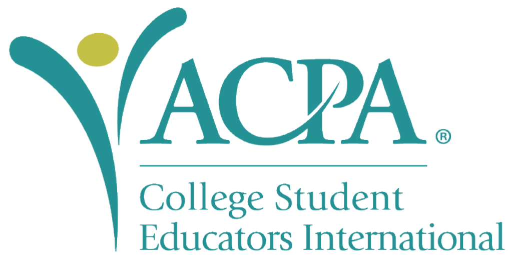

THE PTP MODEL

PRACTICE-TO-THEORY-TO-PRACTICE

A 35TH ANNIVERSARY RE-INTRODUCTION

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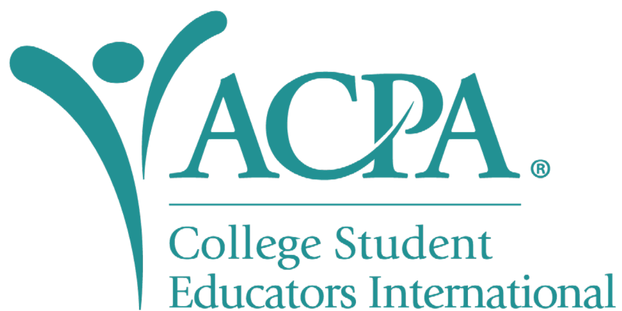
FOREWORD BY **BETH WELLS**



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FOREWORD

In January of 2019, I received a remarkable email from a stranger. "Are you the Elizabeth Wells who worked with Lee Knefelkamp on the PTP model?" the writer asked. I had recently begun to contemplate retirement, and the question about work I had done near the start of my career elicited nostalgia and curiosity. "I wonder where this will lead?" I thought as I sent my affirmative reply.

Not in my wildest dream could I have imagined that John Mueller, professor of student affairs in higher education at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, sought historical information for a monograph he was writing that would be a re-introduction of the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model I had worked with Knefelkamp to develop. With this 35th anniversary re-introduction of the PTP Model, Mueller has done an immeasurable service to the model itself, to contemporary student affairs practitioners who grapple with questions of how to translate theory into practice, and to student affairs educators who seek to teach the model to their students.

Brief historical context may be helpful. In the 1970's, there was growing interest in theories of student development and their use among professionals in student affairs, including increased exploration of how theory might play a larger role in informing the goals and strategies of our work with students. Carole Widick and Lee Knefelkamp wrote doctoral dissertations on "developmental instruction," a classroom application of William Perry's theory of intellectual development, in which the educational goal was to support college students' moving from the "dualistic" stage toward the more "relativist" stage of thinking. Shortly thereafter, Widick, Knefelkamp, and Clyde Parker explored the role of counselors as developmental instructors; Knefelkamp and Ron Slepitza designed a cognitive-developmental model of career development; and Knefelkamp published a guide to student development theory.

By 1980, the educational potential of applying theory in practice was generating excitement in the student affairs profession. At the same time, as Knefelkamp began to speak at institutional and professional student affairs gatherings on the use of theory, she observed that many enthusiastic practitioners struggled with figuring out which theory might be most applicable in any given instance and also how to apply it to practice. As an intellectual who loved theory, Knefelkamp had been drawn to Perry's scheme of intellectual development and sought a way to apply it in "developmental instruction." As a practitioner, my primary focus had always been on what was happening with the students in front of me. I believed that a model of how to use theory in practice begins with practice, in questions such as: What is going on with the students in our program? What are their challenges? What do they need to learn? By exploring such questions, practitioners consider vital information that helps us to identify our educational goals for students, and based on these goals, to choose which theories may be helpful in working with these particular students in this particular setting. Thus, was the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model born. It builds on Knefelkamp's earlier work, but firmly grounds the translation of theory to practice in practice as the alpha and the omega, locating theory neither as the place to begin nor as an end in itself, but as a tool of practice.

We designed the PTP Model to illuminate for practitioners what it means to translate theory into practice and to provide a step-by-step road map for doing that in ways that are anchored in respect for practice, for evolving theory, for the students with whom we work, and for their learning during the college years. With his many years of experience teaching the PTP model to graduate students, Mueller's thorough, insightful presentation brings it to life for 21st century readers and clarifies key steps, including his demystifying elucidation of the fulcrum "Step 6, Translation." Through careful integration of previously unpublished work with published and interview material on the model, this monograph provides enriching context and helpful examples that encourage not only broader understanding and use of the PTP model but also critiques of it that will continue to advance the field.

John Mueller and I share the experience of having studied with Lee Knefelkamp in our graduate programs, he at Teachers College, Columbia University in the 1990’s, and I at the University of Maryland in the 1970’s. Knefelkamp’s unexpected death in 2018 was a tremendous loss to the profession, as well as to her family and many colleagues and friends. Her vision, inspiration, and contributions to the field are legendary. Mueller does a great honor to our former professor and colleague by the work and care he has invested in publishing the PTP model for the first time with this 35th anniversary re-introduction. It has been a pleasure for me to find a new colleague and friend in John Mueller, and a deeply gratifying honor to provide historical background in support of his outstanding work and important contribution to the field.

Beth Wells
Baltimore, Maryland
2019

LAND ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I wrote this monograph in Indiana, Pennsylvania, USA. In doing so, I acknowledge that this land has long served as a site of meeting and exchange amongst Indigenous peoples including Shawnee, Iroquois, Allegany, Delaware, and Monongahela tribal nations. I further acknowledge the painful history of genocide and forced removal from this territory, and honor and respect the many diverse Indigenous peoples still connected to this land.

PERSONAL ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Since my earliest days as a professional in student affairs, I knew of Lee Knefelkamp and recall the first time I saw her speak at the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) conference in New Orleans in 1986. I was captivated by her knowledge, eloquence, and powerful presence. In 1994, I began my doctoral work at Teachers College, Columbia University where I had Lee for an advanced theory class and where she served as a member of my dissertation committee. In 1998, the final year of my doctoral work, Lee hired me to serve as an instructor for the master's program in student personnel administration, giving me further opportunities to work with her and learn from her. After I left Teachers College in 1999 and started my career as a faculty member, I maintained a connection with Lee and made sure to see her whenever I could although, admittedly, that would become less and less over the years.

When I initially set out to write this monograph, I reengaged with Lee and had a few email exchanges with her, intending to meet with her in the fall of 2018 to discuss the project and drafts of this monograph re-introducing the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model. On the evening of September 7, 2018, I got a call from a fellow Teachers College alumnus telling me that there was unconfirmed word that Lee had died. A few days later, that was confirmed. So many who knew and loved Lee were crushed by the news and we reconnected via phone calls, emails, meals, and Facebook to discuss memories of Lee.

A few weeks later, when I returned to researching and writing this monograph, I found myself reading the introduction to the 1999 publication of William Perry's *Forms of Intellectual Development in the College Years: A Scheme*. In her introduction to the book, Lee, a long-time friend and colleague of Perry's, pointed out an irony. The reissuing of his revolutionary book, she wrote, "will literally bring his work to life again" during the same year he died (p. xi). I read that paragraph just two weeks after Lee's own death. Throughout the preparation of this monograph, I have felt that same irony. But more than irony, I feel an enormous responsibility in writing this monograph. It is my hope that I honor Lee Knefelkamp's extraordinary work as I re-introduce the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model to the next generation of student affairs practitioners.

Lee's unexpected passing meant that I would have to dig deeper and work harder to gather primary source information to construct a history of the model's evolution and to piece together the various versions, explanations, and illustrations of the model to come up with a comprehensive and detailed explanation of the model. Other than some handouts and a photocopy of a dot-matrix printout of *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model* (Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells, 1984, 1985), there is no published version of the model. My hope is that this monograph fittingly corrects this.

There are many people I need to acknowledge and thank for responding to emails and phone calls as I tried to tell the story of Lee's (and her colleagues Elizabeth Wells's and Rennie Rogers Golec's) work on this model. Each offered a bit of insight and/or the name of another person I should contact. Although I run the risk of missing someone, I will make every effort to list all their names here: Linda Clement, Frank Golom, Paul Hanvougse, Barb Jacoby, Pat King, Susan Komives, Kevin Kruger, Marylu McEwen, Bill Moore, Denny Roberts, Ron Slepitza, Meredith Strohm, Carol Schneider, David Scoby, and Kathe Taylor. One of the unexpected delights of this endeavor has been learning bits of history about Lee and her work from those in her orbit. I am especially grateful to Elizabeth (Beth) Wells for meeting with me to discuss the PTP model.

Her insights, knowledge, generous spirit, and unfailing support have meant the world to me. Little did I know, when I started this project, I would come to think of Beth Wells as a colleague and a friend.

I am also grateful for the time and assistance of archivists and librarians at the Association of American Colleges and Universities, Bowling Green State University (National Student Affairs Archives), Indiana University of Pennsylvania Libraries, and the Intercultural Communication Institute.

Finally, I wish to thank Dr. Evelyn (Evi) Torton Beck, Lee Knefelkamp's life partner and spouse, who reached out to me and gave me access to—and entrusted me with—Lee's papers and files. There is truly no way I could bring Lee's work to the next generation without Evi's support and generosity.

NOTE:
When citing the PTP model itself and to honor the original authors' work, please use the following reference:

Knefelkamp, L. L., Golec, R. R. & Wells, E. A. (1985). *A workbook for the practice-to-theory-to-practice model*. Unpublished manuscript. University of Maryland, College Park, MD.

When citing any unique content from this 35th anniversary re-introduction, I suggest the following reference:

Mueller, J. A. (2019). *Practice-to-theory-to-practice: A 35th-anniversary re-introduction*. Washington, D.C.: ACPA—College Student Educators International.

RATIONALE FOR THE MONOGRAPH

One of the core competencies identified by ACPA-College Student Educators International and NASPA-Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (2015) is the application of theoretical concepts of human development and learning to inform and improve practice. This essential competency has been articulated by student affairs practitioners and scholars for decades (Barr, 1993; Creamer, Winston, & Miller, 2001; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Reason & Kimball, 2012; Saunders & Cooper, 2001; Strange, 1987; Upcraft, 1993). Still, the application of theory to practice in student affairs is a rather elusive and challenging undertaking. Unlike other professions (e.g., counseling), the student affairs theory base does not readily lend itself to a specific set of techniques that can be used in practice. In counseling, for example, cognitive-behavioral theory proposes that to help people in psychological distress, the focus should be on replacing unreason with reason and/or replacing maladaptive behaviors with new and more desired socially adaptive behaviors (George & Cristiani, 1995). This, then, translates to a set of techniques and practices that can help a therapist achieve these goals (such as systematic desensitization, role playing, teaching self-control, and guided imagery). A review of counseling theories—psychodynamic, behavioral/cognitive, humanistic, multicultural, systems, and eclectic—yields a similar set of practices that are specific to their theoretical underpinnings (Mueller, 2009).

The application of theory to practice in counseling is straightforward and efficient compared to the nebulous application of theory to practice in student affairs. This is due, in part, to the nature of the relationship between the practitioner and the student. In counseling, for the most part, the relationship is more clearly defined between the therapist and the client, the presenting concern, and even the physical space where the work is taking place. In student affairs, the relationship between the practitioner and the student (or students) is much less narrowly defined and is largely dependent on the functional area and the range of physical spaces where the work is taking place. It is no wonder that applying theory to practice can be a challenging intellectual task for a graduate student or even a seasoned professional.

To bridge the divide between theory and practice, various process models have been introduced in the student affairs literature. These models codify and describe a set of steps that should be taken to translate theory into practice (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Some of the most commonly cited are the Cube Model (Morrill, Oetting, & Hurst, 1974), the Grounded Formal Theory Model (Rodgers & Widick, 1980), The Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model (Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells, 1984, 1985), and the Theory to Practice Model (Reason & Kimball, 2012). Each of these models provides a framework for considering developmental-related concerns and intervention strategies, but lack detail (and arguably the utility) of the PTP model.

The Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model, I believe, provides practitioners (and those preparing for the field) with the most detailed and actionable steps as well as the clearest conceptualization of translating theory into practice. Unfortunately, other than a dot-matrix printout of a workbook and some handouts, a full and clear description of the model does not appear in any text. And when the model does appear in a contemporary book, chapter, or article, it is merely cited and/or presented as a listing of the eleven stages that comprise the model. The closest thing to a publication is the (not very accessible) *Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model* (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985) that has been photo-copied and passed from one generation of professionals to the next. Not surprisingly, after nearly thirty-five years of handling and transmitting the document in this way, it has become worn and weathered in appearance, but its fundamental principles and ideas remain timeless and intact.

My goal, then, with this monograph is to re-introduce the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model in its fullest form to a new generation of graduate students and emerging student affairs professionals. My hope is that this re-introduction maintains the integrity, structure, and substance of the original model while making it relevant for a 21st century audience.

SETTING THE PTP CONTEXT

In 1984, when Knefelkamp and Golec first presented the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice (PTP) model in the form of a workbook, the price of a gallon of gasoline was just $1.10, the original Apple Macintosh personal computer went on sale, the first-ever flight in space by humans (untethered, using jet backpacks) took place, Michael Jackson won unprecedented acclaim for his "Thriller" album, Sony introduced the first commercial CD players, one of the most highly rated and popular films was the science fiction thriller "Terminator," and Geraldine Ferraro was the first female vice-presidential candidate representing a major American political party. Mark Zuckerberg, LeBron James, and Katy Perry were born while Larry Page and Sergey Brin, the co-founders of Google (where much of this information was curated) had just turned 11 years old.

Closer to home (i.e., the field of student affairs in higher education): ACPA held its annual convention in Baltimore and NASPA was in Louisville; the *New Directions for Student Services* sourcebooks were focusing on college athletes, orientation programs, student development and computers, and students as paraprofessional staff; popular books in the field in 1984 included *A Handbook for Student Group Advisors* (Schuh, 1984), *Blacks in College: A Comparative Study of Students' Success in Black and in White Institutions* (Fleming, 1984), and *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development* (Kolb, 1984); and provocative ideas emerged about a philosophy for our profession (Stamatakos & Rogers, 1984), student involvement (Astin, 1984), professional standards (Miller, 1984), and power and privilege (hooks, 1984).

I take this stroll down memory lane because it provides a backdrop for the introduction of the PTP model and reminds those in my generation of the contributions and advancements that were occurring in our country and in our field. Not surprisingly, I count the introduction of PTP as another one of those significant contributions to our field.

Years associated with workbooks, unpublished manuscripts, and videos referring to and describing the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice model include 1981, 1982, 1984, and 1985. I have chosen 1984 as an anchor date for the purposes of this monograph since it is the date that appears first on the most widely available documentation of the model, *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model*. Also, in 1984, the University of Maryland produced a video featuring Lee Knefelkamp providing a detailed instructional presentation of the PTP model. The workbook accompanied the presentation and is often referenced by Knefelkamp in the presentation.

In her opening remarks in the training video, Knefelkamp (1984) set the stage for the presentation of the model by posing a provocative question: "How do we come to understand, in a more sophisticated way, what it means to be a practitioner?" (0:01:00). She suggested that in order to answer this question, we must first return to the work of Nevitt Sanford (1962, 1967). In doing so, she proposed three fundamental principles. First, the student affairs profession "is about the facilitation of mature human beings" (0:05:17). We may do this differently in the various settings and functional areas that comprise our profession. Nevertheless, we are all educators and have a responsibility to ensure that our students not only learn information and concepts, but that they change "in qualitative ways" (0:06:08). Second, we need to focus on our theoretical foundations to better understand what it means to be a human being. Here she acknowledged that there are essentially two types of theories: the formal theories that have "stood the test of time" (0:06:57) and those informal theories that "grow out of your observation" (0:07:24). Knefelkamp reminded us that most theories grew out of the work of individuals who were primarily practitioners. Finally, recognizing that we are educators who must use theory to guide our work, we must accept responsibility for designing "deliberately facilitative environments" (0:10:15) as well as for accepting the ethical responsibility to change them if they are not. In sum, we need to be knowledgeable about people and environments, and the interaction between the two. Knefelkamp proposed that it is this "in-between" (0:10:59) space (i.e., between students and the environments in which they learn and live) that is the domain of the student affairs practitioner. This notion of *living in the in-between* is core to the translation of theory to practice.

Knefelkamp (1984) believed that Sanford also called us to "claim the generative function" (0:12:25). Any of us who have studied Erikson (1959) know that he believed an important life stage was characterized by generativity (or caring for and guiding the next generation). We may do this as educators, parents, supervisors, coaches, or in any role as teachers and mentors. Knefelkamp argued that any practitioner can come up with policies or programs, but how we *care* for those affected by these policies and programs defines us as generative. For example, Knefelkamp continued, we can come up with a new admissions policy that brings many more students (or a certain underrepresented demographic of students) to campus, but how we can care for them once they are at our institution is the essence of generativity. "Care is based on" said Knefelkamp (1984) "a deep and profound understanding of the nature of that which is to be cared for" (0:14:45). Theory provides this understanding.

HISTORY OF THE PTP MODEL

The Practice-to-Theory-Practice (PTP) model is first and foremost a process model, not a theory. Process models, unlike theories, suggest a series of sequential steps one may take to connect theory to practice (Evans et al., 1998). A process model cannot tell us about what development is, how it takes place, what cues in the environment may provide necessary challenge and support, or how to measure development (Evans et al., 1998; Rodgers, 1986). As Rodgers observed in a training video on PTP, process models are "contentless, they're empty" (0:03:30). In more colorful terms, Rodgers proposed that a process model is "like the skeleton to which the theory is flesh" (0:03:45).

Reconstructing the history of the PTP model is a challenging task since documentation on the model is largely in the form of unpublished manuscripts and handouts, conference presentations referenced in numerous articles and book chapters, and two VHS training videos on the model. Still, a thorough review of these artifacts allows us to trace the evolution of the PTP model from its earliest roots.

One thing we can determine from this journey back is that Lee Knefelkamp was central to the evolution of the PTP model from the very beginning. The genesis of the model dates to Lee Knefelkamp's (1974) and Carole Widick's (1975) dissertations, both at the University of Minnesota, in which each set out to create developmentally facilitative classroom environments using Perry's (1970) scheme. At that time, there was a growing call to use theoretical models as the basis for programming and interventions, inside and outside the college classroom (Cornfeld & Knefelkamp, 1977). More specifically, a "prescriptive model" (p. 7) was needed that would allow practitioners to analyze student characteristics in terms of theories (i.e., description) and then translate that knowledge into a "defined methodology" (p. 7) (i.e., prescription) that would promote development consistent with those theories. One of the first attempts at this was a methodology called Developmental Instruction which became the primary tool of investigation in Knefelkamp's (1974) and Widick's (1975) dissertations.

Both studies claimed that challenging students' values and thinking within a supportive instructional environment would help them advance from dualistic to more relativistic thinking over the course of a semester (cited in Reisetter Hart, Richards, & Mentkowski, 1995). These studies were among the first to describe the practical application of theory in settings such as the classroom. Following this were efforts that advanced this research in other higher education settings such as counseling (Widick, Knefelkamp, & Parker, 1975) and career development (Knefelkamp & Slepitza, 1976).

The Developmental Instruction model (Knefelkamp, 1974) emphasized both content and process and provided the first broad outline of the eventual PTP model in laying out seven stages used in designing a developmental classroom or workshop curriculum: 1) identify the theoretical assumptions about the students and the institution; 2) select the population of interest; 3) assess the needs of the population; 4) choose appropriate subject matter and course content; 5) design methods that provide support and disequilibrium; 6) conduct the course; and 7) evaluate and redesign the course. Those familiar with the eventual 11-step PTP model may see elements of it present in this model.

Several years later, Parker, Widick, and Knefelkamp (1978) codified existing theories of student development into clusters (or families) which, they argued, each shared basic descriptions of development as well as factors that foster development. These clusters included: 1) psychosocial theories; 2) cognitive developmental theories; 3) maturity models; 4) typology models; and 5) person-environment interaction models. Cornfeld and Knefelkamp (1978), in the form of a detailed chart, further elaborated on this codification by describing, for each family of theories, the major constructs, the content and process implications, and methods of assessment. All of this would inform and be incorporated into the eventual workbook that describes the PTP model (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

At an ACPA Annual Convention presentation in 1979, Knefelkamp and Cornfeld presented a paper on learning environments. This paper underscored several principles that would become foundational to the PTP model. They proposed, for example, that effective education involves mastery of skills, mastery of a body of knowledge, and maturational development of the student. Effective education also involves, they proposed, designing learning environments based on the assessment of student needs and student characteristics, and that student development theory can provide a framework for this assessment. Finally, in their presentation they asserted that an optimal learning environment provides a balance of challenge and support, and proposed that there are benefits to considering multiple theoretical perspectives in assessing student needs.

In an unpublished but copyrighted document, Knefelkamp (1981a), building on earlier work, elaborated on the Developmental Instruction model. Here she referred to it as a "process model" that had been expanded upon and refined since first introduced in 1974, crediting Carol Widick and Janet Cornfeld among other unnamed colleagues. In this document, we see language (very familiar to the eventual PTP model) describing nine steps: 1) assess student learner characteristics (according to Perry's cognitive development theory); 2) translate those characteristics from general to specific issues; 3) analyze challenge and support variables; 4) assess characteristics of subject matter to be taught; 5) assess learning goals (mastery content, concepts, and skills); 6) design instruction methods; 7) implement; 8) evaluate; and 9) redesign. Knefelkamp (1981b) also published a chapter in a *New Directions* sourcebook on "today's" student in which she suggested ways to use theory to design campus environments that facilitate development. Once again, we see—in eight steps this time—the outlines of the PTP model emerging with an emphasis on using the descriptive aspects of theory to analyze students, as well as the environment, in terms of challenge and support.

1981 would turn out to be even more pivotal in the evolution of the model. It is the first time we see Elizabeth Wells's name associated with it in the form of a workshop handout titled, "Translating Student Development Theory into Practice." Wells had been a master's student of Knefelkamp's at the University of Maryland. In 1981, as a full-time practitioner at Old Dominion University, she worked most closely with Knefelkamp on the PTP model. It was not until 1982, however, that the model would be titled the "Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice" model, describing the process in the eleven stages that have persisted to this day. According to Wells (personal communication, January 12, 2019), Knefelkamp expressed concern that although the Developmental Instruction model resonated with faculty and her graduate students, it was not connecting with student affairs practitioners. In response, Wells shared her observation that the assumption all along, particularly in the literature, was that developmental interventions start with theory and are then translated into practice. Wells insisted that, from the practitioner perspective, we must start with practice; that is, start with where we are and with what is in front of us.

In the training video on the PTP model, Knefelkamp (1984) stated, "My basic view is that life mirrors theory, and her [Wells's] basic view is that theory should describe life; and there you have the difference in the approach" (0:37:53). Knefelkamp goes on to credit Wells with helping fundamentally re-orient her thinking and convincing her that her process model needed to be reconceptualized in such a way that it starts with practice, rather than theory. This became an essential addition to the model not only conceptually, but structurally as well. At first glance, it might seem that the Developmental Instruction model evolved to become the Practice-to-

Theory-to-Practice model. However, it might be more accurate to say that PTP was an offshoot of the Developmental Instruction model, focused more on student affairs practice and starting with core elements of practice (i.e., identifying pragmatic concerns and establishing educational goals).

A series of handouts (developed by Knefelkamp and Wells) followed in the next three years. The handouts provided more details on the eleven steps of the model, framed by the over-arching phases of Practice-Description-Translation-Prescription-Practice (see Figure 1). Accompanying this more detailed description of the model were a variety of handouts that allowed practitioners to work through the individual steps starting with examining one's role as an educator, developing learning outcomes, and employing selected theories as lenses to understand the students and environments, etc. These handouts, arguably, became the foundation for the version of the PTP model that is most commonly cited today: *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model* (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

1984 is the first time Rennie Rogers Golec's name is associated with the model. It appears that her contribution, as a third author, is best explained by Knefelkamp in the Acknowledgements section of the workbook where she thanked Golec for "reconceptualizing and rewriting the PTP Manual and for expanding the concepts of Steps 9 through 11 in the Model" (p. i). In this same Acknowledgments, Knefelkamp thanked Wells "for the creation of the PTP model" (p.i). It would appear, then, that Wells's significant contributions to the model were in co-creating it and conceptualizing the importance of starting with practice. Golec's primary contribution was in refining the workbook and in fleshing out the Implementing, Evaluating, and Redesigning steps.

Figure 1. A Model of Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice

PRACTICE	THEORY			PRACTICE
PRACTICE	DESCRIPTION	TRANSLATION	PRESCRIPTION	PRACTICE
1. Identify pragmatic concerns 2. Determine educational goals and outcomes	3. Examine which theories may be helpful in this case 4. Analyze student characteristics from perspective of each theory base 5. Analyze environmental characteristics from perspective of each theory base	6. Analyze the sources of developmental challenge and support in the context of both student and environmental characteristics	7. Re-analyze educational goals and outcomes 8. Design learning process that will deliberately facilitate mastery of educational goals	9. Implement educational experience 10. Evaluate goals 11. Reevaluate and, if necessary, refine, redesign, reconceptualize, and amend use to other populations

Based on "A Model of Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice" (cited in Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells, 1984, 1985)
© Wells & Knefelkamp (1982)

THE NATURE OF THEORY, PRACTICE, AND TRANSLATION

In the introduction to *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model*, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) discuss the nature of practice, theory, and translation—essential components of the PTP model. In setting the context for the re-introduction of the model, and to situate it in 2019, I have elected to use this same structure. In each of these sections, I will share what the original authors said about practice, theory, and translation and integrate that with more contemporary views and questions on these topics.

The Nature Of Theory

> *"Theory can serve as an empathy tool—providing views of how students think about their world and how they may be feeling about the issues in their lives"* (Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells, 1984, p. 5).

Since the PTP model was first introduced, there has been a spate of books and book chapters on college student development theory; most notable and cited are the multiple editions of *Student Development in College: Theory, Practice, and Research* (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010; Patton, Renn, Guido & Quaye, 2016). Across these publications, scholars defined theory, described its roles and functions, codified theory into its respective families and perspectives, and highlighted considerations, challenges, and cautions in using theory. These many fine resources do an excellent job of describing the characteristics of theory, so I will not repeat them here. I will, however, highlight three aspects of theory that Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) discussed, particularly as they relate to the PTP model: theory as an empathy tool, theory as descriptive, and theory understood in context.

First, Knefelkamp (1984) proposed that if we accept the responsibility to be generative, then we must also accept the responsibility to understand theory, in large part, because it is an empathy tool. Theory, she proposed, takes us outside of ourselves to observe others and to ask questions such as: How do you feel? How do you think and make meaning? How can I understand you in all of your complexity? Theory, then, is related to asking questions from multiple perspectives other than one's own.

A second role of theory is the one that is perhaps most relevant to PTP: to describe and explain (Hubbard, 2018; Jones & Abes, 2017; Killam & Degges-White, 2017; McEwen, 2003; Strayhorn, 2016). Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) noted, theory broadly "describes general characteristics of individuals or groups of individuals" (p. 5). As such, Knefelkamp (1994) observed that theory embraces a paradox in describing how we are like one another (i.e., the group), as well as how we are different from another (i.e., our individual differences). Theory describes the developmental process of students with respect to their identity or cognitive development; it offers explanations for why a student (or students) may feel, perceive, think, or behave under certain conditions. For example, racial identity theories (and the inherent construct of salience) describe the stages students go through in their understanding of their racial identity and may explain why two students of the same race may view a situation on campus very differently. Theory not only describes and explains, it also assists with predicting, influencing outcomes, assessing practice, and framing research (McEwen, 2003). Again, however, for the purposes of PTP and this monograph, the focus here is on description and explanation that leads to prescription (or guiding our practice).

Finally, Knefelkamp, Golec, and Wells (1984) emphasized the contextual nature of theory. At the most basic level, Knefelkamp (1984) asserted that theory is autobiographical in that theory tells us something about each theorist based on the questions they asked and attempted to answer. McEwen (2003), Schultz and Schultz (2017), and Jones and Abes (2017) have expanded on this, suggesting that theory reflects the life history, knowledge, experience, identities, and worldview of the theorist as well as the historical and sociopolitical context of various theories' development. Another important aspect of the contextual nature of theory is a consideration of the population on which the theory is developed and the degree to which concepts of the theory remain limited to that population or are more generalizable (Patton et al., 2016). Finally, Knefelkamp urged us not to limit translation of a given theory to its original

context. For example, she suggested, Holland codes (1985) need not be limited to career exploration; they can also be extended to the classroom or to a developmental workshop (e.g., the social type may prefer and/or excel when working and learning in groups).

Since the 1980s, when the student affairs profession first embraced student development as its theoretical foundation, it has come under greater scrutiny. Each critique and question has helped the profession be more aware of the strengths and liabilities of student development theory and, hopefully, more conscientious about its use in practice. Allow me to mention two of these: the utility of formal theory in practice and the limits of theory on today's multicultural campuses. Although I will address each, I will not settle the important questions they raise; that is beyond the scope of this monograph. Readers are urged to explore each in greater detail on their own.

Bloland, Stamatakos, and Rogers (1984), in their monograph *Reform in Student Affairs,* presented a scathing indictment of student development theory. They were not questioning student development theory's veracity, per se, as much as they were challenging its utility as a philosophy and as a tool for research and practice. They believed that as a profession we had jumped on board the "bandwagon" (p. ix) and embraced a "hodge-podge" (p. 26) of theories without evaluating them.

More recently, Love (2012) raised provocative questions about the application of formal theory in practice. In short, he questioned the field's insistence and assumption that professional practice should be based on the direct application of formal theory. He argued for a greater emphasis on the important role that experience (and thus informal theory) can and should play in practice; a role he believed is minimized almost to the point of extinction in the preparation of student affairs educators. In a rejoinder, Evans and Guido (2012) challenged Love's "varying implicit definitions" (p. 200) of informal theory and argued that when professionals are taught to and actually do consider context and individual differences in the application of formal theory in practice, they *are* using informal theory in conjunction with formal theory. Reason and Kimball (2012), citing both Love (2012) and Evans and Guido (2012), developed a model of theory to practice that honors, balances, and incorporates both formal and informal theory through a process that requires consideration of institutional context and necessitates ongoing reflection on and assessment of practice. I mention this scholarly debate not to settle it or to suggest that Reason and Kimball's (2012) work settles it, but to consider how this conversation adds depth and richness to the PTP model and responds to one of the realities of the theory to practice discussion that continues.

Perhaps the most current question on student development theory centers on an issue reported by graduate students and professionals alike: they often do not see their own—and by extension, an increasingly diverse body of college students'—identities and their experiences reflected in the profession's formal theories (Gillett-Karam, 2016). Related to this is the long-standing observation that formal and foundational theories were based on research that excluded marginalized groups and did not acknowledge or account for intersectionality of identities (Patton, McEwen, Rendón, & Howard-Hamilton, 2007).

Jones and Stewart (2016) argue that these "first wave" (p. 17) or foundational theories are limited in that they treat the complexity of human development in discrete silos, they reflect (primarily) the experiences of socioeconomically privileged White men, and they are grounded in a paradigm that assumes a single reality that can be generalized to all students. Likewise, Nicolazzo (2016) asserts that this view of student development "projects one monolithic understanding of populations and communities that have far more intra-group diversity…[and] does not adequately account for how interlocking systems of oppression and privilege mediate the lives and environments of students, faculty, and staff" (para. 9). Knefelkamp herself (1984) acknowledged and forecasted this limitation in her discussion of theories of student development in the 1980s and proposed then, as now, that more needs to be done to "change environments to make them more facilitative and accepting of diversity" (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, p. 3).

Again, space is limited to examine this further and other scholars are effectively tackling this important and timely topic (c.f., Abes, Jones, & Stewart, 2019). Therefore, I will close

this discussion on the nature of theory by stating that instead of simply rejecting formal or foundational theories, we should consistently act to apply two important principles of multicultural awareness, knowledge, skills, and actions to the competency area of theory and translation: 1) examine, in critical ways, the assumptions and basic tenets of these theories to determine what constructs can be helpful in understanding the diversity of students in a range of contexts (and which constructs are not); and 2) examine how our identities, experiences, and worldviews shape the ways we interpret and apply theory (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2019).

The Nature Of Practice

> *"It is critical that we really honor practice…that we accord ourselves the serious attention that we accord theory. Too often we do not take the time to stop and think about what we are doing…too often we let the daily press of our work dictate what it is we do…and therefore what it appears that we stand for" (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, p. 4).*

Throughout the instructional video on PTP, Knefelkamp (1984) emphasized that we need to honor practice. She argued that "for a profession of practitioners, we really don't honor it very much (0:23:00);" we assume, she continued, that we know what it means to be a practitioner because "everyone's running around doing it all the time" (0:23:50). Knefelkamp believed that to honor practice we need to sit with one another and talk about what we do and why we do it (i.e., why we are in this profession). By practice, she does not mean (or limit it to) evaluating, developing policy, increasing numbers, or being more efficient. Rather, she proposed that to truly honor practice means cherishing what we do, supporting one another on the tough stuff, and imagining and dreaming together how we can do things differently. Indeed, Knefelkamp (1984) took a philosophical approach to the nature of practice while simultaneously honoring the essential and day-to-day elements of practice.

Like theory, the practice of student affairs has been the topic of books, articles, and conference presentations for the nearly four decades since the introduction of the PTP model. In that time, phrases and related concepts such as *standards*, *principles of good practice*, *best practices*, and *professional competencies* have dominated our field and with good reason. Undoubtedly, these standards have enhanced our effectiveness in our work with students and helped us to address the ever-increasing complexity of student affairs work. The ACPA/NASPA professional competencies document, for example, has made great strides in facilitating the field's ability to consider the "applications of the competencies to practice, professional development, and the preparation of new professionals through graduate study" (ACPA/NASPA, 2015, p. 4). A review of both the PTP model and the ACPA/NASPA competencies reveals overlap between the practice steps of the model and the competency areas; for example, establishing meaningful and realistic goals, designing educationally powerful programs and policies, and developing effective assessment and evaluation strategies. Decades ago, Rodgers (1986) proposed that professional practice is indeed the result of our competencies (e.g. knowledge and translation of theory) combined with our use of process models (e.g., PTP). A third important ingredient, he argued, was the creativity and innovation we bring to both of the these.

One aspect of practice identified in the ACPA/NASPA competencies amplifies the call of Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) for reflection on our practice. The competency area of Personal and Ethical Foundations articulates the importance of establishing regular and ongoing reflection on one's practice and translating that into positive action in the future. Knefelkamp et al. (1984) encouraged us to do this not only on our own, but also in community as we discuss "educational goals, methods of delivering services, methods of educating, and standards of practice" (p. 5). This can be difficult in an applied profession like student affairs where, as Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2019) note, there is a tendency to focus on action and outcomes more than reflection, explanation, and meaning-making. Abes, Jones, and Stewart's (2019) more recent challenge to student affairs educators is to use critical perspectives to reflect on, interrogate, and re-envision our understanding of student development theories and their use in practice. Reflection, then, may be an important remedy for the disconnect we sometimes experience between theory and practice (Reason & Kimball, 2012).

The Nature Of Translation

> *"This is perhaps the most complex task of our profession. We are all about translation… translating educational goals into practice" (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, p. 12).*

In the instructional video, Knefelkamp (1984) returned to the notion of living in the in-between, this time with respect to the properties of theory and the properties of practice. She asked, "How do we get the two of them together? Should we ever even bother to try and get the two of them together? And what is that all about?" (0:25:20). Knefelkamp proposed that, yes, we should and to do so with success requires three skills: 1) possessing a sophisticated knowledge base; 2) having a sophisticated and appreciative understanding of oneself as a practitioner; and 3) being able to translate theory into effective practice.

When it comes to translation, Knefelkamp (1984) proposed there are three fundamental issues. First, some theories give us general characteristics of people which have limited utility when it comes to specific characteristics of college students. Therefore, she proposed, we need to look to the "second generation theorists" (0:26:25) who have worked with these models and produced descriptions of those models with specific types of students. Take for example the work of Pope (2000) and Kodama, McEwen, Liang, and Lee (2001) on the psychosocial development of, respectively, African American and Asian Pacific American college students. Second, and related to the first issue regarding the general descriptive properties of a given theory, we need to ask: What do my students look like in the context of *my* environment? In other words, we need to translate general theories into specific environments. For example, Hardiman and Jackson's (1997) social identity development theory can help us understand people and the various ways they understand themselves as agents and/or targets of oppression in general; however, when applied to a specific setting, such as a training program for resident assistants and the unique ways oppression operates in a residence hall or on a particular floor, the particular theory can help make a training session on social justice more effective. And finally, if we embrace Sanford's (1967) concept of challenge and support, we can translate the specific characteristics of the students within the context of the characteristics of a specific environment and gain insight on what is particularly challenging for these students and, perhaps, overly supportive for these students in the environment. This allows us to modify the environment or create a new environment of supports and challenges. This new environment may be comprised of a training workshop, a retreat, or a class. More recent thinking about the environment includes elements of the institution's environment such as policies, procedures, and organizational structures and staffing patterns (Hamrick, Evans, & Schuh, 2002).

Knefelkamp (1984) referred to this translation process as "developmental design" (0:31:50) and proposed that there are two types, depending on the practitioner's goals. One type of developmental design exists when the new environment provides an "exact match" (0:31:55) (i.e., the sources of supports and challenges in the new environment are the ones that are helpful to the students and are neither overly challenging nor overly supportive). Knefelkamp proposed that this type of developmental design is helpful when attempting to convey information, concepts, and specific skills to students. An example of this might be a student life coordinator who is holding a workshop for student leaders on the institution's financial systems, room reservation procedures, or meeting management principles. If, however, this same student life coordinator was holding a retreat on appreciation of differences and maximizing the benefits of diversity within an organization, they might create a different type of developmental design; one that Knefelkamp would describe as a "developmental mismatch" (0:33:35). Here, the design involves varying the levels of support and challenge in the new environment to help the student leaders stretch themselves and be more complex in their thinking about diversity and inclusion. This more qualitative type of developmental design may be longer-term and may involve a higher degree of interaction, patience, processing and even moments of discomfort for the students.

This notion of two types of developmental design (i.e., exact match and mismatch) is reminiscent of the concept of first and second-order systems change described by Pope (1995) and Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2014). In the student development context, first-order change focuses on more immediate and surface (yet still important) changes in students' knowledge

or mastery of skills, while second-order change allows for deeper and enduring change in the students' worldview and range of responses to complex issues.

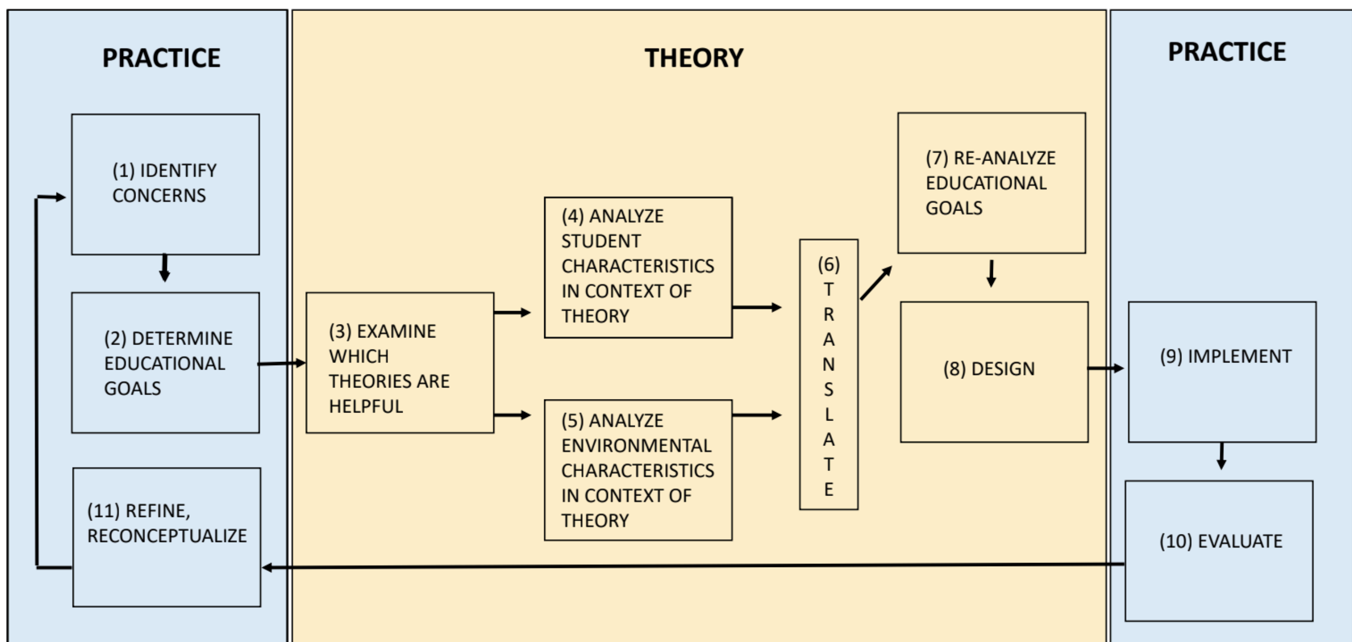
SYSTEMS MODEL OF PRACTICE-TO-THEORY-TO-PRACTICE

Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice is an unusual name for a process model that proposes steps to connect theory to practice, yet Knefelkamp and Wells (1982) were deliberate in their choice of wording. As noted in the history of the model, Knefelkamp and Wells believed strongly that any process model of theory to practice must start with practice because, as Bloland, Stamatakos, and Rogers (1994) later observed, practice allows for observation which then raises the questions that theory attempts to answer. Rodgers (1986) proposed that many practitioners struggle with theory to practice because they start with theory, "running around looking for a problem" (0:04:05). Instead, we should begin with practice, link it to theory, and then return to practice again.

It may be helpful at this point to refer to Figure 2, Systems Model of PTP, for an overview of the steps of the model and how the model is illustrated in three phases of practice to theory and then back to practice. Steps 1 and 2 are part of practice, as are Steps 9 through 11. The diagram illustrates how, when theory is not used to guide practice, we tend to jump directly from identifying goals (Step 2) to implementing an intervention (Step 9); in essence, practice to practice. Infusing theory (Steps 3 through 8) allows us to analyze our educational goals through a theoretical lens so that we are assured our goals provide appropriate challenge and support for our students in this particular context. Figure 1 is another way to convey what Knefelkamp et al (1984, 1985) meant by practice to theory to practice. Here again we see how the process starts with practice; moves to theory as a means to describe, translate, and prescribe; and then returns to practice.

Each of the steps of the PTP model are presented below. This presentation is based on an integration of the handout *A Process Model of Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice* (Knefelkamp & Wells, 1982) and *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model* (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985). This presentation also includes insights and content from the PTP instructional videos featuring Knefelkamp (1984) and Rodgers (1986). See pages 31-36 for a complete example of these steps.

Figure 2. A Systems Model of Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice



Based on "A Systems Model of P-T-P" © Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells (1985)
Modified by Mueller (2019)

STEP 1: IDENTIFY PRAGMATIC CONCERNS

This first step in the model is part of practice. As student affairs practitioners, we create and implement a wide range of programs in our varied functional areas. As reflective practitioners, we are aware of problems or situations which arise within these programs. Some are easily resolved, but others require more care and thought as they are complex or nuanced and can become opportunities for further student development and learning.

Just as the first step in resolving an ethical dilemma is recognizing that there *is* a dilemma, the first step in PTP is recognizing that there is a pragmatic concern and describing it. It is a step that Knefelkamp (1984) said asks of our practice, "Quite literally, where are we?" (0:39:15). Knefelkamp (1984) and Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) proposed three questions to help define pragmatic concerns:

1) Is there a problem or troubling issue we need to resolve? If so, define and describe it.

2) Is there something in place (e.g., a program or workshop) that we need to work on, enhance, or improve? If so, define and describe the current program and what is problematic about it.

3) Do we want to initiate a new program or tailor a program used elsewhere to our own campus? Describe what we wish to initiate.

Knefelkamp (1984) argued that in this step we especially need to honor practice. Therefore, she admonished, "Don't touch a theory book; *talk* to each other" (0:41:32). We need to take time, she urged, to talk with one another about what we are observing. Questions that can advance this discussion and can help define the pragmatic concern and put it in context include: Who is affected by it? What are the historical roots of the issue and how has it evolved? What are the risks and benefits to addressing it? Are we observing a symptom of a larger, deeper problem? Again, the primary goal in Step 1 is to develop an in-depth grasp of the concern, to articulate it, and to consider it in context.

STEP 2: DETERMINE EDUCATIONAL GOALS/OUTCOMES

Goal-setting is another part of our practice and, thus, follows naturally from Step 1. Without considering our goals and the outcomes, we do not have a good grasp of what we desire for our students. This step is critical because it allows us to benefit from the subsequent steps of theoretical analysis of students and the environment and how that analysis will translate into the design of our intervention.

Knefelkkamp et al. (1984, 1985) proposed that as we develop these goals, we consider what our expectations are for the students in light of the concerns identified in Step 1. Generally, these expectations fall into two broad categories of internal and external goals.

Internal goals focus on the desired outcomes of our interventions with students. Knefelkamp (1984) and Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) defined internal goals in terms of *content* and *development* as follows:

Content:

- What knowledge, facts, or content information do we want students to learn as a result of the intervention or "developmental design?" For example, do we want student organization leaders to learn our department's program planning guidelines?

- What concepts or principles do we want students to learn? For example, do we want them to learn the difference between debate and dialogue?

Development:

- What intellectual skills do we want students to attain? An example of an intellectual skill is the ability to compare and contrast without bias or rigidity. This is important, for example

(Knefelkamp, 1984), when a student government organization is making decisions on funding proposals.

- What other skills (other than intellectual) do we want the students to gain? These might include advocating for oneself, constructing a resume, or budgeting skills.

In considering the above questions, we should have a good idea of what students already know and/or determine if some assessment is necessary.

External goals refer to the broader implications of the intervention. How do we expect the intervention may impact the community or the institution? For example, do we expect higher retention? Or do we expect a reduction in tension among student groups?

Knefelkamp et al. (1985) and Rodgers (1986) proposed additional questions we might consider in this step: a) What are the current ways we are dealing with the issue? b) Is there any evaluation of the current program or procedures? c) What are the characteristics of the students most associated with the problem? d) What do we know about the setting?

It may seem that there are a lot of questions in this step, and indeed there are; but they are essential to the careful process of developing goals. The answers to these questions will inform (and will be translated into) the educational goals/outcomes we seek.

Again, Knefelkamp (1984) observed, "Notice, we're two steps into the model and we haven't cracked open a theory book" (0:49:40). Instead we are talking with each other, she continues, and we are taking the time to honor practice. As Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) noted, "We often do not take the time to really think about our outcome goals, nor do we reflect upon what things we expect students to know and already can do as prerequisite learning that is necessary in order to benefit from our programs" (p. 15).

STEP 3: EXAMINE WHICH THEORIES MAY BE HELPFUL IN THIS CASE

Step 3 represents the first step in the "theory" portion of the PTP model; specifically, theory as "description." Having established the existing concern and the desired educational outcomes, it is now important to determine which theories—and/or specific concepts from theories—of student development may be relevant. Rodgers (1986) mused, as he described this step, that while previous steps describe the "trenches" we are in with everyday problems of practice, this step asks "can those theoretical clouds shed any light" (0:09:40) on those problems?

In this step, then, we thoughtfully consider: What theories are helpful? What theories ask the questions I am asking? and What theories address my curiosity about who these students are? It is at this point that we "dive into the wreck" (Knefelkamp, 1984, 0:51:10) of theories and, thus, have a need to organize them into families. Knefelkamp (1984) preferred the term "families" to describe the groups of theories because she believed the theories, like families, are connected to one another and that the more "we can promote connectedness, the better" (0:53:50).

As in other social sciences (e.g., counseling psychology and sociology), college student development theories have long been clustered into various over-arching families, each characterizing fundamental aspects of the specific theories within a given family. Over the last few decades, there have been variations in the nomenclature, but there has also been general agreement on which families of theories primarily constitute the theoretical base of the profession and the value of this traditional approach of clustering theories into families (Jones & Abes, 2017).

To remain consistent with the original description of this step in the PTP model (Knefelkamp & Wells, 1982; Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985) and for ease of conveying the most widely accepted nomenclature, I describe these families in terms of content (i.e., defining characteristics) and process (i.e., the conditions necessary for development) as follows:

Psychosocial: The focus here is on the content of students' lives which includes the developmental tasks, preoccupations, psychological vulnerabilities, and transitions they will face. The degree to which students resolve these tasks and transitions contributes to their sense of identity (Mueller, 2009). Conditions necessary to support development include a recognition of the developmental task(s) at play and an awareness of the student's readiness for change, an appreciation for where the student is developmentally, opportunities to practice new skills and gain feedback, and an environment that is free from excessive anxiety (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

Cognitive: Whereas the psychosocial theories focus on the "what" of students' thinking (i.e., what is on their minds), the cognitive theories focus on the "how" of their thinking. The emphasis here is on how students reason and make meaning of their world and their experiences (moral, ethical, intellectual, spiritual) in increasingly complex ways (Mueller, 2009). Conditions necessary for supporting development include creating disequilibrium to stimulate new ways of thinking and opportunities to process and accommodate new ways of thinking. This can be achieved by moving the environment from highly to less structured, introducing different perspectives and ways of learning (including experiential learning), and by helping students evaluate ideas and make connections to different contexts (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

Social identity ("invisibility models" in the original document): Arguably an extension of the psychosocial models, these models focus on students' individual and intersecting identities with respect to their race, gender, gender identity, sexual orientation, etc. in the context of oppression (Mueller, 2009). Conditions necessary for supporting development include an emphasis on mattering, safety, and respect; knowledge and appreciation of cultural differences and salience of social identities; and critical consciousness with respect to inherent biases embedded within current theories, practices, and structures (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

Typology: These models do not focus on development and change per se; instead they describe patterns in how students prefer to perceive and respond to the world (Evans et al, 2010). These theories can be useful in designing interventions that respond to personality and learning similarities and differences among students (Mueller, 2009). Development may occur when students gain insight about their own types and then have opportunities that honor and reinforce their preferred types, that allow them to learn from and appreciate other types, and that expand and test their abilities across less-preferred types (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985).

Person-environment: These theories focus less on the internal process of change and development and more on the influence of the varied aspects of the environment on that change (Mueller, 2009). Knefelkamp (1984) argued that person-environment theories challenge us to consider ethical questions about whether we change environments that are problematic, or do we focus on the person as the problem (i.e., potentially perpetuating a "blame the victim" mentality). Knowledge of person-environment theories can inform what conditions we change in the environment that are necessary for fostering development.

While considering these theories , it is helpful to keep in mind that: 1) the true developmental theories (i.e., those which describe growth and change) are the psychosocial theories and the cognitive theories (Mueller, 2009); 2) each family and theory has its own definitions of support and challenge (Knefelkamp, 1984); 3) we benefit from considering more than one theory (or family of theories) in understanding the complexity of students (Knefelkamp, 1984); and finally, 4) it is possible that theories may fall short in helping us understand the students and the environment and, thus, may not be relevant (Knefelkamp, 1984). Finally, it is important for us to be familiar with not only student development theories, but also *content* theories (Pope et al. 2019; Rodgers, 1986). Theories on conflict resolution, leadership, and group dynamics, for example, may provide useful insight and practical guidance on the nature of the issue we wish to address through our interventions.

Our theory base has expanded over the last three decades to include not only more theories within different families but also new perspectives on those theories. For example, critical theoretical perspectives help us examine the strengths and liabilities of our foundational theories

and their ability to explain the developmental process within larger structures of privilege, power, oppression, and inequality (Hernández, 2017). Abes, Jones, and Stewart (2019) and their colleagues, in the ground-breaking book *Rethinking College Student Development Using Critical Frameworks*, introduce theoretical frameworks that help student affairs educators rethink student development constructs (e.g., identity, dissonance, knowing, and context) and re-envision student development practice.

The entirety of scholarship on student development theory (old and new) has aided us in our practice, research, and theory and is beyond the scope of this monograph. Readers may refer to Table 1 in the Apendix for a visual layout of the theory families and their related theories for citations that can lead to more detailed descriptions of each.

The primary objective in this step, then, is to look at each of the families of theory and determine which theories are most relevant and appropriate to the concerns that we have identified and the educational goals we have established. For each theory (particularly the psychosocial and cognitive development theories), it is necessary that we be able to identify the relevant constructs, how change takes place, and the conditions necessary for development.

STEPS 4 AND 5: ANALYZE STUDENT AND ENVIRONMENT CHARACTERISTICS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EACH THEORETICAL GROUP

Steps 4 and 5 continue the "theory as description" portion of the model. Before looking at Steps 4 and 5 more thoroughly, it is important to note (as illustrated in Figure 2) that they occur simultaneously even though I describe each individually here. Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) advised that while we may be focusing on specific theories (and related constructs) for these steps, we look across all the families of theories, psychosocial and cognitive theories in particular.

We are essentially treating each of these theories (and related concepts) as "theoretical filter systems" (Knefelkamp, 1984, 1:36:20) to look at the students *and* to look at their environment. A significant aspect of these two steps is that we use the *same* theoretical framework(s) to describe the students and to describe the environment. We are not using one set of the theories (e.g., psychosocial and/or cognitive) to describe the students and then another set of theories (e.g., environmental) to describe the environment; we are using the same set of theories (e.g., psychosocial and/or cognitive) to describe and understand both the students as well as the environment. Our knowledge of environmental theories can illuminate what components of the environment are relevant as we describe students in terms of the developmental theories. For example, if we were to determine that Chickering and Reisser's (1993) vector of Managing Emotions is relevant, we would describe the students in terms of their awareness of their emotions and their ability to channel their emotions in productive ways *and* we would examine the environmental conditions (e.g., the constructed environment or the culture) that may hinder and foster students' ability to examine and manage emotions in productive ways. Steps 4 and 5 are described in greater detail below.

STEP 4: ANALYZE STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EACH THEORETICAL GROUP

In this step, we consider and describe the student(s) in terms of: (1) the psychosocial and identity issues they are encountering; (2) the ways in which they reason about and interpret an issue or situation; and (3) how their personality types may factor into the preceding two theoretical constructs (Knefelkamp, 1981).

Key to this step is gathering information about the students as we consider them in terms of the relevant theories. Knefelkamp (1984) proposed three possible ways to do this:

1. Read research and relevant literature about students who are similar to our own. What do we know about students, in general, with respect to this concern and the relevant developmental issues?

2. Conduct assessment or research (both quantitative and qualitative) on our own campus in pursuit of finding out more about our students. This might include, for example, utilizing an existing assessment instrument or protocol of some developmental construct with our students.

3. Sit down with our colleagues and, in a structured way, share and listen to one another's observations, descriptions, and insights about our students within the context of these theoretical frameworks.

In Step 4, we are essentially trying to explain (in theoretical terms) why students may be behaving a particular way, how it is affecting them, and how they are making sense of it. Another helpful component of this step, although not developmental per se, is a description of the students in terms of demographic characteristics (age, identity groups, roles, academic preparation, etc.) (Knefelkamp & Wells, 1982). This can provide an important context for understanding the students and which (or how) theories may be limited in their explanatory power.

STEP 5: ANALYZE ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EACH THEORETICAL GROUP

In this step, we use the *same* theoretical lenses used to describe the students to understand the environment (e.g., course, workshop, program, department, etc.). We are essentially looking at the environment to see what conditions exist that facilitate and/or hinder the development of students described in Step 4. We also examine whether the environment is acknowledging and legitimizing the developmental issues of the students (again, described in Step 4) or whether the environment basically ignores those issues (Knefelkamp, 1984).

Knefelkamp (1984) provided some useful examples of what we are doing in Step 5. Let us say that if in Step 4 we are using psychosocial theory and describing students as confused about who they are (i.e., identity), we also need to examine the environmental conditions that promote or inhibit opportunities for students to experience and rehearse roles as well as opportunities to process what they are discovering about themselves. Another example she provided, using typology theory, is the residence hall director who is seeking to diversify the personality types on their staff. From a theoretical perspective, the RHD might recognize that their team is largely composed of intuitive-feeling (NF) types. By examining the residence life department culture (i.e., the environment) from the same theoretical lens, the RHD may recognize that the department values and tends to select certain personality types (e.g., NF) for inclusion and promotion.

Rodgers (1986) suggested another (yet related) way to think about this step. He proposed that we examine what the environment pre-supposes or expects of students with respect to developmental level. This will inform the next steps in the model with respect to challenge and support conditions of the environment. For example, does the environment expect that students have the appropriate level of assertiveness skills (i.e., interpersonal competence vector)? Does it expect that students have a more open mind to diversity than they actually do (i.e., racial identity theory)? Does the environment expect more relativistic thinking when students tend to be more dualistic (i.e., cognitive-structural theory)?

Finally, Knefelkamp (1984) suggested that we look at the environment with respect to inclusivity asking, "What does it permit, what does it inhibit, what voice does it leave out?" (1:40:50). Although these questions are less related to the developmental issues examined, they are essential to understanding the degree of inclusivity in the environment.

Although Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) framed their discussion about the environment broadly in terms of person and environment interaction (Lewin, 1936), they did not explicitly talk about the environment in terms of its specific key components. Here we see how the student development literature has matured in its discussion of those components. For example, Moos (1979) and later Strange and Banning (2015) describe in detail four critical elements of the

environment: physical, organizational, human aggregate, and socially constructed environments. Similarly, Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model describes, perhaps with more complexity, four essential components that "shape the environment and the development that takes place within it" (Museus, 2017, p. 242). Those four components are person, process, context, and time. Finally, Museus (2014) codifies nine indicators of an institutional environment's cultural relevance and responsiveness with respect to the increased diversity of student populations.

Once again, space is limited within this monograph to detail each of these theories. Still, it is important to be familiar with these environmental theories and concepts, as they are critical to this step and the ones that follow.

STEP 6: TRANSLATION: ANALYZE AND DESCRIBE THE SOURCES OF DEVELOPMENTAL CHALLENGE AND SUPPORT IN THE CONTEXT OF BOTH STUDENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS

As Knefelkamp (1984) introduced Step 6 of the model (translation) in the instructional video, she commented amusingly, "This is the hard part" (1:45:10). She suggested that this step is the most critical step in the PTP process and yet, perhaps, the least understood. Whether noted on an 11-step list or on Figure 1 as a box with "translate" printed inside, this step tends to be hastily addressed because it is regarded as simply the step where theory gets translated to practice. It is the "mystery box" (Komives, 2019, p. vii) where something—almost magical—is happening. But what is that? What is happening inside that box? What does translation mean in the context of the PTP model?

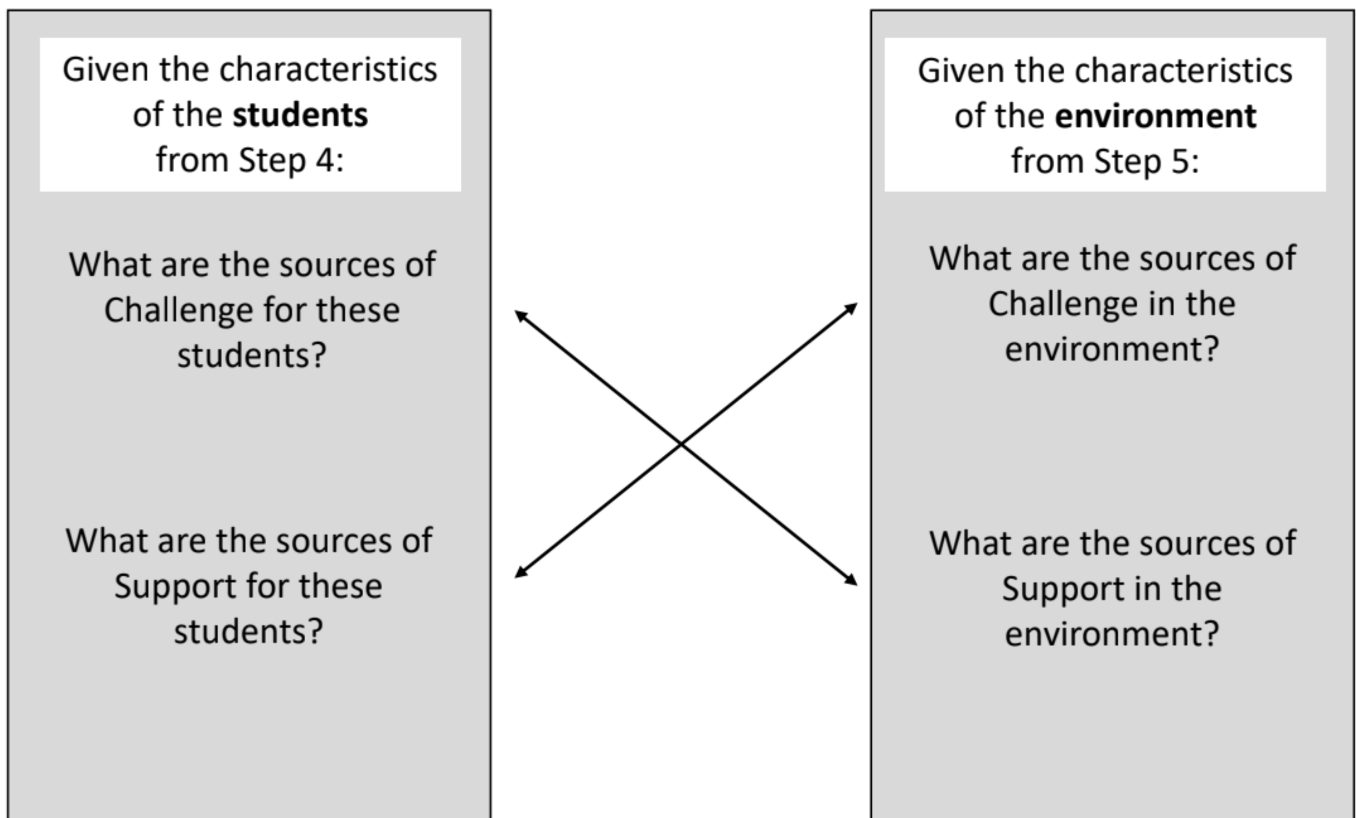
The translation process involves a deeper analysis of both the students and the environment in terms of Sanford's (1966, 1967) notions of challenge and support. Knefelkamp and Wells (1982) noted Sanford's research and his finding that the provision of both challenge and support is necessary for development to occur. In their description of Step 6, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) stated, "The identification of specific sources of challenge and support is the major function of the translation process" (p. 22). Recall that in Step 4 we used theoretical concepts to describe the students and in Step 5 those same concepts were used as a lens to describe the environment. From this analysis we then list what will be the sources of challenge and support for these particular students and what are the sources of challenge and support that exist within this particular environment. This description of the current state of the students and the environment is what Knefelkamp (1984) called the "how it IS" for each.

This "multiple theory analysis" (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, p. 22) is helpful because each theory provides different insights on what is challenging and what is supportive for these students as well as how students may be challenged in one area (e.g., cognitive) while supported in another (e.g., personality type). For example, if we describe the students as dualistic in their thinking, more abstract instructions on a task would be challenging. If we also identify students' typology as largely intuitive (i.e., N on the MBTI), then engaging in brainstorming activities will be regarded as supportive (i.e., easy or fun).

Likewise, given the characteristics of the environment as we have identified them, the question to ask is: Does it provide too little, enough, or too much challenge, and does it provide too little, enough, or too much support? Using the previous example, with respect to cognitive development, does the existing environment provide vague instructions (challenging) or does it provide specific and narrow guidelines (supportive)? With respect to social identity development theories, does the environment ignore or minimize differences (supportive for students earlier in their identity development) or does it directly address differences and the implications for relationships (challenging for these same students). This is how we begin to assess the match between the students and their environment. This *translation*—in which we analyze and describe both the students and the environment based on identifiable sources of challenge and support as indicated by each theory—gives us insight into the developmental needs of the students and what may be needed in the newly-designed environment as we move into the next phases of prescription and design.

Figure 3, adapted from the PTP workbook Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) and the PTP training video (Knefelkamp, 1984), illustrates the translation process in Step 6. The left side of the diagram indicates that we identify those sources of challenge and support that might exist for these students given their developmental level and other variables described by the theories (e.g., personality types). The right side of the diagram indicates, again using the same theoretical lens, that we identify what sources of challenge and support exist in the environment for these students. The "X" in the middle indicates translation or the analysis of those sources of challenge and support. It helps us ask and answer two important questions: 1) Given the challenges these students might have, what supports exist in the environment? and 2) Given the kinds of things that would be supportive for these students, what challenges exist in the environment? We do not necessarily do a point by point comparison (i.e., student supports vs. environmental challenges and student challenges vs. environmental supports) between these two boxes. However, we do make an overall appraisal of the *balance* of challenge and support for these students in this environment. As Knefelkamp (1984) asked in the video, "Given what I have come to know about these people, what would facilitate development; and given what I have come to understand about the environment, does it do that?" (1:48:00).

Figure 3. Translation Step of P-T-P



From "Chart for Step Six of the PTP Model" © Knefelkamp, Golec, & Wells (1985)
Adapted by Mueller (2019)

STEP 7: RE-ANALYZE EDUCATIONAL GOALS AND OUTCOMES

Step 7 represents our move into Prescription, the point at which we begin to ask, "What will we do now?" From the analysis in the translation process, information may emerge that will help us decide if we need to rethink the educational goals we determined (in Step 2) or rethink the educational experience we have been doing or are envisioning. The analysis may also lead us to conclude that the educational experience is not appropriate at all for this student population or group. This step is essential in realizing an ideal educational environment that "provides sufficient support to encourage the student to respond to and master the challenges" (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985, p. 24).

The following questions and responses may guide this reflection (Knefelkamp, 1984; Knefelkamp & Wells, 1982; Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985):

1. Are the students ready for these learning goals?
   If yes, then the proposed condition is regarded as an "exact match" between the characteristics of the student and the characteristics of the learning environment; a condition that is suitable for interventions where skill or knowledge acquisition is the primary goal. If, however, the goal is to facilitate developmental change, then question 3 below becomes pertinent.

2. Are the students not ready for the learning goals?
   If yes, then an "overly-challenging" condition exists and the students' response may be to become immobilized within or to retreat from the environment, resulting in no developmental change or skill acquisition. This may require modifying the learning goals (and hence the design of the intervention or learning experience).

3. Are the students almost ready for the learning goals?
   If yes, then there is a "developmental mismatch" where an appropriate level of challenge combined with just enough support to create a "plus one" condition or a "teachable moment" exists (Kneflkamp et al., 1984, 1985, p. 24). This condition can lead to both acquisition of knowledge and skills as well as developmental change.

For example, an exact match condition is appropriate (and what we are seeking) if our educational goal is to have student leaders learn and use Robert's Rules of Order as a format and a guide to conduct meetings. This goal emphasizes content and knowledge acquisition. If, however, our goal is to have students stretch themselves cognitively and learn how to approach complex decisions in less dogmatic ways, we would want (or we would need to create) a developmental mis-match condition. This might be accomplished by having the student leaders discuss student government related case studies, under the careful guidance of an advisor, for which there are no simple solutions. In sum, if the learning goals are appropriate with respect to the content and the student population is ready, the learning process can then be designed in such a way as to facilitate the students' learning and development.

E. A. Wells (personal communication, June 18, 2019) proposed an alternative and complimentary set of questions that practitioners might ask in the process of re-analyzing the educational goals of an intervention. These questions emphasize the notion of challenge and support over the "matching" paradigm. First, what is likely to occur if a program based on these planned goals were presented to these students in this environment? Second, given the current goals, what are the particular learning challenges (i.e., knowledge/skill acquisition or development) for these students where they are now? Third, can these particular students master the challenges of these planned goals if they are given appropriate support from the learning environment? If not, the goals should be modified so they are a stretch but still achievable for these students. Finally, once the goals have been re-analyzed and are set at a suitable level of challenge for these students, what kinds of support in the learning environment will be needed to enable these students to master the challenges?

The questions posed in the step, whether they focus on the construct of matching or on the broader construct of challenge and support, can be instrumental in helping practitioners assess the balance of challenge and support needed to engage the students and to facilitate knowledge/skill acquisition and/or development.

STEP 8: DESIGN A DELIBERATE DEVELOPMENTAL INTERVENTION

At first glance, one might regard designing an intervention as practice more than theory; however, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) place Step 8 in the Theory portion of PTP. I believe they do this because, in the context of PTP, the design of the intervention is deeply rooted in the theoretical considerations of Steps 3 to 7. Step 8 also continues to address the question "What will we do now?" and is, therefore, part of prescription.

Step 8 represents the manifestation of the learning environment (e.g., class, program, workshop) envisioned and analyzed in Steps 2 to 7. This requires us to consider how we will structure the learning environment, which includes what processes we will use, the resources required, the ordering of elements in the environment, and the formative assessment we will conduct and use to guide our efforts. Clearly, the goal here is to design a learning environment that challenges students to acquire new information, take on new roles, attempt new skills, think more complexly, and experience themselves with greater insights. This is accompanied by an environment that supports the students through these challenges. Support may be provided directly by us (the practitioners), or by their peers, but often it is in the structure of the environment we create.

Knefelkamp (1984) suggested that the facilitator of this learning environment is most effective when the instructor is enthusiastic, has confidence in the students' ability to grow, and demonstrates a commitment to work with the students until they do. Finally, Knefelkamp (1981) proposed that the type of environment we design should be one that encourages the student to "experiment, experience, reflect, and choose in an atmosphere free from excess anxiety" (p. 102).

In order to accomplish these goals, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) suggested the Developmental Instruction Model (Knefelkamp, 1974; Widick, 1975). The Developmental Instruction Model provides greater details on four variables, each on a continuum, that are helpful in the design step. The first variable is *structure* or the level of detail and direction that is provided to the students. The second variable is *diversity* which is defined by the amount and the complexity of the material that is presented to the students. *Experiential learning* is the third variable; it addresses how involved the students are with the material, from direct and hands-on to more vicarious (e.g., talking about ideas). The fourth variable is *personalism* or the level of engagement and risk-taking among the learners and the instructors/facilitators. In addition to *A Workbook for the Practice-to-Theory-to-Practice Model* (Knefelkamp et al., 1984, 1985), readers are encouraged to read more about the Developmental Instruction Model in *Student Development in College* (Evans et al., 1998; Evans et al., 2010).

Finally, just as we need to examine critically the assumptions and basic tenets of theories with respect to diversity and inclusion, thinking about the design of the learning/developmental environments we are creating to insure they are culturally sensitive and relevant is necessary. For example, if doing a workshop on safer sex, it is essential to have awareness that individuals from certain cultural groups or identities may approach the topic of sex from an entirely different perspective and background (Pope et al., 2019). Books such as *Teaching Across Cultural Strengths: A Guide to Balancing Integrated and Individuated Cultural Frameworks in College Teaching* (Chávez & Longerbeam, 2016) can provide valuable insights on creating inclusive educational and learning environments, inside and outside the classroom.

STEP 9: IMPLEMENT EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Knefelkamp (1984) acknowledged our return to practice in Step 9. This is a step for which she offered little guidance in either the handbook or the training video. Perhaps that is because the implementation step is second nature to most student affairs practitioners; in applied field like student affairs we are always implementing policies, programs, and interventions. Still, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) and Rodgers (1986) offered some helpful suggestions and considerations.

Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) advised that as we implement the intervention (e.g., a program, a workshop, a policy), we not lose sight of the initial concern (Step 1) and the goals (Steps 2 and 7) nor the target population. All of these steps shape the assumptions and expectations we hold as we enter the implementation process.

In addition, Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) advised that we consider the current context of the implementation. Here, again, is where knowledge of the components of environment, the ecology of the institution, and the institutional context are important (Reason & Kimball, 2012). Questions we might ask include: What are the political realities on the campus and how might these need to be negotiated in designing an intervention? What are our resources in terms of funding, time, and skills of the staff implementing the intervention? What is the institutional history and culture and how might these affect the institution's readiness for new or revised programs? We must acknowledge that the new environment we wish to create (as a result the translation process) is an "ideal" and it must be considered in light of these important elements of the environment.

Finally, Rodgers (1986) offered two helpful suggestions for this step. First, he suggested doing a pilot of a given intervention; that is, apply the intervention on a smaller scale with a smaller sample to see if we might need to make tweaks before committing time and resources on a wide-ranging intervention. If our intervention involves any technological support or if it involves substantial financial investment, a pilot program is a wise idea. Second, he suggested that we may want to collect data as part of a pre-test, which is helpful when we move into the next step (Evaluation).

STEP 10: EVALUATE THE EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Since the profession's earliest days, assessment and evaluation have "been an espoused part of student affairs practice" (Schuh & Gansemer-Topf, 2010, p. 5), although much of it has focused on student participation in, and satisfaction with, programs and services. It was not until the contributions of student affairs programming and services were regarded as a more central part of students' learning in college, they argue, that assessment and evaluation of that learning became equally essential. This view became more dominant by the 1990s and was codified in the ACPA/NASPA professional competencies in 2010 when assessment, evaluation, and research was included as an essential competency of student affairs practitioners (ACPA & NASPA, 2015; Gansemer-Topf & Kennedy-Phillips, 2017).

Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) understood the importance of evaluation and assessment as integral to connecting theory to practice. They highlighted, with respect to evaluation, that: 1) what we are essentially evaluating is the degree to which our intervention has accomplished the goals and expected outcomes of the intervention (internal and external goals); and 2) our evaluation should measure learning and behavioral change as well as satisfaction with the programmatic components of the intervention. Knefelkamp et al. recommended, then, four levels of increasing complexity as we conceptualize our evaluation:

1. Evaluate satisfaction: Essentially, we are measuring how well the participants liked the programmatic aspects of the intervention. These may include quantitative measures (numerical scores) as well qualitative (open comments).

2. Evaluate learning: This evaluation focuses on what information, concepts, and/or skills were learned. Again, this can include both quantitative and qualitative assessments. Also, as

noted earlier, pre-tests on these learning dimensions may allow for statistical analysis of significance on this dimension.

3. Evaluate behavior: Because behavior change (as any form of cognitive and psychosocial development) is nuanced and incremental, this level of evaluation may require more sophisticated levels of inquiry as well as a longer time frame to allow students to demonstrate growth.

4. Evaluate external goals: Learning, change, growth and development in students may have a desired impact on the larger environment and community. Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) suggest that in order to accomplish this, integrating the findings from the three previous levels may be necessary.

STEP 11: REEVALUATE AND IF NECESSARY, REFINE, REDESIGN, RECONCEPTUALIZE, AND AMEND TO USE WITH OTHER POPULATIONS

In this step, we review the evaluation and make changes to the intervention. This may range from minor tweaks and modifications to a complete reconceptualization. It may also lead to the courageous decision to terminate the intervention altogether (Knefelkamp, 1981). Knefelkamp et al. (1984, 1985) regarded this final step as a "feedback loop" in that it can inform future interventions for similar problems in the same setting and/or same problem in a different setting.

The feedback loops described in Reason and Kimball's (2012) theory-to-practice model can be instructive here and can enlarge our understanding of this final step. The authors argue, in their theory-to-practice model, that the assessment process should be "expanded beyond the traditional focus of programmatic evaluation" (p. 370). For example, it should be utilized to provide feedback on the informal theories that we use in combination with and as an interpretive lens of our field's formal theories. This feedback loop then can help us reflect on and understand the types of interventions we use most frequently and how those interventions are related to our informal theories. Assessment of our interventions can also provide feedback on the institutional context or the culture of the institution with respect to valuing of, support for, and beliefs about student development. This feedback loop can provide useful insight on the institution's goals for students' growth in college.

Table 2 P-T-P Summary of Steps

P-T-P Step	Brief Description of the Step
1. Identify Concerns	Define and describe the concern including its history and context, those who are affected by it, and the risks and benefits of addressing it. Decide if the concern is related to something that exists and needs to be resolved, enhanced, or improved upon, or something that needs to be introduced or initiated.
2. Determine Educational Goals	In response to the concern(s) identified, decide what the educational goals are. These goals should emphasize content or knowledge the students need to acquire, concepts or principles they must learn, and/or intellectual and life skills they should attain.
3. Step 3: Examine Which Theories Are Helpful	Consider the families of developmental theories (and related constructs) that may be most helpful in describing the population of interest in this environment and that can offer insight on the pragmatic concerns and educational goals identified.

4. Analyze Student Characteristics in the Context of Theory	Using theories and constructs identified in the previous step, describe the students in developmental terms (i.e., psychosocial and cognitive development) as well as personality types. Also, consider how demographic characteristics (e.g., identity groups and roles) may provide richer understanding of the students and the limits of identified theories.
5. Analyze Environmental Characteristics in the Context of Theory	Using the same theories and constructs identified in Step 3, describe the environmental conditions (e.g., physical, organizational, demographics, human aggregate, campus history and culture, inclusivity, etc.) that facilitate and/or hinder the psychosocial and cognitive development of students, particularly given their personality types.
6. Translate	Use the insights gained from this deeper analysis to describe what is overly challenging for these particular students in their current environment *and* what is overly supportive in the current environment.
7. Re-Analyze Educational Goals	Reconsider the educational goals in light of the translation process and the new environmental conditions envisioned through the intervention. Examine, in particular, the degree to which there is a developmental mismatch (challenge vs. support) and whether that mismatch is consistent with the educational goals (e.g., knowledge/skill acquisition, advancing psychosocial or cognitive development, etc).
8. Design	The previous steps make it possible to design the learning environment—one that provides developmental challenges and developmental supports that foster students' abilities to take on new roles, attempt new skills, think more complexly, and experience themselves with greater insights.
9. Implement	Take action on the intervention designed in Step 8 keeping in mind the initial concerns, goals, students, and environment. Keep in mind the current environmental context of the implementation (e.g., political realities, resources, institutional readiness, ethical and multicultural issues).
10. Evaluate	Use the best practices of assessment and evaluation to measure, primarily, the degree to which the intervention has accomplished the internal and external goals and expected outcomes (identified in Step 2) as well as students' satisfaction with the programmatic components of the intervention.
11. Refine, Reconceptualize	Use the information gained in Step 10 to make decisions about the intervention, from making minor to more significant changes to terminating it altogether. Also, consider how the intervention can inform practice in the future with a similar problem and/or with the same problem in a different context.

AN EXAMPLE OF PTP

Below is an illustration of the PTP model used to address a student leadership training program. This example is not intended to be fully detailed or comprehensive but is provided to give the reader a flavor of how the model might be applied in a student affairs setting, not as a recipe for how it *should* be done. Readers will note, in the example below, that more emphasis is placed on the Theory portion (i.e., Description, Translation, and Prescription) of the PTP steps. This is not intended to minimize the importance of the Practice steps as much as it is to emphasize the significant role that theory can play when incorporated as part your practice. Readers may wish to refer to Table 2 for a brief description of each step while reading through the example.

CONTEXT

Anan is the Assistant Director of the Student Life Office for Student Leadership at Kallsen State College. In her fifth year in this role, Anan serves as the staff advisor to the Student Government Association (SGA). The SGA is comprised of four executive members and 15 representatives. Anan is proud of two significant accomplishments with respect to the SGA during her tenure: increasing racial diversity among campus leaders and introducing leadership development for the SGA.

The current design of the SGA leadership program, a series of sessions titled "Achieving Leadership Potential" (or ALP), covers the basic tasks of the SGA (running meetings, establishing budgets, following institutional policies and procedures, etc.) as well as more advanced topics like leadership theories and models.

STEP 1: IDENTIFY PRAGMATIC CONCERNS

Each fall when ALP begins, Anan notices a high degree of interest in the program as well as enthusiastic participation. By the third and fourth session (of eight), interest wanes and attendance declines, particularly among the students of color. At first, Anan attributed this general decline to the students' increasing academic demands as the semester progressed. However, she has observed that while attendance in ALP declines, the leaders remain committed to their duties with their SGA weekly meetings and other responsibilities (e.g., programming), although she notices increased tension and fragmenting among them. The tension is particularly noticeable when the group is dealing with complex issues for which a decision is needed, for example, when the SGA board and representatives are reviewing budget proposals from student organizations or when they discuss the role of SGA during campus controversies. Anan believes that the existing leadership program needs to be enhanced to address this concern.

STEP 2: DETERMINE EDUCATIONAL GOALS/OUTCOMES

As Anan thinks about ALP, she wonders if the design is not meeting the real needs of the students as leaders working on a multicultural team. She cannot forego the basic topics like running meetings and knowing policies and procedures, but she wonders if the leadership theory content is not as helpful to the student leaders as she thinks.

In her original design of the ALP program, Anan did not explicitly formulate her educational goals. As she considers this program enhancement, Anan wants to add a focus on intellectual and interpersonal skills (and related concepts) needed to work (e.g., make decisions) in a multicultural setting. This leads her to articulate the following educational goals:

1. Increase the leaders' ability to engage in open and candid communication, particularly with respect to difficult dialogues.

2. Enhance the leaders' ability to compare, contrast, evaluate, and understand each other's points of view and come to mutual understandings.

3. Enhance the leaders' appreciation of inclusion and diversity as an asset to the group's functioning.

A potential risk of reconceptualizing ALP to focus on the interpersonal aspects of the group is that it may exacerbate tensions within the group beyond what Anan can manage. The benefits, however, are great in that the group can develop more substantial leadership and multicultural group skills that can advance the SGA goals and contribute to the life skills of its members.

STEP 3: EXAMINE WHICH THEORIES MAY BE HELPFUL IN THIS CASE

As Anan articulates the pragmatic concerns in greater detail and formulates the educational goals, various theories and their associated concepts come to mind for her. For example, she considers Chickering and Reisser's (1993) vectors of Developing Competence and Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships. Anan questions if cognitive development theories (e.g., Perry (1968, 1969) and King & Kitchener (1994)) might shed light on the ways the leaders approach complex situations and how they make decisions. Anan is also curious if aspects of social identity development may offer insights on the tensions among the leaders as well as the attrition of some members. She thus considers the range of social identity models (e.g., Hardiman & Jackson, 1997) and the related concepts of privilege and oppression (e.g., Delgado & Stefancic, 2013). Finally, Anan is aware that there are different personality styles in the group and that some may be more congruent with the group environment. To examine this further, she considers the Myers Briggs (Myers, 1980) typology model.

STEP 4: ANALYZE STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EACH THEORETICAL GROUP

As Anan thinks about the students in terms of the various theories she has identified, she comes up with the following descriptions:

- From a psychosocial perspective, although the students competently carry out their individual tasks and duties, they seem to lack the necessary interpersonal skills to work effectively with one another in a group. The skills they lack most, from Anan's perspective, are communication skills such as active listening. The lack of these skills factors into challenges these leaders face in developing mature relationships with one another and the difficulties they face with respecting different points of view, negotiating, and making decisions.

- From a cognitive perspective, the students appear to be somewhere between duality and multiplicity. They prefer structure, the "right" answers or ways to do things, and facts presented to them rather than having to think through them. They rely more on authority (e.g., their advisor, teachers, or experts) than on one another as legitimate sources of knowledge. They also struggle with intellectual tasks necessary to make decisions like comparing and contrasting abstract ideas.

- From the social identity perspective, the development of the group appears to be stymied by power dynamics in the group. Since the formation of the group, norms appear to have emerged about how the group operates and makes decisions. Many of these norms are dictated by those with privilege and power (i.e., the White students), and efforts to address any interracial conflict are minimized.

- From a typology perspective, based on scores from the MBTI (largely Sensing (S) and Thinking (T)), the leaders tend to focus on facts, details, and established procedures. They are responsible, logical, and practical in their approach to accomplishing tasks.

Kallsen State College is a public college in the New England area with a 98% acceptance rate. A high proportion of its students are first-generation and come with limited preparedness for the college environment. Many are focused on vocational training in pursuit of upward mobility. Students in the SGA tend to be sophomores and juniors; 13 students are White, three are Black, and three are Latinx. The average GPA of the current SGA is 2.9; which is typical of this group of student leaders.

STEP 5: ANALYZE ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EACH THEORETICAL GROUP

Using the same theoretical filters, Anan examines the environment in the department, the SGA, and within the ALP program. Here she considers what might be happening in the environment that is affecting the developmental levels among the students and comes up with the following descriptions of the environment:

- From the psychosocial perspective, the current ALP program stresses information over process and interpersonal dynamics. There are very few cues in the environment that urge students to develop or work on the interpersonal aspects of leadership. Also, Anan is aware that some of the same dynamics in the SGA are also playing out among her professional staff colleagues, so there are few models on how to work effectively through conflicts and differences.

- From a cognitive perspective, the current ALP program involves various professionals on campus who come to the group and explain policies and procedures. Most of the training programs are lecture-based with PowerPoint slides and handouts. Those who speak on leadership theories typically lecture and then have the students review brief scenarios and identify the correct leadership concepts. Anan is also aware that her style of advising tends to be problem-solving, giving the leaders advice and solutions when they approach difficult tasks.

- From the social identity perspective, the environment at the college and in the department reflects not only the lack of diversity within the SGA but also how that diversity fails to become part of the structure within the group. As a result, assumptions are made by those with privileged identities about roles, expectations, norms, and decisions. Little of the content in ALP mentions diversity and inclusion beyond that "it's a good thing."

- From the typology perspective, the institution, department, and organization may reflect the two dominant types seen in the students (S and T). The ALP program, in its current format, focuses on facts, concepts, and information.

Kallsen State University is small (just over 1,000 students) and boasts of its programs in engineering, technology, nursing, and sports recreation management. The Student Life Office, which works closely with the SGA and provides its advisor, has recently gone through some reorganization including a new Director. The advising responsibilities of the SGA have shifted among the Assistant Directors. Anan has been their most consistent advisor. The current ALP program consists of eight sessions. The first four are devoted to learning SGA responsibilities and skills (meeting management, Roberts Rules of Order, budgets, campus policies and procedures). Anan typically facilitates these. The remaining four sessions focus on leadership theories and typologies. For these, Anan recruits guest speakers from the campus. Anan tries to do a teambuilder at each session but sometimes must forego them when a presenter goes over their scheduled time.

STEP 6: TRANSLATION: ANALYZE AND DESCRIBE THE SOURCES OF DEVELOPMENTAL CHALLENGE AND SUPPORT IN THE CONTEXT OF BOTH STUDENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS

Anan, having described the students and environment in terms of the theories she identified, now looks at what would be sources of challenge and sources of support for these students. She also examines the environment (SGA and ALP) in terms of sources of challenge and support.

STUDENTS		ENVIRONMENT
Sources of Support - Emphasis on structure, facts, and memorization of procedures - Opportunities to perform individual tasks - Minimal discussion of race or racial differences - An advisor who is committed to the group and their success; offering advice to help solve a problem - Emphasis on linear thinking, concrete tasks - The absence of conflict - Focus on procedures (rather than process) - Concrete opportunities to take small steps in learning and practicing new skills, behaviors, ways of thinking ***Sources of Challenge*** - Discussions that focus on abstract ideas, theories, different points of view - Interracial conflicts and/or peers who point out racial differences - Advisors who do not immediately offer the correct answer or who do not know the correct answer - The occurrence of feelings and emotions in conversations and decisions - Process over procedures and task accomplishment - Expectations to understand and master complex skills and behaviors (e.g., assertiveness) - Non-linear discussions or ways of reaching a conclusion	X	***Sources of Support*** - Highly structured leadership training - Expectation to focus on facts and information - Emphasis on organized, predictable procedures - Experts who lecture and emphasize the accuracy or correctness of information - Training environments where students are passive learners - Hands-on activities with an immediate (and correct) conclusion - No acknowledgment of racial dynamics - A committed and experienced advisor - Emphasis in individual task accomplishment ***Sources of Challenge*** - Abstract concepts like leadership theories and models - Introduction of discussions about process, feelings - Controversial or complex tasks (e.g., deciding on budget proposals) - Expectations to maximize the benefits of increased diversity - Advisor who does not always give “the answer” or who allows the group to fail - Few role models who demonstrate open and candid communication - Growing emphasis on group accomplishment - No opportunities to practice new skills

STEP 7 RE-ANALYZE EDUCATIONAL GOALS AND OUTCOMES

Having conducted the analysis of challenge and support that is translation (Step 6), Anan re-visits her educational goals for the ALP program. Because she is interested in fostering intellectual, interpersonal, and multicultural skills among the SGA leaders, she desires a developmental mismatch in the learning environment. Her overall assessment is that a mismatch exists, but there may be too much challenge when it comes to abstractions like theories and concepts. She also anticipates that addressing the racial dynamics in the group may be highly challenging, particularly for the White students. She believes her initial goals are appropriate for this student group. However, she will need to take her insights about an appropriately challenging (yet supportive) learning environment into consideration as she moves forward with the design aspects of her intervention.

STEP 8: DESIGN A DELIBERATE DEVELOPMENTAL INTERVENTION

Anan begins to develop an ALP program that takes important design elements, from the previous steps, into consideration (below are a few examples):

- Scaffold the program in such a way that it starts with a high degree of structure, and then becomes less structured.
- Focus the initial steps of the program on information and content and then slowly introduce more opportunities for processing group dynamics and feelings.
- Remove theories and models of leadership and replace with more skills of leadership with many opportunities to rehearse (e.g., case studies, role plays, and micro-skill training).
- Introduce activities that allow the group to focus on diversity and inclusion not just as "a good thing," but also as an opportunity to learn new ideas and new ways of thinking and doing.
- Introduce group development concepts such as Tuckman's (1965) model (i.e., forming, storming, norming, performing) and incorporate Halverson's (2008) concepts of multicultural and social justice concepts applied to group development.
- Provide the leaders with an outline of the entire program right from the start so they can see the structure and can predict how it will evolve from highly structured to less structured.
- Consider the resources (and departmental/institutional support) necessary and available to implement the educational program.

STEP 9: IMPLEMENT EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE/INTERVENTION

Utilizing her best programming and training skills, Anan implements the new ALP leadership development series, utilizing her graduate assistant and drawing on expertise and skills from colleagues across the campus.

STEP 10: EVALUATE THE EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Anan conducts an evaluation for each weekly session as well as at the end of the program. She has done some pre-assessment of the leaders on various topics like communication, appreciation of diversity, and decision-making. This allows her to do the same assessment after the program to measure if there is significant change on these dimensions of leadership. Although Anan evaluates satisfaction with the program, she focuses her evaluation on the learning that has taken place and changes in behavior among the SGA leaders.

STEP 11: REEVALUATE AND IF NECESSARY, REFINE, REDESIGN, RECONCEPTUALIZE, AND AMEND TO USE WITH OTHER POPULATIONS

Anan uses all the evaluation data collected, plus observations from her colleagues and the SGA executive board to consider changes to the program the following fall. For example, if the student leader evaluations indicate that a stronger emphasis on social justice in group is warranted, Anan may seek ways to more meaningfully incorporate these principles.

Final Note. The example presented above is *one* way to illustrate the application of PTP in a student affairs setting. Graduate students using this document (and this example) to complete a course assignment are advised to adhere to the expectations of their instructor and the assignment guidelines.

CONCLUSION

In 1982, when the PTP model was first appearing in print, I was a Management Assistant (MA) in the residence halls at Illinois State University. Back then, we had MA's and RS's (Resource Students) serving in paraprofessional roles in the residence halls. MA's were responsible for floor safety and order, which included doing rounds, checking fire extinguishers, and documenting violations of policies. RS's provided support and guidance as well as planned and implemented programming. At that time, the Office of Residential Life (ORL) was moving from a largely management model to a more developmental one. A significant aspect of this transition was changing the roles and titles of positions. Residence Hall Directors, for example, became Residence Hall Coordinators. Another change merged the MA and RS positions into a single position. But what should their title be?

The ORL allowed us (MA's and RS's) to provide input on this most important decision. So, in the early spring of 1982, individual hall staffs gathered to generate titles for the new position.Among the names written on the chalkboard were "resident assistant," "hall advisor," "floor counselor," and "resident advisor." At the spring training workshop in April, when all returning and newly hired staff gathered, the big announcement was made. The director of ORL, Floyd Hoelting, stood on the stage in the basement of Tri-Towers, and shared that the new title would be "resident assistant"! However, Floyd, in his quick and sharp Texan accent, said that if he had his way, he would have titled the position "environmental engineer." Floyd went on to explain that that was essentially what we were. Our goal, he pointed out, was to engineer an environment on our floors where residents would support each other, confront each other, program for each other, etc. The best RAs, Floyd asserted, work themselves out of their jobs; they engineer the environment and stand back and let the residents take it from there.

I have long held that this notion of environmental engineer does not apply only to resident assistants on a residence hall floor, but to all practitioners in student affairs. As practitioners, we do not really directly cause change or development in students, per se. We can only change the environment in which they learn; they will or will not change in response to that environment. This principle was reinforced a few years later when I was in my master's program in Counseling Psychology. In a therapeutic relationship, I learned, my job was to create an environment between the client and me. Again, I was not changing the person as much as I was engineering a trusting and non-judgmental environment in which the client felt safe to explore feelings and experiment with new behaviors they could then take out into the world.

I share this story about "environmental engineering" because I think it is a core aspect of the PTP model; we are in the business of creating and maintaining educational (and inclusive and socially just) learning environments. These environments may be in the form of a classroom, a training workshop, a supervisory relationship, or a para-professional staff team. The PTP model can be extremely helpful as we analyze students and college environments, grounded in theory, so we can engineer new or enhanced environments that meet our (and our institution's) educational goals.

I conclude this monograph about the PTP model, paradoxically, with the notion of *starting* as Knefelkamp (1984) did in the training video. As she articulated her wish for practitioners' use of the model, she hoped they would use it to answer the fundamental question: "If I'm interested in using theory, where do I start?" (1:58:20). Her response was that we start with practice. We start with the questions that practice raises and then turn to those theories that may be most illuminating when it comes to understanding the students with whom we work and the environments within which students learn and we work. This can lead to deeper and richer insights about developmental design in creating and maintaining new environments. "Use the PTP model," Knefelkamp reminded us, "as a way of beginning dialogue with each other and with the colleagues that work with you" (2:01:20).

Knefelkamp (1984) also reminded us that a central tenet of student affairs is teamwork, collaborating with our colleagues or our students to realize our objectives. We should also, she continued, consult with theory and regard those who have developed these theories as “friends” (0:31:20). To that end then, she said, “We can call in as team members, literally, the most observant, and eloquent, and thoughtful minds and model builders” (2:00:00).

Her final reminder was to not use the PTP model “as if it were cast in stone” (2:01:20) as it may evolve with the contours of the student affairs field over time. While I appreciate this notion, I believe this process model has stood the test of time as one of the most elegant and enduring ways of thinking about the translation of theory to practice. However, like the photocopies of photocopies on which the model has appeared and been passed along, it has slowly blurred and faded with time. It is my hope that this monograph has re-captured the robustness of the model and that it is useful to another generation of practitioners who will apply the most contemporary theories and competencies as they work with PTP in their own professional practice.

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* Although the PTP workbook is most often cited as Knefelkamp, Golec, and Wells (1985) in the literature, the cover sheet to the workbook itself indicates copyright dates of 1984 and 1985. For this reason, I have elected, in this monograph, to treat the citation for the workbook as Knefelkamp, Golec, and Wells (1984, 1985) and to include both years as consecutive references.

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APPENDIX

Table 1. Families and Individual Theories of Student Development

HOLISTIC & INTEGRATIVE
Maturity (Heath, 1968)
Evolution of Consciousness (Kegan, 1982)
Self-Authorship (Baxter Magolda, 2001)
PSYCHOSOCIAL
Lifespan Stages of Psychosocial Development (Erikson, 1968, 1980)
Ego Identity Statuses (Marcia, 1966)
Vectors of Psychosocial Development (Chickering, 1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993)
Women's Development (Josselson, 1987)
Lifespan Approach to Career Development (Super, 1990)
SOCIAL IDENTITY
GENERAL
Ethnic Identity Development (Phinney, 1993)
Social Identity Development (Hardiman & Jackson, 1997)
RACIAL IDENTITY
Black Racial Identity Development (Cross & Fhagen-Smith, 2001)
White Racial Identity Development (Helms, 1995)
White Racial Consciousness (Rowe, Bennett, & Atkinson, 1994)
Asian American Identity Development (Kim, 2012)
Native American Consciousness (Horse, 2012)
Hispanic Identity Development (Casas & Pytluk, 1995)
Latina and Latino Identity Development (Gallegos & Ferdman, 2012)
Bicultural Orientation Model on Latino Development (Torres, 2003)
Biracial Identity Development (Poston, 1990)
Biracial Identity Development (Kerwin & Ponterotto, 1995)
Racial Identity in Multiracial People (Wijeysinghe, 2001)
Multiracial Experience (Root, 1996, 2003)
Mixed Race Identity Development (Renn, 2003, 2004)
SEXUAL IDENTITY
Homosexual Identity Formation (Cass, 1979)
Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual Development (D'Augelli, 1994)
Gay and Lesbian Identity Development (McCarn & Fassinger, 1996)
Heterosexual Identity (Mohr, 2002)
Heterosexual Identity Development (Worthington et al., 2002)
Unifying Model of Sexual Orientation (Dillon et al., 2011)
GENDER IDENTITY
Feminist Identity (Downing & Roush, 1985)
Womanist Identity (Helms, 1990)
College Men's Gender Identity Development (Edwards & Jones, 2009)
Transgender Identity Development (Bilodeau, 2005)
Transgender Identity Milestones (Beemyn & Rankin, 2011)
Gender Identity Development (Bussey, 2011)

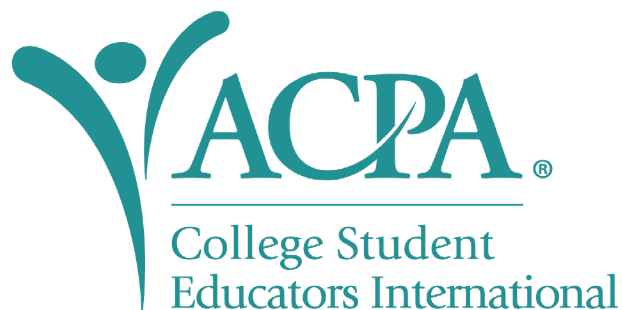
SOCIAL CLASS
Social Reproduction (Bourdieu, 2002)
Community Cultural Wealth Model (Yosso, 2005)
Social Class Worldview Model (Liu et al., 2004)
FAITH, SPIRITUALITY, AND RELIGION
Faith Development (Fowler, 1981, 2000)
Faith Development (Parks, 2000)
Muslim Identity Development (Peek, 2005)
Atheist Identity Development (Smith, 2011)
Spirituality Constructs (Astin, Astin, & Lindholm, 2011)
DISABILITIES
Disability Identity Categories (Johnstone, 2004)
Disability Identity Development (Gibson, 2006)
Autism Identity Repertoires (Davidson & Henderson, 2010)
Social and Psychosocial Identity Development of Students with Physical Disabilities (Forber-Pratt & Aragon, 2013)
MULTIPLE DIMENSIONS OF IDENTITY
Multidimensional Identity (Reynolds & Pope, 1991)
Multiple Dimensions of Identity (Abes, Jones, & McEwen, 2007)
EMERGING & INFORMING PERSPECTIVES
Athletic Identity Measurement (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993)
Digital Identities (Brown, 2016; Junco, 2014)

COGNITIVE STRUCTURAL
INTELLECTUAL & EPISTEMOLOGICAL
Scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development (Perry, 1968)
Women's Ways of Knowing (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986)
Epistemological Reflection (Baxter Magolda, 1992)
Reflective Judgment (King & Kitchener, 1994)
MORAL
Stages of Moral Development (Kohlberg, 1976)
Rest's Neo-Kohlbergian Approach (1986)
Women's Moral Development (Gilligan, 1993)
TYPOLOGY
Vocational Personalities and Environments (Holland, 1973)
Personality Type (Myers, 1980)
Multiple Intelligences (Gardner, 1983)
Learning Styles (Kolb, 1984)
ENVIRONMENT
GENERAL
Interactionist Perspective (Lewin, 1936)
Ecological Psychology (Barker, 1968)
Need-Press Model (Stern, 1970)
Ecological Perspectives (Banning & Kaiser, 1974)
Ecological Model of Human Development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979)
Environmental Determinants (Moos, 1979)
Components of Environments (Moos, 1979; Strange & Banning, 2015)

COLLEGE IMPACT
Student Subcultures (Clark & Trow, 1966)
Transition Theory (Schlossberg, 1981)
Student Involvement (Astin, 1984)
Input-Environment-Output (IEO) (Astin, 1991)
Mattering and Marginality (Schlossberg, 1989)
Campus Cultures (Kuh & Hall, 1993)
Student Departure and Persistence (Tinto, 1993)
Conditions that Matter (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2005)
Culturally Engaging Campus Environments (Museus, 2014)
CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES
Critical Race Theory (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 2009)
Queer Theory (Butler, 1990, 2004; Sullivan, 2003)
Intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991; Dill & Zambrana, 2009)
Postcolonialism (Hickling-Hudson, 1998)
LatCrit (Villalpando, 2003)
Decolonization (Stein, 2017; Tuck & Yang, 2012)

Adapted and sourced from:

Hubbard (2018); Jones, Abes, and Cilente, (2011); Jones, Abes, and Foste (2017); Patton, Renn, Guido, and Quaye (2016)



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