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JOURNAL OF THE INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDENT PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION

1986 Edition

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EDITORS' COMMENTS

The editors of the *Journal* hold a strong belief in the importance of continuity, yet we also find merit in the concept of innovation. The 1986 edition of the *Journal* attempts to integrate these two concepts. The Alumni of the Indiana University master's program in student personnel will find some aspects of this edition quite familiar, but among the pages are changes which we hope add to the quality of this publication. In keeping with tradition, high standards for article submission have been maintained. We, the editors, would like to thank the members of the Editorial Review Board for their commitment to maintaining these high standards. Their efforts are genuinely appreciated.

Innovations became as important to the editors as the upholding of tradition. The appearance of the *Journal* cover has been stylistically updated. In conjunction with our new cover, we have altered the type style. Finally, we call your attention to the article by Dr. Keith M. Miser. This guest author article represents what we hope will be the foundation for tradition in future editions of the *Journal*.

On behalf of all students, first and second year, we would like to extend thanks and praise to our faculty. Drs. Philip Chamberlain, Donald Hossler, Elizabeth Nuss, John Schuh, and Mr. Michael Coomes have continued to uphold and support the tradition of quality student affairs preparation at Indiana University. Special thanks go to Dr. John Schuh, who has provided guidance and advice to the editors.

In addition to the Indiana University Fund for Excellence in Education, we would like to thank the various offices across campus which have provided support to the *Journal*. Specifically, the Office of Student Activities, the Department of Residence Life, the Alumni Office, and the IU Foundation have been extremely helpful in accomplishing the assorted tasks that accompany the publishing of a journal.

Finally, we welcome your comments and suggestions regarding this and future editions of the *Journal*. We hope you will enjoy reading this edition as much as we enjoyed producing it.

Lora A. Burnett
James J. Vander Putten
James J. Hurley

AN INTERVIEW WITH DR. DONALD HOSSLER

Josh Powers

As the students of the Indiana University College Student Personnel program welcomed a new academic year this past Fall, a warm welcome was also given to a new faculty member, Dr. Donald Hossler. As the new coordinator of the Master's program, Dr. Hossler enriches an already well-known program, which boasts such scholars as Dr. Robert Schaffer, Dr. Elizabeth Greenleaf, Dr. Nancy Evans, Dr. Phillip Chamberlain, and Dr. George Kuh as distinguished faculty members, both past and present.

Dr. Hossler arrived at Indiana University from Loyola University in Chicago, where he served as a faculty member in Education. His recent research efforts include studies on enrollment management (*NASPA Journal*, 1985), and student college choice. Later in the year, Dr. Hossler will have a monograph on the topic of enrollment management published by *Jossey-Bass*, as well as a second book on the topic by late in the spring.

Dr. Hossler's introduction to the field of Higher Education and Student Affairs is self-described as "backward" in nature. In an interview last year, Dr. Hossler described his background, his philosophy on Higher Education, his goals for IU's Student Personnel program, and what he perceives as trends in the field.

Question: How did you get your start in this field?

Dr. Hossler: My entrance into the field, as I believe it is with many people, was rather backward. I graduated from California Lutheran College in Thousand Oaks, California, with a bachelor's degree in psychology. I was very involved in extra-curricular activities, such as serving as a resident assistant and chairing the college's judicial affairs committee. I had plans to become a teacher at that time, and after I graduated I taught fifth and sixth grades in Thousand Oaks. During that time, I also took on the position as freshman basketball coach at Cal Lutheran. After two years of working with college students, I began to think about working on a college campus.

An opportunity to work on campus came up when a Director of Residence Life position opened in one of the men's halls at Cal Lutheran. For the next ten years I gained experience in student activities, residence life, as the Assistant Dean of Students, and then as the Assistant Dean of Academic Affairs. During this time, I earned my Doctorate in Higher Education at Claremont Graduate School. In 1981, I accepted a faculty position at Loyola.

Question: What sparked your interest in Indiana University's Student Personnel program?

Dr. Hossler: I became aware of the opening while speaking with Dr. George Kuh. I was quite happy teaching at Loyola at the time and I was not looking for another position. However, after speaking with Dr. Kuh, the position sounded very challenging, so I submitted my application. I told my wife and friends that I was pursuing the position at IU because it seemed as though it was a professional opportunity worth exploring. Yet, I was very happy at Loyola and had plans to stay.

My decision to accept the position was influenced by my visit to the campus during my interview. After seeing the rich resources the University has to offer, I became much more aware of the high caliber of the program. On a personal level, I believed that I would be able to balance family and work more easily at IU. My schedule at Loyola incorporated night classes, which meant that I was home late each night. At IU, balancing my time is realistic, and so I am able to spend more time with my family. Finally, I realized the strong tradition of excellence that makes Indiana University a very nice environment for faculty members.

Question: What trends do you see in the field of College Student Personnel?

Dr. Hossler: Over the last twenty or twenty-five years, we have seen a slow shift in the perception and direction of the field. Historically, the student affairs profession was an entirely counseling-based profession. In fact, if one looks at the history of most student affairs and higher education programs, the roots are in guidance and counseling programs, reflecting the fact that most student services professionals viewed themselves primarily as counselors. However, the emergence of the student development literature moved the focus somewhat away from counseling. At the same time, a large body of research on the college student began to emerge, primarily based on sociological and psychological literature. This research provided another body of literature upon which the student affairs field could draw.

In the last ten or fifteen years, however, there has been a shift from counseling to a student development focus as the basis for the profession. Furthermore, in the last few years, colleges and universities have entered an age of increased accountability to the public and governing bodies. This is due to declining financial resources and increased competition for those resources. As a result, this has created a stronger managerial thrust in the profession. Student affairs administrators must be able to demonstrate that they are good financial managers, know how to supervise people, run programs efficiently and effectively, and evaluate those programs.

A stronger managerial emphasis is creeping into the profession that was not evident when the field was viewed primarily as a counseling-based profession. The shift toward student development and student impact, plus the increased importance of managerial or administrative skills is having an impact on the profession.

Question: As chairperson of IU's Master's program, what goals and directions have you set?

Dr. Hossler: I see no major changes to be made in the program at this time. It is a fine program, and it did not receive its reputation by accident. However, there are some areas that I have been interested in fine-tuning. I have discussed these

changes with my colleagues, Dr. Chamberlain, Dr. Kuh and Dr. Nuss. Perhaps the program's curriculum should provide greater opportunity for electives. Presently, it is a very prescriptive program, which does not allow for electives to be taken within the School of Education. I would like to give students the opportunity to take as many as six hours within the school, so that if a student is interested in specialty areas within education he or she could pursue that interest without losing credits. Students could take education finance or law courses or study some other specialty topic. Here at IU Dr. John Bean is probably one of the top five researchers in the area of student attrition. I would love it if he would offer a master's level seminar in this area of study. Yet, if we offered such a course now, there would be little incentive to take it since it would have to be in addition to everything else. My goal is to offer these types of courses without adding significant hours to the curriculum.

I would also like students to demonstrate competency on either mainframe or microcomputers before they graduate from the program. Computer skills would prove extremely helpful to our graduates. At this time, the easiest way for students to achieve competency on the computer is by attending a BACS (Bloomington Academic Computer Systems) course for non-credit. Such courses usually consist of three to four sessions that give students exposure to data processing skills. This change in the program, as well as others, would only be fine-tuning an already excellent curriculum.

Question: How have your personal goals changed or developed since your arrival at Indiana University?

Dr. Hossler: I believe my scholarly interests have remained the same. I feel I am pursuing them just as avidly as before I arrived here. Again, the rich resources aid a faculty member in engaging in serious scholarship. This is no exception for me; everything from interaction with colleagues to small grant programs has been invaluable. In that sense, there have been no changes in my scholarly goals.

In one sense I have changed. That is, my view of my own responsibility for this program has been strengthened. When I arrived at IU, I realized the excellence of the program, but I did not fully comprehend its rich tradition. I recall speaking to a friend and saying, "I am beginning to feel a caretaker's responsibility for this program, and I will try and do my best to better it." This has been the most unanticipated change for me: the feeling of responsibility and a little bit of burden to do everything I can to maintain, if not enhance, the excellent reputation of the IU Student Personnel program.

Question: Recently, many students in the program and faculty members, such as yourself, attended a Midwest conference at Miami University of Ohio. What are some of your thoughts on other schools' programs and is there anything they are doing that you would like to try at IU?

Dr. Hossler: I came home from the Midwest meeting feeling that we really do have a strong program here at IU, and I feel fortunate that we do not face some of the problems other schools are encountering. However, I did come back from the conference with some ideas, which I feel might enhance our curriculum. For example, I think we might emphasize evaluation in the U580 course (capstone, or

final Master's level course). Faculty members at this conference discussed the fact that Master's students seldom become researchers, rather they are frequently involved in program planning and evaluation. A stronger emphasis on program evaluation, rather than an emphasis on research, is more practical for graduates.

Another observation that struck me as helpful was the comments of faculty members concerning the application of critical thinking to our field. It seems that many faculty members engage their students in critical thinking, so that students really learn to think through an issue and realize the implications of that issue. The ability to ask good questions is perhaps a skill more important than any other. I am not saying that IU does not encourage such skills, but I would like to see a greater emphasis placed on critical thinking.

I would also like to emphasize to the students the importance of staying well-informed of developments in our field. This means reading the *Chronicle of Higher Education* and journals in our field as a way of ensuring re-education and re-tooling. Paramount for faculty is the need to emphasize this notion in the classroom.

Question: Are there any concluding remarks you would like to make? Is there something we have not addressed?

Dr. Hossler: I would like to say that I am very glad to be at Indiana University. Sometimes people make moves and then wonder whether they have made the correct decision. There are no second thoughts in my mind. The students and my colleagues have made me feel very much at home. Indiana University, this program, and Bloomington all make this a very nice place to be.

Josh Powers is currently a Resident Assistant in Read Center. Josh received a B.A. in economics with a minor in English from the University of Vermont, and will receive an M.S. in College Student Personnel Administration in May, 1987.

APPLYING MORAL DEVELOPMENT THEORIES TO RESIDENCE HALLS INTERVENTION TRAINING

James J. Vander Putten
and
David E. Westerhaus

The moral development theories of Kohlberg and Gilligan are examined, and an application of a combined theoretical framework to residence hall intervention strategies is made.

Introduction

The need to focus on personal development as a primary aim of education has been advocated by many writers (Straub & Rodgers, 1978). Furthermore, Smith (1978) observed that the collegiate experience has the potential to make a significant difference in whether a student's moral thinking stabilizes or moves successfully to higher levels of moral reasoning. Cognitive development theories are useful in understanding the differing developmental positions of students (in this application, Resident Assistants and residents) as well as in devising and implementing strategies to facilitate students' progress along the developmental continuum. This approach can be viewed as a method of facilitating student development which represents an alternative to the usual practice of programming. This article will describe an application of moral development theory to a residence hall intervention training workshop and the underlying potential for moral development.

The Theoretical Basis

Before applying specific moral development theories to practice, it is first important to identify the theories used for the intervention workshop as cognitive developmental in nature. Thus, the general characteristics of cognitive development theory are integral to the application of the moral development theories of Kohlberg (1971) and Gilligan (1982).

According to King (1978), cognitive developmental theory uses an "informational processing" view of development. In other words, the core focus of cognitive development is one of "how" a person reasons or processes external stimuli rather than "what" the actual thought outcome is (Rodgers, 1980). The developmental phenomena is based on a structure or set of assumptions that defines how an individual will typically perceive, comprehend, organize, and evaluate life experiences. An individual is thought to develop invariantly through developmental stages in a qualitative, sequential, hierarchical, and universal manner (Stonewater & Stonewater, 1983). Finally, as Rodgers (1980) noted, developmental change occurs as a result of cognitive conflict or dissonance between an individual's current thought process and that of more advanced,

mature thinking. At this point, a person is motivated to reevaluate and alter present inadequate thought structures and progress to higher thought operation levels.

The next two portions of this article will briefly describe the moral development theories of Kohlberg and Gilligan, and the differences that delineate the two theories.

Kohlberg: Morality of Justice

While theoretically validating the intervention workshop design, the authors found the moral development theory of Kohlberg to be applicable.This theory has a general undertone that is very "rights" and "rules" oriented; thus, the theoretical construct was most effectively applied to policy interventions.

Kohlberg (1971) researched the development of moral reasoning and identified different qualitative modes of moral reasoning. Again, since the theoretical scheme is a cognitive theory, developmental stages are judged by the process of "how" a person makes moral decisions and not by the actual content of the decision (Smith, 1978).

The moral development model of Kohlberg is characterized by three developmental levels, each consisting of two separate stages.

Level One: *Preconventional Level*
At this level, individuals have a strong orientation towards cultural rules and labels. Actions are not interpreted as good/bad or right/wrong but are interpreted in terms of the physical consequences of those actions. This level consists of two stages.

> **Stage One:** *Heteronomous Morality*
> Right or wrong actions are judged by the physical consequences associated with such actions. Deference of power is not associated with moral obligations but towards an avoidance of punishment and an unquestioned respect for authority.
>
> **Stage Two:** *Individualism and Instrumental Purpose*
> At this stage, actions are oriented towards the gratification of one's own immediate needs and interest. Principles such as fairness and equal sharing are present, but they are interpreted in a pragmatic manner and not in terms of loyalty, gratitude, or justice.

Level Two: *Conventional Level*
Moral decisions are determined in a way that will maintain the expectations of one's family or society. An individual conforms to these expectations but supports, justifies, and is loyal to the social order. This level also consists of two stages.

> **Stage Three:** *Mutual Expectations and Relationships*
> Actions at this stage are judged by the expectations of a person's close acquaintances and family. There is a strong adherence to the "Golden Rule" and behavior is often judged by the intentions behind the behavior.

> **Stage Four:** *Social System and Conscience*
> At this stage, an individual has an orientation towards the fulfillment of personal duties and the maintenance of social order. Laws are to be obeyed and authority is to be respected because of an individual's obligation to society.

Level Three: *Post-Conventional Level*
Actions and moral decisions are judged apart from authority or individuals that identify with a particular societal group. The two stages for this level include:

> **Stage Five:** *Social Contract, Individual Rights*
> Correct moral decisions are determined because they have been examined and agreed upon by society and because the decisions are found to be consistent with personal values and opinions.
>
> **Stage Six:** *Universal Ethical Principle*
> Moral principles are defined by a conscious decision in accordance with self-chosen ethical principles such as reciprocity, equality, and justice. These principles are held as consistent with the value of human rights and respect for the dignity of human beings.

Gilligan: Morality of Responsibility and Care

The second theoretical basis used in the development of the intervention workshop was the moral development theory of Gilligan (1982). Gilligan's theory has a general orientation towards care, compassion, and a responsibility for others as well as self. The authors found this theory most applicable to helping/counseling intervention strategies.

Gilligan (1982) observed two separate ways of describing moral problems, in other words, two modes of explaining the relationship between self and others. Gilligan referred to this phenomena as "a different voice":

> The different voice is characterized not by gender but by theme. Its association with women is an empirical observation, and it is primarily through women's voices that I trace its development. But this association is not absolute, and the contrast between male and female voices highlight a distinction between two modes of thought, and focus on a problem of interpretation rather than represent a generalization about sex. (p. 2)

According to Gilligan (1982), sex differences in moral reasoning development as described by Kohlberg (1971) are to be expected. The primary example of these differences was reported by Kohlberg and Kramer (1969). Their findings indicated the mean stage of reasoning for the male population was stage four (social system and conscience) while the mean stage for females was stage three (mutual expectations and relationships). Given their greater concern for relationships and issues of care, females should, indeed, score predominantly at stage three (Brabeck, 1983). Gilligan (1982) argued, however, that the theoretical construct of Kohlberg is sex-biased because an all-male sample was used to gain informa-

tion for the moral development model design. Because the moral development theory of Kohlberg is qualitatively hierarchical, women are in some instance considered less morally developed than men. This same issue of sex differences in moral development may also be a values clarification issue. For instance, the value of relationships and care (stage three reasoning) may easily be held in higher value by some individuals than the obligation to society (stage four reasoning).

With these issues in mind, Gilligan (1977) researched and identified a moral development scheme referred to as the morality of responsibility and care. This model consists of three levels and two transitional areas of moral development.

Level One: *Individual Survival*
At this level the primary concern is with one's own needs and interests. Moral issues arise only when these needs are in conflict with the needs of others.

> **First Transition:** *Selfishness to Responsibility*
> This transition is typified by a movement from a very egocentric morality towards responsibility for others. This conception includes the possibility for doing what society considers "right".

Level Two: *Goodness as Self-Sacrifice*
Moral actions are based on shared norms, but the focus of one's actions are away from self and towards the acceptance of others. An individual at this level sacrifices one's own needs for the needs of others regardless of the personal consequences those actions may bring.

> **Second Transition:** *Goodness to Truth*
> Moral decisions are judged in a way that the morality of care includes the care of self as well as others. At this transition, intentions are seen as more important than acceptance of others.

Level Three: *Morality of Non-Violence*
The primary moral imperative is one of non-violence and universal care. A morality of avoidance of hurt is applied equally to self as well as others.

Theoretical Differences

For purposes of the intervention workshop, the major difference between the moral development theories rests within the underlying emphasis of the basic components of morality. Gilligan has described morality based on a concept of harmony, non-violence, and a recognition of the need for compassion and care for self and others. An individual is seen as personally attached to moral/ethical decisions. In contrast, Kohlberg's morality of justice is based on a concept of reciprocity, fairness, and a recognition of the need for respecting the rights of others as well as the need for one's own rights to be respected. Ethical and moral decisions are determined with the individual remaining as unattached and as objective about the situation as possible (Brabeck, 1983).

Taking the theories of Kohlberg (1971) and Gilligan (1982) into consideration, the authors have identified two types of intervention situations which frequently occur in residence halls. The first type is the "policy intervention", which concerns situations requiring paraprofessional staff enforcement of institutional policies. Examples of this intervention situation include possession of alcohol by residents, acts of vandalism or damage, or violations of quiet hours. The second type is the "helping intervention", which involves staff and/or student perceptions of other residents currently experiencing personal difficulties. Examples of this intervention situation include observable changes in behavior due to eating disorders, changes in relationships with significant others, alcohol abuse or academic problems such as not attending classes.

Combining Kohlberg and Gilligan: A Theoretical Framework

As a result of this identification of interventions, the primary focus of this progressive application of theory to practice rests on three elements: first, the usefulness of relating the moral development theory of Kohlberg to guide staff member responses to policy intervention situations; second, the usefulness of applying the moral development theory of Gilligan to helping intervention situations (Vander Putten, 1985); and finally, the provision of several conditions that create an atmosphere conducive to moral development. The first two elements consist of three parts each: the person-interaction assumptions, the intervention perspective and the situational characteristics. The third element describes four conditions which contribute to the facilitation of moral development.

Description of Elements

I. Kohlberg: Policy Interventions

A. Person-interaction assumptions:

1. *Residence center students were at stage 2 or stage 3.*
   This assessment was intuitively-based, as a result of the identification of a significant number of difficulties encountered by students which involved living in close proximity to others and having personal needs satisfied (stage 2), and students who possessed intentions for guiding their behavior which were not completely appropriate for themselves or accurate for others (stage 3). An example illustrating stage 2 involved noise violations of established quiet hours and the issue of satisfying personal needs (e.g., sleep, study, relaxation). An example illustrating stage 3 concerned a peer-pressured alcohol abuse episode which involved concomitant personal and social behavior issues.

2. *Paraprofessional staff members were at stage 3 or stage 4.*
   This intuitively-based assessment was the result of identifying the motivations underlying the staff members' intervention efforts. These motivations included maintaining the respect of residents, residents' expectations of staff members to intervene, to be a role model (stage 3),

and also because of a desire to maintain an academic atmosphere or because interventions were part of the staff members' job responsibilities (stage 4).

3. *The workshop perspective was grounded in stage 4.*
One focus of the workshop concerned the moral reasoning of residents as related to behaviors needing intervention. Stage 4 challenges directed toward the staff members included strengthening their ability to take the role of facilitator of individual residents' moral development through staff and student interventions. This moral development will occur, as Kohlberg claimed (Smith, 1978), bcause the intervention creates cognitive conflict and challenge contributing to the disequilibrium necessary for the development in students.

B. The intervention perspective:

1. *An ethic of fairness existed with an underlying logic based on justice and reciprocity.*
The primary emphasis in interventions of this nature concerned the separateness of individuals, in this case staff members and residents, and the corresponding reciprocity between them. As a result, the policy intervention must be accurate and correct, according to the institutional code of student rights and responsibilities.

2. *The intervention issue was viewed as one of policy enforcement and consideration of students' rights.*
In this situation, the issues were objective rather than subjective (e.g., a policy was either violated or not violated).

3. *The staff member's response to the issue was guided by institutional policy.*
Maintaining objectivity during intervention, the staff member's obligation was to apply the appropriate principles (student rights/responsibilities) to the resident's policy-violating behaivor.

C. Situational characteristics:

1. *Motivation to intervene.*
The motivation for staff members to perform policy interventions may have originated from any of a number of perspectives; (a) the need to maintain respect of peers and residents, (b) expectations placed on staff members by others, (c) to function as a role model, or (d) to maintain the given social order.

2. *Potential for growth.*
Through performing policy interventions, the opportunity existed for staff members to facilitate residents' learning how to exercise one's rights without interfering with the rights of others. Both people remain separate and individual, with little recognition of a relationship.

3. *Evaluation of the intervention.*
The effectiveness of the policy intervention was considered in terms of how decisions were justified according to the code of student rights and responsibilities and whether values, principles, or standards were maintained (Lyons, 1983).

II. Gilligan: Helping Interventions

A. Person-interaction assumptions:

1. *Residence center students were in the First Transition or at Level Two.*
This intuitively-based assessment was a result of identifying the reasoning behind several student/student helping interventions (i.e., recognizing a responsibility toward others which may be as extreme as self-sacrifice). An example of this assessment was when one resident performed a helping intervention on another resident because of a concern for the "intervened" resident's health and welfare, exclusive of any care for self.

2. *Paraprofessional staff members were in the Second Transition or at Level Three.*
This assessment was intuitively-based in consideration of the staff members' upperclass academic status and large amount of "life experience." As a result, staff members more easily grasped the concept of a morality of care that included self as well as others.

3. *The purpose of performing helping interventions was to foster moral development in staff members and their residents.*
Through intervening and engaging in moral reasoning with residents, staff members had the opportunity to clarify their own present stage position and facilitate moral development in residents. These residents would progress along the continuum of development by experiencing disequilibrium between self and others as a result of helping interventions by staff members or other residents.

B. The intervention perspective:

1. *An ethic of care existed with an underlying logic based on relationships with others.*
The existing relationship between persons was the primary emphasis. As a result, issues such as care, compassion, and trust were integral to the helping intervention.

2. *The intervention issue was viewed as a potential threat to the relationship.*
In this instance, the issues can be subjective and each was situational.

3. *The staff member's response to the issue was guided by including self and others.*
Emphasizing empathy and the application of each individual's moral constructs, the staff member's obligation was to promote the welfare of others and attempt to prevent their harm (Lyons, 1983).

C. Situational characteristics:

1. *Motivation to intervene.*
The motivation for staff members to perform helping interventions originated from two concerns: first, out of a concern for others as human beings (e.g. the intervenor wanted the intervened resident to avoid experiencing hurt due to personal difficulties); second, out of a concern for the relationship which existed (e.g., the intervenor wanted to maintain the friendship which had been established).

2. *Potential for growth.*
Through performing helping interventions, the opportunities existed to clarify the present relationship between people and to reaffirm and potentially strengthen the relationship.

3. *Evaluation of the intervention.*
The effectiveness of the helping intervention was considered in terms of: (a) what happened positively and/or negatively, or (b) whether the relationship was damaged, maintained, or restored (Lyons, 1983).

III. Conditions for Moral Development to Occur.
Two goals were identified for the facilitation of moral development during the staff training session: the first was to foster the moral development of paraprofessional staff members; the second was to present the staff members with methods to facilitate the moral development of residents. Efforts to assist staff members and residents in altering the structure they use to reason about moral issues/conflicts can be effective if the environmental challenge (i.e., the staff training workshop) is one stage above the person's stage of reasoning (Straub & Rodgers, 1978). To stimulate this developmental progress, several conditions for successful moral discussions as identified by Kohlberg and Wasserman (1980) and Straub and Rodgers (1978) were present:

1. *Exposure to the next higher stage of reasoning.*
Opportunities occurred for staff members to be exposed to various levels of moral reasoning displayed by undergraduates, graduates, and full-time professionals during discussion.

2. *Exposure to situations posing problems and contradictions for staff members' current moral structure.*
Staff members discussed intervention situations that were problematic and contradictory for their current moral structure.

3. *Role-taking and role-playing.*
As a group, staff members discussed intervention situations and the underlying reasoning. In addition, staff members were encouraged to assume the role of student development facilitator through the use of role-plays of relevant residence hall intervention scenarios.

4. *A focus on reasoning.*
During discussions, role-plays, and lecturettes, the focus was kept on reasoning as opposed to feelings, behaviors, or "what if" statements to attempt to identify inadequacies in reasoning as well as +1 reasoning alternatives.

In framework combination, these three elements were useful in guiding the authors in assembling a staff development workshop on intervention training.

Workshop Format

I. Introduction
- A. Workshop format
- B. Workshop objectives

II. Discussion
- A. What is an intervention?
- B. Definition of policy and helping interventions
- C. Fears of intervening

III. The intervention message
- A. 3-part message
- B. Possible responses to the message
- C. Intervening strategies
- D. The win-win proposal

IV. Basic intervention techniques
- A. Guidelines

V. Conclusion
- A. The policy intervention continuum of reasoning (see Figure 1)
- B. Small group role plays

Low level reasoning			High level reasoning	
1	2	3	4	6
"I'll stop to avoid discipline"	"I'll stop so you'll get off my back"	"I won't because I have a responsibility to maintain the environment I live in"	"Do unto others"	

Figure 1. Moral reasoning underlying behavior and behavior change in policy intervention situations.

The workshop format section V. (a), the policy intervention continuum of reasoning, is an interpretation of Kohlberg's (1971) theory of moral development as applied to policy intervention situations. Presented at the conclusion of the workshop, this continuum (Figure 1) assisted staff members in informally identifying the developmental positions of the residents with whom they were interacting. This informal identification is an attempt to aid staff members in facilitating the moral development of their residents through modeling higher level reasoning. Point 1 on the continuum represents residents' moral reasoning to change policy-violating behavior at Kohlberg's stage one. This statement and point 2, illustrating Kohlberg's stage two reasoning, represent low level moral reasoning. During the workshop, staff members were helped to identify low-level moral reasoning in residents and were encouraged to engage residents in "moral discussions" (Straub & Rodgers, 1978) to model higher level reasoning such as point 4 (Kohlberg stage four) and/or point 6 (Kohlberg stage six).

Summary

There is a growing concern and resurgence of interest in moral education across all levels of education in this country (Brown & Canon, 1978). In light of this interest, the authors raise one caveat to the practitioner applying this framework: not all interventions possess the potential for moral development, and the invariant use of this framework may be neither appropriate nor developmentally sound. However, Smith (1978) advocated the following:

> Knowledge and use of stage theory is also important in the effective communication of campus policies and regulations. How such information is expressed and interpreted can be consistent with moral development. Rest (1973) has reported that students can comprehend all stages of moral development up to and including their own stage, but do not comprehend stages of moral reasoning more than one stage above their own. Matching a response to the student's own level of moral reasoning, or the next level, can be an effective intervention strategy. Advisors, counselors, and administrators working with individual students or student groups can apply that understanding of stage structure to their work. (p. 64)

Furthermore, intervention as related to conflict resolution is an important issue in educating students. These interventions occur most prominently in student affairs areas involving high levels of student contact which focuses on the interpretation of institutional policy. As a result, this Kohlberg/Gilligan framework is applicable to other functional areas of student affairs including greek affairs, judicial affairs, academic advising and financial aids as well as residence life. To illustrate this interaction, an example in judicial affairs can be useful; consider the policy intervention situation concerning the interpretation of institutional policy (enforcing the policy concerning academic dishonesty) and the helping intervention situation (assisting the student to identify reasons for violating the academic policy as well as to assess areas for academic improvement).

In applying the framework, the intervention perspective and situational characteristics elements remain similar to those presented here. The person-interaction assumptions element may need to be adjusted to more accurately fit individual applications.

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RAPE ON CAMPUS: DESCRIPTION, CONCERNS, AND INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

Catherine G. Harder

This article will define the crime of rape, describe implications for college administrators, and provide intervention strategies that can be applied within a collegiate setting.

Introduction

The number of forcible rapes reported to the police in the United States in 1981 was 81,536 (U.S. Department of Justice, 1983). However, researchers assert that rape is the most underreported of all major crimes (Skelton & Burkhart, 1980). Estimates made on the numbers of rapes reported compared to the total number of rapes committed range from one in five to one in twenty (Bracken, Dyer, Metcalf, & Strain, 1982). Students on college campuses have not escaped victimization. In fact, approximately five out of every six college women have experienced sexually offensive male behavior while on a date sometime during their lives (Kanin & Parcell, 1977). In a 1976 Federal Bureau of Investigation report, 157 rapes were reported on 168 state university campuses (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977), and in a 1985 survey of women at Indiana University, almost 20% of the women surveyed admitted to being forced to have sex without their consent or against their will (Harder, 1985).

Clearly, the problem of rape on a college campus deserves attention. The purpose of this article is to define the crime of rape so that it is better understood by those concerned on college campuses, and to provide a framework of prevention strategies that can be applied within the collegiate setting. The proactive intervention model of Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (Morrill & Hurst, 1980) will be applied to these strategies.

Definition of Rape

When Susan Brownmiller wrote *Against Our Will: Men, Women and Rape* in 1975, rape was defined in an American court of law as:

> the perpetration of an act of sexual intercourse with a female, not one's wife, against her will and consent, whether her will is overcome by force or fear resulting from the threat of force, or by drugs or intoxicants; or when, because of mental deficiency, she is incapable of exercising rational judgment; or when she is below an arbitrary "age of consent". (p. 412)

Today our legal definition of rape, depending on jurisdiction, can have various dimensions and clarifiers. Burkhart (1984) described the three major elements of the legal definition of rape as "(a) carnal knowledge of a woman, defined as sexual penetration, (b) lack of consent to this carnal knowledge, and (c) use of force or threat of force to accomplish this act" (p. 7).

The wording of the legal definition of rape varies from state to state, but most definitions include those elements. Within the legal definition of rape are two sub-categories of rape: blitz, or stranger rape, and acquaintance rape. Blitz rape is commonly defined as a surprise attack by a stranger and accounts for only 30% of all rapes (Bracken, et al., 1982). Acquaintance rape occurs when the assailant is a friend, a lover, or a familiar individual; with this form of rape accounting for the remaining 70% of all rapes (Bracken, et al., 1982). Both types of rape, blitz and acquaintance, meet the legal definition of rape; the distinction that causes concern is the higher incidence of acquaintance rape.

Acquaintance rape has recently emerged as a widespread problem on college campuses (Barrett, 1982). According to Barrett, it is difficult "to determine whether it is a new trend, pointing to an increased acceptance of violence in our society, or an experience that women have only lately gathered courage to report" (p. 48).

Burt (1980), and Koss and Oros (1982) found that the status of the offender's relationship to the victim is an important part of the social definition of rape; the closer the offender-victim relationship is, the less likely the offense will be termed rape. As Burkhart (1984) pointed out, "acquaintance rape may be simply defined as rape occurring between acquaintances, for many people the phrase 'acquaintance rape' is an oxymoron" (p. 2).

As a follow-up to Koss and Oros' 1982 study, Koss (in press) found that:

> only 57% of the women who had had intercourse against their will acknowledged that they had been raped. The other 43%, despite their victimization experience meeting a legal definition of rape, did not define themselves as having been raped. All of those women who did not acknowledge that rape had occurred, knew their assailants. (p. 6)

Implications

Having described and defined rape as a problem that exists on college campuses, it is apparent that the issue should be an administrator's concern. To illustrate, several implications raised by the occurrence of rape will be discussed in this section.

The report published by the Project on the Status and Education of Women (1977) noted that rape can limit a woman's educational opportunities in a number of ways. Female students may avoid enrolling in night classes or classes with night examinations because they fear rape may occur along dimly lit and/or unguarded paths or parking lots. This fear of rape, coupled with an uncertainty about campus security may also prevent women from attending extra-curricular activities, using the library, using athletic facilities, and/or working on campus at night.

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 prohibits discrimination based on gender for any federally assisted educational program. As a result of that legislation, some women raised the issue as to whether the scheduling of night classes or night examinations is discriminatory (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977). This particular issue has not yet been addressed in a court of law, but other legal issues concerning rape on campus have been addressed.

According to the Project on the Status and Education of Women report (1977), a rape victim has three legal courses of action: to bring criminal charges against the rapist, to bring civil charges against the rapist, and/or to bring civil charges against a third party (e.g., an institution of higher education). Recent court rulings have noted that a university's physical environment and insufficient security may contribute to the incidence of rape.

Territo (1984) cited several recent cases where a rape victim sued the university she was attending. In 1980, a jury awarded a female law student at Hastings Law Center at the University of California $215,000 after she was sexually assaulted in the women's restrooms at the Center. In another case in 1976, a woman was awarded $20,000 after she filed suit against the Catholic University of America in Washington, D.C., as a result of being raped in the university's gymnasium. Such negligence suits are more likely to be upheld when an institution has been aware of dangerous conditions, but failed to take remedial action.

Intervention Strategy Framework

According to Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst's model of intervention strategies (see Figure 1), there are three dimensions of an intervention: its purpose, target population, and method of actual intervention (Morrill & Hurst, 1980). Negligence suits such as the ones described in the previous section are often a result of a lack of remedial action. Remediation is one of the potential purposes of an intervention. Intervention purposes (the first of the three dimensions) may also be preventive or developmental in nature. Intervention targets (the second dimension) may be the individual or the environments that affect or influence the individual. The third dimension of the Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst model is the method of intervention, which can take either of three forms: direct intervention, training and consultation, or intervention through the media. All three of these dimensions will be considered in this section describing a framework of strategies that can be used to address the problem of rape on college campuses.

Each of the remedial interventions suggested here is targeted toward individuals who are in need of services in the aftermath of rape. The method used to provide these services is usually direct (i.e., the individual who has been raped receives the service or services directly). A great deal of training is invested in the people who provide the remedial services to the rape victim. Services on a college campus can include medical care, counseling, shelter houses, legal services, and security and/or police. Campus health services can work with hospitals in the immediate area to arrange for acute care for the rape victim. Similar agreements may be reached with community police forces, social work professionals, psychological and counseling services, prosecutors, and lawyers. Campuses may promote such services as emergency phone or signal systems that are accessible on campus (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977). The media is often used to advertise these services.

While all of these services are vitally important to the rape victim, remedial interventions do not directly assist the remainder of the campus population. The exceptions are those persons who are close to a victim, and who may be assisting the victim through the recovery process. The individuals providing support to

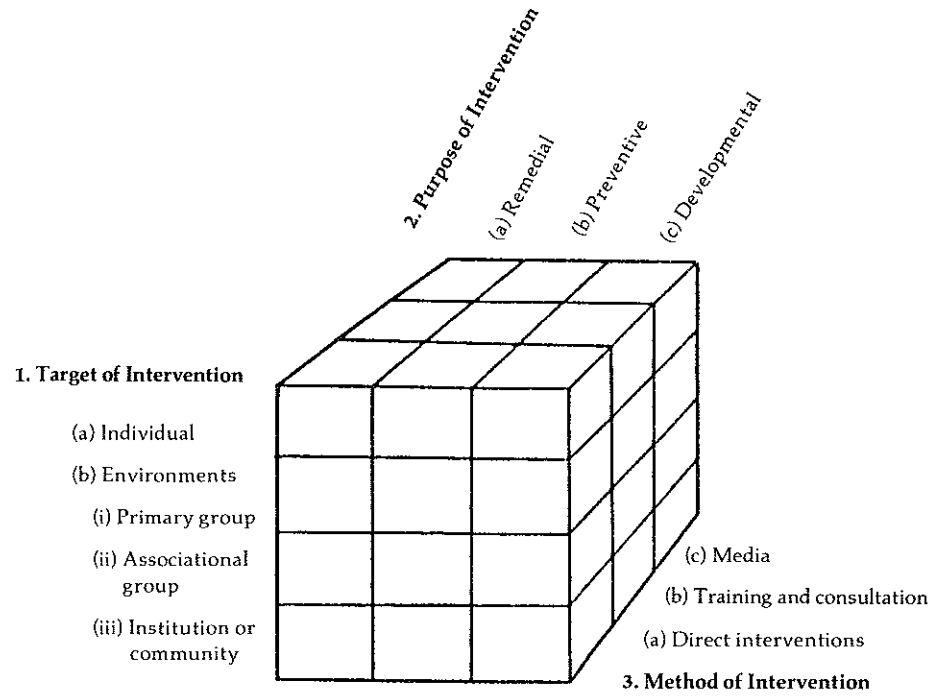

Figure 1. Dimensions of intervention for student development.

Note: From *Dimensions of Intervention for Student Development* (p. 86) by W.H. Morrill and J.C. Hurst, 1980. New York: Wiley and Sons. Copyright 1974 by Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst. Reprinted by permission.

the victim may utilize the counseling services themselves because of the tremendous emotional impact of the crime. Nevertheless, college campuses need to provide services and take measures toward the prevention of rape for all of its students.

As mentioned earlier, prevention is the second of the three purposes of intervention. The Project on the Status and Education of Women report (1977) included a number of potential measures to help prevent rape on campus. First, a self-evaluation or assessment of the actual physical safety on campus for women should be made. The initial self-evaluation, which the university conducts, should include analysis of the number of security personnel available, identification of high-risk areas that need additional lighting, and a review of the procedures for replacement of burned out lightbulbs both indoors and outdoors. Once this evaluation has been made, specific services can be instituted and strategies

can be implemented, such as the following: leaving classroom lights on; using floor or arch lighting; increasing the number of campus security officers on foot patrol; screening identification cards for access into academic, athletic, and recreational facilities; arranging for campus security officers to frequently patrol high-risk areas; stationing security guards in residence halls at night; hiring student patrols to assist campus security police; implementing escort services or even providing shuttle car or cab service for free transportation around campus; and registration of hitchhikers and drivers for car pools.

Each of the aforementioned interventions is targeted toward the campus environment and all are implemented utilizing a combination of the methods of direct service, training, and the media. Other environmental interventions were considered as a result of Title IX. As a product of that legislation, administrators began to address the issues of equal security and use of curfews for men and women. As a minimum response, administrators instituted policies that called for usage level checks of all facilities during the evening hours and the establishment of schedules for buildings on campus to be open and closed (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977).

Individuals can also take steps to reduce the chances that they will be raped; these steps may include self-defense courses, and using whistles or mace against assailants (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977). Each of these are direct methods that can be accompanied by training and the use of media for promotion.

Interventions have the potential to reduce the risk of rape on a college campus. Unfortunately, these interventions are challenged by the social climate of our society. Burkhart (1984) provided evidence that substantiates the existence of a coercive male personality that is deeply ingrained in the socialization process. Burkhart's data also indicate that there is a high incidence of male sexual aggression and low incidence of female assertiveness in sexual relationships. As Burt (1980) noted, "it appears that the task of preventing rape is tantamount to revamping a significant proporiton of our social values" (p. 229). It appears as though the violence and aggression within our society produce an acceptance of rape, and that one solution to this problem is a long-term re-education process. Developmental preventions can be the cornerstone of this process.

Educational programs are an excellent means of developing an understanding of rape among men and women. Such programs serve not only to educate, but to act as a method of prevention against the incidence of rape. Rape awareness and assertiveness training workshops are two types of educational programs recently offered on college campuses. Programs and services should be promoted through university publications such as newspapers, periodicals, fact sheets, and booklets.

While the above suggestions are environmentally targeted, an individual must take the initiative to take advantage of these services which are a result of the combination of the media and training. In addition, an individual can learn to prevent acquaintance rape in several ways: first, by performing a self-assessment (of what they want, what their instincts are); second, by clearly communicating those thoughts generated by this self-assessment to acquaintances; third, by being assertive in those communications; fourth, by learning about and paying attention to interpersonal cues that may occur before or result from the communications; fifth, by being aware (of one's rights, of what constitutes rape); and finally, by remaining in control of one's environment and those within it (Parrot, 1984).

Unfortunately, there seems to be no immediate solution to prevent victimization because of the deeply imbedded myths and socialization processes concerning sexual aggression, power, control, and rape. Hopefully, university administrators will create and implement educational efforts and preventive measures. More immediately, universities need to ensure the availability of emergency medical care, professional counselors, nonthreatening and anonymous reporting procedures, and legal assistance and advocacy for the rape victim.

Summary

The extent of rape in our society and on college campuses has been identified as an issue that causes concern and deserves attention. Educational awareness about rape fits well with the educational mission of any university. With the ultimate goal of prevention in mind, it is hoped that this article will encourage concern and action surrounding the crime of rape on college campuses.

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STUDENT UNREST IN THE 1980s: CHALLENGES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS

Dr. Keith M. Miser

The 1960s and early 1970s was a period of change, challenge, and value clarification in American higher education. Student affairs professionals were deeply involved with the issues of the day and saw the entire profession change in terms of direction, purpose and philosophy. Student affairs leaders shifted from being the "custodians" of campus values to being primarily concerned with student development and legal issues. The agenda was no longer the control of students and the enforcement of rules reflecting institutional values; instead, the professional energy of leaders turned to facilitating the development of young adults, the guaranteeing of students' legal rights, and the building of new models for administration, policy, and program development. These changes were based on educational and human development philosophies, rather than on the social and behavioral control of students.

On many campuses, student affairs professionals were caught off-guard in the wake of the rapid change and violence of the 60s. Student affairs did not always play a leading role in helping students find meaning or non-violent avenues to urge institutional change. Many lessons from the 60s can assist student affairs professionals to understand the activism of the 80s.

This article will briefly review some of the history and the issues of the 60s and it will outline the progress of student activism of the 80s on the University of Vermont campus. From this experience, recommendations for student affairs professionals' responses to today's student unrest will be suggested.

The 1960s—A Period of Transition

The student activism of the 60s was deeply rooted in critical national issues, political concerns, and the youth culture of the era. The issues were basically threefold: the war in Vietnam, civil rights struggles, and local campus *in loco parentis* issues. The times and the values of young adults in this era reflected the post-Kennedy America. Students were concerned about others and the quality of life for all Americans—rich or poor, white or black, urban or rural. A spirit pervaded campus: social change could be a reality if one believed enough in change and worked rigorously for social right over social wrong. This national spirit of America's young adults was reflected in the dress, music, and heroes of the youth culture.

War in Vietnam was the primary issue on many campuses. As the war advanced, increasing numbers of moderate students became committed to working for the end of the United States' involvement in Southeast Asia; what had started as a distant conflict became personalized as roommates, brothers, and boyfriends were drafted into active duty and were injured, maimed, or killed. Most college males were exempt from the draft; attending college to avoid being drafted became an American obsession.

Another issue of the turbulent 60s on many campuses was the fight for civil rights for minority groups. Students marched for the rights of blacks and were met with confrontations from white racists. Across the nation, minority students fought for their rights involving public transportation, restaurants, hotel accommodations, and admission to public colleges and universities.

The third issue of protest during this period was the struggle for students' rights on campus. Until the 60s, most campuses acted *in loco parentis* and enforced institutional values through regulation of student behavior. Students were denied due process in the discipline system. Women students faced women's hours and strict behavioral rules. Deans of men and women enforced these rules through the discipline system, and students were rarely allowed to make decisions about their personal lives. Students began to challenge these practices in the courts and, on occasion, in the streets. The rights of individual students began to be guaranteed by the courts, and through protest and legal action most institutions changed to reflect these new values of personal freedom.

The students of this era reflected the diversity in student composition that has been present in universities since World War II. In response to the impact of the "baby boom" of the 1950s and early 1960s, most colleges and universities grew rapidly. It was not unusual for institutions to double in size. This rapid growth in physical size often was not accompanied by a change in governance structures. This fact made institutions even less able to respond effectively to protest and rapid social change.

In the era of the late 1960s, students were not concerned about their chances of finding jobs after graduation. Unemployment was low and the economy was booming. A college degree almost guaranteed a position after graduation. This job security allowed students to be more concerned with social issues than with searching for a job.

Much was written in this period about the dynamics of student unrest. Keniston (1965) described alienated students who, in their rebellion against society, joined protest groups to oppose the "system" that was created and sustained by adults. In their protests, students completely rejected many values held sacred by adults. These beliefs were demonstrated in music, dress, language, hair length, and sexual behavior. Keniston (1968) also identified the committed students who joined the stream of student activism. This group was very committed to the basic issues of the era. They educated themselves, informed others, and appealed to those who felt strongly about the issues. Other authors (Halleck, 1969; Linowitz, 1970; Peterson, 1968; Reich, 1970; Scranton, 1970) wrote about the youth subculture, values of the protest groups, and the psychology of the individual and the group.

The alienated and the committed students formed a network which spread across America. The first organized group statement was the Port Huron statement (Davidson, 1966). Davidson said:

> For participatory democracy is often like a chronic and contagious disease. Once caught, it permeates one's whole life and the lives of those around us. Its effect is disruptive in a total sense. And within a manipulative, bureaucratic system, its articulation and expression amounts to sabotage. It is my hope that those exposed to it while building a movement for student syndicalism will never quite be the same, especially after they leave the university community. (p. 11)

From this beginning emerged Students for a Democratic Society, a representative group of the era. Their purposes reflected good intentions and, at times, strong patriotic values.

How did higher education respond to the issues of the 1960s? The diversity of response reflected the diversity of American higher education. For the most part, the initial response was ineffective. Most institutional leaders were inexperienced in massive activism and protest. Violent confrontations occurred between police and students. This violence often erupted because of surprise and lack of training of police forces. One of the early violent confrontations at Indiana University occurred between protesting students and recruiters for Dow Chemical Company (Foster & Long, 1970). In this confrontation, student affairs professionals tried to gain control of the situation, but were unable to do so. Such confrontations happened on hundreds of campuses, with the most significant tragedy occurring at Kent State University in May 1970 (Michener, 1971). The tragedy at Kent State made evident to every American the violent potential of student protest. The fact that the incident occurred at a conservative midwestern institution made the implications even more significant.

Student affairs professionals on some campuses, however, played a significant institutional leadership role, working effectively with protest groups. Often, deans would help student leaders organize successful protests to communicate their message while avoiding violence and property destruction. The institutional leaders receiving assistance first were activist leaders who were seen to be supportive of the principles of free speech, freedom of assembly, and the right to speak out against the war or social injustice. On some campuses, student affairs professionals were completely bypassed and ignored by both the activists and the institutions' presidents and governance boards. The protest groups worked directly with the president and the Board of Trustees of such institutions. This bypass of the student affairs personnel often occurred because the student affairs professionals lacked leadership, philosophy, or training. At many institutions, this ineffectiveness of student affairs staff damaged their reputation for years. Shaffer (1970), when writing about the end of the 60s, referred to the role of student affairs staff in future activism situations by saying, "Many have concluded that student personnel has failed in its response to current demands for university reform. These observers feel that a number of developments are making traditional student personnel services and organizational structures irrelevant and obsolete" (p. 128).

The 1960s were a period of rapid social change in America and in higher education. The role of student affairs professionals shifted from one of behavioral control to one of education, environmental management, and human development. This brief background review is important to consider as a base for the decade of the 1980s.

1980s—Student Activism Revisited

Until mid-decade, there had been little student activism in the 1980s. Student values were significantly different from those in the 1960s. In the late 1970s, students were described as being from the "me generation." According to Lamont (1979), instead of being concerned about others, social injustice, war, and civil rights, students of the 1970s and 1980s were primarily concerned with themselves.

The popular literature of this period was directed toward self improvement, self health, and self-preservation. Levine (1980) and Wall (1984) described this generation as one without heroes. Levine characterized students of this period as politically conservative and personally moderate to liberal, concerned yet optimistic about oneself, highly vocational, and pessimistic about the future of America. He went on to describe cycles of student interests and values since the early 1900s. Levine detailed the cycles fluctuating between concern for self and concern for others. From his work it can be seen that the mid-1980s are a period of self-concern, leading into a period of concern for others. Research reported from the Higher Education Research Institute (1984) study of college freshmen in America made clear that the trend is toward more concern for self and vocationalism, while concern for developing a meaningful philosophy of life has declined steadily for the past fifteen years.

Politically, the trend has been toward students becoming more conservative. On many campuses, organizations espousing ultra-conservative values have become viable. At some institutions, the "new right" has become a powerful political and social force within the student body. Hart (1984), in both a recent book about Dartmouth College and in the conservative student newspaper *The Dartmouth Review*, spoke at great length about the need for return to ultra-conservative values in American education. At some institutions, the new right has taken on the form of structured student organizations such as the Ku Klux Klan or the Neo-Nazi Party.

This movement to the political and social right was nationally publicized in the popular media with the overwhelming collegiate support of Ronald Reagan in the 1984 Presidential elections. Many college students reported support for Reagan as a hero of the new conservative attitude and values on campus.

This political movement to the conservative end of the spectrum continued into mid-decade. Since 1983, there seems to have been a slight shift to the left. On many campuses, protests have materialized over the United States' involvement in Central America. On most campuses the Central American protest involved only a small number of students, did not attract a great deal of attention, and was not seen as a movement.

During the 1984-85 academic year, the political stability in the Republic of South Africa began to deteriorate. Student activist groups began to organize to protest universities and colleges having investments in companies with holdings in South Africa. The student demand was almost universal in its support for divestment of holdings with companies doing business in South Africa. The summer of 1985 saw an increase in violence in South Africa, with more killings and more racial oppression. With the opening of the 1985-86 academic year, activist students organized large protest activities on scores of American campuses. Heavy media coverage provided the movement with the necessary publicity. The protest activities spread as the year progressed and campus after campus became embroiled in conflict. Demands were made to governing boards and college and university presidents to divest of all holdings immediately. Many campuses were completely paralyzed by the protests, the demonstrators, and the dissent. The issues soon spread to investigations of retirement funds, foundations, and governance issues.

On many campuses, increasing numbers of students became involved at various levels in the debate. The cause was easy for students to join because the issues were so clear. The extreme institutionalized racism of the apartheid system in South Africa was a clear target that everyone could oppose. The structure, management, and impact of college and university endowment funds seemed unclear and distant to most students. The investment of these funds was an excellent target that could draw a wide range of support. The cause and target of most protests was acceptable even to moderate students. On many campuses, many students seemed ready for a social cause to support. Some institutions took advantage of the opportunity to foster educational initiatives (Hexter, 1985). The protest over divestment issues began to change the relationships and patterns of thinking on many campuses.

The techniques of protesting divestment issues at many institutions appeared similar to the methods used in the 1960s. At the University of Vermont, the impetus and leadership for the protest were a 37-year-old freshman as well as faculty members who were activist leaders during the 1960s. These leaders presented workshops on activism, protest, and civil disobedience. They encouraged, provided training for, and carried out sit-ins, teach-ins, blockades, office takeovers, and intimidation of trustees. These 1960s techniques seemed out of place in the values and student culture of the conservative 1980s; however, a core of committed students were attracted to these actions which often proved effective. Many students outside of this active core were alienated by the techniques used but were committed to the cause. This more moderate group used more acceptable channels to attempt to effect change. The moderate group used the traditional governance channels and political influence tactics that were acceptable to the conservative values of the 1980s. A third group of conservative students was opposed to any level of change. The committed core of activist students built a "shantytown" on the Green at the University of Vermont to symbolize the living conditions in South Africa. The moderate group supported the concept of Shantytown and the conservative factions on campus constantly attacked and badgered the activist students.

The response of the faculty was mixed at Vermont, as could be predicted from the 1960s experience. Some were supportive and were involved in the protest, while others demanded that administrators take immediate steps to end the protest. Frequently, the faculty were the link to teach the values, attitudes, and techniques of the 1960s protest to the 1980s students. This transmission of protest techniques through faculty and other non-traditional students as well as the immediate use of media allowed the movement to develop much more quickly than it did in the 1960s.

The 1980s response of the student affairs professionals at the University of Vermont was typical of the response at many institutions. Because some lessons had been learned from the 1960s, a policy and steering committee with members representing faculty, campus police, student affairs departments, the General Counsel, and the President's Office, was appointed and chaired by the Chief Student Affairs Officer. This group met, sometimes daily, to assure clear communications and quality policy development and implementation. Just before the opening of the academic year and in anticipation of a period of student activism, training workshops were developed and conducted for campus security and residence halls staffs. Care was taken to stress role differentiation, educational philosophy, and policy interpretation. Presentations were also given on South Africa so that those staff members involved would understand the substance of the anticipated protest. Residence halls staff members were encouraged to do programming on South Africa, using faculty and other campus resources.

At all times during the semester at the University of Vermont, the student affairs staff attempted to protect the students' rights of free speech and the right to dissent. In conjunction, a clear line was drawn stating that disruption would not be tolerated. The student affairs staff assisted the activist students with legal dissent, but on two occasions the Dean of Students ordered the arrest of students and faculty when disruption of normal functioning of the institution occurred. This action was in keeping with the University of Vermont Dissent and Disruption Policy. (Each campus community member arrested was individually informed of the policy and the violation before the arrest was made. Also, each person was given a chance to leave before an arrest was made.)

Recommendations for Student Personnel Administrators

From the experience of the 1960s and the development of student unrest in the 1980s, there are several implications for student personnel professionals. These implications can serve as guidelines for the development of institutional policy and strategies for working with campus dissent in the 1980s:

* In anticipation of student unrest sometime in the next few years, each campus should renew or create a clear policy on dissent and disruption. The policy should be designed to foster communication and freedom of speech, but also to define the line between dissent and disruption. Clear lines of staff accountability and responsibility should also be addressed in the policy.
* The student affairs staff, under the leadership of the chief student officer, should prepare to assume campus leadership roles during a period of dissent. This staff should be developed to have the expertise and skills required to manage the dissent in order to meet the needs of the activists and also the needs of the other members of the campus community.

* The chief student affairs officer should communicate often with the president and other senior officers as the dissent advances. Hopefully, from his or her understanding of students, institutional policy, campus politics, and the theory of dissent and disruption, the chief student affairs officer will be seen as an expert leader and consultant playing a valuable role in institutional decision-making relative to the protest.
* If there is any anticipation of dissent in an upcoming semester, the student affairs staff should participate in a comprehensive staff development program designed to prepare them to manage dissent. Care should be given to teach educational philosophy and to have each professional understand institutional policy and the philosophical, educational, and legal underpinnings of the policies. Strategies and potential action steps should be discussed and staff roles should be clearly defined. Senior student affairs staff who were involved with the issues and dissent of the 60s should work with junior staff as consultants.
* Student affairs leadership should work closely with the campus police to identify areas of responsibility, in the event that the police will be needed. Student affairs staff can also be effective resource consultants for campus security staff on topics of student dissent and disruption, values, attitudes, and life styles.
* It is critical that all student affairs staff understand the issues being addressed in the particular dissent. Each staff member should be very knowledgeable and be able to discuss the issues with any student or faculty member as an educator and well-informed member of the campus community.
* In anticipation of student unrest, it is essential that student affairs professionals keep formal and informal channels of communication open with faculty and student leaders. It is likely that during a period of activism, traditional governance systems will be stressed and occasionally manipulated and used by dissenting groups. These governance groups must be respected and will look to student affairs staff for support.
* It is critical that student affairs staff understand the educational and legal philosophy behind the institutional decisions and actions taken at a time of dissent. This philosophical understanding will be used constantly by staff as they articulate institutional positions and decisions.
* Through the educational leadership of senior student affairs officers, it is vital that the student affairs staff should respect the dissonant students as sincere individuals who believe strongly in a cause. During the stressful period of unrest there is a tendency for staff to view students as "the enemy". Student affairs professionals must be continually reminded of their role as responsive educators whose role merits training students with respect.
* Above all, it is critical that the chief student affairs officer be a strong, confident leader. In the 1960s, student affairs often was seen as weak and only reactive in many situations. Often the entire campus ignored student affairs staff because of their ineffectiveness and lack of philosophical, educational, and political leadership. At times, they were not respected by faculty, senior administrators, students, or dissenters. Through preparation and training, each staff member can play a leadership role.

In conclusion, it is evident that the mid-1980s is ushering in a values change among many students. This change in interests and values, coupled with world, national, and campus politics, may lead many campuses into an intense period of student activism. The recent issue of divestment is only one item of a potentially long agenda for the 80s. On every campus, student affairs professionals have the

potential to lead the institution through a period of dissent as educators and human development specialists.

Shaffer (1970) urged student affairs professionals to approach the 1970s with a new spirit and challenge for leadership:

> Student personnel workers will have to lead aggressively the integration of all forces in the environment to contribute effectively to the fullest development of all individuals, even if this means that they become disconcerting irritants in goading lethargic faculties and unaware administrators to make innovative responses to changed conditions before crises erupt. (p. 130)

Even though these comments were made to challenge student affairs professionals to lead in the 1970s, fifteen years later they still ring true as a challenge for leadership in student affairs for the next era of dissent.

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