Demonstration of Meeting the 2014 Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs Core and the Student Affairs/College Counseling Specialty Standards via Five Major Artifacts

A graduate project submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Counseling, College Counseling and Student Services

By

Casimiro M. Tolentino

August 2015
The graduate project of Casimiro M. Tolentino is approved:

__________________________
Randy Lesko, M.A.          Date

__________________________
Shari Tarver-Behring, Ph.D. Date

__________________________
Merril A. Simon, Ph.D., Chair Date
# Table of Contents

Signature Page ii

Table of Contents iii

Abstract v

**Implementation of Sexual Identity Criteria in Freshman Seminar Courses that meets CACREP Standard Core 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Implications</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ethnic Development and Students of Color: The Correlation of Leadership Development that meets CACREP Standard Core 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Leadership Development Models for College Students</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Leadership Development on Students of Color</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Research</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Career Development Interventions for First-Generation College Students, that meets CACREP Standard Core 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Abstract

Demonstration of Meeting the 2014 Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs Core and the Student Affairs/College Counseling Specialty Standards via Five Major Artifacts

By

Casimiro M. Tolentino

Master of Science in Counseling, College Counseling and Student Services

As part of my culminating project for my master’s program of counseling with a specialization in college counseling and student services, I created independent papers that reviewed the response to prompts from the 2014 CACREP standards. The core standards that I address are social and cultural diversity, human growth and development, and career development. The specialty standards that I address are specialties D and F

For core standard 2, I address how new students entering college are going to go through a “culture shock” when they arrive on their respective campus. This is especially true for students who may be coming from small homogenous communities, who are then, confronted by the immense diversity those college campuses present to them. As a result, students may not handle the diversity very well. College and universities have dealt with aggression and even violence toward minority groups, especially the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) population. Based on the research that is presented, this paper proposes that incoming students would benefit from having a sexual identity component in their first year experience (FYE) courses. By doing so, students will gain a better understanding on the different experiences and emotions that LGBT students will go through each day. With the increase in empathy, this will encourage a more welcoming
campus environment and would lead to a decrease in acts of violence and aggression towards the LGBT population.

For core standard 3, I address how leadership development programs and services are beneficial for students of color as it allows them to gain various skills that would help them succeed not only after college but after graduation as well. In addition, there is a correlation with students of color who take on leadership roles have higher rates of academic success compared to those that do not. Another aspect is that it encourages exploration of the student's own ethnic identity. In this paper, Phinney's ethnic development theory and the social change model of leadership is used to analyze the correlation between the student’s leadership development and ethnic development and how affects retention.

For core standard 4, I address how college counselors and student affairs professionals should encourage more career development for first-generation college students during their initial year in college. Using the social career cognitive theory, I propose that they can do this by providing more interventions based on choosing a major and encouraging them to apply for internships. Also, helping them develop healthy coping strategies that will make transition to a professional life easier.

In the paper for specialty standard D, I address the increasing number of undocumented students are entering college in pursuit of a bachelor’s degree as a result of the passage of legislation such as California’s AB 540 and DREAM Act in some states. It is essential for student affairs professionals to be prepared for their increasing numbers. This paper addresses the needs of undocumented students having limited access to entering four-year institutions immediately after high school due to financial limitations. In addition, the impact of the stigmatization and shame associated with the uncertainty of their legal status
will be explored as well as how it affects their social identity and their self-image.

Schlossberg's theory of Marginality and Mattering will be used to guide the research.

Finally for specialty Standard F, I addressed how student affairs professionals should provide substance abuse prevention programs and interventions to student veterans. This student population is particularly susceptible because of the difficulties it faces as they transition from a strict military life to a less structured civilian and college one. One difficulty that they may be challenged by is post-traumatic stress disorder. In order to cope they may turn to abusing substances such as alcohol or illicit drugs. Using the Schlossberg's Transition model, interventions and programs can be implemented to help them. Once they are implemented the substance abuse rates among this student population should decrease and their retention and success rates should rise.
Implementation of Sexual Identity Criteria in Freshman Seminar Courses

Introduction

Students who identify themselves as lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender (LGBT) face an incredible amount of adversity because of cultural, societal, and institutional discrimination based on their sexual orientation. In a report by Marzullo and Libman for the Human Rights Campaign, sexual orientation is the third highest motivator for hates crimes at seventeen percent behind race and religion-based hate crimes. The LGBT community most commonly faces physical assault and intimidation (Marzullo & Libman, 2009).

According to this report, hate crimes against LGBT individuals occurs eleven percent of the time at school or college campuses, (2009). Unfortunately, because of the elevated risk, many LGBT people live in fear of violence against them. Specifically 20 percent of gay men and 27 percent of lesbians are concerned with their safety (Marzullo & Libman, 2009).

Other alarming statistics compiled by Marzullo and Libman (2009) concern LGBT youth, who reportedly have experienced more sexual abuse compared to their heterosexual counterparts. Surveys of high school students found that girls identifying as bisexual ranged from 24 to 40 percent, and lesbians had a range of 18 to 43 percent compared to heterosexual girls who were at 14 to 27 percent. For boys who identified as bisexual, they had a 15 to 31 percent range, and gay boys had a 17 to 31 percent range, compared to 3 to 6 percent in heterosexual boys (Marzullo & Libman, 2009). This is concerning for student affairs professionals especially those who may be in student housing or residence halls because of students who exhibit symptoms and unhealthy coping mechanisms. As a result, past sexual abuse can manifest itself in many ways such as: substance abuse, suicide ideation and other high-risk behaviors, when the student makes the transition to college life.
Researchers Lance (2008) does into detail about the social inequality that LGBT students face when they step foot onto campus. LGBT issues have always had a presence on campuses albeit, a lot more invisible since a majority of LGBT students most likely stayed “hidden in the closet” when it came to their sexual orientation. However, this has slowly changed when the American Psychiatric Association no longer considered Homosexuality an illness (Lance, 2008). Instead of focusing on what was considered “wrong” with people who identified as LGBT, it was reversed and focused on what was “wrong” with those who held homophobic beliefs (Lance, 2008). The term homophobia refers to “describe the discomfort thought to be gay, lesbian, or bisexual” while heterosexism refers to the belief that the ideal is that all people are or should be heterosexual (Lance, 2008).

Lance (2008) posits that both heterosexism and homophobia is learned early in life, when the student is in primary school. Other factors that contribute towards the prevalence homophobia include the less educated, being an evangelical Christian, politically conservative, male and certain ethnic backgrounds (Lance 2008). Individuals who carry these beliefs exhibit a discomfort not only with individuals who identify as LGBT but behaviors and characteristics that are stereotypically associated with the community and culture. Other examples include effeminate behavior in males or masculine behavior in females (Lance, 2008). Homophobia is found more in men compared to women, most likely because of traditional societal value of masculine characteristics. (Lance, 2008).

Attitudes toward LGBT individuals and their community have been trending more positive the past few decades. For example, according to the Human Rights Campaign, 68 percent of people support including sexual orientation and gender identity in federal hates crimes law in 2007 (Mardullo & Libman). Despite this change in perspective the adversity and discrimination have become more convert with students facing the use of microaggressions against them. Unlike overt forms of discrimination such as hate crimes or
violence that convey clear message or motive, researchers Shelton and Delgado-Romero (2011) describe microaggressions "as communications of prejudice and discrimination expressed through seemingly meaningless and unharful tactics" that an be used to "deliver a denigrating, hostile or negative message about a person or a group (Shelton and Delgado-Romero, 2011). It should be noted that well-intentioned individuals normally use microaggressions with no maliciousness involved. However, it still gives the impression that certain marginalized groups are inferior compared to the dominant groups. (Shelton & Delgado-Romero, 2011).

Research compiled by Shelton and Delgado-Romero (2011) describes three types of microaggressions: microassaults, microinsults, and microinvalidations. Microassaults are designed to intentionally insult and marginalize a certain individual or group. Individuals who engage in such behavior do so because there are three conditions that offer them some protection from any consequences or repercussions. For example, someone can use microassault when their identity is protected such as using a screen name on an Internet chat room or message board. Another is when one feels they are amongst a group who share the same biased views and are willing to share them. The third one has to with control; when the individual out of control, their biased views may come out (Shelton & Delgado-Romero, 2011).

Microinsults, according to Shelton and Delgado-Romero (2011) are gestures and verbal slights that further isolate and marginalize a group. It usually occurs outside of the individual’s awareness but still communicates rudeness and insensitivity to a particular group (Shelton & Delgado-Romero, 2011). For example, one micro insult toward Asian Americans could be the question “aren’t you supposed to be good at math?”

The third condition is microinvalidations, which are used within one’s awareness and are used to ignore the reality that marginalized groups find themselves in. Shelton and
Delgado-Romero (2011) use an example of how women who do not tend to their upkeep in appearance are automatically considered lesbian (Shelton & Delgado-Romero). A microaggression that is very prevalent for LGBT college students to experience is the saying “that’s so gay.” This type of joke and slurs create a hostile environment that is not suitable appropriate for the college environment. Research compiled by Woodford, Howell, Kulick, and Silverschanz (2013) illustrates the negative impact it has on LGBT college students. For example, hearing those types of remarks leaves a negative impact on their levels of social acceptance and student engagement, and increased levels of anxiety. Furthermore, students described feeling left out socially on campus as well as experience physical ailments such as increased frequency of headaches and stomach pains (Woodford, Howell, Kulick and Silverschanz, 2013).

First year experience courses

First-Year Experience (FYE) courses according to researchers Purdie and Rosser (2011) are beneficial in the development, retention and academic success of college students. They cite statistics that report that 72 to 79 percent of first year college students remain in school and continue into their second year (Purdie & Rosser, 2011) FYE courses can be described as courses that intended to assist first-year college students make the transition from high school to college. Topics during these classes would cover learning and test-taking strategies, career and major exploration; personal finance and diversity would be discussed (Purdie & Rosser, 2011).

Theoretical Framework

In this paper, there are two theories that illustrate the importance of having a human sexuality component that would discourage negative thoughts and attitudes towards LGBT individuals. The first is a gay and lesbian identity development theory from Vivienne Cass (1984) that would be used in the course to educate students on how sexual
identities are formed. The second is the theory of intellectual and ethical development by William Perry. Since most first year college students enter school with a dualistic mindset, this theory lays the groundwork on how FYE courses could move them to the next stages where they are more accepting of other individuals experiences and points of view.

The process of realizing and forming a sexual identity in the face of tremendous cultural, societal and institutional adversity can be very difficult for LGBT students. Vivienne Cass (1984) came up with a theoretical model that illustrates the process. At the time, her theory was groundbreaking because it focused the individuals experience and their perception of themselves. In addition, Cass's theory was the first to not show LGBT identity as a negative. Her theory is based primarily on the experiences of those realizing their LGBT identity as they change from their previous heterosexual self and can be applied to both males and females (Cass, 1984).

Cass's (1984) model of sexual identity formation is split into six stages: identity confusion, identity comparison, identity tolerance, identity acceptance, identity pride, and identity synthesis. It should be noted that at each stage the individual is able to choose different directions including foreclosure development (Cass, 1984). First with identity confusion, an individual may start to recognize that he or she's behavior can be construed as LGBT. With this new realization, Cass explains that there are three directions that the individual can go from there. He or she will either negatively or positively consider this notion or reject it completely, which would foreclose on further development (Cass, 1984).

If the individual considers this possibility, he or she would proceed to the identity comparison stage. At this time, the individual begins to feel the alienation from others who identify as heterosexual. In order to cope with the increasing alienation and possibly lessen it, the individual may consider spending more with LGBT individuals in order to satisfy their social, emotional, and sexual needs (Cass, 1984).
During identity tolerance stage, the individual’s LGBT self-image is tolerated but not yet completely accepted. This stage depends on whether or not the association with other LGBT individuals is positive or negative. He or she may start disclosing their LGBT identity in a limited capacity. For example, he or she may begin to adopt dual identities maintaining their heterosexual identity publicly, and an LGBT one privately (Cass, 1984).

Further contact with the LGBT community and its culture allows for a more positive outlook for the individual and opportunity to build their own network of friends that would act as he or she’s own support system. They begin to disclose to close friends and relatives about their new LGBT identity (Cass, 1984). As they move into the fifth stage of Identity pride, they begin to develop a loyalty to the LGBT community. So much so that it leads to more disclosure and confrontation with non-LGBT individuals. They may become mobilized and actively confront the oppression that the LGBT community faces (Cass, 1984).

The last stage, identity synthesis, individuals start to see their own identity as a whole. Instead of being defined only by their LGBT identity, they start to see it as one of many aspects that make up their own identity as a whole. They combine their own assessment of themselves as well as what they believe others think of them and combine them and form their own identity that is both private and public. A result of this inner peace is an individual’s stability and a fully realized formation of identity (Cass, 1984).

Another theory that will be used in this paper is Perry’s theory of intellectual and ethical development. Finster (1989) describes Perry’s theory as a way to illustrate how college students evolve during their initial years in college to when they graduate. In Perry’s theory, there are nine positions that can be put into four categories: dualism, multiplicity, relativism and commitment to relativism. Dualism can be described as college students viewing the world as right and wrong or we and they with nothing in between. Multiplicity is when students begin to have more diverse opinions. Relativism is the stage where
students begin to acknowledge that knowledge is based on one’s context and is relative. Lastly, in commitment to relativism, students become fully aware and accept relativism as their primary mode of thinking (Finster, 1989). The students who would be taking an FYE course would be in the dualistic stage of Perry’s theory.

Literature Review

The literature compiled has done some research that has focused on the effects of diversity education in first year classrooms, but not necessarily FYE courses. In addition, some of the literature covers the influences of a sexual identity formation courses on college students.

As previously mentioned Woodford and other researchers (2013) found that primarily college students who were younger and male used the usage of the microaggressions such as “that’s so gay”. One reason is the prevalence of anti-LGBT norms among an individual’s friends and family. In order to get a better understanding of this phenomenon, they developed a study that would investigate the factors associated with the usage of the phrase such as opinions of the acceptability of LGBT sexuality and comfort around persons with atypical gender expression (Woodford et al., 2013).

For their research, Woodford and others (2013) collected data from 2,568 students from a public university in the Midwest that offered courses and other programming that encouraged respect diversity. Through an Internet survey, the students were asked about the campus climate focusing on student well-being, experiencing and witnessing heterosexist harassment, and social attitudes (Woodford et al., 2013).

Woodford and company's (2013) findings highlighted that the usage of “that’s so gay” by heterosexual male students because of select attitudes and factors. For example, the ideal of the traditional gender roles especially the masculine identity seemed to prevail with some students describing their discomfort with men who displayed feminine tendencies
(Woodford et al., 2013). The researchers speculate that at an early age, children, especially males, were raised with strict gender norms and were conditioned to believe that men are not supposed act effeminate. When they grow up male college students bring these attitudes to their college campuses (Woodford et al., 2013).

Another finding that Woodford and others (2013) found was that the more an individual heard “that’s so gay,” the more it encouraged the usage of the term amongst others. However they also speculate that students show an increase in its usage because they are attempting to conform with their peers and use the dominant language and phrases as well a replicating others behavior, instead of internally having biases against LGBT individuals (Woodford et al., 2013).

In contrast to this finding, Woodford and others (2013) found that students who had more LGBT acquaintances tended not use the expression as often. They speculate that social acceptance may play a role, in that the individual is hesitant to use the phrase at risk of being considered homophobic or heterosexist. They may analyze the consequences and negative repercussions of such usage. For example, they may wonder how their LGBT friends may respond if they had heard them say it (Woodford, 2013).

As previously mentioned, colleges and universities around the country provide FYE courses for students that focus on their transition to college (Purdie & Rosser, 2011). Researchers such as Lee, Williams, and Kilaberia (2012) have investigated how effective diversity education is for students during their first year. The courses are very useful because it disrupts the segregation that tends to be established amongst first year students and encourage intergroup collaboration and interactions (Lee, Williams, & Kilaberia, 2012). At first students will have their own skillset and habits, but with an FYE course these innate behaviors will be challenged with new contexts and more interaction with social groups (Lee et al., 2012). They first define education in three approaches. First is structural
diversity i.e. the campus demographics; interactional diversity, which are deliberate and facilitated interactions with structural diversity; and curricular diversity such as diverse ideas and peers in a classroom. They go onto describe differences in diversity can be categorized as individual with personality and learning styles and group with race/ethnicity, religion etc. (Lee et al., 2012).

Lee and his fellow researchers (2012) research consisted of a case study in which students had to complete three assignments that would encourage their diversity competencies. The first assignment was a biographical assignment that required being self-reflective about their own identity, experiences and values and then sharing it with their classmates (Lee et al., 2012).

The second assignment consisted of the instructor assigning a common book for the class to read and then discuss in class. Through the class discussions, the students have the opportunity to gain a better “understanding of how values and perspectives are shaped by an individual’s complex history and identity” (Lee et al., 2012, p. 207). Students described how they were encouraged to understand issues that were not necessarily part of their own experiences and becoming self-aware of relevancy of connecting the histories, issues and experiences of others (Lee et al., 2012).

The third assignment Lee and others (2012) describe as a “high-stakes collaborative project, which is a capstone project that includes research on a specific topic, a group presentation and an individual paper (Lee et al., 2012). The main benefit that students would gain from this experience is the development of their interpersonal skills. Student would be working with others over an extended period of time, thus developing their interpersonal skills (Lee et al., 2012).

Lee and his fellow researchers (2012) uncovered how beneficial a FYE course can be actively engaging for students and promote their development by addressing the previously
mentioned types of diversity: structural diversity, interactional diversity and curricular diversity. When analyzing the data from their study, they started to identify three factors that were fundamental to the diversity in the classroom, which are classroom climate, facilitated and frequent interaction across diversity, and reflection (Lee et al., 2012).

On the subject of classroom climate, the students that Lee and others (2012) studied described the benefits of peer interactions. For a majority of them, the biography project allowed students think non-dualistically by allowing them to identify with their classmates unique experiences, identities and points of view. They reported that the activity allowed them to humanize complicated unfamiliar concepts. Through interaction with peers, it encouraged students' levels of anxiety to decrease and provided a model of openness and effective counseling skills (Lee et al., 2012). Students also expressed positive experiences when assigned to working groups that were given clear goals and how they were related to the course. Lee and others state that "it allowed students to have “opportunities to listen to and engage multiple perspectives and experiential knowledge, which...increased their openness to engaging diversity and their confidence in effectively communicating with diverse individuals. Finally, with formal reflection it allowed students contemplate on their interactions with their classmates and experiences with the course content (Lee et al., 2012).

In another journal article Rogers, McRee and Arnt, proposed that reduction of negative thoughts towards LGBT individuals could be reached through the completion of a human sexuality course. When gathering information for their study Rogers and company (2009) they found that there were several characteristics that correlated to homophobia: gender, sexual knowledge, adherence to traditional gender roles, and levels of religiosity and erotophobia (Rogers et al., 2009).
For gender, Rogers and others (2009) compiled data that describes the higher ratio of homophobia in heterosexual men compared to heterosexual women. Specifically, heterosexual males in their late teens to early twenties are more likely to display violence toward homosexual individuals. In addition, heterosexual men’s homophobic behavior and thoughts, correlated to gender as well, with more negative attitudes toward gay men compared to lesbians. On the other hand heterosexual women’s attitudes do not change greatly. (Rogers et al., 2009)

In terms of sexual knowledge, Rogers and others (2009) illustrated that those who have scarce sexual knowledge are more likely to have homophobic beliefs. They reason that these individuals are exposed to inaccurate information through the media and pop culture (Rogers et al, 2009)

In terms of traditional gender roles, Rogers (2009) and his fellow researchers, identified the correlation between those that held to the traditional gender role beliefs were more likely to have negative attitudes toward LGBT individuals. This is especially true for heterosexual males who are determined to be “hyper-masculine” meaning they have “an unusually strong psychological investment in the traditional male roles (Rogers et al., 2009).

As for religiosity, Rogers (2009) and others identified that having a conservative Christian ideology tends to promote negative attitudes about homosexuality. With erotophobia, which refers to those that respond negatively to sexual cues. The reasoning behind this is that these individuals tend to express feelings of guilt when they experience fantasies and engaging in sexual activity (Rogers et al., 2009).

In order to gather data for their study, Rogers (2009) and the other researchers gathered information through the use of questionnaires (one pre-assessment and the other post-assessment) for 128 students who were taking an upper division elective human
sexuality course. It focused primarily on multiple perspectives about human sexuality with an emphasis on body image, sexuality and culture. Other course objectives were to “increase students’ understanding their own values regarding sexuality; increase students’ ability to use knowledge to reduce discrimination, increase respect, and enhance diversity; and improving students’ advocacy skills to advance tolerance. They took the information and compared it to a comparison group that did not take the course (Rogers et al., 2009).

The results from Rogers (2009) and other’s research is that students who even enrolled in a sexuality course displayed low homophobic thoughts. The reasoning is that the students enrolled in the course would know specifically that it would focus on issues of sexuality by reading the course description (Rogers et al., 2009). Another research question asked whether the results course would decrease homophobic attitudes. The results illustrated that there was not a correlation between taking the course and a decrease of homophobic mentality. The reasoning that Rogers (2009) and others use is that the students in the comparison group may have overestimated. Despite this they believe that a curriculum of sexuality education is feasible in reducing homophobic attitudes because it provides accurate information about sexuality and opportunities for heterosexual students to interact and have a healthy dialogue with members of the LGBT community (Rogers et al., 2009).

Discussion

The research cited has illustrates the need for sexual identity formation in FYE courses because it will reduce the number of reported incidents of violence and aggression towards the LGBT population on college campuses. Incoming first year college students who possess dualistic mindsets and may be coming from small homogenous communities, and will most likely experience a culture shock when they arrive to a larger, more diverse college environment. In order to counter this, educators should implement a sexual identity
component within the existing FYE curriculum. Research has shown that different classroom activities would encourage first year students to start thinking from other points of views and experiences of individuals that are different from their own.

For example, Woodford (2013) and other researchers illustrated some microaggressions such as the term “that's so gay” can lead to the increase of hostility and even violence towards LGBT individuals (Woodford et al., 2013). FYE courses with a human sexuality component would increase empathy within students by humanizing LGBT issues and struggles. The courses will encourage the interaction of heterosexual students and LGBT students. The increased interaction will change the way student socialize and will allow the students to develop interpersonal skills. As previously stated, with the increase of usage of “that’s so gay” the more likely others will use it because they want to conform socially. (Woodford et al., 2013) However, social acceptance is a factor when students who have numerous LGBT acquaintances will not use the phrase because of possible social repercussions (Woodford et al., 2013). With this increase in empathy toward others, there should be a decrease in microaggressions toward the LGBT population and improve the overall campus climate.

Future implications

As previously cited, Lee (2012) and his other researchers described uses of classroom activities in order to increase diversity amongst first year students during an FYE course. Other researchers have come up with other activities that could prove useful if sexual identity formation becomes part of a FYE course. In addition to those activities researchers such as Henderson and Murlock (2011) propose using guided imagery.

Henderson and Murlock (2011) designed a guided imagery activity and how it could be used to challenge negative attitudes toward LGBT individuals. Guided imagery can be described as an exercise that is “verbally introduced by a the teacher/guide as a narrative
of thoughts and suggestions that guide the listener's or learner's imagination (Henderson & Murlock, 2011). The activity allows heterosexual students to experience what it means to be LGBT in today's society. The narrative would allow them to experience the personal, institutional and social stigmas that are would be unique to LGBT students. By doing so the guided imagery would connect those experiences to their own personal feelings and emotions, thus encouraging to move on from dualistic thinking (Henderson & Murlock, 2011).

Limitations

Limitations of the study is that most of research depends on how the demographics of the college or university setting from which the research took place. For example, most of the research was done in on college campuses that were in rural settings. In addition, some of the college campuses were Catholic or Christian oriented. This may have influenced some aspects of the studies. It would be useful for studies to be done on more diverse campuses, with larger populations or in urban settings.

Conclusion

Even though in today’s modern society more acceptance and empathy towards the LGBT community, which has been illustrated in a recent Supreme Court decision not to evaluate any court cases that challenged marriage equality in some states, thus making it legal for anyone to marry. This underlines the importance of college campuses of being the flashpoint in today's society where student affairs professionals can use the resources and theories at hand in order to reduce the oppression felt by many minority populations. By challenging first year students own prejudices and negative and false beliefs about LGBT population and allow them to develop more empathy. With more empathy, comes a decrease in violence and aggression on college campuses, which in turn would lead to a decrease in, hate crimes in today's society.
Introduction

According to statistics from the Department of Education, the enrollment and graduation rates of college students of color has been steadily increasing the past few decades. According to the data collected, from 1976-2011, out of the 21 million students enrolled at degree-granting institutions students of color proportions have increased.

College students that identified as Hispanic or Latino has increased from 4 percent to 14 percent; Asian American and Pacific Islander students went from 2 percent to 6 percent; Black students increased 10 to 15 percent; and American Indian/Alaska Native proportion increased from 0.7 percent to 0.9 percent. (http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=98) For degree earning, Black students earning associates degrees increased by 89 percent, 53 percent for Bachelor’s degrees, and 109 percent for master’s degrees. As for Hispanic or Latino Students, increased their numbers earning associates degrees by 118 percent, for bachelor’s degrees there was an increase by 87 percent, and 125 percent for Master’s degrees. According to the Gates Millennium Scholars (GMS) program that is sponsored by the Bill and Melinda gates Foundation found that student leaders of color are more likely to make contributions to their communities after graduation and are academically more successful compared to those that have not any leadership experience (Sedlacek & Hiu, 2004). In addition, leadership development programs and activities give students of colors the necessary tools, such as assertiveness, that will allow them to succeed not only in college but after graduation as well (Sedlacek & Hiu, 2004). Other researchers such as Dugan, Kodama
and Gebhardt (2012) have hypothesized that leadership experience for students of color is particularly helpful because it help students as they navigate societal and institutional systems that were designed to oppress them and to benefit those that were privileged (Dugan, Kodama, & Gebhardt). The purpose of this paper is to make the between leadership development programs that encourage ethnic development in students of color that leads to their retention and academic success.

Ethnic and Leadership Development Models for College Students

Phinney’s Ethnic Development Theory

There are various student development theories that highlight the importance of having student students of color and the formation of their own ethnic identity. One is the Jean Phinney’s (1996) ethnic development model. Phinney’s theory is made up of different stages that student of color experience in order to get fully understand their own ethnic group. The first stage is when the individual is not interested in knowing about his or her own ethnic group. There is no initiative into investigating the history or context of their ethnic group compared to the larger society. The information and attitudes are gathered through various sources such as family, other members of the same ethnicity, the media and peers. Depending on what information they receive positive, negative or a combination of both are made (Phinney, 1996).

The second stage occurs when the individual starts to investigate and begins to understand their ethnic group, its culture, history and the context compared to the larger dominant group in society. As they explore, they learn and experience discrimination. This typically stage occurs when a student of color initially matriculates into college (Phinney, 1996). According, to Phinney, the student of color begins to develop
resentment toward the dominant group. Furthermore, they may start to empathize with members of other minority ethnicities because of the shared experiences of oppression. During this stage, ethnic student organizations can spur the students’ development by advocating for their respective university to fund and develop ethnic based courses and programs, have guest speakers, activities and recognition for ethnic groups (Phinney, 1996).

The final stage, according to Phinney (1996), is when the individual becomes secure and confident with their ethnic development by developing a healthy positive but reasonable view of their ethnic group. It’s during this stage where the resentment toward the dominant group may subside and they are open to working with dominant group and other minority groups in order to accomplish similar social justice goals. On the other hand, the individual may “give up” and accept that nothing can be done in order to bring change (Phinney, 1996).

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

There have been many leadership models that were designed primarily to measure the merits of the college students’ leadership. One such model is the Social Change Model of Leadership development (SCM) which was first developed by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) for the University of California. The model is designed so that it can measure the development of leadership in all participants both traditional or formal leadership positions and nontraditional ones (HERI, 1996). It promotes a set of seven values and analyzes their interactions within the three levels of individual, group and community or society (HERI, 1996).
The individual values are conscious of self, congruence, and commitment (HERI, 1996). Consciousness of self is the student’s awareness of their own beliefs, values and attitudes that mobilize them (HERI, 1996). Congruence is the student acting and consistently within their own personal beliefs and values (HERI, 1996). Commitment is “inner drive” within an individual that spurs them serve and work collaboratively (HERI, 1996). In order to be effective all three of these values must be working intrinsically within the individual (HERI, 1996).

Group values are collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship (HERI, 1996). Collaboration refers to working with others on a common goal (HERI, 1996). The idea behind collaboration is that it amplifies the group’s effectiveness by using the different talents and viewpoints of each member. This diversity would allow for more creative solutions and outcomes (HERI, 1996). Common purpose refers to working with others with same viewpoints and values. It allows the group to analyze the issue or problem they are working on as a whole. It can encourage trust among its group members (HERI, 1996). Controversy with civility posits that there are two realities when it comes any kind of teamwork. On one hand, it is natural members to have opposing viewpoints or solutions to the same issue. On the other hand, those differences must be addressed openly and respectfully (HERI, 1996). Like values of the individual, all three-group values must be working together in order for group work to be effective (HERI, 1996).

For community or society, the only value it has is citizenship. It refers to the process in which the individual and the group are taking active roles in the community
and society that they inhabit. There is a focus on bringing positive change to the community by working on improving the lives of others (HERI, 1996).

The primary goals of SCM is to enhance student’s self-knowledge which would assist him or her in understanding their own values, interests and talents and how it can be applied leadership and their leadership competence, which would allow the students to find the initiative to serve and work collaboratively with others (HERI, 1996).

Peer Leadership Programs

According to researcher, Haber (2011), leadership programs can be defined as a “collection of activities or experiences intentionally designed with the purpose of developing or enhancing the leadership skills, knowledge or abilities of college students” (Haber, 2011). Particularly for a peer leadership programs it would also have the student leaders assist the development of other students’ skills (Haber, 2011). There are numerous reasons why peer education would be a benefit for all parties involved. Participants benefit from interaction with peer leaders since they provide a support system for younger students as they navigate a new college environment (Haber, 2011).

According to Haber (2011), there are numerous types of peer leadership programs and components. For example there, peer leadership councils in which gives older more experienced students a space where they can organize and develop leadership opportunities on campus (Haber, 2011). Then there are leadership classes where students can act as teaching assistants or discussion leaders for class credit (Haber, 2011). Leadership teams according to Haber are “learning communities of students that focus on the leadership through curriculum, discussions, activities, projects or other experiences.” Can be used in a retreat format (Haber, 2011). Furthermore, peer leaders
can gain experience by organizing workshops and conferences, mentoring programs and consulting services (Haber, 2011).

Impact of Leadership Development on students of color

There is increasing research into how student services or programs can be a benefit for students of color. One example is research of Dugan, Kodama, and Gehardt (2012) that examine the measure a student’s collective racial esteem (CRE) in order to get a better understanding how substantial how race and college leadership development correlate. There are two types of CRE: private and public. Private CRE refers to the member’s attitude toward their position in their ethnic group, while public CRE refers to how a member’s ethnic group is viewed by others (Dugan et al, 2012).

In addition to CRE, Dugan et al (2011) included the social change model of leadership development and social identity theory, which is used to investigate how one develops a sense of belonging to their specific social groups (Dugan, 2011). In their quantitative study, their findings pointed out that “internally validated racial self-concept was a significant contributor to leadership capacity” (Dugan et al., 2012, p. 184). They cite other research that this leads to a stronger social and political consciousness, which can be connected to Phinney’s theory, particularly in the final stage, when the student of color becomes secure and confident in their ethnic identity. It shows that strengthening one’s racial and ethnic identity provides more a positive outcome (Dugan et al., 2012).

Another finding that was uncovered by Dugan (2012) and his fellow researchers was the negative impact of ethnic identity based organizations. This went against previous research that provided support for students maneuvering their way through their college (Dugan et al., 2012). The postulate that it highlights “when and how to encourage
intergroup collaboration as a platform for leadership development” (Dugan et al., 2012, p. 185).

In order to get a better understanding of how students of color processed their leadership experiences and what it meant for them, researchers, Baughman and Bruce (2011) used a qualitative study and interviewed students from North Carolina State University (NCSU) about their experiences. They found that four themes emerged from their interviews: students developed an identity, growth motivation from within and valued the importance of relationships (Baughman & Bruce).

In terms of identity, student leaders of color determined that student organizations needed diversity and not just particular minority group. They describe that an ideal organization would be accepting of members of various backgrounds (Baughman & Bruce, 2011). Role models was another factor that student leaders said was essential because they allowed the to cope during an identity crisis or when they needed encouragement (Baughman & Bruce). A third part of their identity is their connection to their campus, since it allowed them to grow professionally and personally as a result of leadership roles (Baughman & Bruce, 2011). Some student leaders were interviewed saying they wanted to gibe back in some way. One example that was given a student leader returned to NCSU as an alumni advisor by visiting with incoming freshman. (Baughman & Bruce, 2011)

In terms of developing relationships, student leaders viewpoints evolved through their leadership roles. The student leaders identified with their respective groups and felt and described that it became a collegiate of their “family” as they developed both personal and professional relationships with their peers. (Baughman & Bruce, 2011)
third response was how encouraging their families’ were when it came to them taking leadership roles (Baughman & Bruce, 2011).

In terms of growth, minority student leaders identified specific areas of growth: communication, time management, confidence, career path, managing others, motivation from within, initiative, passionate, happiness, and self efficacy (Baughman & Bruce, 2011).

Another study by researchers, St. John, Rowley, and Hu (2009), measured the engagement levels of students of color who were involved with leadership development opportunities compared to those that were not. The sample that the researchers collected their data from was the previously mentioned GMS program. The study found three findings that relate direct to student engagement and give a better understanding of its effects on students of color. (St. John, Rowley, & Hu, 2009).

The first finding that St. John (2009) and his fellow researchers found was that in scholarships provided to students of color free them of financial burden and allow them to pursue leadership development opportunities. (St. John et al., 2009) This is particularly beneficial for low-income students. The second finding is that both academic and community engagement are considerably impacted by student leadership (St. John et al., 2009). The third finding is that African American groups have the tendency to be more engaged, which in turn leading them to holding more leadership roles compared to other ethnic groups (St. John et al., 2009).

Discussion

A substantial amount of the articles researched highlighted the positive effects that leadership opportunities have on college students of color. When they start to
matriculate into college, their experiences are vastly different compared to those of their White or Euro American counterparts. Researchers such as Arminio, Carter, Jones, Kruger, Lucas, Washington, Young and Scott, (2000) have documented the leadership experiences of students of color. They found that the primary differences stem from their experiences of racism, history, language, biculturalism, socioeconomic status, culture, and differing viewpoints of the world (Arminio, Carter, Jones, Kruger, Lucas, Washington, Young, & Scott, 2000). They write that these experiences: confirmed that students of color generally not only feel unwelcome and experience cultural in congruencies with their own life experiences” (Arminio et al., 2000, p. 498).

This ties into Phinney’s ethnic development theory that implies that individual starts to explore the history and culture of their identified ethnic group. As they start this exploration phase, they begin to develop interpersonal skills as a result of meeting and working with students of backgrounds that are different than their own. Through their research, Arminio and company (2000) noted their experiences when involved with same-race groups, predominantly white groups and multiracial groups. Most leaders were comfortable in their same-race groups, although communication seemed to be primary issue. One issue that stood out were the experiences of students of color participating in predominantly white groups. Some students that they interviewed exhibited patterns that they were still going through the process of Phinney’s theory; most likely in the second and final stages. Many of the students believed that their ethnic identity was challenged and that they had to change their body language and verbal usage when attending meetings and events (Arminio et al., 2000). Students of color usually described themselves as not being very vocal. The only times they felt that the need to speak up is
when to address racist remarks or speak as a representative for their ethnic group.

(Arminio, 2000).

Limitations and future research

There are various limitations in the research that has been cited. One limitation was for the Baughman and Bruce article regarding minority student leaders. The sample that they used came from one institution, so their findings would not be definitive of other student leaders at other institutions around the country.

Another limitation that could be solved with future research is the way that some ethnic group levels of student engagement are measured while others are not. For example, a majority of the research cited for articles pertains to mainly African American or Black students, Hispanic or Latino students, or Asian American and Pacific Islander students. In addition, there are few articles that address the issues and needs of Native American, Native Hawaiian, or Native Alaskan populations and multiracial groups. Furthermore, one group that is left out entirely of any research is the one comprised of students of Middle Eastern Descent. Further research would solve this issue. For the groups that are researched and cited, the way that data was organized seemed to ignore the diversity within each group. This would especially affect Hispanic or Latino students and Asian American and Pacific Islander students, since it ignores the various subgroups that make up each group. This is limiting because the analysis could be incorrectly inferred that statistics could apply across the board to all Hispanic or Latino students or all Asian American and Pacific Islander students.
Career Development Interventions for First-Generation College Students

Introduction

When entering a college campus, first-generation students face many changes and transitions. According to Wurster, Rinaldi and Woods (2013), the classification of “first-generation college student” refers to an individual who is the first in their family to ever attend college in the United States. As a result of not knowing how to navigate the college environment, they do not have the social capital, which is knowledge and experience of navigating a college environment that is usually provided by parents who have gone to college, compared to continuing generation peers. Wurster, Rinaldi, & Woods, 2013). Other researchers such as Jenkins, Belanger, Connally, Boals, and Duron (2013) have also mentioned that they are more likely to come from lower socioeconomic status and from racial and cultural minority groups (Jenkins, Belanger, Connally, Boals, & Duron). Jenkins and company go into more detail, stating that additional stressors such as living in an area with a higher crime rate, and ethnic and cultural discrimination as a result of their social status (Jenkins et al., 2013)

According to Wesley and Shepler (2011), first generation students are at a higher risk of dropping out and not earning their bachelor’s degree compared to non-first generation students. In addition, they analyzed the different experiences of first generation students such as support they received before entering college, academic issues, and social or involvement issues (Wesley & Shepler, 2011). Wesley and Shepler’s (2011) examples of pre-entry characteristics would be family support, high school support, high school educational goals, and financial situation. The research they include shows that first generation students do not receive support from parents or high school counselors when it comes to choosing to attend college. In addition, parents of first generation college students do not fully understand the expectations of college such as the adjustment to college life, the
importance of having positive role models on campus, and limited knowledge of college social activities. Also parents would not know how to fund their children’s college education through scholarships and financial aid because they have never been gone through the process of applying and then navigating a university (Wesley & Shepler, 2011).

For academic factors, Wesley and Shepler (2011) cite research that affected the students’ academic preparation, motivation and self-efficacy. For example, first generation students reported did not have a rigorous a high school curriculum. When compared to the expectations of college it can seem very daunting and overwhelming, which would result in increased levels of self-doubt. The lower the expectations the higher the uncertainty was reported from the students. This is critical because it affected the academic performance of the students (Wesley & Shepler, 2011).

In terms of social concerns, Wesley and Shepler (2011) mention research where first generation college students describe themselves as feeling as if they were outsiders. This is a result of them not knowing the expectations of speaking, dressing and interacting with peers, staff, and faculty members. First generation students also feel that they are navigating two worlds when balancing out their academic, family and work obligations. One reason that they feel separated from that campus life is that they have the tendency to live off campus instead of on-campus making it even more difficult for them to integrate into student life (Wesley & Shapler, 2011).

In addition, other researchers such as Jenkins (2013) using various assessments found that there were elevated levels of PTSD symptoms, and depression symptoms and less life satisfaction amongst first-generation undergraduate students. One reason is that they feel that they do not have sufficient social support from family and friends leading to even more isolation. (Jenkins et al., 2013). They also noted differences in gender. For example, in their report Jenkins and other researchers (2013) have noted that women
reported more support but also increased depression symptoms and less life satisfaction. The reasons that are given is that women have more self-imposed stress by putting unrealistic expectations on themselves despite having more support. The increased level of support may be a result of cultural norms.

Olson (2013) goes into more detail when she did her research on the different issues that affect first generation college graduates. She states that there has not been that much research on this population because of the challenges of keeping track of graduates as they naturally move on to different aspects of their life and away from their college experiences (Olson, 2013).

However, for a first generation college graduate, as they enter a new work or graduate school environment they may again have to deal with a transition similar to the one they made when they first started their undergraduate career. Olson (2013) cites research noting that some first generation graduates begin to develop awareness in the differences of social class in the life and work experiences. However, they seem to have developed their own support system in the form of professional mentors especially when it comes to navigating a work environment and its norms (Olson, 2013).

Olson (2013) mentions that first generation college graduates may use the time right after graduation to get reacquainted with their family and friends and reflect on how their college experiences have changed them. This may come into conflict with student’s families who expected for things to return to the norms before the student experienced college. It’s mentioned that the students become aware of these changes through others such as family and friends. This would be a result of them pursuing employment and careers in fields that are not familiar to family and friends who did not attend college. These additional obstacles and challenges typically affect their career choices and employment mobility (Olson, 2013).
Theoretical Framework

The social cognitive career theory (SCCT) first propagated by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) is a theory that would work well when working with this student population. It has based off primarily on the research that can be used to demonstrate how students’ academic and career interests develop, how one develops their career-decision making skills and how they can achieve their desired outcomes (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). The premise of the SCCT is that an individual’s career development is affected by different environmental factors that can affect self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy refers to one’s belief in their ability to succeed in the task at hand. Lent and his fellow researchers argue that since the variables are subjective to the individual, it would form differences in self-efficacy, and career goals. (Lent et al, 1994).

According to Lent and his other researchers (1994), self-efficacy is described as one of the factors that that influence the individual in terms of choices and activities. They specifically describe it as “a dynamic set of self-beliefs that are specific to particular performance domains and that interact complexly with other person, behavior and contextual factor” (Lent et al, p. 84, 1994). As for outcome expectations, Lent and company (1994) described that a person’s beliefs are the most likely outcome (Lent et al, 1994).

For goals, Lent and company (1994) describes them as being used for self-regulation. They define it as “the determination to engage in a particular activity or to affect a particular future outcome” (Lent et al, p. 85, 1994) It provides individuals opportunities to organize themselves and to guide their behavior. It acts as a motivator over long periods of time especially when the individual is lacking an external source of motivation (Lent et al, 1994).

Literature Review
Using various assessments, Jenkins and researchers (2013) used a qualitative study in order to determine how elevated levels of PTSD symptom, and depression symptoms and less life satisfaction are more prevalent amongst first-generation undergraduate students. The researchers came up with four hypotheses (Jenkins et al., 2013).

In their study they used a convenience sample and analyzed 1,647 participants from a state southwestern state university who volunteered in exchange for credit in an undergraduate psychology course. The demographics of the participants was 34% male and 66% female, 45% first-generation, 63% Caucasian, 14% African American, 6% Asian or Asian American, 13% Hispanic and 4% other ethnicity. It should be noted that the reason for this is that they have experienced less effective social support from family and friends (Jenkins et al., 2013).

Jenkins and fellow researchers compiled their qualitative questionnaire from various resources that assessed each of the topics that they were researching. One was the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, which measures social support from family, friends, and significant others (Jenkins et al., 2013). The Traumatic events questionnaire is used to assess significant events such as natural disasters, sexual assaults, and parents divorcing (Jenkins et al., 2013). The Quick Inventory Depressive Symptoms-Self Report is used to determine if the individual has experienced depression symptoms such as sadness, apprehension, suicidal ideation, and energy level within the past seven days (Jenkins et al., 2013). Quality of Life Enjoyment and Satisfaction, uses a questionnaire that measures how much enjoyment and individual experienced in the past 7 days. (Jenkins, et al., 2013).

At the conclusion of their research Jenkins et al. (2013), found that first generation college students did in fact experience less social support, an increase in PTSD and depressive symptoms, and less life satisfaction. This was not surprising since this student
population experiences additional academic acculturative stress such as alienation, not belonging and demoralization that could lead to negatively impacting their academics (Jenkins et al., 2013). Jenkins et al (2013) also found that there were significant experiential differences between gender with findings displaying that female students report more support but have more have increased levels of stress and depression compared to males.

The sample size for the Jenkins et al. (2013), study was sufficiently large enough for them to study. In order for them to get a more accurate reflection of the student population, they limited the age of the students to no more than 35 years of age and the expressed confidence that they made sure that the sample is ethnically. However they did not take into consideration students with disabilities, students whose primarily language is not English and the effects of students' socioeconomic status (Jenkins et al., 2013).

In the journal article by Wright, Jenkins-Guarnieri, and Murdock (2012) uses a quantitative study in order to determine how a student's self-efficacy can affect their persistence and academic success during their initial semester at their institution. The hypotheses that they formed first tested whether there was positive correlation between a student's self-efficacy and their persistence from fall to spring semesters. Secondly, they wanted to see if there was a positive correlation between self-efficacy and the odds of achieving academic success. The purpose of this study was to better understand first-year student’s career development using the social cognitive career theory (Wright, Jenkins-Guarnieri & Murdock, 2012.)

In order to make this determination, Wright et al. (2012) assessed the level of self-efficacy by measuring how well students performed at the end of a first-year experience course. The study had first-year undergraduate student participants that were enrolled at a four-year university in the Rocky Mountain region. Specifically, they limited to “first-year, first-time, non-transfer students who had not yet attended college.” (Wright et al., 2012, p.
Wright et al. (2012) compiled the data using the university’s database. In order to measure student persistence they defined it as a student being enrolled full time in the fall semester and the spring semester that followed. They used the College Self-Efficacy Inventory (CSEI), which used two terms that had three subscales of course efficacy, social efficacy and roommate efficacy (Wright et al., 2012).

For the first hypothesis, as a result of their study, Wright et al. (2012) found that their results supported it and that there was positive correlation that when there is an increase in self-efficacy, the students are more likely to persist into the following semester. As for the second hypothesis, there was positive correlation between a student’s CSEI scores and their academic success. This is important because it proves that when students’ belief in their own abilities to accomplish their academic coursework the more likely they will be academically successful and persist through college. From that perspective they assert that that college learning experiences offer opportunities where college students will be able to make realistic and appropriate choices regarding their academic and career goals (Wright et al., 2015).

Wright et al. (2012) believe college and career counselors can use their study in order to develop programming and interventions that would encourage career development in their students. For example, they go into detail how counselors can encourage students to identify mentors and other support systems (Wright et al., 2012).

For Wright et al., the sample size and diversity does not seem to reflect a general college population. The sample size consists of only 401 participants out of 1,012 students were eligible. Also, there is a concern for the diversity of the sample, since ethnically 76% identified as Caucasian. Multiracial was second most with 15%, with the rest 3% or less with Latino or Latina (3%), African American (3%), Asian American (1%) Native American
(1%) and Pacific Islander (0.3%). This would most likely represent the student population at this particular university but not for the general college population (Wright et al., 2012). This study would be useful for my own research as it allows counselors ways to develop interventions that could assist first generation college students within a first year experience course as they develop their career goals.

In their study, Creed and Hughes (2010) where they analyzed how emerging adults used different strategies, specifically compromise and perceptions of their employability. Using the Gottfredson’s theory, they used a qualitative study to determine their three hypotheses: 1) compromise would lead to higher levels of career distress, 2) compromise means that there will be lower perceptions of employability 3) and that if adults used more career strategies it would lead to lower career distress and more positive perceptions (Creed & Hughes, 2010).

In order to test their theories, Creed and Hughes (2010) used a cross sectional study with a survey. They took a sample of 130 undergraduates who were six months in to their initial year of school. It was taken at a public university in Australia (Creed & Hughes, 2010). The researchers recruited them from non-specific first year courses by offering them a chance to win a $50 voucher in exchange for their participation (Creed & Hughes, 2010).

In their study Creed and Hughes wanted to assess career compromise, career distress, perceived employability, and career strategies. For career comprise they designed and developed a survey similar to the Likert scale, asking questions regarding their degree choice, how the degree would assist them in school, and identifying fifteen job characteristics. For the other factors they used scales that have already developed such as the Coping with Career Indecision Scale for career distress; the Student Self-Perceived Employability Scale; and the Career Strategies Inventory for career strategies (Creed & Hughes, 2010).
When testing their hypotheses Creed and Hughes (2010), found evidence that supported hypothesis 1 which was asked if there was a positive correlation between compromise and career distress, and hypothesis 2 that analyzed a negative connection between perceptions of employability and compromise (Creed & Hughes, 2010). They explain the importance of these findings since it demonstrates how career counselors need to be aware of who has been compromising on their career choices as it may affect their ability to sustain their welfare and confidence (Creed & Hughes, 2010).

As for hypothesis 3, Creed and Hughes (2010) found that students who used career strategies were less likely to report any experiences of distress when compromising on their career. Therefore career compromise is a normal part of the process and highlights the importance of students having and using career strategies and coping skills when they experience any difficulty (Creed & Hughes, 2010). As for the second part of hypothesis 3, they proposed that career strategies would negotiate the relationship between career compromise and perceptions of employability, Creed and Hughes (2010) no supporting evidence. In addition these findings are important because it provides guidance for college counselors since they can use it when developing and designing interventions. Specifically, programming that would address the strategies and coping skills that students need to prepare for when they have difficulties in choosing a career (Creed & Hughes, 2010).

As for the critique of the sample, the data that Creed and Hughes (2010) collected may be skewed since it’s almost all white or Caucasian students who were surveyed. Also, the survey was used in Australia, which has its own ethnic, and socioeconomic dynamics making it different compared to an American college student population.

Discussion

The findings in these cited articles are important because they demonstrate the importance of providing first generation college students career guidance during their
initial year. For that specific student population, the way they navigate their career and employment path after they graduate will be similar to their navigation through collegiate life. They will need to make connections and build relationships that will allow them to compensate for not having the social capital that non-first generation students have. College and career counselors should assist their students in developing strategies that will not only allow them to be successful in college but in the workplace following graduation.

Olson (2014) cites how the Social Cognitive Career Theory can be applied to first-generation college students in order to encourage the development of their self-efficacy. First-generation students should encourage seeking out learning experiences in different working environments through internships or apprenticeships. By doing so they will be able to develop work-related goals and get a better sense of the expectations and norms of the workplace (Olson, 2014). In college, first-generation college students can develop the skillset of networking and identifying mentors and other support systems that could assist them as they persist through college. After graduation, they will also need to do keep that in practice by identifying older professionals that they could see as a mentor and help them navigate the work setting (Olson, 2014).

Conclusion

There are several limitations to some of the research cited in the literature review particularly the lack of inclusion of data that takes differences in ethnicity, language and other culturally relevant factors that will most likely affect student’s career development. For example, many first-generation college students may be undocumented, which would lead to other barriers such as not being able access services on campus. Ortiz and Hinojosa (2010) mention in their article the different challenges that undocumented students have to face. Their work choices are limited because of the status and that when attempting to navigate college and work environments they will most likely be confronted with prejudices
and ethnic stereotypes in addition to the other difficulties they face (Ortize & Hinojosa, 2010). Considerations such as these will allow college counselors assist the changing dynamics of today's student population.
Issues of Access to Higher Education for Undocumented Students

Introduction

As of March 2010, the Pew Hispanic Center, a project of the Pew Research Center, estimated that there were 11.2 million undocumented immigrants in the United States (Passel & Cohn, 2011). Of that population, it is estimated that 7,000-10,000 are currently enrolled in college, 2.1 million are eligible for the Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors (DREAM) Act, and 1.1 million are undocumented children (Passel & Cohn, 2011). These statistics demonstrate the need for student affairs professionals to have a better understanding of the different issues and needs of undocumented college students. Once undocumented students turn 18 years of age and graduate from high school, their legal status can impact their lives. They are no longer guaranteed an education. In addition, they cannot enjoy certain rights that students with citizenship or permanent legal residency may enjoy such as in-state tuition, more employment options, and access to legal identification such as a driver’s license.

As a result of the uncertainty of their legal status, undocumented college students face limited access to resources such as financial aid, and have limited college choices. The main obstacle for undocumented college students is that federal and state financial aid requires U.S. citizenship or permanent legal residency (Gildersleeve, Rumann, & Mondragon, 2010). Combined with facing restrictions related to finding employment, undocumented students are struggling to find ways to fund their college educations. As a result, most of them start their undergraduate careers at community colleges. This paper explores how undocumented students have limited access to entering four-year institutions immediately after high school due to financial limitations. With their increasing numbers, student affairs should be prepared and advocate for the needs of undocumented students.
Legal Status

There are different reasons why students are undocumented. According to Educators for Fair Consideration (2012), most have lived in the United States for a majority of their lives, having arrived in the U.S. with their parents at a young age; they are often fluent in English, and have attended elementary, middle and high school here. (“Factsheet overview”, 2012) Often brought to this country illegally at a young age, these individuals may not be aware of their legal status until high school. In some cases, immigrants come into the U.S. legally, but for various reasons have allowed their immigration status to lapse (Chan, 2010).

Undocumented students are provided a public K-12 education because of the 1982 Supreme Court Case Plyer vs. Doe. Ruling, which ruled, “undocumented children must be provided access to a free public education because citizens and potential citizens cannot achieve any meaningful degree of individual equality without it” (Perez, Cortes, Ramos, & Coronado, 2010, p. 36). However, after graduation, they are no longer guaranteed access to higher education because of their legal status. As a result they do not qualify for financial aid nor can they secure legal employment in order for them to fund their education (Perez et al, 2010).

Financial Aid

There has been various legislation that has been passed in order to alleviate funding issues that undocumented students face. Some examples are the DREAM Act and California’s Assembly Bill 540 legislation.

The DREAM Act. As previously stated, DREAM stands for Development, Relief, And Education for Alien Minors. In its original version, introduced in 2001, its intention was to allow states to provide in-state tuition to undocumented citizens as well as give them a pathway to gain citizenship. In its current version, it would allow undocumented students
to attend public colleges and universities. There would be a two-step process toward legal residency. First, they would need to get a waiver that allowed them to go to college or military service. Once they complete two years of college or military service they can gain permanent residency. In order to receive permanent residency, an undocumented student must have lived in the U.S. for 5 years or more, entered the U.S prior to their 15th birthday, earned their high school diploma from a U.S. secondary institution and be considered in good moral standing (Gildersleeve et al, 2010).

**California Assembly Bill 540.** Originally passed in 2001, California Assembly Bill 540 (AB540) allowed undocumented students to qualify for in-state fees instead of the out-of-state fees for California's public universities and colleges. In order to qualify, they must have attended high school for three years and earned their high school diploma or GED and agree to pursue the legalization of his or her immigration status (Amaya et al, 2007).

Both the DREAM Act and state bills such as CA AB 540 would be beneficial to the undocumented student population by easing the financial burden and giving them better access to education. The benefit would only cover certain portion of student fees and tuition. For example, it would cover only a portion of a four-year institution but would cover the fees at a community college.

**Technical Terms**

For this paper, the term “undocumented immigrant” refers to one who “entered the United States without inspection or with fraudulent documents or who entered legally as a nonimmigrant but then violated the terms of his or her status and remained in the US without authorization (http://dsa.csupomona.edu/ab540/files/fact_sheet_8073.pdf). Some undocumented students have adopted their own nomenclature based on new legislation. For example, some students start to refer to themselves as “dreamers” based on the DREAM
Act or "AB540 students" based on AB 540 legislation passed in California. (Abrego, 2008; Chan, 2010).

“Undocumented students” are those who arrived to the U.S. as young children. As a result they have been able assimilate more easily, making them indistinguishable to U.S. born peers since they dress in a similar fashion and are fluent in English. The terms “native born” refer to those that are born as U.S. citizens. They are born in the U.S. or its territories, or to parents who are U.S. citizens (Passel & Cohn, 2011). The term “naturalized immigrant” refers to individuals who are granted permanent residency for various reasons such as those being granted asylum, those admitted as refugees, or those with temporary legal status that allow them work. They are also referred as “naturalized citizens” (Passel & Cohn, 2011.)

**Theoretical Background**

There are numerous student development theories that are applicable undocumented students not having access to higher education because of financial constraints. Schlossberg’s (1989) theory of marginality and mattering gives a better understanding of the undocumented students’ experience of feeling of “invisibility” or “living in the shadows” because of their legal status. Student affairs professionals can use the theory to develop appropriate interventions that would meet the needs of this student population.

**Schlossberg’s Theory of Marginality and Mattering**

Undocumented college students are confronted with unique challenges compared to their native-born counterparts, who do not have to worry about access to resources. As a result of these limitations and the uncertainty of their legal status, they have felt isolated and stigmatized. The Marginality and Mattering theory of Nancy Schlossberg (1989) can be used to address their needs and issues, especially as they navigate the transition to
postsecondary education where access is limited for them. As a result, undocumented students may feel as marginalized because they do have a sense of connection with society despite their legal status. Simultaneously, they are playing two roles: one as regular college students, dealing with regular academic issues; and one as undocumented immigrants who feel the need to hide their residence status.

According to Schlossberg, mattering has four aspects: attention, importance, ego-extension, and dependence. In order for students to feel like they belong, they must experience all four aspects. For undocumented college students, they cannot experience all of these aspects because of the stigma and feeling of “invisibility” that they experience. In order, to feel as if they matter, undocumented students should be provided resources such as financial aid that will allow them to continue their college education and earn their degrees. By doing, they will experience of being a full-fledged member of society.

**The Impact of Limited Resources for Undocumented Students.**

There are other factors that undocumented students face even before they have entered a college classroom. Despite the *Plyer vs. Doe* decision decreed that all children should have access to public K-12 education; many of them face different challenges. In their research, Gildersleeve and Ranero explore precollege contexts such as family, schooling, and educational achievement that have an impact on undocumented students as they enter college.

For family factors, the structure and characteristics of the family would be related directly to immigration issues. Gildersleeve and Ranero (2010) give examples of how multiple families may share rent, food, and other living costs, and that the family often extends beyond the parents and their children to include uncles, aunts, cousins, and
grandparents. Each member would contribute differently to the household: some would work traditional jobs while others took care of other responsibilities such as household chores, education, and childcare (Gildersleeve, & Ranero, 2010). Immigrant families tend to be of working class or working poor backgrounds that reside in poor urban or rural areas. They face numerous issues because of their socioeconomic status such as crime, distrust in law enforcement, hunger, unfair housing options, unemployment, lack of access to medical resources, and attendance at under performing schools (Gildersleeve & Ranero, 2010).

Gildersleeve and Ranero (2010), also explore how the schooling factors affect undocumented students’ academic preparedness and college readiness. School districts that cater to mainly immigrant communities frequently underperform and are strained with limited resources (Gildersleeve & Ranero, 2010). In addition, the issues that are prominent consist of can include the language barrier between students and teachers, lack of continuous education, and a curriculum that is based on unfamiliar social and cultural contexts. For language barriers, English may not be the student’s first language. Even though there are English language development programs, not all school districts are equipped for them. As a result, some students describe feelings of incompetence (Gildersleeve & Ranero, 2010).

When undocumented students move to the U.S. with their families, it often interrupts their education. In addition, when they arrive, they may be expected to contribute financially to the family. Gildersleeve and Ranero (2010) give the example of how children living in migrant-working rural areas are expected to work at various points in the year such as those that work in migrant farm-worker communities. Another factor is that immigrant families tend to move around more often compared to non-immigrant families. A result is that “this discontinuity in the students’ education can prove to a barrier
when course content is cumulative, or when children are asked to preform academic tasks that their previous schools had not yet taught them” (Gildersleeve & Ranero, 2010).

Other challenges that students face are conditions that do not encourage learning such as high and mismanagement of school funds. According to Gildersleeve and Ranero (2010), there are resources and opportunities to expand services and address these needs, but the school districts typically do not have the human capital to implement them.

**Isolation and Stigmatization**

Undocumented students can also be hindered in their development when they experience marginalization, usually because of their legal status. Perez and associates (2010) describe how undocumented students develop feelings of shame, trepidation, anger, despair, marginalization, and uncertainty. These emotions stem from various factors such as discrimination, fear of being deported, and stress over funding their education (Perez et al, 2010).

A sense of shame for undocumented students comes from having to live in fear and uncertainty while in college (Perez et al., 2010). They develop anxiety based on them questioning who they can trust. Undocumented students are often brought up to understand that anyone can report them to the authorities and have them deported. Discrimination is taught to undocumented students as children through negative portrayals of undocumented immigrants through the media. This reinforcement impacts their ability to develop a healthy identity.

There are various forms of discrimination. Some are institutional, such as the federal and state laws that bar undocumented students from engaging in academic programs. Another form of discrimination is social, often experienced through interactions with others that have the false assumption that undocumented immigrants are a “drain on the system” or are “immoral criminals” (Perez et al., 2010). They experience micro-
aggressions and stereotypes that exacerbate their perception that they are unaccepted by society (Perez et al., 2010).

**Non-Latino Undocumented Students.** There is a popular misconception that undocumented immigrants are only of Latino and Hispanic background and that immigration status among college students is only a Latino issue (Chan, 2010). However, this is inaccurate. According to the Migration Policy Institute (2010), a majority of these students are from Mexico and El Salvador, but other countries that are not typically considered such as the Philippines, China, and Korea. In her article, Belize Chan (2010) interviews undocumented students who do not fit the typical profile of undocumented student. For example, one student who is Filipino described her experience as being undocumented as shameful and always in hiding because of the constant fear of being deported. Other students that she interviewed were of Indian and Korean descent. Because of the incorrect assumption that undocumented students are a Latino issue, there is often no outreach to these other students. Most non-Latino undocumented students are unaware of the resources available that would allow them to continue their education (Chan, 2010). As a result, this adds to their isolation and invisibility.

**Search for Legitimacy**

Through her research, Leisy Abrego (2008) found that laws such as CA AB 540 could have a profound effect on undocumented students. Her study examines the intended and unintended outcomes of the law by interviewing undocumented students over the course of three to four years. For this longitudinal study, she interviewed the subjects prior to the passing of the law, just after passage, and then a few years after (Abrego, 2008). This ties into Schlossberg’s theory (1989) that students need to experience the different aspects of mattering in order to feel like they belong. According to Abrego (2008), prior to the passage of AB 540, students felt isolated because they were not able to afford to attend a four-year
university despite being accepted. College seemed unattainable at the time, so much so that students would avoid the application process, even though they were excelling academically. However, after AB 540 passed, students starting to experience the benefits. For several of the interviewees, the available funding only covered the community colleges, since universities were still too expensive. As a result, most undocumented students would have to start their postsecondary education at community colleges (Abrego, 2008).

Another outcome of AB 540’s passage is the change in undocumented students’ sense of self and social identity. As previously mentioned, undocumented students are typically hesitant to disclose their legal status because of the negative stereotypes, as well as fears of deportation and negative consequences of family members who are sheltering them. Some interviewees described using this rationale in order establish a sense of legitimacy for themselves such as embracing meritocracy. They use their roles as successful students to counteract the negativity associated with their legal status. Also after the passage of AB 540, for many students, the atmosphere and stigma that had been associated with their legal status changed, and they became more comfortable disclosing it. It allowed undocumented students to change the way they identified themselves. Abrego’s (2008) research revealed that the terms “undocumented” and “illegal” produced shame for them. Thus, these students began to label themselves as the more socially acceptable “AB 540 Students”. For undocumented students, this legislation provided with a sense of legitimacy when navigating the college environment (Abrego, 2008).

Student Involvement and Civic Engagement

Various researchers have noted that some students are coping with their undocumented status by becoming more politically involved, both on campus and in their

Abrego’s (2008) research based on the passage of California’s AB 540 demonstrates that the legislation gave the undocumented students the confidence to start organizing themselves. They sought out other students that shared their undocumented status and worked to increase rights that were not covered by the law. Some students described how they formed student organizations that centered on AB 540 and students’ rights. By doing so, they were able to make both their undocumented and U.S. born peers aware of students’ rights under AB 540, share resources, and work together for a common purpose (Abrego, 2008).

Perez and associates (2010) specifically mentions campus support programs and civic engagement in their research, which is centered on interviews with undocumented students who identified as being Latino. One such interviewee described how she found out about the AB 540 community on her campus, and how it became her primary source of support when navigating college. Through this community, the student was able to develop close relationships that allowed her to have a sense of mattering and had a positive effect on her social identity (Perez et al, 2010).

Another aspect that Perez and associates (2010) researched was the civil engagement that undocumented student displayed. Researchers posit, “through civic engagement, undocumented students feel that they are contributing members of society...[it is] one of the few things individuals can do to feel good about themselves” (Perez et al, 2010, p. 44). Other reasons students reported getting involved include that they want to feel as if they belong within American society, allowing them to affirm their belief that they were good model citizens who had earned their rights. By doing so, it decreased the sense of political and social marginalization as a result of their legal status (Perez et al, 2010).
Furthermore, interviews and research done by Hernandez and associates (2010) also shows that many of the students they interviewed were highly involved. Undocumented students felt the urge to give back and help other undocumented students as they enter and navigate college.

Munoz (2009) gives specific examples of how undocumented students organized. One example is activists mobilizing around the passing of the California DREAM Act. Organizers had held public hearing at a large public university, which focused on the needs and issues of undocumented students. Legislators, civic and community leaders, and undocumented and documented students were in attendance. Other methods that were used by organizers, included teach-ins and other community meetings that brought these issues to the public’s attention (Munoz, 2009). By creating more awareness of the undocumented student population, the organizers were able to bring more attention to many of the issues that were previously discussed. They could break stereotypes, promote and advocate for legislation and begin a dialogue.

**Implications for student affairs practice**

As previously stated, with more finance-based access provided for undocumented students through the passage of the DREAM Act and AB 540, student affairs professionals need to be prepared for an increasing number of undocumented students. This is especially true for those at the community college level.

Researchers have discussed various strategies and recommendations when working with undocumented students. For example, they promoted the need to create a welcoming and supportive campus environment that allowed undocumented students to integrate (Hernandez et al., 2010). This important because the students would to feel safe and secure that their personal information would remain confidential. Another aspect is that by
developing that sense of comfort for undocumented student it would allow to disclose their legal status and the experiences associated with it, to student affairs professionals. (Chan, 2010.)

Another strategy is to train more faculty and staff about the various needs, concerns, and issues related to undocumented students and their families. This would help the decrease the levels of shame and stigmatization that is experienced by this population as a result of their legal status (Hernandez et al., 2010), (Perez, 2010). Student affairs practitioners must not make assumptions about this the undocumented student population based on stereotypes where only undocumented students are of Latino or Hispanic background and they are not fluent in English. Some more appropriate ways that undocumented students can be identified include the use of passports as a primary form of identification, refusal to participate in programs that are designed to help undocumented students, avoidance of applying for government financial aid through an on-campus event when they qualify, and inability to get a driver’s permit (Chan, 2010).

Perez (2010) makes specific recommendations such as college counselors assisting undocumented students to secure other financial resources such as private scholarships. Another recommendation will help recruit undocumented students and their families is interventions and organizing conferences. Also, while students are still in high school, counselors should encourage undocumented students to participate in dual enrollment programs with community colleges so that their tuition costs will be covered (Perez et al, 2010). Lastly, for undocumented students forced to decline acceptance to four-year universities because of costs and to instead enroll at a community college, some recommendations for community college counselors is to encourage them to use the resources at their disposal. For example, informing to students of counseling services,
personal development courses, student-run organizations, and honors programs (Perez, 2010), (Perez et al., 2010).

Discussion

There are limitations within the research that has been cited throughout this paper. The interviews that were collected were mainly from a specific type of undocumented student. The researchers interviewed mainly students who were mainly successful college students despite their legal status. Undocumented students who dropped out of high school or college are not interviewed.

Implications and Future considerations

In order to address the various needs of undocumented students, student affairs professionals should expand their knowledge on the issues surrounding access to financial aid for this population. Student affairs professionals such as college counselors should be trained and kept up-to-date regarding policies to this specific student population, as well as being bilingual and culturally sensitive. Knowledge of important sources such as alternative sources of financial aid and private scholarships would also prove beneficial (Perez et al, 2010). In addition, student affairs professionals should advocate on behalf of this student population at their respective college campuses. For example, student affairs professionals can advocate for more support programs for undocumented students. They could do this in the form of student-initiated organizations or multicultural support programs and support services (Perez et al, 2010). Lastly, student affairs professionals need to start their outreaching efforts to undocumented students while they are still in high school. By working with their counseling professional counterparts in high schools, they could reduce admission and matriculation complications by more consistently and successfully providing information regarding policies, support programs and scholarship options (Perez et al, 2010)
Introduction

Today in the United States, there are around 22 million veterans, with that number to rise considerably for the next few decades. (US Veterans affairs, 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.va.gov/vetdata/docs/QuickFacts/Population_quickfacts.pdf). More and more veterans are returning from wars in Iraq and Afghanistan and are making the transition back to civilian life. Many of them are choosing to return to school to complete their education as a result of the Post 9/11 GI bill being fully enacted. According to the US Veteran’s affairs this resulted in a 42% increase from 2009 to 2010 when it occurred (US Veterans Affairs, 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.va.gov/vetdata/docs/QuickFacts/Education_Beneficiaries.pdf) Because of their experiences in combat many of them have been developing maladaptive coping mechanisms in order to alleviate any depressive symptom or PTSD that they may have. In this paper it would be important for college counselors and student affairs professionals to be aware of the signs of substance abuse among that student population and to offer more preventative measures. By doing so, it will decrease the substance abuse rates among student veterans and increase their retention rate.

Student Veterans

Demographically, student veterans are very diverse. Many of them are first-generation college student and students of color. The term first-generation college student refers to students who do not have parents who have a bachelor’s degree. As a result they tend to be older according to research cited by Wurster, Rinaldi, Woods and Liu (2013) 66% of veterans who responded to a National Survey of Student Engagement are first-generation
students. In terms of socioeconomic status, student veterans come from families who inhabit a lower socioeconomic class (Wurster, Rinaldi, Woods & Liu, 2013).

Wurster et al. (2012), also cite literature that describe student veterans’ motivations for going from the military to college are different compared to civilian students who enrolled in college right after high school. There is a high rate of unemployment among returning veterans when compared to the rest of the civilian population. As a result of those limited options, they go back to school to enhance their skills and to make themselves marketable (Wurster et al., 2013).

Researcher Vichy (2012) has described the student veteran population as very diverse and that student affairs professionals cannot use universal policies in order to assist them in the transition to civilian and college life. It has been an issue because in the past this student population has been treated as if they were traditional students, thus invalidating their experiences. (Vacchi, 2012) Vacchi continues describing the main differences between military and civilian life. In the military, individuals are expected to be disciplined, have an emphasis on teamwork and to take initiative. Another expectation is that everyone must be consistent and provide the same amount of effort. If they do not, they may be perceived as weak and fear being reliant on others. When this attitude is transplanted into the civilian life, asking for help and assistance is stigmatized and seen as a weakness. As a result, student veterans may develop maladaptive coping strategies that result in Post-traumatic Stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety disorders and substance abuse because they do not want to seek help (Vacchi, 2012).

According to Vacchi (2012) when they arrive on college campuses, they are put at a disadvantage because they do not know how to navigate a collegiate environment and its bureaucracy. Other researchers such as Di Ramio, Ackerman, and Mitchell (2008) cite research that student affairs professionals should provide services and establish a campus
climate that would be a welcoming campus climate for veterans (Di Ramio, Ackerman, & Mitchell, 2008).

Another factor for student professionals to be mindful of is that student veterans will most likely be have a documented disability as a result of their military service. Many of their disabilities would be invisible such as anxiety disorders and PTSD, which infers that they are usually not noticed by faculty or staff. As a result, they may not be so willing to ask for help because of the stigmatization that is associated with counseling (Wurster et al., 2013).

Substance Abuse

According to researchers Barry, Whiteman, Wadsworth, and Hitt (2012), substance abuse is prevalent among student veterans and that they tend to drink more compared to their civilian peers. In their study, they became concerned because of the nature of alcohol use on college campuses, the pervasiveness of alcohol abuse among student veterans, and the psychological issues related to military service. They cite research stating that drinking is so ingrained within the college culture that it occurs in all levels of students’ environment and that students display persistent, excessive, and harmful behaviors (Barry, Whitman, Wadsworth, & Hitt, 2012).

In their study, Barry and others (2012) hypothesized that student veterans drank more frequently and in large quantities compared to their civilian counterparts. In addition, they wanted to know if alcohol use correlated with the mental health issues such as depression, PTSD and anxiety (Barry, 2012). The results were that male student veterans were more likely abuse alcohol since they did not view the behavior as problematic. In the future, male student veterans will be at a higher risk of developing alcohol dependency. They also found that student veterans were more likely to binge drink in order to cope with their mental health issues (Barry et al., 2012).
Dealing with substance abuse in college students has always been a significant problem for student affairs professionals. Writers Burns and Consolvo (1992) go into detail of how campuses have tried to stem the use of Substance Abuse Programs.

There have been numerous substance abuse prevention programs that have been formulated but none of them have been used specifically for veteran college students. There have been a few programs that have been used on college campuses. Burns and Consolvo (1992) researched some substance abuse prevention programs on a large college campus. One was an outreach program that was used to target students who were involved in fraternities and sororities. Another was designed to educate students on alcohol and responsible event planning. The idea behind it was to model responsible decision-making (1992).

Theoretical Framework

One theory that can be used to apply to student veterans returning to civilian life and college campus is the Transition Model, which was first developed by Schlossberg (2011). The key points of this theory is to understand transitions, coping with changes that come with the transitions, and understanding how the model can apply to handle the many changes that students veterans will eventually be going through (Schlossberg, 2011). Another model that can be used with student veterans is the Empowerment model, which requires administrators to design programs that could be used to prevent substance abuse.

Transition Model

According to Schlossberg (2011), transitions are made up of the changes that have the tendency to reshape individual’s aspects of life such as the roles that we play in society, the relationships that develop, to the routines that allow us to stay on point, and the mindset and outlook we have toward life. The processing of these transitions depends on the individual. It should be noted that the change itself is not usually what makes transition
so challenging and often difficult for individuals, it's how it alters the individual's life (Schlossberg, 2011).

Furthermore, Schlossberg (2011) describes the different kinds of transitions that individuals will be challenged with. The first is anticipated transitions. They are typically large-scale events that can have life changing effects. Examples can be becoming parents, changing careers or retiring. The second transition is the unanticipated ones that tend to be troublesome for the individual. Examples would be being diagnosed with a serious illness, being laid off from work, or death of a loved one. The third transition is the nonevent, which is when an expected event fails to happen such as failure to find a career, not receiving an expected promotion, or failing to find someone to marry (Schlossberg, 2011).

In order for individuals to handle the different transitions, Schlossberg (2011) mentions how they must develop health coping mechanisms. As previously stated, it depends on the individual, for some it may be a quick process, for others it may be long and somber. Schlossberg (2011) describes how the different coping mechanisms can be sorted into different categories. The first one refers to the person's situation when the change occurs. The second refers to individual's self and his awareness of his or her own strengths and weaknesses. The third refers to the support systems that the individual has at the time of transition. The fourth and final category refers to the strategies used by individual to get through the transition process. (Schlossberg, 2011).

Using this model by Schlossberg (2011) can help student veterans through the transition of returning to civilian and college life from combat. It would be beneficial for them to identify what type of transition they are going through such as anticipated, unanticipated, or non-event. It would be helpful to know how their lives have been affected by their service such as a change in their roles, relationships, or assumptions in life. Veterans should also know where they are in the transition process; thinking of making a
change, starting the change or end of the change. Lastly, when they take inventory of the sources of support that is available to them, they will be able to make that transition (Schlossberg, 2011).

Empowerment Model

Researcher Sheila Cummings (1997) describes how the empowerment model can be used to address substance abuse issues among college students and how it can be used as a foundation for a substance abuse program. She believes that this model would be most useful since it is starting to be used in different areas such as public schools, community organizations and self-help groups such as Alcoholics anonymous. The reasoning is that the empowerment model has four dimensions that would make it ideal for use with college students. The first dimension is empowerment of the target population and how can the intervention be. The second dimension is that empowerment takes place over time. As the third dimension is the importance of understanding the context in which a person or program operates. In the fourth and last dimension, there needs to be assessment of the program. (Cummings, 1997).

Literature Review

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has long been considered a stress disorder but researchers led by Levy-Gigi (2012) advocate that it should also be considered as a learning disorder. In order to prove this they first cite research that displays those individuals who have been diagnosed with PTSD have a significant decrease of hippocampal volume. As a result of the trauma, these individuals would have difficulties learning (Levy-Gigi et al, 2012). Their quantitative study is important because it would demonstrates how learning can be impaired if the individual with PTSD cannot properly generalize across contextual and task-demand changes.
In their study, Levy-Gigi et al., (2012) focused on two different populations: one in Israel and another in Hungary. One is active-duty Israeli police, who are usually members of high-risk units and are usually the first to respond to traumatic situations. This group was made up of 19 individuals who were diagnosed with PTSD. To act as a control group they had 22 members of the Israel police who were exposed to the same trauma but were not diagnosed with PTSD. The second population was made up of Hungarian Civilians that were exposed to an environmental disaster, 22 of them were diagnosed with PTSD while 25 studied were not. The control group would be made up of Hungarian civilians that did not experience a large traumatic event. The 22 individuals with PTSD reported that they did were taking antidepressant medications while 18 stated they did not and one individual refused to disclose (Levy-Gigi et al., 2012).

For their study, Levy-Gigi et al. (2012), used the computer based Acquired Equivalence Task, which has two phases: initial training and generalization. Participants also had to fill out various self-reported questionnaires such as the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BD-II), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), PTSD Check-List-Civilian version (PCL-C) and the Adult Measure of Behavioral Inhibition/Retrospective Measure of Behavioral Inhibition (AMBI/RMBI). The results from this study demonstrated that PTSD diagnosed individuals from both populations are considerably impaired when attempting to apply learning strategies to new situations. In the initial training phase, both PTSD and non-PTSD participants were able to learn stimuli-outcome situations. In the generalization phase PTSD participants were shown to have a deficit. Furthermore, it was only PTSD symptoms that seemed to affect participants, while depression, anxiety, inhibition and IQ did not seem to have a significant impact (Levy-Gigi et al., 2012).

The data set from this study was large enough to generalize. The study form Levy-Gigi et al. (2012) demonstrated how PTSD could affect learning no matter the cultural and
socioeconomic backgrounds. It seems that individuals who have been diagnosed with PTSD will most likely have difficulties learning. This is relative to this study because veterans, who have faced combat situations, will be hampered as they go to school and face other challenges as they return to civilian life.

Another study from Read et al. (2012) addresses how trauma and posttraumatic stress symptoms can predict substance abuse when college students make the transition into a college environment. Their study is important because they cite literature that states that college students will likely experience some sort of trauma. As a result of these experiences they can lead to PTSD and in order to treat the associated psychological stress may turn to substances (Read et al., 2012). The purpose of the longitudinal study by Read et al. (2012) was to examine if there was a correlation between trauma, posttraumatic stress symptoms, and substance abuse as students made their transition into college. Their hypothesis was that individuals who were diagnosed with PTSD symptoms were more likely to have substance abuse issues during their initial year of college (Read et al., 2012).

Read et al. (2012) designed their study using 997 participants, whose information was gathered at two mid-size public universities in the northeastern and southeastern United States. The students’ information was gathered in the summer before they matriculated. Of the 997 participants 65% identified as female and 35% male with the average age being 18.12 years. When given the option to self-identify 73% identified as Anglo Caucasian, 11% as Asian, 9% as Black, 3% as Hispanic-Latino, less than 1% for both American Indian/Alaskan and Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 3% multiracial (Read et al., 2012). The information was gathered through a survey that was sent via postal mail and e-mail. In order for the sample to have students who have had a considerable amount of traumatic stress, students who participated must have reported at least one lifetime
Criterion a trauma and one symptom from each of the PTSD clusters that were used (Read et al., 2012).

Read et al. (2012) used five measures in their study. First was alcohol use and was measured when participants were asked to disclose if they had any alcohol within the past month. Second were alcohol-related consequences; participants were asked whether they experienced any consequences associated with consuming alcohol. Third, participants were asked if there were any illicit substance abuse and if there was, were there any consequences related to that abuse. The fourth is the Big Five Inventory, which was used to assess baseline negative effects associated with neuroticism. In order to measure trauma exposure, researchers used the Traumatic Life Events Questionnaire. Lastly, the PTSD Checklist-Civilian Version was used to measure PTSD symptoms (Read et al., 2012).

The result of Read et al. (2012) study demonstrated that there was a substantial risk for those with PTSD symptoms for alcohol and substance abuse. This was not very surprising since the first months of college are particularly risky for college students because for most it is the first time they get to experience independence and autonomy. The data was able to display two key points. One is that the impact of partial PTSD symptoms is not as different compared to full PTSD symptoms. In addition, their study suggests that problematic substance abuse among students is used to ease the psychological symptoms and not the trauma exposure itself (Read et al., 2012).

The data set in the Read et al. (2012) study is sufficiently large enough for researchers to generalize. In terms of demographics, it seems as if the demographics matched up with the population demographics of the United States. It seems that students from minority cultural groups were sampled well enough and can be generalized. In addition, they were not grouped together as the non-white group but broken down by different cultural groups. Despite, the differences in cultural norms were not addressed,
since some members of certain cultural groups may not feel comfortable disclosing any traumatic events or PTSD symptoms. This study is similar to the one that I am proposing because military veterans may be going through a similar transition especially if they start their first year at a college right after they return from combat. However, one issue is that veteran college students will most likely be older compared to participants in this study who averaged 18.12 years in age.

In the third journal article, Elliott, Gonzalez and Larsen (2011), study that host veterans are making the transition from combat to civilian and college life. Using the stress process approach they want to analyze the effects of stressors from student veterans’ experiences and how social support provided by colleges might alleviate their transition. Their intended audience seems to be student affairs professionals who will be developing their own interventions for Veterans (Elliott, Gonzalez, & Larsen, 2011).

The researchers, led by Elliott (2011), collected their data by sending out a questionnaire via postal mail, to student veterans at a mid-sized public university located in the western United States in the Spring 2008. With a response rate of 45%, the final sample size was at 104 participants. The researchers found that 76% were male, 42.3 % were married or in some kind of partnership, the average age was 30.92 years of age, and the age range being 19 and 55 (Elliott et al., 2011). The questionnaire was mixed methods and was made up of a majority of close-ended questions and two optional open-ended questions. The quantitative analyses measured the frequency and sources of the student veteran's problems, while the qualitative measures gave the audience a better idea of the negative experiences that veterans face on campus (Elliott et al., 2011). The assessment instruments that were used by Elliott et al. (2012) were the PTSD Checklist Military Version to diagnose PTSD symptoms and to measure their frequency. In order to measure veterans’ alienation on campus, an assessment tool needed to be designed. The four-item survey was designed
with input from the veteran’s services coordinator and a few student veterans and used a Likert scale. Alcohol misuse was measured using the Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test (Elliott, 2011).

Elliott et al found that student veterans who had experienced combat were more prone to have symptoms of PTSD were more alienated from their peers on college campuses. Student veterans who have experienced shooting and being shot at experienced PTSD symptoms such as difficulty concentrating and being isolated from others. They may also have functional limitations such as a physical impairment that makes it difficult to walk. The constant reminder of their experiences would eventually take their toll thus putting a strain on relationships and more problems with alcohol and illicit substances. Another factor that seems to be prevalent is that veterans do not seek any help with their PTSD symptoms because they fear the stigmatization that’s usually associated with mental health treatment (Elliott, 2011).

For Elliott et al. (2012) there may be a few issues with the sample that they collected. First of all it is too small to generalize so it may only reflect the student veteran population at that specific institution where the information was gathered. In addition, race and ethnic background was not taken into account for the population. This would make it impossible to determine if there were any cultural norms or beliefs that may have affected the responses. Furthermore, this would lead to more unanswered questions if these types of experiences are felt across cultures. This is similar to my research in that addressed how PTSD and substance abuse can affect student veterans’ retention as they make the transition to college.

Discussion

Veterans, who are returning home, typically need to make the transition back to college. In the previous research that has been cited, many veterans struggle to make that
transition back to civilian life. The reasons are varied because veterans are so used to the strict nature of the military and have difficulty being more independent in both the civilian and college environments. They may feel alienated even more because they are not typical college students; they tend to be older, and have other responsibilities that their peers may not have to worry about. In addition, they may have developed both physical and psychological ailments as a result of them experiencing combat situations while in service. Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is the most prominent one of the “invisible” ailments. As a result of the negative impact of the ailments, student veterans feel isolated since they do not think they are alone in their experiences. In addition, there is a stigma for those that seek professional counseling help that they need.

In order to cope with the mounting difficulties, they may turn to negative maladaptive behaviors such as using and abusing various substances such as alcohol or drugs. With veterans returning from combat in both Afghanistan and Iraq, student affairs professionals are going to see an influx of veteran college students who are trying to make the transition to civilian life. Programs need to be implemented in order to prevent veteran college students from substance abuse. By doing so, this will allow them to succeed academically preventing attrition and encouraging their retention.

Conclusion

The key to preventing substance abuse is to help veteran college students make the transition to civilian life and allow them to get used to navigating a college environment. One intervention that would be beneficial for them would be the development of a peer-mentoring group that consists of fellow veteran students who have already had a successful transition to college.

Using Schlossberg’s transition model, they can recruit mentors who are also veteran college students. They would need to have been enrolled for at least one year, academically
successful, and are willing to commit themselves to be a mentor for at least two consecutive semesters. The mentors will be able to provide their mentees with some guidance on how to navigate the college environment, giving them with advice on using the appropriate resources, and providing a positive role model. The mentees will realize that they are not alone in their experiences and they can be encouraged to get the services that they need in order to cope with all the stress from transitioning back to civilian life.
References


