black oppression and subjugation which still exist in society today. The disadvantages African-Americans encounter in higher education are mirrors of the disadvantages they continue to face in the outside world.

There are areas over which student affairs professionals can have a direct impact to help break this cycle. Fleming (1984) suggests providing a more supportive community at White institutions. Several different things can be done to contribute to a more supportive environment. For example, increasing the presence of African-American faculty and staff who serve as mentors, friends, and role models for students is crucial. African-American students also need to be encouraged to become involved in leadership roles through extracurricular activities. Counseling services must be prepared to deal with the unique needs of African-American students. The curriculum should also be adjusted to include topics and courses which are more relevant to African-Americans.

Similarly, several barriers must be examined and removed in order to make traditionally white institutions more hospitable for African-American students. Admissions requirements which rely on culturally biased standardized tests should be changed. Faculties and staffs, which consist of predominantly White, middle-class males can be diversified. Given the high cost of financing an education, adequate financial aid, especially in the area of grants and scholarships, is essential.

Student affairs professionals may have an opportunity to influence policy decisions regarding many of these factors. Lower academic achievement and satisfaction among African-American students attending historically White institutions will not disappear if ignored. African-American students should not have to choose between superior resources at predominantly White institutions and better adjustment and higher academic gains at traditionally Black colleges. Instead, all institutions should strive to provide the positive aspects of both environments. Allen (1987) simply states: "Students should be able to find the qualities necessary to their success wherever they decide to attend school" (p. 31). As student affairs professionals, we need to begin to take make the changes necessary to ensure African-American students' satisfaction and academic achievement, regardless of the educational environment.

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Race Relations on College Campuses: Challenges and Responsibilities for White Persons

Marylu K. McEwen

Thinking and talking about race in the United States is something that is usually reserved for people of color; it's not White people who usually think about race, talk about race, or even initiate discussions about race (Frankenberg, 1993; Helms, 1992, 1993; Segrest, 1994; Terry, 1975). White people frequently wait for people of color to raise issues of race. Yet, a thesis of this article is that White persons consider more carefully and take actions regarding racial issues. At the heart of this discussion is that White people need to consider themselves as racial beings.

The 21st century is only a few years away, and demographers are saying that the racial composition of the United States will be dramatically different in the next century, even by the end of this century (American Council on Education and Education Commission of the States [ACE/ECS], 1988). Thus, professional practice in student affairs, leadership for the 21st century, and citizenship and personal integrity must include being more attentive to, more responsive to, and more inclusive of persons of color. Some of these changes will come about simply because the composition of society is changing. Others must come about, however, through intentional efforts to change the structures and institutions of society. This work must be done by many who are White, privileged, educated, and collectively hold power. It is incumbent upon White student affairs professionals to consider ways in which student affairs practice, higher education, and personal integrity can and should be transformed as we approach the 21st century.

There are many reasons why White persons should think and talk about race. First, race relations in this country are, at best, volatile and tenuous, and, at worst, bad and hateful. A current and powerful reminder of the state of race relations is the April 19, 1995, Oklahoma City bombing. One early hypothesis asserted that the bombing was domestic rather than international activity related to White supremacist efforts. This tragic event has the potential to cause White people and people of color to examine race relations in this country. Second, racial violence and harassment are increasing. Daily reports on television, in newspapers, and on college campuses describe incidents which have at their base issues surrounding race. Numerous

numbers of Asian students, formation of White student unions, and, overall, a general lack of understanding of how excellence and diversity can exist side-by-side. A third reason to talk about race is that it is the right thing to do. Value and dignity of all peoples should be our ultimate aspiration. Andres Hacker, author of *Two Nations, Black and White, Separate, Hostile, and Unequal,* said White America "has a lot to face about itself. . .on moral grounds" (Duke, 1992, p. B4). Robert Terry (1975), author of a small but insightful and compelling book entitled *For Whites Only,* said that "what is at stake for White America today is not what Black people and other people of color want and do but what White people stand for and do" (p. 15). A fourth reason to address issues of race is that all people, including White people, have much to gain. By acknowledging race and the privilege connected to it, White people can become less threatened by race, less immobilized by guilt, and take action to do something about racism (Frankenberg, 1993; Helms, 1992).

One way to begin to acknowledge race and its complexities is for White people to begin to read, think, talk, and reflect about race and about themselves as racial beings (Helms, 1992). Following, I have identified four specific challenges and some particular implications for White persons in their journey to understanding themselves as persons with a race and to developing a positive, nonracist White identity (Helms, 1992, 1993).

Four Challenges about Race

White people, in struggling with the issue of race, face at least four major challenges surrounding race and race relations in this country and on college campuses. These challenges include the changing demographics of this country, White persons' discomfort with race, White people's lack of knowledge about race and about racism, and understanding who we are as White people and as persons with privilege.

The first challenge concerns racial and ethnic demographics, which are changing dramatically in the United States. By the year 2000 one-third of school-age children in the United States will be members of visible racial/ethnic groups (ACE/ECS, 1988). Latinos, Native Americans, and persons of Asian descent are the fastest growing racial and ethnic groups (Hacker, 1992). Already some cities and a few college campuses have a majority of people from racial/ethnic groups probably still described as "minorities." White persons are becoming the minority in many cities, and White students on a few college campuses are in the minority. United States society is changing more quickly than most people can realize. The rapidly changing demographics represent an extraordinary challenge for all persons in U.S. society, but especially for White persons, to participate in the creation of a new society that we don't know and understand and, further, to transform student affairs and higher education to be more responsive and inclusive of the new students who are entering our college doors.

The second challenge for White persons concerns our discomfort with race. Most White people do not want to talk about race, probably because it makes us uncomfortable. Beverly Tatum (1992) has suggested that race is generally viewed as a taboo topic, especially among White persons. Although many White persons may be interested in the topic of race, most White persons are more interested in hearing other people talk about it, but afraid to break the taboo themselves, afraid to break the "conspiracy of silence." Most White people are afraid of race, of what we might say, of being racist, or of not being "politically correct." Just because White people don't talk about race, however, doesn't mean that they are not aware of race and race issues. In a student organization, an academic course, or a student affairs division with only a few individuals of color, it is likely that most, if not all, are keenly conscious of the presence of a few persons of color in a predominantly White group. However, most individuals are likely to avoid or circumvent anything that relates to the racial composition of the group due to fear of what might be said or done. If race is addressed, it is likely raised by one of the persons of color. In addition to discomfort with race, White people, in dealing with race issues often experience many other feelings, such as guild, curiosity, and depression (Helms, 1992).

A third challenge for White persons is their relative lack of knowledge about race and about racism. Many persons, including student affairs professionals, do not know the literature, the history, or the arts of other cultures, especially non-European cultures; they frequently aren't aware of the cultural norms and behaviors of the social groups of which they are a part, including the cultural bases of their offices, their institutions, and the student affairs profession. Many persons in the United States do not even have an accurate picture of the history of this country (Takaki, 1993; Zinn, 1980). In addition, White people know little about racism and its definition and implications.

Defining racism and being able to identify practices and behaviors which are racist is at the core of understanding race (Helms, 1993). Racism has three important aspects. First, racism may be defined as the combination of power

and prejudice (Katz, 1978; Ponterotto & Pedersen, 1993). Racism is prejudice reflected by persons with power, by persons in control, by persons with privilege, toward persons who are not in control and do not have power. Thus, racism is the potent effects of prejudice of persons with power upon persons who lack power. Second, racism involves consequences, not just intentions. In other words, the salient issue is not the intent of one's actions and behaviors but the consequences of one's actions and behaviors, or those of an institution. Third, racism can be words or acts by individuals, policies and procedures of institutions, or practices of cultures and societies. Racism also can be both overt and covert (Helms, 1992).

Let me offer a couple of examples. First, if a variety of nominations are strongly encouraged for a campus leadership award, yet the criteria favor more traditional campus student activities in which students of color are not as likely to participate, then this is a case of racism because the consequences of the action discriminate against students of color. A second example is that, if a student organization commits to the selection of a particular speaker representing diversity who isn't able to accept the invitation, and then resorts to a White speaker because members can't identify another person of color, that too is a form of racism. The intent was good, but the outcome still was not inclusive of persons of color. If a college adds an Asian Studies Department yet does not permit any courses in that department to satisfy the literature or history requirements of a certain major, then racism again is at play. The importance of racism and understanding what it means is that, as White people, we cannot understand ourselves, our intentions, persons of other cultures and races, and racial issues in this country without the backdrop of understanding racism and its meaning.

A fourth challenge for White persons is to understand who we are as White people and as persons with privilege. Collectively, White people are in positions of power, as the dominant racial group (Helms, 1993). According to Helms (1993), "one of the concomitants of being a White person in the United States is that one is a member of a numerical majority as well as the socioeconomically and politically dominant group" (p. 54). Further, White persons have many privileges (Frankenberg, 1993) but are often unaware of them, and may even deny having them.

The notion of privilege refers to benefits, often unearned, that come to White persons solely by virtue of the color of their skin -- and, of course, the lack of these same privileges to others simply because of the color of their skin. Peggy McIntosh (1995) has written eloquently about this idea in a paper on

White privilege and male privilege. McIntosh wrote:

> I have come to see White privilege as an invisible package of unearned assets which I can count on cashing in each day, but about which I was "meant" to remain oblivious. White privilege is like an invisible weightless knapsack of special provisions, assurances, tools, maps, guides, codebooks, passports, visas, clothes, compass, emergency gear, and blank checks. (pp. 76-77)

She also articulated 46 special circumstances and conditions that she experiences which she "did not earn but which she has been made to feel are hers by birth, by citizenship, and by virtue of being a conscientious law-abiding 'normal person' of good will" (p. 78). Five illustrations of privilege which McIntosh identified are as follows:

> — As a White person, I can if I wish arrange to be in the company of people of my race most of the time...
> — If I should need to move, I can be pretty sure of renting or purchasing housing in an area which I can afford and in which I would want to live...
> — I can do well in a challenging situation without being called a credit to my race...
> — I can take a job with an affirmative action employer without having my co-workers on the job suspect that I got it because of my race, and;
> — I can be late to a meeting without having the lateness reflect on my race. (pp. 79-81)

I have identified several specific examples which apply to me:

> 1. I can reasonably expect that my race will not be a factor in issues of promotion or merit raise.
> 2. I can walk in my neighborhood without concern about racial overtones being directed at me.
> 3. As a White person, I can speak about race and racism without being seen as self-interested or self-seeking. (McIntosh, 1995, p. 80)

What are some of the privileges of White student affairs professionals? Some examples might be: (1) White student affairs professionals can be considered for a position without concern that someone on the selection committee will consider their race and not their credentials as a factor in their selection; (2) White students planning to enroll in a student affairs graduate program know that there will be others of their race in the program and can expect that faculty and assistantship supervisors will not be unresponsive to them because of their race; (3) White student affairs professionals can have difficulty

dealing with a particular situation in their position without concern that their supervisor or their peers will attribute their difficulties to race or their background; and (4) White persons can participate in discussion about race relations without someone saying, "Oh, that person always uses her [or his] race as an excuse."

Why is privilege important? It is important that White people be aware of the privileges they have that they often do not think about. It is important to be aware of the privileges that others often do not have because of their background and skin color. It is also important to know about privilege because it is precisely some of those privileges and comforts that many persons may have to give up as college campuses, the United States, and our world become increasingly diverse and White people are less frequently in the majority. It is also some of these same privileges that White persons will have to give up as they move toward deeper understanding and actions regarding race. As a faculty member in a graduate program in student affairs, I teach about different racial, ethnic and cultural groups of which I am not a part. I have to give up my comfort in teaching what was taught to me, my personal knowledge of being part of that group, and, what is often so important for a teacher, that "authority" that comes from knowing. I give it up because I teach about that which I know not so well. Thus, White persons need to focus on both their privileges and what they have to give up.

In practical terms, what does all this discussion about racism and race privilege mean? For me personally, it means being willing to challenge my graduate students, especially my White graduate students, who may evaluate research and writings by persons of color as lacking because the scholarship may not look like work traditionally produced by White male scholars. It also means being willing to challenge myself to look at my own racist thoughts and actions in how and what I teach, in whom I mentor, in how I evaluate applicants to my academic program.

What does all this mean for student affairs professionals, both personally and in their work? Hand-in-hand with these challenges are the responsibilities of White people, including those in student affairs, to engage in learning, reflection, and action about race. Following I suggest several specific responsibilities and implications for White people who are willing to commit, or to commit further, to their personal journeys toward understanding and taking action about race.

Responsibilities and Implications

I believe White student affairs professionals have two major responsibilities in addressing the issue of race. The first obligation is to educate oneself and to reflect on one's learnings. We are the framework through which we understand others; thus, it is important to begin with understanding oneself. The second obligation is to consider issues of race within one's work and within student affairs practice; this consideration and subsequent actions should be based on the personal education and reflection in which one continually engages. Specific suggestions follow.

Personal Education and Reflection

1. Educate yourself about being a White person. One of the best single sources is Helms' (1993) book *A Race is a Nice Thing to Have*. Read other works about being White, for example, McIntosh (1995), Frankenberg (1993), and Terry (1975). Read autobiographies about White persons' struggles with race, such as Segrest (1994) and McLaurin (1987). Pay attention to your thoughts, feelings, and understandings about race and about persons of other races and cultures.

2. Learn about the history of the United States and of the world from other viewpoints and perspectives. Excellent sources are Ronald Takaki's (1993) book *A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America* and Howard Zinn's (1980) *A People's History of the United States*. Both of these books offer perspectives and stories often not reported in U.S. history books and present a history which portrays White people and capitalism in more honest ways.

3. Educate yourself about other cultures. Expand your reading repertoire-read both nonfiction and fiction about other races and cultures. Raise questions with yourself, take or audit classes in African-American studies, Latino studies, Asian studies, Native American studies, cross-cultural studies, or women's studies (women's studies because it is a discipline that generally models true multiculturalism in its course, its literature, and its teaching).

4. Attend race relations programs, participate in race awareness groups, involve yourself in campus and community events and programs that focus on other races and cultures as well as any that focus on better understandings of being White.

Assessment and Change Within Your Work Setting

1. Evaluate the norms of both the office and the institution within which you work. Consider the racial and cultural values implicit in the office, the division, and the university or college, and their various activities and functions. How might those activities and values fit for some members of different racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds? What is the experience within the office, division, and institution of persons of color? How do they feel? Does your office affirm the values and traditions of persons of color who work there or who interact with your office? How is that accomplished? If those persons of color do not participate in the way you expect, have you reflected on why that might be so? Are there ways your office and the institution can change that would be more inclusive of different values and beliefs? How should the assumptions of your office be altered to embrace everyone, not just White people?

2. How might you and your office provide leadership fostering inclusivity and working toward enhancing race relations? How might diversity efforts be made central to the purposes and goals of your office?

3. Model to others what you believe and expect in regard to diversity. As student affairs professionals we often expect students to accept and honor diversity, then get angry when they don't. Yet, we often have a difficult time ourselves with race and diversity, and we often do not model what we want students to do and understand and how we want them to behave. Assist students and colleagues with whom you work by identifying resources -- kinds of people, publications, videotapes, etc. -- and by setting goals, objectives, and agendas regarding diversity.

4. Who is available to you and your office to assist you with these challenges? Are there White persons who have developed expertise on racial issues, are there organizations that might serve as models for your office? Perhaps faculty and administrators of color would be willing to work with you (but not do your work for you). After you have done your own work, seek out consultants -- other White persons or perhaps persons of color -- who can help you with transforming your work and your office.

Implications

White people need to be involved and engaged in race relations work. White people can also make a difference. However, White persons may have to give up feeling comfortable. Learning about race is new for many people, especially White people. White student affairs professionals have a

responsibility to learn but also to take action. Other people, especially people of color, should not be expected to do White people's work in regard to race.

A significant challenge is to learn, to reflect, to communicate, and to act about issues of race. Ultimately, the goal is to provide visionary leadership for the 21st century by transforming ourselves, our work, and our profession. Addressing and embracing racial issues is not only our challenge, but also our ethical, academic, and human responsibility.

A quotation, from a clergy member and survivor of a Nazi death camp eloquently summarizes the imperative to understand ourselves as White persons and make a personal commitment to ending racism:

> In Germany they first came for the Communists and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a Communist. they came for the Jews, and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a Jew. Then they came for the trade unionists, and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a trade unionist. Then they came for the Catholics, and I didn't speak up because I was a Protestant. Then they came for me -- and by that time no one was left to speak up. (Niemoller, cited in Obear, 1991, p. 64)

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