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SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE IN MINNESOTA COLLEGES - 1971

by

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Scholastic Aptitude in Minnesota Colleges-1971¹

Statewide surveys of scholastic aptitude of Minnesota college freshmen have been conducted periodically since 1937. The results serve to document the levels of academic ability of students entering Minnesota colleges, the distributions of ability among individual colleges and types of colleges, and changes in these distributions as changes have taken place in the nature of educational opportunities available to Minnesota students. The surveys are conducted by the Minnesota Statewide Testing Program, through which a scholastic aptitude test is administered to nearly all high school juniors of Minnesota high schools. The current data are based on the Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test (MSAT). This will probably be the last such report based on MSAT, one form or the other of which has been used as the scholastic aptitude test in the Minnesota Statewide Testing Program since 1957-58. Because of considerable changes introduced in the program, MSAT will not be used after 1972-73.

The Statewide Program also collects high school grade averages as a measure of achievement of Minnesota students and reports them to colleges in the form of high school rank (HSR). The program is the vehicle through which the Minnesota colleges cooperate to make these surveys possible. Results of the surveys through 1959 were summarized by Berdie, Layton, Hagenah, and Swanson (1962), two surveys were reported by Swanson, Merwin, and Berdie (1962, 1965); and the most recent study by Perry, Swanson, and Joselyn (1971). The current report presents the results of surveys of freshmen entering Minnesota colleges in Fall 1971, most of whom had been tested as high school juniors in the Winter of 1970.

¹ Tabulation and analysis of data for this study were under the direction of Carol Swenson and Patricia Halloran Winchester, their assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

Procedure

During 1971 the president of each college in the Association of Minnesota Colleges was contacted with a request to participate in the survey and to indicate the person who would be responsible for supplying information from the college. Data for the state junior colleges were obtained, after initial approval from each president, from the central computer file for the junior college system. Colleges either supplied complete data on each student without identifying individual students or supplied student names, high schools, and graduation dates so that HSR and MSAT scores could be obtained from State-wide Testing Program files. Data were obtained from all colleges in the Association except the Minneapolis College of Art and Design and Macalester College.

Not all students in Minnesota colleges are from Minnesota high schools, of course. As Table I (first three columns) shows, however, Minnesota students make up most (over 90 per cent) of the freshmen in all state-supported systems and a majority of those in the private colleges as well (57 per cent). Table I also shows the total number of Minnesota students in the study and numbers for whom HSR and MSAT data were available. In most schools the results should be reasonably representative of the entire freshman class of 1971 for data were available from 76 to 87 per cent of entering freshmen from Minnesota high schools.

Results

Types of College

Means and standard deviations of HSR and MSAT raw scores for the 1971

freshmen are given by sex and by type of college in Table 2.1. For comparison the same statistics are shown for 1969-70 high school juniors, the class from which most of the freshmen came. As in previous surveys, the liberal arts college students show the highest scholastic aptitude indices and the junior college students the lowest; and the female students have higher average scores than the male students in general and in each type of college. The college-going students score higher on MSAT (mean score at the 71st percentile on high school junior norms) than on HSR (mean = 65), and the difference between males and females is less marked (68th and 74th percentiles respectively) on MSAT than on HSR (59 and 71).

Although there are marked differences in average scholastic ability scores among types of colleges, the standard deviations indicate substantial overlap as well. Both the differences and the overlapping are displayed in Fig. 1.1 and 1.2, which portray the mean, 38 per cent in the middle, 68 per cent in the middle, and total range for each type of college. In these figures the two-year colleges, General College, Crookston, and the four-year colleges of the University of Minnesota are shown separately.

Comparing the same groups across Tables 2.1 and 2.2 we see that males in general are down slightly on HSR and up slightly on MSAT means. The Private Junior Colleges males reverse this trend on both variables while the Community College males drop four points and the State College males three points on HSR. The females as a total group are about the same on HSR across the two reports but go up slightly on MSAT. However, the pattern by type of college for females is varied. On HSR, Liberal Arts females are up; University of Minnesota females the same; State College, Community College, and Private Junior College females down. On MSAT, Liberal Arts females are up; University of Minnesota,

State College females, and Community College females the same; and Private Junior College females down. Some of the trends noted in the 1968 report continue - Community College down on HSR, particularly. However, the trend for University of Minnesota and State College males to go up has stopped or been reversed.

Trend in mean HSR and MSAT scores for these groups are influenced by several factors:

1. The number of students entering college, as reflected in these studies is down - a total of 27,105 and of 28,553 for 1971 and 1968, respectively, a drop of 5.1 per cent. State colleges have shown the largest drop, 11.9 per cent. The Liberal Arts Colleges substantial drop partially reflects missing institutions in the one study as compared to the other.*
2. Overall MSAT scores have been dropping slightly each year for several years and the actual drop is probably larger than the statistics show (Swanson, 1973).*
3. The differential pattern of what institutions students enroll in will affect the means. Over the past several years enrollments in the Minnesota Area Vocational Technical Institutes has expanded very rapidly, certainly at the expense of the numbers of students going to other types of institutions and probably affecting the HSR and MSAT means.

* This figure obtained by comparing "Minn. N" Column of Table I - 1971 with same column in Table I - 1968.

4. As males and females in the total junior population have different HSR and MSAT means, the male-female ratio will affect the means of the groups studied. The 1968 study reported that the percentage of females in the entering freshmen group was going up. This trend will continue as the following data show.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Percent of Females in Total Entering Freshmen Group</u>
1971	48
1968	46
1965	43
1963	43
1961	43

Overall the combination of these various factors has influenced the continuation of the trends just discussed.

The differences among types of colleges indicate that norms by type of college, in addition to the statewide entering freshmen norms would be useful. They are presented in Tables 3.1 (MSAT) and 3.2 (HSR). In using these norm groups it is important to understand just what the norm groups are as they are for somewhat different groups than used in the previous statistical tables. Further, a new group (VT) is shown for MSAT. A description of the norms groups follows:

VT. This group is composed of students who entered one of Minnesota's Area Vocational-Technical Institutes (AVTI's). The AVTI's offer a wide range of programs, each leading to a specific career or occupation in two years or less. Most students attend an AVTI near their homes, and differences

among institutes are less significant than differences among programs, as far as student abilities are concerned.

JC. This group is composed of junior college students. Most of them entered one of Minnesota's 18 community colleges, but the group also includes two private junior colleges as well as the University of Minnesota two-year technical institutes.

SC. This group consists mostly of students who entered one of the six Minnesota State Colleges. Students in one private junior college and one private four-year college are most similar to this group. The average scores of individual colleges in this group are quite similar to each other.

LP. Students who enter Minnesota private, four-year, liberal arts colleges of the four-year colleges of the University of Minnesota make up this group (also one two-year college). These institutions are more varied than those in the other groups. They include both the largest and the smallest colleges in the state, both private colleges, and the public University, both liberal arts colleges and professional colleges. All have selective admissions standards, and the average ability scores of most of their students range from slightly above the SC group to extremely high.

A quick way to see the striking differences across the norms group is to take several raw scores and see what percentile ranks they have in each norm group.

<u>MSAT</u> <u>Raw Score</u>	Percentile Rank in				
	<u>H.S. Jrs.</u>	<u>VT</u>	<u>JC</u>	<u>SC</u>	<u>LP</u>
20	20	26	12	6	2
31	51	69	47	31	11
52	91	98	94	90	73
 <u>HSR</u>					
20		NA	12	5	2
50		NA	46	27	11
90		NA	94	85	71

Although the norms groups do not have exactly the same institutions in them as shown in Tables 4.1 to 4.5, they follow the groupings quite closely. For the norm groups the institutions in Table 4.5 (the Private Junior Colleges) have been placed with the other groups, primarily among the JC and LP groups.

Individual Colleges

Variations of institutions within type of college can be seen by looking at the mean and standard deviations in Tables 4.1 to 4.5. The state colleges are quite similar to each other, but within each of the other types there is considerable variety. Entering freshmen at several of the junior colleges and several of the liberal arts colleges are more similar in scholastic ability to freshmen in state colleges than to those in the average college in their

own groups. The University of Minnesota, with both two-year and four-year colleges, includes average scores among both the lowest and the highest. The results reflect the diversity of educational opportunities available to Minnesota students, not only in different components of the educational system, but within each component as well.

Attendance Patterns

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 present different information, showing the proportions of 1969-70 Minnesota High School juniors in each decile of scholastic ability who entered Minnesota colleges in the fall of 1971, by type of college. When looking at the column "Total All College" whether HSR (Table 5.1) or MSAT (Table 5.2), the total per cent of males and females going to college is quite similar, about 35 per cent of the total for each sex going according to HSR and 33 per cent for MSAT. However, the distribution across the ten deciles for "Total All Colleges" is different for HSR and MSAT. The high deciles have higher percentages for HSR than for MSAT, particularly for males. Looking at the type of college columns, this effect is contributed most heavily by the University of Minnesota group and secondarily by the Liberal Arts College group.

The Total All Colleges columns show a marked and systematic progression for a smaller percentage of students to attend college as we move from the high to the low decile. This pattern also holds for the University of Minnesota and Liberal Arts College groups. However, the State Colleges-Male group draws the bulk of high school students from the 6-10 deciles on both HSR and MSAT. The State Colleges-Female group shows a marked percentage downwards moving from the 10th to 1st decile on HSR while on MSAT drawing the bulk of its

entrants come from the 6th to 10th deciles. The Community College group, for both sexes and on both HSR and MSAT, draw heavily from a broad middle range, roughly the 4th to 9th decile groups. The University and Liberal Arts College group on both HSR and MSAT get most of their students from the higher deciles and show very small percentages from the bottom three or four decile groups. The Private Junior College group, with quite small enrollments, enroll about twice as many females as males. For both sexes and on both variables they are spread fairly evenly across the 10 deciles. In spite of these patterns of selectivity some students from each decile group are found in all Types of Colleges.

Caution needs to be exercised in the interpretation of Tables 5.1 and 5.2, particularly comparing across types of college. These two tables do show results similar to analyses done in previous scholastic comparison studies. However, the current study does not have as complete information on entering freshmen as did previous studies. Reference to Table I shows that of the entering freshmen reported graduated from Minnesota high schools, HSR and MSAT were available for 81 and 80 per cent, respectively. For the 1968 study, information on these two variables was available for 95 and 90 per cent respectively. The lack of completeness is most pronounced for the Liberal Arts and State Colleges group.

TABLE 1

Completeness of Data on
1971 Minnesota College Freshmen

Type of College	1971 Freshmen ¹			Data Available			
	Total	Minn.		HSR		MSAT	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Liberal Arts	7564	4276	57	3271	76	3282	77
U of Minn.	8212	7904	96	6869	87	6703	85
State Coll.	7228	6657	92	5251	79	5242	79
State Jr. C.	8097	7813	96	6299	81	6176	79
Priv. Jr. C.	567	455	80	389	85	382	84

¹ From "The Counties of Residence of Full-Time Entering Freshmen Enrolled in Minnesota Colleges and Universities". Minnesota Higher Education Co-ordinating Commission, 1972.

TABLE 2.1

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank and
MSAT Score for 1969-70 High School Juniors and
1971 Minnesota College Freshmen by
Type of College

Type of College	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
	<u>Males</u>					
Liberal Arts	1,495	74.37	21.71	1,495	44.77	11.61
University of Minnesota	4,095	67.48	24.21	4,013	42.28	11.81
State Colleges	2,600	57.51	23.40	2,599	36.28	10.93
Community Colleges	4,316	47.39	24.37	4,246	32.69	10.89
Private Junior Colleges	129	46.48	26.84	128	32.66	13.32
Total	12,635	59.17	25.84	12,481	37.97	12.24
High School Juniors	3,962	44.40	28.39	33,203	31.27	12.94
	<u>Females</u>					
Liberal Arts	1,772	80.75	18.61	1,782	46.36	11.93
University of Minnesota	3,642	74.88	20.97	3,527	44.07	11.91
State Colleges	2,978	71.18	20.71	2,974	38.77	11.23
Community Colleges	3,173	60.53	23.90	3,108	34.97	11.70
Private Junior Colleges	288	59.84	23.30	281	35.48	10.83
Total	11,853	70.62	22.63	11,672	40.44	12.43
High School Juniors	31,504	57.13	27.55	32,617	33.69	13.32
	<u>Males and Females</u>					
Liberal Arts	3,279	77.83	20.32	3,290	45.62	11.81
University of Minnesota	7,737	70.96	23.04	7,540	43.12	11.89
State Colleges	5,578	64.81	23.04	5,573	37.60	11.16
Community Colleges	7,490	52.96	25.03	7,355	33.65	11.30
Private Junior Colleges	417	55.70	25.19	409	34.60	11.72
Total	24,501	64.72	24.99	24,167	39.16	12.40
High School Juniors	63,466	50.70	28.69	65,820	32.47	13.19

TABLE 2.2

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank and
MSAT Score for 1966-67 High School Juniors and
1968 Minnesota College Freshmen¹ by
Type of College

Type of College	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
<u>Males</u>						
Liberal Arts	2,098	72.67	22.68	2,076	45.99	11.51
University of Minnesota	4,461	66.95	24.43	4,403	42.39	12.07
State Colleges	3,621	54.83	23.01	3,346	35.57	10.41
Community Colleges	4,229	43.40	24.12	3,831	32.04	11.19
Private Junior Colleges	149	49.15	26.27	142	36.85	13.04
Total	14,558	58.08	27.32	13,798	38.35	14.24
High School Juniors	32,182	44.41	28.59	31,849	31.85	13.40
<u>Females</u>						
Liberal Arts	2,122	82.52	15.03	2,156	48.25	11.54
University of Minnesota	3,518	74.86	21.00	3,516	44.76	12.37
State Colleges	3,738	68.10	21.18	3,538	38.61	11.10
Community Colleges	2,763	59.51	23.81	2,441	35.03	11.51
Private Junior Colleges	334	55.23	25.07	289	34.51	12.30
Total	12,475	70.04	22.65	11,940	41.34	12.64
High School Juniors	31,229	55.88	28.03	30,934	33.94	13.74
<u>Males and Females</u>						
Liberal Arts	4,220	77.57	19.89	4,232	47.14	11.58
University of Minnesota	7,979	70.44	23.32	7,919	43.44	12.26
State Colleges	7,359	61.57	23.08	6,884	37.13	10.88
Community Colleges	6,992	49.77	25.16	6,272	33.21	11.41
Private Junior Colleges	483	53.35	25.57	431	35.28	12.58
Total	27,033	63.60	25.95	25,738	39.74	13.60
High School Juniors	63,411	50.06	28.89	62,783	32.88	13.61

¹ Includes 1967 freshmen in small colleges

TABLE 3.1

Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test Norms for High School Juniors
and Post High School Entering Freshmen Groups

%ile Rank	M S A T R A W S C O R E S					%ile Rank	M S A T R A W S C O R E S				
	VT	JC	SC	LP	HS JRS.		VT	JC	SC	LP	HS JRS.
99	54-75	60-75	61-75	67-75	63-75	50					
98	51-53	57-59	60	66	61-62	49			36		
97	49-50	55-56	58-59	65	59-60	48	25			44	30
96	47-48	54	57	64	57-58	47		31			
95	46	53	56	63	56	46			35		
94	44-45	52	55	62	55	45				43	29
93	43	51	54	61	54	44	24	30			
92		50				43					28
91	42	49	53	60	52	42			34		
90	41	48	52		51	41				42	
89	40			59	50	40	23	29			27
88		47	51		49	39					
87	39	46		58		38			33	41	
86	38		50		48	37					26
85		45		57	47	36		28			
84	37		49		46	35	22		32	40	
83		44		56		34					25
82	36		48		45	33					
81		43		55		32		27		39	
80	35		47		44	31	21		31		24
79		42			43	30					
78			36	54		29		26		38	
77	34	41			42	28			30		23
76			45	53		27					
75	33				41	26	20	25		37	
74		40	44			25			29		22
73				52	40	24					
72	32	39			39	23		24		36	
71			43			22	19		28		21
70				51		21					
69	31	38			38	20		23	27	35	20
68			42	50		19					
67		37			37	18	18			34	
66	30					17		22	26		19
65			41	49		16					
64		36			36	15	17			33	
63	29					14		21	25		18
62			40	48		13				32	
61		35			35	12		20	24		17
60	28					11	16			31	
59			39	47	34	10		19	23	30	
58						9	15				16
57		34				8		18	22	29	
56	27		38		33	7	14		21	28	15
55				46		6		17	20	27	14
54		33			32	5	13	16		26	
53			37			4			18-19	25	13
52	26			45		3	12	15	17	23-24	12
51		32			31	2	11	13-14	15-16	20-22	11
						1	1-10	1-12	1-14	1-19	1-10

TABLE 3.2

High School Rank Norms For Entering College Freshmen

%ile Rank	HIGH SCHOOL RANK		
	JC	SC	LP
99	96-99	99	
98	95	98	99
97	94	97	
96	93		
95	91-92	96	
94	90	95	
93	89		98
92	88	94	
91	87		
90	86	93	97
89	85	92	
88	84		
87	83	91	96
86	82		
85		90	
84	81	89	95
83	80		
82	79	88	
81	78		94
80	77	87	
79	76	86	93
78		85	
77	75		
76	74	84	92
75	73		
74	72	83	91
73	71	82	
72	70		
71		81	90
70	69		
69	68	80	
68	67		89
67	66	79	

%ile Rank	HIGH SCHOOL RANK		
	JC	SC	LP
66		78	88
65	65		
64	64	77	
63	63		87
62		76	
61	62	75	86
60	61		
59	60	74	85
58	59	73	
57			84
56	58	72	
55	57	71	
54	56	70	83
53			82
52	55	69	
51	54		
50	53	68	81
49	52	67	80
48		66	
47	51		79
46	50	65	
45	49	64	78
44	48		
43		63	77
42	47	62	
41	46		76
40	45	61	75
39	44	60	
38	43	59	74
37		58	
36	42		73
35	41	57	72
34	40	56	

%ile Rank	HIGH SCHOOL RANK		
	JC	SC	LP
33	39	55	71
32		54	70
31	38	53	
30	37		69
29	36	52	68
28		51	67
27	35	50	
26	34	49	66
25	33	48	65
24	32	47	64
23	31	46	63
22	30	45	62
21	29	44	61
20	28	43	
19	27	42	59-60
18	26	41	58
17	25	40	57
16	24	38-39	56
15	23	37	55
14	22	36	54
13	21	35	52-53
12	20	33-34	51
11	19	32	49-50
10	17-18	30-31	47-48
9	16	29	45-46
8	15	27-28	43-44
7	13-14	25-26	41-42
6	12	23-24	38-40
5	10-11	20-22	36-37
4	8-9	17-19	31-35
3	6-7	14-16	26-30
2	4-5	10-13	18-25
1	1-3	1-9	1-17

TABLE 4.1

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Score for 1971 Minnesota
Liberal Arts College Freshmen

College Code	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
	<u>Males and Females</u>					
11	284	79.44	18.06	286	45.11	11.14
12	137	80.18	17.94	136	45.21	11.31
13	86	92.26	11.16	89	58.98	9.13
14	416	76.39	20.07	412	44.26	11.43
15	74	66.20	24.74	73	40.49	12.53
16	27	63.63	29.11	27	45.85	11.91
17	411	84.02	14.73	422	47.55	11.24
18	248	80.06	19.96	245	46.78	12.02
19	9	42.00	32.13	8	32.75	17.11
22	252	74.24	20.74	252	43.18	11.50
23	215	81.13	17.89	213	47.24	10.43
24	219	79.00	17.37	219	46.11	10.58
25	59	65.76	24.73	61	41.79	12.41
26	271	86.22	15.11	278	51.85	9.82
27	43	69.51	20.92	44	38.07	13.00
29	126	77.02	19.30	126	42.30	11.62
30	79	75.61	22.43	79	42.37	12.67
31	319	65.82	24.02	316	41.39	11.14
Total	3,279	77.83	20.32	3,290	45.62	11.81
	<u>Males</u>					
11	123	76.47	19.48	118	44.75	10.52
12	50	80.54	17.79	49	46.20	11.47
13	41	90.34	13.21	45	56.31	10.17
14	192	70.80	21.21	191	42.52	10.97
15	30	56.90	22.59	29	38.79	11.97
16	8	32.50	23.82	8	46.25	13.39
17	186	82.66	15.72	190	46.57	11.22
18	104	75.85	21.20	102	44.12	12.35
19	4	48.75	31.98	4	39.00	15.58
24	219	79.00	17.37	219	46.11	10.58
25	43	63.44	25.38	45	41.44	12.20
26	139	82.72	16.95	141	50.84	9.84
27	20	66.30	25.04	21	40.57	14.33
29	19	71.74	22.65	19	40.16	11.32
31	319	65.82	24.02	316	41.39	11.14
Total	1,495	74.37	21.71	1,495	44.77	11.61

TABLE 4.1 (cont.)

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Score for 1971 Minnesota
Liberal Arts College Freshmen

College Code	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
			<u>Females</u>			
11	161	81.70	16.59	168	45.36	11.58
12	87	76.98	18.12	87	44.66	11.25
13	45	94.00	8.70	44	61.71	7.04
14	224	81.17	17.74	221	45.77	11.64
15	44	72.55	24.37	44	41.61	12.89
16	19	76.74	19.76	19	45.68	11.61
17	225	85.13	13.84	232	48.35	11.22
18	144	83.10	18.49	143	48.66	11.46
19	5	36.60	34.86	4	26.50	18.34
22	252	74.24	20.74	252	43.18	11.50
23	215	81.13	17.89	213	47.24	10.43
25	16	72.00	22.49	16	42.75	13.34
26	132	89.91	11.88	137	52.88	9.73
27	23	72.30	16.62	23	35.78	11.49
29	107	77.95	18.61	107	42.67	11.68
30	76	75.18	22.56	75	42.05	12.58
Total	1,772	80.75	18.61	1,782	46.36	11.93

TABLE 4.2

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Raw Score for 1971
University of Minnesota Freshmen

College	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
	<u>Males and Females</u>					
AFHE	441	73.88	17.20	423	41.01	10.78
CLA	3,654	77.04	17.51	3,619	47.24	9.97
IT	568	83.20	15.05	524	47.37	10.46
GC	795	36.01	20.57	759	28.68	8.19
Duluth	1,509	69.95	22.18	1,446	41.18	11.47
Morris	499	78.37	17.18	494	44.34	10.86
Crookston	227	47.46	24.91	232	29.91	9.17
Total	7,737	70.96	23.04	7,540	43.12	11.89
	<u>Males</u>					
AFHE	270	72.94	17.14	257	41.02	10.76
CLA	1,662	73.78	18.48	1,692	46.86	9.59
IT	533	82.56	15.21	493	47.07	10.44
GC	427	31.62	19.28	408	28.56	8.34
Duluth	743	63.79	23.62	702	39.51	10.99
Morris	272	75.62	18.03	271	43.08	10.74
Crookston	182	44.71	23.83	185	29.14	9.01
Total	4,095	67.48	24.21	4,013	42.28	11.81
	<u>Females</u>					
AFHE	171	75.36	17.23	166	40.99	10.85
CLA	1,992	79.77	16.16	1,927	47.58	10.28
IT	35	93.06	7.05	31	52.19	9.78
GC	368	41.11	20.86	351	28.82	8.02
Duluth	766	75.93	18.88	744	42.74	11.71
Morris	227	86.66	15.50	223	45.67	10.83
Crookston	45	58.56	26.34	47	32.94	9.24
Total	3,642	74.88	20.97	3,527	44.07	11.91

TABLE 4.3

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Scores for 1971 Minnesota
State College Freshmen

College Code	<u>HSR</u>			<u>MSAT-C Raw Score</u>			
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	
		<u>Males and Females</u>					
1	797	64.03	23.77	790	38.11	11.52	
2	1,287	61.08	24.53	1,286	36.33	11.27	
3	575	65.20	22.74	571	37.76	11.00	
4	772	68.31	20.69	773	39.85	11.04	
5	1,568	67.26	21.81	1,575	37.75	10.95	
6	579	62.47	23.68	578	36.21	10.75	
Total	5,578	64.81	23.04	5,573	37.60	11.16	
		<u>Males</u>					
1	391	56.35	24.58	387	36.81	11.24	
2	596	53.86	24.34	596	35.03	10.84	
3	310	59.61	22.82	310	36.91	11.05	
4	391	62.24	21.49	387	39.27	10.99	
5	705	59.40	22.41	710	35.78	10.43	
6	225	52.49	23.40	222	34.37	10.92	
Total	2,600	57.51	23.40	2,599	36.28	10.93	
		<u>Females</u>					
1	406	71.42	20.42	403	39.35	11.67	
2	691	67.31	22.95	690	37.46	11.51	
3	265	71.73	20.87	261	38.77	10.89	
4	399	73.98	18.18	399	40.39	11.07	
5	863	73.69	19.04	865	39.37	11.11	
6	354	68.81	21.61	356	37.36	10.50	
Total	2,978	71.18	20.71	2,974	38.77	11.23	

TABLE 4.4

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Scores for 1971 Minnesota State
Junior College Freshmen

College Code	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
		<u>Males and Females</u>				
A	661	54.29	24.69	657	32.58	10.93
B	431	56.83	25.91	430	35.65	12.17
C	204	60.11	25.19	204	34.36	10.81
D	256	52.86	25.84	254	34.98	11.14
E	358	54.45	25.43	357	35.47	12.48
F	278	53.95	24.55	278	35.56	11.57
G	644	47.55	24.48	631	30.93	10.55
H	345	56.50	24.72	345	36.02	11.38
I	324	47.39	24.55	314	30.63	11.24
J	780	51.86	24.93	778	32.31	10.62
K	158	54.54	25.36	157	34.68	11.09
L	103	61.39	24.27	102	35.43	12.30
M	699	58.34	24.52	690	36.25	11.37
N	199	50.05	24.59	199	35.61	13.22
O	312	53.05	24.41	311	32.48	10.27
P	262	53.72	23.84	258	32.88	10.92
Q	1,043	49.01	24.19	957	33.15	10.59
R	407	51.87	25.70	407	32.47	11.23
S	26	58.89	25.21	26	36.15	11.72
Total	7,490	52.96	25.03	7,355	33.65	11.30
		<u>Males</u>				
A	348	47.01	24.05	345	31.77	10.56
B	251	52.28	25.12	251	34.56	12.05
C	116	56.00	26.06	116	34.60	11.35
D	144	45.65	24.72	143	33.37	9.59
E	188	50.77	24.93	188	35.04	11.99
F	152	47.71	24.64	152	34.32	10.57
G	443	42.55	22.79	434	29.36	9.72
H	225	51.31	23.53	225	34.39	10.40
I	154	40.44	22.95	151	30.03	11.32
J	447	46.32	24.16	449	31.72	10.07
K	86	47.36	25.19	86	34.05	11.34
L	52	54.35	23.92	51	33.86	10.13
M	352	52.02	25.10	348	34.92	11.19
N	143	48.47	24.76	143	35.52	13.53
O	205	48.82	24.09	205	31.72	10.19
P	145	47.90	23.36	144	31.93	10.47
Q	591	43.31	23.02	541	32.46	10.32
R	258	48.19	25.64	258	31.76	11.29
S	16	46.69	21.64	16	34.88	9.42
Total	4,316	47.39	24.37	4,246	32.69	10.89

TABLE 4.4 (cont.)

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Scores for 1971 Minnesota State
Junior College Freshmen

College Code	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
			<u>Females</u>			
A	313	62.38	22.84	312	33.47	11.27
B	180	63.18	25.72	179	37.18	12.22
C	88	65.52	23.04	88	34.06	10.11
D	112	62.13	24.34	111	37.06	12.61
E	170	58.52	25.42	169	35.95	13.03
F	126	61.48	22.32	126	37.06	12.54
G	201	58.58	24.52	197	34.40	11.47
H	120	66.23	24.06	120	39.08	12.52
I	170	53.68	24.31	163	31.18	11.17
J	332	59.36	24.05	328	33.13	11.30
K	72	63.13	22.93	71	35.45	10.80
L	51	68.57	22.66	51	37.00	14.07
M	347	64.74	22.19	342	37.60	11.41
N	56	54.09	23.87	56	35.82	12.52
O	107	61.15	23.02	106	33.95	10.32
P	117	60.94	22.51	114	34.08	11.40
Q	452	56.45	23.67	416	34.04	10.88
R	149	58.24	24.61	149	33.71	11.06
S	10	78.40	17.23	10	38.20	15.03
Total	3,173	60.53	23.90	3,108	34.97	11.70

TABLE 4.5

Means and Standard Deviations of High School Rank
and MSAT Score for 1971 Minnesota Private
Junior College Freshmen

College Code	HSR			MSAT-C Raw Score			
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	
		<u>Males and Females</u>					
40	45	63.71	24.28	45	39.13	12.58	
43	12	54.50	32.75	12	42.92	12.59	
45	178	50.78	26.43	174	32.66	12.42	
57	182	58.62	22.76	178	34.79	10.16	
Total	417	55.70	25.19	409	34.60	11.72	
		<u>Males</u>					
40	16	63.19	24.87	16	40.88	13.83	
43	12	54.50	32.75	12	42.92	12.59	
45	94	42.33	25.53	93	30.01	12.42	
57	7	50.29	24.42	7	31.57	11.00	
Total	129	46.48	26.84	128	32.66	13.32	
		<u>Females</u>					
40	29	64.00	24.39	29	38.17	11.98	
45	84	60.24	24.26	81	35.70	11.78	
57	175	58.95	22.70	171	34.92	10.14	
Total	288	59.84	23.30	281	35.48	10.83	

TABLE 5.1

Percentage of Minnesota High School Juniors
of 1970 Entering Minnesota Colleges in
Fall 1971 by High School Rank

HSR Decile	U of M		Four-Year Liberal Arts		State Colleges		Comm. Colleges		Private JC		Total All Colleges		1969-70 H.S. Jrs.	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<u>Males</u>														
10	809	36.5	487	21.9	230	10.4	177	8.0	10	0.5	1,713	77.2	2,219	6.9
9	717	30.2	258	10.9	293	12.3	286	12.1	9	0.4	1,563	65.9	2,373	7.4
8	614	23.5	229	8.8	319	12.2	365	13.9	9	0.3	1,536	58.7	2,617	8.2
7	450	16.0	184	6.6	390	13.9	448	16.0	12	0.4	1,484	52.9	2,805	8.8
6	365	11.9	127	4.1	330	10.8	451	14.7	15	0.5	1,288	42.0	3,068	9.7
5	246	7.4	89	2.7	297	8.9	502	15.1	17	0.5	1,151	34.5	3,333	10.4
4	162	4.6	64	1.8	252	7.2	482	13.8	14	0.4	974	27.9	3,490	10.9
3	111	3.0	28	0.7	161	4.3	383	10.2	16	0.4	699	18.6	3,755	11.7
2	71	1.8	22	0.6	95	2.4	277	7.1	8	0.2	473	12.1	3,925	12.3
1	47	1.1	13	0.3	38	0.9	146	3.3	10	0.2	254	5.8	4,377	13.7
Total	3592	11.2	1501	4.7	2405	7.5	3517	11.0	120	0.4	11135	34.8	31962	100.0
<u>Females</u>														
10	1,026	25.9	756	19.1	641	16.2	338	8.5	33	0.8	2,794	70.5	3,963	12.7
9	780	18.9	378	9.2	590	14.3	425	10.3	31	0.8	2,204	53.4	4,130	13.1
8	503	13.2	255	6.7	494	12.9	414	10.8	41	1.1	1,707	44.7	3,820	12.1
7	363	10.1	156	4.3	387	10.7	404	11.2	40	1.1	1,350	37.5	3,601	11.4
6	226	6.7	83	2.4	285	8.4	347	10.2	39	1.1	980	28.9	3,394	10.8
5	166	5.3	65	2.1	199	6.3	287	9.1	36	1.1	753	23.9	3,154	10.0
4	106	3.7	36	1.3	132	4.6	244	8.5	22	0.8	540	18.8	2,875	9.1
3	52	2.1	21	0.8	75	3.0	168	6.7	15	0.6	331	13.3	2,490	7.9
2	38	1.7	12	0.5	32	1.4	100	4.5	10	0.5	192	8.7	2,218	7.0
1	17	0.9	8	0.4	11	0.6	55	3.0	2	0.1	93	5.0	1,859	5.9
Total	3277	10.4	1770	5.6	2846	9.0	2782	8.8	269	0.9	10944	34.7	31504	100.0
<u>Males and Females</u>														
10	1,835	29.7	1,243	20.1	871	14.1	515	8.3	43	0.7	4,507	72.9	6,182	9.7
9	1,497	23.0	636	9.8	883	13.6	711	10.9	40	0.6	3,767	57.9	6,503	10.2
8	1,117	17.4	484	7.5	813	12.6	779	12.1	50	0.8	3,243	50.4	6,437	10.1
7	813	12.7	340	5.3	777	12.1	852	13.3	52	0.8	2,834	44.2	6,406	10.3
6	591	9.1	210	3.2	615	9.5	798	12.3	54	0.8	2,268	35.1	6,462	10.2
5	412	6.4	154	2.4	496	7.6	789	12.2	53	0.8	1,904	29.4	6,487	10.2
4	268	4.2	100	1.6	384	6.0	726	11.4	36	0.6	1,514	23.8	6,365	10.0
3	163	2.6	49	0.8	236	3.8	551	8.8	31	0.5	1,030	16.5	6,245	9.8
2	109	1.8	34	0.6	127	2.1	377	6.1	18	0.3	665	10.8	6,143	9.7
1	64	1.0	21	0.3	49	0.8	201	3.2	12	0.2	347	5.6	6,236	9.8
Total	6869	10.8	3271	5.2	5251	8.3	6299	9.9	389	0.6	22079	34.8	63466	100.0

Note - The last column is the percent of the total across deciles. The other percentages are based on the total within each decile.

TABLE 5.2

Percentages of Minnesota High School Juniors
of 1970 Entering Minnesota Colleges
in Fall 1971 by MSAT Score

MSAT-C Decile	U of M		Four-Year Liberal Arts		State Colleges		Comm. Colleges		Private J.C.		Total All Colleges		1969-70 HS Juniors	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<u>MALES</u>														
10	844	30.0	463	16.4	248	8.8	221	7.8	16	0.6	1792	63.6	2816	8.5
9	724	26.5	299	10.9	299	10.9	309	11.3	9	0.3	1640	60.1	2731	8.2
8	700	19.3	263	7.2	413	11.4	495	13.6	14	0.4	1885	51.9	3633	10.9
7	401	13.2	173	5.7	344	11.3	420	13.8	7	0.2	1345	44.1	3048	9.2
6	348	10.3	112	3.3	354	10.4	502	14.8	17	0.5	1333	39.3	3394	10.2
5	173	6.3	84	3.1	214	7.8	394	14.3	10	0.4	875	31.8	2753	8.3
4	155	3.8	60	1.5	272	6.7	439	10.7	13	0.3	939	23.0	4086	12.3
3	74	2.4	33	1.1	117	3.8	256	8.4	7	0.2	487	16.0	3045	9.2
2	45	1.2	10	0.3	101	2.6	275	7.1	14	0.4	445	11.5	3883	11.7
1	45	1.2	5	0.1	40	1.0	145	3.8	12	0.3	247	6.5	3820	11.5
Total	3509	10.6	1502	4.5	2402	7.2	3456	10.4	119	0.4	10988	33.1	33209	100.0
<u>FEMALES</u>														
10	891	23.9	645	17.3	413	11.1	262	7.0	26	0.7	2237	60.0	3729	11.4
9	694	20.0	373	10.7	466	13.4	342	9.9	26	0.7	1901	54.8	3471	10.6
8	597	15.1	298	7.5	527	13.3	382	9.7	42	1.1	1846	46.7	3955	12.1
7	346	10.6	154	4.7	367	11.3	338	10.4	42	1.3	1247	38.3	3254	10.0
6	253	7.3	126	3.7	374	10.8	360	10.4	31	0.9	1144	33.2	3449	10.6
5	156	5.7	74	2.7	232	8.5	263	9.6	32	1.2	757	27.6	2739	8.4
4	124	3.5	51	1.4	219	6.1	335	9.3	29	0.8	758	21.1	3585	11.0
3	69	2.6	32	1.2	126	4.8	170	6.5	19	0.7	416	16.0	2607	8.0
2	42	1.4	18	0.6	81	2.6	178	5.8	10	0.3	329	10.7	3061	9.4
1	22	0.8	9	0.3	35	1.3	90	3.2	6	0.2	162	5.8	2771	8.5
Total	3194	9.8	1780	5.5	2840	8.1	2720	8.3	263	0.8	10797	33.1	32621	100.0
<u>MALES AND FEMALES</u>														
10	1735	26.5	1108	16.9	661	10.1	483	7.4	42	0.6	4029	61.6	6545	9.9
9	1418	22.9	672	10.8	765	12.3	651	10.5	35	0.6	3541	57.1	6202	9.4
8	1297	17.1	561	7.4	940	12.4	877	11.6	56	0.7	3731	49.2	7588	11.5
7	747	11.9	327	5.2	711	11.3	758	12.0	49	0.8	2592	41.1	6302	9.6
6	601	8.8	238	3.5	728	10.6	862	12.6	48	0.7	2477	36.2	6843	10.4
5	329	6.0	158	2.9	446	8.1	657	12.0	42	0.8	1632	29.7	5492	8.3
4	279	3.6	111	1.4	491	6.4	774	10.1	42	0.5	1697	22.1	7671	11.7
3	143	2.5	65	1.2	243	4.3	426	7.5	26	0.5	903	16.0	5652	8.6
2	87	1.3	28	0.4	182	2.6	453	6.5	24	0.3	774	11.1	6944	10.5
1	67	1.0	14	0.2	75	1.1	235	3.6	18	0.3	409	6.2	6591	10.0
Total	6703	10.2	3282	5.0	5242	8.0	6176	9.4	382	0.6	21785	33.1	65830	100.0

NOTE: The last column is the percent of the total across deciles. The other percentages are based on the total within each decile.

Figure 1.1
 MSAT Score Distributions
 By Type Of College

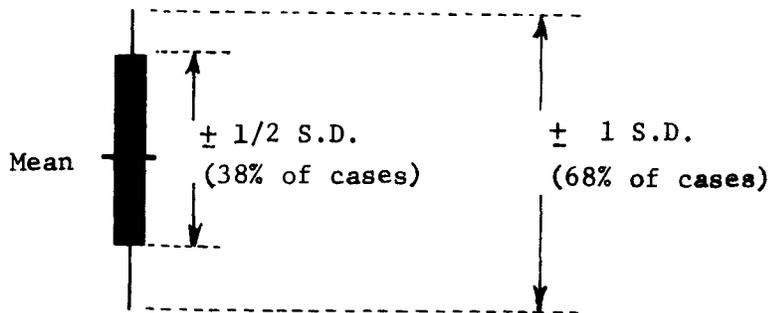
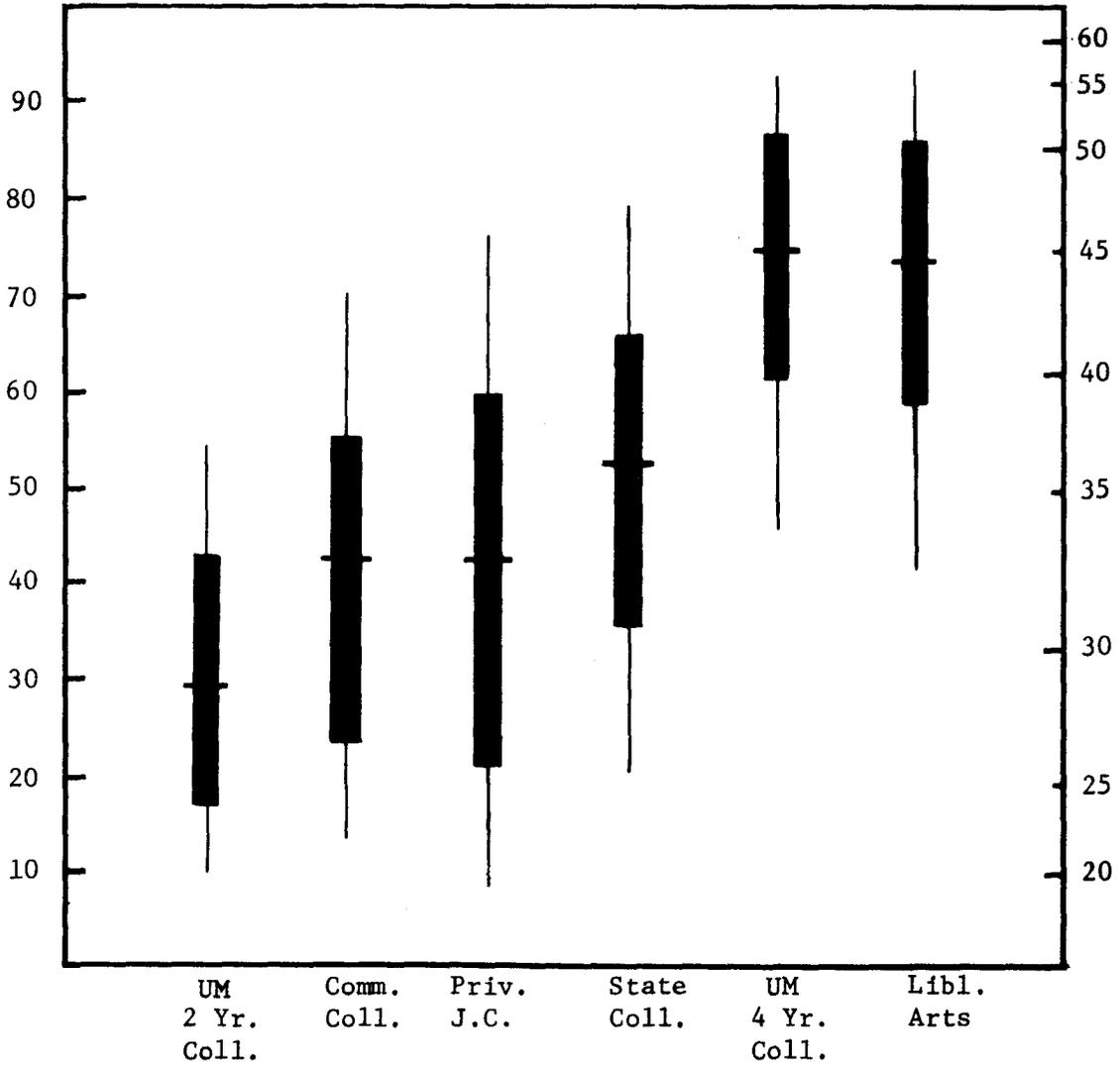
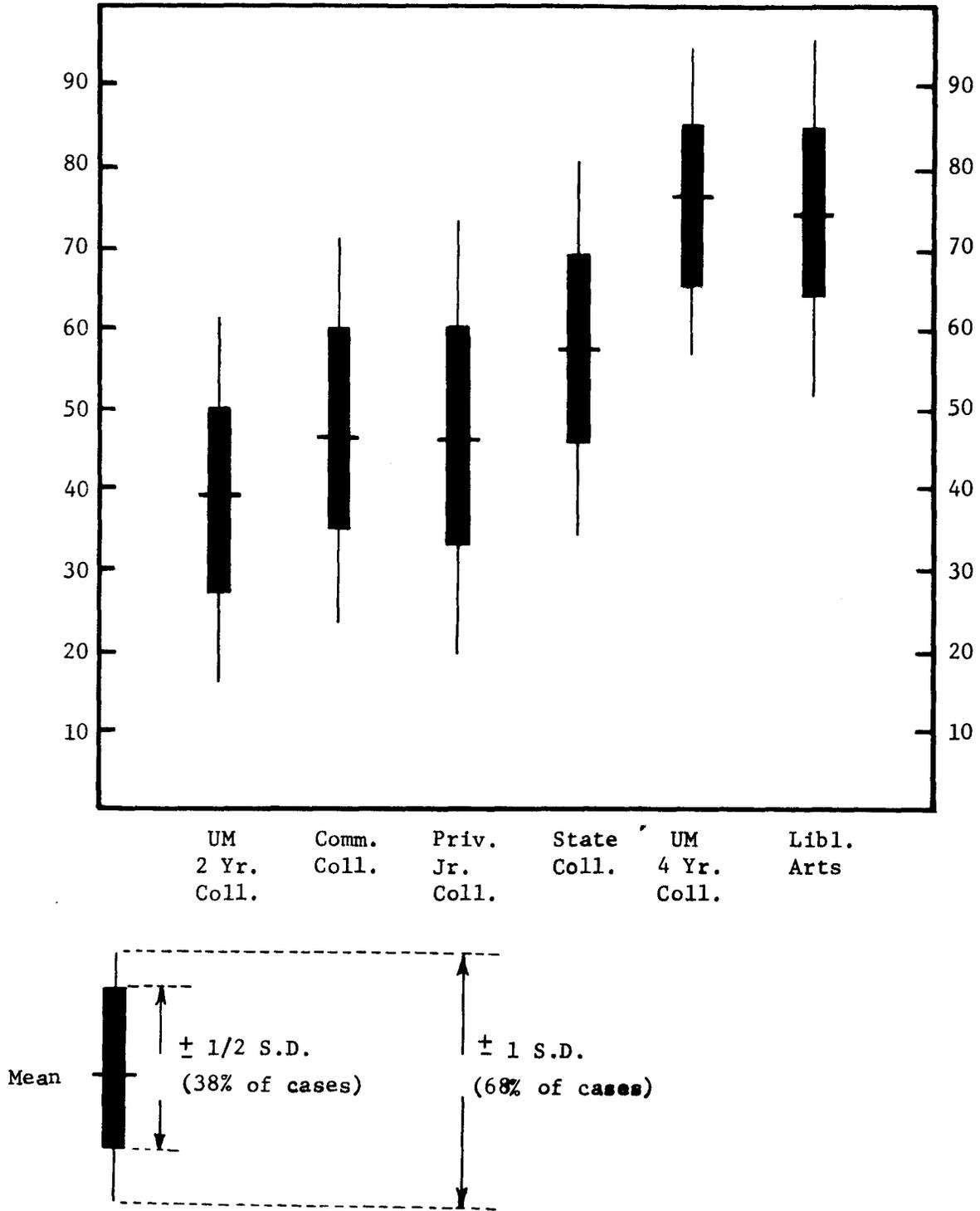


Figure 1.2

HSR Percentile Distribution
By Type Of College



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UNIVERSITY OPINION POLL 9: CHILD CARE, MPIRG, LETTUCE

PRELIMINARY REPORT

Ronald Matross, Deborah Seaburg, and Joel Brown

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

The University Opinion Poll conducted a survey of student opinion on issues related to University-sponsored day care, the role of the Minnesota Public Interest Research Group, and the University's policy on buying lettuce for its food services. Four hundred and fifty two respondents, 76% of a random sample of University of Minnesota students, were contacted for their opinions. Major findings were: A majority of respondents favored a University-sponsored day care service, but were unwilling to support a student fee increase to help fund it. Most respondents rated MPIRG's performance on student issues as adequate or good, but felt that MPIRG should spend more effort on student issues in the future. Responses to questions about the University's lettuce policy are not included in this report.

UNIVERSITY OPINION POLL 9: CHILD CARE, MPIRG, & LETTUCE

Ronald Matross, Deborah Seaburg, and Joel Brown

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

At the request of the Office of the Vice President for Student Affairs, the University Opinion Poll conducted a survey of student opinion on three issues: University sponsored day care for the children of students, the role of the Minnesota Public Interest Research Group, and the University's policy on buying lettuce.

Survey Items

Survey items were developed during the week of February 10 to 18, 1974, in meetings between staff of the University Opinion Poll and the Office of the Vice President for Student Affairs. Item selection was based on staff understanding of the relevant issues, technical quality, and the length limitations of a telephone interview. The selected questions were telephone pre-tested by a professional interviewer on February 18, 1974.

Conduct of the Survey

The survey was conducted by telephone, with a supplemental mailing. During the period of February 22 through 25, 1974, Koser Surveys Inc. called all the student in the sample with local phone numbers. Each number was attempted a minimum of four times at different hours of the day. Ten percent of the respondents were contacted a second time as a validation check. During the period of February 21 through March 5, the survey was mailed to all those without local phone numbers and to all who could not be contacted by Koser Surveys.

Sample and Response Rates

The total sample included the names of 591 students from the Twin Cities Campus of the University of Minnesota. The sample was developed from a computer-generated 2% sampling of names listed in the active file of the Office of Admissions and Records. Extension students and those not currently registered as U. of M. students were not included. The initial sample was larger than needed and was reduced by eliminating every fourth name. By March 5, 1974 complete responses had been received from 76% (N=452) of the total sample. Of those whom Koser Surveys attempted to call, complete responses were received from 86% (N=406). Of those who were mailed the survey, 39% (N=46) responded.

Results

The percentages of respondents choosing each response alternative for each question are presented. Differences between response categories of fewer than five percentage points should not be considered significant. Percentages may sum to 99% or 101% because of rounding errors.

I. Child Care

1. A proposed University sponsored day care center would charge student users based on their ability to pay. Should money from student fees be used to subsidize the cost of day care use by students?

	<u>% of sample (N=452)</u>
a. Yes	42
b. No	46
c. Undecided	12

2. One proposal is that all students' fees should be increased 30¢ per quarter to help fund student day care. Do you feel this fee should be required?

	<u>% of sample (N=452)</u>
a. Yes	32
b. No	64
c. Undecided	4

3. Would you be interested in using a day care service during the next academic year?

	<u>% of Sample (N=452)</u>
a. Yes	9
b. No	89
c. Undecided	2

4. Do you think the University should establish a day care center?

	<u>% of sample (N=452)</u>
a. Yes	84
b. No	8
c. Undecided	8

II. MBIRG

The next questions deal with MPIRG ("empurg"), the Minnesota Public Interest Research Group. This is a consumer group entirely paid for by an optional student fee from all U. of M. campuses.

5. How familiar are you with the activities of MPIRG?

% of sample (N=452)

- | | |
|-------------------------|----|
| a. Very familiar | 5 |
| b. Fairly familiar | 25 |
| c. Somewhat familiar | 51 |
| d. Never heard of MPIRG | 19 |

(Note: if respondent never heard of MPIRG, questions 6,7, and 8 were not asked.)

6. How would you rate MPIRG's performance on issues primarily affecting students?

% of sample (N=373)

- | | |
|---------------|----|
| a. Good | 15 |
| b. Adequate | 38 |
| c. Poor | 20 |
| d. No opinion | 27 |

7. How would you rate MPIRG's performance on issues affecting consumers in general?

% of sample (N=371)

- | | |
|---------------|----|
| a. Good | 36 |
| b. Adequate | 29 |
| c. Poor | 8 |
| d. No opinion | 27 |

8. In the future how much effort should MPIRG spend on issues primarily affecting students?

% of sample (N=371)

- | | |
|--|----|
| a. More than it has in the past | 46 |
| b. Less than it has in the past | 3 |
| c. About as much as it has in the past | 27 |
| d. No opinion | 23 |

III. Lettuce

9. The University is examining its policy on buying lettuce for its food services. The reason for this examination is a controversy between two groups attempting to represent workers who pick lettuce--The United Farm Workers led by Cesar Chavez and the Teamsters Union.

In your opinion, what should the University's policy be on buying lettuce?*

% of sample (N=452)

- a. Buy the best lettuce at the lowest price.
 - b. Buy only lettuce picked by the United Farm Workers.
 - c. Buy only lettuce picked by the Teamsters Union.
 - d. Buy half from each group.
 - e. No opinion
10. The University food services may allow patrons to choose lettuce from either of the two groups. Do you approve, disapprove, or have no opinion of this plan?*

% of sample (N=452)

- a. Approve
- b. Disapprove
- c. No opinion

*Responses to these questions are not included in this report.

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

A Study of University of Minnesota

Registration Procedures

Glenn Hendricks

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

Abstract

Registration procedures for fall quarter 1973 were observed and participants interviewed. Contrary to popular belief, 80% of the students completed registration (obtaining class cards and a fee statement) within one half hour. An analysis of the data suggests some issues regarding the social function within the institution of present procedures. The ability of a proposed computerized system to rationalize present procedures is questioned. In addition, questions are raised as to how dysfunctional placing primary emphasis on efficiency might be to other values within the institution.

A Study of University of Minnesota
Registration Procedures

Glenn Hendricks

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

A periodic activity at the University of Minnesota is a set of events labeled registration. As the University has grown in size and scope, there has been an accompanying elaboration of the mechanisms devised to accomplish the registration process. The proposed introduction of a computer to assist in this operation can be viewed as but another step in this development. However, computerization raises issues about the place of registration in the total University which should be addressed prior to an irrevocable commitment to this technique.

The process of registration is both a technical and social act. As a technical act, it is the means by which an individual and the institution agree that attendance at a specific class at a specific time will (may) take place. In addition, the process usually includes some agreement as to the amount of tuition and fees and a commitment to immediate or future payment of them. An elaborate system of exchange mechanisms to accomplish this agreement has evolved as the institution has become more complex. Both by design and chance these mechanisms have elaborated a number of overt and covert alternative routes to achieve the end goal of registration.

However, another perspective in which to view registration is that of a social act, a series of events with manifest and latent social functions. The University is composed of a number of units with varying degrees of autonomy. The cyclical nature of registration prior to the opening of every quarter requires the coalescence of units which at other times have minimal, if any, communication or active linkage. This cyclical activity

undoubtedly serves the purpose of periodically forcing social linkages which otherwise would be attenuated. At the same time, it reinforces within all concerned the idea of unit autonomy. The social linkage function is represented in a concrete way by such acts as the installation or use of special telephone lines between scheduling areas or the openings of special Bursars tables in Johnston Hall and the Architecture Court. Unit autonomy is identified openly in the blatant disjunctions between registration procedures in various units, i.e. a different alphabet for IT, giving first day preference to seniors in the School of Education, of the BA school and Anthropology departments students' having early preference over others for registration in those units' classes.

As we shall later point out, the present registration process may also have important socialization functions in teaching the student values, attitudes and techniques for survival in the reality of the University. This is not to argue that computerized registration would necessarily negate the social function of registration but rather that striving for the most efficient technical manner of handling this process may well be dysfunctional for other aspects of University life.

The definition of registration for the purposes of this study is very narrow; the process of officially enrolling in a set of classes. This somewhat artificial restriction reflects the Office of Admissions and Records' view of registration as including only course selection and assignment and determining fees. These activities are but part of the larger process of registration which includes a pre-period of decision making (both independently and with the help of advisors) about specific course content fulfilling University requirements and about personal restrictions of time and ability. In addition, a subsequent series of events dealing with the

actual payment of tuition and fees is intimately linked to this process before one is normally considered a fully registered student. A further post-period must be considered in that during the first weeks of classes, a considerable number of students are still making additions and cancellations in the courses they have selected. Given the number of individuals who make these changes, the process is not complete as long as this open-ended period exists.

A concern over limiting the interpreting of registration to a technical act and isolating it from prior and post events led this researcher to offer, and the Task Force on Computer Registration to accede to, a study of registration activities during August and September 1973.

Methodology

We were interested in how students as well as administrators perceived the process (an emic viewpoint) and in describing the process from the point of view of the outsiders' perspective (an etic viewpoint). Thus, two kinds of data were solicited: interview information elicited from students and faculty members and observation from participant observation.

Administrators and technicians responsible for registration within major units of the University were informally interviewed in late July. During the three weeks of registration, as well as the two intervening weeks prior to the opening of classes, two interviewers were placed at points where students were given fee payment statements. These locations included Morrill Hall, Johnston Hall (CLA), Architecture Court (IT), the Business Administration Tower, and Coffey Hall (St. Paul). Informants had just finished the basic registration process at that time. Interviewers used protocols containing both closed and open-ended questions. Protocols were coded and summaries computed. Permission was asked of five students for

one of our researchers to follow and record their actions during the registration process. Finally, researchers recorded events of salient interest as they spent time in the areas where registration was taking place.

The questionnaire protocol was designed to elicit responses concerning what the student recalled having done during the just completed registration process and his/her reaction to it. Because the questions were open-ended, with responses recorded by the interviewer, little if any attempt was made to reconcile inconsistencies in the responses. Some of these inconsistencies are undoubtedly a product of the ambiguity of the term "registration." The informants, for example, had varying interpretations of the component elements making up the total process called registration and thus total times reported covered varying events. This lack of congruence in definition is important in that it points up one of the difficulties in discussing problems related to registration.

Demographic characteristics of the 155 students questioned approximate the range of the U. of M. population in terms of sex and college distribution (no attempt was made to include such specialized schools as medicine or mortuary science).

A number of informants, both students and staff, felt that this study would yield atypical results, because registration during August for fall quarter was different from registration taking place at other times during the year. They felt that summer registration could proceed at a more leisurely pace because one did not have to work it in between scheduled classes. Lines did not seem to them as long this year as they remembered; classes appeared to close later than previously. Some officials suspected that the total number of students registering was down. Others felt the extension of registration to cover a three rather than a two-week

period accounted for the ease of registration. In reality, total numbers registered were quite similar to those in fall 1972. We are unable to attest to the validity of the other statements. However, they are important in our consideration of what we have come to call "the mythology of registration."

The following two cases abstracted from our field notes are illustrative of some of the problems involved and are not intended to be necessarily typical. They are presented here to give context to later discussions.

CASE I: F.P., male, 19, sophomore in pre-pharmacy, GPA 3.51 on 54 units.

Immediately after he got his registration material on the second floor of Johnston Hall, at 11:15 a.m., I joined him. We then went to the bookstore to get a pen (he had come without one) and then on to the pharmacy department to pick up a new brochure of information (he had lost all of his materials including his pre-plan program, during the summer). Last spring, he had made out a program for the subsequent year and carried with him a permit to register during 1973-74 without an advisor's signature. "I kind of made out a schedule and he signed the card." His curriculum in pre-pharmacy is relatively structured and the only option at this point was the selection of a social science course. We proceeded at 11:30 to Fraser Hall to fill out cards and work out his schedule. The required science courses (physics, chemistry, and calculus) were easily arranged, but he found a conflict over lab periods and a desired economics class. This, however, was seen as no problem, and he resolved it by deciding that he could attend economics class every other lecture and alternately skip a lab session. "Econ was a slough-off course last year, and I can miss physics once in a while. Nineteen hours is a heavy load, but it will have to come one of these quarters anyhow." By 12:10, all cards were filled out and he had been given an advisor's assignment for the current academic year. We then proceeded to room 12 of Johnston Hall and within 7 minutes of entering the room, he had got all four necessary course cards. Because it was now 12:20 and part of the staff of the Bursar's office writing out fee payment statements had gone to lunch, the line was the longest ever observed during our research. Even so, by 12:44, one hour and thirty-nine minutes after he had begun the process, he had received his fee statement and completed registration.

Comment:

This student was singularly well-organized and able to cope with problems arising at various points along the way, although at several times he paused in confusion at what the next step might be. He was convinced that his early

registration (this was the seventh day of registration) was important in allowing him to register in such a short period of time. This might well be the case, but the inflexibility of his prescribed curriculum was also an important factor in the ease with which he registered. It is interesting to note that the flexibility that came within his program came from a judgment on the part of the student and not of the system. Had his program been more closely monitored, either by an individual or by a machine, it is possible that his registering for classes during overlapping periods of time would not have been allowed.

CASE II: D.T., male, 22, senior in philosophy

He was first contacted as he picked up registration material. It was not his day in the alphabet for registration and it was agreed that he would allow the researcher to accompany him when he did register three days later, the twelfth day of registration. On the appointed day, he met the researcher and explained that he had been out of school for several quarters and that perhaps his case was somewhat different and would not make a typical subject. He had accumulated more than 154 hours, but was still classified as a sophomore, primarily, it would seem, because he had never completed the necessary forms to be given upper-division standing. "I don't have an advisor. I suppose I should get one as I'm about ready to graduate." Without reading his materials or checking any of the posted signs, he announced it was necessary for him to go to his department in Ford Hall to get an advisor's signature. There he told the secretary, "I don't have an advisor, but they told me in Johnston that I could come over here and get someone's signature so I could register and later you would assign me an advisor." He was told to go to a faculty member's office and there repeated the same statement. The faculty member said, "Good, I'm the only one here now, and I have all of the advisees that I can handle." He signed the card without further questioning. As we walked towards the elevator, the student gave me a large wink and in the elevator said, "It's cornball (the fabricated story) but that's the way you get things done." We then returned to Johnston Hall where he looked through the class schedule and began to arrange possible course combinations. He had some idea in mind of what he wanted to take, but it was apparent that he had spent little time in studying the catalogue or course descriptions prior to this time. The course catalogue listed a class in Middle Eastern history which was not listed on the course available list. "That's no problem. I'll just sign up and they can cross it off the list if there's something wrong." His total load was for 19 hours, and he was not sure if he was allowed to take such a load. However, "I have an advisor's signature (therefore they won't say anything)." After selecting his courses, he proceeded to 12 Johnston Hall past a sign stating that lower-division students

had to go first to Fraser Hall. The checker at the door examined his documents and sent him to Fraser. He was not particularly upset by these events, commenting that this is the way of the bureaucracy. This detour across the street to get the necessary assignment of an advisor took only five minutes. At this point, he was told that because of his accumulation of credits, he would have to file for upper division standing. He listened to the instructions but took no heed of them. Within six minutes of reentering room 12, Johnston Hall, he emerged, commenting somewhat incredulously, "They were all there--God!" The total time consumed in his registration was 51 minutes.

Comment:

This example is interesting because it is illustrative of a student who had learned to manipulate the system by circumventing the assumed rules. In this case, the journey to his department for an advisor's signature and the fabrication were totally unnecessary, but built on assumptions about the system which may have been based upon previous experience. He had assumed that the process would be time-consuming and that manipulation would be necessary. He was surprised, almost to the point of disappointment, at the ease with which he had passed through the process. "It used to be a lot easier when I had a friend in here", (class reservation office).

The two cases cited, despite divergent individuals' aims and goals, are illustrative of a number of things. First, it is apparent in both cases that the individual was able to exercise some autonomy in making decisions. Undoubtedly, had the class selection and reservation system been mechanized, this kind of manipulation and stretching of the rules would not have been possible. The pre-pharmacy student would probably not have been allowed to register for classes which met at the same hour. Although there was no objective demonstration that the philosophy student actually accomplished anything by his extra-legal activities, he clearly felt his actions gave him far more control over the situation than if he left it in the hands of someone else or with the "system". It is this personal flexibility resulting from the number of alternative routes within the present system

of registration which gives the individual a sense of personal autonomy, regardless of the polemics which emerge about the presumed indifference of the "system".

An analysis of the data indicates the need to discuss the results as a series of separate but inextricably related issues. For our purposes here the sources of our information will be indicated as emanating from three modes labeled as interviews (primarily open-ended with administrators and technicians), questionnaires (the protocol interview with students), and observations (i.e., following students, observing the reservation process).

Issue #1: Efficiency

The proposed computerized registration system is often rationalized on the basis of its imputed ability to make the registration process more efficient, e.g. less time would be required by the students to register and fewer employees would be required to manually check closed classes. Underlying this argument is the assumption that the present system is inefficient. We, therefore, were concerned with ascertaining how much time was actually spent in component aspects of registration as well as student perception of satisfaction with the process.

Insert Tables 1 and 2

Table 1 indicates the total time reported in the questionnaires to have been used for registration. Sixty percent of the 155 respondents indicated they had spent less than 3 hours, with 13% stating they needed less than one hour to complete the process. We attempted to delineate how this time was spent by asking each respondent to indicate how much time was spent in certain activities associated with registering. Responses are shown in Table 2.

While the reader may find a number of categories on the table of interest, of particular importance is that almost 60% reported they needed less

than 15 minutes to go through the class reservation process. An additional 20% reported completion within one half hour. Thus, 80% of the students completed what is reputed to be a lengthy process within one half hour.

This is the activity which the proposed computerized registration is said to be able to speed up.

For the 33% who said they required more than 15 minutes to get the basic materials for registration, the chief reasons were that a hold had been placed on their materials, or that more than one quarter had elapsed since previous registration. Consequently it was necessary to go to appropriate offices to pay overdue assessments or clarify whatever difficulty caused the delay in normal registration sequence. For those who did not register during the previous quarter permits have to be obtained in Morrill Hall rather than in the College offices. Other activities did not appear to occupy significant specific amounts of time.

A frequent criticism is heard from students that seeing an advisor consumes a great portion of their registration time. However, 38% of the respondents did not report seeing an advisor at all. This may be explainable in that registration for fall quarter takes place when fewer faculty advisors are present. However, during the past few years, several of the major collegiate units have relaxed rules concerning student use of advisors, sometimes nearly eliminating the requirement altogether, and this may be reflected in the number who registered without consulting an advisor during this registration period.

Thirty-five percent indicated they registered for courses outside their collegiate unit. Approximately half of these persons were able to accomplish registration through available technology within their own units (CLA, for example, sends IT a number of registration cards of classes of potential interest to IT students and vice versa.) Only 8 students (6.5% of the sample) indicated any difficulty in accomplishing cross registration between collegiate units.

Approximately two thirds of our sample was able to enroll in a program composed entirely of courses they had originally desired to take. However, an additional 20% said that the substitution was a course they also desired to have, indicating at least at that point in time, only 15% remained potentially dissatisfied. Of this group, we do not know how many simply failed to replace the course they were unable to take.

Insert Table 3

Table 3 indicates major categories of reasons for inability to get a desired class. As might be expected, the major reason was that a particular class was closed. An analysis of the response on a weekly basis indicates that the same order of reasons existed each week. (The first class closure, one in studio arts, was posted within 30 minutes of the first day of registration.)

Students who took unusual amounts of time to register were those with special kinds of problems. These may be both those problems emanating from bureaucratic regulation, e.g. holds placed on records for past problems, and those stemming from a desire to take unusual course combinations, especially classes outside their own collegial unit. All data sources indicated that a student following a traditional pattern could almost invariably register with minimal amount of time and frustration.

Two conclusions might be drawn from our data. First, a more mechanistic approach to registration, i.e. computerization, will by the nature of its operation lead to more rigidity in the registration process. The present system has a high input of human decision-making on both the part of the student as well as the clerical processors. Presently many kinds of alternatives are possible in finding suitable course combinations, even those which are supposedly in violation of regulations. Given the ease with which most students currently arrange schedules,

it seems dubious that any method of computer system developed would speed up the process for the majority of students. It is more likely that it would preclude exercising many of the alternatives that are presently exploited by them to achieve their goals.

Secondly, as the number involved in programs of a non-traditional nature increases (Bachelor of Elected Studies, for example,) we can anticipate more special cases that need individual attention and adjudication. Whatever costs in manpower are saved by computerization will possibly be lost in personnel necessary to handle increased adjudicatory case loads. Those student programs now easily handled would be with equal care handled by a computerized system. However, a more mechanistic system would probably work to the disadvantage of those who now have difficulties by increasing the number of problem cases that must be resolved on an individual basis. All would be competing for the limited amount of personnel time now available for special problem cases.

A properly programmed computerized system could theoretically be developed to handle the variety of options which are presently available. However, the pre-pharmacy student would by the nature of the computer's rationale have been prevented from registering as he did. This, in effect strips the individual of his autonomy and leaves decision making to the impersonal binary determination of a computer. Thus, an efficient and "fair" operation may well be in conflict with values commonly mis-labeled "humanistic", i.e. respect for individual autonomy, freedom or sovereignty.

Issue #2: Collegial Autonomy

Departmental Objections

Although even the broad outline of proposed computerized systems had never

been explicated, administrative officials of many colleges and departments voiced concern during interviews that their autonomy in making registration related decisions was threatened by the introduction of computer registration. Their concerns were usually expressed in terms of the uniqueness of their student population, that "our students have different kinds of problems than others, and therefore we attempt to tailor our procedures for them" (i.e. Education seniors often have supervised teaching time commitments around which they must add schedules.) In at least one case, variant procedures were rationalized on the basis of the need to exercise unit autonomy. "We were the first to use an alphabet system (for ordering sequence of student registration), why should we change our alphabet order to match CLA's decision." In a few cases at the departmental level, computerized registration was seen as a way in which the central administration would be able to put pressure on departments to offer courses on a student "demand" basis which may be contrary to department desires. Vast variability exists between departments in their acceptance of the premise that class offerings should reflect student demand. Whatever the legal, historical or logical basis of the desire for unit autonomy in this matter may be, it must be recognized in the implementation of any new system. The imposition of any rigid centralized plan could result in the proliferation of a dual registration system, i.e. a special system for the members of a collegial unit and then a pro forma replication of the activity for the all University registration. Presently, versions of a dual system takes place in the Business School with its closed 3-day registration program and in early registration in several schools on the St. Paul campus. Obviously, such practices would negate much of the justification in terms of cost and time saving for the implementation of a computerized system.

It is apparent, however, that even under the present system, there is the need for improved articulation of decisions made by sub-system administrative units. This may mean the development of a specialized role within central administration with sufficient authority to enforce binding arbitration of differences of registration procedures. Such a role is especially important in cases where disagreements result in difficulties for students. How can one justify the necessity of a student fortunate enough to have an early registration date in one collegiate unit returning to the campus at a later time in order to register for a class in another unit merely because of differing registration procedures?

Issue #3

Mythology of Registration

One of the early beliefs about University life engrained into the incoming student is the idea of the difficulties to be experienced in registration. The catalogue of these reputed difficulties includes long lines, closed classes, much waiting, inordinate amounts of walking from building to building, office to office, to be confronted by unavailable or unknowledgeable advisors and unresponsive bureaucrats. The data does not support this view of the process. However, a basic element of the popular view of the university concerns the difficulty of registration. Several years ago, in a study of orientation programs, it was noted by this author that entering freshmen were so overwhelmingly concerned about registration, that the value of other orientation activities was essentially mitigated. In most cases, the incoming student arrived with this concern, but the orientation session, aimed at assisting the neophyte to learn about the University, however well intentioned, contained many references about University bureaucracy in general and registration difficulties in particular. Tips on how to make registration easier at minimum imply that the process is difficult.

Whatever the historical basis of the belief, in the course of the present study few long lines were observed and generally there was a conscious effort on the part of University staff members involved in registration to assist students by pointing out alternatives when problems arose. This was noted especially in the class reservation room of CLA where workers were generous in offering information about classes which might be substituted when a desired class or section was unavailable. This is not to deny that the process involves delays and difficulties for some. However, the data indicate that the view of registration as an ordeal of serious magnitude cannot be accepted.

The myth is, however, carefully perpetuated, and passed on to each incoming cohort of students. One may then seriously question if there might be some functional basis for the emergence and perpetuation of this myth. The act of registering represents a clear-cut social statement which affirms and reaffirms membership in that social category labeled "student". In American society, membership in this social status is still largely achieved, not ascribed. Therefore, it becomes essential to have social markers which publicly state this special status. Passing through the real or imagined ordeal of registration represents such a marker and becomes a functional requirement.

Ritualized events which provide public statements of an individual's changing social status are generally categorized as rites of passage. Although events falling under this rubric are usually thought of as traditional life crisis activities such as pubescence or marriage, registration clearly falls within the criteria of this concept. It is a life crisis, because the initial act of registering represents a major shift in status to inclusion in a well-defined and separate social category distinct from that formerly occupied by the individual and a status that others have not achieved. Subsequent registrations reaffirm this status. Van Gennap's (1960)

classic analysis of ritualized crisis events (Rites of Passage) distinguished three major phases: separation, transition, and incorporation. Clearly, registration falls within the scope of incorporative activities of this conceptualization.

From this point of view, registration takes on a social meaning clearly outside that of the technical act of establishing a contractual arrangement between the individual and the University. The genesis of difficulties experienced in registration may well have risen out of faulty technical acts, but the necessity for perpetuating a myth imputing special ordeal-like characteristics to the process may well stem from the social significance of the act.

Chapple (1942) has made a further clarifying distinction between rites of initiation and rites of intensification. Initiation rites are activities focusing on change conditions of individuals while intensification rites deal with systemic changes. "This acting out of the ordered interaction of the members has the effect of reinforcing or intensifying their habitual relations, and thus serves to maintain their conditioned responses (507)... Rites of intensification make up the great periodic ceremonies of a society... which provide the framework in which the interaction of the institution is to a large extent ordered and controlled (508)." Thus, registration can be viewed as a rite of passage from a student point of view as he marks with a social act his special status as a student. It is also a rite of intensification because it is a cyclical activity which restores systemic equilibrium. Students are required to relate to University bureaucracy in prescribed ways, departments must coordinate their activities to other departments and to their college administration and on the collegial level, individual units who normally never or seldom communicate or articulate in any way are forced to do so during the course of these activities.

With these views in mind, we are in a position to question the consequences of a major change in institutional behavior which computerization portends.

If students are viewed by both themselves and wider society as a distinct social category (without necessarily attaching any hierarchical connotation to this distinction), the induction into this category must be marked by having performed some special act or achieved some special knowledge. Part of the mythology of a difficult registration undoubtedly stems from students' needs to believe they have passed through something special. While registration is not the only social marker of studenthood, it is an action which can be pointed to as singularly demarcating an individual as a participant in this category. In this light, it is more than just idle speculation to question the social consequences of removing the ritualistic activities involved in registration.

Whatever the rhetoric to the contrary, University membership is indeed a separate if not elite social category, and the achievement of new statuses is inevitably marked by special activities. What will emerge to substitute for registration as the significant social event it now is? Admittedly, computerized registration is still an event, but the logic of efficiency is to make it as undisturbing an event as possible. Without such marking and the sense of having achieved a special status, then the boundaries of membership in this category become so diffuse that recruitment and retention become difficult. On a practical level, the concern over student attrition at the collegiate level is intimately tied with this conceptualization. Demonstrable shifts in University attendance patterns in the past decade have taken place as illustrated by the social acceptance if not ideal of dropping out "to get my head together" or to take some time to "mellow out."

Issue #4

Registration as a Socialization Procedure

We have noted that the cyclical nature of registration with the life of the University provides a periodic coalescence of certain types of systemic activities which function as rites of passage and rites of intensification. A further function of these activities is that of socializing the individual to the norms and values of the institution. Under the present system at registration time, the student is required to interact with many more parts of the University structure than is necessary in the normal course of class activity. In the course of doing so he learns much about institutional assumptions concerning students' positions within the structure and expected behavior norms.

For the most part, official and public administrative postures are clearly spelled out in various regulations, rules, and even the physical layout of the reservation process. Yet one is struck by the amount of deviance from these rules that take place. An examination of the kinds of discrepancies that exist indicates much of the operational value system of the institution which is encoded within the student each time he registers.

College catalogues list a set of prerequisites for enrollment in any class. Yet at no place in the current registration process is there a check to see if the individual fulfills the listed prerequisites. Typically, administrators and faculty feel that merely listing them in the catalogue is sufficient to indicate to students the level of preparation expected. If the student chooses to ignore these prerequisites, he does so at his own risk. Yet it is common knowledge among students and faculty alike that the prerequisites are neither enforced nor directly enforceable. The attentive individual quickly learns that bluff, aggressiveness or chutzpah pays off. As one departmental secretary said, "There are always ways for a

student to accomplish anything if he is willing to walk and talk long enough. The ones I feel sorry for are those who follow the rules to the letter or are too timid to ask. Those are the ones that I will usually give tips to about ways of getting around the rules." The philosophy student cited previously was able to circumvent the rules only with the tacit approval of a good many people along the line.

The University of Minnesota is a large and bureaucratic institution. Its very size at once creates an environment of great potential resources but immense social scale. One successful survival strategy is to utilize the inevitable interstices within the bureaucratic structure. These fissures include lack of communication between various offices and units, lack of clear cut boundaries of unit responsibility, and disjuncture of rules between the units. One technique is playing off one against the other. Another is to ignore the rules of one unit that subsequent units contacted assume is not their responsibility. While a variety of opportunities exists to do this during the course of a student's career, it is during registration that the process is collapsed. Registration provides a periodic short course in this method of survival and its attendant premises.

The recognition of the implicit expectation that some, if not many, students are at minimum bending the overt procedural rules was expressed by a CIA department chairman. "There is a fiction of the necessity of following rules (in the registration process). The listing of prerequisites contributes to this myth. In some senses, the myth that we are all following the rules is the glue that keeps the whole place together."

Earlier we have indicated the inherent contradiction possible if in our zeal to become efficient the registration process is to be rigidified so that students who are now able to solve their problems themselves are forced into seeking additional adjudicatory help. This contradiction emerges at another

level if we consider registration procedures as latent educative devices in learning individual autonomy and self-direction. In the example of the pre-pharmacy student his individual judgment that he could register for classes in overlapping class times would, by the very nature of the definition of the problem or the nature of the purpose of the computer's assistance, have been ruled out. A question arises over the effect of stripping the individual student of his autonomy and leaving the decision to a computer.

As it is now carried out, during registration most students visit individuals and offices at locations within the University which they ordinarily do not contact. In a sense, it momentarily, but periodically, requires the individual to expand his social and physical space within the institution. However inefficient such a process of learning and relearning about the University may be, it functionally accomplishes this end. Moves to further isolate and mechanize individual student relations with the University bureaucracy as exemplified by the proposed computerization of registration may be counter-productive to other attempts to develop programs to ameliorate this very real problem of social and physical isolation among numbers of students.

Conclusion

One of the reasons for the implementation of a computerized system of registration has been that it would make the process easier for the student. It is a common belief that the present system involves students in undue delays and inequalities. Whatever the basis for this belief in the past, this study of registration for fall quarter 1973 did not reveal this to be an accurate view of the situation. Even if the time individuals must presently devote were to be shortened, it would be necessary to demonstrate that a more mechanistic system would not be dysfunctional to other valued attributes of the institution-

student relationship. As a social process, registration was viewed in this paper to possess important functional attributes in incorporating members and educating them into many implicit, but operative, values within the institution. Questions have been raised as to the potential impact on the institution's social life with the introduction of a major change in student-administrative relationships.

Appreciation is noted to Carol Swenson and Brian Phyle for their assistance in data collection and compilation.

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TABLE 1
TIME REQUIREMENTS

	HOURS SPENT REGISTERING	HOURS SPENT DECIDING ON COURSES
No response	.6%	11.0%
Less than 1 hour	13.5	38.1
1-3 hours	47.7	31.6
3-5 hours	14.8	9.7
5-6 hours	7.7	- -
6+ hours	15.5	9.6
	———	———
	100.0%	100.0%

NOTE: Percentages refer to number of total sample reporting this category. N=155

TABLE II

SPECIFIC TIME REQUIREMENTS

TIME SPENT:

	Getting Registration Materials	Seeing Advisor	Getting Special Approval	In Class Reserva- tion Process	Reserving Classes in Other Colleges
NO RESPONSE	12.9%	7.7***	26.5***	9.0	22.6***
1-15 minutes	45.2	18.7	11.0	57.4	11.0
15-30 minutes	14.8	15.5	3.2	20.0	7.7
31-45 minutes	1.3	8.4	2.6	.3.9	0
46-60 minutes	10.3	3.2	3.9	6.5	1.3
61+ minutes	7.7	8.4	4.5	2.6	.6
NONE REQUIRED	-	-	48.4	.6	56.8
DON'T SPEND TIME WITH ADVISOR*	-	38.1	-	-	-
OBTAINED AT ORIENTATION **	7.7	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Applicable to column 2

N=155

** Applicable to column 1

*** Probably the majority of these responses are in reality part of "none required."

TABLE III
SOURCES OF SCHEDULING CONFLICT

Time conflict with other classes.....	4.5%
Time conflict with personal schedule..	3.0%
Class closed.....	39.0%
Other.....	4.0%
No conflict or not applicable.....	64.5%

N=154

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

COUNTER INFLUENCE AND COUNSELOR EFFECTIVENESS

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Abstract

A counseling analogue study was conducted to determine the effects on counselor influence of counter influence on the client from another influence agent. Two hypotheses were tested: 1) Attitudes which have been previously supported by an attractive influence agent will be more resistant to change than attitudes not so supported. 2) An interviewer will obtain more attitude change when the status differential between himself and a counter influence agent is in his favor than when the status differential favors the counter influence agent. Influence was assessed by changes in self-ratings of achievement motivation by 62 college males. Subjects' ratings were made three days before, immediately after, and one week after a simulated counseling interview in which an interviewer attempted to change their ratings. Significantly less change was found for the subjects receiving counter influence than for those not receiving such support. Differences between interviewer status conditions were not significant. Results were interpreted in terms of a two-stage approach to counseling and psychotherapy.

Counter Influence and Counselor Effectiveness

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Social influence studies of counseling process have identified some aspects of the counselor's role which determine a counselor's influence on the client including expertness (Strong and Schmidt, 1970a), attractiveness (Schmidt and Strong, 1971), expertness/attractiveness (Strong and Dixon, 1971), credibility (Binderman, Fretz, Scott and Abrams, 1972), self-confidence (Lin, Tien Teh, 1973), trustworthiness (Strong and Schmidt, 1970b), (Kaul and Schmidt, 1971).

Other variables, not directly related to the counselor's characteristics and behavior, may have important effects on the counselor's ability to influence a client. One such variable is prior or concurrent influence on the client from other influence agents. When a client comes to a counselor, the counselor may be only one of several influential people in the client's life. While sometimes other individuals may support the counselor's efforts, at other times they may support and "anchor" a client's maladaptive attitudes and habits. For example, a client's parents may be pressuring him to make an inappropriate vocational choice. When the influence of another agent contradicts the counselor's influence, it can be termed a counter influence. The effects of such counter influence are the focus of the present study.

Several studies in the social psychology literature have concluded that counter influence impedes attitude change (Bennett, 1955; Schacter and Hall, 1952). Strong and Matross (1973) contend that a similar inhibition of influence occurs in counseling and therapy settings when counter influence is present. They suggest that asking a client to change an anchored attitude involves asking him to change not only the attitude in question but also attitudes toward the counter influence agent. Because the requested change is greater, the client should oppose the influence attempt more than if his opinion were not anchored by counter influence.

The impartial, expert status of the counselor may be an important factor when his influence is competing with the influence of another person. Previous studies suggest that when two influence agents are competing, their relative status may decide whose influence succeeds. For example, Kelley (1955) concluded that any attempt by an agent to change an individual's attitudes to make them deviate from those of a reference group places him in conflict. Such an attempt is less effective the more salient or important the reference group is for him. Mausner (1953) found that an individual who had prestige and expertise was more influential than a peer when the two offered competing influence. The situation in Mausner's study may be analogous to circumstances where a prestigious expert counselor is competing with influence from a client's friend or peer group.

The present study examines two hypotheses: (1) An attitude previously anchored by a counter influence agent will be more resistant to change than an attitude not so anchored; (2) A change agent will produce more change of an anchored attitude when he is an expert and the counter influence agent is an inexpert than when he is an inexpert and the counter influence agent is an expert.

Method

Subjects

Subjects were 62 male volunteers from introductory psychology courses in the College of Liberal Arts, University of Minnesota. They received points applying to their course grade for their participation. The median age of the subjects was 20 years, with six subjects 24 years or older.

Design and Procedures

Independent variables were (1) two anchorage conditions: anchored (counter influence interview preceding change interview) and unanchored (change interview only); (2) two status differential conditions: counter influence interviewer as

expert, change interviewer as inexperienced and counter influence interviewer as inexperienced, change interviewer as expert; and (3) two interviewers. The three variables were crossed yielding eight experimental conditions.

Each subject took part in three sessions. Subjects for the anchored and unanchored conditions were solicited separately but concurrently. Both groups were informed that the basic purpose of the study was to investigate factors which affect the accuracy of self-estimates of achievement motivation. They were told that previous research had shown students' self-estimates to be inaccurate, even though accurate self-estimates were important to educational and vocational success. Subjects were further informed that the specific focus on this experiment was to determine the operative factors in a short psychodiagnostic interview which was previously found to be highly useful in improving the accuracy of students' self-estimates of achievement motivation. The stated purpose of this study was to explore whether the success of the interview procedure was due to the skills of the interviewer or to the opportunity afforded students for self-examination. To evaluate this issue, comparisons would be made between interviews conducted by experienced Ph.D. psychologists and by inexperienced graduate students. Subjects were to try to improve their self-ratings of their achievement motivation and to evaluate the interviewer. The only difference between the advertisements for the anchored and unanchored subject groups was in the number of interviews required: anchored subjects were told they would have two interviews, one with a Ph.D. psychologist and the other with an inexperienced graduate student while unanchored students were told that they would have only one interview, with either a Ph.D. or a graduate student.

Session One: Unanchored Subjects

Unanchored subjects were met in several small groups by a receptionist. After being reminded of the purpose of the experiment, they completed an Achievement Motivation Self-Rating Scale (pre-rating). The Achievement Motivation Self-Rating Scale asked subjects to rate their level of achievement motivation compared to other college men on a stanine scale adapted from Poland (1963). The stanine units were marked on a normal curve on which were noted the expected percent of ratings within each stanine and a descriptive phrase for each stanine ranging from: "very much less" (1) to "very much more" (9).

Session One: Anchored Subjects

Anchored subjects made individual appointments for the first session. A receptionist greeted each subject, reminded him of the purpose of the study, and gave him the Achievement Motivation Self-Rating Scale to complete (pre-rating). When the subject had completed his self-rating, the receptionist gave his form to the experimenter, who assigned the subject to an experimental condition. Within the anchored and unanchored conditions, subjects were assigned to experimental conditions randomly within rating levels so as to achieve balanced cells. The number of subjects in each cell ranged from seven to nine. Pre-ratings by anchor-age condition, status differential, and interviewer yielded no significant differences.

After condition assignment, the receptionist then gave the subject a type-written introduction to the interview. The introduction stated that the interview consisted of a discussion of the subject's achievement motivation in the context of his academic and extracurricular experiences in high school and college. For the inexpert condition, the introduction read: "Your interview will be with (no title) _____, a first year graduate student in psychology who has offered to participate in this study." For the expert condition,

the form read: "Your interview will be with Dr. _____, a psychologist with several years experience in diagnostic interviewing with college students." Having read the introduction, each subject was directed to the interviewer's office. The office was equipped with standard office furnishings, including bookcases and dictating machine. For the expert condition, on the interviewer's desk was a nameplate identifying him as "Dr. _____," and several psychology journals and books. These items were removed for the inexpert condition.

Interviewers were two male advanced graduate students in counseling psychology who received 12 hours of training. Interviewers portrayed the attractive role developed by Schmidt and Strong (1971). In training, the interviewers reviewed and discussed the role description and practiced portraying the role with naive subjects. The role stressed apparent liking and similarity, central factors in interpersonal attraction (Berscheid and Walster, 1969; Jones and Gerard, 1967). The interviewer introduced himself by his first and last name (no title), shook the subject's hand, showed him into the office, offered him a chair, and made friendly comments such as "I see you found Student Life Studies all right." He sat down in his chair, leaned forward, and moved toward the subject. He was responsive to the subject, looking and smiling at him. In the interview he indicated four times that he liked the same things the subject liked. He was enthusiastic and skillful in things important to the subject such as sports, college major, politics, courses, and hobbies. At the end of the interview, the interviewer indicated he had enjoyed talking with the subject and thanked him for his participation.

The substance of the interview consisted of the subject's elaboration of specific incidents from his life which would indicate his level of achievement motivation. The interviewer would interject comments and questions as necessary so that approximately equal numbers of incidents of high and low achievement were

discussed. After 16 minutes the interviewer ended the discussion, commenting that he had gained an understanding of the subject's achievement motivation.

The interviewer then asked the subject how he would rate his achievement motivation compared to other college men. After the subject stated his rating, the interviewer said, "Uhummmmm, I can see that. You know, just in talking with you and comparing what you have told me with what other male college students have told me, my opinion would be that you have _____ achievement motivation than other college men." The interviewer inserted the descriptive phrase from the stanine self-rating scale which the client had endorsed just prior to the interview. The interviewer then gave a one-minute rationale for his rating, citing examples from the interview which supported his opinion. He closed the interview stating, "I enjoyed talking with you today and appreciate your help in our research study."

Following the interview, the subject returned to the reception area and completed 3 questionnaires: (a) the Achievement Motivation Self-Rating Scale; (b) and Interviewer Reaction Questionnaire with 30 true-false items covering the interviewer's characteristics, and (c) a 100 item Adjective Check List on which subjects rated how descriptive each adjective was of the interviewer. An analysis of variance by introduction and interviewer of changes in achievement motivation self-ratings from immediately before to immediately after the anchoring interviews yielded no significant differences.

Session Two: All Subjects

In the second session, both the anchored and the unanchored groups received an interview intended to change their self-ratings of achievement motivation. Subjects were taken to the interview as soon as they reported. Again, the interviewer was introduced as an experienced Ph.D. psychologist or as an inexperienced graduate student. Each anchored subject received an interviewer and interviewer

introduction different from the first (anchorage) interview. If a subject's anchorage interviewer had been introduced as an expert, his "change" interviewer was introduced as an inexperienced and vice versa.

The change interview was the same as the anchorage interview except for the four minute influence attempt at the end. Instead of agreeing with the subject's rating of his achievement motivation, the interviewer presented an opinion of the subject's achievement motivation level which was three stanine units below the subject's initial rating. If the initial anchored rating did not allow for this (three or lower) the change attempt was directed three stanine units higher than the initial anchored rating. This contingency was necessary for only two subjects.

Following the interview, all subjects completed the Achievement Motivation Self-Rating Scale (post-rating), and evaluated the interviewer on the Interview Reaction Questionnaire and Adjective Check List. A third and final session was scheduled for seven days later.

Session Three: All Subjects

In the third session all subjects rated their achievement motivation for a final time (follow-up rating) and completed an Awareness Questionnaire with two open-ended questions: "The purpose of this study was....." and "My evidence for this is....." In addition, subjects in the unanchored conditions completed an Interview Impressions Questionnaire on which they briefly described two characteristics which they considered important about both their interview and their interviewer. Subjects in the anchored conditions completed an Interview Comparison Form on which they stated which of their interviewers they preferred in terms of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. After subjects completed these questionnaires, they were given a thorough explanation of the purposes and procedures of the experiment.

A content analysis of responses to the items on the Awareness Questionnaire indicated that 50 out of the 62 subjects perceived either no influence attempt or genuine assessments of their achievement motivation by their interviewer(s). Twelve subjects reported that the study involved an artificial attempt to influence their ratings of achievement motivation in a predetermined direction. A chi square analysis indicated no relationship between awareness and anchorage, introduction, or interviewer treatments.

Results

The Rating Scales

Means of the subjects' self-ratings of achievement motivation in the first session (pre-rating), immediately following the change interview (post-rating), and a week following the change interview (follow-up rating) and 5.95, 5.06, and 5.21, respectively. Standard deviations are 1.49, 1.48, and 1.45, respectively. Scores on the pre-rating were moderately correlated with scores on the post-rating and follow-up rating ($r = .62$ and $r = .68$, respectively). The correlation between the post-rating and the follow-up rating was considerably higher ($r = .92$). This pattern of correlations suggests that the change interview (coming after the pre-rating and before the post-rating and follow-up rating) affected the stability of subjects' perceptions and self-ratings of their achievement motivation.

Changes in Self-Rating

Achievement motivation change scores were calculated by (a) finding the absolute difference between the pre-rating and post-rating (immediate change) and between the pre-rating and follow-up rating (delayed change) and, (b) assigning a positive sign when the change was in the direction of the influence attempt and a negative sign when the change was in the opposite direction. Means and standard deviations for immediate change scores (pre-rating minus post-rating) and delayed change scores (pre-rating minus follow-up rating) are presented in Table One.

insert Table I about here

Mean immediate change scores (pre-rating minus post-rating) for the anchored conditions, ranging from $\bar{X} = .67$ to $\bar{X} = 1.13$, were uniformly lower than corresponding mean scores for the unanchored conditions ranging from $\bar{X} = 1.13$ to $\bar{X} = 1.89$. While means for both the immediate change scores (pre-rating minus post-rating) and delayed change scores (pre-rating minus follow-up rating) for Interviewer A's expert anchored condition were higher than the means for his inexpert anchored condition (expert \bar{X} 's = 1.13 and .88; inexpert \bar{X} 's = .78 and .67 for immediate and delayed change scores respectively), Interviewer B produced more change when introduced as an inexpert than when introduced as an expert (inexpert \bar{X} 's = .75 and .25 for immediate and delayed change scores respectively). The 8 standard deviations for Interviewer A ranged from SD = 1.00 to SD = 1.11. The variability of Interviewer B's change scores was greater for the inexpert introduction (SD = 1.06 to SD = 1.50) than for the expert introduction (SD = .35 to SD = .71).

Table Two presents the results of an analysis of variance by orthogonal contrasts for immediate (pre-rating minus post-rating) and delayed (pre-rating minus follow-up rating) change scores.

insert Table 2 about here

The anchored vs. unanchored condition contrast tests the hypothesis that attitudes anchored by counter influence will be more resistant to change than attitudes not so anchored. For the immediate change scores the difference between the anchored and unanchored values approached statistical significance ($p \leq .08$) while for the delayed change scores the difference between the anchored and unanchored values was highly significant ($p = .006$).

The expert vs. inexpert within the anchorage condition contrast tests the hypothesis that an interviewer will produce more change of an anchored attitude when the status differential between himself and the anchoring agent is in his favor than when it is not. Differences between the status combinations within the anchored condition were not significant for either immediate ($p = .75$) or delayed ($p = .85$) change scores. The differences between expert and inexpert status for the unanchored group were not significant for either immediate ($p = .59$) or delayed ($p = .79$) change scores. Interviewer differences across all conditions were not significant for either immediate ($p = .41$) or delayed ($p = .20$) change scores.

Perceptual Effects

In a chi-square analysis, two of the 30 items on the Interview Reaction Questionnaire from the change interview reflected significant differences in subject reaction to the anchored and unanchored conditions. Unanchored subjects viewed their interviewers as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more similar to themselves and less opinionated than did the anchored subjects. No adjectives reflected significant ($p \leq .05$) differences between subjects receiving different interviewers or between subjects receiving the expert or inexpert role introductions for the change interview.

In analysis of variance by orthogonal contrasts of the 100 item Adjective Check List subjects' reaction to their interviewers differed significantly ($p \leq .05$) between the anchored and unanchored conditions on 15 items. In the anchored condition the interviewers were described as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more aggressive and dominant than they were in the unanchored conditions, but less sociable, serious, non-critical, logical, casual, accepting, cheerful, polite, agreeable, interested, patient, considerate, and friendly.

Within the anchored condition no items from the Interview Reaction Questionnaire reflected differences in ratings between the two interviewer status combinations. Thirteen items from the Adjective Check List reflected significant differences in ratings between those subjects who received an inexperienced counter influence agent followed by an expert change agent and those who received the expert counter influence agent followed by an inexperienced change agent. The expert change interviewer was rated as significantly ($p \leq .05$) less inaccurate and distractable and more knowledgeable, calm, skillful, poised, interesting, capable, motivated, responsible, accurate, intellectual, and understandable than the inexperienced change interviewer.

When counter influence was not present (unanchored condition) none of the Interview Reaction Questionnaire items and only four adjectives reflected significant differences between subjects receiving expert and inexperienced interviewers. Within the unanchored group, the expert was rated as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more orderly and less inquisitive, impulsive, and persevering than the inexperienced. None of the Interview Reaction Questionnaire items reflected significant differences in ratings between interviewers. Interviewer differences were significant ($p \leq .05$) on five items of the Adjective Check List for the change interview. Interviewer A was rated as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more outgoing and aggressive, and less humorless, passive and tolerant than Interviewer B. No Interview Comparison Questionnaire statements provided significant ($p \leq .05$) chi square differences between interviewers or between expert anchor - inexperienced change against inexperienced anchor - expert change conditions.

Interactions between interviewer and introduction were observed on two adjectives. Interviewer A as an inexperienced and Interviewer B as an expert were rated as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more intellectual and decisive than they were with the

opposite introduction. Three adjectives reflected interactions between interviewer and anchorage. Interviewer A in the anchored condition and Interviewer B in the unanchored condition were rated as significantly ($p \leq .05$) less boastful and more active and cautious than they were in the opposite conditions. Three-way interactions among interviewer, introduction, and anchorage conditions were obtained for six adjectives: polite, serious, cautious, inquisitive, controlled, outgoing, and considerate.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that the presence of the counter influence agent makes the counselor's task considerably more difficult than it would otherwise be. When an attractive individual was supporting the subject's attitude, that attitude was much more resistant to stable change. Moreover, the interviewers were perceived more negatively when they were attempting to change an anchored attitude than when they were attempting to change an unanchored attitude. Anchored subjects portrayed their change interviewers as generally more domineering and less pleasant and understanding than did unanchored subjects. Anchored subjects were not quite so critical of the change counselor when he had more status than the counter influence agent. The favorable status differential, however, did not significantly add to the change interviewer's ability to overcome prior counter influence.

Counter influence anchorage tended to erode initial change. The immediate changes induced in the anchored condition faded more during the week following the change interview than did the changes induced in the unanchored conditions. Those who changed their opinions initially were more likely to revert to their original position when that original position had been previously confirmed by an attractive person. Endowing the interviewers with high status did not prevent the attenuation of their influence in the face of counter influence. The major implication of this finding is that counselors need to develop ways of recognizing

and dealing with counter influence. When a client's problem behavior is being supported by a friend, a parent, or a reference group, it would appear unwise for the counselor to try to change that behavior immediately. If the counselor does produce immediate change in the face of counter influence, there is a good chance that the change will not be stable.

The results suggest the utility of a two-phase approach for changing problem attitudes and behaviors. Variations of a two-phase model have been offered by Carkhuff (1966), Strong (1968), Levy and House (1970), and Strong and Matross (1973). Each of these proposals has in common the basic proposition that a counselor should first establish conditions which will maximize the client's acceptance of a major change. The second phase, changing the client's major maladaptive attitude or behavior, is attempted only after a groundwork maximally conducive to these changes has been established. Strong and Matross have described first-phase influence procedures as "process strategies", designed to establish the counselor's influence power and to reduce those factors which are preventing the client from changing. Applied to the counter influence situation, the two-phase approach would involve taking action to reduce the strength of the counter influence anchorage. The need for these preparatory actions is indicated by the inability of interviewers in the present study to overcome the counter influence.

Possible process strategies for reducing counter influence anchorage include "radical" procedures such as derogating the counter influence or isolating the client from the counter influence agents, an approach used with some success by some drug rehabilitation programs. "Softer" approaches include introducing a client to a new reference group or person or aligning oneself with the counter influence agent, perhaps by pointing out that the counter influence agent would not be opposed to counselor recommended change if he just possessed as many facts about the client's situation. Information on the relative effectiveness of such techniques might be gained as part of a broader research effort to identify and operate on factors preventing constructive client change.

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TABLE I

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CHANGE SCORES^a BY ANCHORAGE, ROLE, AND INTERVIEWER CELLS FOR CHANGE INTERVIEW

ANCHORAGE AND ROLE	INTERVIEWER A					INTERVIEWER B				
	n	D1 ^b		D2 ^c		n	D1 ^b		D2 ^c	
		M	SD	M	SD		M	SD	M	SD
ANCHORED:										
--Inexpert	9	.78	1.09	.67	1.00	8	.88	1.46	.63	1.06
--Expert	8	1.13	1.25	.88	.99	8	.75	.71	.25	.46
UNANCHORED:										
--Inexpert	7	1.29	1.11	1.29	1.11	7	1.29	1.50	1.29	1.38
--Expert	7	1.89	1.07	1.71	1.11	8	1.13	.35	1.00	.53

a - Stanine Units

b - D1 = Difference between ratings taken prior to any interviews (SR1) and subsequent to the attitude change interview (SR2).

c - D2 = Difference between ratings taken prior to any interviews (SR1) and a follow-up rating taken seven days after the change interview (SR3).

TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF CHANGE SCORES^a BY ORTHOGONAL CONTRASTS
ON ANCHORAGE BY ROLE BY INTERVIEWER CELL MEANS AND INTERACTIONS

SOURCE	df	D1 ^b			D2 ^c		
		MS	F	p	MS	F	p
Anchored vs. unanchored	1	3.95	3.16	.08	7.92	8.14	.006
Expert vs. inexpert, with- in anchorage condition	1	.13	.10	.75	.03	.03	.85
Expert vs. inexpert, with- in nonanchorage condition	1	.36	.29	.59	.07	.07	.79
Interviewer	1	.83	.66	.41	1.61	1.65	.20
Interviewer by role	1	1.36	1.09	.30	1.61	1.65	.20
Interviewer by anchorage	1	.23	.19	.67	.01	.01	.93
Role by anchorage	1	.02	.01	.91	.07	.07	.79
Interviewer by role by anchorage	1	.06	.05	.82	.02	.02	.90
ANOVA Error	54	1.25			.97		

a = Stanine units

b - D1 = Difference between ratings taken prior to any interviews (SR1)
and subsequent to the attitude change interview (SR2).

c - D2 = Difference between ratings taken prior to any interviews (SR1)
and a follow-up rating taken seven days after the change interview (SR3).

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Office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

ADULT AT 18

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Educational institutions, particularly colleges and universities will be affected by the change in status of 18-21 year olds legally. In Federal elections nationwide, they have been given the right to vote. In about one-half of the states in the nation they have been enfranchised as legal adults. The full implications of this change of status for this age group have yet to be realized in society, and in institutions of higher education. Some of the possible ramifications resulting from this change of status are examined in this paper and some suggestions are offered for adjusting to this change by colleges and universities.

ADULT AT 18

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Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

In the State of Minnesota and in about one-half of the other states, the legislatures have passed laws making people 18 years old and above legal adults. What the total effect of this change will be is yet to be realized in most of the existing societal structures and institutions including colleges and universities. At the present, things seem to be much as they have been. Parietal rules affecting the lives of college students are changed little, if at all. The student personnel staff of most colleges function much as they have in the recent past, aware of change but basically committed to the operational approach of maintaining the status quo. The general feeling is that the problem of the change in the legal status of most college students will be faced only when a problem arises, at which time it will be looked into. This paper will discuss the significance of the change in the legal status of 18-21 year olds, and the possible effects this change might have on student personnel work.

The approach described above may be comforting, even typical. It may, however, be highly questionable, because the assumptions upon which such an approach rests no longer pertain where the law has been changed. The first assumption is rooted in the term adolescent. This is the period of time when a child ceases to be a child and enters into a period of initiation and is processed into adulthood. In the United States, these years have traditionally been defined as age 12-13 to age 21. During this period of years an adolescent breaks away from family ties, begins to define his or her own identity, relates to

institutions including educational institutions and legal institutions differently, and is generally processed toward the time when he or she is considered an adult both legally and socially.

As David Bahan has pointed out, the concept of adolescence is an American idea, presented by G. Stanley Hall in a two-volume work entitled Adolescence. Bahan attributes to Hall the idea of adolescence as a special stage of development. (David Bahan, "Adolescence in America," Daedalus, Fall, 1971, 979-995).

A considerable amount of ambiguity persists in this rites of passage process. Delayed gratification is a constant, with both societal and legal restrictions, as well as family norms that restrict what an adolescent can acceptably do. On the parents' side, "No child of mine...", often heralds some sort of clash between family norms and adolescent behavior. On the side of the young, "...but all the kids are doing it, have one, etc.," is the cry of the embattled teenager who is seeking relief from a family or societal norm that impinges on his behavior or desires.

From a societal viewpoint, certain behaviors are ruled out-of-bounds specifically. An adolescent must remain in school until age 16, cannot legally drive an automobile until age 16, cannot marry without parental consent until age 18, cannot drink alcoholic beverages, contract a debt or be bonded until of legal age, and has a special status in the law as a juvenile, thereby receiving different treatment under arrest and charge both by law enforcement agencies and the courts. The term "juvenile offender" designates a class of law violators who are not of legal age and who are treated differently.

In terms of societal expectations, work for pay is also restricted by age requirements, and only certain types of money-earning means are open to young people under the age of 16. At the same time, young people in the middle adolescent years are urged to begin to think about vocational choices, and what they want to do "in the future" (more commonly, "when you grow up"). At this point, certain expectations begin to intrude into those middle years of adolescence. Do I go

to college? Do I go to work? The implicit dichotomy is interesting. If a young person does not choose to enter the work force or the military, several months to four or more years of additional education are inserted into his or her life. A choice of a business college, vocational school, community college, or four-year college is looked upon as "not working" (an adult activity), and the role of a student in some sort of educational institution is thus societally defined as "a student is someone in late adolescence who does not work." Are you working or are you going to college? How often has a young person of 18 to 22 had to answer this question as though the categories "work" and "student" are somehow mutually exclusive? This problem has recently been examined in a study by Glenn Hendricks and Carole Zimbrott, "Defining a Student: Social Perceptions of Studenthood," Office for Student Affairs Research Bulletin, Volume 13, Number 12, May 23, 1973, University of Minnesota. About one-third of college age young people actually select further education after high school and self-define themselves by this selection as students or college students.

For those who make this selection to enter post-high school educational institutions, not only is delayed gratification (not marrying, not working for wages "full-time", etc.) a given, but another societal norm intrudes itself, extended adolescence. Upon arrival at many educational institutions, certain behavioral expectations are set forth as acceptable within that institution. In the more extreme forms, these include dormitory hours for all dormitory residents with special hours for freshmen. No alcohol, food or pets in dormitory rooms, no automobiles on campus, "dressing" for the evening meal (ties for men, dresses for the women), a "cut" system of class attendance, required seating in classrooms, and in some instances required attendance at on-campus religious services. Visiting in dormitory rooms by members of the opposite sex is either forbidden entirely or severely restricted and monitored. "Lights out" and room checks are also common, as well as a whole host of campus rules and requirements usually included in a student handbook. These rules function as a disciplinary

code of conduct by which student behavior is judged. Serious breaches of the conduct code may lead to probation, suspension or expulsion. Even in liberal institutions which have considerably modified conduct codes and behavioral expectations, much of the attitude still prevails as either parietal rules (minimal) or as a part of parentalism, i.e. the welfare of the student is somehow not only of concern to us, but we (the more liberal institution) are responsible to "develop the whole person," and this requires that we all learn to live together acceptably, if not harmoniously. We do not have rules; we do have expectations. We expect our students to act responsibly. Since the "we" of such liberal institutions is an editorial or impersonal designation, the ambiguity in the role of a student in such an institution is heightened in a role definition that is already ambiguous as pointed out by Hendricks and Zimbrott (see above, p.3). But what is irresponsible? What are the sanctions applied for those who are judged to have acted irresponsibly?

Suddenly, what was once the battle cry of the recent advocacy activist period of 1964-1972 is a fact in half of the states. Student activists were saying, "...we are adults, we want to be treated as adults." In particular they asked to be treated as adults under the law. "If we violate a law, arrest us as you would any other citizen under the law," was the standard held up at many a student rally. In thus declaring themselves free from on-campus disciplinary procedures, the students pointed up two conflicting roles, that of a student and that of a citizen. By changing the law to make 18-year-olds legally of age, a third role has now been defined, that of the college student of 18 years or over as an adult. Now, three roles are in tension, if not at times in open conflict, the role of a student, the role of a citizen and the role of an adult in the eyes of the law.

James R. Kreuzer, in "A Student Right Examined", AAUP Bulletin (Summer 1967, pp. 196-201), saw this role conflict coming.

"To talk about restrictions which a college may impose on students' constitutionally rights is to run the danger of getting lost in land that only Lewis Carroll could have created. Distinctions may have to be drawn between the student as student and the student as citizen. There are times when the student is simultaneously student and citizen. And these times are apt to occur both on and off campus. The college too has to be seen in more than one light. It is anomalous but true that the college is dependent on society but also dependent of society. To fail to see that a college is a unique institution within and yet apart from society, that a college operates in a frame of reference different from that for society is to fail to grasp the very essence of the college."

For the greater percentage of enrolled students in college today in half the states, the student as citizen includes his legal status as a fully enfranchised adult.

When legal adulthood was conferred on 18-year-olds by state legislatures, most of the attention centered on the right to vote and on the drinking of alcoholic beverages. Other and perhaps more significant changes were given less attention, but in terms of studenthood, it is in these areas that conflict between students as students, and as citizen-adults may arise in a college setting.

At present, the first decision of a young person of 17-18 remains the same, i.e. should he or she go to college at all. Also at present, the choice not to go to college is more acceptable than it was five or ten years ago. The rush to college of the post-war 1940's lasted into the 1960's, but seems to have moderated somewhat, complicated by the unease and rapid changes in the economic situation, job market, and changes in the Selective Service system.

"For some young people, the options are bewildering and the future is uncertain. Our technology and our customs change so rapidly that no one knows if the job highly valued today will even exist in five years. Concerns over population growth, pollution and the possibility of nuclear holocaust add realistic components to the doomsday fears that have haunted every generation." Nathaniel London, a psychiatrist, included these remarks in "Parents' Reactions

to Youth" (Center Quarterly Focus, Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1973, p.4) in a discussion of adolescence as a developmental task. For many young people for the past twenty years or so, the decision to go to college was almost automatic, if for no other reason than to "buy time" before making other decisions. There is some indication that present college enrollees are much more specifically career-minded.

For the in-college student, the new status as a legal adult at age 18 opens up options not previously available. Many, though not all of these available options fall into the category of student relationships generally subsumed under the area of student affairs, therefore some understanding of these options by student personnel staff seems imperative. In a report by D. Parker Young of the University of Georgia and summarized in Behavior Today (October 15, 1973), a number of these options are mentioned. Students of legal age will be fully responsible for contracts and other business obligations agreed to with a college or University. Conversely, colleges and universities may be able to press charges of contract violations, property damage, etc., directly on the student without second party or parental liability. Law suits against a college or university may become more prevalent over violation of rights, alleged unfair residence regulations, classroom or administrative practices, or alleged failure of the institution to perform under its obligations as an institution. Residency requirements, particularly out-of-state vs. in-state residency status may also be taken to the courts for settlement. In addition, students of legal age may band together to form corporations for the carrying out of projects such as providing housing, food services, retail services and book sales, recreational services, etc., within the college environment, thus being in direct competition with the college or university in the area of student services. Student corporations and their

significance are discussed in W. Max Wise, "Student Corporation: A New Proposal for American Colleges and Universities," Journal of Higher Education, January, 1973, 27-40.

Two relationships seem likely to change: (1) That of the institution in relation to parents of college students. If the student is legally an adult, what is the status of the parents in regard to debt obligations assumed by the student, or information regarding discipline, health problems, or academic problems? Should the institution notify the parents of the student? Share part of the information such as a health problem or a probationary decision? Decisions in such matters should be made prior to the need to use them so that both policy and procedure are clearly set forth for the student, the institution and the parents or legal guardians. (2) The relationship of the institution to the student. In an editorial published in the Minneapolis Star, October 18, 1973, 6A, entitled, "Time to Blow the Whistle" , the problems of higher education were discussed, including the following:

"A further complication could arise if students whose states declare them adults at age 18 seek loans or grants as virtual indigents, regardless of family income. Prohibitively high tuition would encourage such claimed emancipation. Whether that is good or bad per se is one matter, but in addition will institutions flooded with loan and grant applications be forced to make rigid rules in a messy attempt to decide which parents pay what? That, in turn, could lead to court tests and more red tape."

Again, it seems wise to establish both policies and procedures in advance of such a prospect in order to disseminate the information broadly. This should include grievance procedures, such as are included in the recently adopted University of Minnesota Residence Regulations and Review Procedures where the policy on in-state and out-state residency is clearly presented including possible options and contingencies that bear on the final decision. Here the University has defined residency and the age of majority is set at age 18. Residency is then determined on the basis of where the student lives if of age,

i.e. not under 18 and legally a minor.

Review procedures, reclassification and appeal procedures and erroneous classification procedures are included in the adopted policy, in effect beginning January 1, 1974. In the same way a policy on financial aid, loans, grants and scholarships awarded by the University could be prepared in anticipation of the student request for such assistance based on the claim of total emancipation from parental assistance. When is a student penniless and in need of assistance, especially if the parents are in an income bracket where assistance is possible? A clarification of this point seems imperative.

The university or college may also face the prospect of a group of students, all legally adults, deciding to form a corporation in order to carry out a student project. If the incorporating members are legally adults though only 18 years of age, they may incorporate, borrow, contract and otherwise assume all the obligations of a corporation including retaining legal counsel. Such a corporation, though it is made up of college students and exists solely for a student project, perhaps in a student services area, remains free from university scrutiny under existing laws. It would seem wise for student personnel people to acquaint themselves with this area of legal corporations, and prepare a policy statement as to how the corporation will be recognized and dealt with, especially by administrations and boards of trustees or regents. Such a student corporation might conceivably present itself as having a plan that is directly competitive with plans being prepared by the college or university in housing, student services, sales or extra-curricular activities. What rights does a student corporation have to present its plans, request university or college support, benefit from its association with a university or college, or present itself as being attached to a university or college under the assumption that, since all the members of the corporation are students, they are thereby a university or college group?

Other student personnel changes that could follow as the result of full

enfranchisement of 18-20 year-olds as legal adults include:

(1) A change in the student personnel role from a parietal relationship to a managerial, services, facilitator relationship.

(2) A new perspective on the student personnel mission as the change in status of 18-20 year-olds is accepted societally as well as legally.

(3) The end of parentalism. In loco parentis has been severely modified within some institutions of higher education, but parentalism hangs on. It is a pervasive attitude akin to sexism and racism. Because parentalism is often an attitude rather than a policy, it is much harder to define and infinitely more difficult to root out. Parentalism is based on the concept of the student as a dependent or petitioner, or suppliant or even as an apprentice based on the medieval guild structure. Earl J. McGrath, Should Students Share the Power. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1970, and Theodore N. Farris, "Social Role Limitations of the Student as an Apprentice" in Louis C. Vacarro and James Thayne Covert, editors, Student Freedom in American Higher Education. New York: Teachers College Press, 1969, 39-47, both discuss this problem.

(4) Specifically:

(a) Admissions offices must be prepared to deal with the residency problems and the appeals to decisions made on residency of students who claim emancipation from parents.

(b) Health services must forego the tendency to moralize or parentalize while administering to the health needs of students, particularly in relation to contraceptives, abortion and gynecological needs.

(c) Activities centers and student unions may find themselves doing less programming and more facilitating, while providing student services, or acting as mediator in behalf of student wants in relation to the institution.

(d) Counseling services may find the demand rising for testing services and study-related assistance, and the counseling of students should reflect a serious effort to accept the adulthood of 18-20 year old students.

(e) Disciplinary offices will not be involved with as many minors as has previously been the case. What adjustments will be made largely depends on acceptance of legal adult status by law enforcement agencies and the courts, but internally, demands for full due process procedures and students' rights should increase.

(f) Students enrolling in colleges and universities may have already had problems involving an educational institution based on the conflict between school regulations at the high school level, and the law making 18 year olds legal adults, (see Sam Newlund, "Adults at 18, Still Minors in School," Minneapolis Tribune, January 6, 1974. 1E and 10E).

(g) Individual institutions, as well as state-wide systems may devise financial assistance packages that recognize emancipation from parents at age 18, as has been proposed by the Wisconsin Higher Education Aids Board. They have proposed a loan program of up to \$2,500 available to students 18 and over, to be paid back over a period of up to 25 years after graduation.

(h) Alcohol on campus where none is presently available may become an issue. Institutional regulations, state and municipal laws, licensing procedures and student demands may lead to conflicts and delays due to conflicting policies among the various agencies and institutions required to act on such proposals.

(i) The right of privacy, due process, students' rights and grievance and appeals procedures must be developed fully and put into writing in the areas of housing, discipline, use of Unions and campus buildings, colleges, departments and programs and in any other academic and administrative units or sub-units within universities and colleges to guarantee that students have this information, and know what rights they have under institutional policies.

(j) Where the institution maintains any student residences, a thorough study of the rights of students under residence contracts should be clearly stated, taking into account the legal status of 18 year old students

in those states where such legal status exists.

The emancipation of young men and women at age 18 will be recognized slowly, and institutional adjustment to this new status will evolve in response to actual situations where students who are legal adults force the issue. A study group or task force involving students, administrators, faculty, staff and community representatives ought to begin to develop documents covering the contingencies brought about by the change in the law regarding young people 18 to 20 years of age. Such a task force might well include student personnel administrators and staff, but academic units may also feel the force of change in status as students use the courts to challenge grading problems, status in majors and fields of study and progress toward degrees and certificates. At a conference on Justice on Campus held in March, 1973, at Lakeland College in Wisconsin, David Robinson, Dean of Students at the University of Wisconsin cited the increase in the number of cases under litigation involving academic grievances. In his presentation he indicated that this type of litigation has increased in the past ten years and suggested that such cases will increase in the next ten years. He based his information on actual cases which he cited, and also on a study of such cases. Information about this type of litigation is regularly reported in the College Law Bulletin, published by the United States National Student Association.

Summary

The change in status by which the age of majority has been reduced from 21 years of age to 18 years of age is important for colleges and universities. All persons 18 years of age and older not otherwise restricted can now vote in all Federal elections, and in one-half of the states they have been accorded full legal rights as adults. About one-third of those who are 18 to 21 years of age are presently enrolled in the nation's two and four-year degree-granting public and private colleges. The American Council of Education report cited in The Chronicle

of Higher Education, February 11, 1974 , p.8 indicates that 74.7% of entering freshmen in the fall of 1974 were 18 years old, and 95.2% of entering freshmen were 18 years old or older.

The full implications of the change of status of 18 to 21 year olds has not as yet been fully comprehended either societally or educationally. Probably, the full force of this change of status will be realized gradually, but more knowledge about such change, understanding of its significance and policy adjustment and institutional adjustment accordingly should follow. Institutions of higher education could well be in the forefront of acceptance of what it means to be adult at 18.

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

ADULT AT 18

Robert W. Ross
Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

Educational institutions, particularly colleges and universities, will be affected by the change in the legal status of 18 to 21-year-olds. In Federal elections nationwide, they have been given the right to vote. In about one-half of the states in the nation they have been enfranchised as legal adults. The full implications of this change of status for this age group have yet to be realized in society, and in institutions of higher education. Some of the possible ramifications resulting from this change of status are examined in this paper and some suggestions are offered for adjusting to this change by colleges and universities.

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In the State of Minnesota and in about one-half of the other states, the legislatures have passed laws making people 18 years old and above legal adults. What the total effect of this change will be is yet to be realized in most of the existing societal structures and institutions including colleges and universities. At the present, things seem to be much as they have been. Parietal rules affecting the lives of college students are changed little, if at all. The student personnel staff of most colleges function much as they have in the recent past, aware of change but basically committed to the operational approach of maintaining the status quo. The general feeling is that the problem of the change in the legal status of most college students will be faced only when a problem arises, at which time it will be dealt with. This approach may be less than wise. This new status of a great number of entering freshman is important, therefore, this paper will discuss the question of the change in the legal status of 18 to 21-year-olds and the possible effects this change might have on student personnel work.

The problem-solution approach described above may be comforting, even typical. It may, however, be highly questionable, because the assumptions upon which such an approach rests no longer pertain where the law has been changed. The major assumption is rooted in the term adolescent. Adolescence is the period of time when a child ceases to be a child and enters into a period of initiation and is processed into adulthood. As David Bahan has pointed out, the concept of adolescence is an American idea presented by G. Stanley Hall in a two-volume work entitled Adolescence. Bahan attributes to Hall the idea of adolescence as a special stage of development. (David Bahan, "Adolescence in America," Daedalus, Fall, 1971, 979-995). These years have traditionally been defined as age 12 or 13

to age 21. During this period of years an adolescent breaks away from family ties, begins to define his or her own identity, relates to institutions including educational institutions and legal institutions differently, and is generally processed toward the time when he or she is considered an adult both legally and socially.

A considerable amount of ambiguity persists in this rites of passage process. Delayed gratification is a constant, with both societal and legal restrictions, as well as family norms that restrict what an adolescent can acceptably do. On the parents' side, "No child of mine...", often heralds some sort of clash between family norms and adolescent behavior. On the side of the young, "...but all the kids are doing it, have one, etc.," is the cry of the embattled teenager who is seeking relief from a family or societal norm that seems to impinge on his behavior or desires.

From a societal viewpoint, certain behaviors are ruled specifically out-of-bounds. An adolescent must remain in school until age 16, cannot legally drive an automobile until age 16, cannot marry without parental consent until age 18, cannot drink alcoholic beverages, contract a debt or be bonded until of legal age, and has a special status in the law as a juvenile, thereby receiving different treatment under arrest and charge, both by law enforcement agencies and the courts. The term "juvenile offender" designates a class of law violaters who are not of legal age and who are therefore treated differently.

Work for pay is also restricted by age requirements, and only certain types of money-earning means are open to young people under the age of 16. At the same time, young people in the middle adolescent years are urged to begin to think about vocational choices and what they want to be "in the future" (more commonly, "when you grow up"). At this point, certain expectations begin to intrude into those middle years of adolescence. Do I go to college? Do I go to work? The implicit dichotomy is interesting. If a young person does not choose to enter the work force or the military, several months to four or more years of additional education are

inserted into his or her life. A choice of a business college, vocational school, community college, or four-year college is looked upon as "not working" (an adult activity), and the role of a student in some sort of educational institution is thus societally defined as "a student is someone in late adolescence who does not work." Are you working or are you going to college? How often has a young person of 18 to 22 had to answer this question as though the categories "work" and "student" are somehow mutually exclusive? This problem of societal role definition of students has recently been examined in a study by Glenn Hendricks and Carole Zimbrott, "Defining a Student: Social Perceptions of Studenthood," Office for Student Affairs Research Bulletin, Volume 13, Number 12, May 23, 1973, University of Minnesota. About one-third of college age young people actually select further education after high school and thus are defined in society as students or college students rather than adults in the working world.

For those who make this selection to enter post-high school educational institutions, not only is delayed gratification (not marrying, not working for wages "full-time," etc.) a given, but another societal norm intrudes itself, extended adolescence. Upon arrival at many educational institutions, certain behavioral expectations are set forth as acceptable within that institution. In the more extreme forms, these include dormitory hours for all dormitory residents with special hours for freshmen. No alcohol, food or pets in dormitory rooms, no automobiles on campus, "dressing" for the evening meal (ties for men, dresses for women), a "cut" system of class attendance, required seating in classrooms, and in some instances required attendance at on-campus religious services. Visiting in dormitory rooms by members of the opposite sex is either forbidden entirely or severely restricted and monitored. "Lights out" and room checks are also common, as well as a whole host of campus rules and requirements usually included in a student handbook. These rules function as a disciplinary code of conduct by which student behavior is judged. Serious breaches of the conduct code may lead to

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Suddenly, what was once the battle cry of the recent advocacy activist period of 1964-1972 is a fact in half of the states. Student activists were saying, "...we are citizens, we want to be treated as citizens." In particular they asked to be treated as citizens under the law. "If we violate a law, arrest us as you would any other citizen under the law," was the standard upheld at many a student rally. In thus declaring themselves free from on-campus disciplinary procedures, the students pointed up two conflicting roles, that of a student and that of a citizen. By changing the law to make 18-year-olds legally of age, a third role has now been defined, that of the college student of 18 years or over as a legally enfranchised adult having full rights as a citizen. Now, three roles are in tension, if not at times in open conflict, the role of a student, the role of a citizen, and the role of the fully enfranchised citizen who is an adult in the eyes of the law.

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For the greater percentage of enrolled students in college today in half the states, the student as citizen includes his legal status as a fully enfranchised adult; therefore the conflict between legal adult status, citizenship and being a student is potentially present in new dimensions in relation to students' rights. For instance, when legal adulthood was conferred on 18-year-olds by state legislatures, most of the attention centered on the right to vote and on the drinking of alcoholic beverages, also matters of concern on campuses. Other, and perhaps more significant changes, were given less attention, but, in terms of studenthood, it is in these other areas that conflict between students as students, and as citizen-adults may arise in a college setting.

At present, the first decision of a young person of 17 or 18 remains the same, i.e. should he or she go to college at all. Also at present, the choice not to go to college is more acceptable than it was five or ten years ago. The rush to college of the post-war 1940's lasted into the 1960's, but appears to have moderated somewhat, complicated by the unease and rapid changes in the economic situation, job market, and changes in the Selective Service system. To go to college seems a more purposeful choice.

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Once in college, the new status of the student as a legal adult at age 18 opens up options not previously available. Many, though not all, of these available options fall into the category of student relationships generally subsumed under the area of student affairs, therefore some understanding of these options by student personnel staff seems imperative. In a report by D. Parker Young of the University of Georgia and summarized in Behavior Today (October 15, 1973), a number of these options are mentioned. Students of legal age will be fully responsible for contracts and other business obligations agreed to with a college or university. Conversely, colleges and universities may be able to press charges of contract violations, property damage, etc. directly on the student without second party or parental liability. Law suits against a college or university may become more prevalent over violation of rights, alleged unfair residence regulations, classroom or administrative practices, or alleged failure of the institution to perform under its obligations as an institution. Residency requirements, particularly out-of-state vs. in-state residency status may also be taken to the courts for settlement. In addition, students of legal age may band together to form corporations for the carrying out of projects such as providing housing, food services, retail services and book sales, recreational services, etc. within the college environment, thus being in direct competition with the college or university in the area of student services. Student corporations and their possibilities and significance are discussed in W. Max Wise, "Student Corporation: A New Proposal for American Colleges and Universities," Journal of Higher Education, January, 1973, 27-40.

Two relationships seem likely to change: (1) That of the institution in relation to parents of college students. If the student is legally an adult,

What is the status of the parents in regard to debt obligations assumed by the student, or information regarding discipline, health problems, or academic problems? Should the institution notify the parents of the student? Share part of the information such as a health problem or a probationary decision? Decisions in such matters should be made prior to the need to use them so that both policy and procedure are clearly set forth for the student, the institution and the parents or legal guardians. (2) The relationship of the institution to the student. In an editorial published in the Minneapolis Star, October 18, 1973, 6A, entitled, "Time to Blow the Whistle," the problems of higher education were discussed, including the following:

A further complication could arise if students whose states declare them adults at age 18 seek loans or grants as virtual indigents, regardless of family income. Prohibitively high tuition would encourage such claimed emancipation. Whether that is good or bad per se is one matter, but in addition will institutions flooded with loan and grant applications be forced to make rigid rules in a messy attempt to decide which parents pay what? That, in turn, could lead to court tests and more red tape.

Again, it seems wise to establish both policies and procedures in advance of such a prospect in order to disseminate the information broadly.

Such policies should include grievance procedures, such as are included in the recently adopted University of Minnesota Residence Regulations and Review Procedures where the policy on in-state and out-state residency is clearly presented, including possible options and contingencies that bear on the final decision. Here the University has defined residency, and the age of majority is set at age 18. Residency is then determined on the basis of where the student lives if of age, i.e. not under 18 and legally a minor. Review procedures, reclassification and appeal procedures and erroneous classification procedures are included in the adopted policy, in effect beginning January 1, 1974. In the same way, a policy on financial aid, loans, grants and scholarships awarded by the University could be prepared in anticipation of the student request for such assistance based on the claim of total emancipation from parental assistance. When is a student penniless and in

need of assistance, especially if the parents are in an income bracket where assistance is possible? A clarification of this point seems imperative.

The university or college may also face the prospect of a group of students, all legally adults, deciding to form a corporation in order to carry out a student project. If the incorporating members are legally adults though only 18 years of age, they may incorporate, borrow, contract and otherwise assume all the obligations of a corporation including retaining legal counsel. Such a corporation, though it is made up of college students and exists solely for a student project, perhaps in a student services area, in some states remains free from university scrutiny under existing laws. It would seem wise for student personnel people to acquaint themselves with this area of legal corporations, and prepare a policy statement as to how the corporation will be recognized and dealt with, especially by administrations and boards of trustees or regents. Such a student corporation might conceivably present itself as having a plan that is directly competitive with plans being prepared by the college or university in housing, student services, sales or extra-curricular activities. What rights does a student corporation have to present its plans, request university or college support, benefit from its association with a university or college, or present itself as being attached to a university or college under the assumption that, since all the members of the corporation are students, they are thereby a university or college group?

Other student personnel changes that could follow as the result of full enfranchisement of 18 to 20-year-olds as legal adults include:

(1) A change in the student personnel role from a parietal relationship to a managerial, services, facilitator relationship.

(2) A new perspective on the student personnel mission as the change in status of 18 to 20-year-olds is accepted societally as well as legally.

(3) The end of parentalism. In loco parentis has been severely modified within some institutions of higher education, but parentalism hangs on. It is a pervasive

attitude akin to sexism and racism. Because parentalism is often an attitude rather than a policy, it is much harder to define and infinitely more difficult to root out. Parentalism is based on the concept of the student as a dependent or petitioner or suppliant or even as an apprentice based on the medieval guild structure. Earl J. McGrath, Should Students Share the Power, Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1970; and Theodore N. Farris, "Social Role Limitations of the Student as an Apprentice" in Louis C. Vacarro and James Thayne Covert, editors, Student Freedom in American Higher Education, New York: Teachers College Press, 1969, 39-47; both discuss this problem.

(4) More specifically, for student personnel staffs:

(a) Admissions offices must be prepared to deal with the residency problems and the appeals to decisions made on residency of students who claim emancipation from parents.

(b) Health services must forego the tendency to moralize or parentalize while administering to the health needs of students, particularly in relation to contraceptives, abortion and gynecological needs.

(c) Activities centers and student unions may find themselves doing less programming and more facilitating, while providing student services or acting as mediator in behalf of student wants in relation to the institution.

(d) Counseling services may find the demand rising for testing services and study-related assistance, and the counseling of students should reflect a serious effort to accept the adulthood of 18 to 20-year-old students.

(e) Disciplinary offices will not be involved with as many minors as has previously been the case. What adjustments will be made largely depends on acceptance of legal adult status by law enforcement agencies and the courts, but within colleges and universities, demands for full due process procedures and students' rights should increase. Students enrolling in colleges and universities may have already had problems involving an educational institution based on the conflict

between school regulations at the high school level, and the law making 18-year-olds legal adults, (see Sam Newlund, "Adults at 18, Still Minors in School," Minneapolis Tribune, January 6, 1974, 1E and 10E). Students may be more aware of their rights.

(f) Individual institutions, as well as state-wide systems may need to devise financial assistance packages that recognize emancipation from parents at age 18, as has been proposed by the Wisconsin Higher Education Aids Board. They have proposed a loan program of up to \$2,500 available to students 18 and over, to be paid back over a period of up to 25 years after graduation.

(g) Demands for alcohol on campus where none is presently available may become an issue. Institutional regulations, state and municipal laws, licensing procedures and student demands may lead to conflicts and delays due to conflicting policies among the various agencies and institutions required to act on such proposals.

(h) The right of privacy, due process, students' rights, and grievance and appeals procedures will need to be developed fully and put into writing in the areas of housing, discipline, use of unions and campus buildings, colleges, departments and programs and in any other academic and administrative units or sub-units within universities and colleges, to guarantee that students have this information and know what rights they have under institutional policies.

(i) Where the institution maintains any student residences, a thorough study of the rights of students under residence contracts should be undertaken, taking into account the legal status of 18-year-old students in those states where such legal status exists.

The emancipation of young men and women at age 18 will probably be recognized slowly, and institutional adjustment to this new status will commonly evolve in response to actual situations where students who are legal adults force the issue. But colleges and universities might well consider approaching this area more

directly. A study group or task force involving students, administrators, faculty, staff and community representatives might well begin to develop documents covering the contingencies brought about by the change in the law regarding young people 18 to 20 years of age. Such a task force should include student personnel administrators and staff as well as faculty because academic units may also feel the force of change in status as students use the courts to challenge grading problems, status in majors and fields of study and progress toward degrees and certificates. At a conference on Justice on Campus held in March, 1973, at Lakeland College in Wisconsin, David Robinson, Dean of Students at the University of Wisconsin cited the increase in the number of cases under litigation involving academic grievances. In his presentation he indicated that this type of litigation has increased in the past ten years and suggested that such cases will increase in the next ten years. He based his information on actual cases which he cited, and also on a study of such cases. Information about this type of litigation is regularly reported in the College Law Bulletin, published by the United States National Student Association. The concept of academic grievances adds a whole new dimension not discussed specifically in this article.

Summary

The change in status by which the age of majority has been reduced from 21 years of age to 18 years of age is important for colleges and universities. All persons 18 years of age and older not otherwise restricted can now vote in all Federal elections, and in one-half of the states they have been accorded full legal rights as adults. About one-third of those who are 18 to 21 years of age are presently enrolled in the nation's two and four-year degree-granting public and private colleges. The American Council of Education report cited in The Chronicle of Higher Education, February 11, 1974, p. 8, indicates that 74.7% of entering freshmen in the fall of 1974 were 18 years old, and 95.2% of entering freshmen were 18 years old or older.

The full implications of the change of status of the 18 to 21-year-old has not as yet been fully comprehended either societally or educationally. Probably, the full force of this change of status will occur gradually. Ideally knowledge about such change, understanding of its significance and policy adjustment, and institutional adjustment accordingly, should precede this gradual change as has been suggested in this article. Institutions of higher education could well be in the forefront of acceptance of what it means to be adult at 18.

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Office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

CURRENT AND RECENT RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

WITHIN THE OFFICE FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS

Ronald Matross, Joel Brown, and Brian Phyle

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

Abstract

This report contains brief summaries of current and recent research activities of staff members within various organizational units of the Office for Student Affairs. These research activities are categorized into three broad areas: (1) Student Personnel Methods and Materials, (2) Studies of University Programs and Experiences, and (3) Students and Student Characteristics. In addition, a section is included on research that people within OSA would like to see done.

CURRENT AND RECENT RESEARCH ACTIVITIES
WITHIN THE OFFICE FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS

Ronald Matross, Joel Brown, and Brian Phyle

Student Life Studies
University of Minnesota

Student Personnel Methods and Materials

Student Counseling Bureau

Alton Raygor of the Student Counseling Bureau has conducted, supervised, or advised several projects. With Margaret Thompson, instructor at St. Mary's Junior College, Dr. Raygor is looking at grade improvement and attrition of students in study skills programs at St. Mary's Junior College.

A national survey on expert opinion in training, reading and study skills specialists was conducted by Dr. Raygor and Anastasia Vavoulis. The publication entitled "Training Reading Skills Specialists at the University of Minnesota" was produced from the national survey.

In a Masters thesis, Anastasia Vavolis surveyed the basic study skills programs at community colleges within the Twin Cities area.

Being planned is an MA thesis by Paul Anderson, "Response Patterns in Small Group Academic Improvement Counseling." Changes in response patterns such as process as opposed to content statements, and student to counselor ratio of speaking among his students will be observed.

Steve Kingsbury, of the Student Counseling Bureau, and Ron Kirsch, of the St. Paul Union, have produced a training module designed to teach people how to determine their reading level and video tape training materials for use in reading and study skills counseling.

Kingsbury has also been involved in a study to determine if training in problem solving will increase abstract reasoning scores as measured by the DAT. This study is a validation of problem-solving training materials.

Lloyd Charles and Dr. Raygor have conducted an analysis of the effects of the SQ3R method of study on achievement, study habits, and attitudes of students when combined with reinforcement.

With Pat Leone, Dr. Raygor has established an experimental program which will train undergraduates as reading and study skills counselors.

Judy Atlee is preparing for a dissertation study on the topic of Self Control of Contingencies Promoting Study Behavior. The extent to which students can effectively use reward techniques to promote study behaviors will be examined.

Corin Hanson, an instructor at Normandale Junior College, has completed an MA thesis studying the readability of Junior College texts in relation to the level of reading skills of students. It was found that many texts were too difficult. The reading ability of students was often below the readability of texts.

With the notion that basic study skills improvement will result in improvements in affective areas, Susan Johnson reviewed the research on skill therapy and believes the research to indicate her notion to be correct.

Corin Kagan, St. Paul SCB, has surveyed the attitudes of St. Paul faculty toward the reading and study skills of students and the competency needs of adult basic education teachers.

Dr. Raygor and Ron Schnelzer are developing an audio tutorial word recognition program for poor readers of high school and college age.

Charlene Follett has compiled listings comparing pre-professional requirements for health science programs with requirements for many other University major programs. Charlene would like to determine student awareness and perceptions of OASIS as distinct from other Student Counseling Bureau services in St. Paul.

Dallis Perry of the Student Counseling Bureau is analyzing normative data for the Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory (MVII) and the Differential Aptitude Test (DAT). The MVII was administered to students applying for admission to area technical and vocational schools, while the DAT scores were obtained for many of the same students in the ninth grade. The data are intended to aid in interpretation of the tests.

David Wark of the St. Paul Student Counseling Bureau has recently completed three articles exploring the relationship between heart rate and reading performance: "Heart Rate and Reading" with Diana Tosterud and George Nelms; "Heart Rate Response by Normal Test-Panicky Readers" with James Brown, Diana Tostenrud, Mary Walch, and Judy Stellar; "Heart Rate and Reading - High and Low Test Panic Readers" with Mary Walch. This line of research suggests the feasibility of bio-feedback approached to study-skills development.

Also along this line, Dr. Wark is clinically observing the effects of providing bio-feedback information to clients during counseling.

Dr. Wark and Corin Kagan are instructors in an experimental course, Theory and Practice in Academic Skills Counseling, in which upper division students are trained in diagnosing learning and academic skills problems, prescribing effective treatment, tutoring, counseling emotional problems and in making necessary referrals.

Corin Kagan has been surveying attitudes of St. Paul faculty toward reading disabilities of students and reading assignments, what they perceive to be necessary reading and study skills, and their interest in special instruction of reading skills. In the near future a comparison of the readability of college texts with the reading level of students will be done.

Judy Stellar, in a study of homogeneous study skills groups, recruited students from Economics and Chemistry classes to work in groups in improving study skills. Three conditions were established: motivated-treated, motivated-nontreated, and nonmotivated-nontreated. Students in condition two show greatest change in lowered grades.

David Campbell and his staff at the Center for Interest Measurement Research (CIMR), have been involved in a major revision of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. Their efforts have resulted in the merger of the male and female booklets into a single form, a rearrangement of the scales on the profile into the occupational classification system proposed by John Holland, and a modification of the profile report form to make it more easily understandable to the layman. The revised edition, entitled the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, will include 325 items. Publication will be during July 1974.

CIMR is also conducting an examination to determine whether women and men in particular professions differ sufficiently to warrant separate scales on the SVIB.

Jo-Ida Hansen of CIMR will be conducting a graduate psychology seminar on the SVIB Spring quarter.

International Student Adviser Office

Paul Pedersen of the International Student Adviser Office has recently completed several publications on intercultural training and counseling:

Cross Cultural Counseling. Paul Pedersen, Walter Lonner and Jaris Draguns and Ronald Wintrobe (Eds.) A 250 page book edited from papers given at the 1973 convention of the American Psychological Association. Publication in 1974.

Intercultural Training Designs. Paul Pedersen and Richard Brislin. A 200 page book surveying the designs, target audiences, and results of cross-cultural or intercultural training in a variety of settings. Publication in 1974.

"A Model for Training Mental Health Workers in Cross Cultural Counseling", a chapter in Culture and Mental Health by Joseph Westermeyer and Bela Maday. Publication in 1974.

"A Cross-Cultural Coalition Training Model for Training Mental Health Professionals to Function in Multicultural Populations", a paper presented to the IXth International Congress of Ethnological and Anthropological Sciences.

"A Conceptual System Describing the Counseling Relationship as a Coalition against the Problem", a paper presented at the 1973 convention of the American Psychological Association.

Dr. Pedersen's current research includes studying the effectiveness of a role-playing training model for cross-cultural counselor education by video-taping the interaction of a counselor trainee from one culture and a client paired with an anti-counselor from another culture. The triad with anti-counselor conditions is intended to sensitize the counselor to the resistance of the client and articulation of client-culture variables.

A project on the use of critical incidents for intercultural training involving the development of twenty fifteen-minute critical incidents on video-tape demonstrating various aspects of intercultural contact, crises, and potential is being funded by Media Resources.

Researching the Problem Role in Cross-Cultural Counseling is a proposal which has been submitted for a National Institute of Education small grant.

Dr. Pedersen and Robert Moran will be working with a Japanese team who is researching a Japanese-United States Intercultural Workshop project planned for July 1974. The workshop will involve social scientists from both cultures gathering in small groups which will determine topics for cooperative investigation.

Robert Moran of the International Student Adviser Office is also engaged in an investigation of the effects of participation in weekend group intercultural communication workshops. Variables measured include attitude changes on the World-Mindedness scale and CPI measured personality correlates of change.

Two program evaluation studies have been completed by the International Student Adviser Office "Final Report: Intensive English Language and Orientation Program," prepared by Charlotte Miller, Robert Moran, and James Rogers, presents an evaluation of a program designed to help new foreign students increase their English proficiency and their understanding of the American way of life and culture "Final Report: Orientation Program for Foreign Students: was prepared by Mildred Fleming, Florence Funk and Robert Moran. Foreign students were asked to complete an evaluation questionnaire on the 1973 Orientation Program for Foreign Students. Evaluated topics included the student's stay with a host family, changes in the views of American characteristic and culture during orientation, the methods believed to be most influential in changing their views, and the various activities of the Orientation Program. Recommendations were made for future Orientation Programming.

Student Life Studies

Ron Matross of Student Life Studies has been continuing process research in counseling and psychotherapy. Recently completed articles include:

"Attitude Modification Methods of Helping People Change." David Johnson and Ronald Matross. Chapter to appear in Helping People Change: Methods and Materials, edited by F. Kanfer and A. Goldstein. Reviews attitude change literature as it applies to helping people with behavioral and emotional problems.

"An Attitude Change Approach to Research Training." Ronald Matross. Proposes a new training model to build positive attitudes toward research, as well as technical skills.

"Counter Influence and Counselor Effectiveness." James Meland, Ronald Matross, and Stanley Strong. Reports an experiment which found that self-perceptions were significantly harder to change when they had been previously anchored by another influence agent than when they had not.

"Expertness, Type of Appeal, and Influence in the Interview." Dennis Keierleber, Ronald Matross, and Stanley Strong. Reports an experiment which hypothesized that experts would be able to use more styles of influence than would in-experts. Results were contrary to the hypothesis.

Articles currently in preparation include:

"Insight and Attribution in Psychotherapy." Ronald Matross (from Ph.D. dissertation). Reviews literature on the question of insight in psychotherapy and proposes a model of insight based on causal attribution theory and strategies for researching this model.

"Socratic Methods in Counseling and Psychotherapy." Ronald Matross (from Ph.D. dissertation). Reports an experiment which found that Socrates' approach of questioning about specific cases and inductively arriving at general conclusions is a successful way of changing self-perceptions.

"An Experimental Investigation of Habit and Trait Explanations of Client Behavior." James Moynihan and Ronald Matross (from Moynihan's dissertation). Compares behavioral and emotional effects of two different explanations of problem behavior, based on Matross' model of insight.

"From Acts to Dispositions in Psychotherapy." Stanley Strong and Ronald Matross. Reports an experiment which found that self-perceptions could be changed by controlling information on which the perception is based, utilizing principles derived from causal attribution theory.

"The Impact and Ethics of Experimental Psychotherapy Research." Ronald Matross. Proposes experimental designs which maximize generalizability to practice, while adequately protecting welfare of participants in counseling and therapy research.

"The Interpersonal Influence of the Therapist". David Johnson and Ronald Matross. Chapter to appear in The Therapist's Contribution to Effective Psychotherapy, edited by A. Gurman and A. Razin. A review of social influence and attitude change literature as it applies to psychotherapy.

Bob Ross of Student Life Studies has completed the first phase of an indexing project to make materials more available to persons interested in SLS studies. The OSA Research Bulletins and some other materials have been indexed using the ERIC DESCRIPTOR SYSTEM. Each item is listed on an index card by author and title, and is assigned a DESCRIPTOR number. The file and shelf files are organized by this numbering system under which copies of the research publications are then filed, again by author and title.

Phase two of the project will identify all IBM card decks in the same manner, as well as questionnaires and any other raw data. A cross-referencing system in the files will identify all pieces of a project, raw data, IBM decks and publications so a researcher interested in replication or extension of an existing project can obtain all existing research data presently retained in Student Life Studies. These materials are available for use in Room 330, Walter Library, along with pamphlets and journals gathered by Dr. Ralph Berdie over many years.

Studies of University Programs and Experiences

Office of Admissions and Records

The Office of Admissions and Records continually uses available data in research on University students and experiences. Recently completed reports include "A Study of College Graduates at the University of Minnesota Nine Months after their Graduation in June 1971 and in June 1972 graduates; Liberal Arts graduates had the most problems in finding positions and made up the majority of those returning to the University for further study.

Darwin Hendel completed three reports on students enrolled in the Martin Luther King program from 1970 to 1972. Findings included in both CLA and General College a large majority of MLK students received grades of C or higher. Those who graduated did so in a reasonable length of time, although the number receiving degrees was not as large as might have been hoped.

A study comparing transfer and non-transfer students at the University is being conducted at A & R to better understand the problems of transfer students.

To improve the articulation of students from high school to college, A & R, in cooperation with the American College Testing Program regularly obtains and analyzes class profile reports containing general characteristics. Determining in which English, Chemistry and/or Mathematics class a first quarter freshman should register is an example of how such data can be utilized.

John Huebner is compiling a general summary of the information which has been acquired through the use of IBM Student Services Cards.

In addition, the Prospective Student Program of A & R conducts conferences to keep high school, community and Junior College counselors informed of current admissions policy. Evaluations of the conferences by their participants are being studied by John Bell as a means of improving future conferences.

The results of a feasibility study of computerized registration have recently been compiled in a Report for a New Registration System at the University of Minnesota.

Roberta Armstrong and Kaustubh Lele have cooperatively analyzed correlations between high school academic achievement measures and college success measures of 1972 Freshmen. James Preus, Charles Humphrey and Charles Leisenfelt are investigating possible reforms in student record reporting.

OSA units are being contacted to determine their student record information needs. Accompanying the phasing out of MSAT is the need for normative data on the MSAT's replacements, the PSAT and SCAT. Roberta Armstrong and Kaustubh Lele will be examining certain first quarter performance measures of some University freshmen and their PSAT scores obtained during their junior year of high school and PSAT and SCAT scores obtained during orientation.

Student Life Studies

Glenn Hendricks of Student Life Studies has recently completed study of the registration process entitled "A Study of University of Minnesota Registration Procedures." The study emphasizes adaptive strategies employed by students to accomplish procedures and registration as a periodic re-socialization process into the norms of the University.

Student Counseling Bureau

With Edward Swanson of the Minnesota Statewide Testing Program, Dallis Perry of the Student Counseling Bureau performs recurring analyses of statewide MSAT data comparing scholastic indices of entering freshmen.

Dallis Perry, Ralph Berdie, and Mary Corcoran are involved in a study of the post-secondary plans of 1971 Minnesota high school seniors. This is a replication of studies performed in 1950 and 1961 in which the relationships between the future plans of high school seniors and their ability and background characteristics are examined.

Student Activities Center

With Jane Dibley of the St. Paul Board of Colleges, and Helen Peake of St. Paul OSA, Roger Harrold of the Student Activities Center has completed A Study of Student Participation in Activities on the St. Paul Campus. The study examines student activity participation in various activities in response to declining membership in student organizations. The findings will provide a baseline for assessing future changes in student involvement. Roger Harrold has also completed a parallel report on Student Involvement in Academic Affairs on the St. Paul Campus, a study of the student participation in campus and academic governance within the general context of the McFarland Report. Don Biggs and Joel Brown of Student Life Studies have joined Roger Harrold in launching a more general study of student participation in governance.

Sally Jo Powers of the Student Activities Center is currently coordinating a survey of student organizations examining size of meetings, types of activities, perceived problems, their frequency and difficulty, faculty and staff advisement, and perceived roles and functions. Sally Jo is also coordinating committees on the Twin Cities campus in a joint effort between SAC and the Council of College Boards.

St. Paul OSA

Charles McGuire of St. Paul OSA reports that his office is currently considering a study of support services throught the St. Paul OSA. Are support services needed in their present form? Should they be updated or should new programs be initiated?

The St. Paul Board of Colleges and the St. Paul Student Center Board of Governors have recently conducted a survey to assess the feelings of students, faculty and staff on the issue of the availability of alcoholic beverages on campus. The results contained in the report, "Alcoholic Beverages on Campus, Committee Report on 1973 Survey," indicate that respondents favored the availability of alcoholic beverages on the St. Paul Campus.

Coffman Memorial Union

Coffman Memorial Union has been conducting an evaluation of its services. Tom Stark and Art Smith recently prepared a 1973 Report on the Minneapolis Campus Community's Use, Satisfaction and Needs of Coffman Memorial Union. This study examined the demographic characteristics of the users of CMU facilities, their satisfaction with CMU facilities, their attendance at and their satisfaction with CMU programs.

Minnesota Unions

Currently underway by the Minnesota Union Coordinating Board is a three-phase investigation of Union efforts. Phase One is an examination of the present state of Union facilities, programs and other services; Phase Two is a definition of ideal Union facilities, programs and services; Phase Three is an examination of how the ideal effort can be implemented.

In addition, student activity coordinators and staff activity consultants are jointly preparing evaluations of Union programs. These evaluations will include, along with other information, recommendations for continuance or discontinuance of individual programs.

University Health Service

Laird Miller, of the University Health Service, is currently investigating the degree of accuracy with which students report their family medical backgrounds. Information on students' medical backgrounds is being sought from both students and their parents, with a comparison for accuracy then being made between the two.

The University Health Service is also engaged in a project to determine the specific diagnoses made for those patients entering the Health Service Emergency Room for treatment.

University Housing Office

The Housing Office is involved in the following research: An annual data collection of student choices in visitation policies; an alcohol study with Joel Brown and Debi Seaburg of Student Life Studies evaluating the current dormitory policy on alcohol consumption; and the initiation of an ongoing data collection on the selection of rooms in drinking versus non-drinking areas.

Also underway are several ongoing management studies such as Pillsbury Court, a financial management study on the operation; Application-Occupancy Counts for Residence Halls, categorical data on space rental; Quarterly Population Reports, descriptive data on student population; and Off Campus Housing Research, annual studies of the housing of the total student enrollment at the Twin Cities Campuses.

Currently underway with Ron Matross of Student Life Studies is a follow-up study of housing placement, a survey of the reactions of students receiving placement help to determine the extent to which they were able to find housing through this office and their degree of satisfaction with it.

Betty Roe has published two recent articles regarding college populations: "Security in Sororities Breeds Adaptive Innovation." Journal of College Student Personnel, March, 1973, Vol. 14, No. 2, p. 130.

"A Marketing Approach for Residence Halls." Journal of College and University Housing Offices, January, 1974.

Intramurals/Extramurals

Bruce Anderson and Pat Mueller of Intramurals/Extramurals have been conducting a study of who participates and where they live in proximity to the University facilities and how many students are not participating due to distance from campus. The data was gathered from IBM cards included with Winter Quarter 1974 registration materials for 25% of the students.

Research on Students and Student Characteristics

Student Counseling Bureau

Rod Loper of the Student Counseling Bureau has collaborated on three recent articles on alcoholism:

Rodney G. Loper, Sister Mary Leo Kammeier, Helmut Hoffman. "MMPI Characteristics of College Freshman Males Who Later Became Alcoholics." Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Vol. 82, No. 1, pp. 159-162. Key findings include: The college pre-alcoholic is more likely to be impulsive, nonconforming, and gregarious, but is otherwise not grossly maladjusted compared to his peers.

Rodney G. Loper, Helmut Hoffman, and Sister Mary Leo Kammeier. "The Effectiveness of MMPI Scales in Identifying Future Alcoholics." Findings included: The three MMPI empirical scales of alcoholism are usable in screening programs to detect alcoholism. Traits of "acting out" behavior, impulsivity with authority conflict, form the major element in the pre-alcoholic personality.

Sister Mary Leo Kammeier, Helmut Hoffman, and Rodney G. Loper. "Personality Characteristics of Alcoholics as College Freshmen and at Time of Treatment," Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, June 1973, Vol. 34, pp. 390-399. Findings included: The college MMPI profiles were characterized by a lack of obvious deviance: however, Pd, D, and Sc were elevated frequently enough to suggest that they may be possible indicators of dependency problems.

In collaboration with Auke Tellegen of the Psychology Department and two students, Steve Anderson and Cathy Pinson, Rod Loper is engaged in an investigation of personality changes among University students as a result of hallucinogenic drug use. Freshman male and female MCI scores obtained, for the most part, prior to the beginning of their use of hallucinogens are being compared with MCI scores obtained three to four years later.

With Paul Meehl, Dr. Loper is comparing MMPI scores of 88 former students (male and female) who sometime after leaving the University were hospitalized with a diagnosis of schizophrenia with a control group of unhospitalized classmates. All tests were obtained during the freshman year. Differences are being found among hospitalized and unhospitalized females but not among males.

Also in progress is the development of an acturial codebook for the MMPI to be used by college counselors. John DeWitt, a research assistant, is currently trying to devise a computer program, taking MMPI responses from the years 1959 and 1961 and comparing two point codes with students in general on academic achievement, scholastic aptitude, and physical health status.

Dr. Loper has the following research planned:

A cooperative study with Helmut Hoffman of Willmar State Hospital, Sister Mary Leo Kammeier of the Hazeldon Treatment Center, and Dr. Briggs of the University of Minnesota Medical School, will look at the pairing of MMPI alcoholism scales of several thousand Minnesota adolescents tested in 1954 by Hathaway and Monachesi and follow up on those individuals who have become alcoholics. At this time research funds are being sought.

A project aimed at determining the effectiveness of computerized MMPI interpretations based on a mini-mult (all 566 items) in providing personality descriptions for college counselors. This project is to be undertaken along with Dr. James Kincannon of Meadowbrook Treatment Center and author of the "Mini-mult".

Student Life Studies

Don Biggs of Student Life Studies has recently published several articles as OSA Research Bulletins:

"Job Attitudes of Student Personnel Workers and their Work Situations " Vol 14, No. 2, showed that social characteristics of student personnel offices but not the student personnel coalition were somewhat related to staff job satisfaction. Social characteristics of both offices and the coalition were found to be related to job alienation.

"Student Personnel Services in a Contemporary University" Vol. 14, No. 4, results indicated that a majority of staff endorsed ten common job goals including both general educational goals and more specific service goals.

"Student Satisfaction with Academic Advising" Vol. 14, No. 6, showed that, in general, most students were satisfied with the academic advising they have received at the University.

"The Dynamics of Undergraduate Academic Advising" Vol. 14, No. 7, showed the work of the academic adviser can be classified into four clusters of job activities: helping students with (1) special academic, social or financial problems, (2) psychological problems, and (3) academic and career guidance; as well as (4) administrative activities. Most academic advisers are satisfied with their work although a substantial percentage is dissatisfied with the amount of recognition received.

"Parental View of the Collegiate Generation Gap" Vol. 14, No. 9, suggested that parents with smaller families, and younger parents perceived themselves as more in agreement with their children. Parental methods of influencing their children were found to be related to their frequency of agreement.

Dr. Biggs, along with James B. Orcutt and Neil Bakkenist, published an article, "Correlates of Marijuana and Alcohol Use among College Students", in the January 1974 issue of Journal of College Student Personnel.

Dr. Biggs, is currently involved in several other studies, one of which, with Roger Harrold and Joel Brown, is a study of the impact of students on the governance procedures of the University. He is also examining citizens' attitudes toward the University, with Carol Swenson and Kent Swenson. Along with Ron Matross and Debi Seaburg, Dr. Biggs is studying perceptions of right and wrong student behavior among students, faculty, and administration.

Glenn Hendricks of Student Life Studies is working in the following areas:

Defining a Student - A set of inquiries into the social and legal definitions, i.e. what faculty and students perceive as minimal attributes of anyone classified as a U of M student, and institutional legal definitions of students. From the data two papers have been written, "Defining a Student: Social Perceptions of Studenthood," co-authored with Carole Zimbrott, OSA Research Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 6, (accepted for publication by Journal of College Student Personnel.) Another in draft form concerns the variety of legal definitions applicable at the U of M. Some are generated internally within the institution and others emanate from sources external to the University. Collaborative arrangements have been made for this study to be replicated at the University of Valle, in Cali, Colombia.

Married Students - A sample questionnaire survey of married students and their expressed needs. Of special interest is the relationship of proximity and support of kinsmen to the kinds of response given concerning financing, child care, housing, and academic adjustment.

Foreign Students - An examination of (1) the role of nationality clubs in patterns of student adjustment to the U of M, and (2) social strategies employed in coping with U.S. and the U of M environment.

Enrollment Patterns - A statistical examination of the relationship between enrollment and attrition patterns and selected economic, social and political factors (with Tom Mortenson).

Bob Ross of Student Life Studies has completed first draft manuscripts of the following articles which are presently being revised for publication.

"Adult at 18" looking at a number of implications of the legal age of 18 for student personnel services in the college and university.

"Studenthood vs. Adulthood: Parentalism in the Academy" looking at parentalism as an institutional attitude that is as persuasive as sexism or racism.

"The Legacy of the Student Movement," an analysis of the student movement of the 1960's, in terms of the specifically campus issues that remain as a result of advocacy activism on campuses.

An article based on implicit analysis of the University Opinion Polls #1,2,3, 5 and 6, student self-determination, governance, questions of "value-received" or do students feel they get what they pay for, and special group needs was looked at from the data obtained through the University Opinion Poll.

Ron Matross and Joel Brown of Student Life Studies are currently conducting a two-part survey of alcohol usage and opinions among U of M students; the first of which is a survey of Student Opinions of University Alcohol Policies, and the second concerns the Drinking Practices of the U of M Students.

Two opinion surveys have recently been completed by the University Opinion Poll:

"University Poll 8A: Bicycles on Campus." Ronald Matross, Joel Brown, and Debi Seaburg.

"University Poll 9: Child Care, MPIRG, and Lettuce." Ronald Matross, Debi Seaburg, and Joel Brown.

Intramurals/Extramurals

Ruth Lois, program coordinator, at Intramurals/Extramurals has a thesis topic the development of a profile of women intramural participants at Norris Gym, correlating participation patterns with various socio-economic factors.

Student Activities Center

With Dr. Benjamin Lowe of Temple University and Gregory Gordon of UPI, Dr. Roger Harrold has examined the leisure interests of students. Already published (March 1972) is the report entitled The Student as a Sports Spectator, which represents the first of three phases comprising the project. Phase II will examine the student as a sports participant and Phase III will study the greater range of leisure activities.

Research People Would Like to See Done

Harry Myers of the Orientation Program reports that he would like to see an investigation of the attitudes, fears, expectations and needs of high school seniors prior to their appearance on campus. This information could be used in better planning of orientation programs as it has been realized that interests of students, and subsequently, attendance levels at various programs fluctuate quite dramatically over short periods of time. Of specific interest would be what programs high school students may have already been exposed to (e.g. study skills, independent study, campus familiarity), and in what manner the material was presented (e.g. video tape, lecture) and what were the students' responses to the manner of presentation. (Did they enjoy it?)

Harry Myers would also like to see an examination of the issue of how feelings of community support and belonging can be established among students (especially commuters). This would be a look at patterns of involvement.

There is an accumulation of data concerning an evaluation of an experimental course (5 credits in the social sciences) for training counselors for two day retreats. Eight topics were presented by lecturers, and students completed evaluations for each of the individuals presenting the lecture. Anyone interested in compiling the data should contact Harry Myers.

Carl Nelson of the West Bank Union would like to see research examining the community of scholars: To what degree is education dependent on communal interpersonal experiences? Do these experiences complement one's education by facilitating communication skills, providing an opportunity to test ideas with others and to defend one's ideas? What communal groups presently exist? How do members of such groups interact? Which of these methods of interaction should be facilitated? Such information could be used to provide more and better facilities for communal experiences, such as pocket lounges immediately adjacent to the main classroom where students of various departments could congregate and get an interdisciplinary view of their work.

Charlene Follet of the St. Paul Counseling Bureau would like to determine students' awareness and perceptions of the OASIS program as distinct from other counseling services for St. Paul students.

Samuel Lewis of the Student Financial Aid Office would like to see: A follow up study of students who have received financial aid to determine whether they are employed after graduation, how related their occupation is to their major field of study, and what proportion of these students leaves school prior to completion of their programs: a study of the relationship between academic progress and the amount of financial aid received (high vs. medium vs. low amounts), the type of aid received (grant or scholarships vs. loans), and the degree to which students are employed; and finally a study comparing the academic progress of foreign students who receive financial aid with foreign students who do not receive financial aid.

Glenn Hendricks of Student Life Studies would like to see a long-term study of the socialization process of becoming a U of M student. Who are the significant others in learning the social role of student? What and when are the salient activities both internal and external to the University in recruitment and learning of this role?

Bob Ross of Student Life Studies is looking for people who would be interested in the definition and evaluation of campus Quality of Life, and studying and modifying campus environments on the basis of a recently developed Eco-systems model.

Paul Pederson of the International Student Advisers would like to see an investigation of the role of international students on campus in contributing to non-formal educational experiences.

Ron Matross of Student Life Studies is looking for people who would be interested in some studies he does not have time to do at the moment:

1. Psychometric study of insight in counseling and psychotherapy addressing such questions as: How do clients define their problems? What do they see as the causes of their problems? What is the relationship between a client's explanation of his problems and his feelings about those problems, and his expectancy for changing them? What is the relationship between self-diagnosis and outcome? How much do clients and therapists agree about the causes of client problems?
2. Continued experimental investigation of insight in psychotherapy, examining the cognitive, emotional and behavioral effects of different interpretations of client difficulties.
3. Development of instruments for client evaluations of counselors and therapists in terms of the opinion change variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. These instruments could then be used in a series of psychometric studies relating these variables to outcome and satisfaction measures.
4. Development of outcome measures for use in analogue counseling and therapy research. These would be measures of subject improvement in circumscribed areas of problem behavior (e.g. assertiveness, procrastination).

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

THE LEGACY OF THE STUDENT MOVEMENT

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Central to the Student Movement of the 1960's, were the major issues of the Vietman War and the Selective Service system. Equally central were the issues of students' rights, governance, freedom of speech and assembly; issues subsumed under the phrase Student Power. These latter issues were not new, but have traditionally concerned students in the continuous process of defining and redefining the role of the student within the university. This article traces the history and background of the Student Movement of the 1960's, and suggests that the Student Power issues that were present before this latest era of student advocacy are still present, and that institutional awareness of these traditional student issues has been heightened, but as yet has not resulted in clearly positive changes from a student point of view.

The Legacy of the Student Movement

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An important aspect of American culture in the 1960's has been defined as the Student Movement. It is possible to describe its origins and history chronologically and briefly. There were isolated instances of opposition to the presence of ROTC on college campuses in the 1950's, but they were not part of a larger scenario or movement as would be the case later. There were also marches on Washington involving young people such as the national youth marches for integration in October 1958 and in April 1959. In the first, an estimated 10,000 marched, in the second an estimated 25,000. Both were sponsored or called by the Young Socialist, a paper then being published by the Young Socialist Alliance. A "radical left" press began to appear on campuses as early as 1957, and organized rallies in support of the Cuban Revolution were held in 1961 and in 1962, but these activities did not attract the national attention that mass protests would receive after 1964. It is this latter date that has impressed itself on the minds of those speaking of the Student Movement of the 1960's. Berkeley became the "magic moment" for students and for the nation at large.

But there is also a "before Berkeley" history of the student movement. It links together the Ban the Bomb movement in England, the early Civil Rights effort, and the on-campus protest movement that began at Berkeley in 1964 which established the central tactic of the Student Movement through the spring of 1972.

Bayard Rustin, the black civil rights activist was in England in the middle 1950's, and participated in some Ban the Bomb marches. While there he saw the tactical implications of the long, well-publicized march by large numbers of

people, the value of the street sit-in, and the confrontation with authorities that publicized the cause being supported by such tactics. Bertrand Russell and the committee of 100 were good instructors, and Rustin brought his ideas back to the United States where he began to present them to leaders of the civil rights movement as tactically useful. Non-violent confrontation with authorities was the model.

By 1960, the application of the model was being undertaken in a series of actions and locations that are now famous. The freedom rides and lunch-counter sit-ins by young blacks in the South led to Birmingham, Montgomery, Martin Luther King and the bus and merchant boycotts, to Selma and Sheriff Jimmy Clark and his cattleprods and dogs, to James Meredith and Oxford, Mississippi to Detroit, Watts, Newark, New Jersey, Greenville, North Carolina and to Memphis, Tennessee and the death of Martin Luther King. The civil rights activists organized the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the Student Non-Violent Committee (SNCC) and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). James Farmer, Stokely Carmichael, Rap Brown, Martin Luther King and Ralph Abernathy were names soon made familiar to the public.

In 1960 and 1961, as the civil rights activists moved on several fronts, i.e. freedom rides, sit-ins, marches and voter registration drives, white college students from the North began to go into the South at spring break and during the summer to help the civil rights cause. There, they absorbed the tactics of protest and confrontation politics. What would later be called politicizing and radicalizing happened to many of these college based young. They participated first-hand in planning meetings, and felt the power of authority and oppression as resistance to civil rights activism took the form of police batons, police dogs, fire hoses, police charges into crowds and the general reaction of many Southern whites to the civil rights movement. In these events some of the better known leaders of the Student Movement received their theoretical and tactical field training as civil rights activists.

In August 1963 an estimated 200,000 people marched in Washington D.C. in behalf of civil rights. The Urban League, The NAACP (The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People), CORE, SNCC and SCLC were co-sponsors of this march. In 1964, the Freedom Schools were begun. College and University students were invited to come to the South and be trained to participate in the civil rights cause in community organization work, voter registration drives and other civil rights work. Some 800-1000 college students responded.

As for Berkeley, students in 1964 would recall two earlier confrontations with authorities in the San Francisco Bay Area. The first was the march in support of freedom for Caryl Chessman, under sentence of death in San Quentin. The second was more violent. The House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC) held hearings in San Francisco in May 1960. Students and others in the area protested. Sixty-eight students were arrested, but the visual moment was when fire-hoses were turned on the crowds and a cascade of water literally swept people down the stairs of the building where the meetings were being held. As a result of this incident, the Bay Area Student Committee for the Abolition of HUAC was formed, and student advocacy activists in the San Francisco Bay Area had a cause.

Nationally, the Students for a Democratic Society had been formed in 1960, taking the place of the youth wing of the Socialist League for Industrial Democracy (SLID). In 1962 at a meeting at Port Huron, Michigan, the Port Huron statement was drawn up and SDS broke away from SLID and became a separate, primarily campus-based organization. In 1963 events mounted. President Kennedy was assassinated, followed by Lee Harvey Oswald. The voter registration drive in the South was intensified. In 1964, riots broke out in Harlem as civil rights activism became more of a total desegregation and freedom movement for all black people and not just black people in the South.

Thus, the Free Speech Movement at Berkeley of October-December 1964 has a history and a context. The civil rights activist training, the HUAC protest, the Chessman

march, and the emergence of a radical student movement of the left exemplified by SDS. At the same time the acceleration of the Vietnam war was taking place and would soon emerge as the national cause around which the Student Movement as a national movement would take shape. Accompanying the anti-war sentiment would be the growing anti-Selective Service movement. Together, anti-war, anti-draft and later anti-recruiter student movements would be collectively called the Resistance.

From 1964 to 1967, two major aspects of the Student Movement took shape. Leaders of the National Student Association as well as leaders of the Students for a Democratic Society visited Vietnam in 1965. From these visits a series of strongly anti-war papers were developed and began to circulate among student leaders and on campuses across the nation. These papers became the basis for the anti-war teach-in, the most popular method for disseminating anti-war information and for enlisting students in the anti-war cause. At the same time, the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee, under the leadership of Stokely Carmichael was becoming more militant, more totally black in its membership, and had begun a new phase of rhetoric and of action. During the Meredith march across Mississippi in June 1966, Stokely Carmichael first used the phrase Black Power. It caught on among black militants and among many black students. It was a slogan for the times, as pointed out by Robert L. Scott and Wayne Brockreide (The Rhetoric of Black Power, New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

Non-black students soon adapted the slogan to their own use, and under the leadership of Edward Schwartz, President of the United States National Student Association, Student Power emerged as an on-campus issue of concern, particularly among student leaders. But Student Power as a slogan was based on the work of the National Student Association (NSA). In the 1950's questions of freedom of speech and the press on-campus had been major areas of focus for studies presented at NSA annual meetings. NSA also conducted studies of students' rights, due process, governance and student self-determination. In 1966 at the 19th Congress of NSA the delegates received a publication, 1966-67 Codification of Policy

of the United States National Student Association. This document contained an extensive statement entitled "Student Bill of Rights and Responsibilities" (57-58). The following year, 1967, a resolution was presented to the 20th Annual Congress of NSA, drafted by Ed Schwartz and using the term Student Power in several different places. The resolution included a call for a national student power conference, which was later held at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis Campus, November 14-17, 1967. From the time of this conference, the Student Movement not only included the anti-war effort and opposition to the draft, but on-campus questions of governance, due process and students' rights were added to the issues being advocated by activist students. Often in rallies or student protest gatherings the three major issues would be advocated in concert in speeches and in writing. On campuses, Student Power became a slogan of import and the rallying cry of "Out Now!", "Hell no, we won't go" or "Student Power" were shouted and bannered on campuses all across the nation.

Beginning in 1967, student protest and unrest accelerated dramatically. San Francisco State College had a series of major incidents beginning in late 1967, and in 1968 in the spring numerous colleges and universities experienced serious incidents of student protest, the best publicized being Howard University in Washington, D.C. in March and Columbia University in April and May. As with the Free Speech Movement in Berkeley in 1964, so the Columbia University student protest became symbolic of what militant student advocacy could achieve. As a result of the combination of black militancy, the riots and disturbances in black areas in a number of cities, campus based student protest, anti-war and anti-draft system efforts and concerns of students to capitalize on the issues subsumed under the phrase student power, the Student Movement as a protest movement became more visible, and certainly more highly publicized. Newspapers, news magazines, magazines of comment and television news regularly brought the fact of student protest to the attention of the nation. It was an emotional time for the nation, heightened

greatly by the assassination of Martin Luther King and Robert Kennedy. It can be argued that the spring of 1968 was the central point of student protest with the focus on Columbia University, but not the culmination. This would come in 1970.

The fall of 1968 and the spring of 1969 were marked by the emergence of Black Power on college and university campuses. The demand was for more funds for black students, more black faculty and administrators and for departments on programs of black studies or Afro-studies. Other minority groups, Mexican-Americans (Chicanos or Brown Berets), American Indians and Women's groups would make similar demands in the following three years. Again an on-campus event focused attention nationally on black militancy and issues in colleges and universities. In March and April of 1969, Cornell University had a series of escalating incidents that made national headlines, including a picture of a young, armed black student standing vigil during one confrontation. Cushing Strout and David J. Grossvogel have provided a full account of events at Cornell (Divided We Stand, New York: Doubleday Anchor, 1970). Two chronologies, one broad and the other "close-up" are included (p. 1-29) to set the scene for what took place.

Black student demands were not confined to Cornell. Many campuses, including San Francisco State and the University of Minnesota were to have similar protest actions by black students, usually with the support of other activist and radical groups on campuses. But black students were soon to see that the objectives of radical student groups and the objectives of black students were not the same. In many instances, support from radical groups such as SDS was either accepted cautiously as at the University of Minnesota, or not accepted at all. In an apt athletic metaphor, radicals wanted to choose the team members, appoint the coaches, devise the rules of the game, select the opponents, and in some instances blow up the stadium. Black students just wanted to get into the game.

Also in 1969, an event that was to have a major impact on the Student Movement took place in the late summer. The Students for a Democratic Society held its national Convention in Chicago after having been denied the use of campus facilities by a number of colleges and universities. At this meeting, SDS suffered through a factional fight that left it fragmented, but also more militant. Three factions emerged. The Office Group was the former national leadership that had been based in the Chicago office of SDS. This faction soon disappeared completely. The second faction was the Progressive Labor Party (PLP), a hard-core Maoist revolutionary group mainly centered at Harvard University and in the Boston area. PLP emerged from the factional struggle as the apparent winners, building its program on what became its main thrust, the Student-Worker Alliance. The third group, called itself the Weatherman faction, and soon was to be known as the militant revolutionary faction of SDS. It was the Weatherman faction of SDS who led the "Four Days of Rage" in Chicago in the fall of 1969, (see Michael Putney, "Yesterday's Weatherman: They're No Longer Scaring 'Honky Amerika'," The National Observer, January 5, 1974, p.4).

An analysis of the end of the Student Movement may well point to the summer and fall of 1969 when SDS split into factions, and the Weathermen, about 300 in number, openly engaged in violent excesses in Chicago. This, in spite of the Cambodia reaction, Kent State, Jackson State and the later reaction related to Haiphong Harbor. Nora Sayre in "A Thousand Years of Peace -- and a Rolls Royce" (the New Times December 28, 1973, 47-59) went to the Houston Astrodome to observe the Festival of the Millennium '73, and the Guru Maharji Ji, looking for the presence of former radicals and activists. She wrote

I found none who'd had any solid experience of radical politics. Although the Divine Lighters claim that former radicals have flocked to join them, that appears to be propaganda, and Rennie Davis seems like a towering exception. The majority of premies I saw were 18,19 and 20; therefore, many were simply too young in '67 or '68 or '69 to have been part of the Movement.

Yet the worship of the Maharaji Ji can be understood only as a sequel to the '60's. First, one must sift the ashes of the anti-war movement itself--and remember that it was in ashes long before the ceasefire of 1973. Many premises didn't come of age until the Movement was in harsh decline: in '70 and '71, when Kent State and Jackson State and the Weatherpeople and the blast which killed a researcher at the University of Wisconsin and the random nationwide bombings caused many fledglings to associate politics with violence--whether the violence came from the government or the Weather-bureau. Thus, many of them recoiled from SDS and the other groups which had absorbed their elder siblings. (48-49)

It is in the context of the violence that Ms. Sayre describes that the Student Movement of the 1960's came to an end, at least as a large, radical, campus-based movement of reform or revolution. Whether in the "Four Days of Rage" in Chicago, the tragic violence of Kent State and Jackson State, or the mindless violence of the building bombed and the researcher killed at the University of Wisconsin, the violence was too much. And with the slow, painful progress toward a ceasefire in Vietnam and the change in the Selective Service laws, the major, unifying issues disappeared. On many campuses concerns for the environment and the ecology replaced concerns of war, draft and racism, and the Student Movement declined, almost to the point of invisibility.

And yet there is a legacy from the Student Movement on the campuses which is more than the residue of a movement that has ceased to function well. It is the set of issues found in the concerns of women, minorities, and of students generally, for rights and recognition in the academy in ways that did not commonly exist before the Student Movement became militantly active. Call it heightened consciousness or anything else, but academia has been made aware that students of college age must play a different role in academic structures and processes than before 1964.

What is interesting, is that these issues were already of concern to students before the Student Movement of the 1960's included them in its vocal, even militant, protests. They are the issues of Student Power, i.e. the student role in governance, the student role in curriculum planning and course selection, or educational reform;

the entire area of students' rights and privileges, due process and freedom of speech and assembly, and the concern for societal needs, or social reform. The National Student Association, almost from its inception had been involved in attempting to raise these issues among students as the issues to which they should commit themselves. The issues are not new. Students have sought to make their concerns known within university life since the early medieval universities at Bologna and the University of Paris. At this time their status was defined in relation to the guild system. They were the equivalent of the guild apprentice being brought into the system at the lowest status level. Theodore N. Farris, in "Social Role Limitations of the Student as an Apprentice" (essay in Louis C. Vaccaro and James Thane Covert, editors, Student Freedom in American Higher Education, New York: Teachers College Press, 1969) describes this condition for students.

The origin of the student's role as apprentice lies in the medieval guild. The university as an institutional invention of the Middle Ages was a blending of several institutional ideas: The Roman joint-stock company evolved into the eleemosynary trust; the merchant's and craftman's guilds; and the cathedral schools. Apprenticeship was a common feature of the guild systems. From the very beginning the student in the university had a role analogous to that of an apprentice and the professor a role analogous to that of a master. (42)

As Earl McGrath has suggested, students were from the first petitioners and suppliants, but not participants in the decisions touching their lives (Earl J. McGrath, Should Students Share the Power, Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1970, 14, 17). Through issue advocacy on familiar issues of governance, students' rights, et al., issues defined in the position papers and reports of the National Student Association, and then by the Student Movement of the 1960's, familiar issues have again reappeared along with the larger question of the status of students within the university.

Is, then, the status of students as measured by results of the Student Movement on these issues any different? The answer must be a qualified "yes", but it is a matter of degree. In advancing their status within the institutions of higher learning, in what seems an almost glacially slow progress, the period from 1964 to 1974 may prove to have been the most successful of any to date. At least the awareness is present, and as the legal age of adulthood drops to 18 years in many states, institutions are going to have to reassess the role of students even more than was previously the case. In so doing, one of the emphases of the Student Movement may prove to be the key, the concept of the community. It is not a new concept, but it has not been practiced much in academic settings. In community, students should be given considerably more of a role in the decisions that effect the life of the community. They make up the largest segment, or population within the academic community, and it seems that their voice should be heard in more than token forms.

This then, may be the real and lasting achievement of the Student Movement of the 1960's on the campuses. Students may be accorded new recognition as fully enfranchised members of the academic community with all rights and privileges accruing with this change in status. The entire academic enterprise at the collegiate level moves slowly to accomplish this change of status, but such change should be increasingly evident on the campuses of colleges and universities in America.

The Student Movement of the 1960's, began with a basic student issue, free speech and free assembly on the campus of the University of California at Berkeley. As a nationwide, on-going movement it moved to larger concerns, the war in Vietnam and the Selective Service system, but also retained within it the older, on-going issues subsumed under the term Student Power including free speech, free assembly and the right of advocacy itself. These and the other issues of concern to students such as governance, rights and privileges and participation in the institutional

councils and decision-making process remain as a legacy from the student advocacy of the 1960's. There is some evidence that institutional consciousness has been raised in these areas of student issues and concern. It remains to be seen, to what extent colleges and universities will involve students in the decision-making councils of university life. As is so often the case, only time will tell.

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

RESEARCH TRAINING IN APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY AN ATTITUDE CHANGE APPROACH

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A system for training researchers is described. It differs from other training methods in that it is designed to develop positive attitudes toward research as well as technical competence. The system has four elements: 1) Training is carried out in the context of programmatic research consisting of several related studies using the same basic methodology. 2) Students participate on a voluntary or semi-voluntary basis in return for course credit. 3) The skills needed to conduct the research are grouped into graded competence levels. Individuals make steady progress through the levels. 4) All members of the research team participate in planning and design of each study. Team leaders conduct progress reviews with each team member.

RESEARCH TRAINING FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGISTS:
AN ATTITUDE CHANGE APPROACH

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Efforts to train individuals to do research in applied psychology are not all that they could be. The problem is simple to state, but difficult to solve. Too many highly talented students, capable of adding greatly to our professional knowledge do not go on to do research in any form. One can offer several explanations for this situation, but we attribute this lack of widespread research commitment to certain attitudes or beliefs that students develop about research. These beliefs are often held implicitly, but even then, they operate to inhibit research initiative.

Three basic research-inhibiting beliefs can be identified in students. The first belief is that "I can't do research. It's too hard for me." Students who hold this belief are intimidated by the research that graduate study requires. This belief seems to appear most often among older students who are returning to school after several years absence.

A second belief, and one which is very widespread and unfortunate, is the belief that research is irrelevant and not worth doing. Young, social activist students seem especially likely to hold this belief. The shame of it is that this belief perpetuates a self-fulfilling prophecy. Those who complain that research is irrelevant are often the individuals who have the zeal and creativity to make research more relevant to practice. Yet their beliefs about research prevent them from undertaking research projects or talking with those who do research. Consequently their charge of irrelevancy tends to be validated.

A third research-inhibiting belief is that "Research is useful, but I just don't care to do it." This belief is certainly reasonable and not intrinsically unfortunate. The only problem with it is that it is often based on an insufficient sample of research

activities, a Ph.D dissertation for example. One of the exciting trends in psychology and student personnel work is the development of paradigms for small-scale research, such as the empirical case study. Researchers are learning that it is possible to systematically study ways of improving practice without huge investments of time and money. One does not have to devote a career and life to research to be a good researcher. Those who believe that research is not for them have typically not been exposed to rigorous small-scale research.

It is our basic thesis that the three beliefs outlined above greatly attenuate student's motivation to become involved in research. Training programs which do not systematically attend to students' attitudes about the difficulty, usefulness, and attractiveness of research will fail to help them develop a lasting research commitment. Research training should not only give students the technical skills to conduct research, but should also motivate them to use those skills throughout their careers.

Traditional training vehicles do only a partial job of dealing with research-inhibiting attitudes. For example, a class which surveys and critically reviews research literature can often help students realize that research is relevant and worthwhile. Seldom, however, does this kind of class convince students that conducting research would be both easy and personally exciting for them. Intensive research seminars which require proposing and conducting research are extremely valuable for those who are already highly committed to research. However, forcing full research efforts from those who find this activity difficult or unrewarding seldom changes their mind about it. The same forced-compliance problem limits the usefulness of thesis and dissertation research as a motivating force. Dissertation research has the additional burden of being a rite of passage, a fact which makes it altogether more gruesome and anxiety-provoking than it would otherwise be.

For some time we have had an interest in developing a method of training researchers that would deal with attitudes toward research more explicitly than do traditional training procedures. We started with the observation that most of the

good researchers we knew had been heavily involved in programmatic research efforts as students. Inevitably, a critical point in their professional development was their association with an active researcher who involved them in on-going projects. Either as research assistants or simply as volunteers, their participation in a meaningful research effort convinced them that research was useful, exciting and not difficult.

While experience as a research assistant is often associated with positive beliefs about research, it does not always work out that way. Some research assistants are merely low-level clerks doing all the jobs that no one else wants to do. Under these conditions the student is not likely to have any positive attitudes toward research. Also if one pays research assistants, most operations cannot afford to hire all those who might benefit from the experience.

The new training direction described below shares the learn-by-doing principle of the research assistantship. It differs in its explicit and systematic attention to students' research-inhibiting attitudes.

The first and most crucial element in this attitude change approach is a plan for programmatic research. The instructor in this system needs to be actively involved in an on-going research effort. The instructor who is not conducting research himself will find it difficult to give his students a deep research commitment. The research program may be quite modest, so long as it allows for several related studies using the same basic methodology.

The second element in the attitude change system is the recruitment of students. A semi-voluntary selection plan seems to work best. We try to gain the interests of both graduate and undergraduate students through advertisements and personal contact. When students express an interest in our work, they contract on a quarterly basis for course credit in return for helping out with our research. Although in some cases the participation fulfills a

requirement, students are not forced to use this particular research for that requirement. Under these conditions students tend to attribute their participation to their own interests instead of to external pressure or inducements. Since course credit is given instead of money, we can offer the experience to many more students than if we paid all of them.

The third element of the attitude change approach, and one which is terribly important, is that of graded competence levels. The skills required to carry out research projects are carefully analyzed and ranked according to difficulty. In the analogue counseling research that we have been doing, there are five competence levels. Level I skills are those of greeting experimental subjects, administering tests, and tabulating data. Level II skills are data analysis, computer programming, and debriefing subjects. Level III skills are those which are needed to coordinate the day-to-day running of experiments -- assigning subjects to conditions, monitoring interviews, and training Level I and II people. Level IV is interviewing, carrying out the experimental manipulation. Level V, the highest level, involves the major responsibility for the creative part of the experimentation -- proposing the idea, developing the design and measurement instruments, writing detailed interview scripts, training interviewers.

Detailed, explicit training procedures and "how-to-do-it" manuals are provided for each competence level. These guides take time to develop initially, but they are necessary to avoid a common complaint about the usual research assistantship -- the need for constant supervision by professional staff. Researchers sometimes allege that their research assistants are so incompetent that they, the researchers, end up doing all the work themselves. It has been our experience that inadequate performance by research assistants is more often due to poor delegation and task structuring than to inability or unwillingness. All competencies but the conceptualization of studies can be highly programmed. By using programmed training materials, and by having middle-level apprentices supervise lower-level apprentices, the team leader can concentrate on conceptual activities. His time is spent in the areas for which he is most qualified.

The system of graded competence levels is our answer to the attitude that research is too difficult. When students come to us we interview them to determine the competence level where they should begin. Undergraduates usually start at the level of test administration and data tabulating, while graduate students usually start at the level of debriefing and data analysis. With each succeeding study the individual normally moves up one level. Progress is gradual and proceeds only after the skills of the previous level are mastered. Although the program is still in its infancy the results have been surprising. One undergraduate working with us now is at Level III, the coordination of experiments. It will be surprising if he is not capable of doing his dissertation research the day he enters graduate school.

The final element in our training approach is team involvement in the creative parts of the research. We believe that this is the key to convincing students that research can be exciting. While the Level V individuals have responsibility for the design of the project, they involve the whole research team in this process. All team members are present during brainstorming sessions about the design. Everyone is asked to comment about proposed scripts and measurement instruments. They then participate in rehearsals for the experiment, and in post-mortem sessions after the experiment is completed. Both the experimental procedures and the training guides are reviewed by each team member. In addition the team leader meets individually with each member of the team at least once during the project, to answer any questions that the person might have about the study. With this structured group participation we hope to avoid the boredom and alienation that some research assistantships produce.

The possibilities for extending this system are several. For instance, in a large university there is a continuing need for program evaluation. Often there is a centralized office for conducting such research at the behest of other departments, agencies and groups within the university. Such offices could fulfill an educational function, as well as a service function, if they were to adopt the training system outlined here. Instead of hiring the central office to do a program evaluation,

another unit could send an interested staff member to the program evaluation unit to coordinate the study and be involved in its development. Similarly student leaders who feel a need to gauge student opinion on certain issues could coordinate an opinion survey on these issues under the direction of expert researchers. Students and staff with a definite project in mind do not need to be convinced that research is relevant. But they do need to develop adequate technical skills and the beliefs that research is neither intimidatingly difficult nor uninteresting.

In short, any office or institution or individual conducting systematic research can provide a lively and interesting learning environment. Hospitals, university faculties, and program evaluation units all can provide structured apprenticeships to students and visiting staff members who could benefit from the experience. Ideally this arrangement benefits both parties, giving the apprentice a meaningful learning experience while giving the researcher a low cost way of expanding his staff.

NOTES

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Thanks are extended to Donald Biggs for his comments.

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Studenthood vs. Adulthood:
Parentalism in the Academy

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Abstract

Parentalism is an attitude that is reflected in institutions of higher education in the way that students are viewed. The age of the student, and the legal status of the student as a citizen and as a fully enfranchised adult are commonly subordinated to the view of the student as a student. This paper proposes that more consideration should be given to a change in institutional attitude wherein adulthood will be recognized over studenthood. To accomplish this, awareness of the pervasiveness of existing parentalism as an institutional attitude should be recognized.

Studenthood vs. Adulthood:
Parentalism in the Academy

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This article will argue that in loco parentis is not dead, and that any plans for a funeral are not only premature but wrong. There is no corpse. In loco parentis is alive and well and hiding under its institutional generic name, parentalism. By definition, parentalism is an attitude. In educational institutions, particularly colleges and universities, it is an attitude that says students are children, regardless of chronological age. Whether a student is 17 and a late adolescent when enrolling as a college freshman, or 35 and a mature adult when enrolling as a college freshman is of no consequence. A freshman is a student, and students are children. The process or socialization and institutionalization to a "school experience" which begins in nursery school, pre-school, kindergarten or first grade, is continued in the college and university is saying that one role definition implied by the concept of studenthood has a more pervasive and continuing meaning for an educational institution than does another role definition implied by the concept of adulthood. Given the choice, the college or university will opt for the role of studenthood every time. Adulthood belongs to the Extension division, "night" school or the Continuing Education program, but not within the mainstream of the institution.

The concept of parentalism is as old as the concept of the university. It has appeared at diverse times and places throughout the Western world. In the Masters University of the University of Paris, Masters received students into their homes for instruction; at Oxford and Cambridge Universities where the faculty and students were housed in residence and study complexes with the single entrance, or portal,

with the porter monitoring entrance and exit, in the relatively young age at matriculation, age 13 or 14, in age differentials that existed in medieval universities where many students were mature men in their 20's or 30's and where younger students were supervised and controlled. Whether by Masters, porters, by supervision by older students or student groups organized as nations, parentalism was implicit.

At the medieval University of Bologna, where, as Earl McGrath has suggested (Should Students Have the Power, p. 9ff), students did have power in the form of students' rights and control, even this extensive student self-determination did not survive. In the succession of power struggles within the universities, students were reduced in status. In incident after incident at almost every European university, medieval students had to exert their rights against the town or civil control over student bodies whether in open conflict in the streets or before princes, kings, bishops or the Pope. Charters and other documents flowed out in this contest protecting the right of students from all manner of harsh treatment, but the students, and often the students and their teachers together, had to petition for redress. They were suppliants.

Later as faculty and student guilds were formed, again students lost power if not privilege, as faculties gained both power and privilege. As the granting of degrees and teaching licenses became increasingly the province of the faculties, and as faculties fought for status with other faculties, i.e. faculties of theology, law or medicine struggling within universities for status and privilege, students were reduced in status and also in power.

A third struggle further reduced the status of students as the concept of administrative bodies began to emerge within the universities, first in the form of boards of trustees, then later in the form of a senior, full-time rector, chancellor, provost or president (as in the early American College), who assumed full

responsibility for managing the institution, including student residence and disciplinary areas. In this process, a hierarchy of status emerged which marks the modern American College or University, further defining studenthood as that of a subordinate, dependent relationship not as a junior scholar, but as older children requiring discipline, supervision and control. The hierarchy of status became administrator (in the form of a strong college president whose word was law), faculty (a primarily teaching function) and student. A further reduction in the status of students came about when colleges and universities reorganized themselves into departments based on disciplines, in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, primarily in America. This reorganization put yet a further layer of administrative faculty into the hierarchy as departments formed into colleges within the universities, and deans, department chairmen and directors of programs became an accepted part of the hierarchy of status in the college or university.

McGrath is quite specific. He describes what he calls the "...stages in the evolution of higher education,..." where control has shifted back and forth among faculty, students and laymen. He describes the recent growth of de facto power or faculties in academic decision-making. He then states,

"...as part of this trend, the power of students has been subordinated. Their role has been that of children -- wards of a paternalistic institution, to be molded and disciplined into maturity." (p.16)

McGrath then goes on to very specific description.

"From the establishment of Harvard until today, with only the most atypical exception, the influence of students has been limited to indirect action. They might voice their opinions of their teachers, their courses of study, or the conditions of campus life, they might petition for redress of grievances; they might object to regulations restrictions; they might foment demonstrations and rebellions; all these things American college and university students have done over the past three centuries. But theirs was the privilege of protest, not of power, and theirs was the duty of obedience, not of participation." (p.17)

And now the question of studenthood vs. adulthood has been compounded by the granting of legal adulthood to 18 year olds, in about one half of the states, and for all federal elections. This heightens the implicit tension between studenthood

and adulthood. In a recent article (the Minneapolis Tribune, "Adults at 18, Still Minors in School", January 6, 1974, p.1E and 10E), Sam Newlund pointed out the conflict in secondary schools. Several students attended an Oktoberfest in a Minneapolis suburb where 3.2 beer was available. Some of the students were 18 and drank beer. They were reported to their local high school administrators and were suspended from athletic competition for drinking in violation of the regulations of the State High School League. The rationale for the suspension was, that studenthood prevails over adulthood, even though the drinking of alcoholic beverages by 18 year olds is legal in the State of Minnesota. As Newlund says, "...the legislature conferred adulthood on 18 year olds while some school rules still treat them as children." The regulations of the Education Department in Minnesota support this interpretation.

On a more subtle level, students do not do much better at the college level. What happens to courses in colleges that are begun specifically at student request, or through student initiative? Usually they are called programs (not in an established department, discipline, or curriculum), are considered experimental (meaning, if we wait, student interest will wane and we can forget them) and funded by "soft" money (meaning no regular departmental funds are committed, so that no funds means the end of the course eventually). When budgets are reduced for whatever reason, these programs or courses are often the first to go. Roger M. Williams, (Berkeley: What Hath Reagan Wrought", Saturday Review/World, January 12, 1974, 60-64), describes how this happened at the University of California, Berkeley. In several paragraphs he tells how Berkeley has been brought to a "diminished condition" through "Reaganism." "Through lack of funds," he says, "the summer quarter has been dropped, building maintenance reduced, library expenditures severely reduced and faculty positions lost." He then states,

"...student-activated experimental courses have been reduced to an insignificant few, the result primarily of political pressures to

which administration and faculty capitulated. Experimentation of this kind died at Berkeley in 1968, when students tried to institute a course on racism with black nationalist Eldridge Cleaver as lecturer."

Williams describes the institutional response, including denial of academic credit, then concludes, "...its intellectual value was equal to many in the Berkeley catalog."

Most colleges do not need an Eldridge Cleaver, a political outcry or an administration that capitulates. Budget cuts, retrenchment, reallocation or re-organization are enough. The student-initiated programs go. What underlies this decision? Students are not really capable of designing courses or programs of substance. Only faculty can do this as it ought to be done. What has happened at the University of California, Berkeley is symptomatic. In one form or another the story is being repeated in the face of budgetary cuts in many, if not most institutions of higher education, and often, quite unintentionally, student-initiated programs and courses feel the brunt of retrenchment first.

And so the tradition established in the medieval universities based on the feudal structure and the guild system remains. Students are children who must serve as apprentices, not to be accorded full status in the academy even though they may be legally adults. Adulthood gives way to studenthood, and studenthood is a dependent, childish subordinate relationship. Parentalism prevails, institutionally, as an attitude that is just as difficult to root out as is sexism or racism, and this attitude keeps the student in the dependent "child" role.

In the same way that sexism and racism have been raised as issues in the consciousness of institutions, parentalism needs to be seen for what it is, because parentalism touches all students regardless of age, sex, or racial origin. Colleges and universities ought to become just as serious about moderating paternalistic, institutional attitudes as they have become concerned about the role of women and minorities in institutional life. In such an effort, whether by task force, committee, or study group, one fact will quickly become apparent. The

vast majority of students do not want the power, i.e. making all decisions touching student life, curricular or extra-curricular; students do want to share the power. But they want genuine participation in the total decision-making process, not tokenism. A student representative on an occasional committee, and often not a major committee at that, is not enough. It is time, indeed past time, to accord to college and university students the full status implicit in the term adulthood. Being a college student and an adult should be accorded an equality of status in the academy, so that being first a student no longer impinges on the rights and abilities inherent in the other, being a fully enfranchised adult. Nine hundred years is a long time for people to be put down only because they are role-defined as students.

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UNIVERSITY OPINION POLL 10

Graduate Student Information Programs

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The University Opinion Poll conducted a survey of graduate student opinion on issues concerning orientation and career development programs sponsored by the University Orientation Office. Five hundred and fifty five respondents, 87% of a random sample of University of Minnesota graduate students, were contacted for their opinions. Major findings were: A majority of respondents felt that there is a need for programs on career development and orientation to the University. A plurality of the graduate students responding favored continuing the student fee which supports the program.

UNIVERSITY OPINION POLL 10

GRADUATE STUDENT INFORMATION PROGRAMS

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University of Minnesota

At the request of the Orientation Offices of the University of Minnesota, the University Opinion Poll conducted a survey of graduate student opinion concerning graduate student orientation and career development programs.

Survey Items

Survey items were developed during the week of March 25 to April 1, 1974, in meetings between staff of Student Life Studies and the Orientation Office of the University of Minnesota. Item selection was based on staff understanding of the relevant issues, technical quality, and the length limitations of a telephone interview. The selected questions were telephone pre-tested by professional interviewers on April 1 and April 3, 1974.

Conduct of the Survey

The survey was conducted by telephone, with a supplemental mailing. During the period of April 5 through 8, 1974, Koser Surveys called all the students in the sample with local phone numbers. Each number was attempted a minimum of four times at different hours of the day. Ten percent of the respondents were contacted a second time as a validation check. During the period of April 5 through April 18, the survey was mailed to all those without local phone numbers and to all who could not be contacted by Koser Surveys.

Sample and Response Rates

The total sample included the names of 635 graduate students from the Twin Cities Campus of the University of Minnesota. The sample was developed from a computer-generated listing of 700 names in the active file of the Office of Admissions and Records. Professional school students, those with only non-Minnesota addresses, and those not currently registered as U of M students were not included. By April 18, 1974, complete responses had been received from 87% (555 of 635) of the total sample. Of these, 555 70% responded by telephone and 30% responded by mail. Of those whom Koser Surveys attempted to call, complete responses were received from 86% (445 of 514). Of those who were mailed the survey, 58% (110 of 190) responded.

Results

The percentages of respondents choosing each response alternative for each question are presented. Differences between response categories of fewer than five percentage points should not be considered significant. Percentages may sum to 99% or 101% because of rounding errors.

1. Were you a graduate student at the University of Minnesota before the Fall quarter of '73?

% of sample (N=555)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 71 |
| b. No | 29 |

2. Did you receive your undergraduate degree from the University of Minnesota?

% of sample (N=553)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 35 |
| b. No | 65 |

3. As a grad student, would you have liked an orientation program in each of the following areas:

- a. University policies and procedures, such as registration and thesis requirements?

% of sample (N=554)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 59 |
| b. No | 41 |

- b. University facilities and services, such as financial aid, health services, and libraries?

% of sample (N=555)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 60 |
| b. No | 40 |

- c. The Twin Cities community, such as housing, employment and recreation?

% of sample (N=554)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 39 |
| b. No | 61 |

4. I'm going to read a list of workshops for graduate students. Would you please tell me if you feel there is or is not a need for each.

- a. Writing resumes

% of sample (N=553)

- | | |
|--------------|----|
| a. Yes | 60 |
| b. No | 34 |
| c. Undecided | 6 |

4. (con't.) ... need for graduate workshops in the following areas:

b. Job interviews

% of sample (N=552)

- a. Yes 61
- b. No 34
- c. Undecided 5

c. Advice on income taxes

% of sample (N=553)

- a. Yes 49
- b. No 46
- c. Undecided 5

d. Job market information

% of sample (N=553)

- a. Yes 78
- b. No 19
- c. Undecided 3

e. Career Alternatives

% of sample (N=553)

- a. Yes 70
- b. No 27
- c. Undecided 4

f. How to finance dissertations

% of sample (N=553)

- a. Yes 67
- b. No 26
- c. Undecided 6

5. Would YOU like planned social events to meet other graduate students?

% of sample (N=555)

- a. Yes 32
- b. No 62
- c. Undecided 6

6. Would YOU like planned social events to meet deans, administrators, and faculty?

% of sample (N=555)

- a. Yes 41
- b. No 52
- c. Undecided 7

7. Did you hear of the Winter quarter Graduate Student ORIENTATION Programs?

% of sample (N= 555)

- | | |
|--------|----|
| a. Yes | 37 |
| b. No | 63 |

8. Does your department have a special orientation program for graduate students?

% of sample (N= 554)

- | | |
|--------------|----|
| a. Yes | 37 |
| b. No | 49 |
| c. Can't Say | 14 |

9. If No, do you think it should?

% of sample (N= 273)

- | | |
|--------------|----|
| a. Yes | 65 |
| b. No | 28 |
| c. Undecided | 7 |

10. When new grad students register for the first time, they pay a \$5 fee. This fee supports Graduate Students Orientation Programs, Career Development Workshops and planned social events. Do you feel this ONE-TIME fee should be required?

% of sample (N= 550)

- | | |
|--------------|----|
| a. Yes | 49 |
| b. No | 37 |
| c. Undecided | 14 |

It was of interest to determine whether or not there were significant differences in approval of the orientation fee between those who had paid the fee and those who had not. Payment of the fee was indicated by whether or not the respondent was a graduate student at the University of Minnesota before the Fall quarter of 1973 when the fee was first required for new students. A Chi-Square test showed significant differences in responses ($\chi^2=13.66$, $p<.001$) between those who had paid the fee and those who had not. See TABLE I.

TABLE I

Approval of Fee by Paying-Nonpaying Groups

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>
<u>Fee Payment NOT Required</u> (Students first enrolled before Fall '73)	51%	33%	16%
<u>Fee Payment Required</u> (Students first enrolled Fall '73 or later)	46%	47%	7%

Also, there was interest in examining the possibility of differences between those students who had done their undergraduate work at the University of Minnesota and those who had not in response to the same question of whether or not the Orientation fee should be required. A Chi-Square test indicated no significant difference between these groups ($\chi^2 = 1.24, p < .54$).

TABLE II

Approval of Fee by Location of Undergraduate Work

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>
University of Minnesota	48%	40%	12%
Non-University of Minnesota	50%	37%	15%

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AN ANALYSIS OF 1972-1973 UNIVERSITY POLL SURVEYS

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Abstract

The University Poll is a mechanism for conducting opinion surveys at the University of Minnesota. This paper examines responses from four University Poll surveys conducted in 1972 and 1973 in an attempt to portray trends in student opinion on the issues of student self-determination, student satisfaction with university experiences, and perceived student needs. Results suggest a strong desire among students to participate in university decision-making, basic student satisfaction with academic experiences, and considerable selectivity in supporting programs with required fees.

AN ANALYSIS OF 1972-73 UNIVERSITY POLL SURVEYS

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The University Poll is a mechanism for surveying student and faculty opinion at the University of Minnesota. It is a service provided to University offices and registered student groups on a contractual basis by Student Life Studies, a research unit of the Office for Student Affairs. Since its inception in 1972, the University Poll has conducted opinion surveys for a variety of offices and groups. Each of these surveys has focused upon issues of interest to the contracting party, with no attempt to integrate successive surveys. The purpose of this report is to reanalyze the combined responses from four of these surveys conducted in 1972 and 1973, in an attempt to portray general trends in student opinion during this period.

METHOD

University Poll surveys are conducted according to the following procedure: (1) A random sample of the target population is drawn from a list of the total population. (2) Survey items are determined by the contracting party and staff of Student Life Studies, and telephone pretested by professional pollsters. Questions are usually structured so that they may be asked and answered within five minutes. (3) A professional polling organization surveys as many respondents as possible by telephone during a four day period. Those who are not contacted by phone are mailed survey items, with a follow-up mailing to non-respondents. The entire conduct of the survey takes place within a two-week period. Response rates for the surveys range between 70% & 90%.

During 1972-73, seven surveys were conducted by the University Poll. Three of these surveys are not considered in the present analysis, one because of technical inadequacy, and two because they relate to narrow issues (local publications and radio stations). The majority of items from the remaining four surveys were regrouped into three categories: (1) Items bearing on student

self-determination--the role of students in decision-making. (2) Items relating to student satisfaction with academic experiences, student services and administrative actions. (3) Items relating to the perceived needs of students, including the needs of special groups within the university community, as well as those programs and services for which students were willing to pay.

RESULTS

I. Student self-determination

The first University Poll survey, taken in Winter of 1972, asked several questions about the degree of student participation and control desired by respondents. Two groups, one a random sample of all students at the Twin Cities Campus, and the other a sample of student senators, were polled. When asked about participation in the activities of the Board of Regents, 75% of the general sample and 89% of the student senator sample felt that students should have at least some control over the issues considered by the Board. The general sample was fairly evenly split over the question of actual voting power on Regents' business, with 52% favoring no voting rights, 24% favoring student voting rights on Regents' sub-committees (but not on the Board itself), and 24% favoring full voting rights on the Board. Student senators supported student enfranchisement on the Board, more strongly, with 32% supporting voting at the subcommittee level and 45% favoring student voting power at the Board level.

Student self-determination of their academic coursework was considered in another item from the first survey. Students and student senators were asked how much choice students should have in determining their own programs. Forty-three percent of the general sample and 51% of the student senator sample felt that students should be allowed to choose all their courses, with the only restriction being the number of credits required for graduation. Only 1%

of the general sample and 2% of the senator sample felt that student should have no choice at all in their programs. The remainder of both groups supported the middle position that students should be allowed to choose courses with content areas (e.g. science, humanities) to satisfy the number of credits required. In addition 67% of the general student sample and 77% of the student senators endorsed a Bachelor of Elected Studies program, which would allow students much more choice in determining their coursework than permitted under traditional B.A. and B.S. programs.

The sixth survey, taken in Winter, 1973, inquired about students' desire to have a role in evaluating faculty. Sixty-two percent of a general student sample felt that students should have at least some voting members on committees to evaluate the research and scholarly capabilities of faculty members; 76% felt that students should at least have some vote in decisions about faculty advising, and 88% advocated at least some student voting power in evaluating faculty teaching.

In the fifth survey, also conducted in Winter of 1973, a sample of the general student body was asked about student determination of required student fees. Seventy-six percent endorsed the concept of students' having a voice in fee setting, with 41% favoring fee setting by a committee with equal representation of students and administrators, 19% favoring fee setting by committee with a majority of students, and 26% favoring fee setting by student referendum.

Support for the control of student services by the student government was assessed by three items in the first survey. Sixty-nine percent of the general sample and 75% of the senator sample felt that the student government should seek to gain some control over student services. When asked about specific student services the student government should seek to control, responses from the general sample indicated that 38% advocated control over housing, 58% control over a bookstore, 32% control over food services, 25%

control over counseling and 50% control over student unions, while 7% marked none. Among the student senators, 70% marked housing, 45% food services, 36% counseling, and 48% student unions. Additionally, 72% of the general sample and 84% of the senator sample felt that the student government should be allowed to construct a student-controlled housing project on university property.

II. Student satisfaction

The sixth University Poll survey inquired about students' satisfaction with their academic experiences. When a general sample of students was asked to rate their satisfaction with the overall quality of instruction they had received, 85% reported being either satisfied or very satisfied while 10% reported being dissatisfied or very dissatisfied, with the remaining 5% undecided. A majority of respondents reported that they were satisfied with at least half of the teaching assistants (70%) and faculty members (88%) from whom they had taken courses.

Evaluation of the degree to which faculty members aided students in fulfilling their degree requirements were somewhat less positive, with 21% stating that their teachers were not helpful, and 63% saying that they were helpful, with the remainder undecided. Similarly, evaluations of academic advising were less positive than evaluations of teaching, with 56% being satisfied or very satisfied with their advisors, 24% being dissatisfied with them, and the remainder undecided.

In contrast to the academic area, general evaluations of the university's administration were not ascertained in any of the surveys. Evaluations of administrative actions were in relation to two specific campus issues. One of these issues was the university's response to a campus anti-war demonstration in May 1972. The survey, number three, was taken one week following an incident in which city police were called in to clear the campus. Seventy-two

percent of the general student sample reported that they were dissatisfied with the manner in which the police handled the demonstration. The response of the university's administration to the demonstration was regarded somewhat more positively, with more students (48%) reporting satisfaction with the actions of the administration than dissatisfaction (39%).

The other issue of which administrative response was evaluated was a decision not to hire a gay activist who had applied for a position with the university. Eighty-one percent of the general student sample and 93% of the student senator sample in the first survey felt that the University was not justified in this decision.

III. Perceived needs

The surveys assessed students' perceptions of their needs in two ways-- first by asking them whether they thought particular programs and services were justified, and secondly by asking them whether they would be willing to have their student fees support specified programs. In the academic area majority support was voiced for special studies programs for a variety of groups. Responses of the general student sample in the first survey indicated support by 84% for a Black Studies program, 62% for a Chicano Studies program, 82% for Native American Studies and 67% for Womens Studies. Non-academic special services for women were also supported by majorities of both the general sample and student senators. Over 80% of each group felt that the University Health Service should provide women students with pap smears, birth control techniques, abortion counseling, and pregnancy tests. Less support, 58% of the general sample and 65% of the senators, was offered for the provision of pre and post natal care.

The fifth survey, taken in Winter, 1973, asked a general sample of students their feelings about the allocation of student fees. A majority favored required fees for: the student newspaper (68%), the student government (53%),

and the student union (52%). Fifty percent favored a required fee for the University Health Service although 75% said they would pay an optional health service fee. A majority of students were against requiring fees for the following services and programs: renovation of the student union (53%), and inter-collegiate athletic building (74%), an intramural athletics program (72%), a student-controlled public interest research group (77%), and a student-owned FM radio station (80%).

DISCUSSION

The most consistent trend in the surveys analyzed here was the desire of students to participate in making the decisions which affect them. The issue of student self-determination was considered in several areas including decisions about academic requirements, evaluations of faculty, and allocation of student fees. In each of these areas, not only student leaders, but students in general, offered majority support for a substantial student role in decision making. It would appear that many of the views of the Student Power Movement of the sixties were assimilated into the majority viewpoint among students in the early seventies. There were, however, some limits to the desire for power. The majority did not endorse full voting rights for students on the Board of Regents although they were somewhat more willing to support such rights on Regents' subcommittees. Also students were not ready to have their student government take over the provision of basic student personnel services such as counseling, housing, and health services although they were willing to support the concept that students should have some control over student services, especially in housing. Mechanisms for participation, not outright control, seemed to be the focal point for student desires to influence university policy. As might be expected, student leaders had stronger feelings

about participation than did other students. The opinions of those leaders, however, were only more pronounced and not essentially discordant with the opinions of their constituencies.

The generally positive opinions students had of their instructors suggest satisfaction with the most basic aspect of university life. While advisors and administrators may not fare so well, those who provide instruction seem to be held in relatively high esteem. At least at the University of Minnesota it is unlikely that the basic quality of instruction will become a target of student unrest in the near future.

Students were quite sensitive to the needs of minority groups as evidenced by support for programs of study for Blacks, Chicanos, and Native Americans. The somewhat lower support for Women's Studies may be a reflection of the fact that the Women's Movement was just beginning a period of ascendancy at the time the question was asked. Special health services for women, however, were strongly supported.

When students were asked not just about need, but whether they were willing to fund programs with required fees, their responses were highly selective. Student unions, the student government and the student newspaper were seen as deserving required fees, but the union renovation, intramural athletics, and FM radio station, a consumer research group, and a new athletic building were not. Opinion about required fee support of the health service was almost evenly divided. Student appeared to feel that fees should be required of all students only for those services likely to be used by nearly all students. They seemed to be reluctant to subsidize services and programs which are likely to be utilized by a minority of students.

The highly tentative picture which emerges from the analyzed surveys portrays upper midwestern students in the early seventies as politically liberal, fiscally conservative, satisfied with their instructors and strongly in favor of student participation in the formulation of university policies. The high degree of differentiation among opinions suggest that global characterization of students such as "liberal" or "conservative" are quite hazardous.

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office for student affairs RESEARCH BULLETIN

THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA TWIN CITIES CAMPUS
FRESHMAN CLASS OF 1973
WITH COMPARISONS TO THE FRESHMAN CLASS OF 1967

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Admissions and Records

Abstract

This paper is a follow-up study of freshman on the Twin Cities campus of the University of Minnesota. The first study was done by Dr. Ralph Berdie in 1968 on the 1967 freshman class. The present study uses basically the same data base as the 1968 report. Comparisons are made between the 1967 and 1973 freshmen to see if any changes occurred. This report includes tables based on official Admissions and Records freshman statistical reports.

Introduction

In 1968, Berdie did a study, "The University of Minnesota Freshmen Class of 1967", based on Admissions and Records freshman statistical reports for Fall Quarter, 1967. Now, six years later, another look at University of Minnesota Twin Cities campus freshmen is advisable, as these six years have seen changes at the University of Minnesota.

This study looks at the freshman statistical reports published by the Office of Admissions and Records for Fall, 1973, and makes comparisons of 1973 and 1967 freshmen to see what changes have transpired.

Berdie observed in 1968 that University of Minnesota freshmen were intellectually capable, competent to face academic challenges, and able to understand abstract concepts and ideas. This is still true. Freshmen in 1973 were probably aware of the college ferment of the previous six years and were therefore more aware of their campus environment than were previous freshman groups. The 1973 freshmen came from homes where parents had slightly more education than did those in 1967, and more of these parents were in professional occupations than were their 1967 counterparts. In spite of the slightly improved socio-economic levels of parents, finances were still a problem for the 1973 freshmen, due to rapidly rising costs of post-secondary education.

For the freshman profile, a few new tables have been added to the 1973 study. Since cost increasingly is a major factor in gaining a college education, a table representing sources of income was added. More than one-half of all 1973 freshmen worked and had either loans or scholarships (Table 12). Another new table shows the demographic patterns of the 1973 freshmen by college and sex. Sixty-four percent were enrolled in the College of Liberal Arts. In 1973, women accounted for 43% of the freshman class (Table 1).

Demographic Profile of Fall, 1973, Freshmen
Attending the Twin Cities Campus

Distribution by College and Sex

TABLE 1

College Distribution for Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)

College	Male	Female	Total	%
Liberal Arts	1852	1855	3707	69
Technology	613	51	664	13
General	252	246	498	9
Agriculture	161	91	252	5
Home Economics	3	169	172	3
Forestry	57	13	70	1
N (Twin Cities Only)	2938	2425	5363	
Sex Percent	55	45		100

The total enrollment for Fall Quarter, 1973, was 41,005. Of that total, 5,363 (13%) were freshmen. The distribution among the six new high school freshman-admitting Twin Cities colleges was as follows: the College of Liberal Arts, 3,707; the Institute of Technology, 664; General College, 498; the College of Agriculture, 252; the College of Home Economics, 172; the College of Forestry, 70 (Table 1). Of this freshman enrollment, 55% were males, and 45% were females. The freshman enrollment in 1967 was 8,414, which was 22% of the total enrollment of 38,245. This shows a decrease in freshman enrollment of nine percentage points since 1967.

Distribution by Age

TABLE 2

Age Distribution of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)

Sexes Combined

Age	Colleges					
	CIA %	IT %	GC %	AFHE %	All Colleges ¹ %	U.S. Colleges ² %
16	1	1	0	0	0	0
17	18	20	12	15	15	4
18	68	71	50	78	69	80
19	7	4	15	4	7	14
20	2	1	6	0	3	1
21	1	1	3	1	2	0
22	1	0	3	0	1	0
23	1	1	2	1	1	0
24	0	1	2	0	1	0
25 & up	1	1	7	1	1	0
N	3130	557	672	419	7028	--

¹All campuses.

²From 1973 American Council on Education (ACE) study.

Table 2 gives the age distributions for the four largest freshman-admitting colleges (i.e., the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, General College, and the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry and Home Economics combined) and for all colleges. Besides the Twin Cities, the "All Colleges" column includes Duluth, Morris, Waseca and Crookston freshmen. For

the four colleges, two-thirds or more were 18 years of age, less than one-fifth were 17, and only two of the colleges (the College of Liberal Arts and the Institute of Technology) had one percent at age 16. For all colleges, 10% were 19 to 20 years old. General College had the most students in this age group (20%), and the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics combined had the least (four percent). For the 21 years old and over group, there were six percent across all colleges, but the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry and Home Economics combined had only three to four percent in this category. The General College had 17% in the over 21 group, of which seven percent were in the 25 and over age bracket. Except for General College, the freshmen were homogeneous in age, since over 80% of them were in the 19 to 20 age level.

Parental Occupations

TABLE 3

Parental Occupations of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)

Sexes Combined

Occupation	Colleges				
	CLA %	IT %	GC %	AFHE %	All Colleges ¹ %
Professional	29	34	15	31	24
Owns or Manages Business	16	13	16	10	14
Office or Clerical	4	4	6	6	4
Sales	11	9	13	10	10
Owns or Manages Farm	3	4	2	16	6
Skilled	25	28	27	11	22
Semi-Skilled	5	4	6	8	6
Unskilled	0	0	0	5	3
Other	7	4	15	3	11
N	2954	526	608	402	6664

¹All campuses.

Occupations of students' parents suggest the economic levels from which the freshmen come. The 1973 study shows an increase in the "professional" classification since the 1968 study.

One-fourth (24%) of all college freshmen have parents whose occupations are in the "professional" category. Students in the Institute of Technology have the highest percentage of parents who are professional (34%); General College students have the lowest (15%). About one-third (29%-31%) of the students in the College of Liberal Arts and in the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics have professional parents.

The next largest occupational unit is "skilled". In 1967, the "skilled" had the highest percentage (26%) for freshman parental occupations. For 1973, the percentage for all colleges was 22%. This change has important implications in terms of enrollment policies and the shift in our campus population economic pattern. Table 3 shows that the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and General College each have about one-fourth in the "skilled" occupations. The Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics combined have only 11% in this occupational category.

The third most frequent occupational classification is "own or manage a business". In 1973, 14% of freshmen's parents were in this group for all colleges. The College of Liberal Arts and General College accounted for 16%; the Institute of Technology had 13%; the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry and Home Economics combined had 10%. These percentages are all slight decreases from those in the tables for 1967. The figures were 17% for all colleges, 19%-20% for the College of Liberal Arts and General College, 16% for the Institute of Technology, and 13% for the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics combined.

The remaining occupational groupings (40%) are distributed as follows. Ten percent of students had parents in sales occupations. General College lead this division with 13%, while the Institute of Technology was lowest with nine percent. In 1967, the sales group also accounted for 10%. This occupational group has not changed its contribution to the enrollment pattern.

Six percent of students had parents who own or manage a farm. The combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics logically lead this group with 16% in the farming business. The College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and General College each had less than five percent in this category.

Semi-skilled workers also accounted for six percent for all colleges combined. The Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics combined had eight percent, and the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and General College each had five percent.

The office and clerical occupations contributed four percent to the 1973 freshman class for all colleges, a three percentage point drop from the 1968 report. The College of Liberal Arts and the Institute of Technology each had four percent. General College and the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics each had six percent.

The remaining classification, "other", constituted 11%. Since this category is undefined, however, one can say little about this group other than that it increased four percent over the 1968 report.

Fathers' Education

TABLE 4

Paternal Education of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)

Sexes Combined

Education	Colleges					
	CLA %	IT %	GC %	AFHE %	All Colleges ¹ %	U.S. Colleges ² %
Eighth Grade or Less	5	7	9	8	8	4
Some High School	5	6	9	5	7	8
High School Graduate	30	28	34	36	32	23
Business or Trade School	1	0	1	1	1	5
Some College	18	17	22	16	17	16
College Graduate	25	30	18	21	21	24
Professional Degree	7	3	2	5	5	--
Post-Graduate Work	2	2	2	0	2	3
Graduate Degree	7	7	3	8	6	16
N	3004	532	622	412	6758	

¹All Campuses.

²From ACE study.

Another indicator of the socio-economic background of freshmen is the educational achievement of their parents. Table 4 shows the educational level of the freshmen's fathers. Two indicative changes between the 1968 study and the 1973 study are the decrease in non-high school graduates and the increase in college graduates. In 1967, 16% of the fathers had not finished high school; in 1973, the figure was only 10%. In 1967, 14% had received college degrees; the 1973 figure was 21%.

The number of those who continued their education after high school by attending a trade school or by completing some college work without earning degrees remained constant at 18% for each year reported.

The pattern for professional and graduate degrees again shows an increase. Professional school graduates added another two percent to the freshman enrollment, for a total of five percent in 1973. Fathers who earned graduate degrees doubled their percentage from three percent in 1967 to six percent in 1973. The percentage of fathers who did post-graduate work but did not get graduate degrees remained at the two percent level reported in 1968.

More freshmen in 1973 had fathers with college, professional, and graduate degrees than did those in 1967. In fact, the fathers of the 1973 freshman class show an increase of 13 percentage points among college graduates and a decrease of six percentage points among non-high school graduates.

This raises some questions as to the success of the University's programs for economically deprived and minority students, supposedly designed to increase the enrollment of the children of non-college graduates who, generally, are at the lower end of the income scale.

Mothers' Education

TABLE 5
 Maternal Education of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)
 Sexes Combined

Education	Colleges					
	CLA %	IT %	GC %	AFHE %	All Colleges ¹ %	U.S. Colleges ² %
Eighth Grade or Less	3	3	5	4	4	2
Some High School	4	4	8	2	6	6
High School Graduate	45	50	54	45	47	38
Business or Trade School	3	1	1	7	2	8
Some College	24	20	21	21	23	18
College Graduate	18	18	9	17	16	19
Professional Degree	0	0	0	1	0	--
Post-Graduate Work	1	1	1	0	1	3
Graduate Degree	2	3	1	3	2	5
N	3024	533	621	415	6758	

¹All campuses.

²From ACE study.

Some psychologists and sociologists say that we live in a maternally dominated society, as far as the rearing of off-spring is concerned. If this were true, the educational level of freshmen's mothers may be more influential than that of the fathers. Table 5 shows the educational level of the 1973 freshmen's mothers.

As in the pattern for fathers, mothers had more education in 1973 than in 1967.

The number of freshmen's mothers without high school diplomas dropped from 16% in 1967 to 10% in 1973. The number receiving only high school diplomas dropped from 51% in 1967 to 47% in 1973, a decrease of four percent.

The number of women doing post-high school studies rose by three percent over 1967 (i.e., from 22% in 1967 to 25% in 1973). The percentage of mothers earning college degrees also rose markedly. In 1967, nine percent of the freshmen's mothers had college degrees; in 1973, the figure was 23%, more than a 150% increase.

This increase did not include the graduate, professional, and post-graduate levels of education. As in 1967, less than one percent of the 1973 mothers had professional degrees. Only three percent had graduate degrees. As in 1967, only one percent did some post-graduate work in 1973.

In summary, the mothers of 1973 freshmen showed more education in both the post-high school and college levels but dropped in high school diplomas only and did not advance in the professional and graduate degrees. Women's "lib" groups may need to investigate the reasons why there has been no increase beyond the college level and why there has been a decrease for the high school diploma level.

TABLE 6
 Comparison of Maternal-Paternal Levels of Education
 for Fall, 1967 and 1973, Entering Freshmen

Educational Level	1967		1973	
	Maternal %	Paternal %	Maternal %	Paternal %
No High School Diploma	25	16	15	10
High School Graduate	51	36	47	32
Business or Trade School or Some College Work	22	18	25	18
College Graduate	9	14	23	21
Post-Graduate Work	1	2	1	2
Professional or Graduate Degree	1	6	2	11

The Ability Picture

TABLE 7
 Ability Characteristics of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)
 Median Scores, Sexes Combined

Variable	Colleges									
	CLA		IT		GC		AFHE		All Colleges ¹	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
H.S. Percentile Rank	80		87		36		81		76	
MSAT Percentile	72		77		25		67		64	
H.S. Academic GPA	3.11		3.33		2.11		3.10		2.94	
H.S. Overall GPA	3.13		3.35		2.18		3.14		2.99	
ACT English	21	21	22	25	15	18	20	22	21	20
Mathematics	27	25	30	29	16	15	27	24	25	23
Social Studies	25	25	27	28	16	12	22	25	22	22
Natural Science	29	27	30	30	19	17	29	26	26	25
Composite	26	24	27	28	17	14	24	24	23	22
N (Approximate)	3130		557		672		419		7028	

¹ All campuses.

Since academic success is basic to entering freshmen, Table 7 provides the best indicators of how the freshmen stand in terms of academic potential. The entering freshmen at the Twin Cities campus have good academic ability.

High School Rank

The average freshmen in the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics finished high school at the eightieth percentile or above, which means that more than half have come from the top 20% of their graduating classes.

TABLE 8
High School Percentile Rank for Entering Freshmen
Sexes Combined

Year	CLA	IT	GC	AFHE	All Colleges
1967	78	88	33	75	74
1973	80	87	36	81	76

A comparison of 1967 and 1973 high school percentiles shows no real difference. General College still has the lowest high school percentile rank (36) but did move up three points from 1967. The combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics made the largest gain with an increase of six points.

Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test

The Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test (MSAT) reflects a freshman's college ability and his general intelligence in terms of academic background.

The scores reported here are percentiles derived from norms for Minnesota college freshmen.

TABLE 9
MSAT Percentile Rank for Entering Freshmen
Sexes Combined

Year	CLA	IT	GC	AFHE	All Colleges
1967	78	85	26	61	69
1973	72	77	25	67	64

The College of Liberal Arts decreased by six points, the Institute of Technology was down eight points, General College was reduced by one point, and "all colleges" dropped five points. Only the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics showed an increase (six points) in 1973. In this study, no evidence explains why this decrease in MSAT scores occurred.

High School Grade Point Averages

The high school academic grade point average is based on grades received only in those subjects labeled academic in high school records. The overall high school grade point average is based on grades received in all subjects taken. As expected, the overall grade point average is slightly higher than the academic grade point average.

TABLE 10

High School Academic Grade Point Average for Entering Freshmen
Sexes Combined

Year	CLA	IT	GC	AFHE	All Colleges
1967	2.86	3.22	1.81	2.69	2.72
1973	3.11	3.33	2.11	3.10	2.94

TABLE 11

High School Overall Grade Point Average for Entering Freshmen
Sexes Combined

Year	CLA	IT	GC	AFHE	All Colleges
1967	2.88	3.22	1.91	2.74	2.73
1973	3.13	3.35	2.18	3.14	2.99

Somewhat surprising, in light of the MSAT decreases, are the grade point average increases for all categories in 1973. The College of Liberal Arts and the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics moved from a high "C" into the "B" range; the Institute of Technology continued in the "B" level; General College rose from below a "C" to the middle of the "C" grade range.

American College Testing Program

All high school seniors who apply to the University of Minnesota are required to take the examinations of the American College Testing Program (ACT). Table 7 contains the mean scores for the ACT tests of those freshmen who entered the Twin Cities campus in the fall of 1973.

Berdie observed noticeable differences in scores between the sexes in 1967 and observed that the women in his study tended to have lower scores on the mathematics section than did the men. Despite a slight increase in the women's scores for this section in 1973, this trend continued. In all four colleges, the men still scored higher than the women. In the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics, women raised their scores about two points. Naturally, the Institute of Technology freshmen (both male and female) had the highest mathematics scores of the four colleges.

English scores were fairly even between the sexes but dropped overall from 1967. As in 1967, the women in the Institute of Technology, in General College, and in the Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics in 1973 scored slightly higher in English than did the men in those colleges.

An appraisal of the social sciences scores for 1973 reveals a decrease across the board. Men in the Institute of Technology were the only group to make the same score as in 1967.

A review of the natural sciences scores shows an increase of two points in the College of Liberal Arts and in the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics. Scores for the Institute of Technology and for General College remained constant between 1967 and 1973.

The composite scores remained approximately the same for the College of Liberal Arts, the Institute of Technology, and the combined Colleges of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics but dropped one point for men and three points for women in General College.

Generally, the ACT scores show a slight gain for the 1973 freshmen over 1967. The uniform reduction in the social sciences scores for both sexes across all colleges, however, raises some interesting questions. Could it be that high school curricula are reducing their social science programs? Could the fact that the highest scores for "all colleges" are in mathematics and natural sciences further indicate a curriculum shift away from English and social sciences and toward mathematics and natural sciences? Overall, the freshmen in 1973 are slightly more capable in mathematics and natural sciences than the already capable freshmen of 1967.

Financing of Education

TABLE 12

Sources of Income for All Colleges of Entering Freshmen, 1973 (Fall)

Percent of Income	Family		Work		Savings		Loan		Scholarship		Other	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
100	641	14	36	1	210	4	24	1	102	2	52	1
80-99	423	9	47	1	112	2	56	1	68	1	38	1
60-79	439	9	69	1	181	4	115	2	140	3	44	1
40-59	750	16	362	8	592	12	272	6	374	8	29	1
20-39	673	14	1113	23	975	21	517	11	493	10	20	--
01-19	464	10	862	18	950	20	234	5	221	5	28	1
00	1357	29	2258	48	1727	36	3529	74	3349	71	4536	96
N Totals (Sample % = 68)	4747		4747		4747		4747		4747		4747	
Non-Response (32%)											2284	
Total Potential Respondents											7031	

Table 12 is a new addition to the freshman study. Consequently, no comparable data are in the 1968 study.

As the rate of inflation has escalated, the economic factors loom ever larger in the availability of higher education to even middle income families. Tax-supported colleges and universities have been forced to increase their tuition, thus reducing their service to those who cannot find the finances, no matter how much ability they may have.

Table 12 shows that 52% of the 1973 entering freshmen indicated they were working in their first year. About one-third (31%) of them earned 20% to 49% of their income. Seventy-one percent of the freshmen, however, still depended on their parents for a crucial part of their income. One-third received 60% to 100% from their families; another third received 20% to 59% from this source. Of the remaining third, 10% received from one percent to 19% of their income from their families, and 29% got no parental support. Just under one-third of the entering freshmen were totally self-supporting.

How do freshmen finance their educations beyond the family and work sources? Sixty-four percent have savings which they use to pay the increasing costs of learning. Approximately one-fourth pay from their savings 40% to 100% of the costs of their education. One-third do not have any savings to fall back on at all.

Much has been made of the increasing federal and state loan and scholarship programs. On close inspection, however, this assistance is not impressive. Only one-fourth (26%) of entering freshmen were able to receive any loan funds. Of this group, ten percent got 60% to 100% loan assistance, 34% got 20% to 59% of their income through loans, and 74% got no help. The amount of these loan funds guaranteed to minorities is important, since this practice reduces even more the funds available to those not belonging to a minority group.

Since loans received by freshmen, who probably seek similar financial assistance in the remaining three years, must be repaid with interest during the students' first years of employment, it seems somewhat inexplicable that more loan funds are not available for educating college students, whose educations will directly serve our society.

The scholarship, a long tradition in higher education, was, in the past, used as a reward for academic excellence rather than as a general economic aid program. Twenty-nine percent of the entering freshmen of 1973 received scholarships. Scholarship aid covered 60% to 100% of costs for only six percent of the one-third fortunate enough to be selected. Eighteen percent received aid sufficient to cover 20% to 59% of their education costs. Seventy-one percent did not get any scholarship funds. At least the students with scholarships have the advantage of not having to repay with interest what they received.

More financial aid of all kinds is needed if equal opportunity for students with college capability is to be feasible in this time of inflationary trends.

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