The Effectiveness of the Automatic Reinstatement Policy at Eastern Illinois University

In Praise of One-Stop Shopping for Student Services

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The Colgate University Willow Path leads students to and from classes. Case Library stands at the base of the academic hill and the center of campus life.

The cover photograph was taken by John Hubbard, a 1972 graduate of Colgate. He has worked in communications for 19 years at his alma mater.

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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.

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Editor’s Note

As I looked through the AACRAO Annual Meeting Program, I was struck by the wealth of knowledge and skills that our members possess. As presenters at the Annual Meeting they had the opportunity to speak on the subjects that most interest them and reflect their expertise. Why not share your knowledge with the membership?

We are always looking for writers to discuss their latest research findings or talk about techniques that work for them. You say you lack the time or don’t know what to write about—then provide a letter to the editor regarding a recent C&U article or consider a brief commentary on a topic of interest to higher education administrators. Or contact the editor for a current list of books available for review. Don’t delay this great opportunity to get published!

Roman S. Gawkoski, Editor

P.S. The summer issue of C&U has a surprise in store for AACRAO members. It is always rash to predict surprises, but if all goes well, members will be pleasantly pleased with the new C&U. Watch your mail!
The Effectiveness of the Automatic Reinstatement Policy at Eastern Illinois University

Kristi L. Cobble and Frank Hohengarten

Kristi L. Cobble is a 1996 graduate from Eastern Illinois University where she received a Master of Science degree in Education with a concentration in College Student Personnel. She is currently employed as an Administrative Aide in the College of Sciences Office at Eastern Illinois University.

Co-author Frank Hohengarten, Ed.D., is the Dean of Enrollment Management at Eastern Illinois University and Chair of the Committee on Reinstatement. He is also an adjunct faculty member in the Education Psychology and Guidance Department.

Abstract

At the end of each term, college administrators suspend or dismiss students who do not meet the institution's minimum academic performance standards. Although some of these students do not return to college following academic suspension or dismissal, others do wish to continue their college careers either immediately upon completing reinstatement eligibility requirements or at a later date. The dilemma that many college administrators and/or reinstatement committees face is that of deciding which students should be reinstated. Administrators who make such decisions must first identify and develop a sound reinstatement policy that is based on clearly defined criteria applicable to this specific group of students. Such a policy is necessary to avoid keeping potential graduates from not completing their studies and to encourage unpromising students to pursue other vocational interests or avenues (Campbell and Hahn 1962).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the current automatic reinstatement policy at Eastern Illinois University. The intent was to determine what criteria, if any, were used in establishing the current policy and to investigate whether those criteria have been accurate in predicting academic success after reinstatement at the institution. Findings from this study should provide administrators at institutions using an automatic reinstatement policy with 1) an indication of the effectiveness of this type of policy in terms of the number of students who are successful after automatic reinstatement; 2) a suggestion as to which student characteristics relate to academic success; and 3) a basis for determining whether revisions to the automatic reinstatement policy might increase the likelihood of success after reinstatement.

Explanation of Current Reinstatement Procedures

The basic tenets of the current automatic reinstatement policy at Eastern Illinois University went into effect during the 1983 summer term. Before this time, dismissed students could be reinstated only by action of the Committee on Admissions. The academic requirements for GST 1000 (General Studies), a course designed to assist students in improving their study skills, was put in place for the 1990 fall term. The current reinstatement policy for the school reads as follows:

Students dismissed for poor scholarship must remain out of the University for at least one regular semester. At the end of this period, students dismissed for the first time will be automatically eligible for reinstatement and may re-enter the University provided they indicate their intentions to do so prior to established deadlines. Any student dismissed from Eastern Illinois University for academic reasons must enroll in GST 1000 during the term in which he or she re-enters the University as a condition for re-in-
Definitions of Terms Used for This Study

First-Time Reinstated Student: Any student reinstated to this institution for the first time following academic dismissal was considered a first-time reinstated student.

Academically Successful: Any reinstated student who was not dismissed a second time except by approval of the Committee on Reinstatement... (Eastern Illinois University Undergraduate Catalog 1996/1997 p. 56).

Academically Unsuccessful: Any reinstated student who was not enrolled at this institution at the conclusion of the 1996 spring term; graduated from this institution prior to the 1996 spring term or at the conclusion of the 1996 spring term; or left this institution in good academic standing, on academic probation, or on academic warning prior to the 1996 spring term was considered academically unsuccessful.

Quality Point Deficiency (QPD): QPD was defined as the number of points a student was lacking in terms of reaching a cumulative 2.00 grade point average. In this study, QPD was calculated as follows:

\[
\text{# of Semester Hours (GPA Hours) x 2 - Total Grade Points} = \# \text{ Quality Points Deficient}
\]

Based on the manner in which grade points are assigned at this institution, (i.e., A = 4.00 points, B = 3.00 points, C = 2.00 points, and D = 1.00 point), 10 credits of "C" equals 20 quality points, while 10 credits of "D" equals 10 quality points.

Review of the Literature

Much of the literature on academic success in college has been based on studies of students admitted directly from high school. In these studies and for this specific group of students, researchers have agreed that ACT composite scores, high school grades, and high school percentile rank (HSPR) are strong predictors of success in college (Wishart 1990).

Unlike the studies of the academic success of students admitted directly from high school, the studies of the academic performance of reinstated students have found either inconclusive or conflicting results (Hall and Gahn 1994). For example, while Hall and Gahn (1994), Wishart (1990), Ott (1988), Schuster (1971), and Hansmeier (1965) found a negative or inverse relationship between college grade point average (GPA) deficit and/or high school GPA deficit and success upon reinstatement, Lautz, MacLean, Vaughan, and Oliver (1970) found no correlation between past academic performance in either high school or college and success after reinstatement. Campbell and Hahn (1962) also found that some positive activities such as military duty or full-time employment undertaken during the absence from college were positively related to academic success, whereas Wishart (1990) found no relationship between the activity undertaken during the absence from college and subsequent academic success. Kinloch, Frost, and MacKay (1993) found inconsistent evidence that conditional reinstatement is related to academic success after reinstatement.

Methodology

Subjects

In this study, the population consisted of 196 Eastern Illinois University students who were academically dismissed for the first time between the end of the 1992 summer term and the end of the 1994 summer term and were then reinstated during a subsequent term. The academic performance of these students was tracked through the 1996 spring term. Of the 196 participants, 103 students entered this institution as new freshmen students, while 93 students entered this institution as transfer students from a community college or from another four-year institution.

Variables

The following variables were examined in this study:

- Quality point deficiency (QPD)
- Grade level at the time of dismissal
- Race
- Gender
- Number of semesters in attendance prior to dismissal
• Community college attendance during absence from the institution
• Length of time away from college
• Age upon reinstatement
• Successful completion of GST 1000 upon reinstatement
• Status as transfer student or new freshman admitted directly from high school
• ACT composite scores and/or entrance exam scores (where available)
• High school percentile rank (HSPR) (where available)
• Provisional admission to this institution
• Cumulative GPA at the time of dismissal

Procedure
An unofficial transcript for each student who was dismissed during the specified period was obtained from the Registrar's Office at Eastern Illinois University. The transcripts were analyzed, and relevant variable information was recorded for each subject. Information not available on the transcript was obtained from the Eastern Illinois University Student Master File (SMF). After documenting all variable information the subjects were divided into two groups: 1) 90 academically successful students; and 2) 106 academically unsuccessful students.

In keeping with previous studies of this nature, a student was classified as academically successful if he or she was enrolled at the time of the study or at the conclusion of the 1996 spring term; had graduated from this institution by the conclusion of the 1996 spring term; or had left this institution in good academic standing, on academic probation, or on academic warning prior to the conclusion of the 1996 spring term.

Explanation of Methods Used to Complete This Study
The chi-square application of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences System (SPSS) was used to analyze the relationships between subject variables and subsequent academic success. In addition, logistic regression analysis was employed to determine if any of the variables used in this study could be predictors of academic success after reinstatement. The .05 level of confidence was used for all tests of significance.

Results
The results of this study showed that of the 90 academically successful students, 50 were nonminority male students, 27 were nonminority female students, 6 were minority male students, and 7 were minority female students. Of the 106 academically unsuccessful students, 58 were nonminority male students, 26 were nonminority female students, 13 were minority male students, and 9 were minority female students. The 90 academically successful students represent 45.9 percent of the cohort.

Results of Chi-Square Analysis
The results of the chi-square analysis showed that the academic success of reinstated students was significantly related to quality point deficiency (QPD) (chi-square = 19.39320, df = 4, p = .00066) (See Table 1). In computing the chi-square value, QPD was divided into five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Point Deficiency (QPD)</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 9 QPD</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 19 QPD</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 29 QPD</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39 QPD</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 + QPD</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: n = 196. Pearson chi-square = 19.39320, df = 4, p = .00066.
Chi-square analysis also indicated that academic success was significantly related to cumulative GPA at the time of dismissal (chi-square = 17.35567, df = 3, \( p = .00060 \)) (See Table 2). In computing the chi-square value, cumulative GPA at the time of dismissal was divided into four groups: 0.00-0.50, 0.51-0.99, 1.00-1.50, and 1.51-1.99.

Chi-square analysis showed that the academic success of reinstated students was related to the successful completion of GST 1000 (chi-square = 17.46502, df = 1, \( p = .00003 \)) (See Table 3). For purposes of this study, students were divided into two groups: those students who successfully completed GST 1000 and those students who either did not successfully complete GST 1000 or who did not enroll in GST 1000 during a subsequent semester following reinstatement. Specifically, in this group of students, 9 students did not successfully complete GST 1000, while 103 students did not enroll in GST 1000 following reinstatement.

For all other variables studied in relation to the chi-square analysis, no significant relationship to academic success was found (See Tables 4-12).

**Results of Logistic Regression Analysis**

The results of the logistic regression analysis showed that quality point deficiency (QPD) and the successful completion of GST 1000 were predictors of success following reinstatement at this institution (See Table 13). While race and cumulative GPA upon dismissal were variables that were initially entered into the regression equation, these specific variables were removed because their significance level was less than the significance level of QPD and the successful completion of GST 1000. Thus, in this particular analysis, QPD and the successful completion of GST 1000 were stronger predictors of success than race and cumulative GPA upon dismissal from this institution.

**Conclusion**

**Limitations of the Study**

Prior to identifying the potential implications of the findings from this study, it is important to note some of the limitations of this investigation. One limitation of this study was that it did not include those students who made no attempt to return to the institution following academic dismissal. As a result, it is impossible to determine what pattern of subsequent academic success these students would have shown had they returned to Eastern Illinois University. Furthermore, because the variable information employed in this study was not collected for this group of students, it was not possible to determine the degree to which this information would have influenced the results of this study.

A second limitation of this investigation was the fact that not all students included in the population were given the same amount of time to succeed or not to succeed. Specifically, since the academic success of all reinstated students who were academically dismissed between the 1992 summer term and the 1994 summer term was tracked only through the 1996 spring term, it is apparent that those students who were dismissed during an earlier term and subsequently reinstated during an earlier term had more time to either succeed (or not succeed) at this institution. Had the tracking of academic progress been the same for all students, would the results of this study have been influenced?

A third limitation of this investigation was the fact that not all students included in the study met the admissions standards set forth by this institution when they were initially admitted to Eastern Illinois University.

---

**Table 2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cumulative GPA at the Time of Dismissal</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.00 - 0.50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.51 - 0.99</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 - 1.50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.51 - 1.99</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* \( n = 196 \). Pearson chi-square = 17.35567. \( df = 3, \ p = .00060 \).
Discussion and Implications of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the criteria used to establish Eastern Illinois University's current reinstatement policy have been accurate in predicting academic success for reinstated students. As a result of this investigation, the following conclusions and implications are justified. These conclusions and implications pertain to reinstatement procedures for students whose previous academic performance was substandard at this institution:

- This study has demonstrated that quality point deficiency (QPD) is significantly related to academic success following reinstatement. Specifically, the smaller the QPD that academically dismissed students had when they left this institution, the greater the likelihood that these specific students would be successful upon reinstatement. Consistent with previous studies (Hall and Gahn 1994; Wishart 1990; Ott 1988; Schuster 1971; and Hansmeier 1965), this finding indicates that the number of quality points that a student is deficient upon academic dismissal must be considered before his or her reinstatement to this institution.

- Because the same criteria used to calculate QPD are also used to calculate cumulative GPA, it was expected that if QPD was found to be significantly related to academic success following reinstatement, that cumulative GPA at the time of dismissal would likewise be significantly related to subsequent success. The results of this investigation confirmed this assumption in that cumulative GPA at the time of dismissal would likewise be significantly related to academic success following reinstatement. These findings indicate that these specific criteria do not need to be considered (and indeed should not be) before the reinstatement of academically dismissed students at Eastern Illinois University.

- This study has shown that the successful completion of GST 1000 is significantly related to academic success after reinstatement. Specifically, the likelihood of academic success following reinstatement was greater for those students who successfully completed GST 1000 following reinstatement than for those students who did not. Enrollment in GST 1000 is a stated requirement for those students who are reinstated to this institution. However, this finding demonstrates that this requirement is not always met, indicating that the successful completion of GST 1000 must be monitored more closely.

- For all other variables studied, this investigation has demonstrated that there is no significant relationship between these variables and academic success following reinstatement. Specifically, grade level at the time of dismissal, race, gender, the number of semesters in attendance prior to dismissal, community college attendance during the absence from college, the length of time away from college, age upon reinstatement, transfer student versus freshman student, ACT composite scores, high school percentile rank (HSPR), and provisional admission versus non-provisional admission were unrelated to academic success following reinstatement. These findings indicate that these specific criteria do not need to be considered (and indeed should not be) before the reinstatement of academically dismissed students at Eastern Illinois University.

Overall, the results of this study strongly indicate that reinstatement decisions must be based on relevant information that is specific to each individual case. In other words, reinstatement to this University should not be automatic after a period of being out of school, but rather reinstatement should depend upon an individual's estimated ability to succeed following reinstatement.
### Table 3.
**TABLE 3. Comparison of Successful Completion of GST 1000 among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Subsequent Academic Success**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Completion of GST 1000</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Table 4.
**TABLE 4. Comparison of Grade Level at the Time of Dismissal among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Subsequent Academic Success**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level at Time of Dismissal</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman (0 - 29 Hours)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore (30 - 59 Hours)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior (60 - 89 Hours)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior (90+ Hours)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Spring 1998
### Table 5.
**TABLE 5. Comparison of the Number of Semesters in Attendance Prior to Dismissal among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Subsequent Academic Success**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semesters in Attendance</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 3 Semesters</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6 Semesters</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 10 Semesters</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11+ Semesters</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Table 6.
**TABLE 6. Comparison of Community College Attendance During the Absence from College among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Success after Reinstatement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community College Attendance</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>71.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: n = 196. Pearson chi-square = 2.29135. df = 1. p = .13010.*

### Table 7.
**TABLE 7. Comparison of Length of Time Away from College among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Academic Success after Reinstatement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Time Away from College</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 Semesters</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Semester</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Semesters</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Semesters</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8.

**TABLE 8. Comparison of Age upon Reinstatement among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Subsequent Academic Success**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age upon Reinstatement</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19 - 20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 22</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - 24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>106</strong></td>
<td><strong>106</strong></td>
<td><strong>54.1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Table 9.

**TABLE 9. Comparison of Transfer Student Versus Freshman Student among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Academic Success after Reinstatement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transfer or Freshman</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>106</strong></td>
<td><strong>106</strong></td>
<td><strong>52.6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** n = 196. Pearson chi-square = .43432. df = 1. p = .50988.

### Table 10.

**TABLE 10. Comparison of ACT Composite Standard Scores among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Academic Success after Reinstatement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACT Composite Standard Score</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 - 17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 - 22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - 36</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>73</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
<td><strong>155</strong></td>
<td><strong>52.9</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Of the 196 subjects, ACT Composite Standard Scores were available for only 155 Students.
Table 11.

TABLE 11. Comparison of High School Percentile Rank (HSPR) among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Academic Success after Reinstatement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School Percentile Rank (HSPR)</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75th+ HSPR</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50th - 74th HSPR</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25th - 49th HSPR</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 24th HSPR</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Of the 196 subjects, HSPR was available for only 112 students.

Table 12.

TABLE 12. Comparison of Provisional Admission Versus Non-Provisional Admission among Successful and Unsuccessful Students in Relation to Academic Success after Reinstatement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provisional Admission</th>
<th>Successful Students</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Students</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Percent</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 13.

TABLE 13. Logistic Regression Analysis of Selected Characteristics on the Probability of Success Following Reinstatement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality Point Deficiency (QPD)</td>
<td>-.0693</td>
<td>.0167</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful Completion of GST 1000</td>
<td>.6339</td>
<td>.1603</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.0550</td>
<td>.3107</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.0007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

College administrators and/or reinstatement committees do not always have objective criteria on which to base reinstatement decisions. Hence, it is difficult for them to choose those students who should be given a second chance at success because they are in fact likely to be successful. Sound reinstatement criteria based on relevant data pertaining to students at the institution are essential. Such criteria are necessary in order to establish a reinstatement policy that provides fairness to all students and that makes the best use of the university's resources.

Eastern Illinois University has the goal of admitting new students who have demonstrated their potential by being successful in their previous academic endeavors. Although this institution has developed a working definition of success in the admissions standards for first-time entering students, the ability to accommodate these new students who meet this definition is constrained by limited resources. Therefore, Eastern Illinois University applicants are screened with regard to ACT score and class rank, and occasionally this institution has to stop acceptance of any additional first-time candidates completely.

Given the limited resources of the University, correct decisions to give individuals multiple chances to succeed are very important. A decision to reinstate a dismissed student reduces the resources available for new students who have not yet had their chance. Retention and graduation rates at Eastern Illinois University (80-85 percent and 60-65 percent, respectively) are an indication that this institution employs sound standards in the selection of new students. In contrast, the success rate of reinstated students (46 percent) strongly indicates that we do not currently employ sound standards in our reinstatement decision making.

Recommendations

Since the findings in this study clearly demonstrate that specific factors such as quality point deficiency (QPD), cumulative GPA upon dismissal, and the successful completion of GST 1000 are indeed related to the academic success of reinstated students at this institution, these factors must be considered in the reinstatement process. Based upon the findings of this study (and the findings of similar studies), the following recommendations are being made: 1) Eastern Illinois University's reinstatement policy should be reviewed by the Committee on Reinstatement and revisions prepared for presentation to the Council on Academic Affairs; 2) that the Council on Academic Affairs review the proposed changes to the current reinstatement policy and rewrite the reinstatement policy to reflect the proposed changes and; 3) specifically, it is strongly recommended that the Council on Academic Affairs officially change Eastern Illinois University's automatic reinstatement policy to a policy that requires reinstatement decisions to be based on each individual's estimated ability to succeed following reinstatement at this university. This change is necessary in order to provide fairness to all students and in order to make the best use of the University's resources.

References


In Praise of One-Stop Shopping for Student Services

Paul R. Dauphinais

Introduction

One-stop shopping is the wave of the future. What is one-stop shopping? Placing functions or units in relative proximity is not a sufficient description. One-stop shopping is a shared philosophy of, "We will do as much as we can for you here and now;" a combination of physical geography and staff attitude; and an electronic infrastructure.

Student services provide many business functions—admissions, enrollment, and other administrative operations. Campuses that are not competitive in these areas, and are unable to do business better, faster and cheaper, will suffer declining enrollment while being saddled with rising administrative costs, obsolete methodologies, and reduced responsiveness to student needs (Selleck 1996).

The public expects higher education to be more accessible and convenient. Students want an understandable, convenient, and flexible system for delivery of student services (Garland 1985). The one-stop shopping environment for student services can meet these needs and provide services more efficiently and effectively.

In the dynamic Information Age, student services must understand and utilize technology. Use of a relational database with distributed access allows counselors to access, input, and/or revise a variety of information for and about the student. This aspect of a one-stop shopping environment cannot be overstated. This emerging infrastructure will be crucially important in shaping an already changing system (Brown and Dugurd 1996).

Who benefits from one-stop shopping? The institution—through increased enrollment, student satisfaction, increased retention, and enhanced reputation. Students—from better experiences, improved institutional affiliation, and more reliable information early on. Staff—through a diversity of tasks, opportunities for growth, increased knowledge of institutional and system regulations, greater flexibility, and job satisfaction. This article will address the following questions in greater detail: What? Why? and Who? A model of one-stop shopping for community colleges is also provided.

What is One-Stop Shopping?

One-stop shopping is not just a matter of geographical propinquity of related services. Many institutions house admissions, registration/records, advising, assessment, support services, student activities, and financial aid departments near each other. Still others have these areas/units report to the same administration.

Infrastructure

The infrastructure is a distributed system with multiple data entry and information points. At Oklahoma State University-Oklahoma City (OSU-OKC) a simplified file structure would look like Figure 1.

In this structure all demographic information is held in the common file. Data entered into the prospect file can be transmitted to admissions when a student passes from prospect status to become an applicant. The prospect file is maintained by the recruiting team. At OSU-OKC this team consists of two individuals who make high school and business visits and attend to all recruiting activities.

Currently, at OSU-OKC a majority of prospective students come to campus to apply for admission; however, during late 1996 and early 1997 the number of students mailing in the application averaged two to three daily. During a campus visit, a student sits with a counselor who enters the student’s information into the prospect file. After the social security number is entered, all applicable information from the prospect file (approximately 60 percent of the application information) is automatically drawn to the admissions file. Admission type, any special notations, required items, and other information is then input by the counselor. This is normally a five to ten minutes process.

While a counselor inputs admissions information into the database, the student can be examining a class schedule or course catalog. As counselors become more adept at data entry they can converse with the applicant and do some basic

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counseling. After the admissions file has been completed, all information is then electronically transferred to the student file or registration file and the student is ready to be enrolled. At this point no input is required, but it is a good time to double check address, phone number, and demographic information. As data input demand is decreased, at least from a time standpoint, students can avail themselves of “quality time” with counselors and initiate a bond between themselves and the institution. Moreover, the entry into college is made less threatening and more personal. Counselors can actually guide a proactive manner and give sound advice to incoming students.

Across the lobby are financial aid and records where students receive transcripts, process enrollment petitions, and receive financial aid counseling. The merging of admissions, counseling, and assessment has cut lines and congestion in the lobby. The traffic has also been more evenly distributed between the two service areas.

Courses are requested through “Zap Numbers.” A Zap Number is a five-digit code which allows rapid input of specific courses. Prerequisites and time conflicts appear on the screen and counselors can make course recommendations and referrals to assessment if required. Transcripts are provided to admissions counselors who are also academic advisors. Therefore a student’s academic history is known. The transcripts are then picked up by records for database input.

Admissions, assessment, enrollment, registration, and drop/add are done with one counselor. Transcript requests, degree audits, address changes, change of major/degree, and the like can also be done with counselors during the enrollment process or at any time with a counselor or records personnel.

Bills and schedules are produced locally by counselors at the time of enrollment and can also be provided by the receptionist on demand. Counselors have access to financial aid information to let a student know if an award has been made. Most importantly, students receive better service and are more satisfied. During the spring and fall of 1996 the school polled its students regarding student services. A total of 650 surveys was distributed and 343 were returned. Questions about a number of issues were asked, including some regarding one-stop shopping and the enrollment process. Of the 343 students who responded, 202 enrolled in the enrollment center. For most questions on the survey, the possible answers were: EXCELLENT — GOOD — BELOW AVERAGE — POOR — N/A. The overall results revealed a great deal about students’ experiences with one-stop shopping.

Of those responding, 313 (91.2 percent) found that the enrollment process was either excellent or good, with 105 (30.6 percent) responding that it was excellent. One-stop shopping was found to be excellent or good by 294 (85.7 percent) respondents. Spring respondents found the enrollment process excellent to good 89 percent of the time with 29 percent finding it excellent. In the fall, 94 percent of respondents found the process good to excellent. Students were also asked about spending quality time with advisors. Over three-fourths (78 percent) found that they had been able to spend quality time with an advisor in the spring while 84 percent of the fall respondents replied that they had spent quality time with an advisor to discuss course transfer issues, class options, and other concerns (OSU-OKC Student Affairs Satisfaction Survey 1996).

**Philosophy**

With this wealth of student information available, counselors are better able to provide early intervention. Management of counseling/advising is no longer an issue of getting required forms signed. Today, academic advising/counseling is based on student development theory. Management should be acting in accordance with the core of the college mission—to teach and learn. Marchese (1995) states that management “would be goal driven, experimental, avid about feedback, and the object of community reflection. At every step it would look to get smarter and better at its task, prompted by an ethic of constant learning.” The right people are needed to accomplish this task.
Setting up this infrastructure and philosophy is extremely important if higher education administrators are to serve our students. The student base of community colleges is changing rapidly, unlike the more traditional four-year liberal arts college population. Community colleges are seeing more low income students, more immigrants, more minorities, more non-traditional students and more under prepared students (McPherson and Schapero 1995). Universal access to higher education is symbolic of the nation’s commitment to equal opportunity (Gray, Vemez, and Ralph 1996). We at community colleges must make this a reality.

With a diverse group of incoming students with fewer members from the middle and upper socioeconomic groups, the intake process will require more attention in terms of flexibility and meeting the varied needs of community college students. Working adults will need ease of entry into school and flexibility of course schedules to fit their schedules. Underprivileged students will need unobtrusive counseling. All of a community college’s constituents will need to help students entering the system.

Research has shown that community colleges are already cognizant of student problems. The top reasons for withdrawal are poor study skills, work conflicts, and family responsibilities. “Counselors have identified the three most prominent student problems: No knowledge of career goals, family problems, and poor academic skills. Research has also shown that for at least a decade students prefer developmental advising” (Busly and Jackson 1995; Coll 1995). This translates into proactive advising.

How does this impact a one-stop shopping environment? Counselors and advisors know the problems of their students and can address them early on. The ability to spend some time with a student during the admissions process to find out about external issues such as family needs or work schedule will enhance the enrollment process. Moreover, the counselor or advisor has some level of flexibility in approach. Part-time students know precisely what they want and require little time. A computer programmer looking to update skills by taking a Netscape class needs no real counseling. First-time students can receive tailored, unobtrusive advice and counseling based on information gleaned from conversation. Assessment needs can be discovered and academic programs tailored to cover goals. Information regarding financial aid, student rights and responsibilities, and a variety of services and activities can be selectively or globally dispensed.

Why One-Stop Shopping?

Plainly stated, one-stop shopping is a necessity. Society as a whole is changing. As noted by Morrison (1996), we are moving from a product- and capital-based economy to one based on the consumer and information. Morrison refers to this as a second curve. On this new curve consumer behavior is changing and subscribing to a philosophy of anything, anytime, and anyplace. Second curve organizations must embrace the consumer and be proactive in meeting their needs.

Practitioners and administrators must understand some basic premises from an organizational standpoint. Administrative and support service function costs have risen sharply and may account for up to 50 percent of institutional expenditures (Massey and Wigler 1995). Thus, there have been increasing calls for cost containment at colleges; this has been identified as the number one issue facing higher education in recent history (Jacoby 1996). AACRAO’s leadership has also called on us to “improve efficiency, effec-
tiveness, communications, and assistance to students, faculty and staff” (Sprote 1996).

Entry into colleges should not be considered a linear function. Unfortunately, many students now go from room to room for services but still have to wait at each location. Structures, processes, and group relations are being radically altered. Organizations must become smaller, flattened, and more horizontal. Processes formerly thought as linear and sequential are now dynamic and interconnected (Morrison 1996). As recently as 1992 The Chronicle of Higher Education carried stories of students waiting hours to enroll at a community college. Consumers do not want to be part of an assembly line; higher education organizations must change to a more flexible form to cope with more fluid processes and tasks. Inevitably, student services needs to become virtually, not vertically integrated (Garland 1985; Freed 1994).

Schools have a more diverse student body in terms of gender, age, cognitive ability, needs, and goals. The age of students in many community colleges is averaging in the late twenties. Oklahoma State University-Oklahoma City (OSU-OKC), the example cited in this study, has an average student age of 28.4. This is not an unexpected or unusual phenomenon (The Chronicle of Higher Education 1990). Studies have also shown that these students bring with them a variety of needs that a standard, linear, cookie cutter approach will not meet (Garland 1985; Herchon, Kaiser, and Creamer 1996). While some states cut funds to baccalaureate institutions, others like Oklahoma and Nebraska mandate higher standardized test scores and more comprehensive high school curricular requirements. Community colleges, however, will be faced with a population which is growing numerically, in terms of diversity and in terms of needs (Lawrence 1993).


With one-stop shopping, students have easy access to a variety of services and people in one place. Students can develop a relationship with a particular counselor or can see any of a number of counselors if desired. Information is easily obtained regarding processes and activities.

Staff have a broader range of duties and responsibilities. They have moved from individual fragmented tasks to holistic tasks focused on a consumer good. Moreover, they can meet more student needs. They are more broadly trained and become more valuable to the institution.

The school benefits in three ways. First, the institution gains a reputation for customer service and ease of entry. Initial and returning student satisfaction is increased from availability of services and information; retention is increased; and a competitive edge is gained.

Second, the college can practice what it preaches. People enroll in college not only for facts and concepts, but for ways of dealing with the world and work. They seek experiences on how things are done. If we are trying to educate students that they are as capable of change as the world they live in, we must also be capable of change and lead by example. If we espouse change we must be amenable to change and be able to accomplish internal change (Brown and Dugurd 1996).

Third, while higher education finds itself subject to greater fiscal pressure, increasing legislative and public scrutiny, and the need to maintain access for a variety of constituencies, this new environment can meet student needs at a lower cost (Gray, Vernez, and Ralph 1996). This is not to say employees are dismissed. Rather, staff, by being more broadly trained, are able to fulfill a wider variety of functions and can overcome temporary shortfalls in any given area. This also allows for greater staff flexibility for vacation, development opportunities and other absences. Staff and work can be redistributed giving the institution greater flexibility.

In our society an increased rate of change and technological complexity places increased stress on individuals, students, and community college staff. This fact changes the need for community college staff. Institutions should be seeking more insightful, adaptable, broadly trained generalists, as opposed to narrowly trained specialists, who are able to understand a complex world. This is based on student and organizational needs (Garland 1985).

Today’s community college organization must value people, values, and consumer satisfaction. Improvement occurs as the customer and the environment are better understood. Therefore, learning and adaptation are crucial for survival. Traditional linear organizations are at a disadvantage in leveraging opportunity (Roger and Ballard 1995).

Those who have the most invested in tradition will be the most uncomfortable and have the most to lose. Academia is a perfect example of this as each May we don our medieval costumes and use dead languages (Gushen 1995; Brown and Dugurd 1996; Roger and Ballard 1995). Resistance to change is a function of movement from a comfort zone of tradition. There is, in higher education, a basic lack of understanding of how to do more with less, but that is precisely what we must do.

Engaging in one-stop shopping allows the university to practice what it preaches. It must provide “wider access to communities, not just to information, and it must expand ways to represent new forms of access and practices” (Brown and Dugurd 1996). Community colleges can improve student learning and development by implementing institutional
policies, programs, and practices which provide mutual support and complement students' needs (Kuh 1996).

At two-year colleges, the intake process from admissions to enrollment is really a developmental advising experience. Students are prompted to discuss educational and career goals. The entire process should emphasize communication regarding academic programs, campus and community services, expectations, activities available, and a variety of other topics. Done properly, the one-stop shopping environment can function as a type of institutional first year experience at four-year institutions. It can introduce students to the "rules of the game" and bring academic development, career planning, advising and counseling, and other areas of co-curricular involvement under one umbrella (Hemchon, Kaiser, and Creamer 1996; Deppe and Davenport 1996).

References


Does an Outdoor Orientation Program Really Work?

David A. Brown, Ph.D.

Overview

College orientation programs are designed to aid new students in making the transition between home/high school and residence hall/college. New students worry most about upcoming academic demands and about being socially accepted (Gerdes and Mallinckrodt 1994; Pascarella and Terenzini 1991). New student orientation programs help provide a transition between past learning and development and future learning and developing. Such programs should orient new students to available campus resources, to the academic environment, and to new social settings; in a word, to help bridge the gap between a familiar past and an unfamiliar future.

Universities have long been interested in providing orientation programs to assist in the adjustment of new students, for, as studies show, assisting with the adjustment of new students leads to increased retention rates (Pascarella and Terenzini 1991; Santee and Davis 1985; Stupka 1986). Because the freshman year in college has been the time of greatest dropouts for students (Noel, Levitz, and Saluri 1985; Tinto 1987), most retention work is focused on the first year student.

According to Chickering (1969), new students increase in learning and development as they encounter and experience a new environment in which they must invest. Chickering believes that student development occurs in seven areas: achieving competence, managing emotions, developing autonomy, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, developing purpose, and developing integrity. Taking risks, meeting challenges, and interacting with others amplifies the development process along these areas of student development.

Alexander W. Astin (1984) developed a theory of student involvement which emphasizes active participation of the student in the learning process. Astin suggests that learning will be greatest when the learning encourages active participation by the student. Astin believes that the greater the student's involvement in school, the greater the amount of student learning and personal development. Astin believes that the greater the effort and personal investment a student makes, the greater the likelihood of educational and personal returns on that investment across the spectrum of college outcomes.

Astin's (1984) theory of student involvement has two key constructs: (1) the amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program; and (2) the effectiveness of any educational program is directly related to the capacity of that program to increase student involvement.

Orientation Programs

Orientation programs vary in size, scope, and organization from one institution to the next. Each institution has its own specific goals and objectives for accomplishing new student orientation. The commitment and energies which a university puts into the adjustment, retention, and development of new students says a great deal about the quality of that university. At Salisbury State University, three types of orientation programs are offered to new students. New students can choose among the traditional classroom, several alternative options, or an outdoor experience. Each type of orientation program utilizes faculty/staff and upper-class peer counselors as program leaders. The three differing types of orientation programs were compared in this study. Comparisons were made to determine which types of orientation programs were most beneficial in adjustment, retention, and development of new students. A new student curriculum guide covering topics such as academic success, technological resources, personal wellness, safety, campus activities, and academic advancement was used in all orientation programs. All freshmen registered for the orientation program of their choice during summer testing and advising.

For the traditional classroom orientation, each freshman was assigned a class section which met twice a week for the first five weeks of the semester. Classes lasted one hour and there were no extra fees for the classroom option. Alternative orientation options provided choices for students to pursue an interest while at the same time completing freshman orientation. Such options consisted of: Habitat for Humanity, nursing, team-teaching, cultural diversity, arts, Eastern Shore ecology, learning community, military science, and wildlife biology. Alternative enrollees lived in the same places (on- or off-campus) as they did when school was in session. Various day-long activities and field trips were part of some alternative orientations. Fees for alternative options...
ranged from free to $175. Alternative options took place the week before school began or throughout the first semester. Outdoor orientation options were total immersion experiences which took place away from home and college. Outdoor enrollees chose among canoeing in Canada, cycling in Maine, or sailing on Chesapeake Bay. Each outdoor option was held before school began and was ten days long. All the necessary staff, transportation, food, gear, and other specialized equipment was provided by the university. Extra fees ranged from $325-$600.

Method

Freshman students were administered the College Transition Questionnaire (CTQ) following acceptance into college and prior to selecting and participating in an orientation program. Following the completion of all orientation programs, freshmen were administered the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ). The opportunity to participate in both questionnaires was given to all freshmen.

Subjects

The subjects were 628 first-time freshmen at Salisbury State University in September 1995. There were 576 freshmen who completed the CTQ and 277 who completed the SACQ. There were 319 students who completed the classroom orientation, 206 who completed an alternative option, and 103 who completed an outdoor program.

Instruments

The CTQ and the SACQ (Baker and Siryk 1989) were utilized to obtain adjustment levels of freshman students. The CTQ, an adaptation of the SACQ, measured the anticipated or expected adjustment of students prior to participation in an orientation program. The SACQ measured the actual adjustment following participation in an orientation program. Both questionnaires contained sixty-seven items which yielded academic, social, personal-emotional, institutional attachment and overall adjustment scores. Higher scores are associated with better adjustment. The instruments are based on the premise that adjustment to college is multifaceted. Each of the sixty-seven items contains values from one to nine which have been assigned to successive positions in a continuum that ranges from less-adaptive to more-adaptive adjustment. Thirty-four of the items are reverse-keyed to guard against response bias. Each participating freshman responded to these sixty-seven items by circling one point along the nine-point continuum ranging from Will apply very closely to me, to Won't apply very closely to me, to Doesn't apply to me at all, to Applies very closely to me on the SACQ. There are twenty-four items (academic subscale) relating to various aspects of the academic demands of college; twenty items (social subscale) relating to interpersonal societial demands; fifteen items (personal-emotional subscale) referencing psychological distress and physical well being; and fifteen items (institutional attachment) relating to the students' feelings about being in college, specifically the college the student is attending. Subscale items do not add to the total sixty-seven items because nine items appear on more that one subscale and two items contribute only to the overall adjustment scale.

Reliability of the subscales and the overall scale was assessed by coefficient alpha, an index of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach 1951). The following coefficient alphas were found: academic .86, social .89, personal-emotional .83, institutional attachment .90, and overall .93. Similar values were found in other studies involving first and second semester freshmen from other institutions (Baker and Siryk 1989). Construct validity studies (Baker and Siryk 1989; Dahmus, Bernardin, and Bernardin 1992) found that significant relationships existed between the SACQ scales and independent real-life behaviors and outcomes.

Procedures and Data Analysis

The CTQ was administered during the required summer testing and advising, which was prior to participating in an orientation program. The CTQ and accompanying instruction sheet were given to each student during summer testing and advising. Students were instructed that response to the CTQ was completely voluntary and would not have any consequence on their standing at the university. Students were instructed to return the completed CTQ at the end of the day-long advising and course registration session. Scores for each of the CTQ subscales and overall scale were calculated for the 576 returned CTQs. During summer testing and advising and thereafter, students selected an orientation option.

Classroom orientation was held during the first five weeks of the fall semester. Alternative options were held the week before school began and during the fall semester. Outdoor options were offered prior to the beginning of classes. One-way analysis of variance was used in determining the significance of differences in the three groups (classroom, alternative, outdoor) for each of the dependent variables (academic, social, personal-emotional, institutional attachment and overall).

The SACQ was administered following completion of all orientation programs and mid-term examinations of the fall semester. The SACQ and instruction sheet were given to each student who agreed to participate during Freshman English. At the next class meeting the SACQs were collected. Students were instructed to complete the SACQ without consultation, and not confer with a friend or family member. Students who were absent or not
enrolled in Freshman English were mailed a SACQ.

Scores for each subscale and overall scale were calculated for each returned SACQ. One-way analysis of variance was used in determining differences in the three groups for each of the dependent variables. If differences were found, the Scheffé test was used for making post hoc comparisons. Retention rates were calculated from enrollment data obtained from the Registrar's Office (Waldron 1995).

Results

The independent variable is represented by orientation group (classroom, alternative and outdoor). The dependent variables were represented by the mean scores on the four subscales (academic, social, personal-emotional, institutional attachment) and the overall scale. The results are limited to those freshmen who chose to participate in both the CTQ and the SACQ. Because the opportunity to participate in both questionnaires was given to all freshmen and because the response rates were favorable (92 percent for the CTQ, 44 percent for the SACQ) the results were considered not only for this group of freshmen, but also for freshmen who will be entering the university at least in the short term.

Adjustment

The SACQ and CTQ (an adaptation of the SACQ) were designed to assess how well a student adjusted to the demands of college. The focus of these questionnaires was on the quality of adjustment. The higher the score, the better the adjustment (Baker and Siryk 1989).

When the mean scores of the three orientation groups were compared with each of the CTQ adjustment areas (academic, social, personal-emotional, institutional attachment and overall), no significant differences were found using \( \alpha = .01 \) level. Support was given to the notion that classroom, alternative and outdoor enrollees all anticipated or expected to adjust to college at about the same level. However, when SACQ scores were analyzed for each of the CTQ adjustment areas, outdoor enrollees in general yielded a higher mean score in each adjustment area when compared to classroom and alternative enrollees. Table 1 presents the potential and actual ranges, means, and standard deviations for each SACQ adjustment area and the sample size for each group.

Again, using an \( \alpha = .01 \), analysis of scores on the academic adjustment area showed no significant difference among the groups at \( p < .01 \). The social adjustment analysis yielded a significant difference between the groups (\( F_{2.274} = 11.18, p < .01 \)). The Scheffé test indicated that the alternative enrollees (M=121.9) scored significantly lower than the classroom enrollees (M=134.6) and the outdoor enrollees (M=139.6). The personal-emotional adjustment area showed no significant differences among the groups.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for SACQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjustment Scale</th>
<th>Potential Range</th>
<th>Actual Range</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>24-216</td>
<td>87-204</td>
<td>150.3</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>92-212</td>
<td>150.6</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>98-195</td>
<td>155.6</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>20-180</td>
<td>74-177</td>
<td>134.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>61-162</td>
<td>121.9</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>94-174</td>
<td>139.6</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal-Emotional</td>
<td>15-135</td>
<td>41-133</td>
<td>91.3</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39-132</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>55-133</td>
<td>96.9</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Attachment</td>
<td>15-135</td>
<td>37-134</td>
<td>107.2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>38-129</td>
<td>96.7</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>67-133</td>
<td>110.5</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>67-603</td>
<td>261-560</td>
<td>436.3</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>256-564</td>
<td>414.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>329-549</td>
<td>453.8</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher scores are associated with better self-assessed adjustment. Group 1 represents the classroom enrollees, Group 2 the alternate enrollees, and Group 3 the outdoor enrollees.
tional analysis showed no significant differences. The institutional attachment analysis yielded a significant difference between the groups \((F_{2.274} = 9.74, p < .01)\). The Scheffe test indicated that alternative enrollees \((M = 96.7)\) scored significantly lower than the classroom enrollees \((M = 107.2)\) and the outdoor enrollees \((M = 110.5)\). The overall adjustment analysis yielded a significant difference between the groups \((F_{2.274} = 7.04, p < .01)\). The Scheffe test indicated that alternative enrollees \((M = 414.2)\) scored significantly lower than outdoor enrollees \((M = 453.8)\).

RetentionPolicy

The retention rates for first-time second semester freshmen at Salisbury State University are presented in Table 2 (Gilben 1985; Lackie 1989; Lackie 1992; Waldron 1995). The total number of freshmen enrolled in each of the three groups is also presented. Second semester retention rates for classroom enrollees ranged from a high of 94.3 percent to a low of 89.9 percent. Alternative enrollees ranged between a high of 96.6 percent to a low of 89.3 percent. Outdoor enrollees ranged between a high of 98.7 percent to a low of 92.6 percent. Outdoor enrollees had higher retention rates when compared to classroom enrollees in seven of the eight years reviewed. Outdoor enrollees had higher second semester retention when compared to alternative enrollees in three of the five years reviewed.

However, it should be noted that Table 2 indicates a slight downward trend in retention for outdoor enrollees and a slight upward trend in retention for both alternative and classroom enrollees. One interpretation is that as orientation options increased for the enrollees, retention rates tended to even out.

Student Development

During the last orientation meeting or upon returning to campus, all freshmen students were asked to fill out an evaluation. There were 123 classroom enrollees, 26 alternative enrollees, and 32 outdoor enrollees who completed the evaluation (September 1995). Table 3 presents a summary of those findings. Outdoor enrollees believed the value of their orientation was much more positive, a 8.2 mean compared with a 5.9 for classroom and a 5.7 for alternative enrollees. In general, outdoor enrollees perceived their orientation experience to be more beneficial than did classroom and alternative enrollees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Second Semester Retention Rates for First-Time Freshmen at Salisbury State University</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
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<tr>
<td>1991</td>
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<td>n</td>
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<td>1992</td>
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<td>n</td>
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<tr>
<td>1993</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Alternative orientation programs were not offered prior to 1991.
faculty and staff were established. These relationships and support groups have often extended throughout ensuing academic years (Brown and Armstrong 1995).

New students become aware of campus as a community and their roles and involvement with that campus community. Such was pointed out in a class term paper by a freshman participant in an outdoor orientation program who wrote, "The trip was a wonderful experience; it was a time for the exploration of our inner selves and the selves of other people... Through this experience, we learned about people who were different from ourselves, and in the process made some good friends. One might say that people can build relationships the same way here as in urban civilization, but there is something about spending a week doing everything with the same people in the wilderness. It creates a bond like no other" (N.M., personal communication, September 1994). Upon completion of an outdoor orientation trip, another freshman wrote, "It is amazing how close you can get to someone while camping with him or her for several days in the complete and total wilderness. Everyone was being his or her true self—dirty clothes, wet and soggy sneakers, and all... the wilderness taught me so very much about myself, things that I may have never realized if I hadn't gone on the trip. I gained a tremendous sense of self-worth and pride because I accomplished things that I never thought I could. To me, each day was a new experience and an exciting challenge. Now I know that with determination and patience, I can do anything that I set out to do" (M.M., personal communication, September 1989). After graduating from college a former student was asked if his outdoor orientation experience was beneficial. He responded by saying, "Yes, most definitely. I gained many friendships through my outdoor orientation which continued throughout my college years. Without my outdoor orientation experience, I would have fallen in with the wrong group of people" (G.H., personal communication, March 1991).

Discussion

Which orientation programs best facilitate the adjustment, retention, and development of new students? This study compared three different types of orientation programs and found that generally, enrollees in the outdoor program had better adjustment and higher retention rates than did enrollees in the alternative and classroom programs. When adjustment levels were compared before participating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Mean Scores for Orientation Evaluations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Enrollees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10 being most valuable and 1 being least valuable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The following scale was used to evaluate the questions below. 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=no opinion, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned more about myself as a result of this experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned more about others as a result of this experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I improved my communication skills as a result of this experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I improved my problem-solving skills as a result of this experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I developed relationships with other students and staff which I believe will help me during the year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a result of this experience, I am more confident about being successful academically, socially, and in dealing with adjustment issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My participation in this program was a good investment in terms of time and money.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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in an orientation program no significant differences were found.

Chickering (1969) has suggested that students learn most as they invest in new and challenging environments. Because outdoor enrollees were involved with peers, faculty and staff, and were required to invest significant amounts of time and energy into a challenging experience, outdoor orientation programs were deemed as having beneficial developmental qualities. Students learn most when they are actively engaged in challenging, positive experiences. Astin (1984) suggested that student learning and personal development is greatest when students are actively involved. Outdoor orientation programs require interaction and collaboration among students, faculty, and staff. Such outdoor programs help provide students with feelings of accomplishment, empowerment, belonging, and acceptance. Furthermore, they provide students with support groups which last throughout the college experience and beyond. These benefits can lead to better adjustment and increased student retention (Brown 1996).
References


Salisbury State University Registrar’s Office. Salisbury, MD.


The Forum

BOOK REVIEWS

An Analytical History of American Higher Education

By Paul Westmeyer

Paul Westmeyer's *An Analytical History of American Higher Education* is composed of twelve chapters beginning with the history of America's first colonial colleges and concluding all the way through academic life and administration at modern day universities. It covers developments in higher education from Puritan-initiated schools through the controversial battle in 1996 to keep women out of The Citadel and the Virginia Military Institute. Throughout the book, Westmeyer offers vignettes highlighting the achievements and contributions of individuals influential in higher education.

The following is a brief summary broken down by chapter:

Chapter 1 introduces the first colonial colleges founded by the Puritans. Harvard College (sic), was established in 1636 in Massachusetts and William and Mary College was founded in 1693 in Virginia. The latter originally had schools of grammar, divinity, philosophy, and an Indian School. The other notes that "due to the evangelistic nature of the early colonial religion most of the colleges of the day had as one of their major purposes the conversion of American Indians to Christianity." Other early colleges highlighted are: Yale (1701), Princeton (1746), Columbia (1754), University of Pennsylvania (1755), Brown (1764), Rutgers (1766), and Dartmouth (1769).

Chapter 2 then describes colleges in America following the Revolutionary War. Westmeyer notes that college development between 1776-1861 was based on the *Declaration of Independence* and the American ideal. He also brings up the interesting point that of the over 800 colleges established during this period, only 180 survived to 1900.

In Chapter 3 the influence of the sciences is highlighted. "Science was probably the primary instrument in causing universities in name to become universities, indeed, centers of learning and research," writes Westmeyer.

Chapter 4 deals with land-grant institutions and focuses on the effect of the Morrill Act of 1862, which provided support for every state for at least one college devoted to agriculture and the mechanical arts. The effect the provisions this act had on the establishment of black schools is noted.

The next chapter explains the development of graduate schools. Following the Civil War, America began to need a new type of education. Industry and politics, as well as agriculture required specialists. American scholars became frustrated with the meager opportunity for advanced study in the United States, and increasingly turned to German universities for their education. Westmeyer also notes that Johns Hopkins University eventually became the model research university. "Under the leadership of Hopkins in the preparation of university professor, the doctorate became the necessary credential for university teaching. And the offering of the doctorate, along with the accompanying research programs, became the mark that make an institution a university."

In Chapter 6 the university movement in America is considered. While America's higher educational system was greatly influenced by German institutions, America's universities became an "eclectic type of institution that would serve the unique needs of this new country and eventually serve as a model in its own right." The American university became secular, departmentalized, rank-conscious, patterned after a business firm, managed by lay experts, and intensely productive in research and publication. By 1910, Harvard became the foremost producer of doctorates in America. Yale, however, had awarded the first American Ph.D. in 1861. At this time, many universities established publishing units to produce books and monographs, and demanded that professors publish in order to obtain tenure and follow a true research path.

Chapter 7 covers the development and expansion of high schools, junior colleges, and universities.

Westmeyer writes in Chapter 8 that in 1871, Noah Porter, conservative president of Yale, rejected the elective system saying that students had neither the maturity nor the information needed to make the judgments required. On the other hand, the Harvard elective system amounted to "educational Darwinism" in which the ablest who chose wisely survived.

In 1904 a Harvard faculty committee reported that students were taking classes haphazardly, or because they were easy, or were conveniently scheduled, and so they were doing less preparation than in the past.

Westmeyer cites a recent study that concluded that today a half million professors in this country teach over two million classes to about ten million students in about 3,000 institutions for some 1,500 separate degrees. This same study noted that one college offered more courses than it had students.
Psychology and Philosophy are the subject of Chapter 9. Man should learn to learn, that is, to continue to educate himself. Westmeyer identifies trends: from religious education to secular education; from an elite student body to a popular student body; from general curricula to specialized curricula.

Academic freedom is explained in Chapter 10. Professors were free to broadcast the results of experimentation. Westmeyer speculates that academic freedom may be the unintended target of recent efforts to change the tenure system in America.

Chapter 11 highlights modern universities. Between the Civil War and World War II, the college student population grew about five times as fast as the population of the country. By 1940, a bachelor’s degree had become the common level of education for most white-collar jobs and the professions. Following World War II, the GI Bill resulted in huge numbers of adults demanding relevant college courses which in turn led to a great expansion of technical education.

The final chapter deals with patterns of governance. Most of the boards of public institutions were appointed by governors who wielded their own influence by appointing their own cronies. The author makes the interesting point that the “Board of governors of our education institutions consists of persons who typically know about as much about education as you and I know about medicine…”

In the book’s preface Westmeyer has explained that his book “is not intended for the research scholar but rather for the general student of history, the student of higher education, the professor of either of these, and anyone who is interested in learning about our antecedents in this country.” For the most part this is an accurate description of the book for it is written so as to be understandable and easy to understand.
follow. Westmeyer is very detailed, but is also negligent in some regards. While the brief biographies/vignettes are informational, they are incomplete.

Of the seventeen people the author has chosen to highlight, not one is a woman; and no individuals who founded and sacrificed for black or Native American colleges are given credit. So in this sense, the scope and breadth of the book are limited. Can American history be true history if certain elements so important in today’s society are omitted?

Thus, while the book is very informational, such omissions do leave this reader wondering what other achievements may not have been highlighted.

—Doug White
Richard Stockton College of New Jersey

Doug White is a senior at Richard Stockton College of New Jersey majoring in Communications. He plans to enter the journalism or higher education field after graduation in May 1998.

Crime on Campus: Legal Issues and Campus Administration

By Michael Clay Smith and Richard Fossey
American Council on Education, 1995
251 pages; hardcover $35.95

In 1988, Smith and Fossey saw the need and met the challenge in publishing the first book of its kind titled Coping with Crime on Campus. Since 1988, Congress and state legislatures have enacted regulations designed to promote campus safety. Campus safety has risen as a marketing issue that could affect the enrollment decisions of students and parents. In addition, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of lawsuits by students based on campus crime.

Smith and Fossey have responded to this evolution of crime issues by producing the most comprehensive book of its kind. Crime on Campus is a thorough explanation of issues of campus crime and is a resource for any campus leader who wishes to be prepared to address these issues in a proactive way. The authors report that in 1992, within the formal boundaries of US campuses, there were 30 murders, 1,000 rapes, 1,800 robberies from persons, 32,127 burglaries, and 8,981 stolen motor vehicles. They further report that as bad as these statistics may seem, the actual number of offenses is probably much higher.

The book contains fifteen chapters that cover the breadth of concerns of college campuses into the 21st century. The authors provide a table of over 200 legal cases cited within the book as well as hundreds of other helpful references. Checklists are located throughout the text as a resource to evaluate situations of general campus security: grounds, buildings, traffic, and parking; administrative considerations; and crime response.

Definitions of terms are given in a clear and interesting manner. Numerous examples of situations are provided to explain the use of terms. Throughout the text the authors give real-life examples of college liability and risk management; duty to warn of known risks; negligence theories; duty to screen students and employees; search, seizing and confessing; fraud and theft; alcohol and drug abuse; the miscreant employee; and the FERPA Campus Security Act.

This book is a must reference for any director of admissions or vice president for enrollment management who wants to be informed of the issues critical to a safe campus. If you work in admissions or enrollment management, do yourself a favor and purchase four copies of this book — one for yourself, one for the head of campus safety, one for the director/dean of residential life, and one for the institution’s legal counsel. You’ll be glad you did.

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Director of Admissions
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