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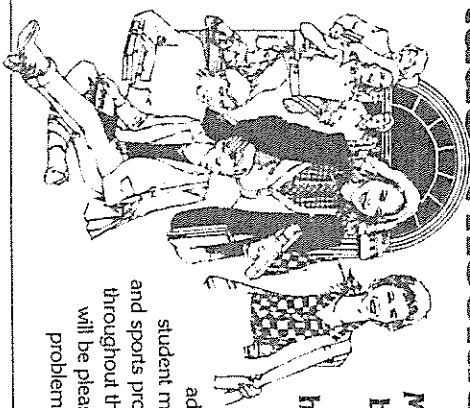
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DIFFERENTIAL COLLEGE COUNSELING CENTER NEEDS
PRIORITIES OF STUDENTS, PARENTS, FACULTY
AND ADMINISTRATORS

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Director of Counseling

ABSTRACT: This study analyzes the different college counseling center needs priorities of four college constituencies: students, parents, faculty and college administrators.

In response to current higher education fiscal constraints, student development professionals have generated increasingly cost effective yet rigorous designs for use in assessing changing perspectives on the proper domains for service delivery. The importance attributed to such assessment projects has intensified in recent years as college counseling centers have assumed a community mental health approach stressing proactive, outreach and consultative services (Carney and Savitz, 1980). In the past decade a systems approach model based on a needs assessment methodology has been developed to meet the demands imposed by the changing nature of educational goal setting (Kaufman, 1975).

The two most popular needs assessment methodologies developed in recent years either have sought to determine the behavioral gaps between observed and desired outcomes (Coffing, 1977; Kaufman, 1977) or have used an "importance" dimension on which various client needs are assessed (Carney and Savitz, 1980; Henggeler, Sallits and Cooper, 1980; Lemning, 1980).

Studies employing the latter design have compared and contrasted the counseling needs priorities of students and faculty members (Henggeler, Savitz, 1980; Hitchcock, 1973) or students and counselors (Carney and Sallits and Cooper, 1980). Not surprisingly, the former type of study has typically found that faculty tend to rate student academic difficulties as more important while students are more concerned with questions related to career identification. In comparing the counseling needs priorities of students and counselors, Henggeler, Sallits and Cooper (1980) found that their student sample cited problems of substance abuse, weight control and child abuse as more important whereas the counselors rated concerns of an academic and neurotic nature more highly. However, it was unclear whether this study described student vs. counselor differences or respondent sex differences since 67 percent of the student sample was female as compared to 29 percent of a counselor sample.

A number of writers (Carney and Savitz, 1980; Coffing, 1977; Henggeler, Sallis and Cooper, 1980; Kaufman, 1975) have stressed the importance of assessing the needs of all affected college and community constituencies as college centers evolve to a community-based mental health model. More specifically, Coffing (1977) included the parents of students as part of the college and community constituency. A review of the counseling center needs assessment literature revealed no current, data-based perspectives of this issue beyond those outlined above. No studies were found that investigated the differential rating of student counseling needs of the four groups most directly involved in the college educational process: students, faculty, parents and college administrators. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to assess and compare counseling center needs priorities of students, parents, faculty and administrators.

METHOD

Subjects

The study was conducted during Spring Semester 1982 using current full-time faculty, staff, and students as well as parents of students enrolled for the semester. Subjects were selected from four State University College of Arts and Science (SUCAS) constituencies: Liberal Studies students enrolled full time (minimum 12 credits); parents of Liberal Studies students whose sons and daughters were enrolled full time; faculty members employed full time who devoted minimally 75 percent of their professional efforts to teaching activities; and college administrators employed full time who spent at least 50 percent of that time in managing, supervising, and other non-teaching tasks.

Student participants were 96 undergraduates all of whom were enrolled in the School of Liberal Studies at SUCAS. This sample included slightly more than 2 1/2 percent of the Liberal Studies student body and paralleled the demographic makeup of that group with equal percentages of males and females, 68 percent of whom lived on campus. They registered for an average of 16.56 academic credits during spring semester, 1982, and their mean age was 20.3 years. The parent sample was composed equally of fathers and mothers and totaled 66 respondents. The mean age of the parent sample was 47.8 years with an average of 3.42 children per household of whom an average of 1.54 were currently attending college. The distribution descriptive of parental education was bimodal since 24 percent of the fathers and 36 percent of the mothers reported completing high school and 25 percent of both groups completed college. These figures closely approximated percentages descriptive of the population of parents of SUCAS students as reported yearly by Astin, King and Richardson (1982). The faculty sample included 26 respondents equally divided between male and female Liberal Studies instructors. The average faculty respondent was a 49.5 year old Ph.D. with more than 10 years of teaching experience and who have no children of college age. The average college administrator response was provided by a 40 year old Masters degree recipient with more than 10 years of college administrative experience and no children of college age.

Instrument

The Needs Assessment Questionnaire was nearly identical to that instrument used by Henggeler, Sallis and Cooper (1980). The questionnaire required that each respondent provide demographic information relevant to his/her group identification as well as importance ratings on a five-point scale (1 = of the utmost importance, 5 = not at all important) of 21 mental health concerns commonly observed among students and their families. These concerns focused on emotional discomfort, interpersonal and family difficulties, academic and career questions, and substance abuse concerns (see Table 1). Items relating to extreme psychopathology or mental retardation were not included. Henggeler and his colleagues reported an across items test-retest (2-day interval) reliability coefficient of .71 for the instrument.

Procedure

Following the sampling procedure of Henggeler, Sallis and Cooper (1980), a random sample of 10 SUCAS courses were selected from the spring semester, 1982, offerings of the School of Liberal Studies. Permission to administer the Needs Assessment Questionnaire was received from 8 to 10 instructors of these classes, generating satisfactorily completed questionnaires from 85 male and 121 female students. Since all students in each of the eight classes completed questionnaires, a representative sample of all Liberal Studies students attending SUCAS was obtained. From this preliminary sample of 206, a final sample of 96 students was randomly selected according to the criterion of equal cell frequencies on both sex and academic level (freshman, sophomores, juniors, and seniors).

The parent sample was generated from a list of 100 randomly selected students attending 10 randomly selected Liberal Studies courses offered at the College. The selection process used in identifying student and parent samples was done independently. Two parent questionnaires were then sent to the home of students addressed "To the Parents of (student's name)." Cover letters were included explaining the nature of the study and requesting that mothers and fathers respond to the items independently. Sixty-nine usable parent responses were returned including 33 father-responses and 36 mother-responses for a return rate of 34.5 percent. Considering that in some cases parents were no longer residing in the household listed in our records, and that some students came from single-parent households, this rate of return was judged adequate. To maintain equal within-group cell frequencies on the sex variable, three responses from mothers were randomly deleted.

The names of 60 faculty members, 47 males and 13 females, were randomly selected from a list of the Liberal Studies faculty. These instructors were sent a cover letter outlining the study's purpose along with the Needs Assessment Questionnaire. Thirty-three questionnaires or 55 percent of those sent were returned. All 13 of the female faculty members and 20 (42.5 percent) of the male faculty members returned usable questionnaires. Seven of the male faculty questionnaires were randomly excluded to produce equal sex sampling.

A list of the names of 76 individuals, 48 males and 28 females, was compiled from the directory of college staff according to the criteria for inclusion in the college administrators sample. A cover letter and questionnaire were sent to each of these individuals. A total of 41 questionnaire responses or 54 percent of the number sent were returned. Twenty-eight males (58 percent) and 13 females (46 percent) returned usable questionnaires. Again, equal within-group cell frequencies on the sex variable was achieved through random exclusion of 15 male college administrator responses.

RESULTS

Six multivariate comparisons were possible given the four experimental groups under study: students vs. parents, students vs. faculty, students vs. administrators, parents vs. faculty, parents vs. administrators and faculty vs. administrators. The multivariate Hotelling's T^2 indicated significant between-groups differences of the means of the dependent measures for three of these six comparisons:

- students vs. faculty, $T^2 = 47.50$, $F(21, 100) = 1.88$, $p = .05$;
- students vs. parents, $T^2 = 63.94$, $F(21, 40) = 2.66$, $p = .01$; and
- parents vs. faculty, $T^2 = 49.37$, $F(21, 70) = 1.83$, $p = .05$.

As illustrated in Table 2, results of individual post hoc t-tests demonstrated that students rated anxiety or nervousness as more important than did parents, while parents saw academic difficulties, alcohol, and drug abuse, in addition to career choice concerns, as more important than did students. When their responses were compared with those of faculty members, students assigned more importance to career choice, anxiety or nervousness, and eating disorders. Faculty members, as expected, made academic difficulties their number one priority, and rated it as more important than did students. Parents cited career choice, depression, eating disorders, marital problems, and problems with parents as more important than did faculty members. Due to the increased possibility of experiment-wise Type I error created by the follow-up t-test procedure, caution must be exercised in generalizing beyond these data.

Although there was virtual unanimity among the four groups as to the three most important counseling concerns, there was some between-group disagreement as to the specific hierarchical importance rankings of those three concerns (see Table 1). In terms of an across-group average hierarchical ranking, however, career choice, suicide and academic difficulties were cited as most important student concerns/needs.

TABLE 1
Means, Within-Group Ranks, and Between-Group Average Ranks of Twenty-One College Counseling Center Needs: Students, Parents, Faculty and Administrators

COUNSELING NEED	STUDENTS		PARENTS		FACULTY		ADMINISTRATORS		
	AVERAGE RANK	M	AVERAGE RANK	M	AVERAGE RANK	M	AVERAGE RANK	M	
Career Choice	1	1.63*	1	1.39	1	2.04	3	1.77	2
Suicide	2	1.64	2	1.72	3	1.73	2	1.46	1
Academic Difficulties	3	2.10	3	1.60	2	1.50	1	1.81	3
Drug Abuse	4	2.27	5	1.73	4	2.08	4	2.04	4
Depression	5	2.25	6	2.11	6	2.62	8	2.04	4
Alcohol Abuse	6	2.36	9	1.85	5	2.27	5	2.23	6
Temper & Aggression	7	2.31	7	2.42	7	2.50	6	2.23	6
Lack of Assertiveness	8	2.31	7	2.44	8	2.88	7	2.89	9
Anxiety or Nervousness	9	2.22	4	2.67	13	2.73	9	2.66	11
Shyness	10	2.67	11	2.64	11	2.92	12	2.43	8
Physical Problems	11	2.61	10	2.67	13	2.81	10	2.66	10
Making Friends	12	2.68	12	2.63	10	2.96	13	2.66	11
Fear of Public Speaking	13	2.75	14	2.60	9	2.85	11	2.81	13
Problems with Parents	14	2.85	15	2.64	11	3.23	15	2.89	16
Smoking	15	3.02	17	2.79	15	3.08	14	2.85	14
Sexual Difficulties	16	2.93	16	2.87	18	3.27	17	2.85	14
Eating Disorders	17	2.72	13	2.79	15	3.31	19	3.00	19
Dating/Relationships	18	3.05	19	2.85	17	3.31	19	2.89	16
Weight Control	19	3.03	18	3.05	20	3.27	17	2.97	18
Sleep Disturbance	20	3.16	20	3.11	21	3.23	15	3.12	20
Marital Problems	21	3.29	21	2.91	19	3.50	21	3.12	20

*where 1 = of the utmost importance
5 = not at all important

TABLE 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranks of College Counseling Center Needs Generating Significant (p .05) Between-Groups Differences: Students vs. Parents, Students vs. Faculty, and Parents vs. Faculty.

	Students			Parents			t	df	p
	M	SD	RANK	M	SD	RANK			
Counseling Need									
Academic Difficulties	2.10*	.84	3	1.60	.66	2	4.233	160	.01
Alcohol Abuse	2.36	.95	9	1.85	1.10	5	3.062	160	.01
Anxiety or Nervousness	2.22	.89	4	2.67	.92	13	3.100	160	.01
Career Choice	1.63	.86	1	1.39	.58	1	2.121	160	.05
Drug Abuse	2.27	.87	5	1.73	1.18	4	3.172	160	.01
	Students			Faculty					
			vs						
Academic Difficulties	2.10	.84	3	1.50	.65	1	3.906	120	.01
Anxiety or Nervousness	2.22	.89	4	2.73	.85	9	2.686	120	.01
Career Choice	1.63	.86	1	2.04	.73	3	2.442	120	.05
Eating Disorders	2.72	1.10	13	3.31	1.14	19	2.358	120	.05
	Students			Faculty					
			vs						
Career Choice	1.39	.58	1	2.04	.73	3	4.063	90	.01
Depression	2.11	.98	6	2.62	.97	8	2.264	90	.05
Eating Disorders	2.79	1.02	15	3.31	1.14	19	2.028	90	.05
Marital Problems	2.91	1.34	19	3.50	1.09	21	2.185	90	.05
Problems with Parents	2.64	1.19	11	3.23	1.03	15	2.365	90	.05

*where 1 = of the utmost importance
5 = not at all important

DISCUSSION

Relative to the three other groups assessed, the parents were most sensitive to student counseling needs. While previous studies have noted students' inordinate concern for establishing themselves vocationally (e.g. Carney and Savitz, 1980), the present study suggested the possibility that some of the importance students assign to matters of career identification may be, at least in part, a reflection of parental concern. However, students were less prone to reflect parental concern for their academic difficulties. The only exception to this theme of parental sensitivity was in their response to the "anxiety or nervousness" need dimension which was rated by students as more important than by parents. A possible explanation for this inconsistency might be that parents have accepted a stereotype of college life as an unqualifiedly fun-filled experience far removed from the stressful realities of family obligations and work pressures. This explanation is supported by our observation that when we, as college counselors, discuss with parents and other groups our experiences in assisting students to cope with stress and anxiety, we are often greeted by surprise and statements of mild disbelief.

In a related vein, while students saw problems of anxiety or nervousness as more important, parents rated alcohol and drug abuse as more important. It seems reasonable that parents would be more cognizant of, and therefore more prone to assign importance to, the overt behavioral manifestations of anxiety (i.e. substance abuse) in their sons and daughters. One might expect that identifying a problem as observable and tangible (i.e. "He/She drinks too much") would generate more confidence regarding a problem solution than would an attribution of the problem to a construct as ephemeral as "anxiety or nervousness" (Moynihan, 1977).

The present study supported results found in previous studies (Carney and Savitz, 1980; Gross, 1974; Hitchcock, 1973) regarding student vs. faculty differences on the importance assigned to career choice concerns and academic difficulties. If fact, as illustrated in Table 2, the faculty group, relative to parents and students, tended to rate as less important a host of mental health concerns. It may be that faculty perceives our primary, and perhaps our sole, function as supplementary to their efforts at instruction.

Why is it that all of the multivariate between-group analyses involving the college administrator's sample failed to generate significant differences? Is it simply in the nature of the administrative role to act as a "content reflection" to the responses of their constituents thereby suppressing discrepancies between their responses and the responses of students, parents and faculty? It may be that in the management and supervisory capacity, college administrators cannot afford the luxury of an "administrative perspective" and therefore learn to articulate a weighted cumulative average of student, faculty and parental perspectives. The weights assigned to a given response would then be determined by transient situational variables.

In order to suppress variance attributable to sex differences as opposed to the more interesting variance present as a function of specific group membership (students, parents, faculty, administrators), samples were generated according to the criterion of equal sex representation. Therefore, a number of otherwise usable questionnaire responses were deleted. Based upon the results of individual t-tests run on each of the deleted questionnaires for each of the 21 questionnaire items, there is no reason to suspect that randomly deleted returns differed in any way from those included in the study.

From an administrative point of view, the significant differential perceptions revealed by this study may be useful in facilitating efforts to describe what it is that college counseling centers do, in rallying support for such activities from the different constituencies served, and in developing and delivering needed or wanted programs and counseling services. In times of budget reductions and retrenchment, it seems wise to increase center impact, and therefore, its accountability by developing programs that meet perceived consumer needs.

Further research is suggested to investigate the possible effects of semantic difficulties encountered in the present study. The literature in the needs assessment area has generated no consistent vocabulary for use in describing just what it is people are asked to assess. The terms "needs," "problems," "concerns," and "perceptions" are often used interchangeably with little knowledge of the effect of this semantic inconsistency.

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STUDENTS AS RESOURCES:
IMPLEMENTING A SUCCESSFUL

PEER CAREER COUNSELING PROGRAM

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Over the past decade, peer helpers have become an integral part of college student development programs (German, 1979). Their ability to establish trust and rapport, and to share common experiences with their peers, has provided a significant contribution toward bridging the gap between professional staff and the students they serve (Barrow & Hetherington, 1981; Johnson & Hansen, 1981).

The trend of using peer helpers to work with students has coincided with a shift in the needs and expectations of college students from primarily intellectual and social concerns toward career and job-related issues (Oschner, 1979). While there is little data to indicate how many students actually receive ongoing career development assistance during their college years, there is evidence to indicate that traditional career counseling and placement services have been inadequate for many college students (Johnson & Hansen, 1981).

In order to utilize the unique abilities of peer helpers to assist in increasing students' awareness and participation in career development programs, and to foster the concept that career planning should begin early in the college years, the Career Development Center obtained funding for a Peer Career Counseling Program. This program, now in its third year, provides training in peer counseling skills within a career development framework. The goals of the program are: 1) to amplify outreach activities by having Peer Career Counselors meet with students in varied campus settings to "spread the word" about our services, 2) to increase the opportunities for students to receive updated and relevant career and employment information and 3) to introduce and assist students with SIGI, (System of Interactive Guidance Information) as a first step in the career exploration process.

SELECTION AND TRAINING

Training of Professional Staff: Before initiating the program, the Career Development Center hired an outside consultant who provided assistance in training Peer Counselors. Attention was given to integrating counseling skills with career development theory. Workshops were held during the summer and early fall before the start of the program and were attended by Career Development staff and interested student services personnel.

Recruitment: Notices publicizing the Peer Career Counseling program were included in a summer mailing sent to all returning students and were also distributed during the first week of classes. Informal "Information Sessions" were held to describe the program and to distribute applications and recommendation forms to interested students.

Selection: Students who completed the applications were interviewed individually by the program coordinators and then, final selections were made. A contract, stating the responsibilities of the Peer Career Counselors, and the Coordinators, was signed by both parties.

Criteria for the selection of Peer Career Counselors were varied in order to insure a balanced and diverse group of students. Some of the qualities sought were a genuine interest in helping students, a non-judgmental caring attitude, some knowledge of academic and social aspects of the College, outreach skills and leadership qualities. The groups were kept small (5-7 students) to insure quality training and supervision.

Training of Peer Career Counselors: The twelve-hour training program consisted of four modules, each containing a peer counseling component stressing listening and communication skills and a career development component which included self-assessment exercises and career resource information. An effort was made to integrate these components whenever possible. For example, a section on personal and work-related values was used to demonstrate "restating" and "reflecting" content and feeling. It was expected that as Peer Career Counselors experienced the training, they would achieve an understanding of their own level of career development and subsequently would be in a better position to help others with their career needs. Selected readings which offer materials for use in training peer counselors are included at the end of the article.

IMPLEMENTATION

Peer Career Counselors worked five hours per week, approximately 10 weeks each semester and were paid an hourly rate. Their actual work time was divided between the Counseling, Career Development and Placement Center and other campus locations. Tasks varied with the interests and abilities of each participant as well as with the needs of the Center Staff. Some Peer Career Counselors were primarily interested in working with individual students, while others felt more comfortable with administrative and outreach activities. All Peer Career Counselors, however, were expected to achieve the following: 1) an understanding of the philosophy and services of the Center, 2) competency in basic counseling and communication skills, 3) an understanding of the career development and job search process including mastery of resume writing, interviewing skills, and job/career research techniques, and 4) a working knowledge of SIGI.

SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

Supervision and evaluation were viewed as vital components of the program. As noted by Paritzky (1981), peer helpers are "learners," as well as service providers and benefit from continuing professional development experiences.

Supervision and training were conducted individually and in groups. The Coordinator(s) met with all the Peer Career Counselors twice a month to share ideas and concerns and to plan activities. These meetings were also used to provide additional in-service training in counseling, career development and outreach skills. Peer Career Counselors were encouraged to suggest areas in which they would need additional training. Individual supervision took place once a month to discuss particular problems and concerns as well as to assess individual job performance.

Program evaluation in the form of a written questionnaire took place immediately after the initial training, and again at the end of each semester. At the end of the year, Peer Career Counselors, as well as the Program Coordinator(s), made recommendations for the following year based on their experiences in the program.

RESULTS

The Peer Career Counseling program has continued to meet the objectives stated in the initial Proposal by promoting outreach for the Counseling, Career Development and Placement Center staff by assisting with a variety of career related activities. Some of the Peer Career Counselors' accomplishments included:

- a) Hosting "Open Houses" at the Center to introduce students to services.
- b) Making Residence Hall presentations to Freshmen to increase awareness of the necessity for early career preparation.
- c) Designing, distributing and evaluating of questionnaires to assess students' career development needs.
- d) Presenting class sessions on resume writing geared toward specific career fields, i.e. nursing, social work, education.
- e) Assisting liberal arts faculty with research and publicity for "Career Nights."
- f) Helping students use SIGI and interpret printouts.
- g) Assisting placement staff with updating career, employment, and internship information.

The professional staff has realized an increased awareness of services by younger students, a targeted population, through their utilization of SIGIR as a first step in their career exploration process. Of the 70 SIGIR users who completed evaluation forms, 31 were either freshmen or sophomores. Another indication of the success of the program is that 12 percent of the students visiting the Center have been referred by a Peer Career Counselor.

Peer Career Counselors have steadily gained recognition and respect from the college community. An increasing number of students attend our annual Information Sessions and apply for the program. Also, Peer Career Counselors are now used by our faculty and staff for classroom presentations and other career related programs.

Perhaps the most impressive accomplishment, however, has been in the personal and professional growth of the Peer Career Counselors themselves. According to their self evaluations, the most meaningful aspect of the program are: developing effective communication skills, increasing sensitivity to others, building confidence in initiating and implementing campus programs, and increasing knowledge of career resources.

Overall, the Peer Career Counseling program was successful. It promoted an increased utilization of career related services and provided the counselors with a greater understanding of their own career goals and aspirations.

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COMPUTERS AND STUDENT SERVICES:
A FUTURISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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The current trends in colleges will increase the pressure on Deans and Vice Presidents for Student Services to provide the same or more supportive services for less money. Consequently, many professionals in student services are currently looking for ways to increase the number of services and quality at a reduced cost. One alternative is more extensive use of modern technology.

The search for computer applications in student services has intensified and will probably continue to do so because some of the trends are already apparent. One trend is the enrollment shift from full-time to part-time students. The full-time student (18-24 years old) will become quite rare during the late 1980's. With a substantial increase in part-time students, and a significant decline in full-time students, a larger number of students will pay less tuition. Student services will be provided to the larger population, but with a smaller budget. The shift toward older students will demand extending service hours plus offering different services to meet the older students' needs.

Student services budgets are typically more susceptible to cuts during tight budgets because the level of "counseling" performed does not relate directly to enrollment. Personnel costs are by far the greatest single expenditure in student services. As the number of students increase, increases in staff are often needed. However, with the national trend of tight budgets, future budgets will probably decrease, causing staff cuts despite increased needs. Even for budgets which remain the same, as salaries increase each year, fewer employees can be hired, resulting in lay-off decisions. In addition, as inflation eats away at salaries, industry may attract the more qualified personnel because of low salaries and unrealistic work-loads in college student services. As a consequence, greater pressure will be applied to the student services to increase the productivity of each student service professional.

Toffler in his book, The Third Wave, describes the future impact of microcomputers on our entire society. He describes the first wave as agriculture, the second as industrial and the third as the space age of telecommunications. He believes microcomputers will be in every home. In fact, he estimates that "... almost 1/5 of the labor force will stay at home and be gainfully employed in their electronic cottages." (Toffler, 1980) Interactive television linked to a personal computer will allow customers to see products on the TV and will allow them to make purchases from home as one does now with a Sears Catalog. According to Toffler, the two primary interactive systems are called videotex and teletext. Videotex uses existing phone lines for transmission of pictures and data to and from the personal computer. It is inexpensive and easy to set up but relatively slow, especially for graphic information.

Teletext uses specially equipped television sets and broadcast signals to send data. When teletext is combined with cable television, communication of data and pictures is two-way. In this manner, both the television and personal computers can become interactive. Because of this, Toffler believes that a great deal of education will take place in the home and not in the typical classroom. With the recent development in microcomputers, Toffler believes we have already begun the "third wave" and that vast and sweeping changes will occur in our society because of it.

The one axiom which can be gleaned from The Third Wave is that use of technology will increase. If technology continues as it has in the past, technology will be much cheaper and will be easier for the non-technical person to use. As this happens, professionals in student services will slowly become more aware of the computer's potential and with increased budget pressure, will begin to use computers in service areas never before thought possible.

Yet there is a considerable reluctance to change. This reluctance seems quite strong in student services. It stems from many sources. One reason is that student service professionals now in leadership positions have received most of their training in counseling and in interpersonal skills. Computers are foreign to many student services personnel, and the unknown is often frightening. This fear manifests itself in a resistance to change, but will gradually decrease as the microcomputer becomes more pervasive in homes and schools.

Student Service Personnel also tend to believe academic advising, orientation, career counseling, and transfer counseling can only be done with human interaction. It is interesting to note, however, the level of human interaction has been decreasing in each student service area. Initially, one counselor to one student was the modus operandi. Then as budgets got tighter, most of these services were offered in a group or workshop setting. This increased the efficiency and effectiveness of each student service professional. With increased pressure to find more efficient ways to deliver these services, student services personnel will begin to critically analyze the components of each process in order to develop computer programs which might address 80 percent of the questions most frequently raised by students. The computer can then make a referral to a counselor for the remaining 20 percent of the answered problems. In this manner, only the harder questions and more serious problems are brought to the counselor.

If Alvin Toffler is correct about the usefulness and pervasiveness of microcomputers and if enrollment shifts and reduced budgets continue to increase pressure to choose between offering current services at reduced quality or eliminate the service, professionals in student services will find ways to computerize aspects of most student support services. At first, this shift will be gradual (as it is now) and then it will suddenly take off. When this occurs, the following extreme scenario might describe how computers would be harnessed to provide future student services.

FUTURISTIC POSSIBILITY (A Radical Viewpoint)

Admissions

The Admissions function has already begun to shift from the one-on-one counseling process to a function of marketing. Marketing is not effective nor efficient without the use of the computer. Targeted mass mailings from computerized tapes are certainly one example. However, in the future, interactive cable teletext might provide a more effective communication medium. A program could be available on the host computer which would interact with the user in describing the reasons for coming to one particular college over another. A short 10-15 minute movie might attempt to answer 80 percent of all questions. This would be followed by a selection of questions (i.e. menu) that can be asked. The response could be a visual one on the screen, a written one on the printer or an oral one through the speakers or all forms. The program would only ask pertinent socioeconomic and ethnic data of the respondent. At that point, the college would know who has expressed interest. Periodically, additional information would be televised to initial respondents as is done now with targeted mass mailings. As new academic programs are added or others changed, updating the computer would be quicker and less expensive than reprinting view books, etc.

Marketing research could be more timely and accurate with interactive cable teletext. This constant feedback can provide better information about why students decide to come to a particular school. With more knowledge about the decision-making process, the marketing approach can be constantly adjusted to maximize results.

For open door admission programs, the interactive cable telecast would be helpful in testing and program placement. Standardized Math and English placement tests could be given to the prospective student in his/her home and scored immediately by computer. Even writing samples can be done through the keyboard. Spelling and grammar can be scored by computer. Once scored, the program placement and the admission notification can be televised back to the prospective student. Simultaneously, the data would be stored and available to the school to determine course demand.

Freshman/Transfer Orientation

Orientation for new students is a repetitive function which can be structured to answer most questions students normally raise. A short presentation followed by a question and answer session could be directed to the home of each new student via cable teletext. The student would be given a selection of questions. Upon choosing one, a mini presentation giving a complete answer would appear on the student's home TV screen. The student could then either ask more detailed questions on the first subject or return to the original menu. If the student asked a question for which the computer was not programmed, the questions would be routed to the admissions office so a unique transmission could be made back to the student who receives the message by turning on his/her TV. New students might be required to watch the orientation. The computer would know who hasn't watched so follow-up can be done.

Financial Aid

Since cable teletext might become an alternative means of filing a Federal or State income tax form, the computer would already contain income information. Once the student is admitted, the parents would provide a release to the school via teletext so the school could use the data as the financial aid application. The computer could then calculate the family contribution and based upon their financial status, combine grant, loan, and work into a financial aid package. The award letter would be sent to the students' home TV and accepted via the cable teletext. Awards could then be credited to the school for tuition, and a cash disbursement could be made directly to the students' account, without writing a check.

Academic Advising

Often, a new student who does not have clear educational goals should take general introductory courses. Students with clear educational objectives might start by taking courses in their major area. In either case, a short screening instrument could be used to identify the degree to which new students' goals are defined. This could be done and scored instantaneously via teletext. The results could be used for recommending what courses to take.

Continuing students could also be required to sign-on to the advising session via teletext. It could identify what courses have been taken and based upon the student's major, what courses the student needs to take and in what sequence they should be taken. A menu should be available on the screen which lists 80 percent of questions students ask relative to their major. More specific questions could be routed electronically to the department chair for an answer.

Registration

Once the student has been admitted and has gone through orientation and advising, the student would be allowed to register. Since many (or most) courses could be offered via the cable teletext, time and location would no longer be considerations of schedule development. The student would select the courses and authorize a transfer of funds from his/her banking account to the school. Once the school has received payment, the courses would be available on the student's TV. (Note: that with this registration method there would be few closed courses since capacity is not predicted upon classroom size.) Each student would receive the lectures or take the tests at his/her own pace. Lectures would be repeated until content was mastered. Once the course was completed, the grades could be posted to the transcript and disclosed to the student via cable teletext. Typical semesters of 14-15 weeks might disappear, and registration would become a rolling process based upon when the student completed each course. At the same time, a student wanting to withdraw from one course to add another could do so at any time since all courses reside in the computer and require a minimum of faculty intervention once they are set up.

Career Guidance

Already there are well-researched computer programs which interact with students and assist them in clarifying their own career choice. Such programs should be made available at home through cable teletext. A vast amount of career information would be available via the TV rather than in a myriad of catalogs and texts. This increases the student's accessibility to the data, yet it makes it easier to update the information via a computer rather than by reprinting books.

If the interaction with the computer reveals that the student needs more help, the computer might then refer the student either to a career counselor or to a series of life skills courses.

Transfer Counseling

Matriculation agreements between schools change frequently. Often the only alternative is to contact the admissions office of the school to which the student hopes to transfer. This is expensive and time consuming. However, if most schools had their requirements on a time-sharing network, current data could be readily available to transfer counselors. As the requirements change, disseminating such changes among most schools would be momentarily accomplished via the computer.

Information as to what is accepted at each school should be available via the cable teletext. Such information would minimize counselor intervention and would reduce the loss of credits students often face when transferring.

Job Placement

Both an applicant pool and a job bank can be used as a source for computerized matching of applicants to jobs. Registration for the placement service and job referrals would be made available to each student's home via cable teletext. Results of referrals could also be communicated by the student back to the placement service via the computer.

Student Services Re-Evaluated

The extreme scenario portrayed above may or may not become reality. Personnel services without personnel degenerates into a mechanical method of information dissemination. The computer can assist student service professionals, not eliminate them. Just how far students will allow computers to go, remains to be seen. Value judgements will be needed to specify the line of demarcation; beyond it, computers are no longer helpful but become impediments to providing student assistance.

Exactly where the future dividing line might be is not apparent now. However, it is now that the student services professional should start to wrestle with some of the issues described. When is human action needed? Desired? Required? What should never be computerized? What underlying principles can be applicable to defend these answers?

Striving to answer these questions will go a long way to prepare student services for the eventual budget cuts and to avoid blindly adopting computer solutions for everything.

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DISCIPLINE AND THE YOUNG PROFESSIONAL

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INTRODUCTION

Student Development educators are at a crossroad in higher education administration. The past 25 years have seen a tremendous growth in our field: growth in size, growth in prestige, and growth in knowledge. Yet we have also witnessed a marked increase in negative student behavior and attitudes. These well-documented behaviors include default on loans, mounting theft, destruction of library books and journals, significant increases in cheating, and growing problems with alcohol abuse and vandalism (McBee, 1982; Stadt, 1982). The structures and philosophies within higher education that deal with these problems have also changed. The recognized beginning was the demise of "in loco parentis" in the early sixties (Hammond, 1981). During the sixties and seventies a greater concentration on due process caused an emphasis on students' rights rather on rights and responsibilities. Additionally, institutions systematically lost their influence in value development (Thomas, Murrell, & Chickering, 1982), and seemed unwilling to do much about the level of unacceptable behavior (McBee, 1982).

This trend can no longer continue. During the past several years many educational institutions have increased attempts to address the needs of discipline, structure, and value development. A key group of professionals in this revitalization of value development is that of the entry-level student development professional - the person who generally has the most direct student contact. Unfortunately, these staff members generally emerge from graduate programs with strong counseling and helping skills backgrounds but with little training in the areas of confrontation, discipline, and development of educational disciplinary philosophy.

It is at this direct student contact level that negative behaviors and attitudes should be assertively confronted. Each professional needs to learn the skills of assertion and confrontation and to integrate a philosophy of educational discipline into his/her interpersonal style. The first step is to look at the population with whom we are working, the students' development. This article will also examine our roles in students' development. Attention will then turn to value clarification, the skills of assertion and confrontation, development of style, knowledge of the system, and finally, to some strategic disciplinary techniques.

WHO ARE OUR STUDENTS?

Our students are changing. They are no longer predominantly white, 18-22 years old, middle and upper-class youth. The past several years have witnessed an increased diversification of college students. Tensions (already high within students trying to understand themselves) further increase when they are faced with attempting to live with and understand people of different cultures and backgrounds.

Stadt (1981) describes today's youth in terms of continuity and changes. The areas of continuity that exists within our students over the past 20 years include the preoccupation with establishing independence from parents, coming to terms with authority, maintaining self-esteem while achieving a more or less accurate assessment of themselves, and attaining a perspective on our society that will permit them to see and oppose its ills without lapsing into cynicism or total withdrawal. Stadt also describes two phenomena among students' characteristics which show a marked increase: vocationalism and narcissism.

The preoccupation with vocationalism has served to diminish the cognitive and affective benefits of liberal education. Stadt (1981) states that "the extreme pressure students feel about grades and career opportunities has contributed to the recorded marked increases in cheating, theft, and defacement of library books, excessive use of alcohol and other drugs, and lack of a sense of community."

Narcissism is the inordinate absorption in oneself. This era is marked "as one of individual ascendance over community ascendance meaning that the emphasis is on me" (Stadt, 1982). We can identify these narcissistic tendencies within our students. They include complaints of vague, diffuse dissatisfaction with life; violent oscillations of self-esteem; dependence on the vicarious warmth of others coupled with a fear of dependence, and boundless suppressed rage (Lasch, 1979).

Our student body presents an increasing challenge to us. We strive to develop community while forces within the population threaten to tear it apart. We counsel students while economic and social pressures increase the destruction that is occurring on our campuses. We must be prepared and trained to take a firm stand and to set limits of behavior.

WHO ARE WE?

Once we have a basic understanding of our students, it is important for us to look at ourselves and our roles. As student development professionals our roles are many: employee of the institution (and some times the state), administrator, manager of facilities, teacher, disciplinarian, advisor, limit-setter, promoter of community development, and coordinator of maintenance and custodial services, to name a few. In the same breath we are caring, helpful human beings and also so representatives of the cold, uncaring bureaucracy.

It is this apparent clash of roles that causes distress and confusion with many of our new professionals. The tendency is to view the various roles (e.g. helper, teacher, and disciplinarian) as separate and distinct, when effectiveness calls for an integration of all our roles. Negative behavior will go unpunished, and instead the student will be counseled, when both should be occurring at the same time.

None of the roles can be forgotten; they depend upon each other. Experience, thought, and work are needed to integrate them. It is safe to say that each one of us wants to be liked and thought of as a good person. It is difficult to be placed in the position of possibly damaging that image. We need to realize that what may be lost in the short term by confronting and setting limits is gained in the long term with respect from the community, while assisting students in their development.

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL DISCIPLINARIAN

"It cannot be overemphasized that for the person who has committed some ethical indiscretion, leniency, understanding, warm friendliness, and at the same time steady pressure toward higher achievement as shown by firm disapproval of the wrongful act, can do a great deal for the student" (Farnsworth, 1957 p. 149).

"It should seldom be recommended that a person be excused from academic demands; on the contrary, many seem to benefit from a sympathetic but firm restatement and clarification of the rules rather than relaxation. . . . Often there is a history of inconsistency or weakness in earlier relationships, and the student has now found it necessary to test all situations in order to define their limits of tolerance" (Blaine and McArthur, 1971 p. 17).

This role incorporates many of those previously mentioned: disciplinarian, teacher, helper, advisor, limit-setter, promoter of community development. It also involves many skills. Use of discipline as a forum for development requires an integration of these roles and skills.

Value Clarification

Before entering a disciplinary situation, we need to clarify our values. We need to ask ourselves, why are we in the field, what is of importance to us, and how will these values affect us in the role of educational disciplinarian? Then we need to discover our institution's values. This information can be gleaned from conduct codes, housing licenses, colleagues, and actions of the administration. There needs to be a compatibility between personal values and those of the institution. Often we may find ourselves compromising values that we hold. Consider, for example, the belief that no one has the right to confront private marijuana usage. Yet if this is the institution's expectation, one needs to comply or reevaluate his/her choice of jobs.

Statement of Expectations

Be proactive and set clear expectations early in the year via hall meetings, staff meetings, newsletters, posters, etc. Another way is to sponsor programs which address problem areas (e.g. vandalism, theft, fire safety, roommate conflicts).

Your visibility is also important and can work to build students' respect for you as a fun, warm, caring person. It makes a difference if, when confronting students for an inappropriate behavior, you have already met them under more positive circumstances.

Confrontation: Early, Immediate, and Often

A common mistake in discipline is to wait and hope that problems will go away. Unfortunately, this rarely occurs and the person who waits will find a larger problem when finally confronting the situation. Many of the initial inappropriate behaviors exhibited by our students are the "tests" that Blaine and MacArthur point out. Failure to confront these behaviors will, in some instances, be implied as giving our tacit approval. Also important in a confrontation situation is separating the behavior from the person and confronting the behavior. Some people's behaviors are bad, although they, as a person, are deserving of love and respect.

Documentation

Most institutions have some formal way of documenting incidents (incident communication forms, duty logs, periodic reports, etc.) This is vital not only as a communication device, but also as a method to discover behavioral patterns. Informal documentation (notes, files, etc.) is also important, especially when needed to substantiate formal documentation (e.g. warning letters). Any documentation should be available to the student upon request. This diffuses "file-building."

Follow-up

A meeting with a professional making the complaint should be the mandatory first step of any disciplinary process. One of the biggest mistakes one can make when meeting with a student is to enter it unprepared. Before meeting with a student one should: a) review all documentation, b) discuss any reports with the people who wrote them, c) obtain additional background information on the student if available, d) keep an open mind, and beware of making a decision or value judgement that is extreme in either direction before meeting the student.

The purpose of a meeting is in part dependent on the details of the incident, but generally it is to verify those details, counsel the student regarding conduct (restate expectations, explore motivations and attitudes, point out specific violations), determine if it is necessary to refer the student to a judicial body and, if so, explain the system. Any meeting should be summarized in a follow-up letter to the student.

The System on Campus

It is vital to be well versed in the mechanics and procedures of the campus disciplinary system. A good way to accomplish this is to study a copy of the student conduct code and the judicial procedures. Then meet with the person in charge of the judicial system on campus. Review each procedure and make sure deadlines, due-process requirements, and communications flow are comprehended. There are few things more frustrating than having a judicial case thrown out because of a procedural error.

Besides the "black and white," try to discover where the "gray" areas are; that is, where discretion comes into play. In any system there will be those areas where different people will have different answers to the questions you ask. Learn where those areas are and how to best control them. One such area may be interpreting a procedural requirement or deciding under which section an inappropriate behavior falls. If these areas can be anticipated, arguments can be articulated that will lessen the amount of ambiguity other people may see.

You cannot be afraid to state your case strongly. Groundwork can be laid by meeting with judicial personnel and educating them about the goals and values of your office, quad, hall, etc. Prior to judicial cases, these people can be made aware of what you are attempting to accomplish in the community. When discussing a particular situation, remember that you may be the sole voice of the community. While the perpetrator explains his/her behavior, you can also explain the impact of the individual's behavior (and subsequent sanction) on the community. Follow-up after a case with those involved in the decision making is also a good idea.

Finally, recognize that the formal process is there. The tendency of inexperienced professionals to ignore or circumvent the process will only serve to increase their frustrations.

Development of Style

Style is a rather intangible, yet very real, entity based partially on others' perceptions. It is an integration of interpersonal skills, job-related skills, self-perception, and attitudes. It also plays a large part in our effectiveness especially in the area of discipline. Components that can increase our effectiveness are warmth and understanding as well as a willingness to take a stand on the values in which we believe. Confidence and a sense of having control can be communicated through style.

Style is developed through practice, experience, and self-evaluation. Practice confrontation with colleagues. Prior to meetings, consult with your supervisor. This will add to confidence and preparation. Following each situation, review the particulars to see how others perceived you. Target strategies to improve, and then work at their improvement.

STRATEGIC BEHAVIORAL CHANGE AGENTS

Discipline, as a forum for development, has two basic goals: behavior change and attitude change. Additionally, experience seems to suggest that attitude change (which can be difficult to measure) follows behavior change (which can be easily measured). Therefore, the primary goal, as suggested throughout earlier sections, is behavior change. Not all the strategies for behavior change are listed in textbooks.

A high school principal discussing a confrontation states, "Of course Mary doesn't want to do that (turn to other students). But what I have done is have a one-to-one confrontation with a student. I can control her because she's all by herself and doesn't have the support of the crowd. It's strategy I use. You pick your spots. It's like the police system. If you see 70 people speeding, you pull one over. The next thing you know, 400 cars go by very, very slowly (Kaplan, 1979 p. 4).

The "strategy" that this particular high school principal uses is an example of what is referred to as strategic behavioral change agents. It is a term describing the educational techniques used to accomplish goals in the confrontation of inappropriate behavior. These change agents arise from a knowledge of human behavior and are learned through experience and experimentation. They must be used with caution and responsibility or one will be viewed as an uncaring, manipulative powerbroker.

Authority and Power

Authority is the power or right given to a person by a legitimate source. Student development professionals have (at most schools) the authority and, therefore, the power to direct students to meet with them. This authority is granted by the administration and by the conduct code and housing license.

Power is the ability to do or accomplish something. Power can be formal (authority) or informal. We, as professionals, are generally assumed to have more knowledge and experience than is actually the case. We are also granted more power than we actually have. Students may assume you have the authority and, therefore, bestow the power upon you. The use of this power enables us to demand and obtain a change in a student's behavior.

It is important in all situations to understand whether one is dealing from authority or from informal power because informal power is tentative and not guaranteed. Generally, any power is most effective when used in small doses. Informal power can be cultivated through the communication of expectations, visibility, the reputation for following through, and friendliness. These are all components of personal style.

The Known vs. The Unknown

With this technique the professional is attempting to become an ally of students. In the meeting it becomes clear to them that they have the choice of working with you and clearing up the situation (e.g. identifying a vandal, admitting to a particular inappropriate behavior) or forcing you to refer them to a "higher authority" (e.g. immediate supervisor, Dean of Students, Director of Residence). In this case it is wise to have discussed this situation with the particular "higher authority" and make him/her aware of what you are attempting to accomplish. You are trying to balance the use of that colleague as a possible scapegoat with your need to draw information from the student.

Threats and Promises

The tendency for many people in confrontation is to threaten a student to obtain information or change a behavior. Threats become impotent when not followed through. It is dangerous to use threats as a bluff because when the bluff is called, you may be forced into following through (something you might not have been prepared to do) or doing nothing which causes a credibility gap.

When using threats or promises, the wording is vital. Be clear, concise, and always provide options to enable students to make desirable decisions. A threat can be posed in a tentative way and yet still have the desired impact: "Further instances of this behavior may lead to your removal from residence." Or the end result of the threat may be vague: "Further instances of this behavior will force me to take further disciplinary action." When making demands of students, it is advisable to give them time to think it over. It is often difficult to accede to a demand on the spot.

Creative Sanctions

Disciplining students provides opportunities to communicate to the rest of the community as well. Issuing a letter of warning or placing someone on probation may have little long-term educational value on students and no effect on the community. An example of a creative sanction is to have a vandal's repair and paint a wall they defaced. There are two payoffs to this. The vandals invest in their environment, are more likely to be protective of it, and the community realizes that this behavior will not be tolerated.

Other examples of creative sanctions are work penalties, community development projects, and researching and writing papers on relevant aspects of student life (e.g. community development, discipline, value development).

SUMMARY

When considering the time and energy expended on educational discipline and taking into account that more often than not it puts us into a position in which we would rather not be, it is not surprising that there can be a tendency to develop an "us versus them" attitude. This is something we must constantly be on guard against. It is important to remember that we are speaking about a relatively small percentage of the student population, and the truly "hard-core" unreachable students are an even smaller group.

Points to communicate to those students being confronted are that it is their actions that are forcing you to take these particular measures, that their actions are having an impact on the community, and it is your job to be concerned about them and the entire community.

Finally, the premise presented here is that prior to development and attitude change occurring within students exhibiting negative behavior and attitudes, we must first change the behavior. Only then can the challenge and support, vital to any lasting development, be introduced.

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PEER ADVISING A Climate for Sharing

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"103 J. is really concerned by her grade in a major exam given on Monday. She stated that she really studied hard with her friend for the exam and was confident of receiving a grade better than she received. She felt bad because she was really trying for a good grade, whereas her friend was not nearly as anxious and received a better grade. This conflict seemed hard for her to resolve. I suggested that she see the counselor who coordinates "Test Taking Skills." 103 J. states she has done this, but will do it again as the program that she is in is very important to her. She seems to have good study habits, but "freezes up" when she takes an exam. I feel that she is taking the need to achieve too seriously. In addition, she cannot seem to find a method or the time to relax before an exam. My feeling is that one can study and absorb so much in a given block of time, and then time is needed to let the mind adjust to the information. 103 J. seems to accept my observations and will see the counselor again to review "Test Taking Skills."

The above is an example of a peer advisor's journal record of a contact with a student at Corning Community College. "Often times, students feel more comfortable talking about some of their concerns with other students. Many of these concerns can be effectively dealt with at the level of student-to-interaction." (Andrews, Hofsess, and Venette, 1982).

BACKGROUND

In the spring of 1975, a contingent of eight professional staff of the Student Services Division at Corning attended the ACPA (American College Personnel Association) meeting in Atlanta, Georgia. One of the group's goals was to define the concept of Peer Counseling. They decided to gather information on the topic.

Upon their return to the Corning Campus, a subcommittee reviewed the materials and wrote a proposal for implementation of the program. The program was accepted and became a new service for students offered by the Student Services Division. Now in its eighth year, it is successfully reaching and serving the peer advising participants as well as the general student body.

The program is based on the ability of students to reach other students. It is an effort to complement the Counseling and Student Services professional support services with peers. Originally designed as an exclusive student-to-student outreach program, it became evident after the first year that the peer advisors themselves were experiencing significant personal growth development. This growth very quickly became an additional goal of the program.

During the second year the program was retitled Peer Advising because some students felt that peer advisors were trained counselors. The name change has provided the intended limits. The Peer Advisors act as resource referral agents. They do not exceed two to three contacts with a student who has a serious problem.

BUDGET

The program at Corning is housed organizationally in Student Services. In addition, from the start, it has had significant human resource support from the Academic Advising/Counseling area. Budget for the program includes:

- funding for honorariums for peer advisors
- instructional supplies
- travel for peer advisors and coordinators

The budget averages \$3000 per year which is based on \$200 per peer advisor per year using 10 as an average number of peer advisors. The coordinators' time is an indirect program cost, and they are not compensated for overload or weekend training.

Since its inception, the program has fostered the concept of volunteer services. It has never publicly announced the modest honorarium which is granted to students. The money is usually a surprise to the peer advisors and a nice reminder that they are being rewarded within a "system." It appears to keep the motivation pure and unalloyed.

The three coordinators have been the backbone of the program each year. There have usually been three coordinators, male and female, and they have usually been staff members from Student Services and Academic Advising/Counseling.

ORGANIZATION

RECRUITMENT

Recruitment begins in the form of written communication with the college community. A letter is sent to each staff member of the college community and to all student leaders. They are asked to submit names of students who are qualified. We expect them to consider students who seem to be self-starters, academically solid, and who have shown, through their school and community service experience, a sense of concern for others. This step is followed by personal follow-ups with approximately ten faculty and professional staff. There are a number of teaching faculty who have been on the personal follow-up list since the beginning of the program. Other recruitment techniques such as posters, college radio announcements, and Student Union service announcements are also utilized. These latter approaches, with few exceptions, have been ineffective recruitment tools.

SELECTION

A simple application form has been developed, basically to collect demographic and personal style information from the students. For example, it includes an area asking the students to list "Things I like about myself and things I don't like about myself."

TRAINING

The initial screening process has had one basic tenet: the design is positive. The present screening process was developed by current peer advisors who expressed an interest in the screening and training of new peer advisors largely because of their own experiences. A set of recent plans included: interest hunt (identification of similar interests) - a getting-acquainted activity, a review of peer advising - their perspective on what students who help students can do, and an activity entitled "Survival" - a simulated experience that helps the student look at his/her behavior and gives us an opportunity to look at that behavior.

An intensive training usually takes place over a weekend in an off-campus facility with a dorm-like setting. This feature has been appealing to the two-year student who, as a commuter, lives at home, works part-time, and has little time or money for leisure activities.

One of the highlights of the intensive training that has become a well-established tradition producing a myriad of outcomes is the "Shopping Experience." At the time when the group is gathering to leave for the weekend, they are given a substantial sum of money. It is put on a desk in the classroom with the following instructions:

You are to buy food for x number of persons for x number of meals and leisure time activity. You will have two hours including travel time to the facility to complete this task. You must collect receipts for all expenses and show tax-exempt status with forms provided. There can be no liquor. You must not exceed the amount in the envelope unless you choose to assume responsibility for the difference."

This activity is the generator of enthusiasm for the weekend - positively, and in a few cases, negatively. On the positive side, it has most often brought the new peer advisors together with the previous group. It has developed interesting discussions about food values. It has increased visibility of leaders, organizers, and other roles including followers, gate-keepers, and recorders. Most importantly, it has created a climate for sharing. On the negative side, it has shown the coordinators a need to consider that the directions include their own obvious lack of direct participation in this particular activity.

In general, through various activities, a lot of information is generated about how the peer advisors behave, what their interests are, and how their personal styles are evident in a group. Also, approximately twelve hours of training takes place, which focuses on characteristics of a helping relationship, role playing, and resource information.

The resource information is a campus resource portfolio. It was first developed and packaged by one of the coordinators. It is distributed for review and then maintained individually by each peer advisor. As a way of using a simulated exercise to demonstrate the value of the resource packet, each student is given a sample role problem and asked where they would seek help. They do their research and report the results at the first weekly in-service training session. First Example: You are a returning student age 47, who has been out of school for over 20 years. Is there a special program for adults? Second Example: You are confused about what career to go into. List three possible resources that might help.

Journal writing is first introduced during the intensive training. Its purposes are to encourage the peer advisors to record their feelings and experiences and then reflect on them and to encourage and foster the development of writing skills. In addition, peer advisors are instructed to develop a personal code so that if anyone other than the peer advising staff were to read the book, it would seem meaningless. For institutional purposes, this is considered a good preventative liability strategy. An outcome of journal writing for administrative use is the documentation of data regarding peer-advisting contact.

In-service training continues in weekly two-hour meetings of the group held at the end of the day or early evening to accommodate the students' schedules.

The weekly part of the training includes an assessment of the students' interest areas. A Peer Advising In-Service Questionnaire (Venette, 1981) is utilized to look at program/topic areas and college/community resources. The results of that survey, in combination with the coordinators' basic outline, produce a 15 week semester which includes the following topics and others: Listening and Communication Skills, Role Playing, Racism Awareness, Career Planning, Sexism Awareness, and Alcohol Awareness. Typical college/community resources include: registration information, financial aid, health services, and community human resource service agencies. Guest speakers who represent those areas are a favorite highlight.

Weekly or bi-weekly meetings with coordinators are expected to give the peer advisor an opportunity to talk about contacts and what steps he or she might take to enhance their peer-advisting role. The peer advisors have usually given their journals to the coordinators before the meeting.

The documentation in the journal's provides good information for use in budget discussions. This information has been used in the college budget process since 1978. A cumulative summary follows (Andrews, 1978-82):

PEER ADVISING CONTACTS

1982-83 Enrollment Total FTE	3014.6	Students Served	289
Fall 1982 Number of P.A.s	10	Contacts	404
Spring 1983 Number of P.A.s	18*	Concerns:	
*Four Students' reports not included		Academic	114
		Financial	39
		Personal/Social	158
1981-82 Enrollment Total FTE	2903.4	Students Served	199
Number of P.A.s	9	Contacts	242
*One student report not included		Concerns:	
		Academic	90
		Financial	27
		Personal/Social	108
1980-81 Enrollment Total FTE	2875.1	Students Served	110
Number of P.A.s	8	Contacts	202
		Concerns:	
		Academic	56
		Financial	67
		Personal/Social	69
1979-80 Enrollment Total FTE	2571.4	Students Served	278
Number of P.A.s	9	Contacts	334
		Concerns:	
		Academic	95
		Financial	49
		Personal/Social	148
		Misc.	25
1978-79 Enrollment Total FTE	2435.8	Students Served	392
Number of P.A.s	12	Contacts	734
		Concerns:	
		Academic	202
		Financial	111
		Personal/Social	222
		General Info.	142

A new component of the program this year is student representation on special committees or special programs. Initiated by the coordinators, it was eagerly accepted by the peer advisors. In reviewing the concept of team building, one might conclude that it is a direct outcome of our ongoing effort to increase their involvement in campus activities as well as this attendance at special conferences and workshops. For example, since the spring of 1982, one student has attended a Women in Management Seminar at Cornell University, three students have attended a community sponsored Stress Management Workshop, and two students traveled to Toronto with "Alternatives," a support group of the College's ADC (Alcohol and Drug Awareness Committee). Now these two peer advisors are working actively with that group while two other peer advisors are working with ADAC.

In summary, Peer Advising is an outreach student service at Corning Community College. There is no center or office out of which the Peer Advisors work. Their primary responsibility as peer advisors requires that they make the first move. They will make contact with students in the Commons, classroom buildings, and all over campus. Part of the training includes looking for clues, learning to take the initiative, and developing listening and communication skills.

The Peer Advising Program is a guide for helping students develop their assisting behaviors and communication skills. The program utilizes the advantage of the positive influence that people have on each other. This influence can effect changes in behavior and outlook. The Peer Advising Program provides the general student body with assistance in personal, social, academic, and financial areas while providing the peer advisor with an opportunity for personal growth. At the same time, the Program is intended to increase the quality of student life at Corning Community College.

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DEVELOPMENT, RETENTION, AND OTHER BENEFITS OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

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Throughout history work has been closely related to survival. Work has also been a means for personal development and growth, for achieving satisfaction, and for enhancing the quality of life. This is surely true for the college graduate, and it is a viewpoint that has merit for the student still in college as well. While benefiting individuals, work also have value for the institutions.

This article discusses employment, its benefits for college students and their institutions, and how to make these benefits more widely available. The rationale for considering work to be beneficial to both students and colleges is also outlined with an emphasis on development for the students and on retention factors for the institution.

TYPES OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

Work for college students can include a variety of forms. The most common categories are:

- 1) Federally-sponsored work-study programs. Qualifying students work anywhere on campus, and sometimes off campus, where a legitimate work position has been established under the appropriate guidelines.
- 2) On-campus employment from institutional funding sources other than work-study monies. Grants, temporary service contracts, and allocated institutional resources are the most common of these funding sources. Jobs can be found in classrooms and laboratories as assistants to professors; in other academically related departments such as libraries and instructional media centers; or in the non-academic sector of campus such as residence units, food service, security, and maintenance.
- 3) On-campus private employment. This is a somewhat unique category of employment options where the work is on campus, but the funding mechanism is private. An individual typing service is one example; work for companies that contract work on campus is another. Usually this includes private food services, vending machine companies, and special marketing programs.

- 4) Internships. Usually in a student's major academic area, internships provide an experience of work which usually has all the benefits of employment except that payment for services may be absent; also, the student may pay tuition fees in order to participate in the experience.
- 5) Cooperative education. Through a federally funded program, students are helped to find employment which enhances their academic learning and provides remuneration at the same time. Typically, after their first year in college, students work full time for half the year and go to school full-time during the other half of the year.

- 6) Off-campus employment. Students frequently find work in the communities surrounding colleges and universities. It is hoped that this source of employment will continue to expand as each institution tries to increase work opportunities for students.

These employment situations generally occur during the school year. Some of the benefits, to the student at least, would also be present in summer-time and vacation-time jobs. If these jobs are on the campus or have been facilitated by campus agencies, the benefits may accrue to the institution as well.

HOW WORK BENEFITS THE STUDENT

Work contributes to the student in ways that are both obvious and subtle. First of all, work provides income. Income can provide necessities such as tuition, board, room, books, clothes, and luxuries. Whether travel funds, computers, and cars are necessities or luxuries depends upon the life situation and viewpoint of the individual student.

Many students continue their education only if they have the income that comes from work to supplement whatever other financial resources are available to them. Increasingly, as federal funds are cut back and family funds become tighter, employment is the most realistic avenue to being able to stay in college. As college costs continue to rise, the "student-as-worker" trend will also continue. Jobs bring college within the reach of those who otherwise might not be able to afford it.

In addition to providing income, work serves to clarify career goals. As a bridge between classroom learning and the world of work ideal employment situations give the students an opportunity to apply classroom learning. Skills used in the work setting can reinforce academic instruction.

Even when the student has not made a firm career commitment which can then be matched by a relevant work situation or when the relevant work situation is not available, employment aids career growth in other ways. Students gain a sense of their work skills, interests, and limitations. They come to know themselves as workers. They obtain insight into the world of work. Their horizons can be expanded by exposure to fields and opportunities they had not previously considered, and they can test the reality of the choices they have made.

Job placement prospects are definitely enhanced for students with work experience. This is true even when the work is not particularly challenging, satisfying, or career-related. Work increases marketability through the actual experiences of employment, by the addition of new dimensions beyond classroom experience to the person (and, hence, to their resume) and by the development of job-search skills.

The benefits of work to the individual student are not limited to money gained and to career considerations. Work is an activity that promotes developmental growth in college students. Student employment translates into student growth: intellectual, educational, personal, social, vocational, and professional growth.

Larabee (1980) discusses how new understandings, values, and skills can be developed in a work situation. In his framework, the learning of these three components overlaps: an individual can learn to understand some facet of life and work, can learn the value of that part of life, and can learn the skill associated with that part of life. Using time management as an example from a work setting, one can learn to understand time management, to value time management, and can gain the skill of managing time.

Other examples of learning within work settings include understanding, valuing, and developing skills in the area of human relationships and human imperfections; problem solving; commitment and service; observation, analysis, interpretation and expression of experiences; autonomy; self-knowledge; achievement; and tolerance (Larabee, 1980).

When considering employment as a means for developmental growth, it is helpful to look at the developmental models which apply to college students and relate these models to the work setting. There are a variety of such models, with different language being used by different theorists to discuss different aspects of development. There is also the student personnel point of view, updated into the student development model, which responds to the whole person, attends to individual differences, and works with students at their level of development (Widick, Knefelkamp, and Parker, 1980).

Chickering's vectors of development (1969) is the most useful model for analyzing work as a means of growth. Chickering uses the word "vector" to indicate both movement in a direction and magnitude of development. His vectors are themes or dimensions of development in the lives of students as they face the task of forming an identity. Chickering has posited seven vectors of development: 1) developing competence, 2) managing emotions, 3) developing autonomy, 4) establishing identity, 5) freeing interpersonal relationships, 6) clarifying purpose, and 7) developing integrity.

Development in these seven vectors can be stimulated in a work environment. To depend on a classroom environment alone or a classroom environment with the addition of a residence environment to promote student development risks by-passing other potent learning situations. As adults, people gain a significant part of their identity from their work situations. To promote work experiences for students hastens this growth toward identity.

Students themselves confirm that they grow from their jobs. A survey of 62 upperclassmen, of whom 75 percent held part-time jobs while in college, elicited the following personal gains from employment (Hoark, 1982):

- opportunity to meet a wide variety of people
- development of personal responsibility
- learning of new skills
- increased ability to get along with people
- development of self confidence
- satisfaction of helping someone; of doing a job
- respect gained from others
- development of assertive skills
- learning what I like to do and what I don't like to do
- learning to budget time
- learning of new professional fields
- gaining experience in my career field
- overcoming shyness
- gaining friends
- boosting feelings of creativity
- learning to give and take
- showed me you have to work hard for what you want.

Stone (1980) has a similar list entitled, "Self-growth Experienced through Internships." Laramie (1980) lists development gained by students from work experience and translates his list into "learning objectives for work assignments as curricula components."

Work, then, is of developmental value for students, as well as useful for career development and as a source of income. Students begin to understand work as a process and themselves as producer in that process. They begin to understand the relationship of work to society and to understand themselves as a worker. They grow in ways that are not generally available through academic and social experiences alone.

There can be some negative effects of employment for the college student. Work can be as tedious, boring, and exhausting for the student worker as it sometimes is for workers in other situations. Hours spent on the job can take time away from other activities and can interfere with studying. In particular, work over 25 hours per week can be counterproductive to other goals of the typical student (Astin, 1975). The full-time worker who is also a full-time student is in a stressful situation; however, every student affairs worker knows of people who maintained both roles exceptionally well.

HOW WORK BENEFITS THE INSTITUTION

The actual work accomplished is a prime benefit for the institution, and employment of students provides a cost-effective labor source. Minimal fringe benefits for part-time workers is one such cost savings; another is flexibility in scheduling so that only the periods of actual work needs are covered by paid hours of work. In addition to cost considerations, it is the author's opinion that student workers are compatible with campus clientele and productivity levels are high at routine tasks as well as at complex responsibilities.

Using student workers builds and maintains a sense of community. This is a great benefit to the institution as it seeks to carry out its unique mission. The sense of community becomes an institutional benefit for retention of students and, at the same time, a benefit to the individual student.

Student and staff interaction are primary means for the development of a sense of community. More than just the academic experience relates to the development of this community spirit. Jobs on campus are one means of building community as students interact with "significant others" beyond the classroom walls. Adults and fellow students are known as co-workers as well as classroom authorities and classmates. Familiarity with others on campus almost always breeds positive virtues and creates a sense of belonging that can overcome other unsatisfactory aspects on campus. A positive work situation and positive reinforcement for a job well done helps students to feel good about themselves and about their environment (McKenzie, 1981). As Noel (1975) states, "A job can provide a meaningful kind of participation and a feeling of belonging, of involvement, a feeling of contribution, on the part of the student" (p. 388).

This sense of community, similar to what Noel (1975) terms a "staying environment," leads directly into another major benefit of student employment to the institution, namely that of retention. With projected student populations decreasing and costs increasing, retention is a major concern for almost all campuses.

Retention research increasingly focuses on the interaction between student characteristics and environmental characteristics, particularly as this interaction serves to build a feeling of belonging and involvement on the part of the student. In his comprehensive review of retention research, Tinto (1975) reports that persistence in college directly relates to the degree of integration and harmony between the student and the environment. It follows that student employment can increase this harmony and translate into student satisfaction. "Student employment is a potentially powerful tool in the continuing process of meeting students' changing educational and personal needs" (McKenzie, 1981, p. 42). Bazin and Brooks (1981) state that "available research supports that the retention and success of students are linked to 'meaningful involvements' while in school. Work experiences rank as one of the most common and productive involvements for all college students" (p. 8). Among others who suggest increased on-campus part-time employment as an institutional action to promote retention are Beal and Noel (1979), Lanning et. al (1980), and Ramist (1981).

Noel (1975) states that, "A student job can provide the kind of involvement and reinforcement that is so necessary to student satisfaction. The daily contact between some significant individual on that campus and the student can make the difference. Just reflect for a moment on the social/psychological needs of students--feelings of belonging, personal worth, positive identity, high self-esteem. These are characteristics of a staying environment, and can be related to the student employment setting. It is not surprising to find that there is a relationship between student employment and student holding power" (p. 393).

Noel then adds a cautionary note that "unfortunately, there are some campuses across this nation where student employment is contributing more to the holding power of students than are the faculty--a frightening observation" (p. 385).

Specific research studies relating student employment to retention have appeared in recent literature. The most extensive study is that by Alexander Astin (1975), reported in the book, *Preventing Students from Dropping Out*. Over 40,000 students were surveyed on factors related to college attrition. Among the findings are that part-time work (under 25 hours per week) facilitates student persistence. In other words, having a job usually increases the students' chances of finishing college. In terms of retention part-time work is an improvement over no work at all, with dropout probabilities decreasing by 10 to 15 percent for the student worker. This positive impact of campus employment does not depend on the type of work, particularly whether or not it is related to academic studies. The degree of job satisfaction likewise has little effect on persistence.

Factors which may have accounted for the positive effect on retention found by Astin are posited as 1) economic--security brought by the financial rewards of work, and 2) psychological--greater involvement with campus life.

Full-time work led to negative effects on retention in Astin's study, especially when the student was working full-time off campus. Other research that indicates both full-time employment and employment that conflicts with class schedules can lead students to drop out of college has been reported by Albina (1973), Martin (1975), Bucks County Community College (1973), and Thurston and Brainard (1973).

Weiger, as reported by Noel (1975), studied both persistors, and dropouts at Nebraska Wesleyan University and, from their responses, reported that 67 percent of those who stayed in school said that student employment was a significant factor in their ultimate persistence. Of all the questions asked, the largest difference in responses between persistors and dropouts was on the item of who held a part-time job; two persistors to every one dropout had been employed part-time while in college.

In another single institution study on student attrition, Everett (1979) concluded that at Penn State, part-time jobs on campus contributed to retention.

Inadequate part-time employment was included as one of the negative campus characteristics relating to attrition, as indicated by respondents from 947 institutions participating in the national survey reported by Beal and Noel (1979).

Noel (1978) ties together the development and the retention of college students by stating: "There is nothing magical about retaining students. Gimmicks or tricks of the trade will not work over an extended period of time. Students will tend to persist if the institution is delivering lively, exciting learning and growth experiences. Students want help in finding and developing their talents. They want to sense that they are learning, that they are growing and fulfilling dreams, and that they are retaining intellectually and personally. Therefore, to an institution, retaining students means more and better teaching in the classroom, more and better counseling in the counseling offices, more and better opportunities for students to participate in out-of-class activities. It means doing a better job of all the things that make up a campus. Helping students grow to completeness is what it is all about" (p. 98).

SUMMARY

The facilitation of students' entry into a wide range of work experiences has value to the individual student and value to the institution. For the student, increased financial resources, career growth, and development challenges are the prime values. For the institution, the work done by the students, the development of a sense of community, and the retention of students are values fostered by student employment. The task, then, for the student affairs practitioner becomes one of expanding jobs for college students and making work opportunities widely available.

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SURVEY OF SEXUAL ATTITUDES
AND
BEHAVIORS OF POTSDAM COLLEGE STUDENTS

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Review of the Literature

In what has become a classic study of American sexual behaviors, Reiss (1960) predicted that there would be a significant rise in premarital sexuality, particularly for females, and that there would be a move towards a single premarital sexual standard, a "permissiveness with affection" norm. That is, given strong affection or love, emotional involvement or commitment, premarital intercourse would become acceptable for both males and females. Twenty-three years and a "sexual revolution" later, Reiss's two hypotheses have been supported by numerous studies of college students' sexual behavior.

Over the past several decades, students from private and public, liberal secular and religious, large university centers and small, four-year arts colleges across the country have been queried about their sexual behaviors and attitudes (e.g. Spreadbury 1982; King, Balwick and Robinson 1977; Heit and Adesso 1978; Luckey and Nass 1969). A perusal of these studies which date from 1938 (Bromley and Britten) to 1983 (Hendrick and Hendrick 1983) indicates that the incidence of premarital intercourse has increased from 50 percent to 83 percent for males and from 25 percent to 84 percent for females. Since 1960, when Reiss's work was published, the increase ranges from 58 percent to 83 percent for males and from 43 percent to 84 percent for females (Luckey and Nass 1969; King and Sobel 1975; McBride and Ender 1977; Finger 1975; Kats and Davis 1970; Bell and Chaskes 1970). The more drastic increase has involved the incidence of premarital sexuality for females.

Do these figures also indicate, then, as is periodically reported in the popular press, that college students engage in casual or promiscuous (i.e. non-involved, emotionally detached) sexual behavior? According to those studies which specifically addressed college students' attitudes toward sex and perceptions of their own and their peers' behavior, the response to this question is decidedly "no" (e.g. Hendrick and Hendrick 1983; Baumann and Wilson 1976). While most college students have engaged in or engage in premarital sex, it is with the concomitant belief in a "permissiveness with affection" norm; that is, sexual intercourse is acceptable in the context of a love relationship, commitment, or strong affection toward one's partner (Nutt and Sedlacek 1974; Katts and Davis 1972; Perlman 1974; Laner, Laner and Palmer 1978; Lewis and Burr 1975). This value is expressed consistently by both the males and females studied (Spredbury 1982; Hendrick and Hendrick 1983; King and Sobel 1975; Laner, Laner and Palmer 1978 etc.).

From a review of some of the research, it can be shown that women in general are less permissive than men, especially when little or no affection exists between the couple (Ferrell, Talone and Walsh 1977; Bender 1973; Mercer and Kohn 1979; Ridley and Avery 1979). Women, more so than men, also appear to be more negatively judgmental toward other women when permissiveness exists without affection (Murstein and Holder 1979). This is an important point in that it indicates that women, not men, hold the line against generalized permissive sexual behavior, and therefore perpetuate a double standard relative to emotionally uninvolved sex.

In the light of these findings, this study examines current trends in our college students' sexual behavior relative to the permissiveness with affection norm, non-promiscuous sexual interaction, and a female-based double standard regarding non-emotionally involved sex.

The Hypotheses of Interest

The present study examined the following hypotheses:

- (1) Our present sample of upper-division college students (sophomores, juniors, and seniors) are sexually active.
- (2) Their sexual activity can, to a great extent, be described as conforming to the dictates of our culture's traditional male-female double standard of sexual permissiveness, with the female "holding the line."
- (3) The most commonly reported relationship will be heterosexual and monogamous. Promiscuity will be eschewed.
- (4) In a relationship which has been defined as love-based, sexual permissiveness is the rule.

Methods

The present study utilized a traditional paper - and - pencil questionnaire to gather both behavioral and attitudinal data from a large sample of upper-division undergraduates. The specifics regarding both this questionnaire and the subject sample are outlined below.

The data concerning the sample's differential response to the questionnaire items by sex were analyzed using Chi Square procedures. Yates' correction for continuity was applied where any cell frequency was less than ten and where any problem with one degree of freedom was being analyzed.

Questionnaire

A 109 item questionnaire was drawn from the Masculinity-Femininity scale (scale 5) of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Hathaway and McKinley 1943) and Reiss's (1967) Scale of Premarital Sexual Permissiveness. Additional items were composed in response to hypotheses developed through the author's reading of Koestenbaum's (1974) Existential Sexuality.

The questionnaire was administered to all students registered for seven sections of Anthropology 150 and Human Sexuality, taught at the State University College of Arts and Science at Potsdam, New York during fall semesters, 1981 and 1982 and spring semester, 1982. The questionnaires were administered on the first class day of each of these semesters.

Subjects

Subjects in this study were 377 male (N=142) and female (N=235) upper-division students registered for the human sexuality class. More than half of both male and female students were 20 or 21 years of age when they completed the questionnaire. About 70 percent of these students reported living on campus and having decided on their academic major. Nearly half of the male respondents indicated a mathematics or computer science major while nearly 40 percent of the female students endorsed a major in the social sciences.

Results

The questionnaire data strongly supported the first hypothesis regarding student sexual activity. A full 48 percent of the male and 35 percent of the female students had experienced sexual intercourse by the age of 17. By the age of 20, these percentages had escalated to 85 percent and 73 percent for the male and female students respectively. Only 14 percent of the males and 23 percent of the females stated they were virgins at the time they completed the questionnaire.

On an attitudinal level, 88 percent of the males and 79 percent of the females disagreed with the statement, "I believe that as a rule of thumb, it is better that sexual intercourse be reserved for marriage."

In terms of modes of sexual expression alternative to sexual intercourse, students similarly expressed considerable experience. When asked, "What has been your experience with oral-genital sex," 81 percent of the males and 75 percent of the females indicated having both given and received such stimulation.

Particularly interesting was an item which asked students to reveal which of a series of sexual activities provided them the most pleasure. While both males and females endorsed the same kinds of sexual activities, their preferred behaviors varied as indicated in Chart I.

Other areas of sexual behavior examined included involvement in unusual sexual practices, the ability to give up sex, whether one is a prisoner of one's sexual feelings, frequency of masturbation, age of first orgasm, first sexual experience, and use of a partner as a sex object. For each of these behaviors, there was a significant difference at minimally the .001 level between the male's and female's responses. Consistently, on these dimensions, males more often said they engaged in unusual sexual behaviors, could not give up sex, were prisoners of their sexual feelings, masturbated more often, experienced an orgasm at an earlier age, had a "fantastic" first sexual experience, and used their partners as sexual objects than did the females. (Chart II) Clearly males saw themselves as more sexually oriented along these specific dimensions than did their female peers. Many of these behaviors reflected a belief in a double standard and presexual revolution behaviors.

Areas of sexual behavior which showed no significant differences between male and females included sensuality. Both sexes enjoyed giving and receiving massages, talking about sex, believed they were able to receive love and affection from another, and endorsed monogamy. (Chart III)

Attitudinally, our respondents similarly supported the double standard in some respects and the "permissiveness with affection" norm in other areas. Significant differences between male and female attitudes at minimally the .01 level were again reported relative to the following items outlined in Chart IV. At this time, we are not interested in the causal attributes such as socialization, peer pressure, familial and media influences for these differences, but in what our respondents currently are thinking, doing and feeling sexually. The responses to these four items definitely reflect a double standard of thinking in these areas.

Using key items from Reiss's scale relative to premarital petting and intercourse with and without affection for males and females, the following findings are reported. Both males and females accept males petting before marriage when strong affection exists. However, there were significant differences between the males' and females' responses regarding premarital petting and intercourse when strong affection by either partner was lacking. Consistently, males accepted for themselves and their female peers more premarital petting and intercourse regardless of the degree of affection. Conversely, females significantly less (.01) often than the males accepted premarital petting and intercourse without affection for both males and females, as well as premarital intercourse and petting with affection for the female. Women were significantly more conservative than men relative to premarital sexual behavior for every behavior tested except premarital petting with affection for males. Females hold the line relative to permissiveness and the double standard. As long as these differences exist between males and females, and females remain more sexually conservative than the males, we predict a maintenance of the double standard relative to these behaviors.

Summary and Conclusions

A 109 item sex attitude and behavior questionnaire was administered to 377 single undergraduate men (N=142) and women (N=235) enrolled in a human sexuality class during the fall '81, '82, and spring '82 semesters. In general Reiss's hypothesis that a move to a single sexual standard of "permissiveness with affection" norm was supported. On this dimension, our sample is similar to many other samples of college students studied over the past twenty years.

By examining male-female responses to twenty specific items regarding sexual conservatism and relationships, we found our students to be basically conservative and non-promiscuous. Monogamous, affection-to-love based relationships were important to both men and women. While men were more willing to engage in sexual activities of all kinds without affection, women held the line at "permissiveness with affection." Behaviorally, our sample of women upheld the double standard when affection was lacking. In general, neither men nor women identified themselves as promiscuous (i.e. having casual sex with several partners).

We believe these findings are pertinent to the education and work situations of college student personnel. Relationships are important to undergraduates. As such, relationship success or problems may affect academic performance and social adjustment. It is suggested that relationships counseling be part of the formal training of college student personnel and that they be sensitive to and aware of student love relationships when working with their clients. Future research in this area could include an examination of the developmental readiness of undergraduates for the kinds of relationships in which they are involved.

CHART I

ACTIVITY	PREFERRED MALE %	PREFERRED FEMALE %
penile-vaginal intercourse	41	non-genital kissing and caressing 33
partner orally stimulates genitals	19	penile-vaginal intercourse 23
non-genital kissing and caressing	10	partner orally stimulates genitals 20

CHART II

BEHAVIOR	MALE RESPONSE %	FEMALE RESPONSE%
Engaged in unusual sexual behavior	54	29
Could not give up sex	75	51
Prisoner of one's sexual feelings	21	5
Never masturbated	17	56
Masturbated 1 week	29	3
Age of first orgasm		
Never	1	17
7 - 12 years old	20	3
13 - 15 years old	50	10
Fantastic first sexual experience	32	12
Use their partners as a sex object	49	16

CHART III

BEHAVIOR/ATTITUDE	% MALE ENDORSE	% FEMALE ENDORSE
I desire love	96	97
I am capable of loving in a spiritual and emotional sense	97	98
I am not currently sexually involved	39	33
I am sexually monogamous	57	66
I am sexually involved with more than one person	11	5
I am sexually involved with many people	4	1

CHART IV		
ATTITUDE	% MALE SUPPORT	% FEMALE SUPPORT
Playboy and other magazines have made a significant contribution to the sexual lives of men and women	62	34
Premarital cohabitation is acceptable	78	62
society "should be totally sexually permissive"	24	11
desirous of sex	90	66

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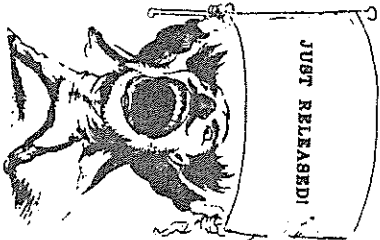
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