

The multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals in the upper Midwest

by

Kevin Marcus Cook

B.S., Southeast Missouri State University, 1998
M.A., Ball State University, 1999

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Special Education, Counseling and Student Affairs
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2016

Abstract

In this study, I sought to determine how the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals were impacted by the demographic characteristics of race, gender, sexual orientation, years of experience, and graduate school diversity curricular content and experiences. Additionally, it was important to establish a baseline of knowledge related to multicultural competence for this particular population of entry-level housing professionals. I selected participants for this study from the 2016 membership directory of the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO).

I used quantitative data analysis methods to answer four research questions. I analyzed the first research question using ANOVA and post hoc tests for each of the demographic variables of race, gender, and sexual orientation. I found statistically significant differences in multicultural competence scores based on race and sexual orientation, while I found no differences by gender. The post hoc examinations revealed that for the various racial categories, there were no statistically significant differences by group. With regard to sexual orientation, I found that gay male participants had multicultural competence scores that were statistically significantly higher than their heterosexual/straight colleagues.

I analyzed the third research question using linear regression in an attempt to determine if there was a relationship between years of experience and multicultural competence scores. There was no statistically significant relationship. The final two research questions used ANOVA and post hoc analyses to determine if there were differences in the multicultural competence scores of participants based on the diversity content in their graduate programs and their most impactful multicultural graduate school experiences. I found no statistical differences for either of those research questions.

The multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals in the upper Midwest

by

Kevin Marcus Cook

B.S., Southeast Missouri State University, 1998
M.A., Ball State University, 1999

A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Special Education, Counseling, and Student Affairs
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2016

Approved by:

Major Professor
Christy Craft

Copyright

© Kevin Marcus Cook 2016.

Abstract

In this study, I sought to determine how the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals were impacted by the demographic characteristics of race, gender, sexual orientation, years of experience, and graduate school diversity curricular content and experiences. Additionally, it was important to establish a baseline of knowledge related to multicultural competence for this particular population of entry-level housing professionals. I selected participants for this study from the 2016 membership directory of the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO).

I used quantitative data analysis methods to answer four research questions. I analyzed the first research question using ANOVA and post hoc tests for each of the demographic variables of race, gender, and sexual orientation. I found statistically significant differences in multicultural competence scores based on race and sexual orientation, while I found no differences by gender. The post hoc examinations revealed that for the various racial categories, there were no statistically significant differences by group. With regard to sexual orientation, I found that gay male participants had multicultural competence scores that were statistically significantly higher than their heterosexual/straight colleagues.

I analyzed the third research question using linear regression in an attempt to determine if there was a relationship between years of experience and multicultural competence scores. There was no statistically significant relationship. The final two research questions used ANOVA and post hoc analyses to determine if there were differences in the multicultural competence scores of participants based on the diversity content in their graduate programs and their most impactful multicultural graduate school experiences. I found no statistical differences for either of those research questions.

Table of Contents

List of Figures	ix
List of Tables	x
Acknowledgements	xi
Dedication	xvi
Chapter 1 - Introduction	1
Overview	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Residence Hall Role	3
Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs Staff	4
Graduate Preparation and Multicultural Competence	5
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions	9
Significance of the Study	9
Definition of Terms	11
Organization of the Study	12
Conclusion	13
Chapter 2 - Review of Literature	14
Educational Impact of Multicultural Campus Population and Diverse Interactions	14
Institutional Commitment to Diversity	15
Increased Campus Racial Diversity and Individual Interactions	17
Individual Development and Openness to Diversity	19
Student Involvement and Racial Identity Differences	21
Racial Identity and Campus Climate	23
Challenges and Strategies Related to Creating Inclusive College and University Campus Communities	26
Developmental Models That Inform Multicultural Competence	29
The Role of Entry-level Staff Members in College and University Housing	47
Residence Hall Climate	49
Student Affairs Core Competencies	55

Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs.....	62
Diversity and Multiculturalism in the Curriculum of Student Affairs Graduate Preparation Programs	75
Conclusion	88
Chapter 3 - Methodology	90
Study Design.....	90
Population and Sample	91
Instrument	92
Validity and Reliability of Instrument	94
Data Collection	96
Data Analysis	98
Variables	98
Limitations	99
Conclusion	100
Chapter 4 - Data Analysis and Results	101
Description of the Sample.....	101
Descriptive Statistics.....	102
Demographic and Experience Variables.....	102
Graduate School Curricular and Experience Variables	105
Analysis of Research Questions	109
Research Question 1	110
Research Question 2	113
Research Question 3	114
Research Question 4	116
Summary.....	118
Chapter 5 - Summary, Discussion and Recommendations.....	120
Overview.....	120
Discussion.....	122
Research Question One.....	122
Race.....	122
Gender and Sexual Identity.....	125

Research Question Two	129
Research Question Three	130
Research Question Four	132
Limitations	137
Research Recommendations	138
Practical Implications	139
Summary	141
References	143
Appendix A - Survey Instrument	153

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 Visual Representation of the Intersection of the 10 Competency Areas.....	60
--	----

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Helms' White Racial Identity Development.....	30
Table 2.2 Helms' People of Color Racial Identity Development	31
Table 2.3 Pope and Reynolds (1997) Characteristics of Multiculturally Competent Student Affairs Practitioners	65
Table 3.1 Description of Demographic Variables	99
Table 4.1 Study Participants by Race/Ethnicity	103
Table 4.2 Study Participants by Gender Identity	103
Table 4.3 Study Participants by Sexual Orientation	104
Table 4.4 Study Participants' Graduate Program Diversity Curricular Requirements.....	106
Table 4.5 Study Participants' Experiences That Impact Multicultural Competence.....	108
Table 4.6 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Racial Identity.....	110
Table 4.7 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Gender Identity	111
Table 4.8 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Orientation	112
Table 4.9 Regression Descriptive Statistics for Years of Experience	113
Table 4.10 Regression Coefficients for Multicultural Competence and Years of Experience...	113
Table 4.11 Regression Model Explanation for Multicultural Competence and Years of Experience.....	114
Table 4.12 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Graduate Program Diversity Content	115
Table 4.13 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Impactful Graduate School Experiences.....	117

Acknowledgements

Over the course of my life, education and learning have been valued above almost anything else. This document represents the culmination of my formal education, but what I learned from my family is that education and learning are lifelong processes. Due to that legacy of learning, I must first acknowledge my grandparents and parents: Junior and Lucille Cook, Charles and Patricia Provance, and Steve and Debby Cook.

Each one of these individuals has had a profound impact on how I view learning and intellectual curiosity. Of my four grandparents, only one completed high school. However, I would never call them uneducated. Each one of them, in their own way, pursued knowledge and learning. My Grandma Cook loved to read biographies of personalities that she found fascinating. I still remember her reading Loretta Lynn's autobiography, *Coal Miner's Daughter*. She was also a Sunday School teacher for many years and spent many hours reading and studying her Bible. I can still see the thin, onion skin-like pages of her Bible. My Papaw Cook was someone who could fix just about anything. In particular, he was a skilled electrician, so much so that even after he retired, the factory where he worked would call him in to assist them in fixing problems. He was a great dancer, gardener, and in my opinion one of the best fisherman I have ever known. He was always searching for better ways to grow onions as big as your head and to catch that next "mess of fish."

My Papaw Provance was the definition of a Renaissance man. He had many "jobs" during his life, but his calling was being a farmer. He longed to be outside and to grow a bounty. He struggled for many years to make this calling a reality. This is probably why, when I decided to change my career path from optometry to working with college students, he was the first one to offer his unconditional support, telling the rest of my family to let me do what I wanted! He

also loved to read all manner of books and magazines. He is my style icon. He was someone who saw the way he dressed as an expression of his identity but also of the respect he had for people and events. He loved to laugh, and he loved music of all types. Along with my Grandma Provance, they exposed me to music and art that most people my age don't appreciate. One of my most memorable experiences was going with them to see the Glenn Miller Orchestra; this experience began my love of traditional jazz and big band music. In the far reaches of my memory, I can still hear his artful whistle.

My only surviving grandparent is my Grandma Provance. She has endured much in her life but has continued to try new things. Though she was not a quilter, when I was younger and Pac-Man was all the rage, she worked her fingers to the bone to make me a Pac-Man themed quilt. When my grandfather was diagnosed with Alzheimer's disease and she became his primary caregiver, she decided to learn how to create watercolors - something she had always wanted to do - as a way to care for herself during this difficult time. One of my most cherished possessions is a painting she did of my daughter, Audrey. Grandma also taught me lots of things including how to make awesome sugar cookies for all occasions, how to love Halloween, and that family is the most important thing that we all have. I am so glad that she is still here to see this accomplishment, and I hope she knows how much she played a role in my educational journey.

My parents have always stressed the value of education. Though I was a first generation college student, it was not ever really a discussion about "if" I would go to college but where. My dad, Steve, worked in a factory for almost forty years. During that time, he went through an intense training and education program to better provide for our family. I can still see him studying at our kitchen table to pass the next test he had. This was all after working a full day.

He has always told me that he has done it so that I don't have to. He wanted me to pursue my dreams.

My mom, Debby, has always been a voracious reader. She gets this from her parents! When I was a preschooler, she worked at the local library. Talk about showing a value for learning! She reads all kinds of books: fiction and nonfiction, mysteries and humor. As a result I have loved to read my whole life. I like all kinds of books and am moved by stories. Though I am a slow reader, I have never found school reading or leisure reading to be a chore, and I attribute that to her and to her example.

Together my parents encouraged me and all of my varied interests, regardless of how odd they might have seemed. They never asked me to be any different than I am and have always loved me unconditionally. Though I know they didn't always understand my choice of career, they are proud of what I have accomplished. This degree and accomplishment is a direct result of their example, support, and love.

To my siblings, Whitney Smith and Colton Cook, know that you also inspired me to achieve my dreams. I wanted you to be proud of me and be proud to be my sister and brother. Thank you for believing in me and always keeping me grounded. I love you both and I love your families.

To my work family, I greatly appreciate your unconditional support. I have been so lucky to have the support of my supervisors during this process. Dr. Stephanie Bannister, you have been a pivotal influence on me during this process, and outside of my family, have been my biggest supporter. I am so thankful that you are a part of my professional and personal journey.

Dr. Derek Jackson, you are the reason I work at K-State. You are my mentor and friend, who has helped me be a better version of myself and has supported me even when I didn't

probably earn or deserve your support. The trajectory of my career is very different because of your belief in me.

Christina Hurtado and Brooks Hetle are the two full time staff members I have supervised during this process. Your competence has allowed me to feel comfortable taking the time I need to pursue this dream. I thank you for guiding and supporting our graduate students and continuing to move the iTeam forward while always being interested in what I was doing in my classes and for my research.

All of the graduate students that I have had the chance to supervise over my career serve as the inspiration for this research, all 38 of you. I have learned much from you, and I appreciate your patience as I have done my best to guide you to the next part of your journey. My desire to pursue this degree so I can continue to guide young professionals is a direct result of the relationships we have built over the years.

All of my K-State Housing and Dining colleagues, both current and past, have also supported me, encouraged me, challenged me, and cared for me. I am so fortunate to work in a diverse and complex department that has brought so many wonderful people into my life. I am forever in debt to the staff in our administrative services, dining services, facilities management, and student living areas.

My major professor, Dr. Christy Craft, has done everything within her power to support me and to get me to this point. She has helped me hone my ideas, challenged me to think differently, and guided me through each step of this doctoral journey. What a blessing she has been to me in my life! There is no way that I would be accomplishing this without you as my guide and mentor.

To the rest of my doctoral committee, Dr. Kevin Roberts, Dr. Lydia Yang, and Dr. Be Stoney: I am so appreciative of your guidance, feedback, and support. I have learned much from you both formally and informally over the time I have known each of you. Thank you for being part of my academic story.

Dr. Doris Wright-Carroll, Dr. Betsy Barrett, and Dr. Sheryl Hodge were a large part of my coursework journey. I learned much from each of you and appreciate the challenges and the support that you have provided.

My church family at Peace Lutheran Church has provided positive and consistent encouragement during this process. Your prayers and genuine interest in me and in my journey has not gone unnoticed. The support that my family and I receive from this community of faith is one of the reasons this process has been possible.

Finally, I want to thank all of the teachers I have had in my long educational journey. I feel that the education I got in the Malden, Missouri schools, Southeast Missouri State University, and Ball State University have laid the foundation upon which this accomplishment is built. I would not be the person I am today without the dedication of these amazing educators. These educators have inspired me, and many of their voices run through my thoughts as I strive to live up to their example.

Dedication

I could not have done this without the love and support of my partner and number one cheerleader, Laurie! She has encouraged me to do this from the beginning and has created time and space for me to study, to write, and to reflect. At times she has had to be a lone parent and really juggle many hats. She has also made it clear that I can do this and understands why I wanted to in the first place. Her love and unconditional support has made all of this possible. I love you and am excited to not have this lingering in our lives.

My daughter, Audrey, is one of my primary motivations for pursuing this degree. Because lifelong learning was role modeled for me by my parents and grandparents, I want to do the same for her. One difference is that she lives in community where having a Ph.D. seems status quo. Through my persistence and tenacity, I hope she sees that earning a Ph.D. is still an accomplishment and challenge. She is quickly becoming a young woman and is a member of our complex world and society. My research topic and interest in multicultural competence is a direct result of wanting her to live in world where people treat each other with dignity and in which their whole selves are acknowledged and validated. I love you, Audrey, and want you to be whatever you want to be. I want you to know that you give me a sense of purpose every day.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

College and university housing is often an essential part of the college experience at many institutions. With an increasingly diverse student body, campus housing staff may find themselves struggling to meet the cultural needs of their student population. The staff who serve students in various residence hall communities have a unique opportunity to impact a student's experience in both positive and negative ways. Having a better understanding of the different cultural backgrounds of their students may aid housing staff in creating a more inclusive and welcoming campus climate. In this study, I plan to explore how staff members' multicultural competence is influenced by personal, professional, and educational attributes.

Overview¹

According to the United States Census Bureau in 2011, underrepresented populations comprised more than 50% of the population in about one tenth of all counties in the United States. Additionally, Hispanic and Asian populations are growing at considerably higher rates than the White population (Humes, Jones, & Ramirez, 2011). The diversification of the racial makeup of the United States is now coming to college and university campuses. These statistics do not even account for international students and individuals of non-racial, underrepresented groups that are part of college and university campus community. Campus climate significantly influences a student's college experience, especially the experiences of students belonging to racial minority groups (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000). Additionally, it is important to provide institutional support, structure, opportunities, and programming around areas of multiculturalism and diversity to enhance the learning experience for students (e.g., Astin, 1993; Chang, 1999; Hu

¹ All references to racial identities throughout Chapters 1 and 2 are in the language of the original source documents.

& Kuh, 2003; Zuniga, Williams, & Berger, 2005). Specifically, university housing facilities must be prepared to meet the needs of the changing population and to create safe environments for students. Entry-level housing professionals must possess the skills and competencies needed for creating these communities. Unfortunately, some research shows that entry-level housing staff members treat African American male paraprofessional staff differently than other racial groups (Harper, Davis, Jones, McGowan, Ingram, & Platt, 2011).

The two largest professional organizations related to student affairs work, Student Affairs Professionals in Higher Education (NASPA) and College Student Educators International (ACPA), both include multiculturalism and inclusion in their guiding documents. Specifically, NASPA has a *Commitment to Diversity, Inclusion and Equity* document that encourages student affairs professionals to live multicultural values in their work with students (www.naspa.org/about/diversity.cfm). ACPA includes multicultural competence as one of its core values (www2.myacpa.org/about-acpa/mission). The Association of College and University Housing Officers-International (ACUHO-I), in its Standards and Ethical Principles document, states: “Staff members will encourage residents to exercise responsibility for their community through opportunities to appreciate new ideas, cultural differences, perspectives . . .” (Association of College and University Housing Officers-International, 2010). To accomplish these goals, entry-level staff must demonstrate some level of multicultural competence themselves and then train and empower their paraprofessional staff to create communities wherein differences are valued, supported, and explored. For the purposes of this study, the concept of multicultural competence is defined as “multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills and entails the awareness of one’s own assumptions, biases, and values; an understanding of the worldview of others; information about various cultural groups; and developing

appropriate intervention strategies and techniques” (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2004, p. 9). Henning, Cilente, Kennedy, and Sloane (2011), in a national study of new residential life professionals and their professional development needs, found that these new professionals self-reported the need for the development of multicultural competencies as one of the top seven needs with regard to their professional development.

Statement of the Problem

As the demographics of the student population on college campuses continues to change, student affairs professionals will encounter increasingly sophisticated expectations for students, students’ families, and other constituents of the campus community. Thus, enhanced multicultural competence of student affairs staff is vital to the creation of inclusive campus communities. On-campus housing can influence the experience of all students. The nature of that experience is influenced by the multicultural competence of the staff in those communities and the professional preparation they have attained.

Residence Hall Role

Residence halls on college and university campuses often make the claim of being students’ home away from home. However, there is considerable evidence that students experience these communities differently based on their varied personal identities. Specifically, students of different racial and ethnic identities report having different experiences. African American students consistently report experiencing more discomfort in their residence hall environments than their White peers. African American students also seem less likely to get involved in hall sponsored activities and leadership opportunities than their White counterparts (Johnson-Durgans, 1994; Johnson, 2003). Feelings of alienation are also more prevalent with Asian American students than those of other races or ethnic groups (Johnson, 2003).

In each residence hall, there are staff members who are responsible for creating a welcoming community. That staff often consists, at minimum, of a full-time hall director and resident assistant peer leaders. How successful are these staff members in helping others feel like a part of the community? The racial backgrounds of the students living in residence halls seem to have an influence on how they view the residence hall staff members in their community. Asian American students appear to have more negative impressions of their residence hall staff than other students, yet African American students have more negative experiences with staff enforcement of policy and the overall willingness of staff to get to know them than White, Hispanic, or international students (Johnson-Durgans, 1994; Johnson, 2003). The relationships that staff are willing to form with students are also a concern for international students (Johnson, 2003). Once a student becomes part of the residence hall staff in a community, concerns related to community racial climate persist. Black male resident assistants have identified feelings of isolation, increased scrutiny, lack of support, and lack of role models. The actions of their fellow students significantly enhance these feelings but their supervisors in their residence halls can also have a negative impact (Harper et al., 2011). Thus, there appears to be a clear need to enhance the multicultural competence of the entry-level professionals who provide the guidance and vision for the creation of these residence hall communities.

Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs Staff

When exploring the overarching theoretical construct of multicultural competence in student affairs, the discussion in most of the literature points toward the need to better understand what influences professionals' multicultural competence. For example, King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) found differences between graduate students and professional staff, with the professional staff having higher levels of multicultural competence than the graduate students.

When racial differences were factors in this scenario, the researchers found that graduate students of color had higher levels of multicultural competence than their White peers and professional staff, which points to a potential disconnect between graduate students of color and their White supervisors and peers. This finding illustrates one of the challenges that staff members of underrepresented racial groups might face in the field of student affairs.

In further exploration of the multicultural competence of student affairs staff, Mueller and Pope (2001) compared White racial identity development to multicultural competence. In this analysis, Mueller and Pope (2001) found that White racial identity consciousness types that are associated with being more open to other ethnic groups, being willing to explore and to discuss issues of race, having increased knowledge of racial issues, and being less ethnocentric were related to increased scores on multicultural competence scales. Therefore, it appears critical for White student affairs professionals to continue their identity development work to impact their multicultural competence positively. Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas (2007) found that student affairs staff members' age, years of experience at the institution, or years of experience in their role influenced their multicultural competence, thus, prompting questions regarding the role of ongoing development of multicultural competence in student affairs staff members. Do staff members acquire a majority of the knowledge, awareness, and skills related to multicultural competence early on in their education, career, and professional development?

Graduate Preparation and Multicultural Competence

Various researchers have explored the idea of multicultural competence training and education, particularly concerning student affairs graduate preparation programs. In an early study, Talbot (1996) found that over three-quarters of graduate students indicated that diversity

training was a crucial part of their graduate program. These graduate students also felt that the multicultural competence of the faculty members who taught in the program was also equally as important. However, less than a third felt that their graduate preparation program emphasized diversity, and almost two-thirds of the students surveyed felt their graduate program provided moderate or lower levels of diversity training (Talbot, 1996). When exploring graduate preparation faculty members' skills related to diversity in the curriculum, Talbot and Kocarek (1997) found that teaching about the needs and development of students of color was comfortable or moderately comfortable to over two-thirds of a sample from 1991 and almost half of a sample from 1993. Comfort or moderate comfort with teaching the needs and development of sexual minorities was expressed by an average of nearly 40% of the faculty in Talbot and Kocarek's (1997) two samples in 1991 and 1993. Moreover, teaching about the needs and development of women was comfortable or moderately comfortable for over two thirds of the 1991 sample and three-quarters of the 1993 group.

Flowers and Howard-Hamilton (2002) reinforced the idea that faculty should focus on developing their multicultural competence. In their qualitative study conducted with underrepresented students in student affairs graduate programs, Flowers and Howard-Hamilton found that the graduate students underscored the need for faculty to be committed to their multicultural competence development and to have strong cultural self-awareness. With a more robust set of multicultural competencies, faculty can lead discussions and learning experiences in the classroom without underrepresented students feeling like it is their sole responsibility to advocate and explain (Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002). Pope and Mueller (2005) supported this concept in that they found that faculty who had more recent multicultural training or education expressed higher levels of multicultural competence. Pope and Mueller (2005) found

a similar relationship between the presence of multicultural issues in faculty members' research and their multicultural competence. Particularly relevant to this study, the researchers found that faculty who had taught a course related to diversity also had higher self-reported multicultural competence scores. The variability in how diversity is addressed in the curriculum of student affairs graduate programs makes it difficult to determine how these curricular experiences impact entry-level professionals.

To better understand the issue of multicultural competence in the curriculum of graduate preparation programs, Flowers (2003) conducted a survey of over 50 programs in the United States. At that time, almost three-fourths of the programs offered a diversity course as a part of the core curriculum. That leaves over a quarter of programs without a course. With research showing the importance and value of these curricular experiences in the multicultural development of future professionals, this reveals a problem in student affairs. It is important to note that this study took place over 10 years ago. While there is no further research, one would hope that over the course of the ensuing years, many of these programs either developed a course for the curriculum or determined ways to infuse the curriculum with multicultural content.

In a qualitative study involving student affairs graduate students and practitioners, Gayles and Kelly (2007) identified potential approaches graduate programs should take when considering multicultural elements in the curriculum. The individuals in the focus groups agreed that including a multicultural course in the curriculum indicated the departments' commitment to diversity issues. However, the participants felt that these courses should not just be a compilation of discrete diversity topics; it was essential that the intersections of themes and identities be explored. According to the students and practitioners in the focus groups, discussions of power, privilege, and oppression are also considered vital to multicultural competence. To help students

bridge the theoretical content and practice, the participants endorsed increased experiential opportunities to engage with those different than themselves. Such opportunities might include practicum experiences, integration into assistantships, or creating educational activities for their staff and students.

From this analysis of the existing literature, the importance that student affairs practitioners play in the creation of an inclusive campus climate is evident. It is particularly obvious that residence hall staff possess substantial responsibilities to build living environments that help all students feel welcomed on college and university campuses. It is also apparent that various demographic and experiential characteristics play a role in how people develop and experience multicultural competence. As a profession, how do entry-level staff members gain the necessary knowledge, awareness, and skills to serve the diverse student populations that inhabit our college and university campuses? Graduate preparation programs play a vital role in this development. How the graduate programs and faculty incorporate multicultural topics and experiences into the curriculum is of particular relevance to the profession since these programs are the conduit through which a vast majority of our new professionals obtain the core competencies they need to serve students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to understand the relationship between various demographic factors, professional years of experience, and graduate preparation with the multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals. Entry-level housing professionals have the potential to impact the lives of many college students (Belch & Mueller, 2003; Blanks, Twale, & Damron, 1992; Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). Their level of multicultural competence, likewise, has the potential to impact the climate of the communities for which they are responsible (Harper et

al., 2011; Johnson-Durgans, 1994; Johnson, 2003). Faculty who teach in student affairs and higher education graduate preparation programs have the opportunity to expand the multicultural understanding of their students. Multicultural competence is a core value of the professional organizations related to student affairs and housing (Association of College and University Housing Officers-International, 2010; www2.myacpa.org/about-acpa/mission; www.naspa.org/about/diversity.cfm). Thus, a better understanding of what influences multicultural competence should guide the training of housing staff, the design of graduate preparation programs, and the availability of professional development opportunities.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on demographic factors including race, gender, and sexual orientation?
2. Is there a relationship between the years of experience in the profession and multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals?
3. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the diversity content of their graduate preparation program?
4. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on impactful diversity experiences during their graduate preparation?

Significance of the Study

In 2001, Mueller and Pope suggested that the research on multicultural competence of student affairs professionals was limited. In the ensuing 14 years, that continued to be the case. Diversification of the college and university campus community continues, heightening the need for institutions and higher education administrators to analyze their assumptions about racial and

ethnic minorities and the impact of on campus experiences of students (Harper et al., 2011). Furthermore, an examination of the experiences and personal characteristics that influence multicultural competence is needed (Mueller & Pope, 2001). Over the course of the fall 2015 semester, the visibility of campus unrest related to racial inequalities at colleges and universities in the United States seems to have increased. In some cases, a dearth of administrators and leaders of color has exacerbated this sense of dissatisfaction. Engaging in authentic campus dialogue around issues of race and racism is crucial for the development of students and the creation of a welcoming and inclusive campus community. However, it is key that these conversations take place within all sectors of the institution, and their initiation should not rest on the shoulders of faculty, staff and students of color. In fact, residence hall staff were specifically cited as being essential to leading these discussions (Harper et al., 2011). Additionally, students of color who are a part of the residence hall community should be encouraged to share their honest feedback and concerns about the residential climate (Harper et al., 2011). To successfully conduct honest dialogues, student affairs professionals must have an understanding of their biases and strengthen their multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills. Solely relying on individuals who work in the diversity office on campus is no longer appropriate. Thus, it is critical to conduct research that examines the multicultural competence of student affairs professionals, because they are often the individuals responsible for significant portions of the programmatic and environmental components of academia. The results of this research will also assist professionals as they work with both majority and underrepresented student populations (Gayles & Kelly, 2007; Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). Conducting studies that focus on specific functional areas of student affairs could create further understanding of multicultural competence in student affairs (Castellanos, Gloria, Myorga, &

Salas, 2007). This type of research will also inform the structure and content of graduate preparation programs in student affairs (Pope & Reynolds, 1997).

Graduate preparation faculty and program administrators, likewise, have a responsibility to provide curricular experiences that enhance graduate students' multicultural competence and their ability to conduct and understand diversity-related research (Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009). Graduate students in student affairs programs have indicated a clear interest in diversity related courses and curricular content that enhances their multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills (Gayles & Kelly, 2007). The impact of the diversity content in graduate programs needs further investigation. Specifically, a better understanding of what types of experiences are provided and what impact those have on the students in the program could better inform future directions for program requirements and components (Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002; Gayles & Kelly, 2007; Pope & Mueller, 2005). Many institutions have addressed the multicultural or diversity aspect of the curriculum by instituting an individual course. However, there needs to be further exploration of the adequacy and impact of this approach (Flowers, 2003). There is slight evidence in Gayles and Kelly's (2007) study to support the concept that internships, practica, and assistantship experiences have the potential to influence graduate students' multicultural competence. The research proposed in this study could also illuminate what other methods might be effective in achieving similar outcomes.

Definition of Terms

Multicultural competence: Consists of “multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills and entails the awareness of one's own assumptions, biases, and values; an understanding of the worldview of others; information about various cultural groups; and developing appropriate intervention strategies and techniques” (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2004, p. 9).

Entry-level housing professional: Have a master's degree in college student development or a related field. They are working in their first full-time professional position in college and university housing. They are responsible for the day-to-day operation of one or more residence halls and also supervise the student staff members who live and work on the residence hall floors with the residents.

Race: Helms (1995) describes race as “a sociopolitical and, to a lesser extent, a cultural construct. . . Racial classifications are assumed to be not biological realities, but rather sociopolitical and economic conveniences, membership in which is determined by socially defined inclusion criteria (e.g., skin color) that are commonly (mistakenly) considered to be “racial” in nature (p. 181).

Gender: “One’s sense of one’s masculinity and femininity and the person-environment interactions related to gender roles and expression” (Patton, Renn, Guido, & Quaye, 2016, p. 182).

Sexual Identity: “The sense that individuals have of themselves as gay, lesbian, bisexual, heterosexual, asexual, or some other term” (Patton, Renn, Guido, & Quaye, 2016, p. 157).

Organization of the Study

In this study, Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study and explains the role of residence halls on university campuses. Additionally, the concept of multicultural competence and its relationship to student affairs professionals, and multicultural competence and graduate preparation programs in student affairs is shared. The purpose of the study, the research questions, and terms are also defined in the first chapter. The review of pertinent literature is what constitutes Chapter 2. The overarching themes explored in the literature are the educational impact of a multicultural campus, the challenges and strategies when creating inclusive campus

environments, developmental models that inform multicultural competence, the role of entry-level staff members in college housing, and the impact of residence hall climate. Further, the core competencies of student affairs, multicultural competence in student affairs and diversity, and multiculturalism in the curriculum of student affairs graduate programs are elucidated.

Chapter 3 is an overview of the study design, the sample, the instrument being utilized, the data collection process, statistical analysis techniques and limitations. The results of the statistical analyses are reported in Chapter 4. Discussion of the results and recommendations based on these results constitute Chapter 5.

Conclusion

Multicultural competence in student affairs is an important aspect of the professional preparation and ongoing growth of student affairs professionals (Association of College and University Housing Officers-International, 2010; www2.myacpa.org/about-acpa/mission; www.naspa.org/about/diversity.cfm). Additionally, residence halls on college and university campuses have a unique place in the campus community, and the entry-level staff who work in these communities have some degree of influence. Having a better understanding of what influence various characteristics and experiences might have on an individual's multicultural competence can lay the foundation for better training and education programs. By specifically directing this research towards entry-level housing professionals, we can gain a better understanding of how their development might be enhanced to create inclusive campus communities that support all students.

Chapter 2 - Review of Literature

In this chapter, I will review the relevant literature and theoretical constructs that relate to diversity and multicultural competence in higher education. Specifically, I will address the important role diversity plays in the overall learning that takes place in the campus community and the impact diverse interactions have. The literature related to creating an inclusive campus community and the challenges that arise and strategies that are necessary to address these challenges will be elucidated. Pertinent developmental models related to racial identity development and increased racial and multicultural understanding are also explored.

To establish the context for this study, an understanding of the core competencies of the student affairs profession is provided. An in depth examination of multicultural competence as a concept and multicultural competence in student affairs in particular also takes place in this chapter. Specifically, the Characteristics of a Multiculturally Competent Student Affairs Professional, developed by Pope and Reynolds (1997) and explained later in this chapter, will serve as the theoretical framework for this study. Further understanding of the role of the staff in college and university residence halls and the climate created in these communities is provided. Finally, the role that diversity and multiculturalism plays in the curriculum of student affairs graduate preparation programs is discussed.

Educational Impact of Multicultural Campus Population and Diverse Interactions

Colleges and universities across the United States have developed significant policies, procedures, and programs to support their diversity goals. Some of these activities are designed to improve the overall campus climate or support faculty and staff development, but much of the effort is directed toward students. Much has been written about the impact that these initiatives have on today's college and university students.

Institutional Commitment to Diversity

One of the important questions to consider is: How does the campus diversity policies and procedures impact students' academic outcomes? In a groundbreaking national study, Astin (1993) analyzed data from a larger study to determine the impact that diversity initiatives and campus environments had on desired outcomes. The emphasis the institution places on diversity has a positive impact on many outcomes that are often desired outcomes of colleges' general education requirements. In particular, cultural awareness and commitment to promoting racial understanding increase as an institution's diversity emphasis increases. Students' overall satisfaction with the college experience and the student life on campus also increase with increased diversity emphasis. Conversely, students' beliefs that racial discrimination is no longer a problem decreases as campus diversity emphasis increases.

Astin (1993) also found that how faculty emphasize diversity has also shown to have an impact on students. Like institutional emphasis, as faculty emphasis on diversity increases, so does students' overall satisfaction and cultural awareness. Further, it has been found that institutions that are perceived as having nondiscriminatory racial environments and practices have a positive impact on students' openness to diversity in their first, second, and third years of college (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hegedorn, & Terenzini, 1996; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Nora, 2001).

One of the ways institutions have responded to the changing demographics of their student population and have tried to demonstrate their commitment to diversity is to transform the curriculum so that it explicitly addresses social and cultural diversity. Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002) hypothesized that this transformation not only changes what is learned, but also has the potential to change the way students learn. Students who engage around topics of

diversity in class and interact with individuals who are different from themselves throughout the campus environment will be more active thinkers. In their national study, this was found to be true of all types of students regardless of incoming characteristics that might predispose them to engage in diversity activities and cross cultural dialogue. The researchers also found that the exposure to diversity both inside and outside the classroom promoted more engaged, active thinking amongst students.

In addition to enhancing students' thinking, one of the purported outcomes of increased diversity on campus and in the curriculum is improved citizenship behaviors. Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin's (2002) study found that diversity increased students' engagement in community and political activities, beliefs that differences are not divisive but additive, and their own awareness and acceptance of those different from themselves. Overall, taking courses that explicitly address diversity issues increases the likelihood that students will be civically minded through actions like increased propensity to be concerned about the public good, social equality, and making a societal contribution (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Hurtado, 2007).

To further emphasize the importance of a demographically diverse campus community, Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002) controlled for various curricular elements and found that informal and formal interactions with individuals who are different from themselves remained significant to students' education and citizenship outcomes, and in most cases, had a larger impact on the students than did the curricular elements of the study. Ultimately, increasing the frequency that students discuss racial and ethnic issues during the college experience has the largest number of positive impacts. This includes increasing racial understanding, cultural awareness, and the likelihood of developing a meaningful life philosophy (Astin, 1993; Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Hurtado, 2007).

Increased Campus Racial Diversity and Individual Interactions

Chang (1999) conducted further research about the educational impact of having a racially heterogeneous student body. In his research, he validated what many had assumed: Having a more racially diverse campus population increases the likelihood of interacting with someone of a different race and the opportunities to discuss racial issues. He also found that socializing with someone of a different racial identity increased retention, satisfaction with college, intellectual self-concept, and social self-concept. Likewise, Chang (1999) found that discussing racial issues increased these four outcomes as well. The forums for these types of conversations take many forms. For example, when an institution sponsors a cultural awareness workshop, it has the potential to increase racial understanding, cultural awareness and social activism among students. In fact, Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hegedorn, and Terenzini (1996), found that racial and cultural awareness workshops had a positive impact on students' openness to diversity, particularly for White, first year students. This same finding was discovered to be true for second and third year college students (Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Nora, 2001). Additionally, these types of formal experiences have been found to increase retention, student satisfaction and academic development. Workshops also decrease students' beliefs that racial issues are a thing of the past (Astin, 1993). Engaging in intergroup dialogue likewise enhances a student's ability to understand different perspectives and to have a more pluralistic worldview. These types of interactions increase a student's academic development and satisfaction with the college experience. When these interactions are positive in nature, they can also increase complex thinking and students' ability to understand different perspectives (Astin, 1993; Hurtado, 2007).

Hu and Kuh (2003) further considered interactional diversity exploration. They found that having conversations with people who are of a different race or ethnicity had positive effects on all students regardless of their race. These interactions affected diversity competence, personal development, and vocational preparation. Openness to diversity increases when the conversations center on controversial and value-laden topics. There were some differences among racial groups with regard to the magnitude of the effects. While both White students and students of color made gains, it is important to note that biracial students, females, and Black students felt that these types of activities were not prevalent enough on their campuses (Cheng & Zhao, 2006; Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hegedorn, & Terenzini, 1996, Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Nora, 2001).

In an analysis of a national student data set consisting of almost twenty thousand responses, Chang, Denson, Saenz, and Misa (2006) found that cross-racial interactions resulted in increased levels of cognitive development, self-confidence, and openness to diversity. Moreover, students who had more frequent interactions with individuals from a different racial background also experienced increased cultural awareness and desired to promote racial understanding. This finding held true regardless of institution type and students' backgrounds and identities. In fact the researchers found that institutional characteristics only accounted for 3.3% of the variance in these three measures (Chang, Denson, Saenz, & Misa, 2006). This further emphasizes the importance of providing opportunities for students to engage in diversity oriented programming to reinforce existing desires to reduce their own prejudices and to promote inclusion and social justice. However, it is important to keep in mind that the average college student has much development to do to move diversity from a concept to action. Specifically, in residence halls, Zuniga, Williams, and Berger (2005) found that participation in social awareness

activities and diversity awareness activities had an effect on students' motivation to promote inclusion and social justice. But, oddly, it did not affect students' desires to reduce their own prejudices, thus, pointing to the fact that there is no guarantee that planning diversity activities and creating a more demographically diverse campus population will be sufficient to create change on the individual level.

Individual Development and Openness to Diversity

In general, students' identities and experiences influence their openness to diversity. When researchers have analyzed the openness to diversity of first, second, and third year students, some incoming characteristics impacted this concept. Specifically, students with a higher entering academic ability were more open to diversity. Woman, non-White students, and older students were also more likely to be open to diversity (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hegedorn, & Terenzini, 1996; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Nora, 2001).

King, Baxter Magolda, and Masse (2011) further explored individuals' self-concept and their understanding of others. In their study, they specifically examined the role anxiety can play in the meaning making process, particularly around issues of difference. This study was an application of the King and Baxter Magolda (2005) intercultural maturity model through the lens of diverse interactions that cause students anxiety. This research comes out of a larger longitudinal study related to self-authorship. The scholars "explore(d) students' experiences with dissonance that resulted from interactions with diverse peers, focusing on how they understand these experiences, and thus, the lessons they gleaned from them" (King, Baxter Magolda & Masse, 2011, p. 472). The data collection consisted of interviews conducted with a racially representative sample of students from six different institutions that were participants in the larger longitudinal study. One of the major themes that emerged from these interviews was

the impact of diversity experiences, and more specifically, the discomfort caused by them. The definition of diversity encompassed race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religious belief systems, political affiliation and nationality. When analyzing the interview data, the researchers found students at all three levels of development across the intercultural maturity domains (King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011).

King, Baxter Magolda, and Masse (2011) found that if students come to the college or university campus with little exposure to individuals who they deemed different from themselves, they often found themselves stuck in their development. They might have even chosen to attend a specific institution because it would expose them to these differences; however, they do not know what to do or how to handle the observations they are making. Through their interviews, King, Baxter Magolda, and Masse (2011) discovered that one of the outcomes of this “stuck” developmental level is that the student does not seek out authentic and meaningful interactions with diverse others, thus, exhibiting the initial development level articulated by King and Baxter Magolda (2005) in the intercultural maturity model. Instead of using the anxiety created by these interactions as a catalyst for development, these students stop and might even retreat from these interactions. One of the things that professionals, administrators and faculty members can do enhance a students’ development is provide adequate support as they work through their anxiety and enhance their interpersonal skills (King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011).

In King, Baxter Magolda, and Masse’s (2011) analysis of their interviews, they identified students who exhibited behaviors that were also very consistent with the intermediate level of the King and Baxter Magolda (2005) intercultural maturity model. These students can articulate their anxiety. They can begin to separate people from their beliefs, and they attempt to avoid

judgment from those with whom they are uncomfortable and from those outside authorities that influence their thinking. That does not mean that they might not still maintain a dualistic mindset regarding beliefs. Similar to individuals in the early stages of intercultural maturity, these students need support, but they need support and programs that help them move past their fear of judgment so they can begin to explore their interactions with different others more (King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011).

Evidence of advanced intercultural maturity also materialized in King, Baxter Magolda and Masse's (2011) study. These were the students who used the anxiety created by interactions with diverse others to reconstruct their self-identity, their understanding of the world around them, and the relationships they developed. Ultimately King, Baxter Magolda, and Masse (2011) found that regardless of whether it was a White student or a student of color, they relied primarily on the initial and intermediate levels of meaning making. All of the students who exhibited advanced meaning making levels were students of color. Professionals, administrators and educators should take from this the need to focus not just on providing opportunities for diverse interaction or discussion about diverse topics, but also creating environments in and out of the classroom that then encourage students to move beyond the initial conversation or interaction. These initial impressions are fraught with anxiety, judgment, and discomfort. Institutions have a responsibility, if they believe intercultural maturity is a valued outcome, to provide that support (King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011).

Student Involvement and Racial Identity Differences

Students' experiences on a college campus are clearly influenced by their racial background and their individual development. Understanding these experiential differences is important to creating appropriate resources and programs to aid in student success. When

investigating how involvement in co-curricular activities influences academic success, students of color who are involved in leadership opportunities and general campus activities that influence school spirit seem to be more successful academically than those who do not (Fischer, 2007; Hoffman, 2002). Furthermore, involvement in student government, cultural organizations, social action and community service groups enhances students' overall perceptions of their cultural competence regardless of their race, yet it is important to note that there is variance in terms of what racial groups participate in these types of organizations. Asian, Black, and international students are more likely to participate in cultural organizations. Black students and students with higher grade point averages are more likely to participate in social action groups, whereas Asian students and wealthy students are more likely to be involved in student government. Community service organizations are more likely to be composed of female, Asian, domestic, and higher GPA students (Cheng & Zhao, 2006). Moreover, for first-year college students, joining a fraternity or sorority had negative impact on a student's openness to diversity (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hegedorn, & Terenzini, 1996).

When further investigating how various characteristics, relationships, and experiences influence students' college grades, there is significant variability by racial groups. Logically, being better prepared for college results in better grades for all students regardless of race. However, the types of relationships students have seem to influence college grades. Fischer (2007) found that for White and Black students, having more ties off campus negatively impacts their grades. The researcher also found that relationships with faculty members have a positive relationship with grades for all racial groups. For students of color, having more formal ties to campus resulted in higher grades, while these relationships showed no influence on the grades of White students. A student's racial background in combination with their relationships,

involvement, and perceptions also influence their satisfaction with the college experience. Fischer (2007) also found that regardless of race, students are more satisfied with the college experience if they have more extracurricular ties and friends. Further, having strong relationships with faculty members was particularly influential for the satisfaction of Black and Hispanic students. Moreover, involvement in formal activities is particularly important to Black students' level of satisfaction. In addition, Fischer (2007) found that student retention is also impacted by relationships, involvement, and perceptions. Reasonably, all groups were retained at a higher level if they had friends at the institution, but this was amplified for students of color if they were involved in campus activities. Thus, it is clear that providing opportunities for students to find their places within the campus community is critical to their overall success and is even more important to students of color, yet it can be a complex task.

Racial Identity and Campus Climate

The way a campus community supports and welcomes all students has the potential to impact student success. Fischer (2007) discovered that students who sensed a more negative campus racial climate expressed higher levels of dissatisfaction regardless of their racial background. However, students of color who perceived a negative campus racial climate were more likely to leave an institution (Fischer, 2007). In particular, Asian and Black students tend to report less positive views of their campus environment. An unwelcoming campus climate often results in racism-related stress for African American students (Fischer, 2007). This stress has the potential to impact their overall motivation.

In fact, Reynolds, Sneva, and Beehler (2010) found that institutionalized racism had a significant impact on the academic motivation of African American students. The policies and practices of the institution created decreases in extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in these

students. Moreover, in a qualitative study at a predominantly White institution, Saddlemire (1996) found that second-semester White undergraduates had limited interactions with their African American peers prior to coming to college and beyond. This limited contact resulted in less knowledge and understanding as well as the perpetuation of stereotypes and negative assumptions. If this holds true for many White students, then it no wonder that African American students have negative experiences on college campuses.

One study reported that African American male resident assistants (RAs) experience a different climate as part of their staff than other students (Harper et al., 2011). These men reported significant effects related to stereotyping including feeling the need to work harder to prove their worth to White supervisors. Black male RAs also reported feeling pressured to rely on stereotypes to enforce policies through fear and intimidation and utilizing hip hop culture to connect with White residents. These student leaders also expressed a burden related to being the only student of color on their staff. As paraprofessional staff members, they also indicated that they were held to a different standard than their White colleagues (Harper et al, 2011)

While reporting fewer negative climate issues, Asian and Latino/Latina students reported that they experienced unfair treatment by faculty and staff and were pressured to conform to racial and ethnic stereotypes (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000). Conversely, White students experienced little to no negative aspects of the campus climate including a lack of recognition of any racial discrimination or tensions of any kind experienced by their peers (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000). However, in one study, Latino students did express decreases in extrinsic and intrinsic academic motivation when confronted with racist institutional policies and procedures, though they experienced this to a lesser degree than their African American peers (Reynolds, Sneva, & Beehler, 2010).

While much of the existing research indicates that underrepresented students have a heightened awareness of negative issues on campus, White students also have a role to play in creating campus climate. Reason, Roosa Millar, and Scales (2005) investigated the evolving role of White racial justice allies. In their qualitative study of fifteen White students who were participating in racial justice activities at a predominantly White campus, they developed a preliminary model of racial justice ally development. Their model focuses on pre-college characteristics, curricular and co-curricular college experiences, and finally cognitive complexity.

When considering the influential pre-college experiences, Reason, Roosa Millar, and Scales (2005) found that structural diversity within their high school, positive intimate interactions with people of color, parental influences, and an overall sense of their Whiteness were significant to the development of racial ally status. Once in the college environment, coursework related to race, minority experiences, and quality interracial relationships were particularly important to the exploration of their Whiteness and understanding of other races. However, this understanding is only possible if the individual has the cognitive capacity to make meaning of these experiences. It was also crucial that these students see White racial justice ally role models in their campus community.

To that end, Ancis, Sedlacek, and Mohr (2000) discussed the importance of faculty and staff awareness and intentionality when dealing not only with outright acts of racism, but also with the underlying tensions and biases that create a campus community that is not comfortable for all students. The presence of same race representatives on campus can also be an important factor in students feeling comfortable on campus. Especially as students take on leadership roles in their residence halls, having African American professional staff was seen as a key reason

some Black male RAs chose to continue in the position (Harper et al, 2011). Moreover, for members of the campus community to take advantage of the educational benefits of a diverse campus population, they must pay attention to the climate issues facing students from underrepresented backgrounds (Chang, 1999).

It is clear that a campus rich in diversity and that has policies and practices that support all people is fundamental to students' learning, satisfaction, and comfort. Creating the right environment on campus where students interact with individuals different than themselves, but also see themselves reflected in the student body, faculty, and staff, leads to enhanced student development. Yet, it can be challenging for institutional leaders, faculty, and staff to determine the strategies to employ when trying to create more inclusive campus environments.

Challenges and Strategies Related to Creating Inclusive College and University Campus Communities

Diversity among the students, faculty and staff on college campuses is central to the teaching and learning mission that prepares students for our increasingly diverse global society. Institutions are consistently looking for ways to address the challenges of educating a diverse population. While this can lead to some controversy and conflict, focusing on the students' learning experiences minimizes that conflict. One of the ways to handle these challenges is by striving to enhance the curriculum and teaching methods in order to address disparities in preparation that is inevitably found within a diverse population. Another significant way to help students see themselves reflected in the educational environment is to validate the existence of multiple perspectives and to enable all students to think critically about their perspectives and the perspectives of others. Aiding faculty in developing approaches that capitalize on these multiple

perspectives and backgrounds in their classrooms can enhance the student learning experience (Gurrin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurrin, 2002; Hurtado, 1996).

Addressing issues of diversity on a college campus takes leadership from within the organization, and that can be one of the biggest stumbling blocks. Aguirre and Martinez (2002) articulated two major leadership practices that are essential to advancing diversity concerns on campus. One involves the “transformation of an organizational culture characterized by exclusionary practices to one characterized by inclusionary practices” (Aguirre & Martinez, 2002, p. 57). The other leadership practice “seek(s) to transition the academic culture to address diversity issues” (Aguirre & Matinez, 2002, p. 57). When a leader is attempting to change the academic diversity culture, they should include more explicit support of the research being conducted by underrepresented faculty and increase opportunities for underrepresented faculty to apply for research funding. Leaders that are seeking to enhance diversity on campus should also try to increase the participation of underrepresented faculty in formal faculty governance roles and empower them to give voice to critical issues on campus. Finally, Aguirre and Martinez (2002) suggested that leaders wishing to enhance their campus’ efforts related to diversity pursue the transformation of the curriculum from its Eurocentric tradition to one that emphasizes multiple perspectives and affirms diversity as a critical component of society.

An additional issue that is challenging the notion of creating inclusive campuses is the dearth of underrepresented faculty and staff to reflect the increased diversity in the student body. Many campuses have stated goals of increasing the diversity of its faculty and staff. However, mandating that diversity be taken into consideration as a part of the search process makes little impact on the actual outcomes (Kayes, 2006). Relying on affirmative action policies alone will not suffice. Recent push-back by White faculty toward affirmative action points to the

challenges of relying on policies only to accomplish the important task of diversifying the campus (Howard-Hamilton, Phelps, & Torres, 1998).

Davis (2002) sought to investigate what separates institutions that have successfully recruited faculty and staff of color from those that have not done so. The researcher focused on the thirty schools with the largest percentages of African American and Latino American faculty and students and the thirty schools with the lowest percentages of those same populations, in both cases eliminating historically Black colleges, religiously affiliated and schools in California and Texas. Ultimately, the researcher analyzed eight schools in each category. In this analysis, Davis (2002) discovered that successful schools have enhanced connections with individuals of color and organizations that support persons of color, infuse diversity into the curriculum and co-curriculum, address root causes of lack of representation, are proactive in their approaches, and measure their success. Additionally, increased cultural competence of existing staff and faculty on campus lead to more successful recruitment. Finally, a campus climate that has a real commitment to diversity, lack of overt racism, and limited opposition to affirmative action enhances the likelihood that a campus will successfully recruit faculty and staff of color (Davis, 2002).

As Davis (2002) found, education and professional development of all faculty and staff in the area of inclusion is crucial to accomplishing diversity goals. This education can come in the form of workshops, small group discussions, facilitated activities, or some combination of these. The goals of the professional development opportunities should be to enhance the intercultural sensitivity, awareness, and understanding of the campus community. Further, heightening their racial consciousness by enabling them to identify and address their own cultural and racial biases is essential to conducting search processes that are truly inclusive (Kayes, 2006). Issues of

diversity on a college campus are complex and present challenges for administrators, faculty and students, yet applying intentional leadership and recruitment practices can enhance the entire campus community. Many of the policies and practices that can enhance the campus climate seek to impact the individual development of all members of the community. This development is complex and layered. In the next section, developmental models that have implications for multicultural competence will be described.

Developmental Models That Inform Multicultural Competence

While understanding how diversity impacts students and what policies, procedures, programs and interactions make a difference to diversity efforts on college and university campuses, only a portion of the picture is illuminated. When considering the college and university students in the United States and the faculty and staff that educate and serve them, it is important to understand the developmental processes at play in their lives. One of the most critical developmental processes is coming to a better understanding of self. Various aspects of identity development significantly impact an individual's sense of self.

When considering racial identity development, it is helpful to understand how development within privileged identities frame the experiences of the non-privileged. Helms (1994), in an update of her original White racial identity development model, chose to contrast White racial identity development with the racial identity development of people of color. When discussing White racial identity development, Helms illuminated six different ego statuses with accompanying schema (manners of behaving). The racial identity development of people of color is described by five ego statuses with six accompanying manners of behaving.

Table 2.1 Helms' White Racial Identity Development

Ego Status	Status Characteristics	Schema
Contact Status	Satisfaction with the racial status quo	Obliviousness, denial and avoidance
Disintegration Status	Disorientation and anxiety provoked by unresolvable racial moral dilemmas that force one to choose between own group loyalty and humanism	Disorientation, confusion, suppression of information
Reintegration Status	Idealization of one's socioracial group and denigration and intolerance for other groups	Distortion of information in order to enhance one's own group
Pseudoindependence Status	Intellectualized commitment to one's own socioracial group and deceptive tolerance of others	Reshaping racial stimuli to fit one's own "liberal" societal framework
Immersion/Emersion Status	Search for understanding of the personal meaning of racism and the ways by which one benefits from it, leading to a redefinition of Whiteness	Re-educating and searching for internally defined racial standards
Autonomy Status	Informed positive socioracial group commitment, use of internal standards for self-definition, and a capacity to relinquish privileges	Flexible analyses and responses to racial material

These statuses are assumed to occur sequentially. As is clear they are also assumed to allow for individuals to manage increasingly complex levels of racial material and stimuli. The movement through these statuses are a direct result of environmental observations and exposure to the difference in allocation of resources and access by racial identity groups. The desired outcome of White racial identity development is a sense of racial identity that is not dependent on privilege and acknowledges the inherent humanity of all (Helms, 1994).

Table 2.2 Helms' People of Color Racial Identity Development

Status	Status Characteristics	Schema
Conformity Status	External self-definition that implies devaluing ones' own group and aligns with White standards of merit	Denial, minimization, and selective perception
Dissonance Status	Ambivalence and confusion concerning own socioracial group commitment and ambivalent socioracial self-definition	Anxiety, ambivalence and disorientation
Immersion/Emersion Status	Idealization of one's own socioracial group and denigration of anything perceived as White	Immersion: Hypersensitivity, and dichotomous thinking Emersion: Vigilance and energized collectivism
Internalization Status	Positive commitment to one's own socioracial group, internally defined racial attributes, and capacity to assess and respond objectively to dominant group members	Intellectualization and abstraction
Integrative Awareness Status	Capacity to value one's own collective identities as well as collaborate with other oppressed groups	Flexible analyses and responses to racial stimuli

Similarly to the White identity model, these statuses and their accompanying ways of being (schema) are assumed to occur sequentially. In contrast to the White racial identity development model, the people of color identity development model is grounded in the concept that people of color in the United States have experienced significant negative economic and political situations due directly to their racial identity. The major developmental hurdle to be surmounted in this model is self-acceptance in light of institutionalized racism (Helms, 1994).

When considering these two developmental models, Helms (1994) also contextualized the interpersonal relationships that result between individuals who are at various statuses of racial identity development. She described these relationships in four ways. Parallel

relationships are described as those existing between individuals of the same race who use schema from the models that are associated with the same developmental ego status and of analogous statuses if of different races. These types of relationships allow participants to maintain harmony and avoid tensions. When the White participant in the relationship operates from a more nascent status in the White identity development model than the developmental status of the person of color, that relationship is considered regressive. This relationship is characterized by implicit and explicit tension and discord. A progressive relationship is when the White person responds from a more advanced White identity development status than the identity development status of the person of color. This type of relationship results in energy and growth for both individuals involved. Finally, when individuals are at exactly opposite racial identity statuses, it results in a crossed relationship. According to Helms, these types of relationships are characterized by antagonism and are usually are short lived.

While Helms' White racial identity development and people of color identity development models are considered foundational, there have certainly been critiques and updates by additional researchers. Specifically, Rowe, Bennett, and Atkison (1994) provided four major criticisms of Helms's model. They posited that the parallel models that Helms suggested for both White individuals and people of color are faulty because societal position and power prevent similar development. The authors also suggested that the White racial identity development title is inaccurate, because the model does not actually describe the process of understanding Whiteness as much as it describes changes in sensitivity and appreciation of people of color by White individuals. The lack of research to support the stages and the directionality of those stages is also at issue. Finally, the fact that the racial definitions are placed on a Black or White dichotomy is not necessarily relevant for all White or Black

individuals depending on their community of context. For example a White individual that lives in closer proximity to a significant Hispanic population might experience developmental dissonance related to that racial group more than with individuals from the Black community.

As a result of these critiques, Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson (1994) proposed an alternate model in which they attempted to define White racial consciousness. White racial consciousness is defined as one's awareness of being White and what that implies in relation to those that do not share White group membership. The consciousness types are divided into two broader categories of unachieved White racial consciousness and achieved White racial consciousness. Some of these types might sound similar to those of Helms but have the distinction of referencing both an understanding of Whiteness and privilege and the role of other racial groups.

Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson's (1994) unachieved White racial consciousness consists of three types. The first is the avoidant type. This type is characterized by lack of concern for one's own White identity as well as any consideration for the racial identity of others. Individuals of this type ignore or minimize the existence or importance of racial issues. The second type is the dependent type. With this type, individuals do espouse a particular set of attitudes regarding their racial identity and those of others, but those attitudes are rooted in the ideas of those in authority over them such as parents, partners, or spouses. There is no consideration for alternate perspectives and no internalization of these attitudes. Finally, the dissonant type is considered. This type is very uncertain about their sense of Whiteness as well as their feelings towards others of different racial groups. As the name suggests, this type is the result of dissonance between held attitudes and beliefs and lived experiences. Individuals of this type are open to new information as a way to lessen the uncertainty of their existence.

Within Rowe, Bennett and Atkinson's (1994) achieved White racial consciousness domain, individuals have internalized and committed to some defining characteristics and attitudes related to their White identity and their perspective of non-Whites. The first achieved White racial consciousness type Rowe, Bennett and Atkinson (1994) articulated is the dominative type. Within this type individuals have strong ethnocentric attitudes and believe that White culture is superior and has more value than other cultures and therefore is rightfully dominant. This is actively expressed through negative and hostile behavior toward individuals of different racial groups while covertly manifested through reluctance to interact with anyone outside of the White racial group unless in a dominant role. Much of this is predicated on a belief in common negative stereotypes of different racial groups.

Conflictive types, as defined by Rowe, Bennett and Atkinson (1994), are individuals who are opposed to clearly discriminatory practices or policies; however, they are likewise opposed to any program or process designed to reduce or eliminate racism. Their focus is on fairness, justice, and individualism. Therefore any affirmative action policies that are designed to rectify existing or previous discrimination are inherently wrong because they treat individuals unequally.

The reactive type (Rowe, Bennett, Atkinson, 1994) describes an individual who is acutely aware of racial inequalities and understand that Whites are responsible for and benefit from the existence of discrimination. These individuals tend to play the role of White champion who attempt to save racial minorities based on White definitions of success and equity. They might even over-identify with individuals of color and romanticize their culture. These individuals often have significant guilt and shame associated with their White identity.

The integrative type of achieved White racial consciousness (Rowe, Bennett, Atkinson, 1994) is defined by the concept that there is no racial self-actualization, but rather, an understanding of one's own race. Also, the relation to others is an ongoing process. Individuals of the integrative type are striving to incorporate their Whiteness into their identity. Individuals of this type tend to exhibit a variety of behaviors stemming from a more pragmatic point of view. They value cultural pluralism but also understand that their impact is always framed by the reality of what will make a difference. They do not respond in anger or reflexively and are not captivated by guilt. While each of these types are discrete and might seem to indicate a hierarchy, they are not necessarily experienced sequentially. Some types might not even be experienced at all. One's type is determined more by individual and societal experiences versus time bound or specific maturation processes (Rowe, Bennett, & Atkinson, 1994).

While the White identity development models provide some understanding of many of the students on a college campus, how is racial identity development impacted when a college student identifies with multiple racial identity groups? In a qualitative study, Renn (2003), explored the way mixed race students experienced the college environment. Specifically, she explored the environmental influences on their racial identity. As a basis for her environmental exploration, Renn used Bronfenbrenner's ecological model (as cited in Renn, 2003) that presumes that individuals exist in the middle of a nested series of systems that impact the individual and interact with each other. In her study, Renn found that at the microsystem level, where the individual engages in face-to-face interactions with others, the students' understanding of themselves and of the campus environment were greatly influenced. Specifically, the ease by which the student could move between various identity groups swayed the students' perceptions. When confronted with incongruence between themselves and various monoracial groups, their

sense of legitimate membership in that group was called into question. Yet, if they were able to find groups of other mixed race students, their multiple racial identity development was supported.

When considering the mesosystem level, where multiple microsystems interact creating positive and negative synergies, Renn (2003) found that mixed race students were in unique positions to observe the way different monocultural groups accepted others and navigated the campus culture. The students often reported the pressure to choose a side of their racial identity particularly if the different racial groups on campus were not supportive of one another. While the previous two systems were influenced directly by the individuals, the exosystem is controlled by other individuals and does not include the students. It is actually the policies, procedures and pedagogy that are thrust onto the student in the higher education environment. In Renn's (2003) study, students reported that their racial identity development was influenced by the ways in which they were asked to identify their race on forms, what assignments and discussion were directed by their faculty members, and how they were made aware of the social construction of race in the United States. The exosystem also has the potential to influence what microsystems are available to the individual students.

In Renn's (2003) model, the final layer of the environmental system is the macrosystem. This system consists of the greater national historical context. In this case, the macrosystem is deeply rooted in the racial context that exists within the United States and the various struggles experienced by different racial minorities over the course of that history. Renn (2003) discovered that students found their understanding of race was influenced by the late 20th century understanding of the multiracial America and the intersectionality of their social identities. This

exhibits a vastly different understanding of race than would have been experienced by multiracial individuals during the middle twentieth century in the United States.

While an understanding of racial identity development is helpful to one's understanding of self, having an integrated understanding of various social identities has the potential to provide a clearer understanding of self and others. Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003) suggested an individual diversity development model. They defined individual diversity development as the "cognitive, affective and behavioral growth process toward consciously valuing complex and integrated differences in others and ourselves" (p. 453). Five different dimensions of development were identified that each have a cognitive, affective and behavioral element, while also representing developmental needs that can lead to further exploration.

The first dimension of Chavez, Guido-DiBrito and Mallory's (2003) diversity development framework is characterized as unawareness or lack of exposure to the other. In this dimension individuals lack a cognitive awareness of a particular type of diversity or otherness. Affectively, individuals have no information to base their feelings on therefore, there is no affect. They may not recognize or react to various types of difference even when they experience them. Thus their behavior is not modified.

The second dimension of the diversity development framework (Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, & Mallory, 2003) is the dualistic dimension in which individuals frame differences based on a dichotomy. Characterization of familiar traits as natural and good and unfamiliar as unnatural and bad is the standard approach in this dimension. Emotionally, they feel superior to those who display unfamiliar characteristics. Behaviorally, individuals choose not to interact with those different from themselves except to point to "wrong" behavior or correct these different

individual's behavior. In this dimension, individuals need additional education to broaden their perspective and serve as a catalyst for development (Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, & Mallory, 2003).

Questioning and self-exploration is how Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003), characterized the next dimension. This dimension is all about reflection. Individuals begin to move from their dualistic view of differences towards one of relativism. This dimension is particularly emotionally laden because fear and confusion often result from questioning previous held beliefs that have their origin in religion, family and other forms of authority. However, these emotions begin to be counter balanced by the excitement that accompanies a broader understanding of self and others. This dimension is often one that is experienced exclusively internally. Therefore, there is no outward resulting behavior. Most individuals in this dimension simply need to journal, read and explore independently or in small groups.

The next dimension of the diversity development framework of Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003) requires risk taking and exploration of dimensions of otherness. Individuals at this dimension challenge their own world view by entering the experiences of those who are different from them. Thus, Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003) considered this the most fragile dimension because the individuals expose themselves to discomfort and potential rejection from their family and friends as well as from people they are trying to understand. During these immersion experiences, the individuals reflect on all the minute details of the experiences of others and are cross checking those with their own experiences. This dimension requires consciously searching out new experiences, thoughts, and feelings. This is an experimental process.

The final dimension discussed by Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003) is that of integration and validation. Within this dimension, individuals begin to bring concepts of self and

others together. They begin to see themselves and others as members of a variety of subpopulations in a complex network of multiple identities. Cognitively, they can understand the contributions everyone makes to society and acknowledge the similarities and differences that exist between people. Affectively, individuals at this dimension seek to find stabilization and comfort in their sense of self and others. They strive to behave in a congruent way, where their thoughts, feelings and actions are aligned. They find that they can confidently interact within their own identity groups and outside those groups. Finally, in this dimension, certain behaviors and ideologies are not validated, and those ideologies that value diversity within the community are elevated.

As an extension of Baxter Magolda's previous work on self-authorship, she and King (2005) further explored individual diversity identity development. The researchers (2005) linked the concepts of self-authorship to cultural competence. They posited a model of intercultural maturity that was based on Kegan's model of life span development (as cited in King and Baxter Magolda, 2005, p. 574), which also served to undergird much of the self-authorship work done by Baxter Magolda. Thus, King and Baxter Magolda (2005) addressed three domains of development: cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal. As part of their initial propositions, they felt as though, "less complex levels of cognitive and intrapersonal (identity) development may hinder one's ability to use one's intercultural skills. Similarly, having a sense of identity driven predominantly by others' expectations may diminish ones' capacity to apply cognitive and interpersonal attributes in intercultural contexts" (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005, p. 573). For each of these domains, King and Baxter Magolda (2005) established three levels of development: initial level, intermediate level, and mature level. The domains and levels allow

for the illustration of the ineffectiveness of relying solely on knowledge acquisition and skill development when it comes to intercultural competence.

The cognitive dimension of King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) intercultural maturity model attempts to reveal how individuals think about and understand diversity issues. Individuals in the initial level of the cognitive domain often view knowledge in a very concrete way. Their views of the world often come from authorities rather than being constructed internally, based on their experiences. They view their cultural beliefs and experiences as the most relevant. Additionally, individuals at this level tend to avoid situations that might challenge their own beliefs. If they do find themselves in a situation to experience different cultural beliefs or perspectives, they simply view those other perspectives as wrong versus attempting to understand them.

At the intermediate level of the cognitive domain of King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) intercultural maturity model, individuals begin to open the door to other perspectives. They rely less on knowledge from authorities and begin to see the subjective nature of knowledge in general. The idea that different people and cultures can have different perspectives and those perspectives have legitimate value becomes more salient.

Mature level individuals in the cognitive domain of intercultural maturity (King and Baxter Magolda (2005) understand that knowledge is a construct and that context is imperative to its understanding. These individuals have the ability to utilize their personal experiences, their interactions with others, and others' experiences to understand multiple cultural frames. This gives them the ability to shift perspectives based on the context. In their exploration of the cognitive domain and its levels, King and Baxter Magolda (2005) stated that this developmental

sequence illustrates that more complex thinking is required for individuals to have an advanced understanding of different worldviews.

King and Baxter Magolda (2005) defined the intrapersonal dimension of intercultural maturity as how people view themselves. This encompasses the burgeoning field of identity development. Many of the existing identity development models posit that an individual goes from having little understanding of one's specific identities through a period of dissonance and confusion and then ultimately emerging with an internally defined sense of self. This sense of self is vital to intercultural competence, because having an internally guided sense of self provides confidence, which decreases the threat felt by different perspectives and values. Identical to the cognitive dimension, the intrapersonal dimension, according to King and Baxter Magolda (2005), can change across the three levels of initial, intermediate, and mature development.

At the initial level of intrapersonal development of intercultural maturity (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005), individuals show a general lack of understanding of their own social identities. Individuals will allow their identity, beliefs, practices, and values to be dictated by others, typically in authority. Experiences and choices are then viewed through these externally defined characteristics. These characteristics are allowed to exist without scrutiny due to acquiescence to authority. Individuals at the initial level of intrapersonal development will also feel threatened by cultural values and practices different from their own (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005).

Tension defines King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) intermediate level of intrapersonal development of intercultural maturity. Individuals at this level will experience this tension between their emerging self-defined identity, beliefs, values, and practices and the externally defined self that is prevalent at the initial level. This tension creates a desire for exploration of

self and how one's culture both individually and broadly is expressed in various contexts (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005).

King and Baxter Magolda (2005) viewed the mature level of intrapersonal development of intercultural competence as one of integration. Individuals at this level will have successfully integrated their various social identities into an internally defined self. This integration allows individuals to be more culturally sensitive and thoughtful in the way they approach intercultural interactions. Ultimately, having a more integrated sense of self will open an individual up for learning and interaction from individuals who do and do not share their culture, values, beliefs, and practices.

The interpersonal dimension of intercultural maturity in King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) model is based on the notion that effective interaction with diverse others and a sense of interdependence is an essential hallmark of development. Individuals are not asked to disavow their own beliefs and values, but rather, to create relationships with others that shows their respect and understanding of different experiences and perspectives. At the initial level of the interpersonal dimension, individuals tend to develop relationships with individuals that are like themselves. They critique cultural differences and social issues from a self-centered point of view. There might be a sense of tolerance for other cultures, but ultimately, they are viewed as ill-informed or wrong (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005).

Individuals at the intermediate level of King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) interpersonal dimension show a tendency for less judgment and a willingness to recognize multiple perspectives, thus opening them up to the opportunity to explore differences amongst groups and create effective intercultural interactions. At this level, individuals begin to initially acknowledge the social construction of expectations, laws, conventions, and rules of behavior.

All of this is moderated by the continued need for approval from others (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005).

King and Baxter Magolda described mature level interpersonal multicultural maturity as having an enlightened understanding and willingness to participate in intercultural interactions that are “interdependent, respectful, and mutually negotiated” (2005, p. 580). These individuals see these interactions as an opportunity to learn more about others and in turn learn more about their own identity and culture in the process. The ability to become an ally for social justice issues becomes a natural extension of the developmental process for individuals at this developmental level. The development of interpersonal dimension of multicultural maturity creates individuals who understand their own role within a greater society and the interdependence that is necessary for greater success and development of society as a whole.

One of the unique characteristics of the King and Baxter Magolda (2005) model is their willingness to explore the ways that the cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal dimensions overlap. For example, in their examination of the literature, they found that to begin to explore your own individual identities and their place in the greater context requires at least an intermediate level of cognitive development. When looking at the various levels of development for each dimension, it is clear that there are significant similarities in the characteristics exhibited at the initial, intermediate, and mature levels. In the earlier phases of development, individuals allow their thoughts, identity, and interactions to be defined by outside authorities rather than internally derived. At the intermediate level for all domains there is a general exploration of knowledge, self, and relationships. When inhabiting the mature level, individuals rely on their own experiences and self-determined values, beliefs, and practices to define their thoughts, identity and connections with others that are different from themselves.

One of the first instances of the use of King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) intercultural maturity model in the literature was by Abes, Jones, and McEwen (2007) in their work related to multiple dimensions of identity and meaning-making. In their research and subsequent model, the King and Baxter Magolda model served as one of the meaning-making models that they utilized for analysis and justification. They initially mentioned the intercultural maturity model due to its integration of the cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal dimensions of development.

Abes, Jones, and McEwen's (2007) reconceptualized model of multiple identity development has integrated meaning-making as a filter through which the influences of the context pass through. The permeability of the filter is determined by the complexity of the individual's meaning-making development. Thus, the cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal dimensions of the intercultural maturity model influences the permeability of the filter. For example, if an individual was at the mature level of cognitive development for intercultural maturity, the filter would not allow outside influences within the context to affect the way an individual understood their multiple identities.

Abes, Jones, and McEwen (2007) developed their own language to describe their observations of meaning-making and multiple dimensions of identity. However, these dimensions align fairly logically with the levels of the intercultural maturity model of King and Baxter Magolda (2005). Formulaic meaning-making is used to describe the most basic level, similar to the initial level of development as described in the intercultural maturity paradigm. Individuals at this level have minimal filters to keep out contextual distractions and the opinions of others. Additionally, individuals that are formulaic meaning-makers do not make connections between their individual social identities.

In the Abes, Jones, and McEwen (2007) study, they found that several of their participants were in a transition phase between formulaic meaning-making and what they researchers described as the higher order development: foundational meaning-making. Much like the intermediate level of the various dimensions of intercultural maturity, this phase is characterized by tensions. They are beginning to buck against the societal definitions of various identities and are making the first steps towards integrating their social identities. They do not always agree with stereotypes or various labels associated with their given identities. However, they are still relying on cognitive processes that were driven by outside perspectives and not always their own. In this case, the filter applied to the model would be less permeable than with formulaic meaning making but would still allow some of the contextual influences to mediate identity development.

Abes, Jones, and McEwan (2007) discovered that individuals utilizing foundational meaning-making have a generally integrated sense of their social identities. They utilize a more sophisticated filter that allows them to clearly see and understand the relationship between outside context and their multiple identities. This makes resisting stereotypes possible and allows the individual to present themselves consistently in the world regardless of the context (Abes, Jones, & McEwan, 2007). Foundational meaning-making aligns well with the mature levels of the intercultural maturity model where self-definition of knowledge, beliefs, identity, and relationships is key (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005).

Abes, Jones, and McEwan (2007) recognized the intercultural maturity model (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005) for its consideration of the intersections and connections between the cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions of development. Yet, Abes, Jones, and McEwan (2007) believe that their elaborated model creates three specific implications for

student development theory. One of those implications is related to creating holistic development models, like intercultural maturity, that address the complex nature of the human experience. Additionally, they feel that it is imperative that these models also address the intersections and interactions of the various domains of development. Finally, they also encourage professionals to have a better understanding of the complexity of the human experience and to relate that back to the theory.

The complexity of the human experience makes it important that we have a better understanding of identity development, particularly when investigating underrepresented populations and their understanding of their multiple identities. In a study of Black college students and their understanding of their multiple identities, Stewart (2009) found that the students recognized the external influences on their self-definition. On the other hand, they clearly articulated that their internalized definitions of self were central to their comprehension of their multiple identities. Specifically, these students tended to see their multiple identities as interconnected and dynamic. The Black students tended to see the contradictions that made up various aspects of their identity. They did not always use conventional or socially constructed labels to define themselves. Moreover, they tended to have a strong spiritual foundation with which they viewed the rest of their identity characteristics. This spiritual lens served as the meaning-making mechanism through which they came to understand their other identities (Stewart, 2009). These discoveries point to the uniqueness of being a member of an underrepresented group and the fact that as college students they had already considered the complexity of identity which many of their White peers are only just discovering.

Individual identity and an understanding of self is a significant part of the developmental process. In order to effectively work with students from a variety of identity groups, it is

essential that professionals in higher education recognize their own developmental status. In student affairs, one of the professional roles that has the opportunity to interact most directly with a diverse campus population is the staff in residence halls. The roles they play on college and university campuses are influential to the development of the students in their communities and on their staff teams.

The Role of Entry-level Staff Members in College and University Housing

The living-learning communities created within on-campus housing play a substantial role and have the potential to greatly impact students and their identity development. In general, Sandeen (1996) stated that on campus housing is “expected to provide a healthy, clean, safe, and educationally supportive living environment that complements the academic mission of the institution” (p. 41). This was not always the case. Over time the role of staff members working in college and university residence halls has evolved. In the 1960s, the residence educator, holding an advanced degree, supplanted the role of the housemother (Belch & Mueller, 2003; Frederiksen, 1993; Schroeder & Mable, 1994). As early as 1965, Riker indicated that the role of student personnel staff in housing was to provide resident counseling, plan programs, and supervise staff. Additionally, Riker (1965) advocated that residence hall staff take an active role as motivator, initiator and consultant with students, thus requiring that the staff members be able to effectively talk with students. These responsibilities require that entry-level staff members in residence halls have a broad range of skills from practical administrative competencies to instruction and management (Ostroth, 1981). Originally suffused in the idea of *in loco parentis*, in the place of a parent, housing staff were primarily dedicated to safety and maintenance functions. As the twentieth century progressed, this idea was replaced with the notion that housing professionals were responsible for the growth and development of students, thus

capitalizing on the learning opportunities central to the residence hall environment. The evolving role of housing professionals further supports Riker's thesis that residence hall staff must be many things to their students and the university. During any given day, an entry-level professional might serve the role of administrator, social planner, advisor, teacher, facilitator, peer counselor, or referral agent (Belch & Mueller, 2003; Blanks, Twale, & Damron, 1992; Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). To fulfill all of these roles, professionals must be able to provide leadership. But they also must see themselves as educational leaders on the campus. Housing staff members must understand the central role they play in addressing the educational mission of higher education (Asagba, 1995; Kearney, 1993; Schroder & Mable, 1994). All of this is in an effort for residence halls to be a constructive part of the campus. Staff members' commitment to the development of an educational atmosphere is necessary to achieve this goal (Upcraft, 1989).

While the role of on campus housing and its staff members has changed over time, it is important to understand the role that the resident director or hall director plays within on campus housing. Belch and Mueller (2003) defined the resident director as "full time, live-in entry-level positions in residence life with direct responsibility for residents within a building or complex of buildings" (p. 31). Often this individual will have a master's degree in student affairs, counseling, or a related field. Typically, they also have experience as a graduate assistant or resident assistant prior to starting this entry-level position. As mentioned previously, they normally live in the building or area they are responsible for in an apartment provided by the college or university (Schuh, 1996; Upcraft, 1993; Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). They are the individuals responsible for the selection, training, and ongoing supervision of the resident

assistants, who are undergraduate students who work directly with the students living in the residence hall (Upcraft & Pilato, 1982).

As the population on campus has become increasingly diverse, hall directors must also display some competencies related to diversity and multiculturalism. They should appreciate diversity because it is important that the residence hall environments celebrate and empower diversity. Staff can do this by bringing students together, not only to respect differences, but also to validate their commonalities through learning and development. The way the institution values diversity is expressed most frequently through the way staff within on campus housing address issues of diversity (Kearney, 1993; Schroeder & Mable, 1994). Thus, the role of the residence hall director is essential to the establishment of the campus climate through the climate they help to create in their communities.

Residence Hall Climate

Having established the role of entry-level housing professionals and their contributions to the creation of an inclusive community climate, it is important to examine the ways various populations experience on-campus living. This examination will include the impact of policy, the role of peers in the overall climate, and how climate is impacted by the various staff roles.

Entry-level housing professionals often have little voice in the establishment of various housing policies. However, the communities for which they are responsible feel the impact of those policies. Harkening back to the beginnings of higher education in the United States, creating specialized housing options for various populations has become increasingly popular in campuses of all shapes and sizes. These separations are often driven by specific policy approaches applied by the housing administrators. In an analysis of these various policy approaches, Koch (1999) found that these policies fall into two distinct categories: pluralist and

unitary. Pluralist policies allow students to separate themselves if they choose to do so. The pluralist approach is further delineated into special interest and laissez-faire procedures. Special interest procedures exist when housing administrators designate specific residence halls, floors, or portions of floors for students of a certain interest or population. Laissez-faire procedures allow students to separate based on their own preferences. The preferences of the students are given significant weight in the assignment process, yet no specific areas are designated by the administration. Thus, the separation happens based on students' choices. On the other hand, unitary approaches seek to integrate students from different backgrounds, interests, and majors in one community. This housing policy is more limited in what it allows students to preference. Unitary policies also take two different approaches. One approach is integration-oriented, in which students can choose a certain number of roommates, but those roommate groups are purposefully placed throughout the housing options in an effort to diversify the campus community. Some institutions take this method a step further by creating programs and activities that are designed to further connect this disparate group of students. This concept is called proactive integration-oriented housing policy.

When analyzing the existing literature, Koch (1999) found that there was some specific support for pluralistic approaches, particularly special interest, because it allowed staff to respond to specific programmatic and developmental needs of the specific groups in the special interest groups. However, unitary approaches tend to decrease the likelihood that segregated groups identify with stereotypes attached to that group. For example, engineering students, when clustered together, might start to believe that they fall into geek stereotypes. Additionally, unitary policies diminish the possibilities of out-group discrimination that can exist when groups

are segregated. Finally, Astin (1993) and Chang (1999) both found that unitary policies increase overall satisfaction and intellectual and social self-concept.

Koch (1999) also evaluated the housing assignment policies at three private colleges in the U. S. northeast. Overall, the author felt that the unitary approach, when supported by programming that encouraged and facilitated interaction, was the preferred policy method. However, the author also acknowledged the value of pluralistic approaches and felt that, based on the evaluation, institutions with pluralistic approaches can avoid some of the pitfalls of that approach by creating intentional opportunities for various groups and housing communities to interact.

In addition to the policy that influences who lives in our residence hall communities, the climate of that community is also determined by the attitudes and experiences of the students and staff in that community. In a large study of the experiences of African American students contrasted with Euroamerican students in residence halls, Johnson-Durgans (1994) found that in many cases African American residents perceived the climate differently than their Euroamerican peers. However, the article is unclear on whether that difference is positive or negative, just that their perceptions are different. In particular, the researchers found that African American students perceived the hall environment, the hall government, the staff, and their peers differently than did Euroamerican students. This included evaluations of how students perceived feeling welcome, hall government representation, fairness and consistency of staff, and feeling part of the floor community.

In an effort to respond to some of the limitations of the original study, Johnson (2003) used the same instrument to explore how a variety of racial minority groups perceived residence hall racial climate. With regard to perceptions of hall environment, ethnic minority residents

perceived things differently than their White counterparts. Specifically, Johnson (2003) found that Asian American students perceived the residence halls to be less welcoming than did White students. She also determined that Asian American students found hall programming to be less relevant than did their White peers. International students also shared this sentiment. Asian American, African American, and Latino students also found it harder to agree to the statements that “my hall is a great place for people of all race” than did White students. In the final environmental factor, African American and Asian American respondents disagreed at a higher rate than White students with the statement that there were “few racial problems in their residence hall.”

With regard to hall government, Johnson (2003) discovered that African American and Asian American students felt less comfortable attending these group meetings than did White students. Similar to the environmental assessment, Asian American and international students felt that the programming created by hall government was not of interest to all residents. One of the goals of hall governments on college campuses is to represent the interests of their fellow students. However, Asian American and African American students were less likely than White students to feel that the hall government represented their best interests (Johnson, 2003). The way racial minority groups perceive hall government and the environment is likely to be influenced by their opinions about their peers. In the case of one of the items related to peers, housing policies might also play a role in perceptions. African American, Asian American, and Latino students were more likely to feel that students were more inclined to move when they found out they had a roommate of a different racial or ethnic group than their White peers. White students felt students got along regardless of race, whereas African American students felt that students were less likely to get along because of race (Johnson, 2003).

One of the most essential components of setting residence hall climate tone is the staff. Johnson (2003) found that White students and racial minority students tended to view the staff differently. Treating people fairly and consistently is often one of the central tenants of staff selection and training. However, African American and Asian American students were less likely than White students to feel that staff treated residents fairly and consistently. Asian American students were also more likely to be dissatisfied with the number of non-Whites on staff. In an affront to one of the most fundamental functions of the staff in a residence hall, Johnson (2003) found that African American, Asian American, and international students were all less likely to feel that the hall staff related well to people of all races. One of the essential elements of the student staff and full time staff in residential settings is to connect with the students in an effort to better support them. Ethnic minority students in Johnson's (2003) study did not find that to be the case.

Throughout the study, Johnson (2003) found no significant differences between the ethnic minority groups. Asian American students seemed to be the most disproportionately impacted by the residence hall climate. The study further illuminates the need for hall staff to be mindful of their interactions with all students but to take a particular interest in the way their actions, interactions and relationships might impact underrepresented students.

Resident assistants, specifically Black male resident assistants, have also shared the frustrations expressed by underrepresented residents of on-campus housing. When Harper, Davis, Jones, McGowan, Ingram, and Platt (2011) investigated the challenges of Black male resident assistants, a few major themes surfaced. Being one of the only staff members of color in their department and having few, if any, upper-level staff of color to provide mentorship was a major concern for these students. Being one among many often resulted in issues of

spokesmanship, in which the Black student felt required to speak for their race, or they were often asked to deal with residents of color when their White colleagues felt ill-equipped to do so. Due to the lack of representation in supervisory roles, these Black male RAs felt as though their White supervisors scrutinized them more than they did their White peers. This additional examination led to inconsistent expectations and enforcement of those expectations. In general, they felt as though White student staff members had one set of expectations, and Black RAs had a different set. These perceptions by Black male RAs resulted in fewer returning for additional years in the position which only continues to perpetuate the cycle of underrepresentation and inclusion. Overall, this analysis makes it clear that entry-level staff who have enhanced levels of multicultural competence are key to helping students and student staff of underrepresented groups feel comfortable in the residence hall climate. They also have the ability to role model for White students, student staff, and fellow entry-level staff members. When staff demonstrate multicultural competence they can critically examine their assumptions, encourage difficult, yet meaningful, conversations related to the multiple identities that are present in the residence hall community, and seek the voices of the underrepresented students in our community (Harper, et. al., 2011). Overall, the climate in the campus residential communities are a direct reflection of the leadership of the professional staff that serve those communities. That climate is influenced by the variety of characteristics, knowledge, and skills the residence hall professional staff bring to the work they do. The core competencies that drive the successful operation of a true living learning community serve as guideposts for the ongoing development of professionals in housing and residence life.

Student Affairs Core Competencies

As a profession, much of the knowledge, skills and experiences that are brought to the campus community by student affairs staff, including housing professionals, has been taken for granted and not explicitly expressed. Prior to 2010, there was no centralized document that articulated clearly what constituted a successful student affairs professional. Researchers had analyzed what skills were needed to be an effective professional. Many of those studies identified similar concepts, yet there was no singular voice on the topic of competencies in student affairs.

In 1997, Pope and Reynolds conducted an analysis of existing student affairs literature related to core competencies for the profession. They found that there were lists of basic awareness, knowledge and skills student affairs professionals should possess at various levels in their careers. While many of these lists were similar in nature, there certainly were differences. Therefore, Pope and Reynolds attempted to synthesize this information into comprehensive categories and also to include multicultural competence that had not been present in any of the previous lists. The authors settled on seven competency areas: (1) administrative, management and leadership skills, (2) theory and translation skills, (3) helping and interpersonal skills, (4) ethical and legal knowledge and decision making skills, (5) training and teaching skills, (6) assessment and evaluation skills, and (7) multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills. Pope and Reynolds posited that while it is important that professionals have some proficiency in all of these areas, it is logical to think that some professionals will possess more awareness, knowledge, and skills in certain areas based on their experiences and job responsibilities. Additionally, the authors suggested through this that all of these competencies are interrelated and have the potential to inform one another as well.

Prior to 2010, student affairs professionals or professional organizations had yet to create a comprehensive competency document. Therefore, researchers and professionals seeking to understand what were the core abilities and skills necessary to be a successful professional had to continue to do their own analysis of existing articles and research. Lovell and Kosten (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of the existing literature to determine the necessary skills, knowledge and traits for success as a student affairs professional. In their study, they analyzed 23 publications that were empirical in nature and that were explicitly related to the concepts of competencies, skills, or knowledge bases required in student affairs. These articles were then coded using key words and inspected for information about what type of institution and what level of professional was being analyzed. They found that 26% of the studies investigated the competencies necessary to be a successful senior student affairs officer. New professionals make up a significant portion of our profession, yet the competencies they need to be effective was only the emphasis of 9% of the studies found by the researchers. Midlevel managers were the focus of 13% of the studies. Four year institutions dominated the research with 52% of the studies being centered around professionals in those campus settings, while no studies singularly analyzed community colleges and other two year institutions. Thirteen percent of the studies were a combination of four year and two year institutions, and 35% of the studies made no distinction in the institution type. Furthermore, public institutions accounted for 17% of the studies, whereas 43% were conducted using public and private institutions. Thirty-nine percent of the research gave no indication of the public or private nature of the institutions under investigation.

After determining the context for these studies, Lovell and Kosten (2000) moved on to analyzing the actual skills, knowledge, and personal traits that were found to lead to success.

Specific skills were mentioned in 90% of the articles, while knowledge of definite topics or concepts were identified in 70% of the studies. Personal traits or qualities were mentioned in 48% of the research. Concerning key skills, administration and management skills were mentioned in 19 of the 23 articles. Human facilitation skills such as supervision, counseling, and interpersonal relationships were found to be essential in 83% of the studies. Research, evaluation, and assessment had significant importance in 57% of the studies, while communication skills and leadership skills were present in 48% and 43% of the studies, respectively. Other skills that were mentioned in the studies were only mentioned in a handful of situations, and thus, appeared to have less salience.

When Lovell and Kosten (2000) considered what knowledge is essential for student affairs professionals, they found much less agreement in the existing studies. The researchers found that student development theory was illuminated in 22% of the studies, while an understanding of specific functional area responsibilities were cited in thirteen percent of the studies. Having specific academic knowledge related to student affairs was also mentioned in thirteen percent of the studies. While 70% of the studies mentioned specific knowledge bases, there seems to be a lack of consensus regarding what knowledge is actually necessary.

Finally, when looking at essential personal traits for success as a student affairs professional, Lovell and Kosten (2000) found that 35% of the traits mentioned were interactive in nature such as working cooperatively and creating successful interpersonal relationships. Individual characteristics, such as integrity, interest in students, and sense of humor, were mentioned in 26% of the studies.

Lovell and Kosten (2000) also tried to determine if there were differences in the types of competencies that were expected of various levels of professionals in student affairs. When

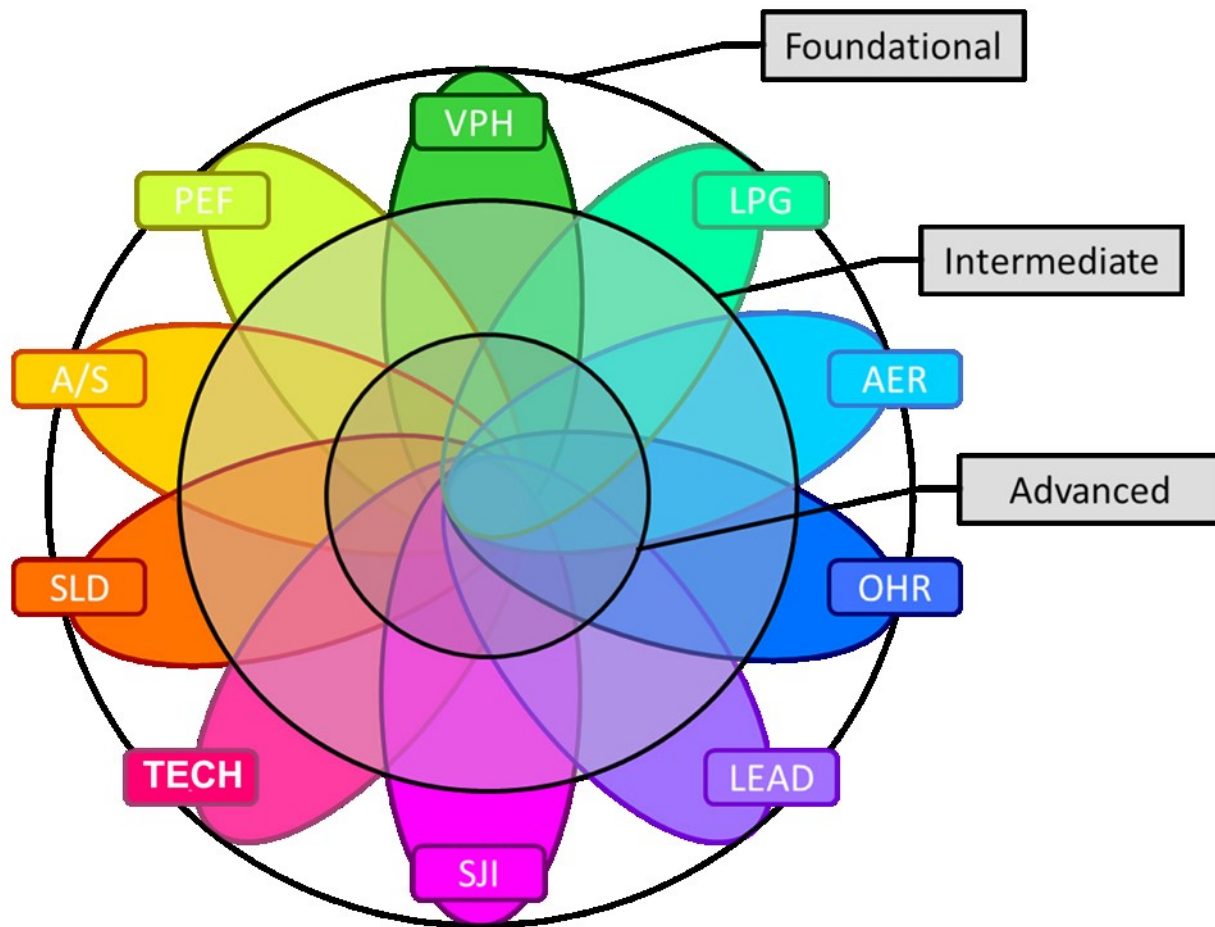
analyzing the studies they found that knowledge and skills were the most investigated competencies, while personal traits were the least. In fact, skills were the most explored for senior, mid- and entry-level professionals, and knowledge was the second most common set of competencies considered for all levels. Lovell and Kosten's (2000) study illuminated the continued need to explore competencies and the role they play in the student affairs profession. Furthermore, they point to the need to devote some attention to the competence of entry-level professionals who comprise a significant portion of the field but are not currently the focus of much of the research.

In 2009, the two largest student affairs professional organizations in the United States, ACPA and NASPA convened a joint task to create a comprehensive professional competency document. *Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Practitioners* was the final product of this task force. This document's purpose was "to define the broad professional knowledge, skills and in some cases attitudes expected of student affairs professionals regardless of their area of specialization or positional role within the field" (ACPA & NASPA, 2009, p. 3). The ultimate goal of the document was to inform the professional development of professionals across the United States. The task force identified ten competency areas with specific knowledge, skills and attitudes that are needed to demonstrate that competency. The lists of knowledge, skills and attitudes are divided into three levels, basic, intermediate, and advanced to illustrate the increased complexity that comes with additional years of experience and professional development. In addition to the ten competency areas, the task force identified three threads that are woven throughout each competency: technology, sustainability and globalism (ACPA & NASPA, 2009). Largely, this model seemed to meet the overarching purpose with which ACPA and NASPA charged the joint task force.

One of the commitments made by the two associations when the original document was created was frequent evaluation and revision. In light of this commitment the organization appointed a second joint task force to begin that review process in the summer of 2014. Through the work of this task force, a revised version of the competency document was affirmed by ACPA and NASPA in July of 2015. This new document was called the *Professional Competency Areas for Student Affairs Educators*. The new version maintains ten competency areas, however, some have been renamed, combined and one area has been added. The knowledge, skills and attitudes related to each competency area are divided into three levels, foundational, intermediate, and advanced to illustrate the complexity that comes with additional years of experience and professional development (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

The joint task force also created a visual representation of the complex nature of competency and professional development. Specifically, they articulated, “there is significant overlap or intersection among the outcomes associated with the various competency areas . . . this suggests that professional development work in any one competency area is related to work in multiple other areas” (ACPA & NASPA, 2015, p. 9). The task force also suggested that as one becomes more experienced, moving from foundational to advanced, the overlap of competency areas increase to illustrate the fusion of knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary as professionals advance in their career (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

Figure 2.1 Visual Representation of the Intersection of the 10 Competency Areas



ACPA-College Student Educators International & NASPA-Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (2015)

The first competency area that the ACPA and NASPA (2015) task force identified is personal and ethical foundations (PEF) which addresses the personal and professional integration of ethical practices into the day-to-day work that an individual does as well as the policies and procedures they enact. This combination reflects the concept that to be an ethical professional one must have a strong sense of one's values, strengths, and weaknesses. Furthermore, it is difficult to be committed to students and their success if one is unable to manage their own personal wellness. In the ACPA and NASPA model, student affairs professionals should also have an understanding of the values, philosophy, and history (VPH) that underpins the profession. The VPH competency area guarantees that current and future practice and research

in student affairs is coupled with the field's origins, development, and the ideals that it upholds. Assessment, evaluation and research (AER) describe the next competency area. This area contains the knowledge and skills necessary to conduct qualitative and quantitative research and to utilize assessment and evaluation process and their results to improve the work being done in an office, area or personally (ACPA & NASPA, 2015).

All of the work done in student affairs takes place in a legal, political, and organizational structure. ACPA and NASPA (2015) expressed that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes essential to situating one's work in the legal constructs, policy environment, and governance structure of the greater institutional context comprise that next competency area: law, policy, and governance (LPG). One of the most fundamental aspects of the work of student affairs professionals is managing organizational and human resources (OHR). This competency entails all the selection, supervision, and evaluation of staff members. Managing the political nature of organizations, groups, and relationships is also a part of this competency area. Finally, this area addresses the management of fiscal and facility resources and the crisis and risk management skills necessary when overseeing students, faculty and staff.

The way a staff member manages the human and organizational resources is also impacted by leadership skills, knowledge, and attitudes. The leadership (LEAD) competency is comprised of how individuals aid in the visioning, planning and change process in an organization and effectively work with the varied constituencies of higher education (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). Social justice and inclusion (SJI) is the next competency area and it considers the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable professionals to create inclusive learning communities for the entire campus and encourages exploration of the variety of worldviews present in the academy. With this competency, the ACPA and NASPA task force (2015) wanted

to emphasize the notion that social justice is defined as an active, participatory process that seeks equal participation by all members of a community.

Student learning and development (SLD) is the next competency, incorporating knowledge of student development theory and the integration of that theory into professional practice (ACPA & NASPA, 2015). The next competency is technology (TECH). The ACPA and NASPA task force (2015) found that impact of technology in student affairs began to become more prevalent. In this context, technology is meant to not just imply the use of various hardware and software but also the use of innovation and technology to improve processes, the student experience and enhance student learning. The final competency area identified by the joint task force (ACPA & NASPA, 2015) is advising and supporting (A/S). The advising and supporting competency encompasses all of the counseling, advising and supervision knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to work with students, students groups, colleagues, and employees. Much like in the 2009 version of the competency model, the 2015 ACPA and NASPA joint task force identified three areas of emphasis that were all encompassing of the entire model: sustainability, globalism, and collaboration. The addition of collaboration was designed to emphasize the essential nature of collaboration in student affairs work but also to align the model with the current research that points to collaboration as a key component of any successful student learning endeavor. The work of the 2015 joint task force represents the continued effort of student affairs as a profession to advance a clear set of competencies to guide the development of all professionals.

Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs

Given the work of ACPA and NASPA, it is clear that diversity and multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills are a necessary part of being a successful student affairs

professional. While the joint competency documents from ACPA and NASPA are relatively new, the idea of multicultural competence in helping professions is not a new one. In the field of counseling, multicultural competence is defined as understanding one's own biases, cultural assumptions, and the worldview of culturally diverse individuals (Ancis & Marshall, 2010). In the student affairs literature, authors have taken some of their cues from the world of counseling psychology. Pope and Reynolds (1997) specifically began to enliven this conversation related to core competencies within student affairs. They developed a model that included multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills as one of the seven domains that are essential for successful work in student affairs. The other six domains were theory and translation, administrative and management skills, helping and interpersonal skills, assessment and evaluation, teaching and training, and ethical and legal experiences. Similar to the ACPA and NASPA competency model, Pope and Reynolds (1997) proposed that all of these domains inform the work in the other domains. Therefore, multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills will have an influence on all of the other domains.

In a thorough evaluation of the counseling psychology and higher education literature, Pope and Reynolds (1997) further illuminated the domains of multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills. In the literature, Pope and Reynolds discovered Pedersen's (1988) definition of multicultural awareness as "the attitudes, beliefs, values, assumptions and self-awareness necessary to serve students who are culturally different from oneself" (as cited in Pope & Reynolds, 1997, p. 270). Pope and Reynolds (1997) also explained multicultural knowledge as "the information individuals have about various cultures" (p. 270). Finally, Pope-Davis and Dings (1995) defined multicultural skills as those things that "allow for meaningful

interaction . . . with people who differ from them culturally” (as cited in Pope & Reynolds, 1997, p. 270).

Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) elaborated on the previous work by indicating that multicultural competence in student affairs can no longer be viewed as a specialized area that should only be dealt with by specifically trained staff members. Multicultural competence must be an emphasis to best meet the needs of all students. The authors were also clear to define multiculturalism broadly. Therefore, Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) embraced the traditional race-based definition as well as the more inclusive concepts of individual identities and experiences related to culture. They also were very careful to reiterate the necessity of weaving multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills into every aspect of the work of student affairs practitioners. With the growing complexity of the college and university campus community, student affairs professionals must capitalize on their multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills to effectively carry out their responsibilities.

To elaborate on this model of multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills, Pope and Reynolds (1997) attempted to define specific components that would align under the awareness, knowledge and skills domains. Their initial iteration of this list contained 43 concepts or behaviors. However, upon further review they narrowed the list to 36. Those concepts and behaviors were then sorted to determine which category they fit within: multicultural awareness, knowledge, or skills. The authors then presented their model during a multicultural issues workshop for feedback and lastly allowed a focus group to provide their perspective about the 36 items. After these two feedback opportunities, Pope and Reynolds (1997) confirmed 32 concepts and behaviors that make up their model.

Table 2.3 Pope and Reynolds (1997) Characteristics of Multiculturally Competent Student Affairs Practitioners

Multicultural Awareness	Multicultural Knowledge	Multicultural Skills
A belief that differences are valuable and that learning about others who are culturally different is necessary and rewarding.	Knowledge of diverse cultures and oppressed groups (i.e. history, traditions, values, customs, resources, issues).	Ability to identify and openly discuss cultural differences and issues.
A willingness to take risks and see them as necessary and important for personal and professional growth.	Information about how change occurs for individual values and behaviors.	Ability to assess the impact of cultural differences on communication and effectively communicate across those differences.
A personal commitment to justice, social change and combating oppression.	Knowledge about the ways that cultural differences affect verbal and nonverbal communication.	Capability to empathize and genuinely connect with individuals who are culturally different from themselves.
A belief in the value and significance of their own cultural heritage and world view as a starting place for understanding others who are culturally different from them.	Knowledge about how gender, class, race and ethnicity, language, nationality, sexual orientation, age, religion or spirituality, disability, and ability affect individuals and their experiences.	Ability to incorporate new learning and prior learning in new situations.
A willingness to self-examine, and when necessary, challenge and change, their own values, world view, assumptions and biases.	Information about culturally appropriate resources and how to make referrals.	Ability to gain the true respect of individuals who are culturally different from themselves.
An openness to change and belief that change is necessary and positive.	Information about the nature of institutional oppression and power.	Capability to accurately assess their own multicultural skills, comfort level, growth, and development.
An acceptance of other world views and perspectives and a willingness to acknowledge that they, as individuals, do not have all their answers.	Knowledge about identity development models and the acculturation process for members of oppressed groups and its impact on individuals, groups, intergroup relations, and society.	Ability to differentiate between individual differences, cultural differences, and universal similarities.
A belief that cultural differences do not have to interfere with effective communication or meaningful relationships.	Knowledge about within-group differences and understanding of multiple identities and multiple oppressions.	Ability to challenge and support individuals and systems around oppression issues in a manner that optimizes multicultural interventions.
Awareness of their own cultural heritage and how it affects their world view, values and assumptions.	Information and understanding of internalized oppression and its impact on identity and self-esteem.	Ability to make individual group, and institutional multicultural interventions.
Awareness of their own behavior and its impact on others.	Knowledge about institutional barriers which limit access to and success in higher education for members of oppressed groups.	Ability to use cultural knowledge and sensitivity to make more culturally sensitive and appropriate interventions.
Awareness of the interpersonal process which occurs within a multicultural dyad.	Knowledge about systems theories and how systems change.	

Shortly after developing the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs matrix, Raechele Pope collaborated with John Mueller to create an instrument that was capable of measuring multicultural competence in student affairs practitioners (Pope & Mueller, 2000). After a couple versions of the instrument, they settled on the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2). In addition to the initial research to develop the instrument, the MCSA-P2 has been used in a few empirical research studies with various student affairs practitioner populations.

Mueller and Pope (2001) used the instrument to investigate the relationship between multicultural competence and White racial consciousness in 534 White student affairs practitioners. The intersection of White racial consciousness and multicultural competences was of particular interest to the researchers due to the dearth of staff members from underrepresented populations in roles of leadership in student affairs. Thus, many of the programmatic and policy related decisions that impact students are being made by White administrators. The researchers mailed four different instruments to 720 White administrators from institutions across the United States. Of those sent, 534 came back usable. The average age of the participants was 34.2 years old and the vast majority of the respondents were women (64%). At minimum a master's degree was obtained by 69% of the sample, with 34% being midlevel administrators, 33% entry-level, 25% graduate students, and 4% senior level. The largest number of staff were currently employed in residence life (32%), while the remainder represented 25 other areas within student affairs.

The instruments used by Mueller and Pope (2001) included the MCSA-P2 and the Oklahoma Racial Attitudes Scale-Preliminary form (ORAS-P). The study also included the Marlowe Crowne-Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS) to control for any social desirability issue

that might be present due to the self-reported nature of the other instruments. Finally, a personal demographic form was included to help control for other demographic characteristics as well as for training and job related tasks that might influence participants' multicultural competence and White identity consciousness.

Mueller and Pope (2001) conducted a hierarchical regression to determine the amount of variance in multicultural competence that could be accounted for by White racial consciousness. The regression steps were entered in using first the demographic block of variables, then the experience and job variables, the social desirability variables, and finally the White racial consciousness variables. When completed, White racial consciousness variables accounted for a statistically significant 20% of the variability in participants' multicultural competence. This variance is in addition to the variance accounted for by demographic characteristics, experiences and job tasks, and social desirability. In fact, the authors found that there was no statistically significant contribution to the variance by social desirability.

The ORAS-P is based on the White racial consciousness model proposed by Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson (1994). The instrument further differentiates White racial consciousness into specific types. Individuals who were found to be of the avoidant, dominative and conflictive types of White racial consciousness impacted multicultural competence in a negative direction. This is not particularly surprising considering that individuals of the avoidant type are not at all interested in discussing or exploring racial identity, dominative type individuals believe that White racial identity is superior thus has a right to dominate, and conflictive types believe in fairness above all things and thus resist any ideas, process or programs that seem to benefit those who are discriminated against unequally. Those who were found to be reactive in regards to their White racial consciousness predicted multicultural competence positively. This is also

logical considering that those of the reactive type have a higher level of awareness of racial inequalities and look for chances to learn more about other racial groups. Thus based on this data, increased multicultural competence is associated with being more open to other ethnic groups, being willing to explore and discuss issues of race, having increased knowledge of racial issues and being less ethnocentric (Mueller & Pope, 2001).

When investigating the other influential variables that were not part of the White racial consciousness scale, Mueller and Pope (2001) found that being a member of a socially marginalized group statistically significantly and positively impacted multicultural competence. When looking at the experiential variables, implementing multicultural programs and policies, education, and training on issues of multiculturalism and discussing multicultural issues with supervisors were also found to positively and significantly impact multicultural competence. Finally, having a general interest in working with diverse students and staff also significantly and positively accounted for variance in participants' multicultural competence.

Additional research has been conducted in which the multicultural competency assessment developed by Pope and Mueller was applied to various populations and situations. King and Howard- Hamilton (2003) used the assessment to compare the multicultural competence of graduate students in student affairs who were preparing to graduate with that of the professionals who provided their practicum and internship experiences. Of particular interest were differences by race and gender. The authors used the initial version of Pope and Mueller's assessment tool when surveying students in four college student personnel master's degree programs in the midwest and southwest in addition to a questionnaire they developed that included demographic information and questions about personal and educational experiences that

might impact multicultural competence. Eighty-four graduate students participated as well as thirty-nine professional staff members.

Upon analyzing the data, King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) discovered that about one quarter of the sample of students and staff identified as a race other than White. However, the limited number within each ethnic group precluded any analysis by subpopulation. Therefore, the authors compared White respondents to non-White respondents for the purpose of this study. As part of the author developed questionnaire, the participants were asked to rate their own multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills using a 5-point scale with one being early and five being advanced. There was no statistical difference between the graduate student group and the professional group in their self-assessments. When a two way ANOVA was conducted on self-assessment of competence, there were some differences found based on the participants' gender. Men rated themselves statistically significantly higher than women on both multicultural knowledge and awareness (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

When making comparisons between various groups on their scores on the Pope and Mueller assessment, some important findings emerged (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). First, the researchers found no differences by gender when it came to their scores on the multicultural competence assessment instrument. Differences were found between graduate students and professional staff, with the professional staff scoring higher than the graduate students. However, when accounting for racial differences, students of color scored higher than their White peers and professional staff. This finding is particularly noteworthy, because it shows a potential disconnect between graduate students of color and their White supervisors. This finding does not take into account the willingness or openness of these White supervisors to increase their knowledge, awareness, and skills related to multicultural competence, but it further points

to challenges that might be faced by staff of underrepresented racial groups in the field of student affairs (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

The investigation of the multicultural competence of student affairs professionals continued with Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas' (2007) empirical exploration of the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs model (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). They sought to evaluate the internal consistency of the three domains of awareness, knowledge and skills and to assess gender and racial differences. They also wanted to determine if self-reported awareness and knowledge predicted participants' multicultural competence skills. In their study they surveyed 100 student affairs professionals. A majority of these participants were female and 51 of the 100 were of traditionally underrepresented racial groups.

The instrument used in Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas' (2007) study was created by the researchers, not the one developed by Pope and Mueller (2000). They used the 32 items that appear in the domains of awareness (11), knowledge (11), and skills (10) in the Pope and Reynolds model as the basis for the survey, asking participants to rate the importance of each behavior or conviction on a Likert-type scale with 1 being extremely important and 5 being not at all important. A demographic questionnaire was also included to determine gender and race as well as specific job related characteristics like years in current role, years at current institution, and average hours of student contact each day (Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, & Salas, 2007).

When analyzing the data, Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas (2007) found that the overall wording of the items tended to be positive in nature, thus inducing the respondents to rate them as extremely important or very important. However, they did find strong internal consistency for the overall model and the individual domains. When investigating the effects

gender and race had on scores on the assessment, they found that males had statistically significantly higher scores than females in the study. However, there were markedly fewer men in the study than females. This carried through when looking at the individual domains, where males had higher awareness scores than females. Yet, no significant differences were found by racial characteristics or by gender in the other domains. One of the major purposes of Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas' (2007) study was to determine the influence multicultural awareness and knowledge had on multicultural competence skills. In a regression analysis, the researchers found that background characteristics, multicultural awareness, and multicultural knowledge accounted for 82% of the variance in multicultural competence skills. When looking at this from a stepwise approach, background items contributed to 3% of the variance. Multicultural knowledge by far accounted for the largest portion of the variance in multicultural competence skill scores, as almost 75% of the variance was contributed by knowledge. Finally, multicultural awareness contributed just over 4% to the variance of the skills scores.

Next, the researchers (Castellanos et al., 2007) looked for correlations between the different variables. In most cases, there was no statistically significant relationship. However, with regard to women and ethnic minorities, the researchers found that there was a negative relationship between multicultural knowledge and average meeting time spent with students. This finding indicates that as women attained positions that required less time meeting with students, their own multicultural knowledge increased. Whereas their male peers continued to grow in their self-assessment of their multicultural knowledge. Interestingly, there is no difference nor relationship between gender and scores on the awareness or skills aspects of the multicultural competence scale. Logically, age was positively correlated with number of years at

an institution and the number of years in a position. One of the interesting findings of this project is that neither age, years of experience at the institution, nor years of experience in their role influenced their multicultural knowledge, awareness or skills. This finding raises questions of how professionals are using their experiences with students to learn about those who are different from them. Finally, they found that for males, age and average meeting time spent with students was negatively related (Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, & Salas, 2007). All of these things point to the need for further analysis of the interconnections that might exist between these characteristics and concepts.

In 2011, Porter conducted a study of student affairs administrators at Christian colleges and universities in an attempt to discover any existing relationships between multicultural competence and demographic characteristics (age, race, and gender), professional characteristics (title, years of experience, and diversity training), and institutional characteristics (location and existence of diversity resources on campus). Participants were given a participant questionnaire that posed questions related to the demographic, professional and institutional characteristics being investigated and the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2) developed by Pope and Mueller. One hundred and thirty-three individuals participated in the study and they represented 33 different institutions. Men made up 58% of the sample, 92% of the participants were White and the average age was 35.4 years old. The sample was comprised of a wide array of professionals from different areas within student affairs, with many from the area of residence life. The average years of experience in the sample was 7.1 years. The number of individuals with diversity training and without was 61 and 54 respectively and 63 of those indicated that diversity training was not a mandatory part of their professional development. The participants represented 33 different institutions that were predominately located in the midwest

and southern regions of the United States. The average student population was 2,081. Six of the institutions were located in an urban setting, nine in a suburban area and eighteen in a rural location. Twelve institutions had no diversity resources for students on campus, while 21 did.

When analyzing the data in relation to the research questions, Porter (2011) found that the only significant demographic characteristic that significantly impacted multicultural competence was race. When Porter (2011) conducted a simple linear regression, 7% of the variance was attributed to racial differences. In relation to the professional characteristics, Porter found that professional title level contributed 4% of the variance in multicultural competence. The titles were divided into two categories: senior level, which included Dean of Students and Vice President of Student Affairs administrators, and all others were considered together. Differences in years of experience did not significantly contribute to the variance of multicultural competence. The largest significant contributor in this area was diversity training experience, where 16.2% of the variance was accounted for based on the whether or not a staff member had diversity training.

When Porter (2011) investigated the final research question of institutional characteristics, he found that neither institution location nor prevalence of diversity resources had a statistically significant relationship with multicultural competence. All of these findings point to the need for further investigation into the contributors to multicultural competence. For example, race was found to be a significant contributor, but the number of non-White participants was so small that more questions are raised than are answered. It is also interesting that professional title/level was significant but years of experience was not, thus again raising more questions than really answering. Finally, the fact that diversity training contributes to increased multicultural competence is not surprising, but knowing what types of training or

experiences are more salient than others would provide further understanding of how to enhance multicultural competence in staff members.

In 2014, Pope, Mueller and Reynolds summarized where their model has been and what research is still needed with regard to multicultural competence in student affairs. They believe that use of the model has led to evidence of correlation between multicultural competence and marginalized identity group membership, racial identity and consciousness, training and education in multiculturalism, experiences with multicultural policy formation, teaching, or programming, and supervisory conversations related to multicultural competence. The authors also believe that the accountability climate on campuses provides a unique opportunity to point to multicultural competence as a contribution made by student services to the campus community.

Additionally, through the research it is clear that diversity initiatives and efforts enhance the campus climate and thus lead to positive educational and learning outcomes of students. Pope, Mueller and Reynolds (2014) also pointed to the need for further research on the demographic, experiential, and education predictors of multicultural competence. Specifically, they pointed to the need for graduate faculty to make certain that students in student affairs programs become competent multicultural researchers as well as consumers of that research, thus seeing the research that they conduct and read with a multicultural competence lens. When it comes to staff, they recommended more investigation into the impact of multicultural training and experiences upon multicultural competence. Finally, they pointed to the need to have a better understanding of the impact specific living learning environments, like residence halls, have on students and how multicultural competence enhances that environment. Much of that

understanding is rooted in the preparation and training that takes place in the graduate programs in student affairs across the United States.

Diversity and Multiculturalism in the Curriculum of Student Affairs Graduate Preparation Programs

The multicultural competence of student affairs professionals is often associated with the opportunities they have to engage with individuals who are different from themselves and with learning opportunities in and out of the classroom. This holds true for housing professional staff who have the responsibility for the on-campus environments that many students call home. One of the shared experiences that most student affairs practitioners have is the development of the curriculum for their student affairs preparation program. Researchers who have focused on the topic of multicultural competence in student affairs are clear that the graduate preparation curriculum is a key influencer on professionals' multicultural competence. Across the board there is a call for infusion of multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills into the curriculum of preparation programs rather than having practitioners only consider these issues when confronted by them in their professional work (Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, & Salas, 2007, King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003, Mueller & Pope, 2001, Pope & Reynolds, 1997, Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009) One of the additional calls for education and curricular exploration is in the area of identity development. In many preparation programs, the identity development of underrepresented student populations is explored, but Mueller and Pope (2001) advocated for enhanced exploration of White identity development in the preparation curriculum due to the positive relationship they found in their study of multicultural competence and White identity development.

The issue of multicultural content in the graduate preparation programs in student affairs has been explored by a variety of scholars in a variety of ways. In a mixed method study, Talbot (1996) investigated the backgrounds, behaviors, knowledge, skills, and comfort levels of graduate students in relation to diversity issues at the eight largest graduate programs in the United States. Additionally, students were asked to provide perspective about the diversity and multicultural content of their graduate program. Most of this data was collected via surveys, but follow-up telephone interviews were conducted to further illuminate aspects of the survey data. In general, the demographics of the sample was predominately White, female, able-bodied, heterosexual and grew up in predominately White neighborhoods and attended predominately White undergraduate institutions.

When Talbot (1996) looked at the results, she noticed that participants felt they had less than average level of knowledge about the needs and development of individuals of different racial backgrounds, women, and students who are lesbian, gay or bisexual. The researcher also asked the participants to assess their ability to identify individual or institution “isms.” Overall, respondents felt more comfortable identifying individual instances of “isms” versus institutional racism, sexism or heterosexism. The respondents felt most comfortable identifying issues of sexism as opposed to racism or heterosexism. When gauging their comfort with different racial groups and people who are gay, lesbian or bisexual, she found that participants had an above average level of comfort. However, the highest level of comfort was with individuals of different racial groups. Talbot (1996) also wanted students to identify behaviors or experiences they had in relation to race, gender, and sexual identity. These behaviors echoed the previous data by showing that courses taken and books read that explored the history and development of women was more common than those about race and the least common behaviors were related to

sexual identity. Moreover, when analyzing the demographic information that influences scores on comfort scale, she discovered that individuals who identified as gay, lesbian, or bisexual scored higher on the comfort scale than did heterosexual students.

Turning her attention to the curriculum of graduate programs, Talbot (1996) revealed that over 78% of the participants thought diversity training was very important. Yet, only 50% of them had diversity mentioned in their graduate school interview and a little over 31% felt that diversity was an emphasis in their program. Furthermore, over 61% of the students surveyed felt their graduate program provided moderate or lower levels of diversity training. When looking at the overall data and searching for meaning, Talbot also found that the more diverse the student body of the program, the more knowledgeable, comfortable, and skilled the students in the program were in general. The positive influence of a diverse classroom continues to validate that personal experiences and dialogue with a diverse cohort help to enhance people's multicultural competence.

The multicultural demographics of colleges and universities in the United States have continued to expand, yet this change has not held true for graduate programs in student affairs. In an effort to better understand the needs of students of color in graduate preparation programs, Flowers and Howard-Hamilton (2002), conducted focus groups of students of color from three student affairs graduate preparation programs at predominantly White institutions. Their goal was to understand the perceptions of the campus climate and program climate related to multicultural students. It was a small sample of seven individuals with six being African American and one being from Latin America, five male and two female. Five questions were asked as a part of the focus groups: (1) What are the barriers to recruitment of students of color in student affairs preparation programs? (2) What are some of the issues you face in your student

affairs preparation program? (3) To what extent has your student affairs training enhanced your cultural awareness? (4) How can student affairs training programs retain students of color? (5) How would you improve the curricula to make your graduate training more inclusive of the underrepresented groups in higher education?

When discussing the barriers to recruitment of students of color into preparation programs, the participants suggested that undergraduate GPA, work and leadership experiences, and letters of recommendation should be valued over Graduate Record Exam scores (Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002). Additionally the financial support that can accompany the graduate school experience in student affairs, like stipends for assistantships and tuition waivers, were central to the decision making process of the participants. Reaching out to students at historically Black colleges and universities for recruitment and then pairing those students with similar students when they came for an interview were cited as other ways to better recruit students of color. Because of the dearth of faculty of color in student affairs programs, the participants also recommended that faculty in student affairs programs need to be committed to developing their own multicultural competence and to having strong cultural self-awareness. This is particularly important as students discuss diversity related topics in class so that students of color do not feel it is their role to speak for all underrepresented student (Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002)

Flowers and Howard-Hamilton (2002) discovered retention of students of color in student affairs programs centered on the creation of connections. The participants in their interviews mentioned the need for intentional interactions with faculty and administrators of color at the institution to create an environment of support. These connections are also part of what makes the curriculum and those delivering that curriculum relevant to the students. Specifically, the

participants suggested that the overall sincerity of the faculty members when discussing issues of diversity was important. In fact, students indicated that faculty who had a level of comfort when discussing multicultural issues enhanced the students' cultural awareness. Additionally, the students in Flowers and Howard-Hamilton's (2002) focus group indicated that there should be at least one required diversity course in the curriculum and that, in reality, diversity should be infused throughout the curriculum, illuminating diversity research, development and assessment whenever applicable. This study further points to the need of graduate preparation programs to take the multicultural competence of their students and their faculty seriously in today's multicultural academy.

In an effort to assess the extent to which diversity courses were being offered in graduate preparation programs in student affairs, Flowers (2003) conducted a survey of graduate programs in the United States. A diversity course was defined as "a course that was developed and taught with the expressed intent of promoting the development of culturally proficient student affairs professionals who were knowledgeable and sensitive to the histories, circumstances, and needs of culturally and racially diverse individuals" (Flowers, 2003, p. 75). The program directors of all student affairs programs listed in ACPA's graduate program directory were sent an 11-question survey. Fifty-three different institutions were represented in the respondents. When sorting the institutions by Carnegie classification, 13 were Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive, 18 were Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive, 18 were Master's Colleges and Universities I, and 4 were Master's Colleges and Universities II.

Flowers (2003) revealed that diversity courses were a part of the core curriculum requirements of 74% of the programs at the Master's level. No diversity course was required in 26% of the programs, of those 8% reported having a diversity course under development. A

quarter of the programs with a required diversity course have had the course in place for 10 years or more; whereas, 75% had been in place for at least five years. One diversity course was all that was mandatory to complete the diversity requirement in all of the academic programs that had a required course component. Eighty percent of the programs had a single diversity course as a mandatory portion of curriculum. Of the other twenty percent, half of the programs offered students an option of a variety of diversity courses across disciplines to meet the diversity requirement, and the other half indicated that multiple courses in their core curriculum had significant diversity content (Flowers, 2003). Thus, over ten years ago, it appeared that a large portion of the preparation programs had diversity courses in place. As expressed in the previous study, this diversity training is valuable to the overall health of the program; however, there is also some concern that over a quarter of programs did not have a diversity requirement at that time. One potential explanation for this disparity could be that these programs attempt to infuse the diversity content into their entire curriculum. Should that be the case, it is imperative that the content be consistent and intentionally connected to the courses.

In a qualitative study of student affairs practitioners and graduate students in student affairs graduate programs, Gayles and Kelly (2007) assessed experiences and perceptions of diversity content in the curriculum of graduate preparation programs. Thirty-seven individuals participated in four different focus groups that took place at national student affairs conferences. Twenty-two of the participants were students, whereas 14 were practitioners and one was a faculty member. Women constituted 23 of the participants, and 14 were men. When looking at the racial demographics of the group, 23 identified as people of color, six were multiethnic, and seven were White. The participants were from 14 different graduate preparation programs from across the United States.

When analyzing the data from the focus groups, Gayles and Kelly (2007), identified three themes: the focus of diversity in the curriculum, the content of diversity courses, and linking theory to practice related to diversity content. The participants indicated a wide variety of diversity content in their programs. Some indicated that it was not a part of their program; others felt it was infused in the student development theory and American college student courses. Moreover, some indicated that a specific diversity course was a requirement in their program. Those with the required course felt the mandate was an indication of the departments' commitment to diversity issues, yet one course was not sufficient when learning about such a complex topic.

While the participants were able to identify a variety of diversity topics that should be included in the curriculum, one of the major ideas the participants affirmed was the need to explore diversity topics and their intersections. In fact, some participants articulated that studying various identities in isolation did not aid in their ability to make their own connections between identities. Participants felt that the curriculum should focus on increasing the overall awareness, knowledge, and skills of the students. The exploration of power, privilege and oppression were also considered vital. The focus group participants were particularly interested in understanding the role individuals play in the system of oppression and how they can create plans for enacting social justice through their careers (Gayles & Kelly, 2007).

Furthermore, Gayles and Kelly (2007) felt the participants expressed struggles with putting the things they learned about diversity topics into practice. Thus, the students in the study recommended that the curriculum include more opportunities to discuss how to apply these concepts. Overall, any course that focuses on diversity should not just be a simple summary of diversity topics. The participants also recommend that preparation programs encourage students

to choose practicum experiences that will give them the opportunity to work with cultural groups different from their own. When exploring the idea of application more intently, the participants were able to indicate that the diversity training they had in their graduate programs did heighten their awareness and increase their knowledge. As a result, they indicated increased consciousness of diversity issues and language when working with students and staff. The final way that they felt they could apply what they had learned about diversity in their curriculum was in program creation and development. When creating education activities for their staff and students, they could use the diversity theories and knowledge to intentionally approach diversity education (Gayles & Kelly, 2007). Overall, this study seemed to support the work of previous researchers regarding the need for diversity content in graduate preparation programs and the need to have that content sewn together with the rest of the curriculum. Additionally, the idea that application and experiences are an important component of multicultural learning continues to be salient.

The curriculum in a graduate program is strongly influenced by the faculty in that program. Student affairs preparation programs are no different. In a companion study to the research that was conducted regarding students in preparation programs, Talbot and Kocarek (1997) investigated faculty in student affairs preparation programs and their diversity knowledge, comfort and behaviors. Their study consisted of two different participant cohorts: one group that was surveyed in 1991 and a second group that was surveyed in 1993. The initial sample consisted of faculty from eight of the largest preparation programs in the United States including: Bowling Green State University, SUNY-College Buffalo, Indiana University, University of Vermont, Miami University of Ohio, Western Illinois University, Pennsylvania State University and Kansas State University. This sample included 49 individual faculty members from those

eight institutions. The second sample consisted of 88 faculty members from 18 different programs including: Morehead State University, Iowa State University, University of Missouri-Columbia, Western Kentucky University, Indiana State University, Kansas State University, SUNY-Plattsburgh, Ohio, Virginia Tech, Northern Colorado, California State University-Long Beach, Southern Illinois University, University of Maryland, Pennsylvania State University, University of Vermont, George Washington University, Azusa Pacific University, and University of Rhode Island. Faculty from Kansas State University, Pennsylvania State University and the University of Vermont participated in both samples. The studies included faculty that were both full- and part-time status (Talbot & Kocarek, 1997).

Each participant in both studies by Talbot and Kocarek (1997) were given instruments that were designed to assess their diversity related knowledge, skills and comfort. All three were self-reported scales. The knowledge scale investigated diversity concept and content knowledge in addition to knowledge of the needs and development of students of various identities. The skills measure consisted of items related to faculty members' ability to identify racism, sexism and heterosexism on an individual and institutional level as well their ability to carry out various faculty related tasks with a diversity frame. The comfort level faculty members have with interactions with racial and sexual minorities was the focus of the comfort scale. The survey included demographic questions as well as questions related to diversity activities or events that faculty might have attended and their frequency of participation (Talbot & Kocarek, 1997).

In exploring the composition of each sample, Talbot and Kocarek (1997) found that 63% of both the 1991 and 1993 samples were full time faculty. The average number of years teaching in student affairs graduate programs were 9.5 years for the 1991 sample and 10.5 years for those in the 1993 group. Only 16.3% of the 1991 cohort and 18.1% of the 1993 group had never

served as a full-time student affairs professional. For those who had been a full time staff member, they averaged 12.3 years of experience in 1991 and 11.6 years in 1993. Both samples were comprised of faculty who were of the most privileged identities of White, male, heterosexual and able bodied. Most were also raised in exclusively White or predominately White neighborhoods and also currently lived in exclusively White or predominately White neighborhoods.

Talbot and Kocarek (1997) sought to determine if there were any statistically significant differences on the knowledge, skills, and comfort scales based upon demographic variables. In both the 1991 sample and the 1993 sample, men and women differed significantly. These differences were in the both the knowledge and skills scales, with women scoring statistically significantly higher than men. These were the only demographic differences identified. There were also not significant differences on the comfort scale uncovered in this study. It is important to acknowledge that the samples were predominately comprised of individuals representing dominant identities, and therefore, the lack of diversity in the sample could have prevented illumination of differences.

While some of the demographic differences might not have been statistically significant in Talbot and Kocarek's (1997) research, some of the responses to the skills section point to potential concerns related to faculty members' ability to help current graduate students develop multicultural competence. Teaching about the needs and development of students of color was comfortable or moderately comfortable for 65.3% of the 1991 sample and 48.8% in 1993. The 1991 sample contained 34.7% faculty that were comfortable teaching the needs and development of sexual minorities, while the 1993 sample had a 43.2% similar faculty. Women's needs and development was comfortable or moderately comfortable for 67.3% of the 1991 sample and

75.0% of the 1993 group. These findings might again point to the limitations of the sample: It is important to keep in mind that faculty who are part of the dominant identities do not always feel skilled in teaching content related to diversity.

The behavior and experiential data from the samples indicate that large numbers of faculty are seeking out opportunities to learn more about people of color, individuals from the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) community, and individuals of different genders (Talbot & Kocarek, 1997). Over 73% of both samples had attended workshops or conferences focused on the development of people of color. Fifty-one percent of the 1991 sample attended conferences and workshops related to the LGBT community, while 61.4% of the 1993 sample attended similar conferences and workshops. Women's experiences and development were explored at conferences and workshops attended by 73.5% of faculty in 1991 and 80.7% in 1993. Similar responses were also found for faculty members' willingness to seek out books about the history and experiences of people of color, sexual minorities, and women (Talbot & Kocarek, 1997). Though this study as a whole did not demonstrate significant differences amongst the various demographics within the samples, it does show that even though faculty members might have attended diversity-focused events and might have read some books related to various identities, there is still important work to do in training faculty so that regardless of their own identities they feel comfortable discussing diversity issues in their courses and can do so with a level of commitment and sincerity.

In an effort to better understand the status of multicultural competence and student affairs preparation program faculty, Pope and Mueller (2005) conducted a national study of one hundred forty-seven faculty at 81 different institutions. Specifically they were hoping to examine the relationship between multicultural competence and demographic, experiential and departmental

characteristics. This sample consisted of 76 women and 71 men with a median age of 49.4 years. Whites accounted for 83% of the sample while 9.5% were African American, 3.4% Asian American, 0.7% Hispanic and 2% that did not indicate their racial or ethnic identity. One third of the sample was not full time faculty with 23% being full professors, 31% associate professors, 22% assistant professors and 21% adjunct or instructor. Half of the sample had attained tenured status.

Three instruments comprised the study that Pope and Mueller (2005) conducted. The first is their Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 scale that evaluates multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills. This was paired with the Crowne and Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (1960) that seeks to determine if the sensitive nature of multicultural competence might induce respondents to provide responses that are more socially desirable than their actual feelings or experiences. Finally, Pope and Mueller (2005) administered a demographic form that attempted to ascertain the participants' age, gender, race, sexual orientation and religion as well their professional experience with multicultural issues.

When analyzing the data, the first step was to determine if social desirability influenced the data set by using the Crowne and Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (1960). Pope and Mueller (2005) determined that social desirability did not impact the data, because the mean on this scale was very close to the minimum impact score. When looking at the demographic characteristics and their relationship to multicultural competence, there was no connection between age and multicultural competence. However, female participants scored significantly higher than male participants and participants who identified as non-White had significantly higher scores than their White counterparts. Individuals who identified as LGBT also had statistically significantly higher scores than those that did not (Pope & Mueller, 2005).

Experiential variables were also examined in relation to multicultural competence and demographics by Pope and Mueller (2005). They found that there was a statistical difference between the amounts of diversity content in graduate programs of faculty based on their age. Individuals who were younger tended to have significantly more experience with diversity content in their curriculum as graduate students than those older than them. However, this difference in graduate program content did not result in a statistically significant difference in their multicultural competence scores. However, regardless of age, the more recent the participants attended a diversity training or workshop, the higher their multicultural competence scores. Not surprisingly, the researchers found that faculty who taught substantial multicultural content in their courses had significantly higher multicultural competence scores than their colleagues who did not. Furthermore, faculty who conducted research related to diversity or who implemented diversity policies and programming had statistically significantly higher multicultural competence scores than faculty who did not engage in these activities (Pope & Mueller, 2005).

Pope and Mueller (2005) also examined the potential existence of differences by gender and race with these experiential characteristics. They found that women were statistically more likely than their male colleagues to teach a multicultural course, to do multicultural research, and to actively engage in on-going professional development related to diversity. Faculty members of color were statistically more likely to do these three things than were White faculty as well. However, faculty of color were also more likely than White faculty to design programs or to implement policies related to multiculturalism. The role of the faculty members' academic department was also of particular interest to the researchers. Specifically, how often multicultural issues were discussed in departmental meetings and the level of integration of multicultural

content into the curriculum were emphasized. However, the frequencies of conversations about multiculturalism and the integration of multiculturalism into the coursework had no relationship to the faculty members' multicultural competence scores (Pope & Mueller, 2005). This study further affirms the relationship between experience and engagement with multicultural content and the multicultural competence of individuals. It solidifies the role that faculty play in the conveyance of this content and the platform they have to expose students in their programs to issues that will challenge them and expand their multicultural competence.

Conclusion

As the literature shows, the increased diversity on college and university campuses presents important benefits to the learning that takes place inside and outside of the classroom. However, students from various underrepresented student populations experience a wide variety of challenges, particularly in predominantly White institutions. Through a better understanding of social identity development, staff and faculty within the college community can help enhance inclusive communities. This knowledge includes a better understanding of the individual identity development of the faculty and staff themselves and their students.

One of the places where students have an enhanced opportunity to interact with those different from themselves in college and university housing. Thus, the entry-level professional staff who work in those communities play a vital role in creating living communities where diversity is valued. Over the course of the last few years, student affairs, as a profession, has defined the key core competencies needed to be a successful professional. Specifically, staff members are encouraged to display important knowledge, awareness, and skills related to multiculturalism. The literature further points to graduate preparation program curriculum as a key place for entry-level professionals to further develop their multicultural competence.

However, a better understanding of how various demographic factors, years of experience, and graduate preparation impact an entry-level professionals multicultural competence could assist the profession in creating a better roadmap for training and development of this important competency.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

The purpose of this study was to understand how multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals is influenced by demographic factors, professional years of experience, and graduate preparation. The Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs matrix developed by Pope and Reynolds (1997) served as the theoretical framework. The instrument produced from that matrix by Pope and Mueller (2000), the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs – Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2), resulted in an individual score that served as the dependent variable for this study. The participants' scores on the MCSA-P2 and demographic and experiential questions were used to investigate the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on demographic factors including race, gender, and sexual orientation?
2. Is there a relationship between the years of experience in the profession and multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals?
3. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the diversity content of their graduate preparation program?
4. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on impactful diversity experiences during their graduate preparation?

Study Design

The study was quantitative in nature. Campbell and Stanley (1963) described the design used in this study as a non-experimental design of one population. This type of design consists of the study of a single group with an interest in that group's relationship with a particular

phenomenon that is assumed to be the result of some “treatment.” In the context of this study, the assumed treatments were individual experiences based on demographic factors, professional years of experience, and graduate education factors such as specific course work. These treatments were all studied in relation to their impact on multicultural competence.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was entry-level college and university housing professionals in the upper Midwest. Entry-level housing professionals were previously defined as having a master’s degree in college student development or a related field. They were in their first full-time professional position and were responsible for the day-to-day operation of one or more residential communities, including the supervision of the student staff members who live and work on the residence hall floors with the residents. The rationale for selection of this population was based on the significant level of student contact that these professionals have in their day to day responsibilities. As indicated in the literature, students’ college and university experience are significantly impacted by the opportunities they have to engage with others as well as their perceptions of the inclusivity of the environment. Additionally, Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) specifically called for further research on the multicultural competence of various members of the campus community, highlighting residence hall staff in particular. Finally, the researcher has over 15 years of experience in the area of college and university housing and was seeking to better understand the needs of staff and students in this functional area.

The sample for this study was drawn from a list of entry-level housing professionals working at institutions in the Upper Midwest Region-Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO). This professional association was specifically selected due

to the professional affiliation of the researcher and the association's sponsorship of this specific research project. UMR-ACUHO is a professional organization that serves eight states in the United States and one Canadian Province. The affiliated territories are Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, and Manitoba. All institutions of higher education with on-campus housing facilities within the states and province have the option to become members of the organization. Membership is open to public and private institutions and two and four year institutions. The mission of UMR-ACUHO is to educate, to conduct research, and to provide service to member institutions within the region. Additionally, the organization recognizes the power of the exchange of energies, ideas, and efforts to create an impact greater than the sum of its separate parts, thus allowing the organization to provide education, research, and services that meet the diverse needs of the people and of the institutions within the region.

In the academic year 2014/2015, the number of institutional members was 92. Individuals for inclusion in the sample were identified from the membership directory of UMR-ACUHO that is available to any professional at member institutions. While there are not consistent titles for entry-level positions at colleges and universities, the researcher looked for titles like residence hall director, hall director, and residence life coordinator to determine inclusion in the sample. Further, the researcher cross checked the directory information with information listed on member institutions' websites. This resulted in a sample of 426 participants.

Instrument

For this study, the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2) survey instrument was utilized. This tool was created by Pope and Mueller as an assessment

of their tripartite model of multicultural competence. In addition to the MCSA-P2, demographic questions were included. This portion of the survey contained questions related to racial/ethnic identity, gender, sexual orientation, and years of experience in housing and residence life. Additionally, questions related to the diversity and multicultural content of the courses in their graduate preparation program and diversity and multicultural experiences during graduate school were included. The nature of these graduate school questions and the various responses were determined through the review of relevant literature (Flowers, 2003; Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002; Gayles & Kelly, 2007; Talbot, 1996). Furthermore, questions to allow the researcher to verify that the participants met the defined criteria were included. Due to the request of the creators of the MCSA-P2, the complete instrument was referred to as the Student Affairs Social Attitudes Scale in all communication with research participants.

The development of the MCSA-P2 was a multi-step process that included the initial creation of the MCSA-P1 using the multicultural competency characteristics developed proposed by Pope and Reynolds (1997). In this initial development, various items were created by an ethnically, racially, gender, and age diverse research team consisting of one full-time faculty member and two doctoral students. Fifty items were eventually created and then sorted independently by each team member into the awareness, knowledge, and skills categories. This sorting activity resulted in almost unanimous agreement. At this point, an additional research team of nine members was asked to evaluate the clarity and appropriateness of the 50 items. Two items were thus eliminated and six were rewritten (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

Subsequently, an actual survey instrument, known as the MCSA-P1, was created with each item rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all accurate) to 7 (very accurate). Seven experts in either the field of multicultural competence, multicultural issues in higher

education, measurement and evaluation, or some combination of these capacities were asked to rate each item for clarity and their appropriate placement in the domains of awareness, knowledge and skills. As a result, several items were reworded for clarity, but all were retained. Ultimately, the MCSA-P2 consists of 34 items that were rated on a Likert-type scale of 1-7 with 1 being not at all accurate, 4 being somewhat accurate and 7 being every accurate (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

As a part of the initial development of the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2) Scale, Pope, and Mueller (2000) conducted significant analysis on their way to creating the instrument. As previously mentioned, the instrument began with an initial iteration called the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 1 (MCSA-P1). The initial instrument had very high internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of 0.92. Though this was the case, Pope and Mueller (2000) also looked for items within the instrument that were not strong. Some items were eliminated based on three criteria: items with low item-total correlations, items with skewed means (above 6.25 or below 1.75, and items with low factor loading. While it would seem logical based on the theoretical model that Pope and Mueller developed that the instrument would be split into the three factors of knowledge, awareness, and skills, when conducting factor analysis, they found that a one-factor model best fit the data. Thus, the instrument results in one overall score for multicultural competence in student affairs and not three individual scores for multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills. After considering the validity assessment, factor analysis, and one-factor model, Pope and Mueller eliminated 14 items from the MCSA-P1, resulting in a 34-item instrument.

This revised 34-item instrument was titled the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2). When analyzing this revised instrument, Pope and Mueller surveyed 190 new individuals. They administered it in conjunction with the Social Desirability Scale (SDS) and the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI). The SDS was used to determine how much influence social desirability had on individual responses to the MCSA-P2. The SDS is designed to determine if individual respondents answer the survey truthfully or are their responses determined by how socially desirable they are. The researchers analyzed the correlation between the SDS and the MCSA-P2. There was not a statistically significant correlation thus indicating that social desirability did not significantly alter participants' responses to the MCSA-P2. The QDI is designed to assess individual attitudes about racial and gender diversity. When examining the correlations between the QDI and the MCSA-P2, a statistically significant and positive relationship was found. Thus confirming the assumption that individuals who are more sensitive to racial and gender diversity also demonstrate more multicultural competence. Finally, when assessing internal consistency, they found that the MCSA-P2 had a coefficient alpha of .91. Subsequent researchers have found an internal consistency coefficient alpha score of .94 (Pope & Mueller, 2005) and .97 (Castellanos, Gloria, Myorga, & Salas, 2007). Furthermore, Castellanos, Gloria, Myorga, and Salas (2007) found that the MCSA-P2 exhibits strong reliability based on race and gender. Overall, this study supports the use of the MCSA-P2 as an assessment of multicultural competence in student affairs professionals. It is currently the only existing assessment of multicultural competence specifically designed for those who work in and teach student affairs administration.

Data Collection

Prior to any collection of data, the researcher completed all appropriate human rights training modules that are required. The appropriate paper work was submitted to the Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (IRB). The study was evaluated by the IRB and was determined to be an exempt study in July of 2016. Additionally, I conducted a pilot study to determine clarity of researcher-written items on the survey and completion time of the instrument. This study consisted of participants from housing departments at colleges and universities that are not in UMR-ACUHO. I learned that some clarity needed to be added to the years of experience question to standardize the way individuals provided their answer. I also found that it took on average about 10 minutes to complete the survey.

Upon the completion of the pilot study, the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 with demographic and graduate preparation questions was administered via the Qualtrics online survey system hosted at Kansas State University. The possible participants were identified from the current membership of UMR-ACUHO and then sent email requests for participation via the Qualtrics system. Individuals were asked to acknowledge and to verify their consent. The survey was available for two weeks to allow for multiple opportunities to remind individuals within the sample who have not participated. Due to the fast-paced nature of web surveys, there is no standard for the length of time the survey should be available. Additionally, the timing of any survey reminders is also variable. Three reminder notices were sent in addition to the initial invitation. The response rate during the early stages of the survey release determined the timing and content of these reminders (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). Reminders were sent five days into the survey administration, 11 days into the administration

and a final “last chance” reminder was sent one day before the survey closed. Incentives were offered for participation. Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014) recommend the use of an initial prepaid incentive for all participants. There is also some evidence that offering material incentives increase the response rate of underrepresented populations, which is going to be key for this study. Thus, the first 150 participants received a \$5 Starbucks gift card.

Additionally, one of the keys to encourage participation is to maximize social exchange. This was accomplished by emphasizing the research project’s connection to a legitimate authority or organization (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). For this study, that organization is the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO). The Assessment and Information Management Committee of UMR-ACUHO sponsored this research via their research grant program. Therefore, the subject line for all invitations or reminders about the study stated that this was a UMR-ACUHO sponsored research project. Furthermore, one of the incentives supported by this grant was a drawing for a free conference registration for the 2016 Annual Conference. My hope was to emphasize the legitimacy of this study through the connection with an established and credible organization.

It is important to note that during the preparation of the survey in the Qualtrics system, I inadvertently launched the survey a few days earlier than planned. The survey was immediately paused; however, approximately 100 of the participants did receive the invitation to complete the survey. Some of these individuals contacted me directly to report that the survey was not working correctly. I directly responded to each one letting them know that the survey had launched prematurely and to be looking for an additional notification in the future. Upon consultation with my major professor, I decided to launch the survey that day after including an additional statement acknowledging the possibility that participants might have already received

one notification about this survey. It does not appear that this adversely effected the response rate of the survey; in fact, it seems that just the opposite was the case.

Data Analysis

Variables

Dependent variable. In this study, the multicultural competence score, derived from a sum of each participant's ratings on 34 items that make up the MCSA-P2, represented the dependent variable.

Independent variables. Demographic factors of gender, race, and sexual orientation served as three of the independent variables. These variables were determined from participant categorical responses to individual questions about each of these constructs. Full-time professional years of experience was also an independent variable. Participants were asked to answer an open-ended question about years of experience. They were instructed to answer in months if they had less than a year of full-time experience and a combination of years and months if more than a year. The years of experience variable was a continuous variable. Finally, graduate preparation course content and experiences like assistantship opportunities and practicum/internship opportunities were independent variables. These variables were also categorical in a nature, and the participants were asked to choose the one option that best represented their experiences. The response options on these questions were derived from the review of literature (Flowers, 2003; Flowers & Howard-Hamilton, 2002; Gayles & Kelly, 2007; Talbot, 1996).

Table 3.1 Description of Demographic Variables

Variable	Variable Type	Categories
Race/Ethnicity ²	Categorical	White/Non-Hispanic Black or African American American Indian or Alaska Native Asian Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Hispanic or Latino
Gender	Categorical	Male Female Trans* ³
Sexual Orientation ⁴	Categorical	Heterosexual/Straight Gay Male Lesbian Bisexual

Limitations

The main limitation that existed as result of this study was the inability to make any causality claims. In this study, there was no manipulation of a variable, and there was no control group. Though this type of design is not controlled, due to the dearth of research related to multicultural competence in student affairs and housing professionals specifically, it will assist in establishing baseline data to determine necessary future research and practical applications.

² Racial and ethnic categories were determined by consulting the United States Census Bureau (www.census.gov/topics/population/race/about.html)

³ Trans* is a term that is used to include all identities other than cisgender (Patton, Renn, Guido, & Quaye, 2016).

⁴ Sexual orientation categories were determined by consulting a report by the Sexual Minority Assessment Research Team (2009).

Conclusion

Through the data collection and analysis, I hoped to create a clearer understanding of what influences multicultural competence in entry-level housing professionals. From a practical standpoint, this will potentially provide suggestions for how housing departments might enhance their training and development programs. Additionally, it can assist graduate preparation programs in the strengthening of their curricular components related to diversity and multiculturalism. Finally, it was my hope to set the stage for further research related to why certain demographic groups and experiences might enhance or detract from multicultural competence.

Chapter 4 - Data Analysis and Results

The multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals was the focus of this study. Specifically, in this study, I attempted to determine if there were any differences of multicultural competence scores based on participants' race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, graduate program diversity content, and impactful graduate school experiences. Additionally, the relationship between years of experience and multicultural competence was analyzed. The data analyses and results of this study are presented in this chapter. It includes the description of the sample, results of the various statistical analyses, and examination of the four research questions.

Description of the Sample

The participants for this study were selected from the UMR-ACUHO membership directory. To select my sample, I analyzed the titles provided for each member listed and eliminated those members who appeared not to be entry-level professionals, for example assistant directors, directors, and graduate assistants. Further, I cross-checked the names and titles listed for member institutions on their individual institutional webpages when possible. This process resulted in the elimination of some participants and the addition of others. Additions were made when it appeared that new employees had joined the staff at various institutions, but the names in the organizational directory had not yet been updated. The analysis process ultimately resulted in 426 potential participants in the study. Throughout the two weeks of the survey period, 216 individuals began the survey, with 184 completing it. This is a 43.19% response.

I added three questions to the survey to determine if the participants fit the population, due to the difficulty in verifying participants' potential fit for the population being studied, based

solely on information in the UMR-ACUHO membership database. Those questions asked if the individual was working in their first full-time position in college and university housing, if they had obtained a Master's degree, and if they were currently pursuing a Ph.D. or Ed.D. Individuals who were not in their first full-time position in housing and those who had not obtained Master's degrees were eliminated from the sample. I decided not to exclude any participants based on their response to the Ph.D. or Ed.D. question. When examining the responses of the three individuals who responded yes to whether or not they were currently taking courses in a Ph.D. or Ed.D. program, I found little difference in their multicultural competence scores than other participants. Thus, I chose to keep them in the sample. After taking responses to those questions into consideration, 109 out of 184 participants met the criteria and were used for the following analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic and Experience Variables

As a part of this study, I sought to determine if there were differences in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on their race/ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation. Additionally, the relationship between multicultural competence and years of experience were of interest. Table 4.1 presents the racial and ethnic composition of the sample.

Table 4.1 Study Participants by Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	Number	Percentage
Asian	4	3.67%
Black or African American	11	10.09%
Hispanic or Latino	6	5.50%
White/Non-Hispanic	84	77.06%
Other	4	3.67%
Total	109	

White/Non-Hispanic entry-level professionals composed over three-quarters of the sample in this study. Black or African American professionals were the second largest group in the study constituting just over a tenth of the sample. Slightly more than 5% of the sample identified as Hispanic or Latino, while Asians and non-specified others were just over 3% of the sample each. Though options on the survey, no participants identified their race as American Indian, Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian, or Other Pacific Islander. Based on the location of the institutions included in this sample, these are not surprising results.

Gender was also a variable of interest in this study. The descriptive statistics related to this variable are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Study Participants by Gender Identity

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	41	37.96%
Female	65	60.18%
Trans*	2	1.85%
Total	108	

In this study, there were 24 more female-identified participants than male participants. Only two participants identified as trans*. It should also be noted that one participant chose not to answer this particular demographic question. The prevalence of women in the field of college and university housing makes these results unremarkable. The field is often seen as a helping profession, and thus, often female-dominated specifically in entry-level positions.

In this study, the sexual orientation of the participants was also of interest. Descriptive statistics related to the sexual identity of the participants are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Study Participants by Sexual Orientation

Sexual Orientation	Number	Percentage
Heterosexual/Straight	88	82.24%
Gay male	11	10.28%
Lesbian	2	1.87%
Bisexual	6	5.61%
Total	107	

In the sample, over four-fifths of the participants identified as heterosexual or straight. Gay males comprised slightly more than 10% of the sample, while lesbians and bisexuals were more than 1% and 5% of the sample respectively. Two participants failed to respond to this particular question.

I asked participants to respond to the open-ended years of experience question in number of months if less than one year and a combination of years and months if over one year. The responses were then converted to decimal expressions. The mean years of experience of participants in this study, was 2.31 years of experience ($SD=2.08$). This equates to just less than

two years and four months of experience. Based on the timing of the data collection aspect of this study, in early September, many of these professionals will have likely just begun a new year of employment, either as a new professional or continuing in their first entry-level position. This is due to most new professionals in housing beginning their work just prior to the beginning of the fall academic semester.

Graduate School Curricular and Experience Variables

In the literature, there was evidence that individuals in student affairs graduate preparation programs had a wide variety of curricular diversity and multicultural requirements. Additionally, many graduate programs in student affairs are accompanied by a plethora of experiential elements like assistantships and practicum opportunities. Therefore, I sought to identify the curricular diversity content of the participants' graduate programs and the graduate school experiences that impacted their multicultural competence. Table 4.4 illustrates the curricular components as reported by the participants.

Table 4.4 Study Participants' Graduate Program Diversity Curricular Requirements

Curricular Requirements	Number	Percentage
None	4	3.67%
One Required Course	20	18.35%
Variety of Elective Courses	8	7.34%
Infusion Throughout the Curriculum	11	10.09%
Infusion and One Required Course	29	26.61%
Infusion and Variety of Electives	15	13.67%
Infusion, One Required Course, and Variety of Electives	16	14.68%
One Required Course and Variety of Electives	9	8.26%
Total	109	

How the participants characterized their graduate program curriculum when it came to diversity content was quite variable. Just over one quarter of the participants indicated that their program had one required course and also infused the remainder of the curriculum with diversity concepts. Next, over 18% of the respondents indicated that their program required just one course. Infusion throughout the curriculum is cited in the literature as a common trend in graduate preparation programs (Flowers and Howard-Hamilton's (2002); Gayles and Kelly

(2007). This is supported by this data where 71 (65%) of the participants selected a response that included the concept of curricular infusion. In addition to overall infusion in the curriculum, which more the 10% of the sample selected, and infusion plus one required course, 16 participants selected infusion, one required course, and a variety of electives as the diversity curriculum in their program. Furthermore, 15 participants indicated that their program infused diversity content throughout the curriculum and also offered a variety of electives. The other potential responses had less than 10 participants choose them. Those included one required course and a variety of electives, no curricular diversity requirement, and just a variety of electives.

Many students often participate in unique experiences that are part of their time in graduate school in addition to the curricular requirements of the graduate program. Table 4.5 explains the experiences that the participants found most impactful to their multicultural competence.

Table 4.5 Study Participants' Experiences That Impact Multicultural Competence

Experience	Number	Percent
Academic Program Content	30	27.5%
Practicum Experience	9	8.3%
Graduate Assistantship	23	21.1%
Study Abroad Experiences	3	2.8%
Conference Attendance	6	5.5%
Non-Conference Professional Development	3	2.8%
Individual Relationships with Others	35	32.1%
Total	109	

From the table above, it is clear that the foundation principals of the student affairs profession and student affairs graduate programs seem to continue to be impactful to participants' perceptions of their multicultural competence. In student affairs, there is a strong emphasis on individual relationships and learning from the experiences of others. Therefore, it is no surprise that almost a third of the participants indicated that those relationships were the most impactful to their multicultural competence. Over 27% of the participants found the content in their graduate program to be the most impactful, while over 21% found their assistantship experience to be the most impactful to their multicultural competence. All other options, including practicum experiences, study abroad, conference attendance, and non-conference professional development, had less than 10 responses.

Analysis of Research Questions

The multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals was the focus of this study. Specifically, the study was designed to investigate the following research questions.

1. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on demographic factors including race, gender, and sexual orientation?
2. Is there a relationship between the years of experience in the profession and multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals?
3. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the diversity content of their graduate preparation program?
4. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on impactful diversity experiences during their graduate preparation?

The use of ANOVA for research questions one, three, and four allowed for the determination of the statistically significant contributing factors to the multicultural competence scores related to the demographic and graduate preparation factors. Because there were no a priori predictions of significance, and all tests for homogeneity of variance were non-significant, the Tukey HSD post hoc test was utilized to determine the differences between the various categories. This analysis provided a baseline for future investigation on what impacts the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing staff. Additionally, reliability statistics were conducted on the responses to the 34-item MCSA-P2 and a 0.93 coefficient was found.

Research Question 1

Research question one focuses on the differences that might exist in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on three different demographic identities. The first identity to be explored was racial identity. I conducted Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance to examine the assumption of similar distributions within the various groups within the sample and the results were not significant. To appropriately determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the various racial groups within the sample of entry-level housing professionals, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, because it controls for the Type I error. Finally, a Tukey post hoc test was employed to conduct group-wise comparisons and to check for significance. Table 4.6 provides the basic descriptive statistics for the participants by race.

Table 4.6 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Racial Identity

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Asian	209.75	16.90	196.00	234.00
Black or African American	202.82	30.53	118.00	233.00
Hispanic or Latino	189.50	21.71	152.00	208.00
White/Non-Hispanic	185.63	20.70	126.00	227.00
Other	175.25	30.97	137.00	210.00
Total	188.08	22.85	118.00	234.00

A statistically significant difference between the multicultural competence scores of the Asian participants ($M=209.75$, $SD=16.89$), Black or African American participants ($M=202.82$, $SD=30.53$), Hispanic or Latino participants ($M=189.50$, $SD=21.71$), White/Non-Hispanic participants ($M=185.63$, $SD=20.69$), and participants that identified as another race ($M=175.25$,

$SD=30.97$), $F(4, 104)=2.78$, $p = 0.03$ was found via the ANOVA. The effect size for this particular analysis is 0.10 which is a small effect size. Further, when utilizing Tukey’s post hoc tests, what groups account for that statistical difference is not readily apparent.

The next identity to be explored was gender identity. I conducted Levene’s Test for Homogeneity of Variance to meet the assumption of similar distributions within the various groups within the sample and that test was not significant. To appropriately determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the various gender groups within the sample of entry-level housing professionals, a one-way ANOVA analysis was conducted because it controls for the Type I error. Finally, Tukey post hoc test was employed to conduct group-wise comparisons and check for significance. Table 4.7 provides the basic descriptive statistics for the participants by gender identity.

Table 4.7 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Gender Identity

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Male	188.73	23.34	118.00	223.00
Female	187.08	22.24	126.00	234.00
Trans*	220.50	9.19	214.00	227.00
Total	188.32	22.82	118.00	234.00

The gender identity of the participants did not have a statistically significant impact on the multicultural competence scores of the participants in this study ($F(2, 105) = 2.14$, $p = 0.12$). The mean scores of male participants ($M=188.73$, $SD=23.34$) and female participants ($M=187.08$, $SD=22.24$) differed by 1.65 and trans* participants ($M=220.50$, $SD=9.19$) only constituted 2 of the overall participants, thus greatly decreasing the likelihood of finding a

statistical difference. However, it should be noted that the mean for the two trans* participants was over 30 points greater than both male and female participants.

The final identity investigated in this study was sexual orientation. Levene’s Test for Homogeneity of Variance was conducted to meet the assumption of similar distributions within the various groups within the sample and the test was not significant. To appropriately determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the multicultural competence scores of the various sexual orientation groups, a one-way ANOVA analysis was conducted because it controls for the Type I error. Finally, Tukey post hoc test was employed to conduct group-wise comparisons and check for significance. Table 4.8 provides the basic descriptive statistics for the participants by sexual orientation

Table 4.8 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Orientation

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Heterosexual/Straight	185.18	22.66	118.00	233.00
Gay male	204.55	15.21	166.00	223.00
Lesbian	174.00	19.80	160.00	188.00
Bisexual	196.67	23.65	172.00	234.00
Total	187.61	22.72	118.00	234.00

A statistically significant difference between the multicultural competence scores of the heterosexual/straight participants ($M=185.18$, $SD=22.66$), gay male participants ($M=204.55$, $SD=15.21$), lesbian participants ($M=174.00$, $SD=19.80$), and bisexual participants ($M=196.67$, $SD=23.65$), $F(3, 103) = 3.10$, $p = 0.03$, was found. The effect size for this is particular analysis is 0.08 which is short of a small effect size. Through the use of Tukey’s post hoc test, it was determined that the difference between the mean multicultural competence scores of the

heterosexual/straight participants and the gay male participants was statistically significant ($p=0.036$). The gay male participants in this study had a mean multicultural competence score that was over 19 points more than the mean multicultural competence score of the heterosexual straight participants.

Research Question 2

The second research question explores the possible relationship that might exist between the years of experience the participants have in college and university housing and their multicultural competence scores. Table 4.9 displays the descriptive statistics for the total multicultural competence score and years of full-time experience in college and university housing. The regression coefficients that are part of the model are shown in Table 4.10. The actual regression model is explained in Table 4.11.

Table 4.9 Regression Descriptive Statistics for Years of Experience

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total Multicultural Competence Score	187.54	22.68	107
Years of Full-Time Experience	2.31	2.08	107

Table 4.10 Regression Coefficients for Multicultural Competence and Years of Experience

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	190.40	3.28		58.09	.000
	Years of Full-Time Experience	-1.24	1.06	-.113	-1.17	0.25

Table 4.11 Regression Model Explanation for Multicultural Competence and Years of Experience

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.113 ^a	.013	.003	22.64	.013	1.37	1	105	.25

a. Predictors: (Constant), Years of Full-Time Experience

When analyzing the linear relationship between total multicultural competence score and years of experience, the model was not statistically significant. In fact, only 1.3% of the variance of the participants' multicultural competence scores was explained by years of experience.

When looking more closely at the descriptive statistics, it is important to note that the years of experience of the participants was an average of 2.31 with a standard deviation of 2.08. Thus, there was not much change in the years of experience variable.

Research Question 3

To answer the third research question, I explored the differences that might exist in multicultural competence scores of the participants based on the diversity and multicultural content of their graduate programs. I conducted Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance to examine the assumption of similar distributions within the various groups within the sample and the results were not significant. Table 4.12 displays the descriptive statistics for the graduate program content options.

Table 4.12 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Graduate Program Diversity Content

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
None	169.25	22.38	143.00	196.00
One Required Course	182.20	25.83	126.00	227.00
Variety of Elective Courses	186.00	26.67	153.00	227.00
Infusion Throughout the Curriculum	196.55	19.71	157.00	234.00
Infusion Throughout the Curriculum and One Required Course	185.10	22.06	137.00	216.00
Infusion Throughout the Curriculum and a Variety of Elective Courses	197.47	25.81	118.00	233.00
Infusion Throughout the Curriculum, a Required Course, and a Variety of Electives	190.56	18.87	161.00	225.00
One Required Course and a Variety of Electives	191.83	8.57	178.00	201.00

No statistical difference in the multicultural competence scores based on the diversity or multicultural content of the graduate program that the participants attended $F(7, 101) = 1.31, p = 0.253$, exists in this study. The most common response to this particular question was the following: 29 participants said that their program infused the curriculum with diversity content and required one course ($M=185.10, SD=22.06$). To demonstrate the next most common response, 20 participants said that one required course was the extent of their curricular diversity content ($M=182.30, SD=25.83$). A combination of all the possible curricular solutions was the next most common response with 16 participants indicating that their graduate program infused the curriculum with diversity concepts, required a diversity course, and offered a variety of

diversity electives ($M=190.56$, $SD=18.87$). Fifteen participants indicated that their program had diversity infused in the curriculum and provided a variety of electives ($M=197.47$, $SD=25.80$). The infusion of the curriculum with diversity and multicultural content was the next most common response with 11 participants providing this answer ($M=196.55$, $SD=19.71$). The remaining answers all had less than 10 responses. A variety of electives ($M=186.00$, $SD=26.67$), one required course and a variety of electives ($M=191.83$, $SD=8.57$), and no diversity content ($M=169.25$, $SD=22.38$) had eight, six and four responses respectively.

Research Question 4

The final research question sought to determine if there were any differences between the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the experience that they identified as most impactful to their multicultural competence. I conducted Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance to examine the assumption of similar distributions within the various groups within the sample and the results were not significant. Table 4.13 details the descriptive statistics of the participants based on the experience they felt was most impactful.

Table 4.13 ANOVA Descriptive Statistics for Impactful Graduate School Experiences

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Academic Program Content	192.73	18.96	160.00	233.00
Practicum Experience	194.22	22.19	162.00	234.00
Graduate Assistantship	189.04	22.73	137.00	227.00
Study Abroad Experience	192.00	32.14	155.00	213.00
Conference Attendance	172.83	19.53	152.00	201.00
Non-conference Professional Development	191.67	8.50	183.00	200.00
Individual Relationships with Others	183.86	26.26	118.00	227.00
Total	188.08	22.85	118.00	234.00

No statistically significant difference in the multicultural competence scores based on the graduate school experiences that the participants indicated were most impactful to their multicultural competency development, $F(6, 102) = 0.99, p = 0.433$, was found. Over 80% of the participants responded with one of three responses. Individual relationships with others ($M=183.86, SD=26.26$) was identified as the most impactful graduate school experience by 35 members of this study. Thirty participants said the most impactful graduate school experience for their multicultural competence was their academic program content ($M=192.73, SD=18.96$). The third most commonly reported impactful experience was the participants' graduate assistantship ($M=189.04, SD=22.73$). Twenty-three participants gave this response. The four remaining responses all had less than 10 responses. The practicum experience during graduate

school ($M=194.22$, $SD=22.19$) was the most impactful experience for nine of the participants. Six entry-level housing professionals said that conference attendance ($M=172.83$, $SD=19.53$) was the most impactful experience, and three respondents each said that studying abroad ($M=192.00$, $SD=32.14$) and non-conference professional development ($M=191.67$, $SD=8.50$) were the most impactful experiences.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to understand the relationship between various demographic factors, professional years of experience, and graduate preparation with the multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals. The dependent variable, multicultural competence, was measured using the MCSA-P2 developed by Pope and Mueller. The independent variables of race, gender, sexual orientation, years of experience, graduate school curriculum content and impactful graduate school experiences were all collected via questions on an associated survey.

Using various statistical analyses, I discovered that for this particular sample, there were statistically significant differences based on participants' race and sexual orientation. Additionally, in previous studies, differences had been found based on gender, yet in this study there were no statistically significant differences. No statistically significant relationship was found between the years of full-time experience of the entry-level professionals in this study and their multicultural competence scores, when considering the years of experience variable.

The diversity and multicultural content of the graduate preparation programs in student affairs has been evaluated. In this study, I attempted to determine if the various methods of diversity and multicultural content delivery in graduate programs made a difference in participants' multicultural competence scores. Ultimately, no statistically significant difference

was found. Further, in graduate school, there are out-of-classroom experiences and opportunities that have the potential to impact individual's sense of their multicultural competence. In this study, some specific experiences were analyzed, with no statistically significant differences in multicultural competence scores being found based on the most impactful experience identified by the participants.

The following chapter will discuss the practical significance of these findings and some potential explanations for the various findings. Implications and opportunities for college and university housing, student affairs as a whole, and graduate preparation will be examined in light of the relevant literature. Furthermore, limitations of this study and opportunities for future research will be explored.

Chapter 5 - Summary, Discussion and Recommendations

Overview

The focus of this study was on the multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals. Of particular interest for this investigation was the impact of factors of race, gender, and sexual orientation, years of professional experience, and graduate program curriculum and experiences on multicultural competence. These variables were collected from a web-based survey administered to professionals from institutions that are members of the Upper-Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO).

The responses of 184 participants for this research was drawn from a potential population of 426 members. After screening for participant criteria, I determined that 109 of those who completed the survey met the criteria. These 109 individuals compose the sample for this study.

The research questions addressed using this sample were:

1. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on demographic factors including race, gender, and sexual orientation?
2. Is there a relationship between the years of experience in the profession and multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals?
3. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the diversity content of their graduate preparation program?
4. Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on impactful diversity experiences during their graduate preparation?

Quantitative data analyses were used to answer these research questions. Specifically, ANOVA and post hoc tests were used to analyze the data related to research question 1, 3, and 4. Upon evaluation of those analyses, I found that there were statistically significant differences in the multicultural competence scores of the sample based on race and sexual orientation. When considering the post hoc analysis, varied results were found. For racial identity differences, the post hoc tests revealed no statistical significance between groups. On the other hand, the post hoc tests for sexual orientation found that gay male participants had statistically significant higher multicultural competence scores than heterosexual/straight participants. There were no statistical differences found for the participants based on their gender identity.

A regression analysis was used to evaluate the relationship between multicultural competence and years of professional experience. There was no statistically significant relationship found between years of experience and the participants' multicultural competence scores. In fact, years of experience explained a mere 1.3% of the variance in multicultural competence scores of the participants. Further the mean for years of experience was 2.30 years, with a standard deviation of 2.08.

When investigating the differences that might exist between the multicultural competence scores of the participants based on the diversity and multicultural curricular content of the graduate program, no statistically significant differences were found. A similar result was obtained when examining differences in multicultural competence scores when graduate school experiences were considered. The following section will discuss the research, practical, and professional implications of all of these findings in context of the existing literature.

Discussion

Multicultural competence in student affairs has been part of the discussion in the literature for approximately the last 19 years (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). Yet, the number of studies that examine the multicultural competence of actual members of our profession are limited. Further, the impactful role that entry-level staff in college and university housing can have on the overall climate in their communities is also well known (Kearney, 1993; Schroeder & Mable, 1994). In this study, I hoped to establish a baseline understanding of the multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals.

Research Question One

Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on demographic factors including race, gender, and sexual orientation?

Race

The analysis of research question one contained this study's only statistically significant findings. There were statistically significant differences in the multicultural competence of the participants based on their race. This finding is not particularly surprising. Previous studies had found a variety of differences in the ways individuals of different races experience the campus climate, make meaning of differences, develop knowledge and understanding of diversity, and evaluate their multicultural competence (Cheng & Zhao, 2006; King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011; King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Pope & Mueller, 2005; Saddlemire, 1996;). Specifically, in Saddlemire's (1996) study, second semester White undergraduates at a predominately white institution had limited interactions with their African American peers. This led to limited knowledge and a reliance on stereotypes. In Mueller and Pope's (2001) investigation of White student affairs professionals and their racial identity

development, found that as individuals developed White identity development statuses that were fostered more openness, willingness to learn and explore, and were less ethnocentric, their scores on the MCSA-P2 increased. Also, King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) found that professional staff had higher multicultural competency scores, except when the graduate students were students of color. In that case, graduate students of color had higher multicultural competence scores than their White peers and White professionals.

Though not statistically significant, the descriptive statistics in this study indicate that all of the individuals who identified as Asian, Black or African American, and Hispanic or Latino - over 19% of the sample - had higher mean multicultural competence scores than the White/Non-Hispanic group. This is similar to what Porter (2011) and King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) found; that Non-white professionals and graduate students in student affairs had higher multicultural competence scores than their White counterparts. Yet, when conducting the post hoc tests to determine what differences might exist between the various groups, no statistically significant difference was found.

In part, this finding is likely due to the disparity in the size of each of the racial identity groups. Furthermore, the relatively lower scores of the White participants, though not statistically significant, could provide insight into the findings of this study, especially due to the focus on race within the questions on the MCSA-P2. Mueller and Pope (2001) found a statistically significant difference in the multicultural competence scores of White professionals based on their White racial identity development. Specifically, they relied on the White racial consciousness model proposed by Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson (1994). It is clear that in this sample there were individuals of color who had higher multicultural competence scores than their white peers, as suggested by King and Howard-Hamilton (2003). Yet, this sample is 77%

White. Therefore, if a portion of the white participants in this study were Reactive Achieved White Racial Consciousness type, they might have higher multicultural competence scores (Mueller and Pope, 2001). Specifically, the reactive type is characterized by an awareness of racial and ethnic discrimination and views that White Americans are responsible for the existence of discrimination. Individuals of this type tend to be vigilant about pointing out issues of discrimination and also might overly identify with those of racial and ethnic minorities. They are extremely interested in learning about various racial and ethnic minorities. They exemplify the “well meaning” White person. Though, Mueller and Pope (2001) found no relationship between scores on the MCSA-P2 and social desirability, one can imagine that if White participants were reactive White racial consciousness types, that status could have shaped their responses to the questions on the MCSA-P2.

An additional layer might be exposed when White racial identity is considered in conjunction with diversity and multicultural content in students’ graduate program. Diversity and multicultural content was part of the graduate program curriculum of 97% of the participants in this study. Further, over 27% of the participants indicated that their academic program was the most impactful experience in regards to their multicultural competency development, and 87% of those participants identified as White. How has this academic coursework impacted the white racial development of the participants in this study? Did it expose them to concepts with which they were unfamiliar? Did it cause them to consider their own Whiteness in ways they had not considered before? I do not know for sure. But I do think that it is likely that the previous study by Mueller and Pope (2001) that used the same exact instrument that was used in this study has illuminated how White racial identity could have played a role in the findings.

Gender and Sexual Identity

When considering the differences that might exist by gender identity in this study, I conducted an ANOVA and found no statistically significant differences. This finding was somewhat surprising due to other findings in the existing literature. King and Howard-Hamilton (2003), in their quantitative study of student affairs professionals and graduate students, found that male participants rated themselves higher than their female counterparts when asked to do a self-assessment of their multicultural knowledge and awareness. Yet, when differences by gender were assessed using the same participants' answers on the MCSA-P2, they found no differences. Castellanos, Gloria, Myorga, and Salas (2007), in their study of 100 various student affairs professionals, used an instrument that they based on Pope and Reynold's 1997 theoretical model of multicultural competence and found that gender did play a role in the way individuals viewed their own multicultural competence. Male participants in their study had statistically higher scores than female participants. However, they also found that as female participants moved into roles where they met less frequently with students, presumably upper-level administration positions, their multicultural knowledge increased.

Pope and Mueller (2005), in their quantitative study of student affairs graduate faculty, found that female faculty had statistically significantly higher multicultural competence scores than their peers. In an additional study of student affairs graduate faculty in 1991 and 1993, which predates the existence of the MCSA-2, Talbot and Korcarek (1997) used an instrument developed by Talbot and found that female faculty members scored significantly higher than their male colleagues in the areas of multicultural knowledge and skills. Therefore, it was somewhat perplexing to find no statistically significant differences by gender in this particular

study. However, when considering the descriptive statistics of this particular identity, a few things could explain the lack of statistically significant differences.

When considering the participants in each gender category it is easy to see that over 60% of the participants were female, almost 38% were male, and just under 2% were trans*. But, the difference in the mean scores between the male and female participants was a mere 1.66 points. While years of experience does not have a statistically significant relationship with multicultural competence scores, explaining only 1.3% of the variance, the female participants had over one year more of experience than the male participants. If considering this in the context of the findings of King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) and Castellanos, Gloria, Myorga, and Salas (2007), where male participants had higher mean scores, the additional year of experience could explain the tightening of the gap between the mean multicultural competence scores of male and female participants.

However, if considering the findings by Talbot and Kocarek (1997), Pope and Mueller (2005) and Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas (2007) that indicate that female professionals and faculty members score higher than males on various aspects of multicultural competence, it might be helpful to contemplate how the intersectionality of identities might be influencing the results. This particular portion of the study appears to be influenced by the intersection of the identities of gender and sexual orientation. McCall (2005) defined intersectionality as “the relationship among multiple dimensions and modalities of social relations and subject formations” (p. 1771). Basically, intersectionality holds to the idea that when individuals are considering who they are, most individuals would not respond with a single social identity but with a more complex combination of those identities. The concept of intersectionality suggests that we are all the combination of our marginalized and privileged

identities that, in turn, creates unique personal experiences (Museus & Griffin, 2011). Further, Robbins and McGowan (2016) articulate intersectionality as a construct that is also dependent on social location and how a person's ability, class, gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and other identities exist within that context. When we attempt to isolate individual social identities, we fail to acknowledge how being a member of multiple identity groups impacts the way we are perceived, treated, and experience our environments (Museus & Griffin, 2011).

Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) strongly advocated for the more complex understanding of the multidimensionality of identities when it comes to student affairs as a profession and a research discipline. When framing it in terms of multicultural competence, Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) make it clear that multicultural competence is not about getting to an actualized destination but that every individual is different and their multiple identities influence their growth and development. Identity development, and in turn, the development of multicultural competence, is not linear; it is dynamic (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2004; Torres, Jones, & Renn, 2009).

With regard to gender and sexual identity, Denton (2016) stated that those two social identities are inextricably linked. As long as we define individuals' sexual identity by what gender they are attracted to or desire, then the social construct of gender is embedded within sexual identity. In the event that society accepts and understands a less dichotomous definition of gender, sexual identity would become more fluid.

Little analysis had been done on multicultural competence in the context of sexual orientation. In 1996, Talbot found that graduate students in student affairs programs who identified as gay, lesbian, or bisexual had statistically significantly higher scores on a diversity comfort scale that pre-dated the MCSA-P2. Further, Pope and Mueller (2005), in their study of

student affairs faculty members, found that those who identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or trans* had statistically significantly higher multicultural competence scores than the heterosexual faculty participants in their study. In the statistical analysis for this particular study, I found that there was a difference in the multicultural competence of the 109 participants based on their sexual identity. Through the post hoc analysis, I determined that the statistical difference was between the gay male participants and the heterosexual/straight male and female participants. This finding might illuminate why I found no statistically significant difference based on gender identity, since 11 of the participants in this study identified as gay male and had a mean score that was over 19 points higher than the heterosexual/straight participants. These 11 males constitute over a quarter (27%) of the male participants in the sample, thus potentially leading to the higher multicultural competence scores of the male participants. The presence of intersectionality of various social identities makes it challenging at times to draw clear conclusions about how each of these separate social identities impact multicultural competence. However, with gender and sexual identity being so closely intersecting, it seems unlikely that the connections of these identities are not playing a role in the findings.

What might these findings tell us about multicultural competence as it relates to gender and sexual orientation in entry-level professionals? Gay male participants in this study had significantly higher multicultural competence scores than did the heterosexual/straight male and female participants. Bisexual male and female participants, while not statistically significant, had a mean score that was over 11 points higher than the heterosexual male and female participants. Thus, it is clear that being part of a marginalized group can lead to an overall better understanding of the knowledge, awareness, and skills necessary to relate to those who might be different. Further, I think these findings, along with those in the existing literature, point to a

lack of clarity in how gender impacts the work that professionals do in college and university housing. There appears to be inconsistent findings throughout the literature, and this study did nothing to clarify that, while strongly pointing to the complexity that exists in the intersection of identities.

Research Question Two

Is there a relationship between the years of experience in the profession and multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals?

The years of experience of the professionals in this study had no statistically significant relationship to their multicultural competence scores. The average number of years and months of experience for the participants in this study was just under two years and four months. The standard deviation for the sample was 2.08, meaning that the overall variability in the years of experience of the participants is plus or minus two years and one month. Similarly, Porter's (2011) study of student affairs professionals at Christian institutions found no significant relationship between years of experience and multicultural competence. The participants in Porter's work had an average of 7.1 years of experience, yet no relationship was found. Further, Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas (2007) found that years of experience overall or years of experience in a given position had no statistically significant relationship with the participants' multicultural competence scores. Though it would seem logical that as a professionals gain more experience working in the college and university environment, they would begin to develop a broader understanding of how to work with others who are different from them, the research does not provide evidence for this. Porter (2011) did find that professional level made a statistically significant difference in the multicultural competence scores of the participants in his study, with senior level student affairs professionals having higher scores than the non-senior

level participants. Thus, it would seem that this has something to do with the years of experience these senior leaders have, yet it could also be the result of their professional responsibilities.

Yet, is it possible that what is at work here is something that is not measured by the instrument that was used?

In this particular study, it is not surprising that years of experience accounted for very little of the variance in multicultural competence skills. Yet, it continues to raise the question of how professionals enhance their multicultural competence. The social identities that were explored in research question one are not things that a professional can change about themselves to enhance their multicultural competence. And, just the act of working longer does not ensure that an individual becomes more multiculturally competent. Yet as a profession, we hail this competence as something that is essential. Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, and Salas (2007) posit an important question, “To what extent are student affairs professionals taking personal and professional responsibility for using their student encounters as learning opportunities to expand their multicultural competence” (p. 657)? Further how have their graduate preparation programs prepared them to take advantage of these opportunities? These questions led to my investigation of how the diversity content of graduate school curricula might influence multicultural competence and what experiences during graduate school were most impactful to entry-level housing professionals.

Research Question Three

Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on the diversity content of their graduate preparation program?

When considering the impact of the diversity content that was present in the participants' graduate programs, I found, in this study, that the content did not make a statistically significant

difference in the multicultural competence scores. Yet, it important to look deeper into the descriptive statistics to see if there is some meaning to be derived from the responses of the participants.

The topic of multicultural content in student affairs graduate programs was investigated by Talbot (1996), Flowers and Howard-Hamilton (2002), Flowers (2003), and Gayles and Kelly (2007). There were two main themes that were clear in all of these studies: programs should at least include a required course related to diversity and multiculturalism, and diversity content is best understood if infused throughout the curriculum of the program. When looking at the data in this study, 71 participants indicated that their graduate program had infused the curriculum with diversity and multicultural content, which represents over 65% of the participants.

Individuals who indicated that their program just required one course accounted for another 18% of the participants. Furthermore, when looking at the mean scores of these groups, those who had some form of infusion throughout the curriculum had a higher mean score than those who only had one required course. While the difference between these means did not amount to a statistically significant difference, there is a slight difference, and with such a large portion of the participants accounted for by these categories, it is worth noting.

In Gayles and Kelly's (2007) study in which they investigated the diversity content in student affairs graduate programs, they found that students wanted to explore the intersection of diversity, multiculturalism, and identity development. They wanted to have a better understanding of how diversity impacted all aspects of the work of student affairs professionals. Additionally, graduate students of color have indicated that this infusion of diversity into the research, student development, and assessment of all student affairs graduate programs is critical to students' success as well as to the development of their majority colleagues (Flowers &

Howard-Hamilton, 2002). This study does shed some light on the benefits of infusion into the curriculum. Infusion throughout the curriculum, regardless of what other diversity curricular elements with which infusion might be paired, resulted in higher mean scores than just one required course, which in Flower's 2003 study, was the most common approach of graduate programs at that time. In light of these findings and the existing literature, infusion of diversity content into the curriculum of student affairs graduate programs should be the goal for which faculty involved in student affairs programs should strive.

Research Question Four

Is there a difference in the multicultural competence scores of entry-level housing professionals based on impactful diversity experiences during their graduate preparation?

In research question four, I sought to understand the difference that might exist in the multicultural competence of the participants based on the experience that they had during graduate school that they felt was most impactful on their multicultural competence. Through the statistical analysis, no statistical difference as found based on the participants identified impactful experiences. While there was no statistically significant difference found, there are some interesting observations to be made based on the descriptive statistics.

Upon first glance, it is easy to see that the foundational components of the graduate school experience and of the profession of student affairs, - academic coursework, the graduate assistantship, and individual relationships with others - are the three most popular responses for the individuals in this study. Over 80% of the participants indicated that one of these three options had the most impact on their multicultural competence during graduate school. The most popular response was individual relationships with others. This is not particularly surprising as interactions with those who are different from oneself have proven to be critical to the

development of openness to diversity and to gaining a stronger understanding of multicultural concepts for students (Chang, Denson, Saenz, & Misa, 2006; King & Baxter Magolda, 2005; King, Baxter Magolda, & Masse, 2011; Reason, Roosa, Millar, & Scales, 2005; Renn, 2003). Development of multicultural competence is a continuous process, thus, the fact that the participants in this study felt that these critical interactions and relationships had a strong impact on their multicultural competence is logical.

Additionally, when framed in the context of the individual diversity development framework of Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003), it is easy to see how relationships with others can play a critical role in development. The questioning/self-exploration dimension of their framework suggests that individuals begin to reflect on their own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in relation to others. This reflection is often internal and can lead to some dissonance due to the realization that there is more than one sense of right and wrong. That dissonance sometimes leads to action. This is where engaging with others comes into play. Individuals who are in this dimension will converse with others who are different from themselves and begin to do some cursory exploration of different cultures. This need to interact with others who are different from oneself becomes even more important in the next dimension: risk taking/exploration of otherness. In this dimension individuals proactively explore and challenge their own worldview by entering the experiences of those who are different. This requires some discomfort and the potential of rejection. One of their biggest needs for individuals in this dimension is to be included with others who are actively exploring differences. This idea of a community of explorers leads into the next most common response by the young professionals in this study.

The second most common response from the participants in this study was academic program content. This is not an unexpected finding, considering that Flowers found in 2003 that 74% of graduate programs had a single required diversity course. Prior to Flowers' study and after there was a call by other researchers to infuse diversity into the curriculum of student affairs graduate programs rather than having a single class serve as the sole diversity content for the program (Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, & Salas, 2007; King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009). While this infusion seems to be the preferred method of diversity training, Gayles and Kelly (2007) found that the participants in their study felt that the presence of a single diversity course in the curriculum of a graduate program indicates a commitment to multicultural competence by the department. While that individual course is important, Flowers and Howard-Hamilton (2002) found that the relationships that graduate students have with their faculty members and the sincerity with which the faculty approach multicultural and diversity content in their courses is vital to the way students of color feel about their graduate school experiences. From the responses of the 109 entry-level housing professionals and from the literature, it is clear that the content and delivery of diversity components of the curriculum in graduate preparation programs have the potential to greatly impact the multicultural competence of young professionals. In the context of Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory's (2003) individual diversity development model, the classroom environment could become that community of exploration that is necessary for development. If the faculty member invests in relationships with students and is sincere as Flowers and Howard-Hamilton suggested, students might take the necessary risks that help them better understand the otherness that exists in the world. Additionally, this diversity curriculum

has to explore intersections of various social identities and how to apply what is being learned in the work that professionals are doing (Gayles & Kelly, 2007).

One of the areas where the curriculum and practice often begins to come together is in the graduate assistantship. During this time, young professionals are often in a position that is not full-time, yet has substantial responsibilities, while frequently having a safety net of supervision that aids in the learning process. Over 20% of the respondents in this study indicated that their graduate assistantship was the most impactful graduate school experience when it came to the development of multicultural competence. Gayles and Kelly (2007) further supporting this finding in their own research in which individuals indicated that one of the most salient places for them to apply multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills to their practice was in their graduate assistantship. The participants said that they often found themselves being more cognizant of the language they used and how they responded to situations based on their stronger understanding of cultural differences. Program development in their assistantship was also a place where individuals felt that they were applying what they learned in class about diversity topics to their practice. While there are some graduate preparation programs that require students to have a graduate assistantship, there are some that do not. There are also situations where students in a graduate program are working full-time while pursuing the advanced degree. Either way, it seems as though the opportunity to apply what is being learned in the classroom is an essential part of the education process. Programs that do not require an assistantship or full-time employment where this application can take place should consider how this missing component might be impacting the integrated learning that their students are experiencing.

Another area that can supplement the learning that is taking place in the classroom is through practicum experiences. In fact, the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher

Education (2013) guidelines require that graduate programs in student affairs include at least two distinct practicum experiences that are supervised. In this particular study, nine participants indicated that their practicum experience was the most impactful graduate school experience in relation to their multicultural competence. Those nine participants had the highest mean score out of all the responses to this question. This is congruent with the findings of Gayles and Kelly (2007) in their focus groups with graduate students and student affairs professionals. The focus group participants recommended that graduate programs encourage students to choose practicum experiences that would give them the opportunity to work with individuals who were different than themselves.

The responses to this research question were not statistically significant, yet they do affirm many of the best practices in graduate preparation programs and, in conjunction with the existing literature, point toward how to continue to strengthen the experiences of graduate students. Relationships and opportunities to apply what they are learning in the classroom is critical to the development of multicultural competence among graduate students. So much of what is done in student affairs in general, and in college and university housing in particular, focuses on developing intentional relationships with the students that are served, the staff that are supervised, and the greater campus community. These relationships have the potential to continue to help entry-level professionals hone their multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills. They also need to have the academic program content to provide the foundation for the exploration and implementation of these competencies. Much of this can intersect in the supervised learning opportunities that are presented by graduate assistantships and practicum experiences. The more graduate programs encourage students to take full advantage of the

learning that can happen through the application of theory in their practical experiences, the better prepared entry-level professionals in the field of student affairs will be.

The findings in this study supported and brought into question some of the results from previous studies. One of the concepts that is affirmed by this research is that individuals who have identities in various underrepresented groups tend to show higher levels of multicultural competence than their majority counterparts. While this was not true for all groups in this study, gay males and individuals from non-White racial backgrounds all had higher mean multicultural competence scores. Further research is needed to understand the why behind these differences. In addition, the lack of statistical significance related to the other research questions related to gender, years of experience, graduate program curriculum, and graduate school experiences lead to more questions that could be answered through further research.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study was the lack of diversity within the sample. Other than a relatively even split between male and female participants, the demographic responses were skewed toward majority identities. Further, due to the population being studied, there was not much variance in the years of experience. The instrument that was used, while valid and reliable, is composed of questions that mostly focus on racial differences and did not explore the broader definition of multiculturalism that the authors claimed to support. This study also relied on self-reported data and thus has a subjective nature. Additionally, in relation to the questions regarding curriculum, the participants' perspective on the presence of infusion throughout the curriculum could differ from the intent of the faculty.

Research Recommendations

Replicating this study with a nationwide sample could provide a broader understanding of the multicultural competence of entry-level housing professionals and of the factors that might influence that competence. This broader sample could result in more diverse participants who have had a wider variety of experiences and backgrounds. Additionally, a qualitative study that seeks to understand what lies underneath the racial differences that were found in this study would help make sense of the findings. In such a study, the White racial consciousness model by Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson (1994) could serve as the basis for the questions for White participants' experiences, while Helms' (1994) people of color racial identity development model could inform the questions for the people of color who participated in the study. Along those same lines, a qualitative study that seeks to understand more about how the gay male experience enhances their multicultural competence would help us better understand the experiences of those professionals.

When it comes to the graduate school experience, it could be illuminating to conduct a qualitative investigation into the specific graduate school experiences that impact students' multicultural competence. Such information would be particularly insightful for graduate preparation programs and student affairs departments that employ graduate assistants. Further, from this research it appears that there has been some changes to the curriculum of the graduate preparation programs since Flowers' study in 2003. An update of that study that surveys graduate programs about the diversity and multicultural content of their programs would help the profession better understand what has or has not changed in the last 13 years.

Practical Implications

The racial differences found in this study and in previous studies present the profession of college and university housing with a variety of options when hoping to create inclusive campus communities. First, housing departments can work to recruit a more racially diverse professional staff. As shown in this and in other studies, individuals from underrepresented racial backgrounds tend to exhibit higher levels of multicultural competence. Additionally, housing departments could ask specific questions in the hiring process that might assist in their assessment of the multicultural competence of all applicants regardless of race. Some of the questions from the MCSA-P2 could serve as a logical basis for these questions. Further, housing departments could focus their professional development initiatives on issues of diversity and multiculturalism. Specifically, departments could integrate the ACPA and NASPA competency for social justice and inclusion. This competency has foundational, intermediate, and advanced level benchmarks that enhance its usability by a wide variety of staff. A foundation for this professional development, particularly for institutions with predominantly White professional staff, could be Rowe, Bennett, and Atkinson's (1994) White racial consciousness model. With the data from this study in mind, it seems prudent to provide professional development opportunities that help White staff understand their White identity and how it might be impacting their work and their relationships with others. Housing departments need to engage their staff in intentional and directed professional development that will help the staff better serve all of their students.

It is clear from this research and from the work of Gayles and Kelly (2007) that the profession of student affairs needs to have a better understanding of how the intersections of identities impact both staff and students. This better understanding of intersectionality could

come from intentional integration into the curriculum of graduate programs. Yet, to broaden that understanding, Gayles and Kelly (2007) found that it was important to engage graduate students in conversation about these intersections. These conversations also aid in the individual diversity identity development as discussed by Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory (2003) that requires individuals to take risks and to engage in conversation with those different from themselves to have a better understanding of their own identity. From this study we know that participants identified individual relationships with others as the most impactful experience when it came to the development of their multicultural competence. Thus, the graduate school curriculum and professional development opportunities that encourage dialogue and understanding could help those in our profession to live up to its ideals of multicultural competence.

Finally, it seems important that graduate programs continue to emphasize the links between theory and practice, particularly when such links concern issues of diversity and multiculturalism (Gayles & Kelly, 2007). In this study, both the curriculum in the academic program and individuals' graduate assistantships impacted the multicultural competence of over 48% of the participants. The more the curriculum of the graduate program and of the assistantship sites are linked, the more likely it is that young housing professionals will feel prepared to work in their diverse residential communities. There should be a reciprocity between the graduate program and the assistantship sites, such that the overall development of the young professionals' multicultural competence is being enhanced and supported by both. Furthermore, if a graduate program does not require a graduate assistantship for enrollment in the program, there should be some critical conversations about how the individuals in the program that do not have an assistantship or a full-time job in student affairs can apply what they are learning in the classroom.

Summary

The findings of this study point to the challenges that exist when attempting to understand the human experience by approaching it from individual parts of a person's identity. While there is a statistically significant difference in multicultural competence scores based on the participants' racial identity, the source of the differences is not apparent. White participants constitute 77% of the sample. Those White participants are likely influenced in their responses based on their White racial consciousness development (Rowe, Bennett, Atkinson, 1994). Depending on their consciousness type, their understanding of themselves will greatly influence how they see those that are different from them. This is particularly true considering that the instrument focuses on the racial aspect of multicultural competence.

The gay male participants in this study had statistically significantly higher multicultural competence scores than their male or female heterosexual peers. Additionally, this finding likely impacted the lack of statistical differences based on gender. The intersectionality of identities is at the root of these findings. Gender and sexual identity are currently inextricably linked. When attempting to separate them for the sake of research, one is presented with unique difficulties.

The lack of variability in the years of experience of the participants made it difficult to find a significant relationship. Only 1.3% of the variance in multicultural competence scores was explained by years of experience. Further there was no statistical difference in the multicultural competence scores of the participants based on their graduate program diversity curriculum content and their graduate school experiences. Yet, it is important to point out that infusion of the curriculum with diversity content was the most prevalent curriculum approach and that individual relationships, academic program, and assistantships are the most impactful to the participants' multicultural competence.

As we move forward as a profession, it is vital that we continue to investigate how we can enhance the multicultural competence of professionals. This can take place through research, through learning in the classroom, through students' graduate assistantships, or through involvement in their professional roles. The professional development and experiences that are offered and the theoretical underpinnings of those activities have the potential to impact the development of staff. We must continue to emphasize the complexity and intersectionality of identity so that we can better serve our students and each other.

References

- Abes, E. S., Jones, S. R., & McEwen, M. K. (2007). Reconceptualizing the model of multiple dimensions of identity: the role of meaning-making capacity in the construction of multiple identities. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*, 1-22.
- ACPA and NASPA. (2009). Professional competency areas for student affairs practitioners.
- ACPA and NASPA. (2015). Professional competency areas for student affairs educators.
- Ancis, J. R., & Marshall, D. S. (2010). Using a multicultural framework to assess supervisees' perceptions of culturally competent supervision. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 88*(3), 277-284.
- Aguirre, Jr., A., & Martinez, R. (2002). Leadership practices in higher education: transitional and transformational frameworks. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 8*(3), 53-62.
- Ancis, J.R., Sedlacek, W. E., & Mohr, J. J. (2000). Student perceptions of campus culture by race. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 78*(2), 180-185.
- Asagba, J. O. (1995). Evaluation of residence hall directors' performance among resident assistants. *College Student Journal, 29*, 498-501.
- Association of College and University Housing Officers-International. (2010). ACUHO-I standards and ethical principles for college and university housing professionals. Retrieved from <http://www.acuho-i.org/AboutUs/ACUHOIStandards/tabid/1029/Default.aspx>.
- Astin, A. W. (1993). Diversity and multiculturalism on campus: How are students affected? *Change, 25*(2), 44-49.
- Belch, H. A., & Mueller, J. A. (2003). Candidate pools or puddles: Challenges and trends in the recruitment and hiring of resident directors. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(1), 29-46.

- Blanks, G., Twale, D., & Damron, J. (1992). Building a residence life program: Selecting residence hall personnel. *College Student Journal*, 26(1), 29-33.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Castellanos, J., Gloria, A. M., Myorga, M., & Salas, C. (2007). Student affairs professionals' self-report of multicultural competence: understanding awareness, knowledge and skills. *NASPA Journal*, 44(4), 643-663.
- Chang, M. J. (1999). Does racial diversity matter?: The educational impact of a racially diverse undergraduate population. *Journal of College Student Development*, 40(4), 377-395.
- Chang, M. J., Denson, N., Saenez, V., & Misa, K. (2006). The educational benefits of sustaining cross-racial interaction among undergraduates. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 77(3), 430-455.
- Chavez, A. F., Guido-DiBrito, F., & Mallory, S. L. (2003) Learning to value the "other": a framework of individual diversity development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 44(4), 435-469.
- Cheng, D. X., & Zhao, C. (2006). Cultivating multicultural competence through active participation: extracurricular activities and multicultural learning. *NASPA Journal*, 43(4), 13-38.
- Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education. (2013). Master's level student affairs professional preparation programs CAS standards and guidelines.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 24, 347-354.

- Davis, L. R. (2002). Racial diversity in higher education: ingredients for success and failure. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 38*(2), 137-155.
- Denton, J. M. (2016). Critical and poststructural perspectives on sexual identity formation. In E. S. Abes (Ed.) *New directions for student services: Critical perspectives on student development theory*: no. 154, (57-69). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2014). *Internet, phone, mail and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Fischer, M. J. (2007). Settling into campus life: differences by race/ethnicity in college involvement and outcomes. *The Journal of Higher Education, 78*(2), 125-161.
- Flowers, L. (2003). National study of diversity requirements in student affairs graduate programs. *NASPA Journal, 40*(4), 72-82.
- Flowers, L. A., & Howard-Hamilton, M. F. (2002). A qualitative student of graduate students' perceptions of diversity issues in student affairs preparation programs. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*(1), 119-23.
- Frederiksen, C. F. (1993). A brief history of collegiate housing. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student housing and residential life* (167-183). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gayles, J. G., & Kelly, B. T. (2007). Experiences with diversity in the curriculum: implications for graduate programs and student affairs practice. *NASPA Journal, 44*(1), 193-2008.
- Gurin, P., Dey, E. L., Hurtado, S., & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and higher education: theory and impact on educational outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*(3), 330-366.

- Harper, S., Davis, R., Jones, D., McGowan, B., Ingram, T., & Platt, C. S. (2011). Race and racism in the experiences of black male resident assistants at predominantly White universities. *Journal of College Student Development, 52*(2), 180-200.
- Helms, J. (1995). An update of Helms' White and people of color racial identity models. In J. G. Ponterotto, J. M. Casas, L. A. Suzuki, C. M. Alexander (Eds). *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (181-198). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Henning, G. W., Cilente, K. M., Kennedy, D. F., & Sloane, T. M. (2011). Professional development needs for new residential life professionals. *The Journal of College and University Student Housing, 37*(2), 26-37.
- Hoffman, J. L. (2002). The impact of student cocurricular involvement on student success: racial and religious differences. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*(5), 712-739.
- Howard-Hamilton, M. F., Phelps, R. E., Torres, V. (1998). Meeting the needs of all students and staff members: the challenge of diversity. *New Directions for Student Services, 82*, 49-64.
- Hu, S., & Kuh, G. D. (2003). Diversity experiences and college student learning and personal development. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(3), 320-334.
- Humes, K. R., Jones, N. A., & Ramirez, R. R. (2011). Overview of race and Hispanic origin: 2010. United States Census Bureau. Washington, D.C.
- Hurtado, S. (1996). How diversity affects teaching and learning. *The Educational Record, 77*(4), 27-29.
- Hurtado, S. (2007). Linking diversity with the educational and civic mission of higher education. *The Review of Higher Education, 30*(2), 185-196.

- Johnson-Durgans, V. J. (1994). Perceptions of racial climates in residence halls between African-American and Euroamerican college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 35(4), 267-274.
- Johnson, V. J. (2003). Cultural group perceptions of racial climates in residence halls. *NASPA Journal*, 41(1), 114-134.
- Kayes, P. E. (2006). New paradigms for diversifying faculty and staff in higher education: uncovering cultural biases in the search and hiring process. *Multicultural Education*, 14(2), 65-69.
- Kearney, P. A. (1993). Professional staffing. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student housing and residential life* (269-291). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- King, P., & Baxter Magolda, M. (2005) A developmental model of intercultural maturity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(6), 571-592.
- King, P. M., Baxter Magolda, M. B., & Masse, J.C. (2011). Maximizing learning from engaging across difference: the role of anxiety and meaning making. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 44, 468-487.
- King, P. M., & Howard-Hamilton, M. (2003). An assessment of multicultural competence. *NASPA Journal*, 40(2), 119-133.
- Koch, W. (1999). Integration and de facto segregation in campus housing: an analysis of campus housing policy. *College Student Affairs Journal*, 18(2), 35-43.
- Lovell, C. D. & Kosten, L. A. (2000). Skills, knowledge and personal traits necessary for success as a student affairs administrator: a meta-analysis of thirty years of research. *NASPA Journal*, 37(4), 553-572.

- McCall, L. (2005). The complexity of intersectionality. *Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 30(3), 1771-1800.
- Mueller, J. A., & Pope, R. L. (2001). The relationship between multicultural competence and White racial consciousness among student affairs practitioners. *Journal of College Student Development*, 42(2), 133-144.
- Museus, S. D., & Griffin, K. A. (2011). Mapping the margins in higher education: On the promise of intersectionality frameworks in research and discourse. In S.R. Jones & S. K. Watt (Eds.), *New directions for student services*, no, 151, (5-13). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- (n.d.). website: <http://www2.myacpa.org/about-acpa/mission>.
- (n.d.). website: <http://www.naspa.org/about/diversity.cfm>.
- (n.d.). website: <http://www.census.gov/topics/population/race/about.html>.
- Ostroth, D. D. (1981). Selecting competent residence hall staff. In G. S. Blimling & J. H. Schuh (Eds.), *New directions for student services: Increasing the educational role of residence halls*, no. 13, (65-80). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Pascarella, E. T., Edison, M., Nora, A., Hagedorn, L. S., & Terenzini, P. T. (1996). Influences on students' openness to diversity and challenge in the first year of college. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 67(2), 174-195.
- Patton, L.D., Renn, K. A., Guido, F. M., & Quaye, S. J. (2016). *Student development in college: Theory, research, and practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Pedersen, P. (1988). *A handbook for developing multicultural awareness*. Alexandria, VA: American Association of for Counseling and Development.

- Pope, R. L., & Mueller, J. A. (2000). Development and initial validation of the multicultural competence in student affairs—preliminary 2 scale. *Journal of College Student Development*, 41(6), 599-608.
- Pope, R. L., & Mueller, J. A. (2005). Faculty and curriculum: examining multicultural competence and inclusion. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(6), 679-688.
- Pope, R. L., Mueller, J. A., & Reynolds, A. L. (2009). Looking back and moving forward: future directions for diversity research in student affairs. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(6), 640-658.
- Pope, R. L., & Reynolds, A. L. (1997). Student affairs core competencies: Integrating multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills. *Journal of College Student Development*, 38(3), 266-277.
- Pope, R. L., Reynolds, A. L., & Mueller, J. A. (2004). *Multicultural competence in student affairs*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Pope-Davis, D. B., & Dings, J. G. (1995). The assessment of multicultural counselor competencies. In J. Ponterotto, M. Casas, L. Suzuki, & C. Alexander (Eds.). *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (p. 287-311). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Porter, P. L. (2011). *Multicultural competence of student affairs administrators at member institutions of the council for Christian colleges and universities* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana State University, Terre Haute, Indiana.
- Reason, R. D., Roosa Millar, E. A., & Scales, T. C. (2005). Toward a model of racial justice ally development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(5), 530-546.
- Renn, K. A. (2003). Understanding the identities of mixed-race college students through a developmental ecology lens. *Journal of College Student Development*, 44(3), 383-403.

- Reynolds, A. L., Sneva, J. N., & Beehler, G. P. (2010). The influence of racism-related stress on the academic motivation of black and Latino/a students. *Journal of College Student Development, 51*(2), 135-149.
- Riker, H. C. (1965). *College housing as learning centers*. Washington D.C.: American College Personnel Association.
- Robbins, C. K. & McGowan, B. L. (2016). Intersectional perspectives on gender and gender identity development. In E. S. Abes (Ed.) *New directions for student services: Critical perspectives on student development theory*: no. 154, (71-83). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rowe, W., Bennett, S. K., & Atkinson, D. R. (1994). White racial identity models: A critique and alternative proposal. *The Counseling Psychologist, 22*(1), 129-146.
- Saddlemire, J. R. (1996). Qualitative study of White second-semester undergraduates' attitudes toward African American undergraduates at a predominantly White university. *Journal of College Student Development, 37*(6), 684-691.
- Sandeen, A. (1996). Organization, functions, and standards of practice. In S. R. Komives, D. B. Woodward, Jr., & Associates, *Student services: A handbook for the profession*, (435-457). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schroeder, C. C. & Mable, P. (1994). Residence halls and the college experience: Past and present. In C. C. Schroeder, P. Mable, & Associates, *Realizing the educational potential of residence halls*, (3-21). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schuh, J. H. (1996). Residence halls. In A. L. Rentz & Associates, *Student affairs practice in higher education*, (269-297). Springfield, Ill.: Thomas.

- Sexual Minority Assessment Research Team (2009). *Best practices for asking about sexual orientation on surveys*. Los Angeles, CA: Author.
- Stewart, D. L. (2009). Perceptions of multiple identities among black college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(3), 253-270.
- Talbot, D. M. (1996). Master's students' perspectives on their graduate education regarding issues of diversity. *NASPA Journal, 33*(3), 163-178.
- Talbot, D. M., & Kocarek, C. (1997). Student affairs graduate faculty members' knowledge, comfort, and behaviors regarding issues of diversity. *Journal of College Student Development, 38*(3), 278-287.
- Torres, V., Jones, S. R., & Renn, K. A. (2009). Identity development theories in student affairs: Origins, current status, and new approaches. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(6), 577-596.
- Upcraft, M. L. (1989). Residence halls and campus activities. In M. L. Upcraft, J. N. Gardner, & Associates, *The freshman year experience*, (142-155). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Upcraft, M. L. (1993). Organizational and administrative approaches. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student housing and residential life* (189-202). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Upcraft, M. L. & Pilato, G. T. (1982). *Residence hall assistants in college*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Whitt, E. J., Edison, M. I, Pascarella, E. T., Terenzini, P. T., & Nora, A. (2001), Influences of student's openness to diversity and challenge in the second and third years of college, *The Journal of Higher Education, 72*(2), 172-203.

Zuniga, X., Williams, E. A., & Berger, J. B. (2005). Action-oriented democratic outcomes: The impact of student involvement with campus diversity. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(6), 660-678.

Appendix A - Survey Instrument

The MCSA-P2 is copyrighted by Raechele L. Pope and John A. Mueller and cannot be duplicated or used without their written consent. Raechele L. Pope may be contacted at the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy, 468 Baldy Hall the University at Buffalo, State University of New York, Buffalo, NY 14260-1000 (716) 645-2471 (ext. 1095). John A. Mueller may be contacted at the Department of Student Affairs in Higher Education, 222 Stouffer Hall, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA, 15705, (724) 357-4541.

The following items are added to the MCSA-P2 to collect the demographic information and for participant screening purposes.

1. Are you currently working in your first full-time position in college and university housing?
Yes
No
2. Have you obtained a Master's degree in student affairs or a related field?
Yes
No
3. Are you currently pursuing a Ph.D. or Ed.D?
Yes
No
4. How do you identify your race/ethnicity?
American Indian or Alaska Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
White/Non-Hispanic
Other

5. How do you identify your gender?

Male
Female
Trans*

6. How do you identify your sexual orientation?

Heterosexual or straight
Gay male
Lesbian
Bisexual

7. How long have you been a full time professional in student housing?

Open Ended Responses

8. Choose the one descriptor that most accurately characterizes the diversity and multicultural content of your graduate degree program?

None
One required course
Variety of elective courses
Infusion throughout the curriculum
Infusion throughout the curriculum and a required course
Infusion throughout the curriculum and a variety of electives
Infusion throughout the curriculum, a required course, and various electives
One required course and a variety of electives

9. What one experience during your graduate studies do you believe was the most impactful on further developing your multicultural competence?

Academic program content
Practicum experience
Graduate assistantship
Study abroad experience
Conference attendance
Non-conference related professional development
Individual relationships with others