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Ave atque Vale

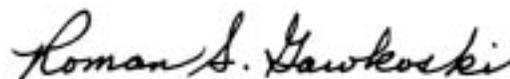
This issue is bittersweet for me for it marks the end of my tenure as Editor of *College & University*.

Four years ago, almost to the day, I murmured my "Ave!" as I assumed the office of Editor of AACRAO's professional journal with the promise of staying on for two years to see us through a difficult period. The two years turned into three, and then into four.

The editorship of *C&U* has been an exhilarating experience. Most especially it has been rewarding to work with a competent and devoted Advisory Committee. I am convinced that the

members of the Committee are the hardest working members of any committees or boards in AACRAO for they devote many hours every six weeks or so reading manuscripts, critiquing them, and finally making a recommendation on each to publish or reject. With such able assistance, the editor's job becomes much easier indeed! So, thanks to each and every member of the Advisory Committee.

Now the difficult times are past. Now *C&U* will be changing! Now the time has come to pass care of our journal into other hands. Now is the time to say, "Vale!"



Instructions to Authors

The *C&U* Advisory Committee welcomes manuscripts for publication in *College & University*, AACRAO's scholarly research journal. AACRAO members are especially encouraged to submit articles pertaining to their own experiences with emerging issues or innovative practices within the profession.

The Committee also welcomes comments on articles, timely issues in higher education, and other topics of interest to this journal's readers in the form of letters to the editor or longer guest commentary. We especially invite AACRAO members to participate in reviewing books.

Manuscript Preparation

Manuscripts for feature articles should be no longer than 4,500 words. Manuscripts for guest commentary and book reviews should not exceed 2,000 words. Letters to the editor will ordinarily be limited to 200 words.

All submissions must be saved to an IBM-compatible disk (Microsoft Word, preferably) and include a hard-copy original printed on 8.5" x 11" white paper. Because the Committee has a blind review policy, the author's name should not appear on any text page. A cover sheet should include the title of the manuscript, author's name, address, phone and fax number, and e-mail address.

References should be formatted in the author-date style and follow guidelines provided on page 526 of *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 14th edition. A list of references should appear at the end of the article. Text citations also follow the author-date format; examples may be found on page 641 of the Manual. For more information or for samples, please contact the *C&U* editor.

Essential tables and charts should be included on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. All graphics should be submitted on clean, reproducible, or camera-ready paper.

All submissions are accepted for publication with the understanding that the *College & University* editors reserve the right to edit for clarity and style. Please do not submit articles that are under consideration for publication by another periodical.

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Editorial Procedure

The editor will acknowledge receipt of manuscripts (letters will not be acknowledged) and will forward them to members of the *C&U* Advisory Committee for review. The Committee will consider the appropriateness of the article for AACRAO's membership, the current needs of the professions, the usefulness of the information, the nature and logic of the research methodology, clarity, and the style of presentation.

This review may take as long as three months, after which the *C&U* editor will inform the author of the manuscript's acceptance or rejection.

The Effect of Academic Scholarships on College Attendance

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of merit-based scholarship offers in attracting academically gifted students. Data on 1,288 freshman students who applied for merit scholarships at a large public research institution for the 1999–2000 academic year were obtained from the 1998 and 1999 ACT student information surveys, as well as from the institution's 1999 demographics and 1999 scholarship files. Predictions from a logistic regression model suggest that academically gifted students are more than twice as likely to attend the institution when offered scholarships. The study controlled for the students' background characteristics, academic ability, geographical location, high school attributes, preferred institutional characteristics, and financial variables.

A growing number of institutions have been offering merit-based scholarships as an incentive in recruiting academically talented students. The question is whether such scholarships actually do make a difference in shaping the college selection process of these students. The answer, according to McPherson and Schapiro (1998), will vary according to the type of institution. The purpose of this study is to examine the effect that a merit scholarship offer has on the decision of academically gifted students to attend a large public research university, while controlling for other variables.

The theoretical model of student college choice developed by Hossler and Gallagher (1987) is used here as the conceptual framework for organizing and evaluating prior research on the college choice process. This model is based on the work of Chapman (1984), Jackson (1982), and Litten (1982). It proposes three phases: predisposition, search, and choice, where students' backgrounds, characteristics, and activities, as well as institutional attributes, interact to influence the decision-making process. Of these, the choice phase is most relevant to this study.

Literature Review

According to Hossler and Gallagher (1987), students evaluate their choice sets in order to identify the higher education institution (HEI) they will ultimately attend. A choice set may range from one institution to several institutions. Several variables influence where the student will apply and finally attend. In the sections below, these variables are discussed under the following areas: socioeconomic status, student ability, ethnicity, location, institutional attributes, and financial aid and cost considerations.

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

Much of the evidence suggests that socioeconomic status (SES) is related to both the cost and the quality of HEIs to which students apply and finally attend. SES is typically broken down in

the literature to include parental income, the number of household members, parent's education, and home ownership. Hearn (1984) used multivariate techniques to analyze the college choice preferences in a longitudinal sample of students and reported that low SES students were less likely to apply to high-status HEIs. In a later study, Hearn (1991) found that low SES students were more likely to attend less selective HEIs, regardless of their academic ability, achievement, and expectations.

Ganderton (1992) defined SES as a composite variable which is derived as a weighted average of such family characteristics as income, parent's education level, and home ownership. Holding ability constant, he found that SES influences whether or not a student will apply to a high-status HEI. Spies (1978) used multiple regression to analyze data from a sample of high-ability students and discovered that middle and low-income students were less likely to apply to high-status institutions. Maguire and Lay (1981) also found similar results. In addition, R. Chapman (1979) concluded that high SES students are more interested in quality than the cost of attendance. Furthermore, Zemsky and Oedel (1983) examined the HEI application patterns of students and found that high-income students were more likely to apply to out-of-state institutions with more selective admissions standards.

STUDENT ABILITY

According to prior studies, student ability, largely determined by high school academic performance, is positively associated with institutional selectivity. Dahl (1982) found that high school

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graduates with the strongest academic credentials were the most likely to select an out-of-state, more selective, HEI. Hearn (1984) also reported that high-ability students were more likely to enroll in more selective institutions. The National Longitudinal Study data analyzed by Jackson (1978) demonstrated similar choice patterns. Zemsky and Oedel (1983) found that student ability was directly related to the selectivity and the location of the HEI to which students applied. Maguire and Lay (1981) discovered that students with higher grade-point averages were more likely to apply to more selective institutions. Ganderton (1992), using a combination of high school student grade point averages and High School and Beyond Survey data, found that high academic ability increases the probability that a student will choose to attend a private HEI. Moreover, that probability increases when high ability is coupled with high SES. Thus, the degree of selectivity in a choice set increases directly with the rise in student ability.

ETHNICITY

The findings of studies focusing on ethnicity have revealed that ethnic minorities are less inclined to apply to or enroll in selective HEIs, and are more concerned about financial aid and the cost of attendance. Hearn's study (1984), which used longitudinal data from the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) files, SAT/ACT files, and the Cooperative Institutional Research Program Survey, found that African-American students were less likely than nonminorities to apply to more selective and affluent institutions. On the other hand, they were more likely to attend schools that spend liberally on undergraduate education. Stewart *et al.* (1987), in a descriptive study of freshmen at Michigan State University, reported that African-American students were more concerned with financial aid than nonminorities. However, he did not control for SES or academic ability. In comparison, Ganderton (1992), did take SES and academic ability into consideration and reported that while African-American students did not choose statistically different college qualities from white students, other minorities, mainly Latino students, were more likely to choose a higher quality private HEI than were white students.

Hurtado *et al.* (1997), in perhaps the most extensive study of ethnicity and HEI selection, revealed that college choice behavior across various ethnic groups is influenced by the combination of expectations, academic ability, and SES. Expectations for degree attainment is highest for Asian Americans and lowest for Native Americans and Latinos, and there are no significant differences between African Americans and Whites. High ability Asian Americans and African Americans are more likely to apply and enroll in four-year institutions; Latinos in the same group tend to gravitate toward two-year institutions. Thus, SES plays a bigger role in college choice behavior among high-ability Latinos than it does among high-ability Asian Americans and African Americans.

LOCATION

Studies that examine the association between students' family residence and college choice are conflicting. Anderson *et al.* (1972) analyzed student enrollment patterns in separate data sets

using multiple-regression techniques. From the postsecondary participation patterns of Wisconsin students between 1957 and 1964, as well as from SCOPE data¹ for 1966, they found a weak association between distance and college choice. Litten *et al.* (1983), Lay and Maguire (1980), as well as Muffo (1987) found that distance from home was negatively related to the likelihood of student application or enrollment. Chapman (1979) concluded that for students applying to Carnegie-Mellon University, distance was irrelevant. However, Maguire and Lay (1981) used multivariate techniques in their study of the application pool at Boston College and found that students who planned to attend an HEI near their homes were more likely to do so.

HIGH SCHOOL SECTOR

Whether or not students are enrolled in public or in private high schools appears to influence college choice decisions. Falsey and Heyns (1984) used data from the High School and Beyond Survey. They concluded that students enrolled in private schools are more likely to enroll in high-status HEIs than their public school counterparts, even after controlling for track, student ability levels, aspirations, and SES.

INSTITUTIONAL ATTRIBUTES

A number of studies mention certain institutional characteristics that students rate as most important in influencing their college choice. Chapman and Jackson (1987) investigated the choice set of 2000 academically talented students. Using conditional logit analysis, they concluded that institutional quality was the single most important determinant of the choice stage. Likewise, Litten *et al.* (1983) reported that academic quality had the largest impact on the choice phase. Keller and McKewon (1984) showed that students planning to attend out-of-state HEIs rated quality as the most important factor in selecting an institution. On the other hand, they found that cost was the most important factor for students who planned to attend an in-state HEI. Lay and Maguire (1980) determined that the institutional factors most important to students who decided to attend Boston College were academic programs, size of institution, athletic activities, and social activities. Mathes and Gurney (1985) found that scholarship athletes placed more emphasis on academic programs, while athletes in non-revenue-producing sports placed more emphasis on the coaching staff. Erdmann (1983) reported, in rank order, that size, location, academic program, reputation/prestige, and social atmosphere were important institutional factors that influenced how students rated HEIs in their choice sets. Ganderton (1992) used mean SAT scores as a measure of an HEI's quality/reputation to show that institutional academic quality/reputation is an important variable in choosing between private and public colleges. Smith and Matthews (1992), in examining the decision to attend a large public university, found that traditions and activities were

¹ SCOPE data used in this study contained information about the enrollment patterns of twelfth-graders in 1966 from California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and North Carolina.

strong factors, but academic reputation was not. In another single institution study, Welki and Navratil (1987) showed that campus location and style, student-faculty ratio, and academic programs were among the most important institutional factors influencing students' choice to attend John Carroll University or elsewhere. Douglas and Powers (1985) reported that quality of course selection, professional competence of professors, overall training, intellectual stimulation provided by training, a superior program in one's intended major, and opportunity for professor-student discussion in courses were the most important factors to high ability students. The least important factors were parents' prior attendance or preferences, the need to commute daily, the need to maintain friendships, teacher or counselor recommendations, and the need to earn more money. Canale *et al.* (1996) also described academic reputation and available academic programs as the most important institutional attributes.

MARKET CHARACTERISTICS

Enrollment in public or private institutions varies according to the number of alternatives and the mix of public and private institutions in each state. Astin (1980) found that students who resided in states with larger private HEI sectors were proportionately more likely to enroll in private HEIs. Zemsky and Oedel (1983) reported that high school students were less likely to attend an out of state institution if they resided in states with a large and diverse range of HEIs. Ganderton (1992) concluded that students were less likely to choose a public college in a state where public colleges were more dispersed than private colleges. In the same vein, students were more likely to choose a public college in a state that had more public colleges relative to private colleges.

FINANCIAL AID AND COST CONSIDERATIONS

Multivariate studies indicate that the relationship between the net cost (total cost minus financial aid) and selecting an HEI from a choice set is complex. Some studies showed that net costs had a significant effect on college choice while others showed that it did not. For instance, Hearn (1984) found that the amount of explained variance in a student's choice of an HEI due to institutional costs was not very high. On the other hand, Seneca and Taussig (1987) reported that students tend to choose the best academic option open to them given the costs. Similarly, Tierney (1980) showed that the probability that a student selects a public versus a private institution is dependent upon differences in net cost and institutional selectivity. The effect of net cost on college choice appears to be dependent on the student's socioeconomic status, academic ability, and preferences.

After studying the choice phase for 1,000 Pennsylvania high school seniors, Leslie and Brinkman (1987) concluded that cost had the largest effect on the type of institutions selected by low-income students, and that this was not the case for higher-income students. Likewise, Bishop (1977) showed that students from a lower SES are more likely to respond to the differences in net cost among institutions than are students from a higher SES.

Given the student's SES, the type of aid plays a significant role in college choice. For instance, Leslie and Brinkman (1988) reported that low-income applicants were more responsive to

changes in grant amounts and tuition charges than they were to changes in loan amounts. Moreover, St. John (1990) found that low SES students were more responsive to changes in grant amounts than they were to changes in tuition charges. Middle-income students were more responsive to increases in loan amounts than to decreases in tuition, and upper-income applicants were relatively insensitive to changes in the type of financial aid.

The amount of aid offered to students has differing results with regards to college choice. Jackson (1978) reported that the amount of aid increases the likelihood of attending a specific institution by only 8.5 percent, and that the mere awarding of aid is more significant than the actual amount of aid. On the other hand, Chapman and Jackson (1987) found that students were attracted by the amount of aid. For instance, they showed that it would have taken \$4,000 in financial aid to move a second-choice institution to be the student's first choice, and \$6,000 in financial aid to move a third-choice institution to first choice. Moreover, when a high-ability student is undecided between two institutions, \$1,000 in financial aid can shift a student's decision in favor of the awarding institution. Lay and Maguire (1981) also found that the amount of aid did have an effect on the matriculation decision of students who applied to Boston College. Of the students who rated Boston College as their first choice, 32 percent decided to attend competing institutions that offered more aid.

Several researchers have focused on the motivations for institutions to provide no-need aid (Porter and McColloch 1982, 1984; and Day 1997). Others have focused on the reallocation of resources from need-based aid to no-need aid (Ehrenberg and Murphy 1993; Heller 1997; and McPherson and Schapiro 1998). Iba and Simpson (1988) conducted one of the few scholarship studies using student surveys. The results suggested that a no-need scholarship program had limited effectiveness in recruiting students. The conclusion was factors other than scholarship availability affected the students' college choice. The "other factors" and their significance were not elaborated upon in the study, however.

Methods

The population for the present study included 1,288 freshman students who applied for merit scholarships at the University of Utah for the 1999–2000 academic year. These scholarships were based on academic ability. Information on these students was obtained from the 1998 and 1999 ACT student information surveys and from the University of Utah's 1999 demographic and scholarship files. Whenever students register to take the ACT Assessment, they are asked to complete a survey which asks for information pertaining to their backgrounds, interests, needs, academic ability, high school quality, and college choice. They are also asked to indicate their top six choices of institutions they would choose to attend. For the purposes of this study, and to be consistent with the literature, the data set was narrowed to those students who named the University of Utah as one of their top three choices. The data were then merged with the demographic and scholarship files. We further classified the scholarship offers into one-year and four-year scholarships.

Logistic regression was used to analyze the effect that scholarship offers have on student enrollment. A theoretical approach

was taken to develop the empirical model. Specifically, we controlled for those theoretical variables that were described in the literature as important predictors of college choice. According to our criteria, the best model was the one with the combination of empirical variables that provided the best classification and represented each theoretical construct.

Several of the independent variables were entered as dummy variables. The background/socioeconomic status variables included religion (1=predominant religion, 0=other religion), gender (1=female, 0=male), and ethnicity (1=minority, 0=Caucasian). Household annual income was split into three groups: (1) whether household income was between \$18,000 and \$36,000 (1=yes, 0=no), (2) \$36,000 and \$60,000 (1=yes, 0=no), and (3) greater than \$60,000 (1=yes, 0=no); the groups were compared with students from families earning less than \$18,000.

Dummy variables were also used to measure academic ability and extracurricular activities. The types of courses taken in high school were categorized into whether the student had taken any advanced placement courses (1=yes, 0=no), and whether the student had taken college preparatory courses (1=yes, 0=no). Four variables were used to represent extracurricular activities: (1) leadership (1=yes, 0=no), (2) music (1=yes, 0=no), (3) art (1=yes, 0=no), and (4) science (1=yes, 0=no).²

Parents' residence (1=Salt Lake and Davis Counties, 0=other areas), was the dummy variable entered for location. We believe that this localized measure most accurately captured the University's primary market area, as compared to a statewide measure.

Institutional characteristics included dummy variables for preferred institutional type, preferred student body size, and student ranking of the University. Preferred institutional type pertained to whether the student preferred to attend a two-year institution (1=two-year public institution, 0=other type of institution), and whether the student preferred to attend a private institution (1=yes, 0=no). Preferred student body size was split into three groups: (1) between 5,000 and 10,000 students (1=yes, 0=no), (2) between 10,000 and 20,000 students (1=yes, 0=no), and (3) greater than 20,000 students (1=yes, 0=no). The results were compared to students preferring a student body of fewer than 5,000. Where students ranked the University of Utah in their preference set was indicated by whether another institution was selected as the student's first choice (1=yes, 0=no).

Several dummy variables were entered to measure the effect of financial considerations: whether students intended to apply for financial aid, the number of hours per week students intended to work, and their scholarship offers. The number of hours per week that students intended to work was represented by four dummy variables: (1) between one and ten hours (1=yes, 0=no), (2) between 11 and 20 hours (1=yes, 0=no), (3) between 21 and 30 hours (1=yes, 0=no), and (4) greater than 31 hours (1=yes,

0=no). Scholarship data were broken down into two separate variables: whether the student was offered a four-year scholarship (1=yes, 0=no), and whether the student was offered a one-year scholarship (1=yes, 0=no).³

The test for collinearity showed that correlations among the independent variables were low. The highest correlation occurred between high school GPA and ACT score, which was 0.40.

In order to assess how well the model fit the data, we compared our predicted outcomes to the observed outcomes. Of the scholarship applicants who did not enroll, 69.24 percent were correctly classified. Of those who enrolled, 66.72 percent were correctly classified. Overall, 68.01 percent of the applicants were correctly classified by the model.

Given the large sample size used in this study (N=1,288) the problem of non-normality of residuals was inconsequential. The model was also examined for high values of the leverage statistic. There were no cases that had a large influence on the parameters, with all the values being close to the range between -2 and 2.

Results

The results from this study are not always consistent with the findings from prior studies (see Table 1). One reason for this is that a majority of the prior studies were concerned with the behavior of all types of students, while this study is concerned only with academically gifted students. However, this research does indicate that financial aid in the form of merit scholarships has a significant and substantial effect on the college choice of academically gifted students, controlling for other relevant variables.

Various background characteristics of students had significant effects on their choice to attend the University. Ethnic minorities were more likely to attend the University. However, students from larger families or of the predominant religion were also less likely to attend.

Contrary to findings by Spies (1978), Maguire and Lay (1981), Zemsky and Oedel (1983), Hearn (1984, 1991), parental income did not have a significant effect on students' decision to attend the University of Utah. The tuition at the University of Utah is relatively low (about \$1175 per semester for residents), which may account for these findings.

The negative relationship between high school GPA and attending a public university supports the findings of Dahl (1982), Maguire and Lay (1981), Hearn (1984), and Ganderton (1992). That is, students with the highest academic ability will more likely choose to attend a private HEI and/or an out-of-state HEI.

According to the model, if the student's family residence is located within the University's market area, then that student is more likely to attend the University. With the exception of the most academically gifted students, this result is consistent with Lay and Maguire (1980), Litten *et al.* (1983), and Muffo (1987).

Students who revealed their first choice to be another institution are less likely to attend the University. Likewise, students who prefer to attend a two-year institution are also less likely to attend the University. One of the unknown variables in this model is whether or not other institutions had offered scholarships to these students. Without knowing this, the net effect of a student's revealed preferences versus a merit scholarship offer from other institutions cannot be fully assessed.

² Although these scholarships were based mainly on academics, extracurricular activities also had some influence.

³ The leadership scholarship is a one-year scholarship based on academics as well as high school leadership activities.

Table 1: Summary of Variables Influencing College Choice

Variable	β	R	Exp (β)
Background/Socioeconomic Status			
Low-middle income	-.2206	.0000	.8020
Middle range income	-.0034	.0000	.9967
High range income	.0366	.0000	1.0373
Predominant religion	-.3075*	-.0341	.7353
Number of siblings	-.0785*	-.0324	.9245
Gender	.2122	.0207	1.2364
Ethnicity	.4388*	.0492	1.5508
Academic Ability and Extracurricular Activities			
High school GPA	-2.1713**	-.1578	.1140
ACT score	.0557*	.0501	1.0573
Advance Placement courses	-.6868	.0000	.5032
College preparatory courses	-.2721	-.0253	.7618
Leadership	-.0838	.0000	.9196
Music	-.1792	.0000	.8360
Art	-.4409	.0000	.6434
Science	.9170	.0101	2.5019
Location			
Parent's residence	.4493**	.0750	1.5672
High School Attributes			
High school quality	.0583	.0000	1.0600
Institutional Characteristics			
Student's first choice	-.8489*	-.1513	.4279
Prefer private college	-.2716	-.0262	.7622
Prefer two-year institution	-1.4343*	-.0385	.2383
Small-midrange student body	-.0700	.0000	.9324
Midrange-large student body	-.0344	.0000	.9662
Large student body	.3045	.0122	1.3560
Financial Aid and Cost			
Less than half-time (1 to 10 hours)	.2428	.0000	1.2748
Half-time (11 to 20 hours)	.3679	.0246	1.4447
Three-quarter time (21 to 30 hours)	.2808	.0000	1.3242
Full-time (>31 hours)	.4291	.0000	1.5359
Financial aid	-.2216	-.0107	.8013
One-year scholarship	.7120*	.0471	2.0381
Four-year scholarship	.7871**	.0933	2.1970

* indicates $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$.

None of the need-based variables and cost concern variables are found to have a significant effect. These findings are inconsistent with the results from Leslie and Brinkman (1987), and Bishop (1977). However, merit-based scholarship offers did have significant effects on attendance. These findings run contrary to Iba and Simpson (1988), who showed that merit scholarship offers have limited effectiveness in recruiting students.

Conclusion And Policy Implications

Several factors influence a student's college choice. These include the student's background characteristics, academic ability, proximity to the HEI, as well as financial aid and cost considerations. When controlling for a wide range of possible influences, the findings of this study show that academically gifted students are twice as likely to attend the University when offered a scholarship.

Despite the positive effect of scholarships, the inverse relationship between enrollment and high school GPA demonstrates the difficulty that the University experiences in attracting the most academically talented students. This brings to the forefront the policy question of whether or not resources should be diverted away from other highly qualified candidates to attract the most talented students.

Moreover, this study also finds that one-year scholarships had almost the same effect as four-year scholarships in attracting high ability students. Thus, another policy option may be to increase the number of one-year scholarship offers. However, this result may be due to the difficulty students experience in retaining a four-year scholarship at the University. They must maintain a 3.7 GPA. Thus, a one-year scholarship may be viewed as similar to a four-year scholarship because students may not be confident that they can maintain it.

The goal of making merit-based scholarship offers is to attract and enroll academically gifted students who would not have attended a particular institution. In so doing, the institution hopes to improve the academic quality of its freshman class. This research shows that many academically gifted students will attend the University without a scholarship because of other factors.

Given limited resources for scholarships, preference could be given to students who do not identify the institution as their first choice—to provide them with greater incentive to attend the University. This would maximize the recruitment of highly gifted students because many of the students listing the institution as their number one choice will attend regardless of scholarship offers. However, attendance is less likely for students not ranking the institution as their highest choice.

On the other hand, such action by the institution raises ethical questions of fairness to students. If these scholarships are truly merit-based, then they should be awarded based solely on the merit of the student's academic achievement rather than on the institution's self-interest in maximizing its resources to recruit a greater number of highly qualified students. This institution decided to award merit scholarships to all equally qualified students regardless of how they ranked the University in their choice set.

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Be Careful What You Wish For: Analysis of Grading Trends at a Small Liberal Arts College, Grade Inflation or Progress?

Abstract

Grade Inflation has been the subject of hallway and coffee room conversations among faculty throughout the nation at various intervals during the past 40 years. Numerous articles have been published attempting to assess both the extent and the causes of this phenomenon. The following case study, conducted at one small liberal arts college, examines grading trends and considers factors that may have contributed to a general increase in various grade indices since 1969. A primary conclusion of the study is that higher grades at the college level present a dilemma to faculty who constantly strive to find ways to help students achieve at higher levels, but who become concerned once there is measurable evidence that progress may have been made. Secondly, the authors hope that the example in this case study will provide a framework for a more meaningful consideration of this issue on other campuses.

The subject of grade inflation has been the source of heated debate on college and university campuses across the country as well as in the national media. These debates bemoan the upward spiral of undergraduate grade point averages, the likely causes of the phenomenon, and the problems that are alleged to result from that spiral. In spite of the voluminous rhetoric about this issue, only a handful of studies carefully address grading practices and trends. (Potter 1979; Bejar and Blew 1981; Kolevzon 1981; Millman *et al.* 1983; and Nelson and Lynch 1984 are examples.)

This issue has been the stuff of hallway and coffee room conversations among faculty at one small liberal arts college as well. Grades were higher in the 1990s than they had been in the 1980s, the 1970s, or the 1960s and speculation about both causes and cures ran rampant. Many faculty simply attributed the higher grades to the impact of student evaluations on faculty behavior. In the interest of supporting an informed discussion about this complex issue, three staff members took it upon themselves to analyze the data that were available. Of special interest here was the intent to compare overall grading trends to the trend for MTH 121, Calculus I, over a 30-year period. The study began with the requisite literature review, collection of data at the local site, analysis of those data, and development of hypotheses to explain the data trends. Perhaps this approach might help inform similar discussions at other campuses.

Grade Inflation Defined

Over the years, a number of researchers have devised definitions for the problem of grade inflation. Louis Goldman (1985) defined grade inflation as the term used to describe an upward shift in the grade point average over an extended period of time. Birnbaum (as cited in Kolevzon 1981) viewed grade inflation as

rising grade point averages indicating that it was easier to get good grades. Millman *et al.* (1983) claimed grade inflation was the lowering in value of As and Bs because of their more frequent use. Despite the variations on the theme represented by the aforementioned definitions, these writers agreed with Summerville *et al.* (1990) who argued that grade inflation cannot be properly defined merely as rising grades. Rather, borrowing from Bejar and Blew (1981), grade inflation might be considered as “an increase in grade point average without a concomitant increase in achievement.” In their study, Bejar and Blew showed that between 1964 and 1974, mean grades for men and women in the first year of college increased steadily from about 2.0 to 2.6 while SAT scores declined. They concluded that grade inflation had, in fact, occurred because grade point average increased without a corresponding increase in the SAT.

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Bejar and Blew also observed that grade inflation was not a recent phenomenon, having been in effect since 1964, and that the rate of inflation seemed to have diminished between 1974 and 1978 (Bejar and Blew 1981).

Methodology

The Bejar and Blew approach seemed to be a sensible starting point, and so we decided to compare the grade performance of our students to the ACT-Composite and high school grade point average performance by class cohort. Data about first-year entering classes were requested from the admissions office and from the registrar's office. Data about student grade performance were collected from reports already prepared by the registrar. Data about student grade performance in MTH 121 were collected from grade lists on file in the registrar's office. ACT national data were obtained from corporate headquarters in Iowa City and from the company Web site. These data (30 years of it) were loaded into spreadsheet programs and reports were prepared for analysis.

Results: The Quality of Incoming Classes

As is the case at most colleges and universities, applicants to this college are considered for admission on the basis of high school grade point average (HSGPA) and performance on a nationally normed entrance examination. The HSGPA is recalculated to include only academic courses in the areas of English, mathematics, social studies, science, and foreign language. For most of the period under study, moreover, the ACT was the entrance exam taken by the vast majority of each entering class. For early cohorts, however, the SAT was the examination of record and those scores were converted to an ACT-Composite using a table of concordance.

As shown in Figure 1, the mean recomputed HSGPA of first-year students increased by half a grade point from 1968 to 1998. Although the increase in mean HSGPA may indicate an improvement in the quality of later classes, it was decided to look at other indicators as well.

In the early 1980s, the college introduced two changes that were intended to attract better students. First, the faculty tightened admission standards to minimize the enrollment of "high risk" students. Second, the admissions office changed its financial aid strategy to include awards for merit in an effort to attract more students with high HSGPAs and high ACTs. When other qualitative aspects of each cohort were considered, particularly the dramatic shift upward in the ratio of honors students and the downward movement in the ratio of high risk students, it seemed plausible to assume that any improvement in undergraduate grade point performance could be attributed to the enrollment of better students. However, we still had not considered the one normed indicator available to us, the ACT.

Figure 2 shows the trend for ACT-Composite scores by cohort and seems to indicate a qualitative improvement in the last ten entering classes, following a long period of stability during which scores hovered around a mean of 23.5. Of course, it was essential to account for the change in the ACT scoring standard, effective with the Class of 1995 (entering in 1991).

Even after making a one-point adjustment to the mean for each cohort after 1990, it appeared that some marginal level of improvement had been achieved. Nonetheless, it seemed prudent to consider the ACT scores in one other way before accepting this as a benchmark. Using the data provided by ACT about the trend for national scores, we subtracted the national (college bound) mean ACT-Composite from the college mean ACT-Composite for each year of the study to try to determine

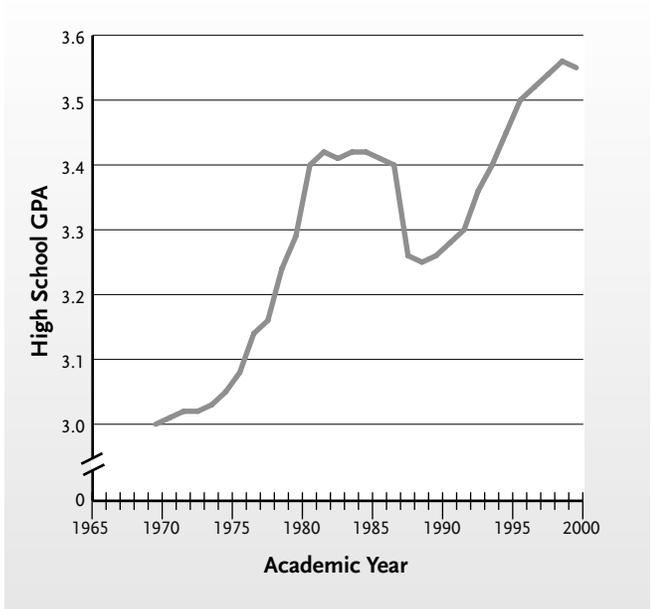


FIGURE 1: HIGH SCHOOL GRADE POINT AVERAGE OF ENTERING STUDENTS, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

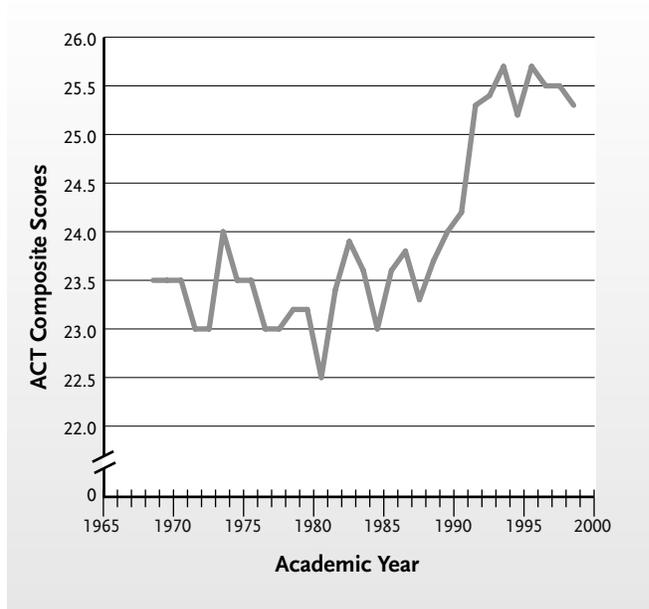


FIGURE 2: MEAN ACT-COMPOSITE SCORE FOR ENTERING STUDENTS, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

whether or not our students had improved. The results of that analysis, shown in Figure 3, were startling. In essence, although there had been some fluctuation of the differences (between three and five points), the difference in the 1970s was about four points and the difference in the 1990s was about four points.

So, although the HSGPA for the entering cohorts had demonstrated a steady and significant upward trend (half a grade) during the past 30 years, careful analysis of the ACT data showed essentially no change, suggesting that the condition to demonstrate that grade inflation had occurred (no concomitant increase in achievement) had been met. Recognizing that both HSGPA and ACT mean are, at best, substitutes for achievement or achievement potential, they were nevertheless the best indicators available for this study and gave us a basis for examination of the phenomenon.

Results: Grade Indicators

The earliest news received about how new students fare academically are the grades posted at the end of the first term. Those data were available since fall 1969 and showed the trend for each cohort without the leveling effects of upper-class students or time in college. (See Figure 4.) The mean first-term GPA in the early 1970s was at or about 2.5. During the 1980s, this indicator increased and plateaued in the 2.75 range. During the past ten years, however, the mean first-term GPA approached 3.0 and actually reached that mark in 1995. Thus, the trend line for what must be considered the most vulnerable and visible stage of development for these cohorts indicates a propensity toward higher grades.

In order to consider how the entire student body had been affected, we decided to review the proportion of high grades

(“A”s, “AB”s and “B”s) given year-by-year. As shown in Figure 5 on the following page, since 1972, the proportion of high grades increased by 20 percentage points.

Students benefited from this largesse with the proportion of students qualifying for inclusion on the Dean’s List (3.50 or better) tripling since 1969.

We also decided to look at the longer-term impact of higher grades by examining the grade performance of each cohort as a graduating class. As shown in Figure 6 on the following page, the median GPA increased by approximately half a grade during the 30-year period under study.

The most striking result from this analysis had to do with the comparison of mean and median cohort GPA increases during the period under review. In particular, between 1969 and 1999, the *mean HSGPA* increased by half a grade, the *mean first-term GPA* increased by half a grade, and the *median graduate GPA* increased by half a grade.

Results: But What About Calculus?

Because one of the researchers is a professor of mathematics, the research team thought it both prudent and interesting to use students enrolled in MTH 121, Calculus, as a way to consider the issue of grade inflation. This first term calculus course for students of mathematics, science, and engineering is a standard course on most college and university campuses. The mathematical content and level of rigor in this course does not vary significantly among mathematics departments in North America. Moreover, according to the chairperson of the mathematics department, the content and level of rigor have not changed much locally over the past 30 years. Although the mathematics faculty had changed completely in the period

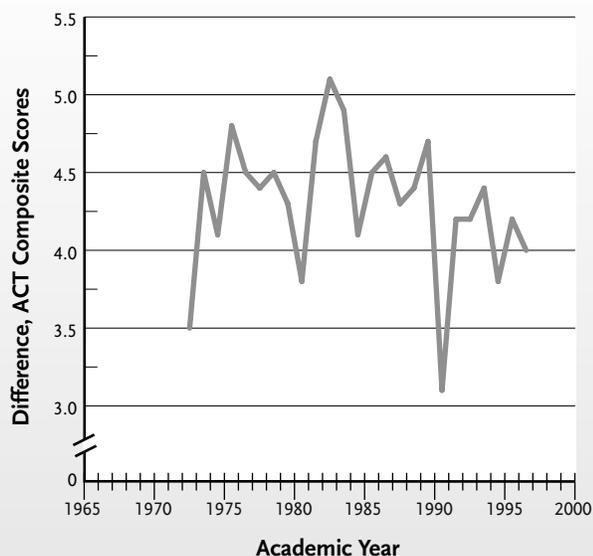


FIGURE 3: DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN ACT-COMPOSITE SCORE AND MEAN OF NATIONAL COLLEGE-BOUND ACT-COMPOSITE SCORES, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

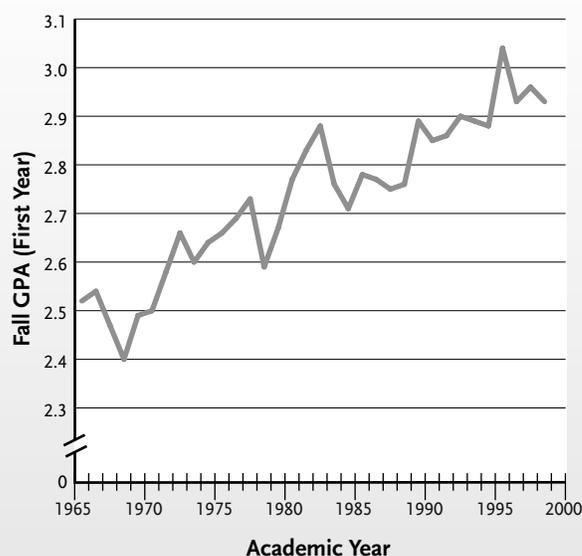


FIGURE 4: FALL TERM GPA FOR FIRST-YEAR STUDENTS, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

under study and even though different people have taught calculus from year to year, the course content and standards for student performance have remained remarkably consistent.

Basic research revealed that with the exception of one class in 1983, the proportion of each cohort enrolled in Calculus I was quite constant at between 25 and 30 percent. When the mean grades for Calculus I were plotted, it became evident that something else was quite constant, too. In spite of some fluctuation, the mean GPA for MTH 121 had hovered at or about the 2.5 threshold since 1969. Moreover, the proportion of high grades (“A,” “AB,” and “B”) given in Calculus I (Figure 7) fluctuated at or about the 50 percent level, intersecting with the overall trend line for that ratio (see Figure 5) only five times in 30 years. Clearly, calculus had escaped the inflationary spiral! Perhaps the degree of stability in course content, level of expectations, and teaching philosophy had contributed to the lack of an upward trend in the calculus grade pattern.

Discussion

Using the Bejar and Blew model, the data presented above gave reason to believe that grade inflation, in general, had occurred. The mean ACT-Composite score, after accounting for changes in scoring, had remained essentially the same at about 24. Grades earned by students in Calculus I averaged in the neighborhood of 2.50 throughout the 30-year period. Nonetheless, all other indicators considered here—first-term GPA, the proportion of “A,” “AB,” and “B” grades given to the entire campus each year, and the median graduate GPA—increased steadily and significantly. Other related indicators—the proportion of students on the dean’s list and the proportion of graduates earning Latin honors—increased accordingly. Not surprisingly, these

local trends followed trends at other institutions reporting data for comparable categories, but why?

In some ways, it was easier to explain why grade inflation should not have occurred. Some research has attributed higher grades to changes in the grading scale or changes in the policies related to class load and class withdrawal. The college in this study had not changed either policy since the early 1970s (about three years into the study). Even if these factors had contributed to grade inflation at that time, the impact should have plateaued by the middle of that decade. Another factor that may have been related to higher grades was change in curriculum. Both general education and major requirements became increasingly rigorous during the period under study.

In 1974, the faculty increased general education requirements for each of the three academic divisions from two courses to three. In the early 1980s, the faculty added a requirement for history and for fine arts to the existing list of nine courses. Then, in the mid-1990s, the faculty added a requirement for a mathematics course to the science requirement and required a year of foreign language for all students who had not completed a foreign language sequence in high school. Thus, both the number of general education credits required and the degree of difficulty for general education were increased.

Similar changes took place in many major fields. In the early 1980s, for example, the major in physical education (teaching and coaching) was transformed to become a kinesiology major. A number of majors added cognate requirements (*e.g.*, one year of foreign language study for English and a semester of advanced composition for foreign language). These changes raised the bar with regard to rigor in each of the programs listed and should have had the effect of containing grade inflation, not contributing to it.

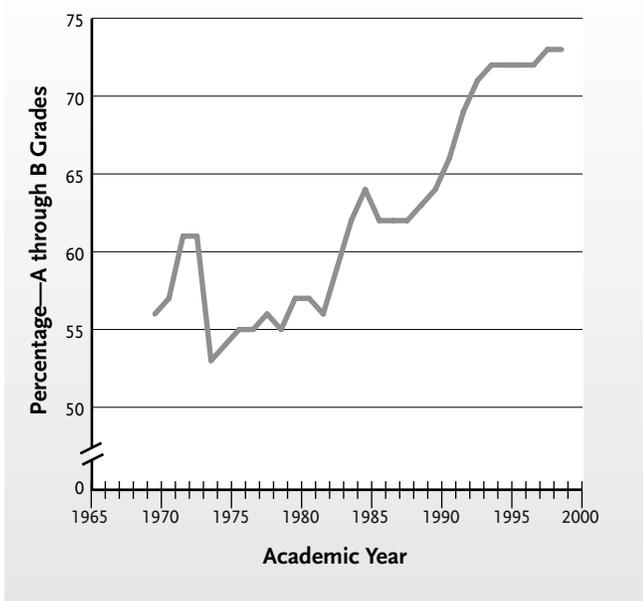


FIGURE 5: PERCENTAGE “A” THROUGH “B” GRADES, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

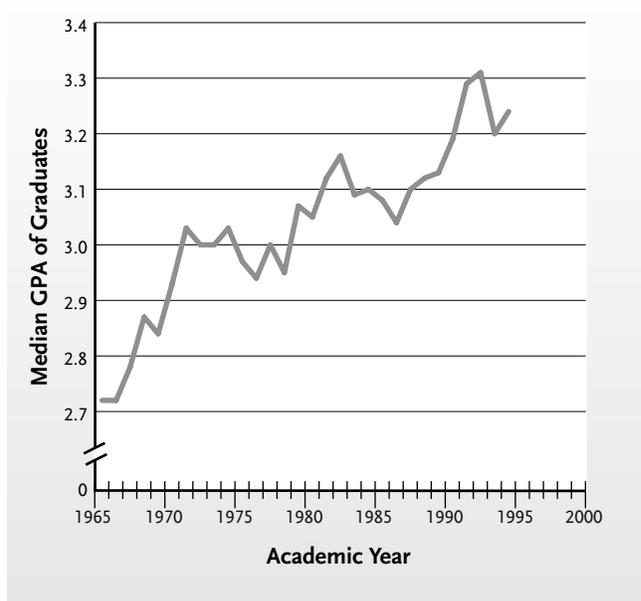


FIGURE 6: MEAN GRADE POINT AVERAGE, BY GRADUATING CLASS (ACADEMIC YEAR)

On the other hand, a number of likely suspects may have contributed to an inflationary spiral. Increased costs and increased dependence upon financial aid during the past 30 years may have affected student motivation to achieve grades high enough to remain eligible for scholarships. Moreover, rising expectations among students and parents may have contributed to higher grades. Since an increasingly higher proportion of the students who enrolled earned high school GPAs above 3.5, it is reasonable to expect that they would aim for the same level of achievement at the college level. The problem with expectations, however, is that they are nearly impossible to measure. It may also be the case that higher standards on campus have contributed to grade inflation. For example, the teacher education program raised the GPA requirement for admission to student teaching from 2.25 to 2.50 in the 1980s and from 2.50 to 2.75 in the 1990s. These changes paralleled significant increases in the proportion of students seeking teacher certification. Similarly, when the faculty changed the criteria for the awarding of Latin honors at graduation from a minimum of 3.25 to 3.40 for cum laude (3.6 for magna cum laude and 3.8 for summa cum laude), the proportion of graduates earning Latin honors declined for the first two years after the change of criteria, but soon increased and eventually surpassed the former rate. In both cases, it could be that students worked to achieve the necessary level of grade performance in order to accomplish career goals and honors that they deemed important.

Two demographic factors seemed to be possible contributors as well. First, it was noticed that the increase in grade point indicators paralleled the increase in the proportion of women students. (This group comprised 46 percent of the student body in the early 1970s and 56 percent in the mid 1990s.) This relationship was examined further and eliminated as a possible fac-

tor when a comparison of the increases in college GPA for men and for women were determined to have been about the same. A second factor involved the turnover in faculty, which occurred during the last ten years of the period under review (a period of significantly higher grades). More than half of the faculty in 1998 had been hired after 1989. In addition, the proportion of sections taught by part-time faculty increased from 10 percent to 19 percent in the same time period. The new and adjunct faculty were more diverse. Many of them were just out of graduate school and were accustomed to graduate school grading norms. They were untenured and, to acknowledge the speculation with which this paper began, may have felt vulnerable to student evaluations. And, the new full-time faculty were quite interested in their respective research agendas. In other words, they had a scholarly life away from the classroom. It is this area where the next level of research must occur.

One, more positive or uplifting, host of changes may help to explain the higher grades since 1969. The college had spent a great deal of time, money, and energy in efforts to improve teaching and provide support services to students. The interest in pedagogy is natural at an institution where good teaching is valued. The college sponsors workshops on campus to help faculty develop new pedagogical techniques, seeks grant support to help individual faculty improve their methods, and makes teaching a focal point of ongoing discussion in the faculty via a campus newsletter about teaching and a faculty forum program by which faculty share their research and pedagogical interests. Moreover, the faculty have changed the way they give essential information to students over the years. Syllabi with a standardized structure are required for all classes now. Introductory courses must, by rule, offer students two evaluations prior to mid-term instead of just mid-term and final exams. Instructors are encouraged to utilize special low grade reports to give early warning to students who are having difficulty. Mid-term grades are collected and mailed for all first- and second-year students. (Mid-term grades for sophomores were added in the late 1980s.)

Similarly, over the years, the college has invested heavily in making sure that students receive adequate support in the form of summer transition programs; tutoring (including special programs in English and mathematics); special workshops for students in time management, study skills, and test-taking; and special programs to support students with ADD and/or learning disabilities. Further, the college has provided training for new advisors since 1989. These workshops were designed to help advisors schedule students in ways which avoid the traps of missed pre-requisites, problematic schedules (*e.g.*, all lab, all lecture, all reading course), and staying enrolled in programs which are destined for failure (*e.g.*, pre-engineering students who fail calculus and/or physics).

The impact of "better support," however, is extremely difficult to assess. This is especially the case when the treatments are made without careful pre- and post-measurements, when the treatments overlap, and when the treatments are provided by different offices on the campus. However, because each of these treatments was added with the express intent of improving student classroom performance, it should be no surprise that

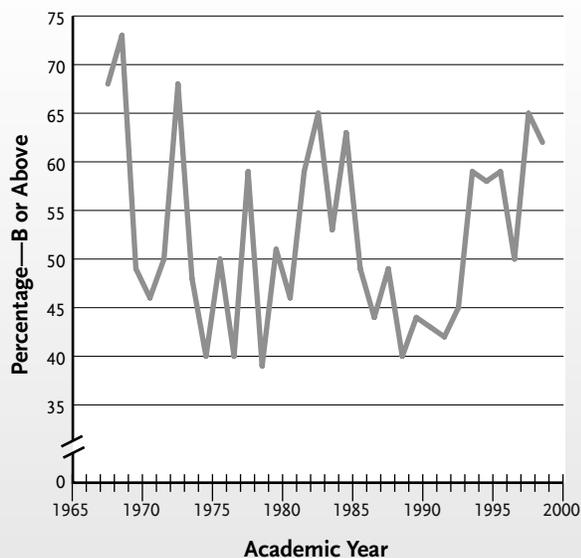


FIGURE 7: PERCENTAGE OF "B" OR ABOVE GRADES IN FIRST-TERM CALCULUS IN FALL SEMESTER, BY ACADEMIC YEAR

grades have steadily improved during the past three decades. Still, it leaves open to debate the relative absence of change in calculus grades. Perhaps some subject matter is impervious to the treatments described above.

Summary

And so the inflation enigma continues. As teachers, faculty constantly strive to find ways to help their students achieve at a higher level. Yet, once there is measurable evidence that progress may have been made, many faculty immediately become suspicious and assume that some force (*e.g.*, student evaluations) is mysteriously causing standards to erode and quality to suffer. In this case, the quality of entering students seemed to show continuous improvement by virtue of higher high school grade point averages and slightly improved test scores. The college had raised admission standards two different times during the three decades of the study, and the proportion of honors students soared while the proportion of at-risk students dwindled. Moreover, the college initiated numerous programs to improve teaching, to support students, and to provide students with timely feedback about their learning experiences. In addition, the faculty had raised standards for general education, admission to teacher education (twice), and graduation honors, and it appears that the students have risen to these challenges. Because higher grades were expected to follow from these changes and because the changes occurred over the entire period of the study, it should have been no surprise (and certainly not an unwelcome one) that students earned higher grades (except in calculus). If there is any conclusion to be drawn from this examination of the grade inflation issue, it is this: simply attributing higher GPAs, more “A” and “B” grades, and higher proportions of honors students to inflated grades is not productive. The example provided by this case study reveals how complex the issue of grading can be and provides a framework for careful consideration of this issue on other campuses.

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Working Together: Research-Driven Cooperative Strategy for Sister Colleges

Abstract

It is not unusual for one college to have an official connection with another college (or colleges). In these cases, do the “sister” colleges work together to achieve common goals? This article reports on a partnership between Mennonite colleges that started with research and has led to an active agenda of cooperative ventures designed to enhance enrollment. Practical steps to address “critical issues” and then the lessons from such partnerships are shared.

While sisters will always be sisters, they do have a choice. Will the attitude guiding their behavior foster competition, or will the primary attitude encourage partnership? Sister colleges have the same choice. In situations where a sponsoring body owns a college it is likely that the same body owns other colleges. The resulting sister colleges therefore have an opportunity to see each other as either a partner or as the competition. This article reports on a cooperative research and strategy effort being taken by five institutions that are affiliated with the emerging Mennonite Church USA. Informed by market research of the constituency, the colleges have intentionally worked to address issues that serve the common interest of the church and the educational institutions. While competition is still alive within this relationship, there is evidence that cooperation can yield mutually beneficial results.

Church-related higher education includes many sister college situations. The lessons from this article however, extend beyond the church-related sector. Networks of community colleges or even state-run public institutions also can achieve common goals. Sharing provides an opportunity to cooperate.

The Situation

The literature of higher education establishes the tendency for church and college to drift apart over time (Marsden 1994; Parsonage 1978) and for there to be a great deal of variation in the type of relationships between church and college. The secularization of society in general and in academics specifically, along with market forces, can drive a wedge between the expectations of a church and the aspirations of a college (Pace 1972). Even today when some Christian colleges are seeing increases in enrollment, other institutions that are intentionally tied to a specific church body are struggling (Reisberg 1999). The decline in denominational loyalty is evident in the enrollment in some institutions that are tightly connected to a specific church group. The nature of the relationship between college and church can vary widely between denominations (Pattillo and

Mackenzie 1966; Pace 1972; Parsonage 1978), but there remains a set of colleges that are seen as direct extensions of the work of a church body. An essay edited by Thomas Hunt and James Carper (1996) shares the historical story of 21 such relationships. One of the reports in the work is of the Mennonites.

For the Mennonites, the relationship between college and church is more than an arrangement of convenience. Denominational health and perpetuation is a core purpose. The colleges have taught core Mennonite values, connected persons with Mennonite systems around the world, trained leaders, and created a culture of involvement. Recent research sponsored by the Mennonite Board of Education suggests that Mennonites who attend a Mennonite institution are more likely to be involved in the Church in adulthood, raise children in the Mennonite faith, and support the activities of the denomination. Strong forces in the post-modern secular culture attack the identity of the Mennonites (Kauffman and Driedger 1991). Connection is the desire, but influences associated with secularization, modernization, and enculturation can pull apart the college and the church.

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Acknowledgement: Dr. J. Daniel Hess. Thank you.

Through their history, the Mennonite colleges have had the purposes of the church as the primary mission. Furthermore, the Mennonite Church is a vital source for students and funding. Church and its colleges have historically seen themselves as partners in a common cause. While accurate to call the colleges “church-related,” to serve the desired purpose, the denomination also needs to be a “college-related church.”

The notion of a “college-related church” is new. A one-dimensional view that the college is a partner with a church or “church-related” is insufficient. True health in the relationship occurs when a church also sees itself as related to a college (or system of colleges) and is intentionally concerned about the welfare of the college. If it is truly a partnership, the responsibility must go both ways. Where the relationship between church and college survives the forces to separate, both a college wanting to be “church-related” and a church desiring to be “college-related” must be present. In the Mennonite case, evidence points to the presence of congregations that are truly “college-related.” To nurture and grow this tendency is the challenge.

The process of cooperative strategy started with specific concerns coming from the case of the Mennonite Church and its three colleges. Students from the Mennonite Church have historically accounted for approximately 65 percent of the enrollment. An expectation from the Mennonite Board of Education exists that this proportion be retained. Maintaining expected enrollment from the Mennonite Church became difficult in the late 1980s and through the 1990s. The percentage of young people from the Mennonite Church choosing to attend a Mennonite school decreased from 55.4 percent in 1970 to 30.6 percent in 1994. Mennonite young people were increasingly selecting public institutions, and there was a trend among some to attend other Christian colleges. A reduction in Mennonite enrollment became an obvious concern for the colleges as they struggled to achieve enrollment goals.

In order to enhance enrollment, the colleges started to employ a variety of strategies. For example, some institutions employed various diversification strategies, such as degree completion and limited graduate programs. While the desire to attract students from outside the Mennonite Church grew, the primary thrust remained the recruitment of Mennonites. Increased competition between the schools resulted. While the atmosphere between the schools remained collegial, enrollment officers faced pressure to “get the Mennonite numbers.”

In 1996, the Mennonite Board of Education commissioned research that became known as the “Gideon Project.” Research designed to explore attitudes and perceptions within Mennonite congregations toward the colleges was initiated. A team consisting of the presidents of the institutions, other key administrators, and representatives from the various church constituencies came together to review research findings and to initiate common strategy. As a consequence, the Mennonite Board of Education formed an action committee representing the various constituencies to facilitate strategy. The desire to work in cooperation to support not only “church-related colleges” but also to create “college-related congregations” was evident as a result of the process. The Mennonite leaders hoped that a greater number of Mennonite young people would be favorably predisposed to consider Mennonite education.

At this point it became important to recognize that two Mennonite groups are in the process of integrating. The Mennonite Church owns and operates three institutions through the Mennonite Board of Education (Eastern Mennonite University, Goshen College, and Hesston College). The General Conference Mennonite Church is affiliated with two colleges (Bethel College (KS) and Bluffton College). The two denominations are in a process that will lead to the creation of one church in the fall of 2001. The new church will be called the Mennonite Church USA.

The wisdom of working together added two new sisters to the mix of institutions (Bethel College (KS) and Bluffton College). These schools have operated under a different governance system. The three Mennonite Church schools have had centralized governance and specific standards for Mennonite enrollment. The governance of the General Conference institutions is decentralized and does not mandate that a specific percentage of enrollment come from Mennonite young people. All five colleges have an explicit desire “to be Mennonite” and to serve Mennonites, but the ways in which this can be accomplished may be different.

To best serve the church of the future, a decision was made for the five colleges to work together as equal partners in this process. The leaders of the General Conference decided to accept the research as reflective of the situation. The Gideon Education Project Committee became a body responsible for initiating, coordinating and facilitating cooperative strategy to serve the whole of Mennonite higher education. Representatives from the two church bodies, the colleges, and the congregations (both from the United States and from Canada) began their work.

The Research

The research purpose was to help Mennonite colleges become more aware of and responsive to the needs and interests of church, its youth, and their parents. The research team initiated three phases of inquiry.

The team intended to identify Mennonite congregations that have historically supported Mennonite higher education, and those that have not. The Mennonite Board of Education supplied a database that made it possible to measure the level of college support for 1,100 congregations. Measurements used three variables to quantify support over an eight-year period. The actual number of young people from the congregation that chose to attend a Mennonite college (controlled by the size of the youth group) became the first measurement variable. The second related to the level of financial resources coming directly from a congregation to support Mennonite higher education (controlled by total giving). The final variable was an assessment of whether the congregation had an active congregational aid program to support students who attend a Mennonite college. This process led to the identification of 144 congregations that display high levels of support; another 207 that do not display any support; and 189 congregations that demonstrate limited evidence of support. The remaining congregations, which averaged youth enrollment of fewer than five persons, were eliminated from the analysis. The research goal was to measure

“desire” to support, not “ability” to support, thus making it inappropriate to include very small congregations.

The second phase of the study called for an exploration of attitudes, needs, and goals of the congregation as expressed by congregational leaders (pastors and members of the Church board). The researcher designed and distributed by mail a questionnaire to pastors and leaders from the various congregations. A means to distinguish between supportive, neutral, and non-supportive congregations was used allowing for comparisons between the three categories. Four hundred twenty-eight pastors (80 percent response rate) and 716 board leaders (70 percent response rate) returned completed questionnaires. Consideration was given to the following research questions.

- What are the church characteristics of congregations that have historically supported Mennonite higher education compared to those that have not?
- What are the attitudes of congregational leaders toward higher education in general?
- What are the attitudes of congregational leaders toward Mennonite higher education?
- What role in support of the Mennonite Church do congregational leaders want the colleges to serve?
- Do leaders recognize and value the historical distinctives of Mennonite higher education?
- Why are some congregations in the Mennonite Church supportive of Mennonite higher education while others are not?

The third phase of research targeted college students. An appropriate sample of the 2,156 Mennonite young people known to be in college became possible respondents. The sample assured that responses reflected attitudes from students attending Mennonite colleges, public institutions, other religiously affiliated colleges, and community and technical schools. A total of 475 college students responded (53 percent response rate), with a 60 percent response rate for students attending Mennonite schools and a 50 percent response rate for Mennonite youth attending other institutions. The following research questions were answered through the responses to the mail questionnaire.

- What attitudes do college young people from the Mennonite Church have toward Mennonite higher education?
- What role in support of the Mennonite Church do Mennonite students want the colleges to serve?
- Are the distinctions of Mennonite higher education recognized and valued by the youth of the Mennonite Church?
- What are the college choice selection variables and influences for Mennonite students attending Mennonite colleges, compared to those who attend other institutions?
- Why do some Mennonite young people choose to attend a Mennonite college while others do not?

This process gave the research team findings that shed light on the current situation and informed strategy development.

The Five Critical Issues

Appropriate statistical modeling and analysis of open-end responses led to the discovery of five critical issues.

DISTINCTIVENESS

Profiles of respondent attitudes, needs, and perceptions resulted in a conclusion that the colleges naturally attract a sub-segment of the Mennonite population that sees Mennonite higher education as distinctive. The basis of this distinctiveness appears to come from two sources. First, persons aspiring toward a Mennonite education intend to perpetuate their thinking around traditional Mennonite values such as pacifism, social activism, service, justice, and internationalism. The second distinction is the intense dedication to the Mennonite Church and the view that Mennonite education is essential for the long-term health of the Church.

When the congregation, pastor, leader, or youth does not hold these positions, or if college choice is not driven by these values, the probability of the youth attending the Mennonite college is significantly decreased. These persons either do not see Mennonite education as distinctive or they see the distinctiveness as a negative factor. If, over time, the number of persons making college choice decisions based on distinctive Mennonite values decrease, the colleges shaped by these values will cater to a smaller proportion of the constituency.

COMMUNICATION

Findings suggest that many in the constituency simply do not know what the colleges have to offer. When asked to assess the quality of the institutions on various scales, they respond that they have insufficient information to make a judgment. Furthermore, it became apparent that outdated or incorrect information about the colleges can drive negative perceptions. In the network of the Church, rumors about activities or events on campus, viewed by some as “inappropriate,” are circulated across the country. These “stories” can have either a positive or a very negative impact on general perceptions about the colleges. Respondents shared specific instances of “incorrect” information being used to form judgments. “Neutral” congregations represent market potential for the colleges, yet they are also likely to be uninformed about the quality of the colleges and may be negatively influenced by rumors or incomplete information.

SPIRITUALITY

Much of the perceived concern relates to differing expectations for what it means to be a “Christian/Mennonite college.” A desire that the colleges be true to the Christian mission in the context of the Mennonite tradition was a constant opinion across the sample. Evident was the importance of a “spiritual” dimension to education. Differing definitions for “spiritual” became apparent. For some in the congregations this meant commitment to the values of peace, reconciliation, justice, and service. When persons held this view, the congregation was more likely to be supportive. Other assessments of campus spirituality came from the perceptions of whether the college stays true to the teaching of orthodox Christian beliefs, maintains lifestyle expectations, and/or encourages campus religious experiences (Bible study, chapel, prayer meetings, etc.). While respondents consistently affirm academic quality, concerns about “spirituality” just as consistently emerge. Apparent is that segments of the Mennonite population are making college

choice decisions on the basis of “spirituality.” In many cases, these assessments move the Mennonite youth to consider a non-Mennonite institution. Congregations that have been historically non-supportive are most likely to display this belief. Importantly, concerns about spirituality are a critical factor within congregations found to be “neutral.”

DIVERSITY

Diverse segments of need are found in the research findings. While racial and ethnic diversity is a factor, it goes beyond that. A priority challenge is attracting members from the African American, Native American, and Hispanic communities within the Mennonite Church USA. This in itself, however, does not reflect the total recruitment challenge presented by diversity.

As discussed, apparent are segments based on “spiritual diversity.” Cultural orientation (Roof 1974, 1976, 1978) helps explain other differences. Persons and congregations emotionally tied to the “home” community are not likely to be supportive of the Mennonite schools. On the other hand, when the student/congregation has a cosmopolitan attitude toward the greater world, they are more likely to support the Mennonite schools.

Dismissed is the notion of one big homogenous group of common needs within the Mennonite Church. To expand the participation of Mennonites across the various boundaries of diversity will require targeted efforts. The goal may demand that the colleges become more differentiated. By offering variety, while retaining core elements defined by Mennonite values, the system of Mennonite education may be more available to a broader cross-section of people calling themselves Mennonite.

AFFORDABILITY

In addition to disquiet about “spirituality,” affordability emerged as a primary issue within the constituency. A majority of all respondents expressed concern that a Mennonite education may not be affordable to the typical Mennonite family. This concern has several dimensions. First, the cost of a Mennonite education is beyond the ability of some to pay. These persons tend to attend public institutions close to their homes. While a program for congregational aid is in place, the amount does not appear to be sufficient enough to make a difference for these students. A relatively small, yet significant number of student respondents say that they wanted to attend a Mennonite college and that additional aid would have made it possible.

While Mennonite colleges are moderately priced relative to private school options, the constituency is concerned about the cost of education. Efforts to maintain quality at a moderate cost, enhance scholarships programs, and create new ways to fund education are being requested.

The demographic profile of respondents and an analysis of actual college choices suggest that “willingness to pay” can be more of an issue than the “ability to pay.” Here, the inter-relationship between the five critical issues becomes apparent. There are respondents who share a concern about Mennonite education affordability yet endorse other forms of private education (such as other Christian colleges). These individuals may see greater value in the educational product offered at the non-Mennonite colleges or have been able to access greater

funding at the alternative schools. Exploration of efforts to enlarge the perceptions of a Mennonite education as a “good value” and distinctive are needed.

The Actions

Reports of the research findings have been shared across the Mennonite Church. This first occurred in planning sessions involving college presidents, denominational and congregational leaders, and other constituencies in Chicago in 1996 and Baltimore in 1997. A report was given before the Church’s General Assembly in 1997 and out of this the Gideon Education Project Committee (GEPCC) was formed. College alumni magazines also ran articles and the Mennonite Church denominational news magazine reported on the study. The Gideon Education Project Committee took the responsibility from the appropriate higher education agencies in the Mennonite Church, the General Conference, and each of the five colleges to initiate, to coordinate, and to facilitate cooperative projects designed to help all the colleges achieve enrollment goals. The following projects give a sample of the work that has been done. The five critical issues drove the creation of specific projects.

CAMPUS-BASED INITIATIVES

Each of the five colleges has hosted campus-wide discussions on the findings of the research. The information has also been incorporated into the strategic planning process. Every campus has developed a list of initiatives to try to positively influence the five critical factors. Specific actions address the issues of distinctiveness and spirituality. In addition, communication efforts have been initiated by each of the colleges. A Gideon Planning Coordinator is on each campus to manage efforts and to report progress to the Gideon Education Project Committee. These persons also report to the campus president and will meet periodically with each other to share ideas for campus-based initiatives.

CONGREGATIONAL STUDENT ADVOCATES

Thirty-six congregations are pilot testing a program designed to establish and train a Congregational Student Advocate within each congregation. These persons have been trained to assist students considering their college choice options and to promote a Mennonite education. A kit of resources is in place to assist the advocate. The resources provide information about each of the five colleges and will serve to assist a person considering college. The kit also provides findings of the Gideon research.

COOPERATIVE EFFORTS AT YOUTH CONVENTION

The five colleges are working together to present a common face to the Church when it meets in its bi-annual Youth Convention. This event attracts up to 6,000 young people. In 1999, the convention in St. Louis provided a comprehensive strategy of activity and promotion for Mennonite higher education. The area dedicated to higher education includes fun activities, seminars, concerts, talent shows, sporting events, games, and booths sharing information about the colleges. The colleges are now working on plans for the 2001 convention in Nashville.

CHURCH-COLLEGE MATCHING GRANT PROGRAM

For many years a program has been in place to provide Mennonite Church youth \$500 matching scholarships from the institution for congregational scholarships of \$500. In an attempt to address the affordability issue, steps are in place to implement a uniform church-college matching grant program in 2001 that will increase to \$1,000 and will allow for one dollar of additional aid for every four dollars provided by a congregation above \$1,000.

PRE-PAID TUITION PLAN

Also addressing the issue of affordability, options for a Church-sponsored program that will make it easier for parents/grandparents to fund higher education is being studied. The five colleges are participating in the investigation of options and hope to provide a unified program.

FACULTY ORIENTATION

Faculty assignments are a key to maintaining the distinctiveness of Mennonite higher education. To help recent hires have a greater understanding and appreciation for the historical traditions of Mennonite education is a goal of cooperative efforts. A three-day new faculty orientation including representatives from all campuses took place in August 2000.

COMMUNICATION PLAN

Implementation of a communication plan to inform the constituency of the purpose of cooperative efforts and to report projects is underway. The plan includes regular articles in church publications and campus-based communication with students, parents, church leaders, and alumni. Efforts are designed to inform the general Mennonite constituency and to encourage college campuses toward ongoing interaction with congregations.

YOUTH MAILINGS

A series of mailings targeted to children in the Mennonite church takes place on an annual basis. Items bearing the names of all the Mennonite colleges are given away to enhance name identification among the church youth. The plan is to make sure that young people are aware of the Mennonite colleges and to provide a discussion point for parents and alumni to share the story of Mennonite education with the children.

The Results

A successful conclusion is currently premature, but positive signs are evident. A strong desire to work together is evident. In 1999, total institutional enrollment went up for the first time since 1996. Evidence suggests that efforts to address the critical issues have the potential to produce positive trends in institutional enrollment. It is uncertain whether these actions can offset the strong forces moving Mennonite students toward other educational options. At this point, it is clear that a commitment to continue to work together follows upon the common belief that individual colleges are stronger when they work with the sister colleges.

The Lessons

- 1 If there is to be a church-related college in the future, there also needs to be a "college-related church." Both parties must see benefit in the connection and actively work to preserve it. Strategy to build a relationship with a church is futile over time if the church is not serious about building a relationship with a college.
- 2 This experience demonstrates the importance of research-informed strategy. Research has led to confidence that the critical issues are defined. Recognition of the critical issues has made targeted strategy possible. Effectiveness with very limited funding has been critical and has been aided by the research. Finally, valid research has brought a common understanding among persons with varied perspectives. In the past, anecdotal explanations for the decrease in enrollment have run rampant. Having research to clarify the real issues has brought focus to the efforts. Without the research, agreement to act on some issues would have been impossible. Of importance is the fact that the support of faculty on five different campuses has been achieved through research-driven strategy.
- 3 Cooperative efforts are not easy. Working with two different church bodies, varied congregational interests, five colleges, and various church agencies and committees has produced challenges. The different governance systems of the two church bodies has complicated the process. Working together takes added time. But, time was required to foster greater collaboration.
- 4 Getting the financial resources to aggressively address the issues is a problem. Neither church group is wealthy. To complicate the issue, institutional resources vary widely among the five colleges. Acting like partners is essential, but also difficult when equal participation financially is impossible. Grant support was desired but has not materialized. Yet, the desire to move forward remains strong even though resources are limited.
- 5 The experience thus far makes it clear that turning around the enrollment trend is a long-term proposition. Quick fixes cannot be expected. An informed strategy, over time, is demanded.
- 6 Cooperative efforts do produce synergy. Collaborative work produces new ideas and opportunities. Apparent is that these opportunities emerge through the process of cooperation and are not likely if the colleges just do their own thing. Members of the effort are increasingly convinced that cooperation is more beneficial than competition. To this day, each party expresses commitment to stay on the path of cooperation.

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Applying Sanctions for Non-Payment

Abstract

This article examines issues relating to timely payment of tuition and fees and institutional responses to non-payment. The results of a survey on institutional practices relating to tuition and fee payment and the application of sanctions for non-payment are summarized.

The authors suggest a systematic approach in the redesign of payment/sanctioning processes, discuss goals and factors to consider in such a redesign, and present advice for developing a successful process.

The timely payment of tuition and fees is a hot topic at institutions of all types and sizes. The reasons vary, but include both financial and enrollment pressures. Our institutions, the University of Connecticut and the University of Massachusetts Amherst, are no exceptions. In recent years, many staff at our institutions have devoted considerable time and energy to the issue.

Institutions tend to develop practices based on their own needs and expectations. We felt it would be helpful to our institutions to get some sense of best practices elsewhere. Also, many students have siblings attending other institutions and experiences at those schools may affect how our students and parents expect bill payment or sanctions to work. So we created a survey, which we distributed to other institutions in the fall of 1999.

Survey

We started with a premise that was later borne out by our findings: the sanctions an institution applies are, and must be, directly connected with other policies and practices in billing students, issuing pre-sanction warnings, handling anticipated financial aid and external scholarships, confirming students' plans to re-enroll the following term, etc. Sanctions must be looked at in a context of many other practices. Our survey included questions about those practices and the sanctions themselves. We elicited background information on the institution, information on payment policies and options, information on sanctions applied for non-payment, and whether the respondents had a sense of what their institutions were trying to accomplish and whether they were successful.

We distributed the survey via several electronic listservs, including REGIST-L (Registrars' listerv), NEACRAO-L (New England Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers listserv), and SCR-L (Small College Registrars' listserv). In order to increase the diversity of the comparison group, we also sent it to colleagues at other selected institutions. Although the distribution was to registrars, many of the responses came from bursars.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Forty-nine institutions responded, thirty public and nineteen private. Their fall 1998 undergraduate enrollments ranged from 29 to 42,465. Eight of the institutions had fewer than 1,000 undergraduates; five had more than 30,000. The number of students living on campus ranged from none, at eight institutions, to 11,000. Annual tuition and fees ranged from \$1,390 to \$32,880.

PAYMENT INFORMATION

Thirty institutions (20 public, 10 private) accept payment by credit card and sixteen do not. Twenty-one (9 public, 12 private) offer payment plans through external vendors. Twenty-three (15 public, 8 private) offer internal payment plans with two or three payments per term and fifteen (7 public, 8 private) offer plans with four or more payments.

Table 1: Payment Due Dates in Relation to the Start of the Term

Before the start of the term = 40	
6 weeks	1
3 to 4 weeks	13
1 to 2 weeks	10
Just prior to the start of classes	16
During the term = 3	
End of first week	1
End of second week	1
End of fourth week	1
Other = 3	
48 hours after registration	1
Friday of the week of registration	1
On the 5th of every month	1

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Payment plan fees range from \$0 to \$74, with the average being \$29. One institution charges different payment plan fee amounts for in-state and out-of-state students. Another charges different fees based on the balance due. Six institutions charge interest on outstanding balances; three of those institutions also charge fees of \$8 to \$60 for participation.

While most of the institutions charge a flat fee for late payment, the amounts vary considerably. A few charge monthly fees based on a percentage of the overdue balance.

No late fees	4
\$35 or less	11
\$36 – \$99	11
\$100	5
\$200	1
Other:	11
\$20 per month	3
\$20 per bill	1
Progressive: \$30 – \$125	1
Progressive monthly: \$10 – \$25 per month	1
1% of past due amount per month	2
1% per month + \$25 per month on balances more than 30 days past due	1
1.5% of past due balances per month	1
\$25 per month if on payment plan, otherwise \$100 flat fee	1

SANCTIONS EMPLOYED

Many institutions withhold transcripts and/or diplomas and many deny future term registration, but there was quite a broad range of sanctions applied for non-payment.

	YES	NO
Withhold transcripts	43	6
Deny access to current term registration	20	28
Deny access to future term registration	38	11
Cancel housing	11	29
Deny dining privileges	10	30
Withhold grades	21	28
Withhold diploma	40	9
Deny access to other services	18	29

“Other services” withheld include access to e-mail accounts, use of recreational sports facilities, issuance of parking permits, ability to check books out of the library, purchase of student tickets to athletic or cultural events, access to computer labs, certification of enrollment, and participation in clinical training.

Among institutions that cancel students from their enrolled courses for non-payment, goals and practices vary widely. Only nine cancel student enrollments “in extreme cases” and the practices of five are aimed at identifying students who are not in attendance. The number canceled ranged between one and nearly 12,000 per term. Ten of the institutions cancel ten or fewer each term; sixteen cancel less than 100; six cancel between

100 and 200; and six cancel between 200 and 1,000. Five institutions cancel more than 1,000 student enrollments each term. At one institution, the number of cancellations exceeds the institution’s final headcount enrollment each term. (Given that institution’s process, canceling registrations shortly after the payment due date, some students may experience multiple cancellations in a single term.)

The timing of the cancellations varies widely:

At the payment deadline	9
Within a week of the payment deadline	2
2 weeks after the payment deadline	4
Start of term through the 2nd week	4
3rd or 4th week of term	4
5th week through the end of term	4
After the end of term	3
Varies by student	4

To inform students of possible cancellation, eight institutions rely solely on publishing the policy in the Schedule of Classes or printing it on the back of the bill. This group included all five institutions that cancel the most registrations. Twenty-six institutions send students warning letters, make telephone calls, and, in some cases, notify students in person. Most of these institutions have multiple contacts with students prior to the cancellation of a registration.

Processes for the reinstatement of registrations canceled for non-payment show somewhat more consistency across institutions than do other processes. At seventeen institutions students pay and re-register (or re-register and pay); at twelve they just need to pay to have the courses reinstated. At two, where the cancellation process is aimed at identifying students who are not in attendance, students merely need to indicate they are in attendance. Reinstatement is not allowed for that term at two institutions and, at two others, students wishing to have canceled registrations reinstated must appeal to the Dean or petition the Faculty Senate. Eight institutions charge fees ranging from \$25 to \$200 for reinstatement.

The minimum financial obligation triggering the application of sanctions ranges from \$1 to \$5,000. Twenty-seven institutions count pending financial aid as a credit before computing the amount overdue, nine ignore pending financial aid, and at six schools, the triggering balance is contingent on factors such as timing and the status of the award.

Less than \$100	15
\$100 – \$199	8
\$200 – \$499	5
\$500 – \$1000	2
More than \$1000	2
Varies by student or sanction	10

OTHER QUESTIONS

At twenty-four of the institutions, practices relating to sanctions have not changed recently. Eleven institutions reported that discussions were underway. Thirteen institutions indicated that their policies had changed recently.

We asked the survey respondents to characterize what their institutions were attempting to accomplish with their sanctions. Nineteen institutions cited attempting to get students to pay on time, three to free class seats for students who have paid on time, and three to accomplish both these objectives. One institution's goal is to get students to register and pay on time. One institution cited wanting to help students avoid running up large debts. Two institutions, both with relatively weak sanctions and lenient payment policies, want to minimize the negative effects of problems with university processes. Two respondents reported that they weren't sure what they were trying to accomplish. Eighteen institutions did not respond to this question.

Twenty-one respondents believe their institutions are successful in accomplishing what they set out to do with sanctions; three others see some success. Four reported that they did not think the policies were successful. Twenty-one (43 percent) did not respond.

A few people had additional comments: "Enforce your rules!"; "I hate being a bill collector, but sanctions are the only stick the University has"; and "We ought to think about some of the ethical issues and also about the long-term effects on the perceptions that students have of the institution and how that might affect future giving."

Goals and Factors to Consider

Like many of our survey respondents, the authors' institutions have recently changed payment/sanctioning processes, and we continue to refine our procedures and discuss the issues inherent to them. While our approaches and experiences vary somewhat, the lengthy discussions on both campuses were in many ways quite similar. Both found that developing a clear understanding of institutional goals and exploring various factors were essential steps in evaluating our current practices and shaping new ones. The following lists of possible goals and factors were compiled and are shared here in hopes that these may prove useful to other institutions undertaking payment/sanctioning discussions. Re-examination of billing, payment, and sanctioning practices is likely to happen fairly regularly at most campuses, and the systematic approach we suggest below may speed discussion and action.

GOALS

Begin by defining your goals for the payment and sanctioning processes. These might include:

- Achieving a high percentage of bills paid (on time; through an acceptable payment plan arranged on time; by the end of the semester, by the end of the fiscal year; or by some comfortable "eventual" date).
- Treating on-time payers fairly.
- Running a clear and cost-effective bill payment process.
- Isolating students from the negative effects of faulty campus processes.

- Offering equitable and realistic payment options.
- Applying clear and understandable sanctions, minimizing mixed messages.
- Confirming enrollment numbers as soon as possible and identifying students not in attendance.
- Minimizing impact of sanctions on academic progress.
- Ensuring cost-effective and efficient administrative processing.
- Improving customer satisfaction.
- Improving the campus community's trust in the payment and sanctioning processes.

All of these goals, or a similar list, will be valid and important. The next step is to prioritize them for your campus. As some naturally conflict with others, you will need to decide which are more important and what is the optimal balance between them for your institution. There is no one "correct" answer for all institutions; each institution must acknowledge its own pressures, weaknesses, and strengths in making decisions about bill payment and sanctioning goals.

FACTORS

Following a decision on goals, there will be many factors to consider in the design of a payment and sanctioning process. Another list follows, sorted into categories, with each factor phrased as a question, often accompanied by corollary questions and/or some commentary. Most, if not all, of these questions would likely surface at some point in any serious discussion of sanctions, and it's likely that not all of your group will be "of one mind" in answering them. We suggest that you proactively discuss each of these, trying to arrive at some consensus about their applicability to your campus and your reactions to them before you begin trying to design a payment or sanctioning process.

ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Is it reasonable to expect students/families to complete their business remotely?

Is it fair to apply sanctions while students are off-campus and may have a tougher time arranging to meet their obligations (signing promissory notes, arranging for payment plans, etc.)? At issue is not only what's fair to expect from parents/students, but also how well-equipped your campus is to support students and parents in conducting business remotely. If your phones are constantly overloaded during billing season, so that students with a question can't get through to you even with reasonable effort, you may need to be more sympathetic about unpaid bills.

Are financial sanctions (e.g., late payment fees) more or less damaging than other kinds of sanctions?

How comfortable are you levying financial sanctions on people who can't pay the original bill? Is this more philosophically comfortable than invoking academic sanctions? More comfortable than "life" services such as barring access to housing or meal plans? Sanctions hurt. What kind of hurt is both effective and least offensive?

Is it more or less humane to give students more time to pay?

Should students and their families be encouraged through tough up-front policies to assess their own ability to pay and make a decision before the term begins about whether the term is affordable, or is a longer timeframe desirable? More time might be helpful, or the unresolved financial pressures may leave the student distracted from his/her best academic work or closed out from other options (like enrolling in a more affordable institution until the financial situation improves.)

How much sympathy should one have for unfinished (even long-unattended) financial aid business?

And how long does your sympathy last? If the student has ignored three requests over four months for a copy of their parents' tax return, do you exempt them from sanctions because, as soon as they submit the document, you'll be able to release aid that will cover the entire bill?

Are you basing your plan on a consumer pay-as-you-go model, or the more traditional save-up and pay-in-advance model?

The traditional model for thinking about paying for education dictates that a student or his/her family be prepared to pay, in full, in advance of the semester—*i.e.*, in advance of the services rendered. In this model, with one term paid in advance, the student or family begins immediately to save for the next term's payment. But the "consumer" model is more prevalent in our society now than a "saver's" model. People are now used to being able to "stretch out" payments after the fact for services already rendered. Also, most other expenses are billed monthly, not in a big chunk up front. Interest charges, even when interest payments substantially increase the total cost, are widely accepted and, in many ways, expected. Should you move to the more-familiar, and in our society more-prevalent, consumer mode, or does this seem "unsuitable" for our educational product?

How valuable is future or current good will versus immediate collection of amounts due?

Does your institution need the student to continue no-matter-what because enrollment is low? Or is a happy future donor more valuable to your institution than the earlier payment of overdue amounts? (We note that sanctions, even when deserved, don't foster good will.)

What do you feel you "owe" to those who have paid on-time and in full?

The broadest class selection? The best spaces in dormitories? Do these students deserve better "treatment" than the students who are late in paying?

Is consistency of practice more important than the accommodation of unique cases?

If you apply policies fairly rigidly (across-the-board late fees, pre-set payment plans), you are less open to accusations of unfairness, but you are also less able to accommodate the particular set of circumstances surrounding each student's inability to pay. If you allow for case-by-case accommodation, each student may

be getting the best possible deal, but there may be a suspicion, if not an actuality, of preferential treatment.

How much should a student's past payment history affect decision-making?

Employing payment history as a factor in deciding who should be sanctioned can lead to charges of inequity as students hear of others being spared from sanctions when they themselves have not been so spared for the same amount overdue. On the other hand, payment history can be a good predictor of when and if the overdue amount will be collected. Scrutinize data to test assumptions about payment history as a predictor of future payment. If you decide to use payment history as a factor in your sanctioning decisions, then figure out how to use it as consistently and fairly as possible. Remember that this may have implications for your data system, as you will need to capture and have ready access to data from prior terms as you make new decisions.

Should those sanctioned bear all or only some of the costs associated with administering sanctions?

You may feel strongly that those who pay on time should not bear any of the costs of administering sanctions to those who don't. If so, your institution may be more eager to implement reinstatement fees or other financial penalties (graduated, late fees, etc.) to those who have been sanctioned.

Are more or more-complex options better than a few simple ones?

Just a few payment options and types of sanctions are easier to communicate and are easier for students, parents, and the community to understand and remember. They will involve less administrative overhead. They will not, however, be as finely tuned, so some students may not get all the "breaks" they should, while others may get more than they deserve.

Should your sanction process teach students something?

Do you have an educational objective in applying sanctions? Are you trying to teach students "the importance of paying bills on time" or "a real-world lesson?" If so, are you confident that the person who will suffer the consequences of your sanctions is the one who deserves the lesson?

CAMPUS READINESS AND POLITICS

How complete and accurate is the information on which you will be basing your decisions?

How good are your data about current charges on the students' accounts? How "clean" are your financial aid data? Do you have good information about external awards and scholarships? Do you have access to accurate indicators of which students are actually "here?" The more comprehensive and accurate the data at your disposal, the more mistake-proof you can be in assigning sanctions and, therefore, the more dramatic or drastic the sanctions you may risk.

What payment and sanctioning options can your software handle?

Is your software able to handle elaborate or graduated sanctions like differential late fees, late or payment plan fees based on

compound interest calculations, or being able to prevent course adds while allowing drops? Can your system support frequent billings and re-billings? Can your system capture and support payment plan information? If your system can't support it, then would enhancing your software be cost-effective?

How much access do those paying the bill have to current bill information? To financial aid information? To warnings about impending sanctions?

You will feel more justified in administering sanctions if students and/or their parents, as appropriate, have ample access to information about the state of their bill. When students are able to call with informed questions, you will also be able to deliver faster and better customer service.

Are you willing and able to work collaboratively across offices?

In our opinion, sanctioning processes work the best when information is pooled from a variety of sources to get as accurate a picture as possible before sanctions are administered. They also require everyone's buy-in and support. Financial Aid, Bursar, Registrar, Admissions, Housing, advising agencies, and other agencies must agree to play their part in supplying information, performing outreach and pre-sanction review efforts, and in administering sanctions.

Will you require students to confirm their intentions to attend?

If you don't require a confirming action from the student, then you will have no-shows that you will need to figure out how to clean off the rolls at some stage, generally by administering a sanction (like dis-enrollment). This will inflate your "sanction" numbers. On the other hand, if you require that the student take action to confirm enrollment, then you might need to administer a sanction when they don't take the prescribed action.

Do you have clear data that describe who your non-payers are?

You may be surprised by your data. Your existing policies may actually be discouraging on-time payment from those fully able to pay. Do you understand the financial, racial, ethnic, and academic profile of your non-payers? The better you understand who is not paying, the better you can design appropriate incentives and sanctions to ensure on-time payment, and the better you can predict the campus' reaction.

How will you monitor the success of your plan?

Can you gather and monitor data that allow you to compare, over time, the efficacy of your sanctions? We suggest you resolve to collect, disseminate, and jointly review each term some critical pieces of benchmark data—for example, the end-of-term outstanding receivable, the number of sanctions applied, the profiles of those sanctioned, etc. This is invaluable in assessing how your process is working and where further adjustment may be needed.

How many complaints can your institution stomach?

There is no way to eliminate all complaints about sanctions and bill payment. If your institution is unusually sensitive to complaints

from students and parents, apply sanctions lightly and only in those cases where you can be most assured that the sanction is warranted and the person has no reasonable cause for complaint.

Can your institution afford the unhappiness of students who will be sanctioned?

You should know who your non-payers will be before designing your sanctions, and keep a close eye on this over time. The politics of haves and have-nots can be very strong on some campuses, as can be the politics of improving retention or graduation rates for students who share a particular profile. Your institution may be heavily promoting itself as affordable; you could really damage that reputation in the community if many of your customers end up being sanctioned—even justifiably.

Who plays the role of enforcer of sanctions? Is this the same department that recommends sanctions?

Campus politics can play an illogically large role in determining which offices have to administer sanctions and which get to profit from the application of those sanctions. Administering sanctions involves a lot of work and is never pleasant. Try to make sure that your campus makes good process decisions that ensure no office is getting an unfairly burdensome role and that the sanctions you decide to employ are based on sound considerations, not merely on which office has the least political power.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS

What is the financial situation of your institution?

Are you critically dependent on fee payments for cash flow? This will influence how early you are likely to administer severe sanctions. Can you afford to ignore the loss of interest income from late payments, or do you need your process to factor this into financial sanctions?

How much effort and money are you willing to spend on outreach to non-payers before applying sanctions?

If have done a lot of outreach, you may feel more comfortable applying harsher or more dramatic sanctions, but outreach requires time and money, and people quickly come to expect warning efforts as a right rather than as a courtesy. Our advice is to commit to doing only the outreach you can afford to do every time and consistently well.

How homogeneous in size are student bills?

If all students are paying similar amounts, you can optimize your process around that fact. If not, your sanctioning policies may need to be more complex. For example, if students' bills range from \$2,000 (in-state, living off-campus) to \$9,000 (out-of-state, living on-campus), a student in the former category who pays everything but \$500 still owes 25 percent of the bill, while a student in the latter category who pays all but \$500 owes less than 5 percent of the bill. When the range of charges is great, you may want to set a minimum for sanctions that is based on a percentage of the bill unpaid, rather than a fixed dollar amount.

What costs of sanctioning are you willing to pay?

All sanctions involve costs. Labor and materials are involved in sending warning or notification letters, reviewing accounts to make sure sanctions are appropriate, recording the sanctions, dealing with the inevitable reactive wave of angry phone calls, visits, or petitions, removing the sanctions, and fixing the inevitable and, (you hope) occasional mistake. There may also be hidden costs resulting from angering your students or their parents, such as negative publicity or reduced donations.

WHICH SANCTIONS AND WHEN?

How many different forms of sanction are you willing to employ?

Employing more forms of sanction, with varying degrees of severity, may enable you better to “fit the punishment to the crime”—for example, not allowing move-in to housing if the housing charges are unpaid, or not allowing access to campus computer accounts if a computing charge is unpaid. However, multiple forms of sanction may be more confusing to administer and explain and might lead to the student feeling “hunted” in every aspect of his/her life on campus.

For which services are your students typically dependent on the institution?

If your students typically live on campus, then they are more dependent on a range of services from the university, which gives you more possible services to withhold as sanctions. If you are on a commuter campus, where students come to campus for little besides instruction, you may have to depend more on financial sanctions, such as late payment fees, or academic sanctions, like registration, transcript holds or withdrawal from classes.

How many different charging agencies across campus will be allowed to apply sanctions for non-payment?

Have a clear policy on which agencies are allowed to recommend students for non-payment sanctions, and what is required of those agencies before they can recommend a student for sanction (*e.g.*, a set period of notice of impending sanction before it is applied).

How lasting and widespread would be the effects of a particular past or current sanction?

For example, canceling a student from all class registrations and offering those spaces immediately to other students may well delay the student’s graduation. Consider the downstream effects on the student, as well as the immediate effects, as you design your sanction plan.

How homogeneous and predictable is the timing of when charges will be posted to students’ accounts/bills?

If most of your charges appear on the first bill for the term, you can design a simpler payment/sanctions process than if you have many charges added to the account after the first billing. The later or less-predictable the timing of many charges, the more complicated your process may need to be and the more likely you are to face difficulties answering the fundamental question of “have we given this person sufficient opportunity to pay before administering sanctions?”

The authors have found that while their two institutions are quite similar in many ways, what was important at one was not necessarily important at the other. Because your goals and, especially your answers to the “factors” questions above will likely differ from other institutions’, “best practices” elsewhere may be irrelevant or inappropriate for your campus.

Some Final Advice

In a follow-up to the survey, we asked if any institutions provided positive incentives, such as tuition discounts, for timely payment. We found that in higher education, it seems to be all sticks and no carrots.

It occurred to us that if we put as much effort into coming up with incentives as we do sanctions, we might find some that are effective. For example, how about giving priority seating at women’s basketball games to students who paid on time? At the University of Connecticut, at least, that might be more effective than withholding transcripts, at least for lower division students. Or how about allowing prompt payers to park in the closest student parking lot? Or giving them the first choice of tickets to a Dave Matthews concert? Incentives might start to become more common if institutions adopted a consumer model for payment.

A well-designed sanctioning process will never be a 100 percent positive experience. We were surprised by how many people declined to answer the survey question about whether their sanctions are successful. As we thought about that and talked with colleagues, we got the impression that there is some discomfort about achieving “success” in sanctioning/bill payment. Most of us get some measure of satisfaction in helping students succeed. Sanctioning students for non-payment doesn’t provide much satisfaction. Measurements that stress the positive, such as increasing the prompt settlement of bills or minimizing the number of sanctions applied and their impact (especially long term), or getting no-shows out of the system earlier may be helpful to those looking for goals they can rally behind in thinking about sanctions. Other, less quantifiable, but no less important outcomes, such as departments working better together, or identifying and fixing problems with internal processes, or ensuring that the campus, students, and parents understand the process also build comfort. Take pride in your successes and know that this is vital work for the institution.

Communicate expectations with students and parents. Don’t assume that processes that may be clear to staff are going to be clear to students and their parents, who may have had different experiences with other institutions. To be most successful, communicate the “why” as well as the “what.”

Involve others in your efforts and be an honorable partner to them. Keep regular statistics and review them actively. Be willing and ready to assess, tweak, and re-assess the process often, to make sure it is in line with current goals and expectations.

The survey indicates little commonality across institutions. There are no readily apparent “best practices.” To be most effective, we believe sanctions should be designed within the larger context of the institution’s billing cycles, payment plans and options, financial aid flow, and other administrative cycles. They should change as the situation changes and be the object of continuous process improvement efforts.

The Beginning Impact of State “Percentage Plans” on College and University Admissions

In *Hopwood v. Texas* (1996), the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals declared the use of race in admissions illegal in the binding states of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas. Reacting to this decision, Texas, in 1998, created a “percentage plan” guaranteeing admission to students who graduate within a specified percentile of their high school class. Florida and California, states outside the Fifth Circuit where affirmative action policies have been struck down or challenged, have followed the lead of Texas and created their own percentage admissions plans. Although the consequences of these new admission policies are still uncertain, this article provides an overview of the current policy landscape, as well as early data hinting at potential outcomes of these new policies.

Under the 1998 Texas plan, any student graduating in the top 10 percent of his or her high school class is guaranteed admission to any state college or university. California and Florida also have adopted similar measures slated to take effect next year. California’s plan will admit the top 4 percent of a high school’s class to the University of California, while Florida’s plan taps the top 20 percent for the state’s public universities as long as a student completes a prescribed 19 academic units. Unlike Texas, both California and Florida do not guarantee admission to the institution of the student’s choice, but rather one of the state’s public universities.

Most recently, two states, Pennsylvania and Colorado, have debated the adoption of a “percentage plan.” Pennsylvania abandoned its proposal after reviewing arguments offered by opponents of such initiatives. Pennsylvania is now considering a statewide standardized test to be used in a manner similar to percentage plans. In Colorado, Senator Bob Martinez has introduced a bill that would ensure admission to any University of Colorado branch campus as long as a student ranks in the top 20 percent of his or her graduating class.

Since the use of percentage plans is a relatively new approach for ensuring student diversification in higher education, little is known about the outcomes of such efforts. Only the Texas plan has been in existence for a time period sufficient enough to analyze

the potential impact of using “percentages” for admitting undergraduates. The University of Texas at Austin and Texas A&M University are the two public institutions which have historically utilized selective admission standards. According to a study conducted by the University of Texas at Austin, that institution is enrolling as many minority undergraduate students today as it did prior to the *Hopwood* decision. In 1996, Hispanic students represented 14 percent of undergraduate students while black students accounted for 4 percent of the population. A review of 1999 enrollment figures suggests a negligible impact, with Hispanic and black students continuing to account for 14 and 4 percent of enrollment, respectively.

However, Mary Frances Berry, who chairs the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, warns that these numbers cannot be taken at face value.¹ Berry credits UT Austin’s substantial “outreach efforts” to the institution’s success in maintaining campus racial diversity. The acceptance rate, Berry asserts, may better gauge the plan’s impact. In 1996, 65 percent of Hispanic and 57 percent of black applicants to the University of Texas were admitted. By 1999, the number of admitted Hispanic and black students had fallen to 56 and 46 percent, respectively. The admission of white students remained steady from 1996 to 1999 at 62 percent. Berry, therefore, concludes that “...the university now rejects minority students who would have been admitted under affirmative action and who, based on past experience, would have succeeded.”²

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¹ Comments by U.S. Commission on Civil Rights in the April 21, 2000 edition of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.

² See Berry’s “Point of View” in the August 4, 2000 edition of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.

Although it is difficult to predict how “percentage plans” in Florida and California will impact enrollment patterns in these states, critics contend that class-rank admissions policies will include many under-prepared students, while excluding many academically capable students. Data provided by the Florida Department of Education indicate that grade point averages of the top 20 percent of students vary substantially from high school to high school. In 75 of Florida’s 570 high schools, for example, students with a high “C” grade point average could graduate in the top 20 percent of their class. To the contrary, a student with a high “B” average at an academically rigorous high school might not reach the 20 percent threshold. It is also important to note that white students compose 59 percent of the high school seniors in Florida, but make up over 67 percent of students in the top fifth. In contrast, blacks comprise 23 percent of seniors and only 14 percent of the top fifth.⁴

Acknowledging that the University of Texas at Austin has been able to maintain the same percentage of minority students before and after the *Hopwood* decision by using a percentage plan, University of California, Berkeley Chancellor Robert M. Berdahl asserts there are social costs to these policies:

By assuring the access to the top 10 percent of students from all high schools, weak or strong, it may inadvertently have blocked access to minority and majority students who have attended very strong high schools, who have not graduated in the top 10 percent, but who would do better at the University than students who graduated in the top 10 percent from weaker schools. In short, while affirmative action was intended to reward individual merit in college admissions, the effort to attain the overriding moral objective of racial justice through other means may have actually weakened the merit-based system of admissions.⁵

Texas	Guarantees admission to any student ranked in top 10 percent of his or her high school class. Qualified students are guaranteed admission to any public institution in the state.
California	Guarantees admission to any student ranked in the top 4 percent of his or her high school class. Unlike Texas, this plan only guarantees admission to one of the University of California campuses. It does not guarantee students admission to the institution of their choice.
Florida	Guarantees admission to any student ranked in the top 20 percent of his or her high school class as long as the student has completed the prescribed 19 academic units. Like California, this plan only guarantees admission to one of Florida’s state colleges or universities.
Pennsylvania	State recently abandoned plan to admit any student ranked in the top 15 percent of his or her high school class. Instead, the state is now considering admitting students who score well on a statewide standardized test.
Colorado	State is considering plan that would guarantee admission to one of the University of Colorado campuses if a student ranks in the top 20 percent. A student would be granted his or her first choice as long as he or she enrolled within two years of his or her high school graduation and submitted an admission application within the institution’s printed deadline.

	1996 pre-Hopwood	1997 post-Hopwood	1998 post-10% Plan	1999	Difference 1996 to 1999
Hispanic Enrollment	14%	13%	13%	14%	0%
Hispanic Acceptance Rate	65%	—	—	57%	-8%
Black Enrollment	4%	3%	3%	4%	0%
Black Acceptance Rate	56%	—	—	46%	-10%
White Enrollment	65%	—	—	63%	-2%
White Acceptance Rate	65%	67%	65%	62%	-3%

Adapted from AAC@U *Diversity Digest*, Spring/Summer, 2000.³

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³ See UT, Austin, Report Number 2 (1/17/2000).

⁴ See Selinger, Jeffrey. What states aren’t saying about the X-percent solution. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, June 2, 2000.

⁵ Robert Berdahl is the former president of the University of Texas at Austin. His comments were delivered in a speech at Case Western Reserve University.

Almost on a daily basis, the staff members of AACRAO's Office of International Education Services respond to questions about foreign educational credentials and international institutions. From time to time we will share with you some of the most common questions that we receive, as well as our responses. If you have questions related to the admission of international students, or the evaluation of foreign educational credentials, please send your queries to: oies@aacrao.org.

Australia

Q: When we get transcripts from Australia, they don't always give us equivalencies of their units, points, credits or whatever they call them. How can we determine transfer credit?

A: Here's a rule of thumb when working with foreign documents: "one year equals one year." The only complicating factor is the possibility that the student was not studying full time. However, if you know the student is going full time, then prorate however many units make up the Australian university's year to come out to 45 quarter credits. This operates on the idea that one year of full-time study equals one year of full-time study no matter where you do it.

Q: Many times their courses each hold 10 or 12 points, other times they are valued at 1 or 4. This one in particular is Deakin University, and they say "a normal full-time load is 4 units, with a total of 24 units making up a three-year undergraduate course. One Deakin unit is equal to 3-4 U.S. credit points." Do you suppose they mean "3-4 U.S. semester credits"?

A: Yes, that sounds right. You can assume that if 24 units total are needed for graduation, then they usually take 8 units per year. Multiply that by 4, and you get 32 semester credits, which is just right for a full-time student.

Q: Therefore, 1 Deakin unit would be equal to 6 U.S. quarter credits?

A: Yes... $8 \times 6 = 48$, which is roughly what you're looking at for one year's work on the quarter system.

Austria

Q: Is there any part of Austrian secondary school credentials which should be considered in the same way as the German Abitur? The student has a Final Examination Certificate from a "Secondary School with Scientific Bias" (Realgymnasium) with Prüfungsgebiete (examined subjects) in German, English,

Mathematics, Physics. Also, does it make any difference if the student has the college entrance "Matura" or Reifeprüfungszeugnis exams?

A: Secondary education at a Realgymnasium (and other types of academic secondary schools) in Austria is only 12 years in length. Hence, the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials has not recommended any transfer credit for credentials issued on successful completion of the Realgymnasium, unlike the German Abitur, which (in the [former] West German system) represents 13 years of secondary education.

The Reifeprüfungszeugnis ("Matura") can be awarded for several streams. The academic stream represents 12 years, while the commercial and technical streams are 13 or 14 years in length. While you can comfortably accept a Matura for admission to your institution (depending on your policies on commercial or technical high school preparatory programs) from any stream (it grants university admission in Austria), I would not award any transfer credit. This is, again, in accordance with the National Council's placement recommendations.

Canada (Ontario)

Q: I rejected an application to our Graduate School from a student with a 3-year B.A. degree from the University of Manitoba (with a supplemental year of studies at Academy of Technical Education). My reasoning: that 3+1 isn't equivalent to a 4-year (U.S.) degree. Now the applicant has countered with details of a 13-year secondary school system in Ontario (Ontario Academic Courses—OACs). It looks like she's right on this one. Would you accept the OACs plus a 3-year degree as equivalent to a U.S. bachelor's degree?

A: The OACs from Ontario are interesting. Although they are required for university admission in Ontario, the OACs can be completed in grades 10, 11, 12, or (the optional) 13. The OACs are not structured to be a 13th year, and we do not treat them as such. It is entirely possible to graduate from high school in Ontario with enough OACs for university admission after 12 years of secondary education. Therefore, Ontario high school graduation should be considered comparable to graduation from high school in the United States (according to the approved placement recommendations in the PIER volume on Canada). Add this to a 3-year degree from Manitoba, and you have exactly what you had correctly assumed in the first place—three years of university-level credit. This is not equivalent to a U.S. bachelor's degree.

France

Q: Do you see anything to corroborate the applicant's claim that the Diplôme d'Etudes Politiques is equivalent to a 4-year U.S. degree?

A: The Institut d'Etudes Politiques of the Université Lumière Lyon is a highly-competitive, prestigious institution in France. It requires the Baccalauréat plus preparatory year just to take the entrance examination or, holders of the Licence can be admitted directly into the second year of this 3-year program of study. The placement recommendations in the AACRAO World Education Series volume on France say that students with this credential are admissible to graduate study. It is, therefore, indeed comparable to the Maîtrise. However, you should ALWAYS ask to see a diploma for completed programs of study from overseas. This can take several formats, such as a Provisional Certificate from India, or the Egresado/Pasante from Latin/South American countries. Very few systems have transcripts like ours that give a definitive comment about whether or not the degree was awarded. A few that do are Canada, Australia, sometimes China and Japan. It looks like your student has completed her program of study...but the transcripts aren't totally conclusive.

Germany

Q: One of our applicants has submitted documentation for the Abitur and an apprenticeship she completed at a large German company with an examination at the end through the Chamber of Industry and Commerce. Is this comparable to a U.S. bachelor's degree?

A: The placement recommendations approved by the National Council don't suggest any transfer credit for programs completed through the Chambers of Industry and Commerce (Industrie und Handelskammer) in Germany. Although she completed the program for the qualification of Industriekauffrau (Industrial Business Specialist) after obtaining the Abitur (school-leaving credential granted after grade 13; usually yields up to one year of advanced-standing credit at the university level), the entrance requirement for Chamber of Industry and Commerce programs are only the Haupt- or Realschulabschluss (9th or 10th grade graduation). AACRAO follows the placement recommendations of the National Council, and evaluates the Abitur as comparable to graduation from a U.S. high school plus up to one year of university-level credit. The Chamber of Industry and Commerce apprenticeship programs—even though your applicant did it after the Abitur—are comparable only to graduation from a vocational high school, plus completion of an apprenticeship.

Q: One of our applicants from Germany tells us that she will send us copies and translations of her Zwischenprüfung (Intermediate Examination) certificate, her Hauptprüfung (Final Degree Examination) certificate, and diploma with thesis results. Is this enough, or should we also request copies and translations of the certificate for every course she took (Scheine)? She says she has about 15-20 of them.

A: Her diploma and Prüfungszeugnisse (Examination Certificates [with translations]) should be enough for the evaluation. However, request that she bring her course descriptions and any Scheine (course certificates) that she has. If you ever needed them to award transfer credit, or if she applied to a graduate program that had specific distribution requirements for admission or if she wanted to complete another undergraduate program, then it would be helpful for you to have them on hand.

Q: I have a student from former East Germany who has a 12-year Abitur. I have been told by two German students that their state, Sachsen-Anhalt, only offers a 12-year Abitur and that the 13th year is condensed within. As we usually allow up to one year of transfer credit for the 13th year, what do I do with this?

A: Your student is right when he says that his (former) East German Abitur is only 12 years in length. Most of the (former) East German states did only offer the 12-year Abitur. However, do not consider awarding any advanced-standing credit for this 12-year Abitur. The curriculum is different from the 13-year Abitur curriculum, and does not "incorporate a 13th year," as the student has indicated. Although the West German government has issued a formal decree that all 12-year (former) East German Abiturs are legally equivalent to the 13-year West German Abitur, this is a *political* decision that has validity for employers and universities only in Germany.

Q: I have a German student applying for undergraduate admission. While he has the Abitur, he has not yet sat for the Intermediate Examination. I am concerned about awarding a fair amount of transfer credit. He has provided Scheine (course certificates) for each course. He has also submitted a 'transcript' which appears to be on Freie Universität Berlin letterhead and bears an ink stamp from the institution. Is this an official transcript?

A: Whatever format the transcript takes, the important thing to know is that it is self-reported information. German universities do not keep records of a student's progress. This isn't to say that your student hasn't done what he's said he's done...but his transcript is an unofficial document just the same, and I'd guess that you don't accept unofficial documents from other countries (or from the U.S.) for purposes of transfer credit.

Q: If I shouldn't use this unofficial 'transcript,' then how do I go about awarding transfer credit for this student?

A: I recommend awarding transfer credit by allotting 3 credits per Schein, or allotting face value, if an hour total is indicated on the Schein. University study in Germany functions differently than in the U.S. Class attendance is not mandatory, examinations and quizzes are non-existent, as are course papers or other homework. A student can attend a lecture several times, skip it many more times, and never do any preparation for it—and still have it listed on an unofficial 'transcript.' The only way to verify that preparatory work (reading, written work, etc.) was done for the class is if a student obtains a Schein. If a student

does do a lot of preparatory work for a class, it is in his or her best interest to have the Schein to prove it. It's just one of the difficulties of assessing a German student's university progress. Does your institution allow credit by exam, or challenge exams? Maybe in this way the student could prove his competency in the subject areas he says he's completed in Germany, and get exemptions (and more credit).

Q: I've received an Abgangszeugnis from a student who attended. Would this be equivalent to high school completion, or do I need to request an Abschlusszeugnis (Completion Certificate)?

A: An Abgangszeugnis is simply a leaving certificate and can be awarded at different types of schools and at different levels.

Q: The student attended Pestalozzi-Gymnasium und Städtisches Gymnasium mit Sekundarstufen I Und II. The translation that came with the original document states, "...attended the secondary school from (date) until (date). She was eventually a student in the class grade 13, first half-year."

A: The document you described should be sufficient for freshman admission, with no transfer or advanced standing credit advised by the placement recommendations approved by the National Council. The type of school—Gymnasium—is an academic, university-preparatory secondary school. Had your student finished (*i.e.*, completed grade 13), she would have sat for the Abitur, and received a certificate titled Zeugnis der allgemeinen Hochschulreife (Certificate of General Maturity for University Study). Because she left before sitting for the Abitur, she got the Abgangszeugnis. It indicates that she completed half of year 13—and that is sufficient for admission to most colleges and universities (except, perhaps, the most selective) in the U.S. Are her grades decent? If it were me, I'd be sure to ask her why she didn't complete her secondary schooling in Germany... although there can be lots of legitimate reasons for this.

Q: What documentation do I need to see for a German student applying for graduate admission in the U.S.?

A: Unless there are some specific distribution requirements for the program of study to which the student is applying, you probably don't need to see Scheine (course certificates). Scheine don't represent a complete picture of what material was covered, since the student doesn't have to have a Schein for every subject taken. Getting Scheine is, for the most part, voluntary, not required. However, there should be a Prüfungszeugnis that was issued with the Magister diploma that details the subject areas that were tested for the Diplomprüfung. These broad areas will show grades, and there should be an overall grade as well, to give you an indication of how the student did in the degree program.

Q: How long does a student study in the Fachhochschule?

A: Entrance requires the Fachhochschulreife (Maturity Certificate for Technical College), which represents 12 years of secondary education, although some students enter with the

Abitur. Entry with the Abitur does not change the curriculum that the student follows. Fachhochschule programs are highly structured. They vary in length from 6 to 8 semesters, and all include one or more semesters of practical work.

Q: We have a German applicant who says she is having difficulties getting official copies of her teaching certificate and transcripts from the institution she attended in Germany. Have you had any similar experiences with getting official certificates or degrees from Germany? We are wondering how far we should push the issue with regards to her getting these documents.

A: German diplomas and examination certificates are able to be had on demand. There should never be a problem getting this type of German academic document. However, transcripts don't exist at the postsecondary level—perhaps that is what your applicant is referring to. For curriculums of German university programs of study, check out the Web site www.studienwahl.de. It is available in both German and English.

Q: I've been asked to gather some information on which schools accept the Vordiplom (Intermediate Diploma/ Examination) vs. the Diplom (*i.e.*, completed degree program) for graduate admissions consideration.

A: The placement recommendations approved by the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials advise: Admit to graduate standing only with a completed Diplom or Magister. There are two reasons for this:

1 If you admit with just the Vordiplom (or Zwischenprüfung, or Vorprüfung), what you have is one year of advanced standing credit for the Abitur (always required for university admission in Germany), plus—usually—two more years leading up to the Vordiplom (etc.) examination. There are variations in curriculums depending on what a person studies at a university in Germany, but in general, the first segment of a university degree comprises two years. So you'd be admitting a student to graduate standing with a total of three years of postsecondary study. Do you do that for your domestic students?

2 It is very difficult to document the work done between the Vordiplom and the final examination (Diplomprüfung or Hauptprüfung). Transcripts are non-existent in German higher education, and attendance at many classes is not mandatory. A student could theoretically never set foot on campus except for the intermediate and final exams, and still get the degree. If you do require the completed degree program, you could ultimately let your graduate departments consider awarding graduate advanced-standing credit on a case-by-case basis.

Q: How do you recommend awarding transfer credit when German is one of the Abitur subjects?

A: [Quoted from Ann Koenig, Assistant Director of Admissions, Golden Gate University] As far as Abitur and

credit go, first I'd ask a person what their institution's policies are about foreign language. Example: the UC system does not give credit for lower division courses in a person's native language, so no credit for Abitur German. In the UC system, a native speaker can only earn credit in the language by taking upper division literature courses. However, the UC system has a foreign language requirement for admission and for graduation. Abitur German fulfills that foreign language requirement, but does not yield any credit. Being more generic, and not taking any particular institution's policy into consideration, I would look at Abitur German as lower division humanities credit. It's really German literature and composition, not German language coursework in the sense of college-level language courses. I would not consider upper division credit for Abitur German, because it does not meet the definition of an upper division course. Any course in a native speaker's language is going to be different in level, scope, intensity, and intent than a course in a foreign language in the U.S., and doesn't really equate to any course in a U.S. postsecondary institution. But I would never consider a course taught in a standard secondary school curriculum, no matter where in the world, to be equivalent to upper division work.

India

Q: I have a student who completed high school in India in 1974. She was awarded two certificates by the High School & Intermediate Examination Board U.P.: the High School Examination (in 1972), and the Intermediate Examination (in 1974). Is this information correct? None of my resources say anything about an Intermediate Examination.

A: Yes, that is correct. Do you have the PIER volume titled *The Admission and Placement of Students from Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka* (1986)? If so, there is a really great chart in the beginning of the India section that details state by state, and by time periods, what secondary certificates and degrees are/were awarded, and at what level. Under Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) you'll see that the High School Certificate is awarded after grade 11, and the Intermediate Examination Certificate after grade 12.

Q: Please advise if the following institution is Ministry of Education (MOE) recognized. We have an applicant with a Bachelor of Physiotherapy from the College of Allied Health Sciences, a Constituent College of Manipal Academy of Higher Education (a deemed university).

A: The *Universities Handbook India* shows that the Manipal Academy of Higher Education is, indeed, a recognized university-level institution. So yes, the College of Allied Health Sciences is okay, too. The phrase "Deemed University" is a legally regulated title in India. When it appears on an academic document (usually a diploma), you can be assured that the institution has Ministry of Education recognition to grant degrees in India.

Q: Recently, I received transcripts from India and I couldn't find the institution's name listed in any of our reference books. Therefore, I'm not sure whether or not this institution is recog-

nized in India to grant academic degrees. Could you please share any information on the School of Building Science & Tech India?

A: The 1997 PIER *Special Report on India* that says that the School of Building Science and Construction Technology (of the Center for Environmental Planning and Technology) offers degree and/or postgraduate diploma programs that are recognized by the Government of India for employment purposes. In other words, holders of these credentials would get good jobs in India, but would not be admissible to programs of further study (master's degrees, etc.). AACRAO wouldn't recognize a credential like this as comparable to a degree.

Q: Recently our institution received an applicant to our MBA program who has a Bachelor of Commerce degree from India. Our MBA program is fairly new and this is our first time dealing with a B. Comm. What is the generally-accepted policy about admitting students with this degree to an MBA program?

A: The placement recommendations approved by the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials recommend only 3 years of credit for the 3-year B.Comm. degree from India, which would make an applicant with this degree ineligible for graduate admission. (A very helpful publication to have is *The Admission and Placement of Students from Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka*, PIER, 1986.) Colleges and universities follow a variety of practices for dealing with the issue of 3-year Indian degrees as they relate to graduate admission, however. Some won't admit a student to a graduate program without a completed B.Comm. and M.Comm. (i.e., a completed 3-year bachelor's degree plus a completed 2-year master's degree). Some admit with a completed B.Comm. plus one year of an M.Comm. Still others offer admission to a bridge program that, on completion, grants direct access to the U.S. MBA program. It's up to you, but the important thing is to be consistent...otherwise you could have lots of unhappy students, and a risk to your institution's accreditation status.

Q: We have a student who is applying for admission who is currently studying at another university in the U.S. We require that students present official/original transcripts documenting high school graduation and marks/grades. This particular student provided copies of his secondary exams. He tells us that he can't get another original without returning to India and obtaining the document in person. Would you accept copies of originals without seeing the original? And what is your experience regarding the difficulty in getting another set of exam results. Difficult but not impossible??? A large part of this is an equity issue. This is required of all students except those from war-torn areas, often Third World countries.

A: We treat international students and their academic records on a country-by-country basis. In some areas of the world, academic records can be had on demand, just like in the U.S. However, in many other countries, a student is issued one and only one set of records. This is the case for India. You should request "attested copies" from the student—these will bear a

nice, clear seal and often come on purple paper. They are photocopies made from the original documents which are in the student's possession. Although only one original set of records/diploma is issued, Indian students can have unlimited numbers of "attested copies" made.

Initially, it is tough to know which countries you can insist on obtaining original records from. I recommend that you keep some kind of a binder or file with sample documents, and notes about countries from which you've received original records directly from the institution, original records from the student, original records that you have photocopied yourself and given back to the student, and cases in which you had to accept copies of copies (this last one should seldom, if ever, be the case). Eventually you'll have a feel for the varying systems, and what documentation to expect from them. When I worked at a large university with many international students, we allowed students to bring us their original documents, which we then photocopied ourselves, and returned to the student. This, of course, was in cases where the student had the only originals that would ever be issued.

Japan

Q: We have an international student applicant whose high school, Tokyo Korean Senior High School, located in Tokyo, is not one with which we are familiar. Are you at all familiar with this high school? The student's TOEFL is good. The student did not forward to us any transcript information so there is nothing that I can even review to get a hint of academic preparation.

A: The issue at the secondary level is rarely one of accreditation or recognition, because in most countries, secondary schools must be granted a charter by the MOE (or similar) to operate. Rather, I would take a close look at the curriculum, both the overall curriculum that is offered by the school, and the curriculum that the student has taken from 9th through 12th grade. So yes, you really should ask to see the transcript before making any decisions about the student.

Q: I have a very basic question that I am embarrassed to ask, but I am swallowing my pride and going to you. 1) Do you typically find that you end up awarding credit from Japanese universities at 75 percent? In other words, 4 Japanese credits = 3 U.S. credits? 2) Have you ever seen a Japanese university transcript with students earning 124 Japanese credits in 2 years?

A: We see various things from Japan, from credit totals that almost mirror U.S. totals, to credit totals that are about 25 percent higher, to really out-of-proportion (high) totals. The thing you have to do for Japan, or any other country, is to operate on the assumption that one year of study = one year of study...no matter where you do it. Credit systems vary from country to country (and from school to school within a country, sometimes), and to bring this into a format that makes sense for colleges and universities in the U.S., you need to prorate your foreign credit totals down (or up, in some cases) to the equivalent of approximately 30-32 semester credits per year. So if a Japanese student shows 124 credits over the course of two years,

you need to cut each course's credit value in half to bring you down to around 60-62 credits. Make sense? I wouldn't beat myself up trying to count contact hours/out-of-class preparation hours in most cases. The concept of one year = one year will serve you well, and is much less complicated. In very few instances is there truly an "accelerated" program where a student would earn more than a typical full-time load in a year.

Nepal

Q: I was wondering if a bachelor's degree from Nepal, more specifically, Tribhuvan University, is equivalent to a bachelor's degree in the U.S.? We have a student that not only has that, but has done a year of study in Public Administration at the master's level also at TU.

A: Undergraduate degrees from Nepal can be tricky. Whether they are comparable to U.S. bachelor's degrees depends on when the degree was done, and in what subject area. Like the Indian system, many bachelor's degrees from Nepal are only 3 years in length, and in the past, were even just two years in length. Some general notes: If the degree is 4 or more years in duration, then yes, it is comparable to a U.S. bachelor's degree. If it is a 3-year degree, it is comparable to only three years of undergraduate credit. At AACRAO, we follow the placement recommendations of the National Council, and recommend the minimum requirement for graduate admission be a 3-year bachelor's degree plus a 2-year master's degree. However, each institution in the U.S. is free to make its own admissions decisions—the most important factor is consistency. Some institutions will admit to a graduate program with a 3-year bachelor's degree plus one year of a master's degree. It really depends on your institutional philosophy/policy.

Scandinavia

Q: We have heard a rumor that a document exists which gives the rationale for admitting high school graduates from Scandinavia into American colleges as sophomores, bypassing the freshman year. I know of a number of colleges that are doing so, and would like to propose that we adopt the practice here at our institution, if there is adequate justification. Do you know of such a document?

A: As far as giving advanced credit for Scandinavian high school work, AACRAO abides by the placement recommendations of the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials. These are published in the PIER volumes on Norway (1994) and Sweden (1995). In general, for Norway, if the student presents the Vitnemal fra den videregående skolen for completion of a videregående kurs I" in allmenne fag (general subjects), the placement recommendations suggest that the student "May be considered for freshman admission; may receive advanced placement or transfer credit based on AP, CLEP, or equivalent U.S. institutional examination." In other words, the authors of the volume, and the National Council, have not recommended a set amount of credit, nor have they recommended it be awarded directly from any work completed in a Norwegian high school. There are also

many other streams in which Norwegian high school students may study (as opposed to allmenne fag)...most of these recommend freshman admission, freshman admission if a specialized program is considered appropriate preparation, or simply "a vocational qualification."

Sweden is a bit more clear-cut. The Avgangsbetyg from a gymnasiaskola for upper-secondary programs of 3 or 4 years in length (usually the technology line) can be considered for freshman admission. For the 3-year line, the placement recommendation is "May receive advanced placement or transfer credit based on AP, CLEP, or equivalent U.S. institutional examination." For the 4-year line, the recommendation is "May be considered for freshman admission with possible transfer credit for the 4th year determined through a course-by-course analysis." If you get a lot of Scandinavian students, it might be helpful for you to purchase these volumes. There is so much information there, and these educational systems are fairly complex! You can order them online through our Web site (www.aacrao.org).

South Africa

Q: I have had a couple of students apply from South Africa with the Senior Certificate. One has Matriculation Exemption, and the other does not. Is there any significance to having that or not? Also, would you consider a 70 percent average on their Senior Certificate to be a fair comparison to a B average in the U.S. or are their grading standards much more rigid?

A: The Senior Certificate represents 12 years of high school which is enough for admission to most U.S. colleges and universities. However, the Matriculation Exemption is the university-entrance requirement in South Africa. Students with Matriculation Exemption have sat for more examination subjects, and have scored better overall on their high-school leaving examination. They are obviously stronger students than those with just the Senior Certificate. As far as grading goes, 70 percent is a very good grade (in fact, the descriptor for the grade range 70–79 percent at the secondary level is "Very Good"). I would probably equate this to a high B.

Switzerland

Q: I am working with a student who graduated from Kaufmännische Berufsschule Meiringen in Switzerland in 1997. Is this institution accredited by AACRAO?

A: First of all, I should mention that AACRAO doesn't "accredit" schools—overseas or at home. When you ask if the school is accredited, what you really mean is: is it recognized by the appropriate Swiss authority? Actually, recognition (or accreditation, as we term it in the U.S.) isn't really an issue at the secondary level. As long as the secondary school leads to a recognized leaving certificate (like the Certificate of Proficiency, in your student's case), then you can assume that the school is OK—without government approval, it would not be allowed to award a recognized leaving certificate. Recognition of a school (college or university) is usually only an issue at the postsecondary level.

Thailand

Q: Recently, I received a transcript from Thailand and I couldn't find the institution's name listed in any of our reference books; therefore, I'm not sure whether or not this institution is recognized by the Ministry of Education in Thailand to grant academic degrees. If you have any information on the following institutions, could you please share with me? It is Rajamangala Institute of Technology.

A: The Rajamangala Institute of Technology is legitimate. Formerly the Institute of Technology and Vocational Education, it was established in 1975, offers programs at 31 campuses around Thailand, and offers programs at three levels: secondary school level, postsecondary diploma level, and bachelor's degree level. I am quoting this information to you from the 2000 PIER volume titled *Thailand: Country Report*.

Q: I am in desperate need of information about Thailand's Non-Formal Education. I have an applicant who completed grade 12 at the Bangkok Non-Formal Education Center. I am trying to determine whether this is equivalent to a regular high school graduation in Thailand?

A: Non-formal education in Thailand is well-established and well-regarded. If your applicant has a Matayom VI equivalency certificate, she or he would be eligible in Thailand to sit for the Joint Higher Education Entrance Examination for university admission. Without the equivalency certificate, I wouldn't consider this applicant for freshman admission. You can get more information on Thailand's educational system and approved placement recommendations in the 2000 PIER publication titled *Thailand* available at www.aacrao.org.

United Kingdom

Q: I just received a "challenge" to our policy of accepting only 4-year undergraduate degrees for graduate admission. An applicant has presented a 3-year degree from University of Wales, Bangor, Bachelor of Science in Zoology. Is there anything in your evaluation criteria that would determine that this degree would be equivalent to the U.S. 4-year degree? The applicant indicated that other institutions where she applied did not dispute her 3-year degree.

A: In England and Wales, university-bound students typically sit for Advanced-Level ("A-Level") exams after the 13th year, then go on to university and complete a 3-year degree in most subject areas. Although this 13+3 pattern differs from our 12+4 pattern, the placement recommendation, along with most institutions, consider these 3-year degrees to be comparable to our 4-year degrees.

Former U.S.S.R.

Q: An applicant has asked for a detailed explanation of our policy on evaluating the Diploma of Specialist from the former U.S.S.R. as comparable to a U.S. bachelor's, rather than master's, degree. I'm not sure I understand it fully, myself. Can you help?

A: There are several reasons.

- 1** In the U.S., high school students complete a total of 12 years of secondary education, then go on for an additional 4–5 years to earn the bachelor's degree. This totals 16–17 years of education. In the former U.S.S.R., high school students completed a total of 10 or 11 years of secondary education, then go on for another 4–5½ years to earn the first degree. This totals 14–16½ years of education.
- 2** Both degrees (the U.S. bachelor's degree, and the Diploma of Specialist from the former U.S.S.R.) are the first degrees in a three-degree system (bachelor, master, doctorate; Diploma of Specialist, Kandidat Nauk, Doktor Nauk).
- 3** University diplomas in the former U.S.S.R. are measured in Contact Hours, whereas U.S. degrees are measured in Credit Hours. U.S. credit hours *assume* and *require* additional out-of-class preparation (which, due to scarcity of resources, university diploma programs in the former U.S.S.R. did not), but do not reflect this additional work in the numerical value. In other words, for every credit hour in the U.S. system, you can assume 2–3 hours of additional, out-of-class preparation. Calculated in this way, the hourly totals between the U.S. bachelor's degree and the former U.S.S.R. Diploma of Specialist are very similar.

Q: One of our applicants claims that at least one person who graduated from the same Technical Lyceum as he did was awarded with university-level advanced standing credit solely based on the courses completed in the said Lyceum. Is that possible that some oversight resulted in his not receiving transfer credit?

A: As far as the Technical Lyceum goes, AACRAO would never recommend university-level credit for these secondary school programs. Sometimes differences in evaluations crop up due to differing philosophies—and of course, colleges and universities are free to grant credit or not as they choose. This is complicated by the fact that there isn't any one authoritative body (such as a governmental agency) in the U.S. that oversees diploma equivalencies for education from other countries. In any case, the Attestation of Complete Secondary Education is the standard high-school leaving credential in the former Soviet Union, and is comparable to U.S. high school graduation.

Q: I need your assistance with a prospective student who attended the Belarusian State Economic University. Does one give three credits per course? The grades range from excellent to pass with numbers written in on the side: excellent-90; good-56, passed-30. However, the numbers vary such that one subject has a 90 for excellent and another subject has 50 for excellent. Also, the student received a certificate of secondary education. So is this equivalent to a U.S. high school diploma?

A: The numbers you see on the transcript aren't grades, they are contact hours. You need to total the number of hours by year and prorate each class accordingly to get the correct number of credits. For instance, if you had a total of 1,186 contact hours for year one, divide that number by 30 (or 45, if you're on a quarter

system) to get your divisor of 39.53. Take each class in that first year, and divide the number of contact hours by your divisor (39.53) and round off the numbers. Those are your semester (or quarter) credits. It's not an exact science, and you may need to be flexible with your numbers. But this is a good rule of thumb.

The secondary school document can represent 10 or 11 years of secondary education, depending on when the student studied. Whether you consider this to be equivalent to high school graduation depends on your school's policies. If you look at "benchmarks," then yes, your student's certificate of complete secondary education is equivalent to high school graduation—it is the highest secondary school document a student can get there, and it gives access to university education. However, if you count years (and some institutions do), then 10 or 11 years of secondary education obviously don't compare to the 12 years that American students attend. Since there aren't yet any approved placement recommendations for Russia and Russian-styled systems, it's up to each institution to decide.

Q: I have a transcript from Leningrad State Pedagogical Institute named after A.I. Herzen in the former Soviet Union, but am unable to track down any information on it. Can you advise if you have any sources or information indicating whether or not it is generally recognized for admission purposes?

A: Check under Saint Petersburg. With the fall of Communism, city names reflecting Communist leaders were changed. Leningrad was changed to Saint Petersburg in 1991.

International Baccalaureate

Q: A student has submitted the International Baccalaureate Diploma for admission to our institution. What is the International Baccalaureate?

A: The International Baccalaureate Organization offers programs for students in the last two years of secondary school, in the Middle Years Program, and the Primary Years Program. It is a non-profit educational foundation to establish a common curriculum and university entry credential around the world. There are 1,182 authorized IB world schools in 101 countries.

The Diploma Program is a two-year international curriculum available in English, French, and Spanish. Students presenting the International Baccalaureate have completed the program and external examinations. It is a rigorous program.

It would depend on your institutional policies whether to award any advanced standing credit based on this Diploma. Some institutions consider the subjects completed at Higher Level to be equivalent to Advanced Placement credit, and they award credit for grades of 4 to 7. Other institutions consider this Diploma an excellent secondary credential. You would need to have your institution review the curriculums to determine if any advanced standing credit could be awarded, since this would be a matter of institutional policy.

Europe

Q: I received a transcript with ECTS "credits" for each of the courses. What is ECTS?

A: ECTS stands for European Credit Transfer System. It was developed by the European Union to make it easier for students to transfer from one European institution to another. For one year of full-time study 60 credits are awarded, for a semester 30 credits are awarded, and for a trimester 20 credits are awarded. Each country has adopted the system in a different way, and it is important to remember that these credits are based on what constitutes a full-time course load (including study time for students). However, the credits do put a weighting value on course content. If you award credit based on the ECTS credits, you would want to reduce the credits based on credit practices in the United States for one year or one semester of study.

Miscellaneous

Q: I have a student who is an immigrant and who was a dentist in his home country. He wants to work as a dental hygienist here while he is attending school. He has been told he is not eligible for the job, although he certainly has better training. Why is he ineligible?

A: Professional Boards in the United States generally have strict rules about who may work in their professions. For any profession in the United States you need to complete a specific curriculum in a specific field in order to be eligible for licensure. As you may know, many foreign dentists are required to complete

advanced dental education of two years and pass examinations before they are eligible for licensure. Since your student has not completed a dental hygiene program, he would not be eligible for this employment. A foreign-trained doctor cannot take the nursing examination. A Russian doctor can take courses in physical therapy in Russia, and practice as a physical therapist there. In the United States, he would not be eligible for the Physical Therapy Licensure examinations.

Q: Our institution requires all American students to complete credits in foreign language to earn a degree in my department. We also require our foreign students to earn credits in another foreign language which is not their native tongue. They complain bitterly about this requirement. Any suggestions?

A: While Americans continue to lag behind in the area of foreign language, most countries in the world do require some foreign language study even at the primary school level. If this is a policy which cannot be changed, your only recourse is to offer some alternatives to the time and expense of completing credits. Many students would be able to "test out" of another foreign language. They could receive credit through the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) if this is acceptable credit at your institution. Perhaps you could encourage your institution to review its policies for your degree program.



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American Association
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Utilizing the Internet in Education

Abstract

The Internet's information capabilities and benefits to commerce have been proven, but these results have an uncertain relationship to education, both in universities and in corporations.

The demand for an educated and empowered workforce has never been so clear as it is in the New Economy. By meeting this global demand, the eLearning market will increase market growth from \$1 billion in 2000 to \$21 billion in 2005. More than 95 percent of firms currently have plans to deliver training online, with initiatives ranging from classroom training supplements, to on-demand instruction, to educating distributed functions such as sales or field support. These numbers are due largely to an emerging trend—virtual corporate universities for employees and students.

The U.S. higher education industry is long overdue for an overhaul. It is hoped that the Internet will go far beyond simply providing information and that it will become the link between students, professors, and administrators. Implementation of an Internet strategy in an educational setting could provide the answer to improved quality of education, demand for outcomes information, and the need for cost management.

Consider this scenario: It is September 2005, and Jessica walks onto the campus of Purdue University for the first time. She and her fellow freshman classmates represent the first class of a new generation—young people born with a mouse and a joystick, with e-mail as the main communication device, and the Internet as the first place to get information. Few knew the world without the World Wide Web. Though new to the University, Jessica had numerous virtual tours of the campus. In fact, Purdue first contacted Jessica via her PSAT scores and a review of her electronic transcripts. Jessica selected Purdue because of its focus on technology, its strong biomedical engineering program, wired rooms, and the school's emphasis on non-traditional ways of learning.

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Although nervous during orientation, Jessica smiles to herself as campus administrators and faculty describe the Purdue academic program. She wonders what it means to be a “freshman” when she has already completed one year of credits. These courses, which combined work on the Web with personal appearances by the professor during Jessica's junior year in high school, factored heavily in Jessica's decision to attend Purdue.

Jessica eagerly awaits the URL of the Purdue class registration system on her personal digital assistant she has been issued. She also notes the address of the portal to the campus's site where she can select among the online courses offered by thirty-three academic partners of the campus, including seven other online campuses. The campus had worked out all of the details to make it possible for Jessica to cross-register at these institutions while still paying the fixed in-state fees.

Sitting beneath an oak tree, Jessica dials into the campus networks, thinking how well-suited the campus is to the wireless technologies the University had implemented. Jessica downloads a course in biomedical engineering, her major.

Later, Jessica receives an e-mail message with her schedule. She is registered in five of the six classes she requested. She then logs on to see the class lists for other classes that can fit into the available time on her schedule. SUCCESS! She has now added calculus to her schedule. She then logs onto the bookstore site

“E” is in the air. On nearly every billboard, in magazines, and in airports, an “e-revolution” is extolled. Fortune magazine columnist Stewart Alsop (1999) even proclaimed that the “e” in e-business will soon be irrelevant, meaning that the transformation will occur in the commercial sector so quickly that the only kinds of businesses that will survive will be e-businesses. “E” or be eaten.

to order her books, and goes back to her room to await the delivery of the course materials.

Sound like a dream? This dream can be reality. The technology is available today—but most colleges and universities have not incorporated these advancements into their structures. The question is: How many students is your school losing due to the lack of focus on today's technology?

Most students entering colleges and universities today are younger than the microcomputer, are more comfortable working on a keyboard than writing in a spiral notebook, and are happier reading from a computer screen than from paper. For them, constant connectivity—being in touch with friends and family at any time and from any place—is of utmost importance. And they will be assuming responsibility in a world of incredibly rapid change.

Almost every institution and company believe they must offer an “e-something,” to be successful. This belief is driven by the Internet's success in commerce, a more technologically sophisticated consumer, continuing cost control pressures, and the desperate need for a standardized mechanism to manage information. E-business has in varying degrees affected everyone—students, teachers, administrators, businessmen, CEOs, boards of directors, and technology companies. Many companies are leading the universities in these metamorphoses.

In the 21st century, investment in education has now joined IT as a top priority, with growing numbers of deans and CEOs from industry becoming increasingly committed to developing new and innovative learning programs.

The growth that is being experienced today is fueled by several factors: 1) increasingly reliable, scalable, and affordable telecom networks, 2) a growing movement in business, industry, government, healthcare, and education to unify global corporate cultures and standardize employee education using an on-demand, anytime/anywhere model, and 3) a growing industry to attract and retain consumers with value-added services like eKnowledge, databanks for sharing information and distance learning offerings.

The scenario no doubt illustrates the students' expectation of campus capabilities. Over time, the expectations will grow. In fact, the technology that will be needed to support the students' and teachers' requirements already exist in commercially tested forms. Aside from not living without the World Wide Web, 43 percent of all U.S. households operated at least one personal computer at home. Sixty-five percent of all households reported using educational software for their children at least once a month, and one U.S. household in four reported using online services regularly (Software and Information Industry Association 1998). Internet access will likely reach the homes of all college-bound students in the United States well before 2010.

Everyday, CEOs and their boards of directors around the globe face tough investment decisions. Investors and CEOs base their decisions on tangible results geared toward increased shareholder value.

In the 1980s and 1990s, most CEOs focused their attention on understanding information technology investments. IT is a critical component of keeping an organization competitive, and also positioning it for the future.

The very openness of the Internet protocol standards on which the Internet rests is a reflection of education's need for open collaboration among disparately located scholars.

Facts About E-commerce

- The Federal Reserve estimates the overall cost of check writing to the U.S. economy is \$44 billion a year in paperwork, processing and labor (Donahue 1998).
- Although \$23 billion was spent in online merchandise in 1998, e-commerce between businesses was five times greater than the consumer market. Forrester Research predicts that in 2003, business-to-business e-commerce will reach \$1.08 trillion, a thirty-five fold increase from 1998. Worldwide, Internet commerce sales could be as high as \$3.2 trillion by 2003. See Figure 1 for the total e-business revenues, which include education revenues just mentioned.
- A recent study by University of Texas, paid for by Cisco Systems, estimates that the Internet economy generated \$301 billion last year and created 1.2 million jobs (Norris and Olson 1999).
- E-commerce typically accounts for savings of 5 to 10 percent in the cost of doing business (Norris and Olson 1999).
- Jupiter Communication conducted a survey of 25 companies engaged in personalization of their Web site. In the first year, these companies boasted an increase in new customers by 47 percent and an increased in revenues by 52 percent.
- E-learning is a rapidly expanding category of e-business. Defined as using the Internet for instruction, the prospects are tremendous. In fact, the combined effects of increased demand and enabling technologies are expected (International Data Corporation) to achieve a compound annual growth rate of 33.1 percent (Baer 1999).
- The use of networks for e-business can dramatically reduce transaction costs. In a bank, it costs roughly a dollar to do a transaction in a branch, fifty cents over the phone, twenty-five cents over an ATM and thirteen cents over the Internet (Hof 1999).

The issue for higher education is not whether learning, communication, and specialization styles and proclivities will change, or whether college and university administrative services will emigrate increasingly to electronic means. The preferences and styles of the members of higher education's multiple communities will evolve in part in reaction to broader changes

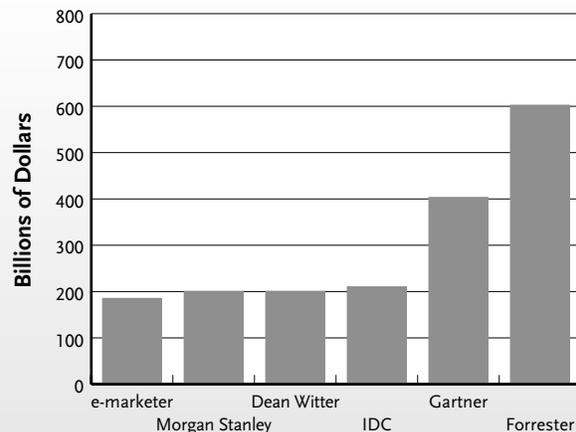


FIGURE 1

occurring in the environments in which colleges and universities operate. Campus systems, services, and approaches will also change, because it will be increasingly difficult, costly, and isolationist to operate traditional services. The educational leaders of today's colleges, universities, and corporations must decide what aspects to change and how fast they can be changed.

But that is only part of the story. The real benefit from e-commerce is from the transformative impacts of new online communities, personalization, one-to-one marketing, mass customization, and new tools for learning, learning management, and academic support. These will yield marketplace advantages that will be shared by small and large enterprises across the country.

From admissions to registration to student billing to financial services and distributed learning, the next generation of student services will be re-designed with the new technology to enable extraordinary efficiencies and enhancements. The Internet will have as much impact this year as any other outside force. It will breathe new life into education by offering greater operational and cost efficiencies.

Internet Applications for Education

PHASE 1

As always, an understanding of the audience's needs and motivations is critical to success. Initial Web site designers therefore conservatively apply the time-honored techniques of established media and produce Web pages that mimic a printed page, a still video, or a CD-ROM. This introductory Web site is termed a Presence-only Web site. Interactivity, if utilized, is usually of poor quality and speed due to heavy graphics.

The Web site design should be constantly evolving. One of the valuable benefits of Internet participation is feedback from users and incorporating this information in the Web site to increase user satisfaction. After all, the capacity to quickly react to student requirements is one of the valuable benefits derived from the Internet. See Figure 2 for a pictorial demonstration of the phases.

PHASE 2

Adding additional audiences (teachers in addition to students) usually requires increased Web site complexity but need not distract from its goals. Prior to redesigning the Web site, the additional audiences should be interviewed to determine their requirements. Once the designers have a good grasp of the new needs and requirements, the Web site can be expanded with an expectation of success. The Web design should include specific, measurable usability goals that have scheduled periodic satisfaction reviews. Distributed learning begins in a non-interactive manner.

PHASE 3

Administrative functions can be successfully integrated in an expanded Web site format. This step requires prioritizing core

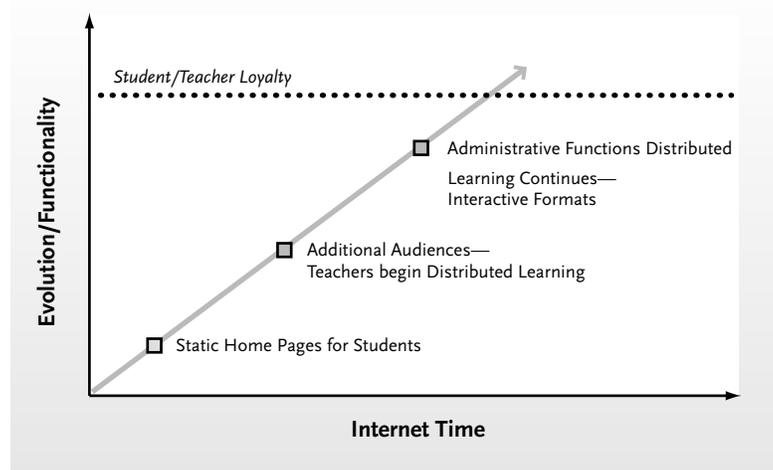


FIGURE 2

business objectives and strategies so these elements can be adapted to Internet strategies. Functionalities that can possibly be integrated with an existing Web site include:

- **Learning Agents:** A personal trainer for learning. This will help learners navigate and make learning choices using sophisticated artificial intelligence tools. Learning agents need to be recognized by learners as having the integrity to represent their interests.
- **Student Identification:** Many teachers have a problem identifying those students who could benefit from a distance learning endeavor. Presently the main source of such information is either due to remedial or advanced needs in the classroom, which prohibits early involvement. However, with the Internet, a specialized program can help students help themselves through self-identified learning problems. Teachers and students could all benefit from programs.
- **Admission:** The Web is used for students to apply to the university, complete with transcripts and essays if required. More than a dozen companies provide this service, with different products and services. Institutions find themselves faced with a multiplicity of choices, confusing product attributes, aggressive marketing schemes, and a sense of chaos. In the next few years, a standard Web-based admissions protocol will emerge and help both consumers and institutions with the proliferation of providers (Norris and Olson 1999).
Interactive online applications should automatically populate the prospective student portion of the database once a student has applied, accepted, and chosen to attend the school. To remain competitive, enrollment trend information could be accessed through the database, and forecasting information could be determined to set admission goals for future years.
- **Financial Aid Information:** This includes the information about the types of financial aid available for prospective students. The general FAFSA (Free Application for Federal

Student Aid) is currently online at www.fafsa.ed.gov. Students apply online and indicate the institutions to which they are applying. When applications are processed, information is sent directly to schools. Schools should also consider adding additional grant and scholarship applications online.

- **Loan Application and Delivery:** In July 1999, Sallie Mae launched Laureate. This Web-based loan application and delivery solution takes advantage of a new approach. Using advanced Internet technology, Laureate provides a comprehensive solution to the complex, multi-party, multi-step business process of loan application, origination, and disbursement. A student, in a single Web session, can apply for a loan and receive instant approval, with funds reaching the campus within 24 hours. This solution seamlessly integrates with campus systems, provides secure encryption, and a Netscape/AOL data delivery tool. Institutions use standard Web browser technology to access the system to manage funds disbursement, reporting, and changes; borrowers, lenders, and loan servicers use the same system. This Internet technology and architecture enable integrated service delivery, timely and secure transaction processing, and creative multiparty integration. In addition to applying for loans online, students may also consolidate federal loans online at <http://www.Ed.gov/DirectLoan/consolid2.html>.
- **Enrollment Certification:** The National Student Clearinghouse is a powerful example of the initiative that has dramatically changed the way colleges and universities perform a key function. Led by Sallie Mae, the Clearinghouse was created as a not-for-profit agency that provides a solution to the formerly complex and burdensome process of enrollment certification. All institutions that participate in the federal guaranteed student loan program must inform lenders of their students' enrollment status throughout their academic career. Multiple times a year, registrars are required to respond to many lenders' requests for student status confirmation reports (SSCRs), usually through the exchange of computer tapes. Now via file transfer protocol (FTP), an Internet-based electronic transfer mechanism, over 80 percent of the student status reports are handled through the Clearinghouse. Institutions send the Clearinghouse regular enrollment files (all within a secure environment), and lenders send their rosters for enrollment for comparison. The National Student Clearinghouse represents an efficient, economic, and effective solution that brings multiple trading partners together, using an electronic commerce infrastructure, to enhance the delivery of financial aid to students and their families (Olsen 2000).
- **Campus Tour:** The use of the Internet to provide information and virtual campus tours for prospective students.
- **E-mail:** The use of the Web to ask questions and receive responses from the institution. Many institutions have

begun assigning students a free university e-mail address, which stays with students after they graduate. A way to keep contact directly with alumni.

- **E-procurement:** The use of network, Web, database and related information technologies for paperless procurement. E-procurement can range from using electronic data interchange (EDI), to digitally processed transactions, to sophisticated order management and inventory control systems.
 - Buying outside the university's purchasing system costs more because it doesn't take advantage of volume discounts that the university has negotiated. Studies show that paperless systems can reduce transaction costs that institutions incur in processing hundreds of thousands of paper invoices each year (Olsen 2000).
- **Bookstore:** Ordering and paying for books. The research firm Student Monitor estimated that students spent \$700 million in online purchases in the year 2000. By 2002 it expects online spending by college students to exceed \$14 billion. In addition, alumni and athletic fans purchase sweatshirts, caps and other logo products over the Web.
 - Some universities have blended their traditional bookstore with a virtual store, positioning the operation for the time when more course materials are delivered digitally.
- **Journals:** Subscribing to online journals and news services.
- **Distributed Learning** (a combination of in-class and distance learning options): Includes the full spectrum of learning experiences, including campus-based and network-centric learning, with these variations in delivery:
 - Same time, same place
 - Same time, different place (synchronous)?
 - Different place, different time (asynchronous)?
- **Publishing:** Over time, intellectual property rules will realign to the Knowledge Age, and a new age of electronic publishing will flourish. Learners will have a variety of choices between traditional books, online books and source materials, and print-on-demand learning material. Electronic publishing will become an important component of distributed learning.
- **Student Data Repository:** In today's environment, accurate and timely information is critical for achieving success. Data from payroll, admissions and registration, and accounting processes could be aggregated and linked in ways that support planning, decision making and analytical studies. The Internet provides a bridge over which students, administrators and professors utilize a data repository which, when tied to the Internet, can both collect data and provide all constituencies with an efficient, real-time tool for exchanging information.
- **Personalized Course Content for Students:** The Internet can efficiently provide education customized for students. Learning object databases, which are repositories of course content broken up into smaller pieces, can create course materials for instructor-led and online courses.

- **Student Records:** Systems that make it possible for schools to put classes and administrative functions such as course registration and adding or dropping a course online for convenience and round the clock access. The functionality can be expanded to include searching the schedule of classes for open courses, checking grades online, requesting transcripts online, submitting address changes online, facilitating privacy code requests online, searching the university directory for faculty, staff, students, and alumni, accessing the final exam schedule online, etc.

Teachers can enhance the teaching process, facilitate course administration, and improve the channels of communication outside of the classroom. New resources can be used for students to improve access to departments and organizations.

- **Communities:** Participation in communities will drive learning experiences, learning support materials, books, and other text and media.
- **Library Services:** The Internet has increased library patrons' hunger for information as well as their reliance on reference librarians—contrary to librarians' original expectations that the medium would supplant their job duties. Library patrons expect to be able to find all the answers to their questions on the Internet, and knowing that librarians have access and experience in maneuvering around the Internet, librarians are being called more than ever.
- **Student Scheduling:** Student scheduling has always been a difficult process, and with the progress in other systems, it is likely that this process can be handled via the Internet. It is important that student files are also automated, to ensure that students aren't scheduled to repeat the same course. Scheduling typically refers specifically to current semester registration, but there are more advanced functions that link to course requirements, such as planning the full schedule of courses for a specific major and advising functions.
- **Student Information Services:** Leverage the 24/7 community-oriented nature of the Internet. Campus maps, general information, athletic event schedules, faculty directory, campus services, forms, and press releases are included.
- **Virtual University:** The initial phase is the virtual learning experience, and the greatest potential lies with additional products, services, and experiences.
- **Online (Virtual) Dorm:** The ability to communicate within the dorm with students in other rooms.
- **Housing:** Functionality to apply for on-campus housing; off-campus housing options include searches for roommates as well as apartments in the area.
- **Human Resources:** The recruiting and administration related to the employees of the school.
- **Alumni Associations:** Baccalaureate students spend about four years on campus and then perhaps another four years

or so in various occupations. So, for less than 10 percent of their student and professional life, students are in direct contact with our schools. Throughout their whole career, they can benefit from that 10 percent of time on campus. One goal of higher education is to provide students with the tools, knowledge, and skills they need to participate as members of our learning community long after they graduate. A challenge is to introduce new learning and teaching approaches that prepare students to integrate their personal aspirations, career goals, and educational experiences and to continue to do so over their lifetime. Through the continuity of links back to the academic base, the individual will have the opportunity to grow through and benefit from extensive alumni and professional networks. Of course, a connected alumnus also helps with donations and support to the school.

Integration of Higher Education and the Internet

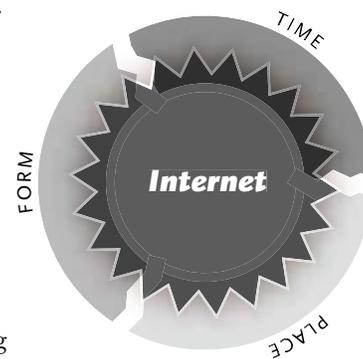
The Internet, and its Web-based open architecture, now provides a new platform for implementing and expanding distance learning/e-Learning programs. Through 'e-business' the Internet's vast potential can be harnessed to create positive, long-lasting, and profitable relationships among teachers, students, and administration.

The costs of integrating online information and advice into academic organizations' existing World Wide Web presence—not to mention the staffing and technological requirements of real-time interactivity and the investment in hardware and software needed to build the infrastructure of such systems—are high. Indeed, the companies coming closest to full-fledged online education programs aren't the nation's high-profile organizations. Instead, it is the 'e-specific' firms that are laying a structure over their real specialty: an Internet network to connect whatever and whoever is needed to build a profitable enterprise (Norris and Olson 1999).

The 3-phase approach is a framework to begin a presence for education in an organized manner. This approach is designed to provide an effective use of the Web and build a solid foundation for future e-business activities. Phase 1 focuses on building the operating framework; Phase 2 involves connecting with commercial capabilities; Phase 3 emphasizes the community aspects of a successful endeavor.

PHASE 1

Prior to developing a specific implementation plan, identification of key education strategies and issues must be begun and prioritized. Further, the project team needs to be assembled. The necessary participants would include the following people:



- An **Executive Champion**, who has the authority to commit funds and resources to the project. This executive's project responsibilities would include instituting and maintaining the formal business plan for e-business; ensuring performance to plan; resolving internal operational issues related to e-business; and coordinating interactivity between the Project Manager and the Steering Committee.
- A **Project Manager**, who is familiar with the day-to-day operations of the various departments, and will function as the team leader for the e-business initiative. This role includes managing e-business awareness activities; obtaining initial commitment from senior management and department heads; serving as liaison with Executive Champion and Steering Committee; process re-engineering leader if needed; communicating with department managers and staff; and ensuring adherence or revisions to the project timeline.
- The **Steering Committee** provides the review and approval mechanism but also functions as "the guiding light" for the Internet initiative. The members should be adept at building a consensus for decisions and maintaining momentum for the duration of the project.

The first deliverable from the project should be the initial Internet strategy—defining the organization's presence on the Internet.

OBJECTIVE #1: CONFIRM PLANS AND ASSUMPTIONS

Action:

Meeting with Steering Committee/other key employees for input.

Questions/Issues:

- ▶ What are we trying to accomplish with an Internet presence/Web site, *i.e.*, disseminate information about the company, its services and products, its suppliers, students, teachers or potential students; communication with targeted audiences; market research or sales opportunities?
- ▶ How can the Internet help us reach our business objectives in a way that is better to deliver higher revenue and/or to reduce costs? How will the Internet help our business, and how does it compare to using the telephonic model?
- ▶ In what way does the Internet enhance what we are already doing?
- ▶ Have we looked at ways of improving our business processes? Can some processes be done better using the Internet?
- ▶ Who is doing this? Have they been successful? What will it take? What does it cost? Does the investment justify the expense?

Outcome:

An agreement in principle by the Steering Committee to have an Internet presence.

OBJECTIVE #2: DETERMINE STRATEGIC INTENT

Action:

Meet with department managers.

Questions/Issues:

- ▶ What audiences have you targeted for your Internet presence/Web site? Students, prospective students, teachers and others?
- ▶ How would you prioritize the audiences?
- ▶ What are the messages to convey?
- ▶ What are the parameters that you would use to prioritize the audiences?

Outcome:

A plan that identifies the strategies and prioritizes these strategies.

OBJECTIVE #3: IDENTIFY MARKETING AND SALES STRATEGY

Action:

Meet with marketing and departmental managers.

Questions/Issues:

- ▶ What are the demographics for our product/services?
- ▶ Do they match the demographics of those who use the Internet? (*i.e.*, does the student over 50 use the Internet?)
- ▶ Who is our target audience and what do they want?
- ▶ What instant value can we offer to our audience?
- ▶ Why would they come back?
- ▶ What products/services do we want to put on our initial "presence-only" Web site?
- ▶ What can we offer over the Internet that is unique?
- ▶ How do we get people to our Web site? Do you use banners on other Web sites, advertising, or other possibilities?
- ▶ Do we have a brand name?
- ▶ If not, should we create one?
- ▶ If so, how do we position the brand on the Web pages for maximum viewer impact?
- ▶ How can we determine the number of hits, what was looked at, and the length of time spent on our Web site?
- ▶ What design will promote ease of use and navigation?
- ▶ How can I use the Internet to identify students easier and earlier via the Internet? How does this equate to savings?
- ▶ Is there data that we would like to collect over the Internet for market research?

Outcome:

A tactical plan that identifies the strategies, tactics, and deliverables.

OBJECTIVE #4:
IDENTIFY OPERATIONAL ISSUES

Action:

Meet with departmental managers.

Questions/Issues:

- ▶ What is required to do business on the Internet, *i.e.*, how do we adapt our business to the Internet?
- ▶ What are the operational considerations for product and/or service delivery, *i.e.*, order management, appointment scheduling, order fulfillment, payment, accounting, legal issues.
- ▶ How do the priorities of our Internet presence strategy fit with current operations?
- ▶ How do we handle the initial information and updates on the Internet?
- ▶ How do Internet processes differ from our current processes?
- ▶ Have we developed a process diagram that includes each operational step, both from the patient's and operation's standpoint? Is each step tied to the Internet application on the operational plan?

Outcome:

An operational plan that includes steps for every task.

OBJECTIVE #5:
IMPLEMENTATION PLAN (OPERATIONS)

Action:

Meet with all who have current operational responsibilities.

Questions/Issues:

- ▶ Is our Internet site created and implemented in-house or outsourced? Can we integrate the phone, mail and Internet student information?
- ▶ Identify the key components for the objective. For example, who will answer the e-mail inquiries and what is the acceptable turn-around time?
- ▶ Identify capacity/capability issues.
- ▶ Determine all tasks to get the Internet site operational.
- ▶ Identify the quantifiable measurements that will be used to determine if the Internet presence is successful.
- ▶ What data do you need to collect to determine the Internet savings vs. the savings from the current model?

Outcome:

An implementation plan that includes the tasks with assigned responsibilities to get the Internet site operational.

OBJECTIVE #6:
INTERNET PRESENCE STRATEGY

Action:

Meeting with Steering Committee/other key employees for input.

Outcome:

Receive formal authority for the Internet initiative to proceed after Steering Committee review and approval of the strategic plan, the tactical plan, the operational, and the implementation plan.

Internet Application for Higher Education

The Internet offers great potential to streamline administrative processes thereby reducing costs. Its dual focus is on providing all elements in an integrated fashion throughout the educational process while innovating through new distance learning/e-Learning programs. To achieve maximum benefit from an Internet presence, a number of steps need to be taken. The following case study is suggested as a template approach for developing educational programs for the Internet.

Case Study

A university wants to incorporate purchasing into their Internet strategy. They would like their internal purchasing processes to link directly to their suppliers. Of course, they need to create an easy to use system and awareness with their employees who buy products for the university. Currently, employees contact the vendors by phone or by ordering through the university.

- Begin with your objectives. Identify audiences for each objective.
 - ▶ The objective is to increase the awareness of the e-procurement initiative and train employees to use the online e-procurement Web site.
- Prioritize your objectives, audiences, and strategy.
 - ▶ The first objective is to create a vehicle to create awareness for employees to utilize the e-procurement Web site when supplies are required.
 - ▶ The second objective is to have employees utilize the Web site to order supplies.
 - ▶ Your first audience is employees.
- Determine your audiences for your prioritized objectives.
 - ▶ Current employees.
- Define the greatest impact (revenues/savings) for the pilot program. Consider the stakeholders. The greatest short-term impact would be the usage of the Web site to order supplies. There are several ways in addition to the number of hits and length of hits to monitor this program.
 - ▶ Creating awareness of the Web site—monitored by the use of employees' e-mail addresses.
 - ▶ Monitoring the number of times the Web site is used vs. other processes for ordering.
 - ▶ Usage of the Web site monitored by the volume of purchases going through the Web site.
- Select "priority" as one of the objectives for the pilot.
 - ▶ Priority one is to get employees to use the Web site for purchases.
 - ▶ Priority two is to increase the volume of purchases on the Web.
- Create the strategic intent document for a pilot program.

- Specify the data required to measure outcomes.
 - ▶ Success can be monitored by hits, length of visits to the Web site, and volume of orders via the Web site.
- Identify the data collection methodology.
 - ▶ Hits and length of site visit both come from the Internet. Totals and the manner in which orders were placed come from the purchasing department.
- Establish the Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI) process.
 - ▶ As the program is utilized, users can be questioned about the impact of the Web site, the ease of use, the ability to track their purchases, and enhancements that would be considered helpful for the users.
- Implement the Internet application pilot program.
- Begin development on the next phase.
 - ▶ Revisit the priorities and determine the next priority with the change in environment.

Summary

In this environment, the winners will be the adaptive organizations—those managed and designed to embrace change. These adaptive organizations will find the right balance between business processes and creativity; between quality mandates and confidentiality; between flexibility and standard practices. With the right approach, planning, and proper resources, the Internet can be effectively used to reach new students, communities, and to retain alumni; it is also effective to communicate easily with current students, communities, and alumni; and it can be used to implement innovative methods to deliver high-quality, cost-effective education.

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The Evolution of a Regional Association

It has been a long-time goal of C&U—albeit unrealized—to publish a series of articles detailing the history of each of our Regional Associations. In this issue, in the article following, the first step in achieving that goal has been taken. Our regional associations' histories are precious, but sadly, the historical facts tend to slip away as older members leave the organization (in WACRAO only one person who participated in its initial formal meeting remains active!). Each regional association is urged to submit its own history for publication in College & University. Don't delay!

—Editor

This article reviews the development of one regional association of AACRAO: the Wisconsin Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (WACRAO). It is based primarily on the recollections of L. Joseph Lins,¹ who was associated with the registrar and admissions areas of the University of Wisconsin from 1947 to 1962, on “WACRAO in Brief,”² and on this author's 42 years of experience in the organization.

The WACRAO story probably is typical of state/regional associations that began as small informal groups bent on exchanging information and keeping abreast of new developments in admissions and records work. In the management jargon of today's world, there was evident interest early on in knowing about and sharing “best practices” among the membership. This emphasis on the sharing of knowledge contrasts with the practice of private industry in which advances often are best kept corporate secrets for fear of enhancing the competitor's advantage.

As enrollment grew and new campuses and institutions came into being, a more formal structure was created as a means of recognizing functional interests, parceling out committee assignments, and making members in general feel more a part of an organization and able to identify with its goals and objectives. WACRAO certainly is not the largest state/regional association, but its members are very active in its governance and through attendance and participation at its annual conference. As also noted in this article, WACRAO members are interested in working with neighboring associations but not at the cost of compromising the Association's independence of action.

As of this writing, WACRAO is comprised of 330 individual members representing 64 member institutions that include seven affiliate organizations. The highlight of the membership year is the annual conference which spans two and one-half days and attracts about 175 to 200 people. Under WACRAO sponsorship, a comprehensive annual report of enrollments in higher education in Wisconsin is compiled and published together with a report of all degrees conferred during a 12-month period. A quarterly newsletter rounds out the regular list of publications

that bear the imprint of WACRAO. Occasional and, in some cases annual, workshops on specific topics are also sponsored. This begins to describe WACRAO today—a vibrant, active organization that strives to stay abreast of the demands and the changes taking place in admissions and records work in higher education.

In a lengthy interview conducted in the spring of 2000, Lins,³ a former associate registrar and professor emeritus in the Department of Educational Administration at UW-Madison, traced the history of public higher education in Wisconsin from the founding of the University of Wisconsin in 1849 to the drafting and adoption of the WACRAO constitution in 1958 and related those developments to the evolution of WACRAO as an organization. In the decades following the Civil War, the state established Normal Schools for the education of teachers across Wisconsin. In 1927, the Normal Schools became State Teachers Colleges and began to expand their curricula beyond teacher education programs.

Issues involving transfer credit and the creation and maintenance of academic standards became important. In turn, this resulted in a call in 1927 (over 70 years ago) for a meeting of registrars from across the state to address common concerns and is considered to be the initial forerunner of what would eventually become WACRAO.⁴ At that time, enrollment at the University of Wisconsin was 8,942 students and at the Teachers Colleges it

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¹ “An Interview with Joe Lins,” WACRAO Newsletter, Fall 2000, pp. 22–26.

² “WACRAO in Brief,” WACRAO Handbook, 1999, pp. 3–4.

³ Op. cit.

⁴ The first known meeting of registrars in Wisconsin was held in 1927–28 and was called by C.A. Smith, Secretary of the Faculty, and Frank O. Holt, Registrar, both of the University of Wisconsin, now UW-Madison.

was 5,035, for a total of 13,977. In Lins' opinion, the decision to transform the Normal Schools into Teachers Colleges sparked a need for joint consultation among registrars in the Badger State.

Annual one-day meetings in the early years, usually held on the University of Wisconsin campus, commenced in 1934 and were held in succeeding years except for the World War II Period between 1942 and 1945. Private institutions such as Marquette University, Beloit College, Milwaukee-Downer, Lawrence College, Northland College, Ripon College, Edgewood College, Carroll College, Mount Mary College, Alverno College, Milton College, and St. Norbert College, among others, joined the annual discussions and provided their perspectives as well. At the height of World War II in 1943, enrollment at the University of Wisconsin had declined to 5,904 students, to 99 in the two-year UW Center System, and to 3,612 in the State Teachers Colleges. The annual meetings of registrars resumed in 1945 but remained confined to one day. The program was limited to one or more presentations on a subject of current interest, small group discussions, a business meeting, and a luncheon.⁵

As enrollments grew, registrar's offices, particularly at the larger institutions, began using unit record equipment, and the ubiquitous punch card became a symbol for the storage and retrieval of vital statistical data. At the same time, the admission of students became recognized as a separate administrative specialty, adding a new dimension to the annual meetings.

The surge of GIs after World War II dramatically increased enrollments, with the University of Wisconsin at Madison registering 18,693 students in 1947, while 1,996 students enrolled in the UW Center System and 11,513 students enrolled in the State College System.

As AACRAO broadened its mission and strengthened its committee structure, state and regional associations were encouraged to follow suit. In the fall of 1957, Lins proposed a more formal organizational structure for Wisconsin. Among the reasons for doing so, he cited the need for continuity in leadership, with officers serving terms longer than one year, a more stable relationship between the state organization and AACRAO, use of a committee structure for the discussion of functional issues at the state level, the inclusion of all higher education institutions in the state, provision for additional program sessions at annual meetings, establishment of a dues structure to support organizational expenses, and the prospect of sponsoring the compilation of reports of interest for the higher education community.

Lins was asked to draft a constitution, a task he undertook during the 1957-58 academic year. The document that emerged was considered and approved at the annual meeting in the fall of 1958. And, in recognition of his work, Lins was elected President of the fledgling organization and became the first person officially to hold that title. The constitution itself, with amendments, has remained in force for more than 40 years. The first annual meeting held under its provisions occurred in

October 1959 at Mount Mary College in Milwaukee. (This writer was privileged to attend that meeting having joined the Registrar's Office at UW-Madison in June of that year. Of the attendees whose names are listed on the roll for that meeting, he is the only one who remains in active registrar service.) The meeting that year included a luncheon, a business session, some remarks by Robert Hewes of MIT who represented AACRAO, a report of enrollments in Wisconsin, some discussion of the prospect of Wisconsin hosting an annual meeting of AACRAO sometime in the 1960s, and "matters arising."

In 1960, the Association moved to a two-day conference which would set the pattern for about 15 years. A limited number of individual break-out sessions was introduced to give the conference more variety and a wider appeal. In the mid 1970s, an additional half day was included so that the conclave encompassed all or parts of three days. For the past 25 years, that has been the pattern. Over the past 40 years, specific meeting dates have varied from mid-October to early November and have sometimes been an issue due to other commitments that have arisen. But, in more recent years, the dates have clustered around the end of October into the first week of November and the calendar issue has subsided.

During the 1960s, a standing committee structure was introduced to represent functional responsibilities or areas of interest for registrars and admissions officers. These committees sponsor sessions at the annual conference and work under the guidance of the president-elect in the development of the conference program. This mirrors, on a smaller scale, the AACRAO model and has resulted in 25 or more break-out sessions during the conference and opportunities for more members to participate in the work of the Association. These are often augmented by additional panels of specialized interest that have become known as pre-conference workshops.

In 1964, the State College System in Wisconsin became the State University System. In keeping with the national phenomenon of rapid growth in numbers of students, particularly in publicly supported institutions, the campuses that comprised the Wisconsin State University System experienced enormous expansion during the decade of the 1960s. In 1959-60, the enrollment of what was to become the State University System totaled 14,338. Ten years later it had reached 61,890. This growth resulted in the addition of professional staff in admissions and records offices as schools sought to cope with the burgeoning numbers of students. The University of Wisconsin System of that day added two new four-year institutions, the UW-Green Bay and the UW-Parkside, the latter located in the vicinity of Racine and Kenosha. Earlier, the UW-Milwaukee had been created from a merger of the Milwaukee State Teachers College and the Milwaukee Vocational-Technical School. These developments combined to bring new and often younger members into organizations like WACRAO. The need for professional development and a more comprehensive annual conference was evident.

In 1971, legislation was passed to merge the State University System with the "old" University of Wisconsin System to create a unified system of public higher education to be known as the University of Wisconsin System. That development did not change the character and purpose of WACRAO, but it did serve

⁵ Prior to 1958, a chair and secretary were selected each year. The chair was responsible for calling the meeting and organizing the agenda. E.T. Smith of Stevens Point Teachers College, now UW-Stevens Point, is generally regarded as the first chair of what would eventually become WACRAO.

to illustrate the dominance of the public sector of higher education in Wisconsin. A balance is maintained by the presence of quality independent colleges and universities within WACRAO that offer a diverse array of educational opportunities and by a highly developed vocational and technical college system that operates statewide and reflects Wisconsin's tradition of nurturing a skilled and educated workforce. These three elements are all reflected in the membership of WACRAO, and care is taken to rotate leadership positions to give voice to these important interests.

Professional development of the membership in WACRAO has been a continual goal of the Association. As early as 1973, a MODS workshop was held in Milwaukee. Other workshops dealing with personnel issues, time management, FERPA, and matters of interest to clerical and support staff have been conducted separately from the annual conference. Athletic eligibility and veterans benefits have been the focus of still other programs. Personnel from member schools, whether themselves WACRAO members or not, are urged to attend, and registration fees are modest to encourage broad participation.

Some previously mentioned publications underwritten by WACRAO include an annual enrollment report that covers fall semester enrollments at each member institution. This began in 1954 and has continued to the present. A report of degrees conferred was first compiled in 1980 and has been continued each year thereafter.⁶ The newsletter made its first appearance in 1969 as a modest piece of four to six pages and was then known by the colorful title of *WACRAOBATS*. The latter was changed to the more mundane but descriptive *WACRAO Newsletter* in 1971. It now runs at least 20 pages, and the conference issue often exceeds 40 pages. The *Membership Directory*, compiled and published annually, is a valuable and much thumbed document not only in the management of the organization but also for networking across the state. The *WACRAO Handbook* is revised and reissued every other year. It contains the constitution and bylaws, duties and responsibilities of the officers and the standing committees, a timeline for the planning of the annual conference, financial procedures, guidelines for making presentations, and documents relating to the internal conduct of the Association. It has proven itself to be a valuable guide in the conduct of business within WACRAO.

Occasional publications sponsored by WACRAO have appeared from time to time. One such example is the *Admissions Ethics Statement*, the work of the ad hoc Committee on Ethics Recruitment, published in the fall of 1991. A recent development has been the emergence of the WACRAO Homepage which carries electronic versions of most of the publications and up-to-date rosters of committee personnel, special announcements, and other items that require rapid communication. The Homepage has become a valuable communications tool.

WACRAO is limited geographically to Wisconsin and is somewhat insular in its outlook. To compensate for that, to some extent, a "special relationship" has been established with the Upper Midwest Association (UMACRAO) whereby the two Associations jointly sponsor a reception at the AACRAO Annual Meeting. In addition, the two Associations exchange observers at their conferences each year and bring greetings from their respective organizations. In 1963, 1977, and 1982, joint conferences were held with the Illinois Association (IACRAO). A proposal some years ago to link the Middle Western states that border on the Great Lakes into a "super regional" of sorts received a cool reception in WACRAO.

As with any organization that wants to remain relevant and grow, WACRAO faces challenges in keeping the interest of its membership. Under the provisions of its constitution, the Executive Committee is a continuing body of five voting members and one non-voting member. Two positions become vacant each year as two senior members of the panel retire. This provides an opportunity for fresh faces and new outlooks to join the leadership team and helps to assure that the Association remains a reflection of the needs of its members and the current problems and concerns that confront professionals in the work of admissions and records. This blend of newly recruited officers working with experienced "old hands" makes for an inclusive organization that can be responsive in a positive and forward-looking manner as the Association moves into the 21st century.

⁶ These reports bring together data from all member institutions in a convenient form and have been cited by researchers and the media for the information they contain.

Diamonds in the Rough

After spending 25 glorious years in higher education, it becomes possible to describe the familiar professor types walking through the hallowed halls of the academy. Even though these classifications are gross and stereotypical, they are amusing.

The *Absentee-Ballot Professor* is rarely seen in his natural habitat. Although there is an assumption that he instructs his classes, this teacher is nearly invisible. He sneaks onto campus, slips into class, and leaves seconds after the class is over. He never returns phone calls and does not know what e-mail is; his mailbox is overflowing from disregard. He's absent from every department meeting and his name is forgotten at the tip of the tongues of his closest colleagues. In fact, it takes years after the Absentee-Ballot Professor dies for some at the university to question where he has been lately.

The *Financial Overload Professor* expands the concept of the "worker bee." She has an innate ability to maximize her earning power, teaching eight or nine sections per semester. Along with teaching, she has a nose for sniffing out any supplemental contracts or release time through grant writing or union officership. Working through spring and summer sessions, she easily outpaces the salary requirements of the president and the president's cabinet!

There is the *Lost-in-the-Past Professor*, the one you try to avoid when you see him walking toward you. He's the professor whose frame of reference dates back thirty years, who is astonished by how unmotivated kids are today, who berates the entire secondary and elementary system in the country, and who can't understand why students don't read more. If the Lost-in-the-Past Professor gets your ear, and he will, he'll predict the end of civilization—the decimation of the human race within mere months—primarily because teachers don't require students to diagram sentences anymore.

Every college student has experienced the *This-Is-All-Beneath-Me Professor*. This teacher has forgotten what the core purpose of teaching is—to inspire and motivate others to grow intellectually. This professor is self-absorbed, believes she should be employed at some elite Ivy League college, treats students like dirty little rodents, and believes she is too wise and valuable to be wasting her career instructing ignorant undergraduates. In retirement, she will spend ten years writing volumes 1 through 15 of her memoirs, unable to find a publisher.

The *Radical Professor's* cause and mission become more important with time. His show is well-rehearsed, intriguing, and even has merit. The aberration that led to his radical approach becomes dim after all these years, but the professor holds on steadfast. This is the professor who is adept at getting

under students' skin, who knows The Truth once and for all, who does not encourage opposing views. The Radical Professor's primary function and purpose is to upset the calmness and apathy in today's students.

Simply peer into an office and you will know if the *Scatter Brain Professor* lives there. Piles of papers and books litter the desk, floor, chair, and any table nearby. Bookshelves are indecipherable. She is like the scarecrow in *The Wizard of Oz*—brilliant, forgetful, dizzy, articulate, off-the-wall, knowledgeable, unclear, and unreliable. This is the professor who misplaces her book and grade sheet weekly, who makes up assignments, loses student work at will, and who shows up at the wrong classroom with last week's lecture notes. She reluctantly has to submit dozens of grade changes every semester. Everyone agrees that the Scatter Brain Professor's heart is in the right place, but that her common sense has been lost for years.

The *Student Pleaser Professor* is out to be your friend, your buddy, your favorite. In every class, he drops the lowest grade, sometimes the bottom two lowest grades. He lets class out two hours early every week, stating he "power lectures and doesn't need as much time as other professors." The final exam is a class party, complete with alcoholic beverages and music. He is known to marry former students liberally.

Fortunately, the majority of professors fall into the broad, general category of *Mind Benders*. These are conscientious, diligent, hard-working, competent teachers who care about students and their progress. They love what they teach, they practice what they love, and they seek out new ways to expose the materials and concepts to students. They are never quite satisfied. Always searching for better techniques and methods, the Mind Bender Professors carry more than their fair share and consider it a privilege. Their classrooms are humorous, flexible, inspiring, engaging, diverse, relevant, and active.

Most of us are indebted to the Mind Bender Professors out there doing their regular jobs day after day. At every college, community college, or university, these teachers appear like diamonds in the rough, shining bright but not expecting any great fanfare or applause or recognition. Luckily for all, what happens in their classrooms far outweighs what doesn't happen in the others.

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The Price of Admission: Rethinking How Americans Pay for College

Thomas J. Kane

The Brookings Institution Press, 1999

The arrival of a new administration and a new Congress in Washington offers a prime opportunity for policymakers, analysts, and advocates to revisit the topic of the student financial aid system, and what the architecture and operation of that system say about our national values and policy priorities. Stakeholders looking for reference points and conversation starters on this issue should consider the observations and ideas offered in *The Price of Admission: Rethinking How Americans Pay for College*, authored by Harvard economist Tom Kane. While some of Kane's analyses and recommendations are open to alternative interpretation or challenge, the book represents a solid attempt to engage some of the most salient issues in student finance. Amid the continued shift from public financing of higher education to private financing, as well as the headlong rush to enshrine tax benefits and "B" average scholarships as the cornerstones of the financial aid system, *The Price of Admission* invites sorely needed reflection and debate.

Kane devotes much of the work to an explanation and analysis of the current aid system—namely, how the system has evolved, and the unintended consequences springing from that evolution that frustrate the system's goals of ensuring educational opportunity and labor market responsiveness. Throughout the book, Kane reiterates a central point—the student financial aid system has become too complex, with too many perverse incentives, and that broad, serious reforms are needed if the system is to live up to its intended promise of ensuring educational opportunity for all Americans.

In discussing "How We Pay for College," Kane describes the primary means of higher education finance for American students (grants, loans, and tax benefits) and the processes used for allocating this aid, emphasizing their "labyrinthine" nature and pointing out loopholes and anomalies of the current system. These include the incentive to shift income such as bonuses and capital gains into the pre- and post-collegiate years, the implicit disincentive for college saving for many families, the unintended consequences of excluding home equity for aid eligibility calculations, and the difficulties posed by changing student demographics for the current independent/dependent student classification structure. Kane closes this discussion with a cross-national comparison of college finance, showing particular interest in Australia's forward-looking assistance model (where aid is premised on post-college earnings).

Tackling "Rising Costs in Higher Education," Kane explores two nagging policy questions:

- Why have college costs (and thus student charges) increased so rapidly in recent years?
- Does the financial aid system contribute to cost/price increases?

While he does not shed a great deal of new analytical light on these questions, Kane does underscore important but commonly under-emphasized points in these discussions:

- Cost and price increases have been fueled in the public sector by reduced state investment, and in the private sector by student demand.
- For most institutions (especially those with higher tuition), the availability of federal student aid does not represent a plausible incentive for raising tuition.
- College costs must be understood within the context of higher education as a human resource-intensive enterprise, thus making it especially susceptible to shifts in productivity.

Kane also turns an analytical eye to the question of "Has Financial Aid Policy Succeeded?" and emerges with some troubling conclusions. In particular, he takes up the question of whether—or to what extent—financial aid programs have succeeded in promoting college opportunity for the neediest students. Through a series of detailed analyses, Kane asserts that low-income students of similar ability enroll at a lower rate than their more affluent counterparts and that students are price-sensitive in their enrollment decisions (at least in the face of significant tuition increases). Most disturbing, however, is the finding that income-related gaps in educational participation have not narrowed, even in the face of billions of dollars of spending on need-based programs such as the Pell Grant. Kane acknowledges, however, that more definitive conclusions in this area are contingent upon more rigorous and current research.

Following a thorough discussion of the problems with the existing financial aid system, Kane offers several near-term solutions, some of which are on-target, and some of which require re-thinking.

- 1 **Simplify need analysis.** Given the confusion, mythology, and misinformation that persists among students and families about financial aid, this seems like an obvious and logical step. Kane concedes, however, that optimal targeting of aid to those who most need it may be sacrificed in the name of simplicity, but such a sacrifice should be weighed against the possibility of a greater good resulting from increased transparency. Caution should be exercised in this respect however, because the law of unintended consequences never sleeps in the policy world.
- 2 **Raise student loan borrowing limits.** Kane argues that the current borrowing limits in the federal student loan programs represent a harmful restriction of credit, and that

limiting loan eligibility to students attending more than half-time represents a failure to account for emerging realities. This proposal, however, should be approached with a healthy dose of skepticism, and considered only under very specific conditions. Loan debt among students has risen to alarming levels, and low-income students and their families are being forced into the borrowing market at a disturbingly high rate. Accordingly, raising loan limits must be considered in concert with increases in need-based grant aid, income-contingent repayment, and similar mechanisms that preserve a financing “safety net” for the neediest students.

3 “Front-load” the Pell Grant. In an effort to combat the college participation gap for low-income students, Kane proposes shifting funding for the federal Pell Grant into the first two years of college, forcing borrowing for education beyond that point (referred to as front-loading). This proposal is particularly salient at present, as President George W. Bush expressed an interest in adjustments to the Pell program during his campaign for the White House. While lowering financial barriers for entering students is a worthy policy objective, it would represent a high-stakes gamble with college opportunity. It is impossible to tell how many students would abandon their education when moved from public subsidy to self-support in the third year of their education (especially among low-income students, who have traditionally shown greater resistance to borrowing). In this context, it is extremely important to remember that opportunity is about more than just access—it is about success as well. To that end, it is difficult to justify a massive shift in the financial aid system on the chance that some people might get some more education—providing additional funding to the existing Pell program will accomplish that.

4 Evaluate the impact of different forms of aid. Kane makes the essential point that for the billions of dollars spent in this nation on student financial assistance, the best that can usually be done in evaluative terms is educated guesswork. He goes on to cite examples of program evaluations that have yielded important insights (Job Training Partnership Act and Upward Bound), and urges the Department of Education to pursue such evaluation for its primary aid programs—a proposal worthy of unqualified support.

Kane closes his discussion of the road ahead, however, with some bold proposals for the future of the nation’s student financial aid system. Two of these—income-contingent student loan repayment and forward-looking means testing for aid—would reverse the emphasis of the current system. Instead of basing student eligibility on a retrospective examination of ability to pay, the system proposed by Kane would follow the Australian model of allocating benefits based on actual earnings, which represents a prospective approach to student finance. While there is an appealing logic to such a change—especially from the standpoint of building labor supply in fields such as teaching—it is difficult to imagine how such a proposal could be seriously entertained in the face of the lobbying juggernaut of vested interests that reap lucrative rewards from the current system.

Overall, *The Price of Admission* is somewhat dense (a bit heavy on economic jargon in places) and slightly unfocused, but is an essential read for enrollment management and financial aid professionals concerned about “the big picture” of how to promote educational opportunity through the financial aid system. Whether or not one agrees Tom Kane’s proposed fixes for that system, his book is a useful starting point for reform discussions that are long overdue.

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The University of Illinois, 1894-1904: The Shaping of the University

By Winton U. Solberg
University of Illinois Press 2000
\$50.00
415 pp.

It has been said that institutional histories tend either to be provincial in their outlook or laudatory and expansive in the treatment of their subjects. Neither generalization holds true here. This study can best be described as analytical in its approach to the development of the University of Illinois and the challenges it faced in becoming more than an engineering college. The author, a professor emeritus of history at the University of Illinois and the author of an earlier volume, *The University of Illinois, 1867-1894*, sets forth the proposition that the decade spanned by this book represents a crucial turning point for the University in its rise to become one of the leading universities in the nation and of the world. The years 1894-1904 coincide with the presidency of Andrew Sloan Draper, who came to Illinois from a career as a lawyer and school administrator in New York State. Draper is portrayed as something of an autocrat and micro-manager who becomes well connected with the political and economic leadership of the state but has difficulty in his relations with his deans and members of the faculty.

When Draper arrived, the University consisted of four colleges: Engineering, Literature and Arts, Agriculture, and Science. The best known unit and the one with the largest enrollment and faculty was the College of Engineering. Fortunately for Draper and the University, the election of 1892 had brought John Peter Altgeld to the governorship. Governor Altgeld was self educated but believed passionately in the worth of an educated populace and worked with the General Assembly to increase substantially state appropriations in support of the University. More importantly, this laid the foundation for more generous treatment and understanding of the University in future years.

The author has a keen eye for weaving a myriad of detail into the story that unfolds. But he does so unobtrusively and in so doing, he creates a valuable reference work for the years under study. Brief, one or two sentence sketches of deans, faculty members, and University trustees appear throughout the narrative. Among the more prominent figures who reappear at appropriate times is David Kinley, a young economist who, as

dean of the College of Literature and Arts, is entangled repeatedly with Draper over the latter's insistence that centralizing authority represents the best means of administering a university. Kinley will go on to serve the University in major roles for many years, eventually becoming its president for the decade of the 1920s. But for the period of this study, he struggles to build and strengthen his College without the steady and enthusiastic support of President Draper.

In contrast to Engineering, the College of Agriculture was in sad shape upon Draper's arrival. Scientific research was unknown and enrollment had dwindled to three students. To fill the vacant dean's position, President Draper looked to Michigan Agricultural College (now Michigan State University) and hired Eugene Davenport as the new dean. Davenport had ideas for the introduction and promotion of scientific agricultural practices that were in sharp contrast with the position of Draper who would have preferred to have students interested in agriculture enroll in the University's preparatory school rather than pursue a four-year degree program. The author outlines in detail the strategies employed by Davenport in mobilizing the Illinois agricultural interests in support of agricultural education and neutralizing the views of the president in this area.

The author describes the establishment of new components of the University during this era, the Library School and the University Library itself, the School of Music, the Department of Art and Design, and the all important beginnings of the Graduate School. The College of Law was established followed by the Colleges of Pharmacy, Medicine, and Dentistry. The latter three had their beginnings as proprietary schools in Chicago and became a part of the University through complex sets of negotiations that are explained for the reader. In the case of Pharmacy, the University offered a program in its College of Science but felt the need to expand and offer a more competitive program in the Chicago area. By 1903, the Department of Architecture in the College of Engineering had obtained a reputation that put it on a footing with well established programs in Eastern universities.

Other aspects of growth are considered. Student life and spirit, the influence of the YMCA and YWCA movements on the campus, the creation of a Women's Department and the rise of the positions of dean of women and dean of men, literary and debating societies, military and physical training, musical performance groups, the fraternity system, and the place of intercollegiate athletics are all given attention as they emerge to round out the University of that period. Illinois' role as a charter member of the Western Intercollegiate Conference, later to become the Big Ten, is outlined. Problems of professionalism in amateur sports and the ever present hunt for revenue plagued the Conference schools a century ago and in many ways, similar concerns, commercialism, and the need for income to support intercollegiate sports, continue to this very day.

The author cites the role of the governing body, the Board of Trustees, as being a bridge between the University president and the faculty on the one hand, and the governor and members of the General Assembly on the other. Women made their first appearance as trustees during this period, and the author devotes attention to their new-found influence on University policies.

Given that members of the Board of Trustees were elected on a partisan, statewide general election ballot, the emergence of women in this role is all the more interesting in an era before universal women's suffrage. At the turn of the last century, women in Illinois could vote only in school board elections.

It is obvious that this work is the product of a thorough historian, someone who is accustomed to unraveling a complex set of sometimes contradictory facts and assembling them into a coherent account that keeps the reader's interest. The author has a literary style that reads well, despite his enormous appetite for detail. The pattern of development he traces is a familiar and significant one during this time period. Fledgling state universities which previously had been little more than glorified colleges were coming into their own as comprehensive research-oriented institutions and were being looked to for educational leadership in their states.

Although critical of the leadership style and administrative practice of President Draper, the author is quick to recognize his abilities as an organizer and builder. Moreover, he acknowledges the age-old tug-of-war that ebbs and flows between a university administration on the one hand, and the deans and faculty on the other. This was clearly the case during the Draper years.

Each chapter contains a summary of its contents followed by a set of copious footnotes. A useful index helps the reader to trace events and especially individuals named in the text. As the author states, by 1904, Illinois is "poised for take-off" as a major player in higher education. One anticipates the appearance of the next volume in what should be a series as the University begins to move into the modern era.

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Cool Colleges: For the Hyper-Intelligent, Self-Directed, Late Blooming, and Just Plain Different

Donald Asher
Ten Speed Press, 2000, 224 pp., \$14.95 (soft cover)

Ever wish you could find an unconventional guide to colleges and universities? One that is thought-provoking and loaded with interesting but little known tidbits about higher education? *Cool Colleges* may be the book for you.

Written by a business writer and speaker who has spent a decade visiting colleges across the U.S. and Canada and who has children of his own who are contemplating the college scene, this book explores the diversity of opportunity that is available in higher education today. Using graphics and page design to package information in a readable and digestible manner, a reader can open this work at any page and find useful facts, observations, and appraisal. But a word of caution is in order. To obtain maximum usefulness and understanding of what is being presented, the reader should first consult the Introduction. It outlines what the book purports to do and its limitations and omissions as well.

The author explains his research methods and biases and offers his opinion that a good undergraduate experience can often best be obtained at a smaller, perhaps lesser-known, four-year college rather than at a large university. As he states, "This guide is not meant to be the primary guide in a counselor's office, nor the only guide a student should consider. One of my explicit goals is to provide information not readily available everywhere." The cost of going to college, a major consideration for many students, is not discussed here. The author believes prospective enrollees should seek a "good college fit," then consider the financial aid package offered and make a decision based on hard data rather than trust the claims of a campus viewbook.

In discussing a college the author wishes to highlight, he provides a summary of its characteristics of particular interest to undergraduates, its pluses and minuses as an institution, and a "cross apps" feature. The latter provides a handy means to find other, similar schools if exploration is part of the adventure in choosing a college. He cautions the reader to be sure to get the right name of the college being considered and cites several examples of schools with similar names but having very different profiles. For example, nineteen schools have "Washington" as a part of their names. Wheaton College in Massachusetts and Wheaton College in Illinois are two fine liberal arts colleges, but distinctly different.

Schools described by the author as "innovative," those operating on the block plan, co-ops, the "Public Ivys," engineering schools, military academies, schools known as "work colleges," those with a religious affiliation, those with a tribal affiliation, schools for auctioneering, modern railroading, and comedy are all included. Yet, for some reason, the author does not include the general category of agriculture and agri-business and the agricultural colleges usually associated with land-grant institutions are missing.

Interesting bits of trivia and witticisms are sprinkled throughout the pages of this guide. Want to be a member of a mine-rescue team? Attend the University of Missouri at Rolla, a school where mining engineering has been important and is the only collegiate sponsor of a mine-rescue team. Practical advice and tips for success greet the reader throughout the text. For example, in discussing the process of picking "the best" school, the author observes, "...it is better to pick a school where you will be challenged, where you will need to work very hard but not relentlessly, where you can earn grades you can take satisfaction in." Using a metaphor from the world of athletics, the author advises the prospective student, "Start thinking for yourself. Start looking for a team you want to play on, where you can be a starter every day and at least occasionally a star."

The reader may be disappointed in not finding his or her favorite college discussed, but every accredited, four-year Bachelor's degree granting institution in the United States and Canada known to the author is listed with its name, address, telephone number, and Web site for ease of reference.

This reviewer found *Cool Colleges* to be a good read in terms of both breadth of information and specifics that might otherwise be overlooked. However, some might consider the book to be elitist because it stresses quality and uniqueness but does not discuss affordability. Here again, the reader is advised to consult the Introduction to understand the point-of-view of the author.

Written in a direct, conversational style and not the least bit pedantic, this work deserves a place on the shelf of any college or career counselor and anyone else with a fascination for the infinite variety of educational opportunities that abound across North America. For those prospective students who are looking for a truly unique experience or searching for a college to match their talents and interests, *Cool Colleges* is for them.

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