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A STUDY OF FACTORS RELATED TO INTEREST
IN STUDENT AFFAIRS CAREERS
AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS
ENROLLED IN LEADERSHIP TRAINING COURSES

presented by

Joseph Lawrence Murray

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Education

Major professor
Louis C. Stamatakis

Date July 23, 1991



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A STUDY OF FACTORS RELATED TO INTEREST
IN STUDENT AFFAIRS CAREERS
AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS
ENROLLED IN LEADERSHIP TRAINING COURSES

By

Joseph Lawrence Murray

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1991

Purpose.

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF FACTORS RELATED TO INTEREST IN STUDENT AFFAIRS CAREERS AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS ENROLLED IN LEADERSHIP TRAINING COURSES

By

Joseph Lawrence Murray

Purpose. The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of exposure to printed materials related to careers in student affairs on the level of interest in such careers among undergraduate students enrolled in two leadership training courses. The study dealt with the relationship between changes in attitudes toward student affairs careers and compatibility with the profession, based on Holland's career development theory. The study also examined the degree to which compatibility with the profession and a favorable response to the treatment were related to residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Differences in responses to the intervention, based on ethnicity, were also explored.

Procedure. Of 167 students, 83 (49.7%) were sent information about careers in student affairs and 84 (50.3%) received no treatment. Both groups completed the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory, the Vocational Preference Inventory, pretest and posttest questionnaires concerning their likelihood of pursuing a career or graduate education in student affairs, and a questionnaire concerning any information about the field which they read during the time of the experiment.

Changes in ratings of interest in student affairs careers and professional preparation, within the experimental and control groups, were compared using a t-test. Analysis of variance was used to detect

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possible differences in responses to the intervention, based on residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, compatibility with the profession, and ethnicity. Chi-square analysis was used to compare students' levels of compatibility with the profession, according to residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement.

Findings. Changes in levels of interest in student affairs careers and professional preparation were not found to differ significantly between the experimental and control groups. No significant interaction was found between the treatment and any of the student characteristics examined, relative to levels of interest in student affairs careers or professional preparation. Students were not found to differ in their levels of compatibility with the profession, based on residency, employment, or cocurricular involvement.

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Joseph Lawrence Murray
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This dissertation is dedicated to my father,

James M. Murray,

who always taught me to work diligently,
to think logically, and to communicate clearly.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In carrying out this study, I was continuously reminded of the degree to which we all must depend upon one another in order to accomplish our goals. I could never have completed this dissertation without the generous assistance of others. It would seem, therefore, that a word of thanks is in order.

First, I wish to thank Dr. Lou Stamatakos, chair of my doctoral committee, for the countless hours which he spent in consultation with me on this project, for his attention to detail and his insistence on quality in my work, and perhaps most importantly, for his interest in me, both as a person and as a developing professional in Student Affairs.

I am also deeply grateful to Dr. Pat Enos, who served both as a member of my doctoral committee and as the supervisor of my graduate assistantship. She contributed immensely to the successful completion of this dissertation by gently prodding me when I needed it, by encouraging me to think in terms of practicality, and by helping me to keep my disappointments in perspective.

My sincere thanks are also extended to the other members of my doctoral committee, Drs. Steve Yelon and Max Raines. By challenging some of my basic assumptions, Dr. Yelon helped me to greatly increase the credibility of this study and to learn from its results. His suggestions concerning instrumentation proved to be particularly helpful. Dr. Raines also helped me to learn from this study by

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encouraging me to challenge my own assumptions and to continue asking new questions.

I also wish to express my appreciation to Drs. Terry Williams and Tim Luckadoo, who shared with me the benefit of their previous related research, and Dr. Steve Geiger, who provided me with much needed consultation concerning the analysis of my data, and who along with Dr. Enos, generously allowed me the use of their personal computer.

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Most of all, I wish to thank my father, Jim Murray, without whose constant support and encouragement I could not have completed this dissertation. Finally, I must also acknowledge the contribution of my mother, the late Mary Murray, who provided me with much love and support during the early stages of my doctoral program, and who has since

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remained with me, in a very special way, as a source of ongoing inspiration.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Background and Theoretical Foundation

Over the course of its history, the guiding principles of the student affairs profession have become increasingly future-oriented. In contrasting the pre-World War II "student personnel" orientation with the "student development" movement of the early 1970's, Crookston (1972) specifically noted a shift toward an increasingly "proactive" (sic.) approach to student affairs work, as opposed to the reactive stance of the profession's pioneers.

This forward-looking posture was perhaps most clearly articulated in the "Tomorrow's Higher Education" model, which stated, "If we are to influence the directions to be taken in the future, we must anticipate change and help individuals and groups shape change, not merely adjust to it" (American College Personnel Association, 1975, p. 335). The document also called for "the development of a 'proactive' (sic.) approach which will better direct the efficient use of our professional resources for promoting more fully developed persons within the context of higher education in a world of accelerating change" (p. 335).

It would seem that any examination of the future of student affairs practice must include consideration of demographics. Attention must be given to changes within the population served by American higher education, in addition to demographic changes within the student affairs profession itself. The profession's ability to prepare new practitioners to carry on the work of its aging members will have a major impact on its ability to respond to the demands of the future. The characteristics of those entering the profession will also be influential in determining its

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Accordingly, attention must be given to enrollment trends in professional preparation programs in student affairs, as they hold direct implications for the profession's ability to proliferate during the years ahead. In studying these patterns, Keim (1983) and Stamatakos (1989) have observed a consistent decline in the number of students enrolled in both master's and doctoral level programs since the early 1970's.

In addition to declining enrollments within professional preparation programs, concern has been raised regarding observable changes in patterns of departure from the profession which have given rise to a "revolving door syndrome" (Evans, 1988, p. 19) within the field. Studies by Packwood (1976) and Greer, Blaesser, Herron, and Horle (1978), focusing on immediate placement of professional preparation program alumni, revealed a slight rise in the percentage of graduates leaving the field between 1974 and 1976. More recent studies by Aronson, Bennett, Moore, and Moore (1985) and Richmond and Benton (1988) have shown a decline in this percentage. Nevertheless, studies of long-term employment patterns among professional preparation program alumni have shown attrition rates of 32 to 39% in the first five to six years after graduation (Holmes, Verrier, and Chisholm, 1983; Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik, 1985). One study by Burns (1982), which dealt with employment of preparation program alumni, one to ten years after graduation, also showed an overall attrition rate of 39%.

Moreover, in a study of job satisfaction among current professionals, Bender (1980) found only 36% planning to stay in the field for the remainder of their working lives. Among respondents ages 23 through 36,

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only 27% intended to remain in the field. In several similar studies, focusing specifically on the area of admissions, 19 to 63% of those surveyed indicated plans to leave higher education (Chapman and Benati, 1986; Chapman and Urbach, 1984; Urbach and Chapman, 1982).

In addition to the number of professionals engaged in student affairs work during the years ahead, attention must be given to the racial and ethnic background of tomorrow's practitioners, if the profession is to reflect the growing diversity of its clientele. Today, racial and ethnic minorities represent a growing segment of the nation's population, particularly in younger age groups including the public school population (Commission calls, 1988; Cowell, 1985; Hodgkinson, 1976, 1985). According to Hodgkinson (1985), it has been estimated that between the years 1985 and 2020, America's Black population will have increased from 26.5 million to 44 million. During this same period, the nation's Hispanic population is expected to rise from 14.7 million to approximately 47 million. Hodgkinson (1985) also estimated that the number of Asian-Americans would rise from 3.5 million to almost 6 million during the 1980's.

It is widely maintained that if the student affairs profession is to meet the needs of this changing population, attention must be given to reflection of these changes within the composition of the profession itself. Evans and Bossert (1983) expressed this point of view, stating that "increasing the numbers of minorities working in student affairs should be a top priority of the field" (p. 15). They explained that "minority students need and deserve role models and the profession of student affairs would benefit from the diversity of ideas and approaches which individuals from different backgrounds can provide" (p. 15).

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Over the past two decades, a number of studies have been conducted, which provide a basis upon which to monitor the profession's progress in this area (Appleton, 1971; Borg, Stamatakos, Stonewater, and Studer, 1988; Brooks and Avila, 1973, 1974; Chapman and Benati, 1986; Chapman and Urbach, 1984; Harter, Moden, and Wilson, 1982; Myers and Sandeen, 1973; Rickard, 1985a, 1985b, 1985c; Rickard and Clement, 1984; Studer, 1980; Urbach and Chapman, 1982; Wilson, 1977). These studies have revealed that, while overall minority representation within the profession has shown some gains in recent years, wide variation has been found between specific minority groups, and specific types of institutions. Within certain segments of higher education, representation of some minority groups has actually declined (Borg et. al., 1988). Minority representation has consistently been strongest at public institutions (Appleton, 1971; Borg et. al., 1988; Harter et. al., 1982; Myers and Sandeen, 1973; Rickard, 1985b; Wilson, 1977). Although initial gains in minority representation seemed to occur primarily at the lower end of the professional hierarchy (Myers and Sandeen, 1973), more recent studies have revealed noticeable increases in representation among chief student affairs officers (Rickard, 1985a; Wilson, 1977). Nevertheless, several studies of current graduate students in the field raise some cause for concern, since minority representation within these programs has fallen below previous levels of representation among program graduates (Aronson et. al., 1985; Forney, 1989; Greer et. al., 1978; Luckadoo, 1990; Packwood, 1976; Williams, McEwen, and Engstrom, 1990).

As the student affairs profession approaches the third millennium, efforts must be made to ensure that greater numbers of new professionals will enroll in graduate preparation programs, and that attrition from

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the profession will be reduced. Throughout this process, however, attention must also be given to ensuring continued minority representation within the profession at all levels. As student affairs professionals begin to devise strategies for achieving these goals, it is essential that they develop an understanding of those personal factors which relate to the decision to enter or leave the field.

A career development theory proposed by Holland (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) provides some insight into these phenomena, by focusing more generally on personality as it relates to vocational choice as well as satisfaction and success within a chosen field. Holland asserted that personalities can be broadly categorized according to their resemblance to each of six basic types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. He theorized that, as a result of heredity and experience, each individual develops a unique set of competencies and interests, which creates a predisposition toward certain kinds of activities. Each of the types identified by Holland represents a different category of preferred activities.

The primary personality type of the individual refers to that type which he or she most closely resembles. Most individuals, however, bear some degree of resemblance to each of the basic types, though the degree of resemblance will vary. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which the individual resembles them, it is possible to obtain a more complete profile of that individual. Holland (1966, 1973, 1985a) referred to this kind of profile as a "personality pattern," and used the term, "subtype," in reference to specific personality patterns. These patterns are identified by the names of two or more of the six basic types, usually abbreviated using the first letter of each.

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In addition to individuals, Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) classification system is used to describe work environments. Using the six basic categories, these environments are classified according to the predominant personality types of those who work within them. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which they dominate a particular work environment, it is possible to obtain an environmental pattern comparable to the individual personality pattern. According to Holland's theory, an occupation attracts people with similar personalities, and creates work environments which reflect these similarities. Satisfaction and success in a particular field depend upon an appropriate match between the personality type of the individual and the environmental type of the particular work setting.

Applying this theory to the current crisis in the student affairs profession, it appears necessary for the field to attract more individuals whose personality patterns are compatible with the profession, while not attracting those whose profiles are less predictive of success and satisfaction within the field. The magnitude of this challenge, however, can only be appreciated when viewed in relation to changes which have been observed over the past 20 years in the nation's undergraduate student population. These changes suggest that the entire pool of undergraduate students who are temperamentally suited to the student affairs profession may actually have decreased.

During the early 1980's, a number of authors (Guardo, 1982; Levine, 1980, 1983; Sandeen, 1985; Stodt, 1982; Winn, 1985) began to draw contrasts between those students entering higher education during that era and their predecessors of the late 1960's and early 1970's. What has emerged from this literature is a portrait of today's collegiate

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student that is characterized by high degrees of materialism, vocationalism, and narcissism. Students are presented as being concerned primarily about themselves and those who are closest to them, with an emphasis on wealth, power, and physical comfort. They are believed to regard higher education, not as an end in itself, but as a means of obtaining these other desired commodities.

These observations have been supported by a good deal of research on college students' attitudes toward education and work (Astin, Green, and Korn, 1987; Astin, Green, Korn, Schalit, and Berz, 1988; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990; Levine, 1980). These observations are also consistent with changes that have been observed in students' career plans and proposed fields of undergraduate study. Geiger (1980) observed a shift away from "academic" (p. 18) fields of study, in favor of more "instrumental" (p. 18) fields. Studies of specific major preferences have generally revealed increasing interest in the field of business and declining interest in education, the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Carnegie Foundation, 1985a, 1986a; Jones, Bekhuis, and Davenport, 1985; Krukowski, 1985; Roemer, 1983). During the last two years, a slight decline has been observed in the number of students planning to pursue business careers, but it is not yet clear whether or not this decline signals a major change in students' attitudes (Dodge, 1990). This decline has been accompanied by changes in students' attitudes concerning some social issues, and a tendency toward greater activism. However, this pattern has not necessarily been indicative of any change in students' attitudes toward education and work (Collison, 1990).

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the past 20 years, declines have been observed in the number of students choosing to pursue traditional graduate study (Brademas, 1984). However, the most recent data available suggest that a change in this pattern may be occurring, since both graduate school enrollment and application levels have taken an upward turn (Blum, 1990; Evangelauf, 1990). The number of doctorates conferred has also risen, although the greatest gains have been made in the field of business (Fact file: A profile, 1987; Fact file: A profile, 1990).

Research on current student affairs professionals' sources of satisfaction has generally led to the conclusion that individuals who are interested in working with people are usually best suited to the profession, while those who are motivated primarily by salary and status are unlikely to find satisfaction in the field (Borg, et. al., 1988; Buckner, 1989; Burns, 1982; Studer, 1980). Studies focusing specifically on the areas of housing (Hancock, 1988) and admissions (Chapman and Benati, 1986; Chapman and Urbach, 1984; Urbach and Chapman, 1982) have likewise supported this conclusion. Studies of individuals' reasons for entering the field, and personal characteristics of those who choose such a career, have generally revealed patterns of work values that are consistent with the challenges and rewards found in student affairs work (Cheatham, 1964; Forney, 1989; Frantz, 1969a; Williams et. al., 1990). Studies of undergraduate majors of current professionals and graduate students in the field have revealed a preference for majors in education, the social sciences, and the humanities (Forney, 1989; Frantz, 1969a; Kuh, Greenlee, and Lardy, 1978; Luckadoo, 1990; Williams et. al., 1990). Given this profile of the successful student affairs professional, the prevailing attitudes of current undergraduate students pose obvious

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When consideration is given to the racial or ethnic background of prospective student affairs professionals, these challenges are magnified even further by low high school completion rates and low rates of college attendance among certain minority groups (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Breneman, 1983; Cardoza, 1987; Carnegie Foundation, 1985b; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990; Middleton, 1982; Racial and ethnic, 1986). One area of particular concern has been the relatively high rate of attrition among minority college students (Cardoza, 1987; Conciatore and Wiley, 1990; Cowell, 1985; Winkler, 1975). Additionally, representation of minority groups in graduate education has been especially low (Cardoza, 1987; Middleton, 1982). Attrition of minority students at the graduate level has also been an area of concern (Text of, 1982).

One notable exception to these trends is the Asian-American population, which has shown rapid gains in representation on college and university campuses (Conciatore and Wiley, 1990; Racial and ethnic, 1986; Whitla, 1984). However, data on the academic interests of Asian-Americans have shown a strong preference for the hard sciences, within this population, and less interest in fields more closely related to student affairs (Greene, 1987).

Among other minority groups, majors related to student affairs have been relatively popular (Greene, 1987; Powers and Lehman, 1983). Nevertheless, due to low representation of these groups in higher education, particularly at the graduate level, student affairs professionals have found difficulty in drawing from this population individuals who are prepared to enter the field (Harter et. al., 1982).

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Recent figures on minority student enrollment have offered some signs of encouragement, with gains in representation appearing during the latter half of the 1980's (Evangelauf, 1990; Greene, 1987; Magner, 1990). However, the long-term impact of these changes is not yet clear.

As student affairs professionals seek to identify strategies for recruiting new professionals, it seems that attention should be directed toward the vocational development of students during the undergraduate years. A number of studies have dealt with factors influencing the educational and occupational values of undergraduate students (Phelan, 1979; Theophilides, Terenzini, and Lorang, 1984; Weidman, 1979). Other studies have focused on factors influencing their occupational status aspirations or attainment (Gurin and Katz, 1966; Smart, 1986; Weidman, 1984). Factors affecting undergraduate students' choices of specific occupations and academic majors have also been studied extensively (Astin, 1977; Astin and Panos, 1969; Selvin, 1963; Thistlethwaite, 1960), as have those factors influencing their decisions to pursue graduate study (Astin, 1961, 1962, 1977; Astin and Panos, 1969; Ethington and Smart, 1986; Hearn, 1987; Iverson, Pascarella, and Terenzini, 1984; Knapp and Goodrich, 1952; Knapp and Greenbaum, 1953; Pascarella, 1984; Thistlethwaite, 1959a, 1959b, 1960, 1962; Thistlethwaite and Wheeler, 1966; Wallace, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967; Wilson, Gaff, Dienst, Wood, and Bavry, 1975).

In general, the studies have revealed that while entering characteristics of students remain the best predictors of vocational outcomes, a number of factors in the undergraduate experience have also been influential. A particularly close relationship has been found between the vocational development of students and their interaction

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Studies of current student affairs professionals in particular suggest that the undergraduate years constitute a critical period in their vocational development. It is often during this time that future practitioners first become aware of the field's existence as a career option. In fact, knowledge of this option prior to enrollment in college is extremely rare (Brown, 1987; Frantz, 1969b; Luckadoo, 1990; Miller and Carpenter, 1980; Williams et. al., 1990).

Like other students, those who subsequently enter the student affairs profession are often influenced by mentors (Brown, 1987; Cheatham, 1964; Forney, 1989; Miller and Carpenter, 1980; Williams et. al., 1990). The experience of participating in career-related activities can also be influential in the decision to enter the field (Brown, 1987; Forney, 1989; Frantz, 1969b; Greenleaf, 1977; Luckadoo, 1990; Williams et. al., 1990).

As a number of authors (Brown, 1987; Forney, 1989; Young, 1985) have noted, however, academic preparation in the field of student affairs is not offered at the undergraduate level. Consequently, neither experience related to the field nor mentoring relationships with those engaged in this type of work are readily available to undergraduate students within the context of their major departments. It is not surprising, therefore, that individuals who subsequently enter the profession are often heavily invested in the cocurricular aspects of their undergraduate experience (Forney, 1989).

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in the field, it appears that individuals who subsequently enter the profession are also of a "traditional" college age during their undergraduate experience. These studies have indicated that students engaged in professional preparation are typically under the age of 30, and are often as young as 22 (Forney, 1989; Kuh et. al., 1978; Luckadoo, 1990; Richmond and Benton, 1988; Williams et. al., 1990).

The fact that most student affairs professionals experience their undergraduate education while they are of a traditional college age and are introduced to the profession largely through cocurricular involvement holds serious implications for the future of the profession, in view of several trends in higher education that have been observed in recent years. Today, growing numbers of students are commuting to their campuses, rather than participating in a traditional residential undergraduate experience (Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Hardy and Williamson, 1974; Thon, 1984). Estimates of the proportion of college students who commute have ranged from two-thirds to 80% (Hardwick and Kazlo, in Peterson, 1975; Jacoby and Burnett, 1986; Jacoby and Girrell, 1981; Moore, 1981; Schuchman, 1974; Stewart and Rue, 1983).

Within this population is a growing number of students who are attending college on a part-time basis (Carnegie Foundation, 1986b; National Center for Education Statistics, 1989; Rodgers, 1977; Thon, 1984). A second major segment of this population consists of an increasing number of older students who are now returning to college (Brodzinski, 1980; Christensen, 1980; Ferguson, 1966; Fife, 1980; Flynn, 1986; Gordon and Kappner, 1980; Harrington, 1977; Jacoby, 1983; Leckie, 1978; Morstain and Smart, 1977; National Center for Education Statistics, 1989; O'Keefe, 1985; Peterson, 1975; Reehling, 1980;

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A major factor in the commuter student movement has been the emergence of a large number of financially and academically accessible urban institutions (Garni, 1974; Grobman, 1980; Harrington, 1974). This trend has been accompanied by a rapid expansion of the nation's two-year community colleges (Chickering, 1974; Flynn, 1986; Medsker and Tillery, 1971; Monroe, 1972; Ogilvie and Raines, 1971; Riesman and Jencks, 1979; Sanford, 1979; Schuchman, 1974).

Studies of newly emerging student populations have revealed patterns of campus involvement which differ dramatically from that of the traditional undergraduate resident student. It has been observed that commuter students are often considerably less involved in their institutions than are their resident peers, and typically spend only a limited amount of time on campus (Andreas, 1983; Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Astin, 1984; Banning and Hughes, 1986; Burtner and Tincher, 1979; Matross, Hannaford, Pilarski, and Jurkovic, 1984; Schuchman, 1974; Ward and Kurz, 1969). The tendency to limit institutional involvement or the amount of time spent on campus has specifically been observed among community college students (Monroe, 1972), part-time students (Carnegie Foundation, 1986b), and adult learners (Solmon and Gordon, 1981; Thon, 1984).

It also appears that commuters are less likely to develop close relationships with faculty and other students at their institutions than are their resident peers (Andreas, 1983; Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Astin, 1973; Chickering, 1974; Demos, 1966, 1967; Flanagan, 1976; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Harrington, 1972, 1974; Pascarella, 1985; Reichard and McArthur, 1975; Ward and Kurz, 1969). Low social involvement on campus

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One of the areas in which resident and commuter students have been found to differ considerably is in their levels of participation in cocurricular activities on their campuses. The issue of low participation rates among commuters and the challenges facing student affairs professionals seeking to promote commuter student involvement have been widely discussed (Astin, 1977; Burtner and Tincher, 1979; Chickering, 1974; Demos, 1966, 1967; Foster, Sedlacek, and Hardwick, 1977; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Wilmes and Quade, 1986). Much of the literature has focused specifically on the issue of low cocurricular involvement among students at community and junior colleges (George and George, 1971; Goldberg, 1973; Graham, 1962; Monroe, 1972). Participation in cocurricular activities has also been found to be particularly low among adult learners (Kuh and Ardaiole, 1979; Solmon and Gordon, 1981).

Several common barriers to commuter student involvement have been identified. One of these obstacles is the failure of some institutions to effectively convey information to commuter students (Burtner and Tincher, 1979; Copland-Wood, 1985; Jacoby and Girrell, 1981; Matross et al., 1984; Rue, 1982; Rue and Ludt, 1983; Ward and Kurz, 1969, Wilmes and Quade, 1986). It appears that work or family commitments also form a barrier to many commuter students' involvement in the cocurricular life of their institutions (Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Wilmes and Quade, 1986). This seems to be particularly true of adult learners (Friedlander, 1980; Hughes, 1983; Kuh and Ardaiole, 1979;

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Several other potential barriers to adult learners' involvement in campus life have also been identified. As Shriberg (1984) noted, activities that are of interest to traditional aged students are not always of interest to adult learners. Richter-Antion (1986) observed that, due to their broad age range, adult learners do not even constitute an age cohort among themselves. Consequently, they are different from one another in the developmental issues with which they are dealing. Negative attitudes on the part of traditional aged students, whether real or imagined, form another potential barrier to adult learners' cocurricular involvement. Rawlins (1979) found that younger students' attitudes were a matter of common concern to adult learners. Research by Peabody and Sedlacek (1982) revealed that while younger students were generally accepting of adult learners in academic or nonintimate settings, they were less receptive to social or intimate involvement with older students.

Much of the literature has dealt specifically with the use of student services by commuters, adult learners, and part-time students, in addition to their perceptions of the need for these services (Burtner and Tincher, 1979; Carnegie Foundation, 1986b; Matross et. al., 1984; Rawlins, 1979; Solmon and Gordon, 1981; Thon, 1984). In general, it appears that nontraditional students recognize the need for student services, and will make use of those services which are made available and made known to them. However, it has been observed that often counseling and other student services are not available in the evening hours, when many nontraditional students are on campus (Friedlander,

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Not surprisingly, in comparison to resident students, commuters are often less satisfied with the undergraduate experience (Astin, 1973; Chickering, 1974). Additionally, part-time students have been found to be less satisfied than full-time students with the overall college experience (Carnegie Foundation, 1986b). Baird, Richards, and Shevel (1969) found that two-year college students were often dissatisfied with the social life on their campuses. Kuh and Sturgis (1980) concluded that adult learners' needs for support and self-understanding were not being adequately served, though Solmon and Gordon (1981) found that levels of satisfaction were higher among adult learners than among younger students.

Growing concern for the needs of nontraditional student populations has drawn attention to the need for increased representation of these populations within the student affairs profession itself. Both Shriberg (1984) and Rodgers (1977) have emphasized the potential benefits of engaging older practitioners to work with adult learners. It would seem that strategies for recruitment of new professionals should not only be directed toward adult learners, but toward traditional aged commuters as well. Not only would individuals drawn from these populations be potentially more responsive to the needs of the profession's emerging clientele, but they represent a large pool of potential graduate students that is continuing to grow.

Thus far, however, few student affairs professionals have been drawn from nontraditional student populations, possibly due to the fact that involvement in activities that are representative of the traditional undergraduate experience remain the primary entree to the profession.

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In some professional preparation programs, experience related to student affairs is an expectation or even a requirement for admission (Tracy, 1971; Young, 1986). However, despite an assertion by Riker (1977) to the contrary, research by Young (1986) does not support the notion that such experience is predictive of subsequent success in preparation programs or in student affairs work.

In recent years, a growing emphasis has been placed on the use of alternative means of introduction to the profession. Commission XII of the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) has played a major role in this movement, through the establishment of its Task Force on Recruitment (Champagne, 1988). Since the establishment of the Association's "National Careers in Student Affairs Week," student affairs professionals on campuses across the nation have begun to employ a variety of strategies to increase awareness of career opportunities in the field. These strategies have included: open houses, resource fairs, receptions, information sessions, bulletin boards, and mentoring programs (National week, 1988). Thompson, Carpenter, and Rausch (1990) described a non-credit course about the profession, which has been made available to interested students on one campus. Additionally, ACPA has begun to experiment with the use of regional recruiting events to introduce prospective graduate students to the profession in general, and to a variety of professional preparation programs (Keegan, 1989). Knock and Rentz (In press) have coauthored a booklet, Careers in the College Student Personnel Profession, which provides written information about the profession to undergraduate students considering careers in the field.

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(Recruitment, preparation, 1989) has recommended that several other recruitment strategies also be employed. These strategies include: development of multimedia recruitment programs; establishment of scholarships for talented minority students; on-campus recognition programs which highlight the work of student affairs practitioners within institutions; expansion of graduate assistantship opportunities; presentation of professional conference workshops directed toward both potential and current professionals; offering of incentives for successful marketing and recruitment efforts at both the local and national levels; production and dissemination of career-related materials for students at all educational levels, including those enrolled in elementary and secondary schools; establishment of paid summer internships for promising undergraduate students; and use of campus leadership courses as a vehicle for identifying promising students, and for dissemination of information about the field.

Although the student affairs profession has begun to devise alternative strategies for exposing undergraduate students to information regarding career opportunities in the field, little is known about the actual effectiveness of these strategies. In a study of current student affairs graduate students, conducted by Williams et. al. (1990), sources of information that did not involve direct participation in activities related to student affairs or personal interaction with current professionals in the field were found to be relatively noninfluential in the decision to pursue a student affairs career. The three sources of information that were identified as least helpful were career counselors, brochures about the profession, and academic or faculty advisors. It is not clear from the research, however, whether nontraditional sources of

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Statement of the Problem

In recent years, enrollments in professional preparation programs in student affairs have shown dramatic declines. During this period, a high attrition rate within the profession has also been observed. This combination of trends has led to widespread concern regarding the student affairs profession's ability to sustain itself during the years ahead.

Declines in representation of racial and ethnic minorities in professional preparation programs have specifically been observed, in recent years, while minority representation in the general population has increased. This pattern has raised further concern regarding the profession's ability to respond to the demands of its increasingly diverse clientele.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of exposure to printed materials related to careers in student affairs on the level of interest in such careers among undergraduate students enrolled in two leadership training courses at Michigan State University. The study focused specifically on the relationship between students' degrees of compatibility with the profession and changes in their attitudes toward careers in the field, subsequent to exposure to the printed materials.

Compatibility with the profession was measured by the degree of conformity between the individual's Holland personality pattern and a corresponding pattern representing the overall orientation of the

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This study also examined the degree to which compatibility with the profession and a favorable response to the presentation of information about the field were related to students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Differences in students' responses to the intervention, based on racial or ethnic background, were also explored.

Need for the Study

According to Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) theory of career development, success and satisfaction in a chosen occupation depend upon the degree of compatibility between an individual and his or her work environment. It would seem that a key element in satisfactory occupational decision making would be the possession of accurate information about a particular field prior to entry. The individual who is attracted to a particular field based on incomplete or inaccurate information is likely to experience subsequent dissatisfaction in his or her work, and may ultimately leave the field. Meanwhile, the individual whose personality is suited to the demands of a particular profession may not pursue a career in the field, simply because he or she is unaware of

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its existence or holds misconceptions about it. It would seem, therefore, that the degree to which accurate information about the student affairs profession is made available to undergraduate students holds implications with regard to both declining enrollments in professional preparation programs and the currently high rate of attrition from the profession. Wider dissemination of information about the student affairs profession could provide a solution to both of these problems, should such dissemination be proven to promote interest in the profession among those whose personalities are suited to student affairs work, while not encouraging entry into the field by those whose personalities are incompatible with the demands of the profession.

Thus far, involvement in activities related to student affairs during the undergraduate experience has been a principal source of initial information about the profession. However, reliance upon this form of exposure may no longer be sufficient in view of recent changes in the typical undergraduate student profile. Today, growing numbers of students are choosing to commute to local institutions, rather than going away to college and living on campus. Within this population are a large number of part-time students and older students. These students tend to be less involved than their more traditional peers in many of the undergraduate activities that are closely related to student affairs.

While the student affairs profession has begun to turn toward nontraditional modes of introduction to the field, there appears to have been little research dealing with the effectiveness of these approaches. Research involving current graduate students in the field has revealed that thus far sources of information which do not involve direct participation in activities related to student affairs or personal

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interaction with professionals in the field have not been regarded as particularly helpful. These findings, however, may simply be a reflection of the current availability of information about the field from nontraditional sources, rather than an indication of the potential effectiveness of these sources. Because studies of the vocational development of student affairs professionals have typically involved retrospective reporting by current graduate students or practitioners, it is not surprising that traditional sources of information have been commonly identified as influential.

There appears to have been no experimental research on the influence of nontraditional sources of information upon undergraduate students who have not otherwise been exposed to the profession through their activities. There also appears to have been no research on possible differences in students' reactions to nontraditional sources of information, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds, or levels of compatibility with the profession. Depending upon the findings, this study could assist current student affairs professionals in attracting and retaining new professionals who would represent the growing diversity of the nation's collegiate population and the broader society.

Research Questions

The investigation was guided by the following questions:

1. Is the expressed likelihood of pursuing a career or a master's degree in student affairs among undergraduate students enrolled in leadership training courses at Michigan State University influenced by exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession of student affairs?
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student affairs affect these students differentially, according to their degree of compatibility with the profession, as measured by the degree of conformity between their Holland personality patterns and a composite pattern representing the overall orientation of the profession?

3. What is the relationship, if any, between measured compatibility with the profession and residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement, among these students?
4. What is the relationship, if any, between these students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement and changes in their expressed likelihood of pursuing a career or a master's degree in student affairs, subsequent to the presentation of printed information about the profession?
5. Does the presentation of information about the profession of student affairs affect these students differentially, according to their racial or ethnic backgrounds?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. There is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field.
2. There is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.
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4. There is no relationship between compatibility with the student affairs profession, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.
5. There is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their residency.
6. There is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their employment statuses.
7. There is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their levels of cocurricular involvement.
8. There is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field.
9. There is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.
10. There is no relationship between employment status, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field.
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printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.

12. There is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field.
13. There is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.
14. There is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field.
15. There is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects of this investigation included 177 students enrolled in two undergraduate student leadership training courses at Michigan State University during winter of 1991. One hundred fifty-six (88%) of these students were enrolled in a course dealing with the general topic of leadership. The remaining 21 students were enrolled in a course dealing specifically with minorities in leadership. The general course was

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taught in seven sections, each with an enrollment of approximately 25 students. The special topic course was taught in one section, which also enrolled approximately 25 students. Each course section was taught by a different instructor or team of instructors, although a common syllabus was used for all sections of the general leadership course.

Instrumentation

Five instruments were used in this study. These included two previously existing assessment instruments, one of which was adapted for purposes of this study, and three questionnaires designed by the investigator.

The first instrument, the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII), was developed by Massaro and Winston (Winston and Massaro, 1987) for the purpose of measuring the intensity of students' cocurricular involvement. The EII is a questionnaire that consists of 15 items. The first six items request information about the student's age, gender, ethnic background, class standing, marital status, and residency. The remaining items pertain to the student's involvement in cocurricular activities for which he or she is not compensated (See Appendix A for complete instrument).

The second instrument which was used in this study was an abbreviated version of the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) - 1985 Revision, a personality-interest inventory which was developed by Holland. The abbreviated instrument consists of 84 "Yes" or "No" items, which produce scores on six scales: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional (See Appendix B for abridged instrument).

The third instrument used in this study, the Student Information

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Questionnaire, consists of thirteen items. The first two items solicit information about the student's current employment status, and the remaining items deal with his or her level of familiarity with the student affairs profession, likelihood of entering the field, and likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field (See Appendix C for complete instrument).

The fourth instrument used in this study, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire, consists of an abbreviated version of the third instrument. It includes only those items pertaining to the likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career and the likelihood of entering a graduate preparation program in the field. It serves as a posttest for use in conjunction with the Student Information Questionnaire (See Appendix D for abbreviated questionnaire).

The fifth instrument, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire, consists of three questions. The first item requests that students indicate whether or not they have read any information about the profession over the course of the seven week period preceding completion of the instrument. The second two items are open-ended questions soliciting information about the nature of any materials read and the student's reactions to these materials. The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine whether or not the amount of information about the profession that is actually assimilated by students differs, based upon their assignment to either of two conditions, and to assess students' overall level of satisfaction with the information about the profession that is available to them (See Appendix E for instrument).

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Data Collection Procedures

During a preliminary training session, instructors of both courses were provided with all materials necessary for collecting the data. These materials included instructions, copies of all instruments, and several forms and publications which were used in conjunction with the investigation (See Appendix F for instructions and forms).

In accordance with the directions provided to the instructors, students received a standardized verbal explanation of the study during a class period within the first two weeks of the term. Students choosing to participate in the study then completed and returned a consent form, a student identification form, the Student Information Questionnaire, the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), and the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII).

After the completed materials were received by the investigator, approximately half of the students from each course section who had completed usable identification forms, VPI's, EII's, and Student Information Questionnaires were assigned to the experimental group. The remaining students served as a control group. Students were assigned to the experimental and control groups, using a stratified random selection technique whereby students rating their familiarity with the profession as "Moderate," "High," or "Very high" were equally distributed between the two groups.

The students' instructors were not aware of whether they had been assigned to the experimental or control group. Three weeks after completion of the first three assessment instruments, each student assigned to the experimental group was mailed a copy of an informational booklet written by the investigator, along with a cover letter encouraging

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him or her to explore career possibilities in student affairs (See Appendix G for cover letter and booklet).

During the last two weeks of the term, instructors administered the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire and the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire to all students participating in the study, in accordance with the written instructions provided.

Scoring the Data

Each student's three highest scores on the VPI were used to determine his or her individual personality pattern, which was then compared with the composite pattern representing the general orientation of the student affairs profession, using a system devised by Iachan (1984), which places a weighted value on matched scales, based on their placement within the three letter configuration. The measure of agreement between students' personality patterns and the composite pattern for the profession was calculated as the sum of the weighted values assigned to each matched scale within the two codes. This value was then used to divide the students into three categories of approximately equal size, labeled "High," "Medium," and "Low." These designations were used to identify students' levels of compatibility with the profession.

The EII was used to obtain an extracurricular involvement index for each student. The students were then divided, according to their involvement indices, into three categories of approximately equal size, also labeled "High," "Medium," and "Low." These classifications were used to describe students' levels of cocurricular involvement.

Students were divided into two categories based on their responses to the third item on the EII, which deals with racial or ethnic

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background. The categories used included: (1) White or Caucasian, and (2) minority. Students were also divided into two categories based on their responses to the sixth item on the EII, which deals with residency. The categories used included: (1) residence halls and fraternity or sorority houses, and (2) other housing.

Students' responses to the first two items on the Student Information Questionnaire were used to determine their employment statuses, using four categories: (1) Not employed; (2) Employed off campus, not employed on campus; (3) Employed on campus, not employed in Student Affairs; and (4) Employed in Student Affairs. The last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire were used to assess each student's initial level of interest in student affairs as a field of possible future endeavor. Each student's ratings of five Likert type items pertaining to careers in student affairs were totaled, to produce an index of his or her initial likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Ratings of five items pertaining to graduate preparation in the field were likewise totaled, to produce an index of the student's initial likelihood of pursuing a relevant master's degree.

All College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaires were scored using the same procedures employed in scoring the last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire, thereby providing posttest indices of students' likelihood of pursuing careers in student affairs and related graduate preparation. Pretest indices were then subtracted from the corresponding posttest indices, in order to determine the degree and direction of change, if any, in each student's attitude toward careers in the field of student affairs and related professional preparation.

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Data Analysis

After the students' participation in the study was concluded, a t-test was conducted, to compare the experimental and control groups, on the basis of age, initial likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career, and initial likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Chi-square analysis was used to compare the two groups, on the basis of gender, racial or ethnic background, class standing, residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, and compatibility with the student affairs profession. The purpose of these analyses was to determine the degree to which the two groups were initially equivalent.

The mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings for the experimental and control groups were compared, using a t-test, in order to determine the main effect, if any, of exposure to the printed materials. Analysis of variance was then conducted, in order to determine what relationship, if any, existed between students' compatibility with the profession and their response to the presentation of information about the field. Chi-square analysis was used to compare all students' levels of compatibility with the profession, according to their employment and cocurricular involvement. Chi-square analysis was also used to compare levels of compatibility with the profession for all students of at least sophomore status, according to their residency. Because of the University's freshman residency requirement, it was not possible to examine differences in levels of compatibility with the profession, among freshmen, on the basis of residency. Analysis of variance was used to detect possible differences in students' responses to the presentation of information about the profession, which related to their residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Again,

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differences based on residency were determined only for students of at least sophomore status. Finally, analysis of variance was used to determine possible differences between Caucasian and racial and ethnic minority students' responses to the presentation of information about the field.

For more detailed information on the subjects, the instrumentation, and the procedures employed in collecting, scoring, and analyzing the data, the reader is referred to Chapter 3, Methodology.

Definition of Terms

Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII): An instrument, developed by Massaro and Winston (Winston and Massaro, 1987), designed to measure the quality and quantity of students' involvement in cocurricular activities for which they are not compensated.

Extracurricular Involvement Index: A numerical indicator of the quantity and quality of students' involvement in cocurricular activities for which they are not compensated, based on information reported in the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (Winston and Massaro, 1987).

Cocurricular Involvement: The investment of time and energy in campus activities outside of class.

Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI): A personality-interest inventory, developed by Holland (1985b), which yields scores on 11 scales, including Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional, Self-Control, Status, Masculinity/Femininity, Infrequency, and Acquiescence. Adapted for purposes of this study to include only the first six scales.

Holland Personality Type: The prevailing temperament of the individual,

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based on a classification scheme developed by Holland (1973, 1985a). Designated by the individual's single most highly rated scale from among the following: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

Holland Personality Pattern: The prevailing temperament of the individual, based on a classification scheme developed by Holland (1973, 1985a). Designated by the individual's three most highly rated scales from among the following: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

Holland Environmental Type: The classification of a work environment, according to the prevailing disposition of those who populate it, based on a system developed by Holland (1973, 1985a). Designated by the single most highly rated scale from among the following: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

Holland Environmental Pattern: The classification of a work environment, according to the prevailing disposition of those who populate it, based on a system developed by Holland (1973, 1985a). Designated by the three most highly rated scales from among the following: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

Vocational Development: Clarification of values and goals related to a life's work, and progress toward achieving occupational goals in accordance with one's values.

Student Affairs Profession: The occupational group composed of college and university employees whose primary responsibility is to promote the overall development of students through educational programs

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Professional Preparation Programs: Graduate degree programs designed to prepare individuals to enter the student affairs profession.

Regeneration of the Student Affairs Profession: Recruitment and preparation of new student affairs professionals.

Compatibility with the Student Affairs Profession: The degree to which an individual is likely to be successful and satisfied in the student affairs profession, based on characteristics of his or her personality. Indicated by the degree to which his or her Holland personality pattern conforms to a composite pattern representing the overall orientation of the profession, derived from research by Frantz (1969a), by applying the basic principles of Holland's (1973, 1985a) Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT).

Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT): A system devised by Holland (1973, 1985a) for determining environmental patterns, whereby the primary personality types of those inhabiting an environment are ranked according to their prevalence within the environment.

Undergraduate Experience: All events and activities in which an individual participates while enrolled as an undergraduate student, and his or her perception of these events and activities.

Residency: The student's place of residence while attending college (e.g., residence hall, off-campus apartment).

Resident Students: Collegiate students residing on campus.

Commuters, Commuting Students: Collegiate students residing off campus.

Part-time Students: Students enrolled for less than the minimum number of course credits required by their institutions for classification as a full-time student.

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Traditional Aged Students: College students who are 18 to 23 years of age.

Adult Learners: College students who are 24 years of age or older.

Nontraditional Students: Student populations not widely served by higher education historically. Includes commuters, part-time students, and adult learners.

Limitations of the Study

The design of this study placed some inherent limitations on the conclusions which may be drawn from it. First, it should be noted that compatibility with the student affairs profession was defined according to the degree of conformity between the individual's personality pattern, derived from a single measure, and a composite pattern representing the general orientation of the profession, based on the relative prevalence of six primary personality types within a sample of professionals in the field. This information was also derived from a single measure, using data which are now over 20 years old. Although the fundamental nature of student affairs work has not changed substantially over the last two decades, it is possible that changes have occurred in the prevailing temperament of individuals who have found success and satisfaction in the field.

Furthermore, it should be noted that no attempt was made to identify those personal characteristics or experiences which are commonly associated with departure from the profession. Rather, the study dealt only with broadly defined characteristics commonly associated with continued membership in the profession.

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All students participating in the study were enrolled in student leadership training courses, further limiting the scope of the study. This population was selected partly in response to a report by the ACPA-NASPA Task Force on Professional Preparation and Practice (Recruitment, Preparation, 1989), in which it was recommended that such courses be employed as a vehicle for disseminating information about the profession. Enrollment in these courses may reflect an initial interest in campus leadership activities, which are often closely related to student affairs work. Students enrolled in these courses may, therefore, be more responsive to the treatment than would be the general student population. Conclusions cannot necessarily be generalized beyond this particular student population.

Additionally, it should be noted that all students participating in the study were enrolled at Michigan State University. A number of unique characteristics of the University and its students may have influenced the outcomes of the study, and limited the generalizability of its findings and conclusions. Specifically, it should be noted that the University offers nationally recognized professional preparation programs in College and University Administration with a Student Affairs emphasis (Beatty, 1988; Sandeen, 1982). Therefore, students enrolled at the University may have greater exposure to the profession than would the general student population.

In the analysis of data, a number of possible complex interactive effects were not explored, due to the limited size of the sample.

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Moreover, all independent variables were defined rather broadly. While racial and ethnic minority students were distinguished from Caucasian students, no distinctions were drawn between specific minority groups. Given the differences which have previously been observed in the career interests of students from various minority groups, it would seem likely that observations concerning minority students' responses to the intervention, when taken collectively, would not accurately reflect the patterns of response which might be found within certain individual minority groups. Specifically, it should be noted that Asian-Americans have previously been found to differ considerably from other identified minority groups in their preferred fields of study. Therefore, caution should especially be exercised in drawing conclusions about this particular segment of the minority student population.

Although distinctions were drawn between on-campus employment and off-campus employment, as well as on-campus student affairs employment and other on-campus employment, other differences in the nature of students' work were not considered in analyzing its relationship to their personality types and career aspirations. Distinctions between types of student housing were also limited. Although residence halls and fraternity or sorority houses were distinguished from other types of housing, further distinctions were not drawn. Additionally, students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement classifications were based entirely upon their statuses at the time of the initial survey. The influence of previous residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement has remained largely unknown.

Finally, it must be noted that the investigation was conducted over a period of approximately seven weeks. Therefore, definite conclusions

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concerning the long-term influence of exposure to information about the student affairs profession would not be justified, based upon the results of this study alone.

In addition to the recognized limitations inherent in the initial design of the study, a number of unanticipated limitations further eroded the conclusions which may be drawn from the investigation. These limitations are explored in Chapter 5, Summary, Discussion, and Recommendations.

Organization of the Chapters

This report is organized in five chapters. The second chapter contains a review of the literature relevant to the purpose of this study. Information is presented on current patterns of entry and departure from the student affairs profession. The relationship between interests and work values and satisfaction in student affairs is also explored. Information related to Holland's theory of career development is presented. Comparisons are drawn between the interests and work values of student affairs professionals and those of today's students. Consideration is also given to issues of race and ethnicity in the recruitment of new professionals. The changing demographics of the nation are examined. Information is presented on minority representation in the student affairs profession and in the nation's student population. The influence of the undergraduate experience on the decision to enter the profession is explored. The influence of the undergraduate experience on the vocational development of students, in general, is examined. Comparisons are then drawn between the undergraduate experience of current student affairs professionals and that of today's students. Finally, alternative means of introduction to the profession are examined.

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The third chapter provides information related to the methodology employed in the investigation. It includes information related to the subjects, instrumentation, data collection procedures, scoring, and data analysis techniques. The fourth chapter presents the findings of the study, and the final chapter provides a summary of the study, major findings, conclusions, implications for the student affairs field, and recommendations for further research.

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CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

Introduction

Over the past two decades, the student affairs profession has become increasingly committed to the adoption of a "proactive" (sic.) stance in relation to societal changes. This commitment has manifested itself in continuous documentation and analysis of trends, within both society and the profession itself. The resulting body of literature provides a basis upon which to recognize and understand the current challenges facing the profession, and points toward possible strategies for overcoming these challenges.

This chapter contains a review of the literature related to the specific challenges posed by recent and anticipated demographic changes within the student affairs profession and the nation as a whole. Attention is focused specifically on descriptive and theoretical material related to the recruitment, preparation, and maintenance of a corps of professionals capable of serving the needs of a changing population.

The review begins with an overview of the regenerative patterns that have been observed within the student affairs profession in recent years, followed by an introduction to a general theory of career development proposed by John L. Holland. Interests and work values of student affairs professionals, and those of today's students, are then explored in relation to this theory. Changes in the racial and ethnic composition of the nation is then considered, along with information concerning the racial and ethnic backgrounds of current student affairs professionals and those of today's students. The influence of the

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undergraduate experience upon the vocational development of students is then explored, and comparisons are drawn between the undergraduate experiences of current student affairs professionals and those of today's students. Finally, alternative means of introducing prospective student affairs professionals to the field are examined.

Recent Patterns in the Regeneration
of the Student Affairs Profession

Throughout its history, much of the student affairs literature has dealt with issues related to the professionalization of the field, with very little consensus beyond a common recognition that full professional status has long been desired (Carpenter, 1983; Carpenter, Miller, and Winston, 1980; Darley, 1949; Knock, 1988; Koile, 1966; Kuk, 1988; Moore, 1988; Nygreen, 1968; Penney, 1969; Remley, 1988; Rickard, 1988a, 1988b; Stamatakos, 1981a, 1981b; Williams, 1988; Wrenn, 1949). In making a case for the status of student affairs, as a "professional community," Carpenter (1983, p. 152) cited three defining characteristics of such communities. First, he observed that professional communities share a common set of goals and objectives. Additionally, he noted that such communities employ formal and informal sanctions. Finally, he stated that "any community must attend to socialization and regeneration" (p. 153).

Carpenter (1983) viewed socialization as the formal and informal processes through which the body of knowledge and traditions of the field are communicated to its newer members by those who are more experienced. He added that, while regeneration is closely related to socialization, "the focus is more upon the actual bringing of individuals into the field" (p. 153).

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Since its inception as a recognized occupational field, one of student affairs' primary vehicles for socialization and regeneration has been the professional preparation program. In addition to playing a key role in promoting the initial growth of the field, this type of program has served as an ongoing means of preparing new professionals to replace those who have left the field. It seems, therefore, that the profession's ability to regenerate itself, during the years ahead, will depend largely upon the ability of faculty in the field to prepare new professionals at a rate comparable to that at which experienced professionals are leaving the field.

In recent history, the rate at which graduate preparation programs have prepared new professionals has varied greatly. According to Evans and Bossert (1983), while the period from 1946 to 1970 brought a rapid growth in the number of graduate preparation programs in student affairs, it was followed by a period of decline in both the number of programs in existence and the total enrollment of the remaining programs. Research by Keim (1983) revealed that 13 professional preparation programs were discontinued between 1973 and 1977, and that an additional ten programs were discontinued between 1977 and 1980. According to Meabon (In Evans and Bossert, 1983), five programs curtailed activity between 1979 and 1982. At the doctoral level, 756 students were enrolled in professional preparation programs in 1979-80, compared with 771 in 1976-77 and 966 in 1972-73. At the master's level, 1,630 students were enrolled in 1979-80, compared with 2,820 in 1976-77 and 2,586 in 1972-73 (Keim, 1983).

More recent data from The Directory of Graduate Preparation Programs in College Student Personnel, as cited by Stamatakos (1989), indicated

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an increase in the number of preparation programs from 73 in 1980 to 101 in 1987. However, the average enrollment in preparation programs continued to decline during this period, reaching 41.6 in 1987, compared with 48.4 in 1984 and 59.4 in 1973.

Of particular importance to the future of student affairs practice is the number of individuals actually completing graduate preparation programs annually, since these are the individuals who are likely to enter the work force, eventually replacing aging members of the profession. Again, a downward trend has been observed. The total number of graduates from doctoral preparation programs fell from 195 in 1970-71 to 169 in 1985-86, and the total number of master's level graduates fell from 1,142 in 1970-71 to 921 in 1985-86 (Stamatakis, 1989).

An additional factor affecting the number of professionals engaged in student affairs work during the years ahead is the rate at which individuals of all ages are leaving the field. According to Evans (1988):

Although individuals desiring a career in student affairs seem to have little trouble securing entry-level positions following completion of master's degrees, advancement in the field seems to be more difficult. As a result, many individuals seem to be leaving the profession. Given the time, resources, and energy being invested by students, faculty, and student affairs staff in the preparation of new professionals, the revolving door syndrome evident in the profession is a major concern. (p. 19)

A number of studies have been conducted, which lend support to Evans' assertion. In one of these studies, focusing on placement of college student personnel graduates during the 1973-74 academic year, Packwood (1976) found that 19% of master's and specialist level graduates and 23% of doctoral level graduates had not remained in the field after graduation. This study was replicated two years later by Greer, Blaesser, Herron, and Horle (1978), with even less encouraging findings.

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They reported that 26% of the graduates included in their study had not been placed in student affairs positions. At the master's level, the figure reached 27%; at the specialist level, 20%; and at the doctoral level, 26%.

In a survey of students graduating from professional preparation programs at two eastern universities between June 1970 and December 1979, Burns (1982) found that only 61% were still employed in student affairs while 39% had left the field. In a survey of students graduating in 1978 from four nationally known professional preparation programs in student affairs, Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik (1985) found that 68% were still employed in the field five years after graduation, while 32% reported that they had left the field. In a study of students graduating from a professional preparation program at an eastern university between 1971 and 1981, Holmes, Verrier, and Chisholm (1983) found a gradual attrition from the student affairs field such that only 39% of the graduates were employed in the field by the sixth year.

In a study of individuals graduating from professional preparation programs in 1983, Aronson, Bennett, Moore, and Moore (1985) found a rise in the percentage of master's level graduates finding work in the field upon graduation. Eighty percent of those included in their study found such employment, while only 61% of those included in earlier studies from 1976 to 1979 found such employment. They cautioned, however, that the return rate for their survey was only 45%. Consequently, only tentative conclusions could be drawn.

In a more recent study of master's level student affairs graduates, Richmond and Benton (1988) found that 11% of both men and women left the field upon graduation. Although 11% of the men had indicated such an

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intent prior to graduation, only 9% of the women included in the study had planned to leave the field.

In a study of job satisfaction among a sample of practicing student affairs professionals drawn from the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) Region II membership, Bender (1980) found that only 36% planned to stay in the profession for the remainder of their working lives. Moreover, among those respondents ages 23 through 36, only 27% indicated an intent to remain in the field.

In a 1981 study by Urbach and Chapman (1982), focusing specifically on admissions staff below the level of director, 51% of all counselors, 54% of all assistant directors, and 53% of all associate directors indicated plans to seek future employment outside of education. Additionally, 12% of all counselors, 3% of all assistant directors, and 3% of all associate directors planned to seek future employment in education at the elementary or secondary level. In a concurrent study of admissions directors, Chapman and Urbach (1984) found that, of the 63% of those surveyed who indicated plans to leave admissions within five or ten years, 28% planned to find employment outside of education, and 3% planned to remain in education at the elementary or secondary level. In a similar study three years later, Chapman and Benati (1986) found that 57% of admissions directors expected to leave admissions within five to ten years. Of those planning to leave the field, 27% expected to find employment outside of education, and 4% planned to remain in education at the elementary or secondary level.

Even among graduate students in student affairs some uncertainty about long-term employment in the field has been expressed. In a study of students enrolled in 22 master's degree programs in student affairs,

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Williams, McEwen, and Engstrom (1990) found that only 52.3% considered themselves "very likely to remain" in the profession for ten or more years, while 3.4% considered themselves "very unlikely to remain" and 5.9% considered themselves "probably unlikely to remain." Additionally, 26.9% considered themselves "somewhat likely to remain," and 11.1% indicated that they could not respond.

In summary, student affairs research has generally revealed a decline in the number of new professionals being prepared in graduate degree programs within the field, over the past 20 years, in addition to a high rate of attrition from the profession. Moreover, studies of current professionals' plans for the future have generally indicated a high level of uncertainty regarding their likelihood of remaining in the field. This combination of trends has raised considerable concern about the profession's ability to regenerate and sustain itself during the years ahead.

Issues Related to Interests and Work Values in the Regeneration of the Student Affairs Profession

Holland's Theory of Career Development

A career development theory proposed by Holland (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) provides some insight into patterns of entry and departure from the student affairs profession by focusing generally on personality as it relates to vocational choice, as well as satisfaction and success within any chosen field. Holland asserted that personalities can be broadly categorized according to their resemblance to each of six basic types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

He theorized that, as a result of heredity and experience, each

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individual develops a unique set of competencies and interests, which creates a predisposition toward certain kinds of activities. Each of the types identified by Holland represents a different category of preferred activities. The Realistic person prefers activities which involve the "explicit, ordered, or systematic manipulation of objects, tools, machines, and animals" (Holland, 1973, p. 14; 1985a, p. 19). The Investigative personality type is characterized by a preference for activities which involve the "observational, symbolic, systematic, and creative investigation of physical, biological, and cultural phenomena in order to understand and control such phenomena" (Holland, 1973, p. 14; 1985a, pp. 19-20). The Artistic person prefers "ambiguous, free, unsystematized activities that entail the manipulation of physical, verbal, or human materials to create art forms or products" (Holland, 1973, p. 15; 1985a, p. 20). The Social person is drawn toward "activities that entail the manipulation of others to inform, train, develop, cure, or enlighten" (Holland, 1973, p. 16; 1985a, p. 21). The Enterprising personality type is characterized by a preference for activities which involve "the manipulation of others to attain organizational goals or economic gain" (Holland, 1973, p. 16; 1985a, p. 21). Finally, the Conventional person prefers "activities that entail the explicit, ordered, systematic manipulation of data, such as keeping records, filing materials, reproducing materials, organizing written and numerical data according to a prescribed plan, operating business machines and data processing machines to attain organizational or economic goals" (Holland; 1973, p. 17; 1985a, p. 22).

Although the primary personality type of the individual refers to that type which he or she most closely resembles, in reality, most

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individuals bear varying degrees of resemblance to each of the basic types. By ranking these types according to the degree to which the individual resembles them, it is possible to obtain a more complex profile of his or her personality. Holland (1966, 1973, 1985a) refers to this type of profile as a personality pattern, and uses the term, subtype, in reference to specific personality patterns. These patterns are identified by two or more of the six basic labels, presented in sequence and usually abbreviated using the first letter of each.

In addition to individuals, Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) model is used to classify work environments according to their degrees of conformity to each of the basic types. Work environments are classified according to the prevailing personality types of those who populate them. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which they prevail in a particular work environment, it is possible to obtain an environmental pattern comparable to the individual personality pattern.

Both personality and environmental patterns vary in the degree to which they resemble certain basic types, to the exclusion of others. In the most extreme case, an individual or an environment may resemble only one type. Others may resemble all types equally. Holland (1973, 1985a) refers to this characteristic of personality and environmental patterns as differentiation. The degree of differentiation within a personality or environmental pattern refers to the difference between the strongest and weakest resemblances to the basic types.

An additional characteristic of personality and environmental patterns, identified by Holland (1966, 1973, 1985a), is the degree of consistency that exists among its components. The six basic types vary

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in their resemblance to one another. For example, Realistic and Investigative types share many common characteristics, while Artistic and Conventional types share little in common with one another. Therefore, a profile in which the principal components include both Realistic and Investigative tendencies is said to be more consistent than one marked by high degrees of resemblance to both Artistic and Conventional types.

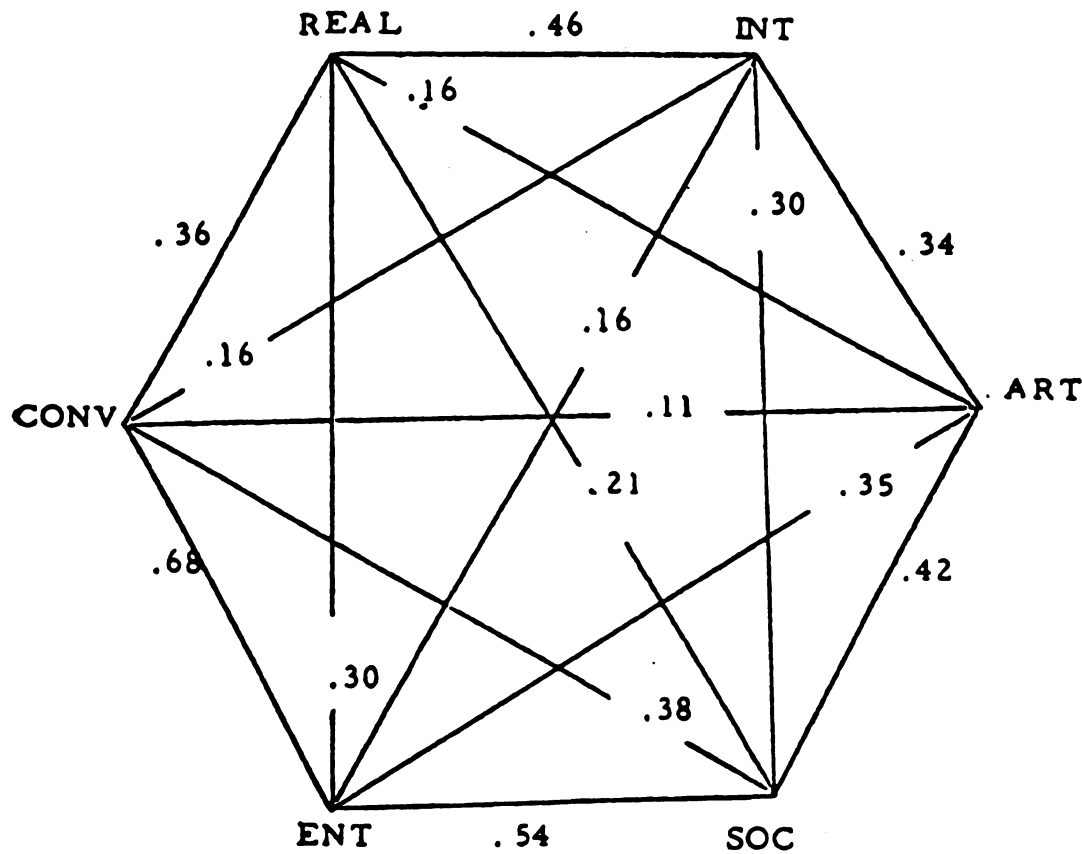
Holland, Whitney, Cole, and Richards (1969) presented a hexagonal model, shown in Figure 1, which illustrates the relative similarity of the six basic personality and environmental types. Within this model, similarities between types are assumed to be inversely proportional to the distances between them. Specific correlations between types have also been identified.

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Figure 1. A Hexagonal Model for Interpretation of Inter- and Intra-Class Relationships



Note. From An Empirical Occupational Classification Derived From a Theory of Personality and Intended for Practice and Research (p. 4) by J. L. Holland; D. R. Whitney; N. S. Cole; and J. M. Richards, Jr.; 1969; Iowa City: Research and Development Division, American College Testing Program. Copyright 1969 by The American College Testing Program. All rights reserved. Reproduced with permission.

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The similarities and differences between personality and environmental types form the crux of Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) theory of career development, influencing the individual in both career selection and successful continuation within the chosen field. According to this theory, a vocation attracts people with similar personalities, and creates work environments which reflect these similarities. Moreover, achievement, stability, and satisfaction within a particular field depend on the degree of compatibility between the person and the environment.

The theory of career development proposed by Holland seems to hold implications for the regeneration of the student affairs profession. Hancock (1988) related this theory to the current crisis in the field, concluding that "the high attrition rate in student affairs would suggest incongruence exists between young professionals and their work environments" (p. 25). According to Holland's theory, success and satisfaction in any field are related to the degree of conformity between the personality type of the individual and the type of work environment that prevails within the particular field. It would seem, therefore, that the problems faced in the regeneration of the student affairs profession could be diminished if the field were to attract more individuals whose personality patterns were compatible with the profession, while not attracting those whose profiles were less predictive of success and satisfaction within the field.

In summary, according to Holland's theory of career development, both individual personalities and environments can be classified according to their resemblance to each of six basic types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

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Because most personalities and work environments bear varying degrees of resemblance to several of the basic types, it is possible to gain a more accurate profile by ranking the basic types according to their degrees of manifestation within the personality or work environment. This type of profile is known as a personality pattern or environmental pattern.

According to Holland's theory, both entry into a field and subsequent success and satisfaction in one's work are influenced by the degree of compatibility between the work environment and the personality of the individual.

Holland's theory has been applied to the challenges currently being faced in the regeneration of the student affairs profession. The theory seems to hold some promise for promoting both understanding and resolution the current crisis in the field.

Interests and Work Values

Of Student Affairs Professionals

A number of studies have been conducted, involving current and former student affairs professionals, which offer some indication of the types of interests and values that are satisfied through student affairs work. Several studies have also dealt with sources of dissatisfaction in this type of work.

In one study by Hancock (1988), in which supervisors of entry level housing positions assessed various occupational reinforcers provided by these positions, only two items were rated negatively, indicating that the corresponding reinforcers were lacking in the positions. These two items were compensation and social status.

In a survey of former mid-level student affairs professionals who had left the field, Borg, Stamatakis, Stonewater, and Studer (1988) found

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that "lack of opportunity for advancement" and "inadequate salary" were the two most frequently cited factors in the decision to leave the field, influencing respectively 67% and 60% of those surveyed. In a corresponding survey soliciting chief student affairs officers' perceptions concerning reasons for attrition of mid-level professionals, these two factors were likewise most frequently cited, at rates of 83% and 85% respectively.

In Burns' (1982) survey of professional preparation program alumni, among those who left the field, "potential for advancement" (p. 11) and "salary" (p. 11) were also among the most frequently cited reasons for accepting positions in the course of their careers, with 19% and 16% respectively indicating that they had been influenced by these factors. Only "geographic location" (p. 11) was cited more frequently, with 21% indicating that it had been a factor in their decisions. Those who left the field also indicated an intent to seek more variety, more responsibility, and higher salaries in future employment.

In the study by Borg et. al. (1988), the chief student affairs officers and former mid-level professionals were also surveyed on their perceptions of current mid-level student affairs practitioners' favorite and least favorite aspects of their positions. The findings suggest that the single most desirable aspect of these positions is "working with students." This factor was most frequently cited among the first three choices of both groups, being chosen by 85.7% of the chief student affairs officers and 80.1% of the former mid-level professionals. In contrast, the single factor most frequently cited by both groups as being among the three least desirable aspects of the positions was "lack of opportunities for advancement." This factor was

cited by 48.2% of the chief student affairs officers and 60.0% of the former mid-level professionals.

In a study of chief student affairs administrators, Studer (1980) found that those surveyed tended to be very satisfied with all aspects of their own positions, with the exception of compensation. They tended to be only moderately satisfied with this aspect.

In a study of job satisfaction among student affairs professionals at 22 private colleges in Iowa, sources of dissatisfaction were found to include: "lack of opportunities for advancement, poor salary, lack of faculty acceptance of student affairs profession, long hours, and campus politics." In contrast, sources of satisfaction included: "helping students grow, stimulating work environments, and involvement with a variety of tasks." The study revealed that, while 52% of the women and 34% of the men included in the study were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their salaries, their total job satisfaction was not affected to a large degree (Buckner, 1989).

In studies focusing on sources of satisfaction among admissions personnel, salary and opportunities for advancement have also been raised as areas of concern. In their study of admissions officers below the rank of director, Urbach and Chapman (1982) found that only 63% of associate directors, 57% of assistant directors, and 54% of admissions counselors felt their positions offered the prospect of future advancement. In their 1981 study of admissions directors, Chapman and Urbach (1984) found that, while 80% of those surveyed reported being "very" to "extremely" (p. 65) satisfied with their positions, only half believed that their positions offered any opportunity for future advancement. Two years later, Chapman and Benati (1986) found a 5%

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decline in the proportion of directors who were satisfied with their positions, but found a 7% increase in the proportion who felt their positions offered advancement opportunities. Salary was reported as an area of concern, with 67% indicating that their earnings were not sufficient to enable their families to live as comfortably as they would like. Nevertheless, those who believed their salaries were inadequate to meet the needs of their families were not necessarily less satisfied with their jobs than were other directors.

A number of other studies dealing with factors influencing student affairs professionals' decisions to enter the field reveal similar patterns of work values. In a survey of student affairs practitioners, who belonged to the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), Cheatham (1964) found that respondents represented a wide variety of occupational backgrounds and undergraduate majors, but that they seemed to share a common propensity for "people-oriented" activities. In exploring occupational reinforcers, she found that student affairs practitioners "derive their satisfactions from helping students with their problems, contributing to the improvement of society, exercising leadership, being creative and working as team members with others in education."

Similarly, in a study of personality characteristics of student affairs practitioners at ten collegiate institutions, using undergraduate major as the defining criterion, and applying the Holland typology, Frantz (1969a) concluded that "student personnel workers may be described as most sensitive to personal, humanitarian, social, and emotional influences" (p. 195), and that "they are least sensitive to materialistic, abstract, and analytic influences" (p. 195). He added that "their goals

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and satisfactions in life relate to working with and helping people, and they have little interest or motivation for purely intellectual pursuits" (p. 195). Finally, he stated that "student personnel may be described as a social, personal, and humanitarian profession with little emphasis on abstract and materialistic concerns" (p. 196).

The study by Frantz (1969a) was one of several focusing on undergraduate majors of student affairs professionals, which have yielded similar findings. In this particular study, although business administration was the fifth most prevalent undergraduate major of the respondents, the remainder of the ten most common majors were all branches of the arts and humanities, the social sciences, or education. These three subject areas accounted for 82% of the total sample. In a study of graduate students enrolled in professional preparation programs at 27 institutions, Kuh, Greenlee, and Lardy (1978) found that the most common undergraduate fields of study were education and psychology, with each of these fields accounting for 25% of those surveyed. It was also found that 17% of those surveyed held baccalaureate degrees in other areas of the social sciences, and 16% had majored in the humanities as undergraduates. In a more recent study of master's level students in 16 professional preparation programs, Forney (1989) also found that psychology was the most common undergraduate major, with 15% of those surveyed having received their bachelor's degrees in that particular field. Psychology majors were followed in prevalence by double majors, and majors in communications, education, and sociology. Together, these five majors accounted for 55% of those surveyed. In the study of master's level students, conducted by Williams et. al. (1990), it was found that 29.7% of those surveyed had majored in the liberal arts as

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undergraduates, 19.8% had majored in psychology or counseling, 12.7% in education, 12.4% in business, and 10.5% in other areas of the social sciences.

Forney (1989), in her study of student affairs graduate students, also sought to identify common reasons for entering the field. Of eight alternatives presented, the most frequently cited reasons were "want to work with students," "want to contribute to students' development," and "like the college atmosphere" (p. 78). Students were least likely to enter the field based on a desire for prestige. Salary and opportunities for advancement were not among the options presented.

In the study by Williams et. al. (1990), of fifteen alternatives presented, the most influential factors in students' decisions to enter the field were: (1) the "desire to work on a college campus," (2) the "desire to help influence/nurture/support the development of students," (3) the "desire for the variety found in student affairs work," (4) the "desire to continue to learn and develop in an educational environment," and (5) the "desire to provide programs and services for students." Salary and status were identified as the two least influential factors in students' decisions to enter the field.

Luckadoo (1990) sought to identify those values which were most commonly held by master's level students in ten professional preparation programs in student affairs. Of 21 values that were assessed, it was found that "ability utilization," "achievement," "altruism," and "personal development" (p. 89) were most commonly endorsed, while "physical activity," "risk," and "physical prowess" (p. 89) were ranked lowest.

In summary, research involving current and former practitioners has generally revealed that compensation and opportunities for advancement

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are areas in which the rewards of student affairs work are limited, while opportunities for interaction with others provide reinforcement for those engaged in this type of work. The research seems to also support the notion that individuals who are most satisfied in the profession are those for whom salary and status are of less importance than are opportunities for interpersonal contact. Studies of undergraduate academic backgrounds of student affairs professionals have revealed a preference for majors in education, the social sciences, and the humanities. Common reasons for entering the field include a desire to work in a collegiate environment, and to promote the development of college students. The variety of responsibilities found in student affairs work has also been identified as one of the field's most appealing aspects.

Interests and Work Values of Today's Students

The profile of the successful student affairs professional that has emerged from the current literature differs dramatically from that of the typical undergraduate student. During the early 1980's, a number of authors (Guardo, 1982; Levine, 1980, 1983; Sandeen, 1985; Stodt, 1982; and Winn, 1985), began to draw contrasts between those students entering higher education during that era and their predecessors of the late 1960's and early 1970's. What has emerged from this literature is a portrait of the contemporary undergraduate student that is characterized by high degrees of materialism, vocationalism, and narcissism. These students have been presented as being concerned primarily about themselves and those who are closest to them, with an emphasis on wealth, power, and physical comfort. They have been seen as regarding higher education, not as an end in itself, but as a means of obtaining these

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Levine (1980) supported this portrayal of undergraduate students, with references to a series of studies conducted by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education and the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education. In one of these studies, student affairs administrators on 586 campuses were surveyed concerning changes observed among the students on their campuses between 1969-70 and 1978. On 71% of the campuses, students were believed to be "more career-oriented" (p. 7). On 54% of the campuses, they were described as "more concerned with material success" (p. 7). On 40% of the campuses, they were described as "more practical" (p. 7). On 57% of the campuses, they were found to be "less activist" (p. 7), and on 44% of the campuses, "more concerned with self" (p. 7).

Other surveys cited by Levine (1980) revealed changes in students' own expressed views on higher education between 1969 and 1976. In 1976, 67% of those surveyed stated that "training and skills for an occupation" were "essential" (p. 61) components of a college education, compared with only 59% of those surveyed in 1969. Similarly, 68% of those surveyed in 1976 rated a "detailed grasp of a special field" as "essential" (p. 61), compared with 62% of those surveyed in 1969. In contrast, those surveyed in 1969 endorsed "learning to get along with people" and "formulating the values and goals for my life" (p. 61), at rates of 76% and 71% respectively, compared with rates of 66% and 62% respectively, for those surveyed in 1976.

More recent research on changes in college students' attitudes on a number of issues have revealed an apparent continuation of the trends observed in these earlier studies. In an ongoing study initiated in 1966

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by the American Council on Education and the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute, known as the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP), dramatic changes have been observed in the stated values and goals of incoming college freshmen. Of fifteen to twenty items included in the annual survey, pertaining to values and goals, the single item which showed the greatest decline in student endorsement, between 1966 and 1985, was "developing a meaningful philosophy of life," with only 43.3% of those surveyed in 1985 identifying it as "very important" or "essential," compared with 82.9% in 1967. More recent surveys revealed a brief reversal of this trend, with student endorsement reaching 50.5% in 1988. In 1989, however, this figure dropped to 40.8%. In contrast, the item showing the greatest increase in student endorsement was "being very well off financially," with 75.4% of those surveyed in 1989 identifying it as "very important" or "essential," compared with a low of 39.1% in 1970 (Astin, Green, and Korn, 1987, p. 97; Astin, Green, Korn, Schalit, and Berz, 1988, p. 60; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990, p. A34).

The study has also revealed changes in students' stated reasons for pursuing higher education. Of those surveyed in 1989, 72.2% stated that "making more money" was a very important consideration in the decision to attend college, compared with only 49.9% in 1971 (Astin et. al., 1987, p. 88; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990, p. A34).

Not surprisingly, the changes which have been observed in student attitudes have been accompanied by changes in preferred careers and fields of study. A study by the National Center for Educational Statistics (Geiger, 1980) revealed that 57.9 percent of bachelor's degrees conferred by American colleges and universities in 1977 were in

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"instrumental" (p. 18) as opposed to "academic" (p. 18) disciplines, compared with only 48.6 percent in 1968.

According to the CIRP study, the single occupational field which has shown the greatest increase in student interest in recent years is business, with the percentage of students intending to pursue business careers reaching a high of 24.6% in 1987, compared with only 10.5% in 1972 (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988). In the last two years, however, this figure has declined, reaching 21.8% in 1989. Nevertheless, some administrators have maintained that it is not clear yet whether or not this decline signals a changing trend. They have not reported any discernible change in students' attitudes, and have pointed out that the decline in students' interest in business careers may be reflective of increasing academic standards in the field of business, or may be part of a natural process of leveling off (Dodge, 1990).

Collison (1990) observed that a number of administrators, as well as students themselves, have reported a change in students' attitudes in other areas, which has given rise to increased levels of social activism. However, this activism has not necessarily been indicative of changes in students' orientation toward work. Collison (1990) quoted one administrator working with students, who stated that "[Students] are concerned about finding good jobs and getting decent grades. But they are also finding ways of involving themselves in their communities" (p. A-37).

The increase in student interest in business careers, over the past 20 years, has also been reflected in a similar rise in the percentage of students planning to major in the field of business. Studies of undergraduates and college-bound high school students revealed that

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approximately 19 to 29% of those surveyed during the 1980's planned to major in the field, compared with approximately 12 to 18% of those surveyed during the late 1960's and early 1970's (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Carnegie Foundation, 1986a; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990; Jones, Bekhuis, and Davenport, 1985; Krukowski, 1985; National Center for Education Statistics, 1990).

The increasing popularity of business, as a field of undergraduate study, has been particularly evident among women. Using figures from U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare reports, Roemer (1983) found a 9.1% increase in the number of bachelor's degrees in business and management which were earned by women between 1970-71 and 1978-79, compared with a 3.2% increase in the number of such degrees conferred upon men during this period.

Several studies have revealed even greater gains in the fields of engineering and computer science than in the field of business (Carnegie Foundation, 1986a; Krukowski, 1985). While approximately 5 to 8% of those surveyed during the early 1970's planned to major in engineering, approximately 10 to 17% of those surveyed during the 1980's planned to major in the field (Carnegie Foundation, 1986a; Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985). The proportion of students planning to major in computer science reached approximately 5 to 10% during the 1980's, compared with approximately 1 to 2% during the 1970's (Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985; Astin et. al., 1987).

However, according to Astin et. al. (1987), interest in the fields of engineering and computer science actually peaked in 1983, and has declined since then. They noted that such a pattern of interest conforms closely to changes which occurred in the job market within both of these

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fields, thus reinforcing the notion that students have become more pragmatic and vocationally oriented.

An examination of those fields which have declined in popularity over the past 20 years also tends to reinforce the common image of today's undergraduate students. Declines have consistently been observed in such traditional areas as the social sciences, humanities, and natural sciences, as well as education (Astin, et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Carnegie Foundation, 1985a, 1986a; Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985; Roemer, 1983). While approximately 7 to 15% of those surveyed during the middle 1970's planned to major in the social sciences, only about 4 to 11% of those surveyed during the 1980's chose this field (Carnegie Foundation, 1985a, 1986a; Jones et. al., 1985; National Center for Education Statistics, 1990). The proportion of students planning to major in the humanities reached approximately 11 to 18% during the late 1960's and early 1970's, but fell to approximately 5 to 10% during the early 1980's (Carnegie Foundation, 1985a; Jones et. al., 1985). By 1986, the percentage of undergraduate students majoring in the humanities fell to 0.5% (National Center for Education Statistics, 1990). During the early 1980's, approximately 2 to 3% of those surveyed planned to major in the physical sciences, compared with about 3 to 4% during the early 1970's (Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985). The percentage of students planning to major in the biological sciences fell to approximately 3 to 5% during the early 1980's, compared with figures of approximately 7 to 10% during the early 1970's (Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985).

While approximately 9 to 17% of those surveyed during the early 1970's planned to major in education, only about 5 to 9% of those

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surveyed during the early 1980's planned to major in the field (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Carnegie Foundation, 1986a; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990; Jones et. al., 1985; Krukowski, 1985). However, the findings of the CIRP study have revealed that while student interest in the field of education reached a low in 1982 and 1983, this trend has since reversed somewhat, with the percentage of students planning to major in the field reaching 9.3% in 1988 but dropping back to 9.2% in 1989 (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin, et. al., 1988; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990).

The changes observed over the past 20 years in students' preferred fields of undergraduate study were also accompanied by a more general decline in the number of students pursuing traditional graduate study. According to Brademas (1984, p. 9), "many students who, thirty years ago, would have pursued advanced studies now avoid graduate preparation because they see little future in it alongside opportunities in law, medicine, business, and industry." To illustrate his point, he cited Harvard University, where only one-third of the top graduates in the class of 1980 planned to pursue traditional graduate study, compared with over three-quarters of the top graduates of the 1960's.

More recent data, however, suggest that graduate level enrollment trends may be changing. Statistics from the U.S. Department of Education have revealed an overall increase in the number of graduate students enrolled in American universities. A comparison of 1988 figures with those of 1986 revealed a 20.8% increase in graduate school enrollment. The increase in professional school enrollment during this period was 4.7% (Evangelauf, 1990). Data from the National Research Council's Survey of Earned Doctorates revealed an increase in the number of

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doctoral degrees conferred between 1985 and 1988. Nevertheless, the area in which the most dramatic increase has occurred is business and management, where the number of conferred doctorates rose from 793 to 1,039, thus representing a 31% increase over the 1985 figure (Fact-file: A profile, 1987; Fact file: A profile, 1990).

According to Blum (1990), a rise in the number of applications to Ph.D. programs for Fall, 1990, was reported by a number of universities. She noted, however, that the trend was not necessarily indicative of a rise in the number of students planning to pursue doctoral level study, but may have simply been reflective of changes in application patterns, with students applying to more institutions than in the past.

Changing interests and values of undergraduate students have been offered as one possible explanation for the decline in the number of students entering professional preparation programs in student affairs. Evans and Bossert (1983) noted that "economic considerations may cause potential applicants to enter other fields" (p. 14). They also speculated that "the lower number of students in college student personnel may be a reflection of the general shift away from education toward business, law, and other more lucrative fields which are popularly believed to offer more placement potential" (p. 14).

Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) theory of career development would seem to support the notion that declining enrollments in professional preparation programs are reflective of changes in the interests and work values of undergraduate students. Those values which have been increasingly adopted by students in recent years are among those which are satisfied least through student affairs work. Moreover, changes in students' academic interests have included a shift away from

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those fields which have traditionally been most popular among student affairs professionals.

In summary, it is not yet clear how the student affairs profession's ability to attract new members during the years ahead will be affected by changes in the prevailing disposition of undergraduate students. Over the course of the past 20 years, several dramatic changes have been observed in student attitudes, including a shift toward greater concern with making money. Changes have also been observed in students' vocational plans and preferred fields of study. While fewer students have chosen to major in the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and education, increasing numbers of students have chosen to pursue careers in business, and to major in the field as undergraduates. In addition to changes in students' preferred fields of study, an overall decline has been observed in the number of students pursuing graduate studies in general, though this pattern may be changing, according to the most recent figures available.

It has been suggested that the decline in the number of students entering graduate preparation programs in student affairs in recent years may be reflective of the changes that have been observed in the attitudes of undergraduate students. Holland's theory of career development would seem to support this assertion, since the work values that have been increasingly adopted by students in recent years are among those which are satisfied least through student affairs work. Furthermore, changes in students' academic interests have included a shift away from those fields which have traditionally been most popular among student affairs professionals.

It has been suggested that student attitudes are again beginning to

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change, as higher education enters the 1990's. However, the extent to which the observed changes represent a major shift in students' vocational orientation is not yet clear.

Issues Related to Race and Ethnicity in the
Regeneration of the Student Affairs Profession

Demographic Changes in the General Population

As the student affairs profession attempts to respond to the needs of the general population, it is important that attention be directed toward changes in the characteristics of this population. A good deal of research has been conducted, which has enabled student affairs professionals to project changes in the demographics of the nation. Several trends have been observed, including a major shift in the racial and ethnic composition of the nation's population.

Today, racial and ethnic minorities represent a growing segment of the general population, due largely to differences in fertility rates. Hodgkinson (1985) noted, for example, that while Mexican-American females have an average birth rate of 2.9 children, the average birth rate for white females is only 1.7. While the number of white middle-class children is actually declining, the number of minority school children continues to grow. It has been estimated, for example, that between the years 1985 and 2020, America's Black population will increase from 26.5 million to 44 million. During this same period, due to both immigration and higher birth rates, the nation's Hispanic population is expected to rise from 14.7 million to approximately 47 million. Hodgkinson (1985) also estimated that the number of Asian-Americans would rise from 3.5 million to almost 6 million during the 1980's.

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Cowell (1985) stated that, while racial and ethnic minorities currently make up only 20% of the total population, they constitute 27% of the public school population. According to Hodgkinson (1985), non-white students already constitute a majority of those enrolled in California's elementary schools, while in Texas, the percentage of minority students enrolled in the public schools has reached 47%.

According to Rhodes (in Commission calls, 1988), minority groups will soon constitute one-third of the nation's population. He noted that, as of 1985, members of identified minority groups constituted 14% of the adult population and 20% of all children under 17 years of age. He stated, further, that by the year 2000, one-third of all school-age children and 42% of all students enrolled in public schools will be members of minority groups. Additionally, he noted that between the years 1985 and 2000, members of minority groups will make up one-third of the net additions to the nation's work force.

Citing data from the Office of Management and Budget, Hodgkinson (1976) specifically noted a shift in the racial and ethnic makeup of the nation's traditional college age population, during the 1980's. He noted that, while live Caucasian births fell from 3,078,000 in 1970 to 2,600,000 in 1972, the number of live births among racial and ethnic minorities held relatively constant, with only a minor decline from 640,000 in 1970 to 635,000 in 1972. Based on these and related figures, Hodgkinson (1976) stated that between 1965 and 1985, the percentage of 18-year-olds who are Black could be expected to rise from 12% to 18%, and that the percentage of this cohort representing all minority groups could be expected to reach approximately 30%. Cardoza (1987) described one study, conducted by the Educational Testing Service, in which the

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number of Hispanic students in a 1982 sample of high school seniors was found to be almost double that observed in 1972.

Additionally, Hodgkinson (1976, 1985) noted a general increase in the percentage of the nation's students who have come from lower socioeconomic classes. According to the American Council on Education's Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life minority representation within this stratum of society has remained disproportionately high. For example, in 1985, nearly 47% of the nation's Black children and 42% of its Hispanic children were living in poverty. In 1986, the median family income of Blacks was only 57% that of Whites. Furthermore, 31% of Blacks and 27% of Hispanics had incomes below poverty level. These figures are nearly three times the rate for Whites (Commission calls, 1988). Using data from a 1985 study by The College Board, Jacobson (1986) reported 67.6% of Black students coming from families with incomes below \$24,000, compared with 27.4% of White students.

Changes in the nation's population have prompted growing concern within the student affairs profession, regarding issues of professional diversity. Evans and Bossert (1983) emphasized this concern, stating that "increasing the numbers of minorities working in student affairs should be a top priority for the field" (p. 15). They explained that "minority students need and deserve role models and the profession of student affairs would benefit from the diversity of ideas and approaches which individuals from different backgrounds can provide" (p. 15).

In summary, it would seem that the racial and ethnic background of tomorrow's practitioners should be a major consideration in the student affairs profession's attempts to overcome the challenges posed by

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changing patterns of entry and departure from the field. A number of studies have revealed a rise in the percentage of the general population representing racial and ethnic minority groups. This trend is expected to continue well into the third millennium. It has been suggested that in order to respond to the needs of this changing population, the student affairs profession must strive to mirror this diversity within its own ranks.

Racial and Ethnic Backgrounds of Student Affairs Professionals

Over the past two decades, a number of studies have been conducted, which have examined the racial and ethnic backgrounds of student affairs professionals. These studies have provided a basis upon which to monitor the profession's progress in the recruitment and advancement of racial and ethnic minority group members.

In one of the earliest of these studies, Appleton (1971) found that, after excluding those professionals employed at predominantly Black institutions, 11% of those included in his survey were identified as members of minority classes. In a replication of the study, two years later, Myers and Sandeen (1973) found that 13.7% of those identified in the survey represented minority classes. However, gains appeared to be made primarily in entry level positions, with 77% of the minority group members included in the survey employed at this level, compared with 70% of those included in the previous study (Appleton, 1971). In contrast, 21% of the minority group members included in the more recent study (Myers and Sandeen, 1973) were responsible for a division or department, compared with 28% of those studied previously (Appleton, 1971). The percentage of minority group members employed as chief student affairs

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officers held constant at 2% (Appleton, 1971; Myers and Sandeen, 1973).

The study was again replicated, two years later, by Wilson (1977). In this study, the percentage of staff described as members of minority classes fell to 13.1%. However, the percentage of chief student affairs officers identified as members of minority groups rose to 4.6%, compared with 4.4% of those included in the previous study by Myers and Sandeen (1973). Of those responsible for divisions or departments, Wilson (1977) found 10.4% representing minority groups, while Myers and Sandeen (1973) reported only 9.8% of division or department heads identified as members of minority classes. The studies consistently revealed that minority representation was strongest at public institutions (Appleton, 1971; Myers and Sandeen, 1973; Wilson, 1977).

During the same period, in a survey of chief student affairs officers at junior and community colleges, Brooks and Avila (1973) found 4% identifying themselves as members of minority groups. In a concurrent survey of chief student affairs officers at four-year institutions, Brooks and Avila (1974) found that 4.7% belonged to minority classes. In his study of chief student affairs officers at four-year institutions, Studer (1980) found 88% of those surveyed describing themselves as White.

In a review of several studies conducted during the 1970's, Gross (1978) found minority representation in the profession concentrated primarily at the lower levels of the professional hierarchy. He reported 5% of teaching faculty and 4 to 5% of chief student affairs officers representing minority classes, compared with 9 to 16% of new student personnel graduates, 11 to 24% of those in staff positions, and 11 to 14% of those in entry level positions. He noted, however, that Asian-Americans were not consistently classified as a minority.

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Therefore, the figures may be distorted somewhat.

Studies of admissions personnel have also shown minority representation concentrated at the lower levels of the hierarchy. In their study of admissions officers below the rank of director, Urbach and Chapman (1982) found that 28% of those holding positions at the counselor level belonged to minority classes. Rates of minority representation at the assistant director and associate director levels were 14% and 12% respectively. In their 1981 study of directors of admissions, Chapman and Urbach (1984) found 6% representing minority groups. In a similar study, Rickard and Clement (1984) also found 6% representing minority groups. Of those directors appointed prior to 1981-82, 5% represented minority groups. In 1981-82, this percentage rose to 7%. In their study conducted two years later, Chapman and Benati (1986) also found only 6% of admissions directors surveyed describing themselves as members of minority groups.

Further research by Rickard (1985a) focused specifically on minority representation at the level of chief student affairs officer (CSAO). Citing the annual surveys of the College and University Personnel Association (CUPA) for the period from 1979-80 through 1983-84, he found the percentage of minority CSAO's ranging from 10 to 13%. Of those CSAO's appointed in 1978-79 and 1981-82, minorities accounted for 10.5% and 13.5%, respectively. In his own study of new CSAO's, Rickard found 13% describing themselves as Black, Hispanic, or Asian. When CSAO's from four historically Black institutions were eliminated from the sample, minority representation was reduced to 9%. Nevertheless, in comparing his findings with those of similar studies conducted in the early 1970's, Rickard found that the percentage of minority group members

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in CSAO positions had actually tripled. Rickard's (1985b) work also revealed that minority representation in CSAO positions was strongest at four-year public institutions, where 17% of all CSAO's belonged to minority classes. In contrast, only 4% of CSAO's employed at four-year independent institutions were members of minority groups. Advancement of minority females has lagged far behind that of minority males, with only 2% of CSAO positions held by minority females, compared with 9% held by minority males.

In studying department directors within several areas of student affairs, along with CSAO's, Rickard (1985c) found 10% representing minority classes. In comparing 1983-84 figures with those of 1980-81, he found that minority representation had held constant. Only directorships in counseling and financial aid, along with the CSAO position, showed gains in minority representation. Areas showing declines included admissions, housing, recreation and intramural sports, and registrar.

In a survey of student affairs professionals in NASPA Region IV-East, Harter, Moden, and Wilson (1982) found that 14% of those surveyed described themselves as members of minority groups. Comparatively, census figures for the region indicated that minority groups represented 8.6% of the general population. Minority representation in the profession was higher within public institutions, where 17% of those surveyed described themselves as members of minority classes, compared with 11% of those employed at private institutions.

The more recent study by Borg, et. al. (1988) charted the progress of minority representation within the profession, from 1974 to 1988, according to type of institution. Within two-year institutions, an overall increase was found in the percentage of staff described as

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members of minority groups, which rose from 11.4% to 19.8%, though the percentage of staff described as Native American fell from 1.0% to 0.7%, during this period. Within four-year institutions, an increase was also found in the percentage of staff identified as members of minority groups. This figure rose from 6.6% to 17.3%. Within this segment of higher education, the percentage of staff described as Native American held constant at 0.0%. Within public institutions, the overall percentage of staff identified as members of minority groups rose from 13.2% to 21.9%, though the percentage described as Native American declined from 0.9% to 0.8%. Within private institutions, the overall percentage of positions held by minority group members fell from 9.7% to 8.9%, with only a slight increase in the percentage of staff identified as Asian and Native American. These figures rose from 0.5% and 0.4% respectively to 0.8% and 0.5% respectively.

Studies focusing specifically on the ethnic backgrounds of individuals graduating from professional preparation programs in student affairs have produced similar findings. Packwood (1976) found 16% of master's level graduates, 12% of specialist level graduates, and 9% of doctoral level graduates representing minority groups. In comparison, the study by Greer et. al. (1978), two years later, revealed some progress in both the number and percentage of minority group members receiving master's and doctoral degrees in the field. However, none of the specialist level graduates included in the study represented minority groups. At the master's level, members of minority groups accounted for 19% of the graduates included in the study, while at the doctoral level, they accounted for 20%. In both studies, the number of minority women receiving degrees in the field remained particularly low in proportion

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to other groups. In the 1983 study of student affairs graduates, conducted by Aronson et. al. (1985), no increase was found in minority representation, except in the southern region, where the percentage of master's level graduates from minority groups rose from 17% in 1976 through 1979 to 23% in 1983. However, few conclusions could be drawn from the 1983 survey, due to the low return rate. In the more recent study of student affairs graduates by Richmond and Benton (1988), minority representation was lower, with 12% of the graduates described as members of minority classes.

More recent studies of graduate students in student affairs have revealed even lower minority representation. In the studies by both Forney (1989) and Williams et. al. (1990), 9% of the respondents were identified as members of minority groups. In Luckadoo's (1990) study, 11.6% of the respondents were members of minority groups, though none were identified as American Indians.

In summary, the studies have generally revealed an increase in minority representation within the student affairs profession, over the course of the past 20 years. Progress in this area has been most pronounced within public institutions. Minority representation at the level of chief student affairs officer has increased considerably, though representation of minority women has continued to lag behind that of minority men. Current levels of minority enrollment in professional preparation programs raise some cause for concern, since minority representation within these programs has fallen below previous levels of representation among program graduates.

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Racial and Ethnic Backgrounds of Today's Students

Although gains have been made in minority representation within the student affairs profession in recent years, the profession's ability to keep pace with changes in the general population during the years ahead will be influenced greatly by patterns of minority participation in higher education, because it is from the nation's student population that new professionals will be drawn. A good deal of recent research on minority enrollment trends has yielded findings which, in view of these considerations, raise some cause for concern.

Despite increases in minority representation within the general population, the percentage of college and university students representing minority groups remained relatively constant from the mid 1970's through the 1980's, following a period of rapid increase during the late 1960's and early 1970's. According to the CIRP study (Astin et. al., 1987; Astin et. al., 1988; Fact file: Attitudes, 1990), only Asian-Americans have made appreciable gains since 1975, while the percentage of freshmen representing other minority groups has remained largely unchanged.

The disproportionately low representation of minority groups in higher education might be due partly to the fact that minority high school completion rates, particularly among Blacks and Hispanics, have continued to lag behind that of the majority population. According to Breneman (1983), in 1977, the high school graduation rates for Blacks and Hispanics, ages 18 to 24, were 69.8% and 55.5% respectively, while the rate for Whites in this age group was 83.9%.

According to the Carnegie Foundation (1985b), based on U.S. Census Bureau statistics, the proportion of 18 and 19 year old Blacks and

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Hispanics who have completed high school has remained lower than that of their White counterparts by about one-fourth and one-third respectively. Nevertheless, figures for the years, 1973, 1978, and 1983, have revealed slight increases in the percentage of Blacks and Hispanics in this age group who have completed high school, while the percentage of Whites has remained fairly constant. While only 56% of Blacks and 45% of Hispanics in this age group had graduated from high school in 1973, by 1983 these figures rose to 59% for Blacks and 50% for Hispanics. In comparison, the figure for Whites fell slightly from 74% in 1973 to 73% in 1983.

Although some gains may have been made in the number of minority students who have completed high school, Cardoza (1987) has maintained that the number of high school graduates from minority groups who continue on to pursue higher education has declined in recent years. She has stated that the percentage of Black high school graduates who continue on into college fell steadily from 33.5% in 1976 to 27% in 1983, while the figure for Hispanics fell from 35.8% in 1978 to 31.4% in 1983. In comparison, the figure for Whites remained relatively constant during this period at about 33%.

According to a report by the Ford Foundation's Commission on the Higher Education of Minorities, minority participation in higher education increased considerably between the mid-1960's and mid-1970's (Middleton, 1982). One study by the U.S. Census Bureau revealed that while Blacks represented only 5% of all college students in 1964, this figure rose to 9% by 1974. It was further estimated that 12.3% of all college freshmen in 1974 were Black, compared with only 11.4% of the general population (Winkler, 1975).

Despite this progress, the Ford Foundation report revealed that few

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gains have been made in this area since the mid 1970's. In the report, it was noted that the percentage of Blacks in the 25 to 29 year old age range who had completed four or more years of college rose from 10% in 1970 to 15% in 1975, but increased only slightly from 1976 to 1979 (Middleton, 1982).

Enrollment figures which were gathered by the U.S. Department of Education's Civil Rights Office between 1976 and 1984 have indicated a decline in the actual number of college and university students representing certain minority groups. Although these figures have indicated a steadily increasing number of Asian and Hispanic students enrolling in colleges and universities, Black and Native American enrollments, after showing increases during the first half of the period studied, began to show declines in 1982 and 1984 respectively. The greatest percentage of minority students in higher education were enrolled at public two-year institutions (Racial and ethnic, 1986).

Additionally, the number of Blacks participating in the College Board's Admissions Testing Program was found to decline by 5% between 1980 and 1985, while the number of Whites participating in the program declined by only 4%. In contrast, participation rates among other minority groups increased during this period. The number of Asian-Americans participating in the program rose by 48%, that of Mexican-Americans rose by 26%, that of Puerto Ricans by 11%, and that of American Indians by 2% (Jacobson, 1986).

More recent data from the U.S. Department of Education have shown increased participation in higher education among all ethnic groups. A comparison of overall 1988 figures with those of 1986 revealed an increase of 3.6% for Whites, 4.4% for Blacks, 10% for Hispanics, 10.9%

for Asians and Pacific Islanders, and 3.3% for American Indians and Alaskan natives. Over the course of the ten-year period between 1978 and 1988, overall enrollments were found to increase by 111.5% for Asians, 63.1% for Hispanics, 19.2% for American Indians, and 7.2% for Blacks. During this same period, undergraduate enrollments were found to increase by 112.1% for Asians, 62.6% for Hispanics, 19.4% for American Indians, and 6.6% for Blacks. Despite these gains, participation rates among high school graduates between the ages of 18 and 24 remained lower for minority groups than for the majority population. The 1988 figures for specific groups were 38.7% for Whites, 28% for Blacks, and 30.9% for Hispanics. Figures are not available for Asians and Native Americans (Evangelauf, 1990).

Recent data from the American Council on Education also revealed that minority groups collectively made some gains in the number of degrees earned from 1985 to 1987. At the undergraduate level, it was found that the number of minority students earning associate degrees rose 3% and the number earning bachelor's degrees rose 6%. Nevertheless, the overall enrollment of Black and Hispanic students during this time did not consistently improve. In 1986, approximately 27.8% of Black males between the ages of 18 and 24 were enrolled in college. Although this figure rose to 31.7% in 1987, it abruptly dropped to 25% in 1988. The percentage of Black women aged 18 to 24 who were enrolled in college improved somewhat, rising from 29.3% in 1986 to 30.5% in 1988. Participation rates among Hispanics in this age group also improved somewhat, rising from 29.4% in 1986 to 30.9% in 1988. In comparison, participation rates among college-aged Whites rose from 34% in 1986 to 38% in 1988 (Magner, 1990).

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The reasons for limited representation of certain minority classes in higher education, over the past 15 years, are not clear. In examining factors related to declines in Black participation, Oliver and Brown (1988, p. 40) stated that "soaring tuition costs, changes in student financial assistance policy, discontinuance of many minority college outreach programs, expanding number of Black families below the poverty line, high rates of Black unemployment, decreased federal emphasis on affirmative action, and the shift in social mood regarding equality as a national goal are among factors frequently cited by scholars when discussing declining Black college enrollment."

Findings of a study by the American Council on Education have suggested that socioeconomic factors might play a major role in minority students' decisions not to enroll in college. The study revealed that slightly more than half of all 1980 high school seniors who did not continue on to college came from the lowest socioeconomic class included in the study. Even among White students, whose overall enrollment rates have tended to be relatively high, almost half of those with low socioeconomic status never attended college, and after two years, only 25% of this group were still enrolled (Statistics you, 1985). According to the Council's more recent study, the college participation rate among traditional aged Blacks and Hispanics from lower socioeconomic classes declined significantly from 1976 to 1988 and has shown little promise of improving (Magner, 1990).

One of the major concerns surrounding minority enrollment in higher education is the completion rate of minority students enrolled in degree programs. While studies have shown that up to 40% of all students withdraw from college before completing their degrees, the percentage of

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minority students who do so is considerably higher (Cardoza, 1987).

In the American Council on Education study, it was revealed that 31% of Black 1980 high school seniors applied to college but were not attending two years later, compared with an overall figure of only 23%. The lowest college attendance figure, after two years, was that of Mexican-Americans, only 23% of whom had enrolled and were still attending (Statistics you, 1985).

According to a 1974 survey by the U.S. Census Bureau, among those students entering college in 1971, retention rates were only 47% for Black males and 35% for Black females, compared with 61% for White males and 52% for White females (Winkler, 1975). According to Cowell (1985), retention rates for Hispanic and Native American students during this period were even lower than for their Black counterparts.

A more recent study by the National Institute of Independent Colleges and Universities revealed that of 12,000 students entering four-year degree programs, 41% earned their degrees within six years. While over 50% of all White and Asian American students in the sample completed their degrees during this period, the figure for Black and Hispanic students ranged from 25 to 30%. The study also revealed that over 25% of Black students withdrew by their third semester, compared with an overall figure of approximately 20%. Asian-American students were more likely than others to remain in college, with only 10% dropping out (Conciatore and Wiley, 1990).

According to the Educational Testing Service study, cited by Cardoza (1987), the greatest relative decline in minority participation in higher education, particularly among Blacks, occurs after completion of the bachelor's degree. The Ford Foundation report also identified graduate

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education as an area of particular concern. According to the report, between 1973 and 1977, the percentage of doctorates awarded to individuals identified as Black, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, or Native American rose from 3.8% to 6.3%, but since 1977, this percentage has declined somewhat (Middleton, 1982).

In addition to recruitment of minority graduate students, the Ford Foundation report raised the issue of minority graduate student retention as an area of concern. In the report, it was noted that institutional environments tend to have a greater impact on minority students' levels of satisfaction with graduate education than on those of their White counterparts (Text of, 1982).

Nevertheless, according to Greene (1987), 1985 figures from the National Research Council revealed that minority participation in doctoral study has remained fairly constant in recent years, while participation by White males has declined. Consequently, the proportion of doctoral degree recipients representing minority groups has risen. Of those U.S. citizens earning doctorates from American universities in 1985, whose racial and ethnic backgrounds were known, 0.4% were American Indian, 4.3% were Asian, 4.2% were Black, 2.6% were Hispanic, and 86.2% were White. In comparing the 1985 figures with those of 1975, Greene (1987) noted an overall increase in the percentage of doctorates earned by members of American minority classes. This figure rose from 6.3% to 9.1%, over the course of the ten-year period.

More recent data from the U.S. Department of Education have revealed an increase in graduate level enrollment among all minority groups since 1986. A comparison of 1986 and 1988 figures revealed that graduate level enrollments had increased by 91.7% for Asians, 62.5% for Hispanics,

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50.0% for American Indians, and 11.8% for Blacks (Evangelauf, 1990). Data from the American Council on Education revealed that, between 1985 and 1987, the number of minority students earning master's degrees increased by 3%, and the number earning professional degrees rose by 15% (Magner, 1990).

Clearly, the group which has fared most favorably in higher education in recent years is Asian-Americans. According to Whitla (1984), this group now represents a disproportionately large segment of the collegiate student population. He observed, for example, that Asian-Americans now constitute more than one-quarter of the student body at The University of California at Berkeley. The figures presented by the U.S. Department of Education's Civil Rights Office revealed a 94.9% increase in college enrollment for this group between 1975 and 1984. In contrast, the overall increase in college enrollment for all groups during this period was only 10.9 percent (Racial and ethnic, 1986).

Despite the increased participation in higher education by Asian-Americans, it appears unlikely that any significant increase in representation of this group within the student affairs profession will follow, based on the National Research Council's figures, which reveal a strong preference among Asian-Americans, for graduate study in the hard sciences, rather than in fields more closely related to student affairs. Of the seven identified fields of study, education and the social sciences were respectively the fourth and fifth most popular majors among 1985 Asian-American doctorate recipients, and collectively accounted for 25.4% of this population (Greene, 1987).

In contrast, the other three identified minority groups were all drawn in greater numbers to education than to any other field. The

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social sciences constituted the second most popular field among Blacks and Hispanics, and the third most popular field among Native Americans. Collectively, education and the social sciences accounted for 60.2 percent of American Indians, 71.4% of Blacks, and 53.8% of Hispanics receiving doctoral degrees in 1985 (Greene, 1987). In a study of prospective graduate students, who completed the Graduate Record Examination, Powers and Lehman (1983) also found that Black students more frequently chose education and the social sciences as fields of graduate study than did White students, while White students more frequently chose the biological sciences, the humanities, and the physical sciences.

Despite the popularity of student affairs related majors among Black, Hispanic, and Native American graduate students, it has been observed that the comparatively low representation of these groups in higher education, particularly at the graduate level, has resulted in a shortage of minority candidates prepared for work in the field. As Harter et. al. (1982, p. 47) pointed out, "the supply of credentialed minority graduates from which the student affairs area can draw is small." They added that "the potential for recruiting minorities credentialed as specialists is even further eroded given the fact that higher education must compete with other segments of society for qualified candidates" (p. 47).

In summary, statistics related to minority participation in higher education have generally offered few signs of encouragement for those interested in and committed to increasing racial and ethnic diversity within the student affairs profession. While minority representation within the general population has increased considerably in recent years,

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college-going rates for minority groups have generally remained low. One apparent factor in underrepresentation of minorities in higher education has been the relatively high dropout rate among high school aged minority students. An additional factor that has frequently been cited is the concentration of minority group members within the lowest socioeconomic strata. Even among high school graduates, declines have been shown in the percentage of individuals from certain minority groups who have gone on to enroll in colleges and universities. Moreover, among those who have enrolled, attrition rates have generally been high. Minority student enrollments have been particularly low at the graduate level. One notable exception to the trends that have been observed is a steady increase in participation in higher education among Asian-Americans. Nevertheless, interest in fields of study related to student affairs has remained low within this particular minority group. Some signs of encouragement have been found in the most recent college and university enrollment figures, which have shown an increase in participation by all racial and ethnic groups. The extent to which these changes represent a major trend is not yet clear.

Issues Related to the Undergraduate Experience

in the Regeneration of the Student Affairs Profession

The Influence of the Undergraduate Experience

on the Vocational Development of Students

Much of the literature in higher education has focused on factors influencing students' vocational development during their undergraduate years. Specific outcomes of interest have included changes in educational and occupational values, major and career choices, and educational aspirations and attainment.

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In exploring the influence of higher education on undergraduate students' values, Vreeland and Bidwell (1966) focused specifically on the academic department as a unit. Building upon the theoretical base provided in this earlier work, Weidman (1979) studied the influence of the academic department on undergraduate students' values, as they relate specifically to occupational rewards. Phelan (1979) also studied the influence of the academic department on students' vocational orientations, but dealt specifically with attitudes toward scientific and scholarly careers. Theophilides, Terenzini, and Lorang (1984) examined changes in attitudes toward four educational goals, over the course of the freshman year. In each of these studies, changes in students' attitudes were found to be influenced by interaction with faculty. Additionally, Phelan (1979) found that attitudes toward scientific and scholarly careers were positively influenced by involvement in academic work.

In addition to changes in students' occupational values, much of the literature has focused on changes in the social status of occupations to which students aspire. In one such study, dealing with changes in occupational aspirations among students enrolled in ten predominantly Black institutions in the Deep South, Gurin and Katz (1966) identified a number of institutional characteristics which related to increases in student aspirations, though the influence of these factors differed according to the gender of the student.

In another study of changes in the level of occupational prestige to which students aspired, Weidman (1984) found a considerable decline in the influence of parental socialization, over the course of a student's enrollment in college. The single most important predictor of the student's occupational choice at the close of a two or three-year

period was his or her initial aspiration. Departmental norms and student-faculty interaction were found to exert some influence. However, the impact of the collegiate experience varied according to the gender and initial major choice of the student.

Smart (1986), in a longitudinal study of former college students' occupational status attainment, examined the influence of a number of factors, and conducted separate analyses for those employed in professional and nonprofessional fields. The influence of factors in the personal undergraduate experience of students, as well as the impact of institutional characteristics, were found to differ for the two groups.

In addition to general occupational status aspirations and attainment, a number of studies have explored the influence of the undergraduate experience on students' decisions to pursue careers in specific fields, and to choose specific academic majors. In one such study, conducted by Selvin (1963), relationships were found between undergraduate men's living arrangements and changes in their occupational plans. Astin and Panos (1969), later found that the single best predictor of a student's final major and career choice was his or her initial choice, and the second best predictor was his or her gender. Nevertheless, several factors in the undergraduate experience, including the student's living arrangements and methods of financing his or her education, were also found to be influential. In a subsequent examination of factors influencing the implementation of initial career plans for students aspiring to ten different occupations, Astin (1977) found that, although student characteristics, particularly gender, were very influential, several characteristics of students' undergraduate institutions also had some impact on career outcomes.

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One of the factors in the undergraduate experience which has consistently been observed as influential in students' vocational development is the relationship with faculty. As Feldman and Newcomb (1973) have explained:

Evidence is accumulating that faculty are particularly important in influencing occupational decisions and educational aspirations. In over a dozen studies in which students were asked to name the important sources of influence on their vocational planning and decisions, faculty along with parents ranked as extremely important. In fact, with only two or three exceptions, students perceived faculty to be either as influential as their parents or more so. (pp. 252-253)

Thistlethwaite (1960), found that encouragement and inspiration from faculty were frequently cited as influential factors in students' decisions to change majors. In a study by Wilson, Gaff, Dienst, Wood, and Bavry (1975), in which both students and faculty reported on particularly meaningful student-faculty relationships, students' career development emerged as a common area in which the relationships were considered influential. Students whose overall levels of interaction with faculty were high more frequently reported that a faculty member was influential in their choice of a major than did other students.

One aspect of college students' vocational development that has been studied quite extensively relates to changes in their degree aspirations. Numerous studies have sought to identify elements of the undergraduate experience that influence students' plans to undertake graduate study, and their successful implementation of these plans.

Early studies by Knapp and Goodrich (1952), Knapp and Greenbaum (1953), and Thistlethwaite (1959a, 1959b) revealed a number of institutional characteristics associated with high production of successful scholars. These factors included size, control, location, and curricular orientation. Subsequent research by Astin (1961),

however, revealed that when differences in the percentage of entering students who planned to major in the natural sciences and the percentage initially aspiring to the Ph.D. were taken into account, the apparent influence of the environmental press of undergraduate institutions was reduced considerably.

While his earlier studies treated the institution as the basic unit of analysis, in Thistlethwaite's (1960) subsequent research, his focus shifted toward the individual student, as he attempted to account for changes in degree aspirations. His findings indicated that the interpersonal environment of the student's undergraduate college had an impact on his or her degree aspirations, though specific effects differed according to the student's field of study. In a related study, Thistlethwaite (1962) found that attitudes of faculty were influential, though specific effects differed according to student gender. Participation in honors programs and interaction with peer groups who were open to the influence of faculty were also found to have an influence on students' motivation to pursue graduate training. However, in a reanalysis of data used in the study, Astin (1962) found no significant relationship between changes in students' levels of aspiration and any of the environmental and experiential factors identified by Thistlethwaite (1962) as influential.

During this same period, another study by Wallace (1964, 1965, 1966, 1967) also dealt with changes in students' degree aspirations. This study involved the 1959 freshman class at a liberal arts college in the midwest. It focused specifically on the influence of the student's "interpersonal environment" (Wallace, 1964, pp. 305-306; 1965, p. 378; 1966, pp. 21-23), which consisted of those students with whom he or she

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interacted. The findings of the study revealed that aspirations of freshmen were positively influenced by their association with peers, though effects were found to differ according to the student's gender.

Research by both Wallace (1964, 1965, 1966, 1967) and Thistlethwaite and Wheeler (1966) revealed an overall increase in students' degree aspirations over the course of the undergraduate experience. However, in the latter study, it was found that men tended to implement their plans for advanced study with greater immediacy than did women.

In studying various factors related to students' degree aspirations, Wilson et. al. (1975) found a relationship to interaction with faculty. Those participants in their study who were identified as "high-interacting" (p. 159) students were more likely, as seniors, to anticipate pursuing a Ph.D. than were their peers.

Pascarella (1980) has since cautioned specifically against inference of causal relationships, between educational aspirations and faculty-student interaction, in studies where initial characteristics of the student are not taken into account. He has argued that the direction of such a relationship would not be clear from the information considered.

Research by Astin and Panos (1969) and Astin (1977), revealed that when personal characteristics of students were considered, particularly their initial educational plans, they were indeed the best predictors of subsequent degree aspirations and patterns of graduate school enrollment. Nevertheless, some characteristics of undergraduate institutions and students' experiences at those institutions were found to relate to changes in their plans to pursue graduate and professional degrees. Institutional factors that were found to be influential in both studies included selectivity, control, and location. In Astin's (1977) study,

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students' living arrangements during the undergraduate years were also found to be influential .

Another study by Pascarella (1984) revealed that by far the best predictor of a student's subsequent aspiration level was his or her initial aspiration level. The only other variables having a direct effect on students' final aspiration levels were college environment and college achievement. The effects of aptitude, educational level of the parents, and high school achievement were indirect. In addition to its direct effect on final aspirations, the college environment was found to exert an indirect effect through its influence on college achievement. It was also found that, with students' pre-enrollment characteristics and structural characteristics of institutions held constant, academic and social integration were significantly related to increases in students' educational aspirations.

Further research by Iverson, Pascarella, and Terenzini (1984), involving commuter college freshmen, revealed a relationship between informal contact with faculty and educational aspirations of white students, though this relationship was not observed among nonwhite students. Results of a nonrecursive analysis of the data, however, suggested that educational aspirations may influence levels of contact with faculty, rather than vice versa.

Ethington and Smart (1986) found that students' background characteristics had significant direct effects on the choice of an undergraduate institution, but with the exception of the family's educational level, had only indirect effects on graduate school attendance. Size and selectivity of the undergraduate institution were found to be influential, as were the social and academic integration of

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students. However, these effects differed according to the gender of the student.

A recent study by Hearn (1987) revealed that educational aspirations rose over the course of the undergraduate years. Variables which were found to have a direct positive effect on educational aspirations included: gender, grade point average, initial aspirations, parental support, faculty-student interaction, and satisfaction with faculty knowledgeability.

In summary, the studies that have been conducted, dealing with the vocational development of undergraduate students, have revealed a number of changes that occur over the course of the undergraduate experience. These changes relate to students' general attitudes toward education and work, their preferences concerning occupations and fields of study, and their levels of occupational and educational aspiration. While background characteristics of students have consistently served as particularly strong predictors of vocational outcomes, a number of factors related to the undergraduate experience have also been identified as influential. These factors have included characteristics of the undergraduate institution and the major department, in addition to the unique experiences of the individual student within this context. Much of the research has focused specifically on the influence of student-faculty interaction on students' vocational development. Although both the amount and type of interaction that students have with faculty appear to be closely related to their vocational development, the precise nature of this relationship has been a topic of debate.

Because the undergraduate years appear to be a critical period in the vocational development of the individual, it seems appropriate that

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student affairs professionals direct their attention toward the undergraduate experience, in seeking solutions to the challenges that are currently being faced in the regeneration of the profession.

Exploration of the unique undergraduate experience of those who subsequently enter the profession may provide particularly valuable insights into the process of choosing student affairs as a vocation.

The Undergraduate Experience of Student Affairs Professionals

While an extensive body of research has evolved, concerning the influence of the undergraduate experience on students' vocational development, there is reason to believe that the process leading to a career in student affairs may differ somewhat from that presented in much of the general literature on vocational development during the undergraduate years. As a number of authors (Brown, 1987; Forney, 1989; Young, 1985) have noted, student affairs is a field which has no directly corresponding undergraduate major. Graduate students in the field come from a variety of academic backgrounds, none of which relates specifically to careers in student affairs. It would seem, therefore, that much of the occupational socialization that has been found to occur within the undergraduate academic department may not be experienced by those who ultimately enter the field of student affairs. Moreover, many common vehicles for career exploration, such as undergraduate coursework, do not support consideration of a career in the field.

It has been noted that the decision to pursue a career in student affairs is one that is made relatively late (Brown, 1987; Miller and Carpenter, 1980). It has been further observed that awareness of the field's existence is uncommon prior to enrollment in college, and that

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even among those who are enrolled as undergraduates, knowledge of the field is scarce (Brown, 1987; Frantz, 1969b; Luckadoo, 1990; Miller and Carpenter, 1980).

In Cheatham's (1964) study of ACPA members, it was found that the decision to enter student affairs usually occurred after graduation from college. It also seemed to be motivated by an offer of employment in student affairs or a related field.

In the more recent study of student affairs graduate students, conducted by Williams et. al. (1990), it was found that 45% of those surveyed first became aware of career opportunities in student affairs during their junior or senior years in college, and 28% developed this awareness after graduation. In contrast, only 18% became aware of career opportunities in the field during their freshman or sophomore years, and only 4% reported having familiarity with the field prior to undergraduate enrollment. Even more dramatically defined patterns emerged in the timing of students' initial consideration of the field as a career option for themselves. Fifty-five percent of those surveyed considered the field initially during their junior or senior years and 35% considered it for the first time after graduation. In contrast, only six percent considered entering the field prior to the junior year.

The study also revealed that students' awareness of opportunities for graduate study in the field tended to develop relatively late. Fifty-one percent of those surveyed first became aware of the existence of graduate preparation programs specifically in student affairs during their junior or senior years, and 33% first became aware of the programs' existence after graduating from college. In contrast, only 8% reported that they became aware of the programs' existence during their freshman

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or sophomore years, and only 3% reported being aware of the programs' existence prior to undergraduate enrollment (Williams et. al., 1990).

It has often been observed that people tend to "fall into" (Bryan, in Bender, 1980, p. 7) careers in student affairs, rather than deliberately planning to enter the field (Brown, 1987; Cheatham, 1964; Frantz, 1969b). In a study of student affairs professionals at ten collegiate institutions, Frantz (1969b) found that 37.7% of those surveyed indicated that they had entered the field through "fortuitous circumstances" (p. 539). Of seven broad categories of reasons for entering the field, this was the one most frequently cited. In a more recent study of chief student affairs officers (CSAO's) at 335 collegiate institutions, Ostroth, Efird, and Lerman (1984) found that 51% had never deliberately intended to become CSAO's.

Luckadoo (1990) identified three basic categories of students who enter master's degree programs in student affairs. These categories included: (1) those who "are aware of their priorities and values, have considered the various types of preparation programs, and are familiar with the complex field in which they want to work" (p. 1); (2) those who "know little except that they had pleasant experiences in some aspect of student affairs as undergraduates and would like to recapture the sense of fun and achievement they felt then" (p. 1); and (3) "those who have begun their careers in student affairs with bachelor's degrees and view the master's degree as an avenue for advancement" (p. 1).

One of the most frequently identified reasons for entering the student affairs profession is the desire to work in a collegiate environment (Bryan, in Bender, 1980; Forney, 1989; Frantz, 1969b; Williams et. al., 1990). The tendency for individuals to choose student

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affairs careers based on this desire has raised some concern. As Frantz (1969b) observed, "for some this could be interpreted as a desire to avoid getting out in the 'real world,' and for others it may represent a desire to return to the secondary womb of the campus" (p. 541). Miller and Carpenter (1980) echoed this concern, stating that some new professionals "attempt to enter the field on the basis of a womb-seeking desire to stay in school forever" (p. 187). Nevertheless, Frantz (1969b) did recognize that "in some cases the decision [to enter student affairs] may have been the result of experience in both the collegiate and outside world and conscious preference for one positive alternative over another" (p. 541).

Undergraduate experiences in paraprofessional student affairs employment, along with student leadership activities, have frequently been identified as sources of influence in the decision to pursue a career in student affairs (Brown, 1987; Forney, 1989; Greenleaf, 1977; Luckadoo, 1990). Miller and Carpenter (1980) noted a growing influence of such activities, stating that "with an increased emphasis on student-to-student counseling and with other student paraprofessional training and employment opportunities becoming available, more prospective practitioners are being introduced to the field earlier in their college careers than was true in the past" (p. 187).

Experience in student affairs appears to be common among graduate students in the field. Among those surveyed by Kuh et. al. (1978), experience prior to enrollment was reported at rates of 74% for student activities/programming/orientation/unions, 40% for residence programs/housing, 52% for counseling and testing, 19% for placement and career planning, 15% for admissions and records, 10% for financial aid,

23% for minority programs/women's programs/affirmative action, 53% for teaching/research, and 61% for other areas such as Greek life, alumni relations, and continuing education. However, as Evans and Bossert (1983) have noted, it is not clear whether students were referring to undergraduate experience or full-time work experience.

In Forney's (1989) study, 47% of those surveyed reported full-time employment in student affairs prior to enrollment in their master's degree programs. Of these individuals, 18% had worked in residence halls, 15% in admissions, 15% in teaching, 11% in counseling, and 8% in student activities. Seventy-seven percent of those surveyed reported undergraduate experience related to student affairs. Of this group, 34% gained this experience in residence halls, 16% in student activities, 7% in admissions, and 7% in counseling.

The notion that undergraduate student affairs experience is influential in the decision to pursue careers in the field has been supported by a number of studies. In the study by Frantz (1969b), favorable undergraduate student affairs experiences were identified as the most influential factor in the decision by 14.6% of those surveyed, making it the third most frequently cited reason for entering the field.

In the more recent study by Williams et. al. (1990), both student leadership experience and paraprofessional/peer helper experience appeared to be highly influential in the decision to enter the student affairs profession, with 45.2% of those surveyed identifying each of these experiences as having a "fair amount of influence" on their decisions to enter the field. In contrast, 61.6% of those surveyed indicated that the influence of full-time work experience in the field did not apply to them, and 60.4% indicated that the influence of

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experience as a work-study student in student affairs did not apply to them.

Undergraduate paraprofessional and student leadership experience also appeared to be useful sources of information about the profession. Of fourteen options presented, with the exception of talking directly with a student affairs professional, the three most common ways in which graduate students reported discovering the profession were: "held a student leadership position," "worked in student affairs as an undergraduate," and "worked as a peer helper (i.e., R.A., tutor)." These responses were chosen by 74%, 70%, and 65% of those surveyed, respectively. Additionally, of twelve options presented, "worked in student affairs as an undergraduate" was the second most frequently cited way in which students became aware that graduate preparation programs in the field existed. Half of those surveyed chose this response (Williams et. al., 1990).

Research on the undergraduate experience of student affairs professionals suggests that a general tendency exists for these individuals to invest a good deal of time and energy in the cocurricular life of their institutions, relative to their investment of time and energy in their academic endeavors. In a study involving 95 graduates of the University of Vermont's professional preparation program in student affairs, Young (1986) found a significant negative correlation between appraisals of experience related to student affairs prior to admission and undergraduate grade point averages. He concluded that undergraduate leadership activities might reduce the amount of time available for students to attend to their coursework, or that student leaders may be emotionally separated from their studies, particularly as graduation

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approaches. Additionally, he noted that future student affairs professionals might regard their undergraduate studies as irrelevant to their career plans, as they become increasingly committed to entering the field.

These impressions were later supported by Forney's (1989) study, which revealed that 64% of the graduate students surveyed disagreed with the statement, "As an undergraduate, I involved myself more fully in academics than in extracurricular activities" (p. 171). It was also revealed that 50% of those surveyed agreed with the statement, "As an undergraduate, I learned more from my involvement in extracurricular activities than from my academics" (p. 171), while only 38% disagreed and 12% were undecided. Finally, it was found that 61% of those surveyed disagreed with the statement, "As a professional in training, I consider my undergraduate academic experiences to be more valuable than my extracurricular involvements in relation to my future role" (p. 171).

Such findings tend to reinforce a number of stereotypes which portray student affairs professionals as "doers" rather than as "thinkers" (Stamatakis, 1983, p. 479; Winston and McCaffrey, 1983, p. 175), and as "non-intellectual" (Frantz, 1969b, p. 541) or even "anti-intellectual" (Koile, 1966, p.69; Young, 1985, p. 56). Young (1986) pointed out, however, that no significant correlation exists between experience and Graduate Record Examination scores, and concluded that any negative academic self-concept that might be observed among aspiring student affairs professionals would not reflect limitations in their abilities.

Information available on the undergraduate academic performance of student affairs professionals has been limited, though Keim (1983) has estimated the typical undergraduate grade point average (GPA) required

for admission to master's degree programs in the field to be 2.7 on a 4.0 scale. In Forney's (1989) study, 25% of those surveyed reported GPA's of 3.5 to 4.0, 38% reported GPA's of 3.0 to 3.49, 32% reported GPA's of 2.5 to 2.99, and 5% reported GPA's below 2.5. Within the students' major fields, 47% reported GPA's of 3.5 to 4.0, 42% reported GPA's of 3.0 to 3.49, 10% reported GPA's of 2.5 to 2.99, and 1% reported GPA's of less than 2.5.

Forney (1989) concluded that "the results of this study do not support the image held by some of the master's student in college student personnel as not competent and/or invested in academics" (p. 137), though she did recognize a tendency for these students to become more heavily involved in cocurricular activities than in academics as undergraduates, and to value the cocurricular more highly. She explained, "that students would not consider their undergraduate academic experiences to be more valuable than their extracurricular experiences seems logical, given the potential for their activities to be more directly related to the college student personnel field than their courses per se" (p. 121).

In some graduate programs in student affairs, previous experience in the field is an expectation or even a requirement for admission (Tracy, 1971; Young, 1986). According to Riker (1977, p. 133), "the best evidence of the potential of applicants to succeed in a preparation program is positive experience in student development or related work." However, in Young's (1986) study, no significant correlation was found between ratings of previous experience and final graduate grade point averages or predictions of potential for leadership in the field. In fact, they had a slight negative relationship with subsequent ratings of leadership potential.

Much of the literature on professional development in the field of student affairs has emphasized the potential influence of mentoring relationships (DeCoster and Brown, 1983; Lawing, Moore, and Groseth, 1982; Penn and Trow, 1987; Schmidt and Wolfe, 1980; Stamatakis, 1983; Young, 1985). In a study involving 222 student affairs professionals in the State of Virginia, Kelly (1984) found that 66.7% of those surveyed had experienced relationships with one or more mentors. In the study of student affairs graduates conducted by Holmes et. al. (1983), it was found that 65% of the men and 56% of the women surveyed had been "significantly influenced by a sponsor, mentor, and/or professional ally" (p. 440). It was further revealed that a statistically significant relationship existed between the experience of a mentoring relationship and optimism about the prospect of achieving career goals. While 68.8% of those reporting the influence of a mentor expressed such optimism, only 47.4% of those who had not been influenced by a mentor felt this way.

Not surprisingly, the influence of student affairs role models has also been recognized as instrumental in promoting initial interest in the field among undergraduates (Brown, 1987; Miller and Carpenter, 1980). In Cheatham's (1964) study of ACPA members, she found that consideration of student affairs careers during the undergraduate years generally reflected the influence of practitioners in the field, particularly within larger institutions. In the study of student affairs professionals, conducted by Frantz (1969b), it was revealed that only 6.2% of those surveyed entered the field primarily as a result of identification with an individual in the field. This was the fifth most commonly reported reason for entering the field, of the seven broad

categories identified. Nevertheless, it was also revealed that 65% of those surveyed had been influenced by one or more individuals to enter the student affairs profession. Of those influencing student affairs professionals to enter the field, 31.0% were deans of students and 11.5% were friends in the field. Three other categories (other student affairs professionals, faculty members, and non-student affairs administrators) each accounted for 7.0% of those influencing student affairs professionals to enter the field. The remaining 1.5% were the individuals' spouses.

The influence of individuals in the student affairs profession was again apparent in Forney's (1989) study of master's degree students in the field. Of the eight options presented, the influence of a practitioner in student affairs was the fourth most strongly endorsed reason for entering the field, while the influence of a faculty member in the field was ranked seventh.

In the study of graduate students conducted by Williams et. al. (1990), 81% of those surveyed indicated that they had been influenced and encouraged by one or more individuals. The most commonly reported relationships of these "sponsors" to the students were "friend" and "employer." Men and women were found to differ significantly in their relationships to their sponsors. While 50% of the women described their sponsors as employers, only 33% of the men reported this type of relationship with their sponsors. In contrast, 41% of the men described their sponsors as friends, compared with only 22% of the women.

When the genders of both the student and the sponsor were examined, it was revealed that men were far more likely to have been sponsored by men, with 74% of them reporting that their sponsors were male. In

contrast, women were only slightly more likely to have been sponsored by women, with 52% of them indicating that their sponsors were female. When the races of students and sponsors were examined, it was found that 96% of White students had White sponsors, while considerably fewer minority students had White sponsors. Among sponsored Black students, 60% had been sponsored by Blacks, and 40% had been sponsored by Whites. Of those sponsoring Hispanic students, 60% were White and 20% were Black. When the race of students and gender of sponsors were considered, it was found that men supported 80% of the sponsored Black students, while only women sponsored Hispanic students. Among White students, male sponsors were slightly more common than female sponsors, with 57% of those sponsored indicating that their sponsors were men (Williams et. al., 1990).

Williams et. al. (1990) also found that sponsorship related positively to early consideration of careers in student affairs. Of those students with sponsors, 25% began to consider entering the field during their junior year in college, 35% during their senior year, and 26% after graduation. Of those without sponsors, 7% began to consider it during their junior year, 25% during their senior year, and 54% after graduation.

Sponsorship was also found to relate positively with early awareness of career opportunities in the field. Of those who were sponsored, 25% learned of these opportunities during their junior year, 25% during their senior year, and 20% after graduation. Of those without sponsors, 5% became aware of these opportunities during their junior year, 17% during their senior year, and 50% after graduation (Williams et. al., 1990).

The importance of direct contact with student affairs professionals as a source of information about the profession was further evidenced by the fact that talking directly with a student affairs professional was rated by students as the single most helpful source of information about the profession. Ninety percent of those surveyed indicated that it had been helpful to them. Talking with practitioners was also the single most frequently cited way in which students became aware that student affairs graduate programs existed. This response was chosen by 69% of those surveyed (Williams et. al., 1990).

Previous interaction with student affairs professionals also appeared to influence students' reasons for entering the field. Those with sponsors were significantly more likely to desire primarily the role of a "student development educator," and to value the challenge and variety of student affairs work (Williams et. al., 1990).

Research on the age of students in professional preparation programs has generally shown them to be relatively young. In the study of graduate students conducted by Kuh et. al. (1978), almost half of those surveyed were between the ages of 21 and 25. Among master's level students, this proportion would probably be even higher, since doctoral level students were found to be older. In the more recent study by Richmond and Benton (1988), students were found to range in age from 19 to 59, with the median age being 25. Again, no distinction was drawn between levels of graduate study, though 84% of those surveyed were identified as master's level students. In Forney's (1989) study, which focused exclusively on master's level students, ages ranged from 21 to 51. The mean age of those responding was 28, with a standard deviation of 6. In Luckadoo's (1990) study of master's level students, 69.5% of

those surveyed were from 22 to 26 years old, while only 21.7% were 29 or older. In their study of master's level students, Williams et. al. (1990) found that respondents ranged in age from 22 to 52, with a mean of 26.5, a median of 25, and a mode of 23. Sixty-three percent of those surveyed were 25 or younger, and 65% had received their baccalaureate degrees during the three academic years immediately preceding the time of the survey. The findings of these studies suggest that professional preparation programs in student affairs attract a large proportion of students who have completed their undergraduate experience at a "traditional" age, and have continued on to pursue their master's degrees soon thereafter.

In summary, the body of research on factors influencing the vocational development of future student affairs professionals during the undergraduate years is far less extensive than that dealing with the vocational development of undergraduate students in general. Nevertheless, some similarities have been observed in the process experienced by future student affairs professionals and that experienced by other undergraduate students. Both the choice of a student affairs career and the occupational values accompanying this choice appear to be influenced by elements of the undergraduate experience. It appears that participation in exploratory activities that are career-related can have a particularly powerful impact on the vocational development of future student affairs professionals, as can participation in mentoring relationships.

However, because academic training in student affairs is not available at the undergraduate level, it is necessary for future practitioners to gain this experience through participation in the

cocurricular life of their undergraduate institutions, rather than through activities within their major academic departments. It is not surprising, therefore, that during their undergraduate years, those who subsequently enter the student affairs profession tend to invest a great deal of time and energy in cocurricular activities. This tendency seems to have contributed to an image of nonintellectualism within the field. However, studies of undergraduate academic performance of student affairs professionals have revealed a capacity to perform adequately in the classroom, despite a strong commitment to cocurricular involvement. Although prior experience in student affairs has been influential in many students' decisions to enroll in professional preparation programs, it has not been found to be predictive of subsequent success in these programs.

In general, aspiring student affairs professionals represent a traditional aged undergraduate population. Although the decision to pursue a career in student affairs is typically made during the latter half of the undergraduate experience, or even after graduation, those who choose this path often undertake graduate preparation soon after completion of their undergraduate education.

The Undergraduate Experience of Today's Students

In comparing the undergraduate experience of most student affairs professionals, as well as that of college and university administrators in general, with the experience of the typical undergraduate student of today, a number of differences become obvious. As Andreas (1983, noted, "the vast majority of administrators in positions of institutional leadership experienced college as an undergraduate on residential campuses, where they spent most of their time on campus and had abundant

opportunities to create a collegiate experience replete with intellectual, social, emotional, cultural, recreational, moral, and educational experiences" (p. 10). In contrast, she noted that "the collegiate experience for many present day commuter students consists primarily of the parking lot, a faculty member in the classroom, a classroom building and its hallways, the registrar's and bursar's offices, and possibly the library and food-service facilities" (p. 10).

In recent years, the commuter experience has become increasingly common among undergraduate students, with a number of authors (Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Hardy and Williamson, 1974; Thon, 1984) reporting an increase in commuter representation on college and university campuses. According to Banning and Hughes (1986), commuters represent the largest aggregation of students in higher education. According to Harrington (1972, 1974) and Ward and Kurz (1969), fewer than half of all college students reside on campus. Schuchman (1974) stated that two-thirds of the nation's full-time college students are commuters. Other estimates of the proportion of college students who commute have ranged from 75% (Hardwick and Kazlo, in Peterson, 1975; Jacoby and Girrell, 1981) to 80% (Jacoby and Burnett, 1986; Moore, 1981; National Center for Education Statistics, 1990; Stewart and Rue, 1983).

One of the factors contributing to this rise in the number of commuter students has been the emergence of a large number of urban institutions committed to providing education for students who might previously have been denied access for either economic or academic reasons (Garni, 1974; Grobman, 1980; Harrington, 1974). As early as 1960, half of all students enrolled in the nation's degree-granting colleges and universities attended urban institutions (Harrington, 1974).

One segment of postsecondary education that has shown a particularly significant expansion in recent years consists of the two-year community colleges (Chickering, 1974; Ogilvie and Raines, 1971; Riesman and Jencks, 1979; Sanford, 1979; Schuchman, 1974). According to Monroe (1972), between 1966 and 1970, the number of community colleges increased at a rate of approximately 70 per year. Medsker and Tillery (1971) stated that between 1960 and 1970, the number of public two-year colleges almost doubled, rising from 656 to over 1,100. More recently, Flynn (1986) observed that "in just 25 years, this system has grown from a handful of institutions to more than 1,200 colleges serving in excess of 5 million students" (p. 36). He pointed out, further, that community colleges enroll more than one-half of all students entering higher education today. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1989), public institutions accounted for 78% of all students enrolled in higher education in 1988. Of this share, 36% were enrolled in two-year colleges.

These trends have been accompanied by an increase in the number of students attending colleges and universities on a part-time basis (Rodgers, 1977; Thon, 1984). According to Cross (1981), from 1966 to 1976, part-time enrollment in higher education increased by 120%, while full-time enrollment increased by only 51%. More recent figures from the National Center for Education Statistics (1989) revealed that between 1970 and 1988, the percentage of college and university students enrolled on a part-time basis rose from 32% to approximately 43%. The shift toward part-time education has been particularly pronounced within the community colleges, where even initially, part-time enrollments were generally high. Between 1970 and 1983, the percentage of community

college students enrolled on a part-time basis rose from 48% to 64%, while the increase at four-year institutions was from 20% to 23% (Carnegie Foundation, 1986b).

One class of student which, in recent years, has grown considerably in number is the older "adult" learner (Ferguson, 1966; Fife, 1980; Flynn, 1986; Gordon and Kappner, 1980; Jacoby, 1983; Morstain and Smart, 1977; Peterson, 1975; Reehling, 1980; Rodgers, 1977; Thon, 1984). According to Christensen (1980), on some campuses, older students already outnumber the 18 to 22 year old cohort. Harrington (1977) stated that, when non-credit programs are added, adult learners outnumber traditional aged students, even at the national level.

Increased participation in higher education among older students reflects a societal movement that has been dubbed the "learning society" (Arbeiter, 1976-77, p. 20; Pasciullo, 1982, pp. 1-2). Citing U.S. Census data, Leckie (1978) noted that, between 1970 and 1975, the percentage of students on college campuses over the age of 22 rose from 39% to 48%. By 1978, according to Brodzinski (1980), this figure had risen to 50.8%, with at least one third of all students being over 25. Among undergraduate students, 34% were 22 years old or older. Between 1972 and 1978, the number of college students 35 years old or older increased by 66%. Solmon and Gordon (1981), also citing U.S. Census statistics, noted that between 1972 and 1978, the percentage of college students from 25 to 34 years of age rose from 19% to 23%. During this same period, the percentage of students who were at least 35 rose from 9% to 12%. In analyzing U.S. Census statistics for the period from 1979 to 1983, O'Keefe (1985) found a 15% increase in higher education enrollment among those ages 22 through 34. He pointed out, however,

that the entire population within this particular age group increased by 12.4% during this period. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1989), between 1972 and 1986, the percentage of students in higher education who were 25 years old or older rose from 28% to 39%.

In recent years, increased attention has been focused on the adult learner, due partly to declines in the younger population from which colleges and universities have traditionally drawn their students (Flynn, 1986; Jacoby, 1983; Solmon and Gordon, 1981). During the late 1970's and early 1980's, a number of authors (Christensen, 1980; Hodgkinson, 1976) began to caution college and university administrators about projected declines in the 18 to 24 year old population during the last two decades of this century. Henderson (1977) pointed out that, between 1975 and 1985, the number of 18-year-olds in the nation would drop from approximately 4.2 million to about 3.6 million, a decline of 600,000. Citing U.S. Census figures, Brodzinski (1980) projected a 15.2% decline in the 18 to 24 year old age group between 1980 and 1990. Rhatigan (1986), also citing U.S. Census data, anticipated a 22.0% decline between 1982 and 1995. Walters (1982) projected a 24% decline by the year 2000. Shriberg (1984) estimated that the number of high school graduates would decline by approximately one-third, between the mid 1980's and mid-1990's. According to Magarrell (1981), the U.S. Census Bureau anticipated that the number of 14 to 24-year-olds enrolled in colleges and universities would decline by 803,000 between 1979 and 1990.

Despite these predictions, the National Center for Education Statistics (1989) reported a 2.4% increase in the actual number of 18 to 24-year-olds enrolled in higher education between 1980 and 1986. During this time, the participation rate within this group increased from 24.7%

to 27.4%, thus offsetting the 7.8% population decline within the group. Recent data from the U.S. Department of Education (Fact file: Projections, 1990) showed the number of high school graduates reaching a projected low of 2,485,000 in 1992, representing a decline of 296,000 from the 1989 figure. A reversal of this pattern was then expected to occur, and to continue through the remainder of the century, with the total number of high school graduates reaching 2,920,000 in the year 2000.

Nevertheless, it appears likely that in the years ahead, adult learners will continue to play an important role in higher education. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1989), the population aged 25 years and over continues to grow, and an increasing number of students may emerge from this group.

The changes that have been observed in the nation's student population have brought a number of additional changes in the typical experience of collegiate campus life. A number of authors (Andreas, 1983; Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Astin, 1984; Manning and Hughes, 1986; Ward and Kurz, 1969) have observed that commuter students tend to be less involved in their institutions, generally spending only a limited amount of time on campus. According to Schuchman (1974), the typical commuter student spends only about 15 to 20 hours per week on campus. In a study involving 862 students at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Reichard and McArver (1975) found that commuter students were less interested in spending time on campus than were their resident peers.

In another study involving 847 students at Auburn University, Burtner and Tincher (1979) found that a majority of non-resident

students returned to campus only once a week or not at all for activities that were not related to class. Additionally, a significantly higher percentage of non-resident students indicated a preference to spend as little time as possible on campus, when compared with their resident peers.

In a study of 2,112 students at the University of Minnesota's Twin Cities campus, Matross, Hannaford, Pilarski, and Jurkovic (1984) found that 79.5% of the commuter students surveyed felt they were "not at all involved" (p. 3) or "only slightly involved" (p. 3) in campus life, compared with only 39.7% of the resident students. Additionally, 60% of the commuters indicated that they returned to campus at night and on weekends no more than once a month.

A number of authors have specifically noted a tendency, on the part of community college students (Monroe, 1972), part-time students (Carnegie Foundation, 1986b), and adult learners (Solmon and Gordon, 1981; Thon, 1984), to limit their institutional involvement or the amount of non-class time that they spend on campus. In a study by Copland-Wood (1985) involving 174 students at The Pennsylvania State University, who lived more than five miles from campus and were 25 year of age or older, it was found that 58% of the respondents did not feel a part of the student body at the University.

Several authors (Andreas, 1983; Banning and Hughes, 1986; .lanagan, 1976; Glass and Hodgin, 1977; Schuchman, 1966; Ward and Kurz, 1969) have also observed that commuter students lead a divided life, interacting with both their campus and non-campus environments on a daily basis. Consequently, commuter students are less likely than resident students to engage in meaningful interaction with either faculty or other students on

their campuses (Andreas, 1983; Chickering, 1974; Demos, 1966, 1967; Flanagan, 1976; Harrington, 1972). In general, their social lives center on relationships with individuals who are not affiliated with their institutions (Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Harrington, 1974; Ward and Kurz, 1969).

In a study of students at 213 institutions, who participated in the CIRP study as freshmen in 1966 and a follow-up survey in 1970, Astin (1973) found that residence hall living provided more opportunities for professional interaction with faculty and staff. Students living in residence halls also found that their social lives tended to improve.

In their study of students at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Reichard and McArver (1975) found that while over half of the commuter students surveyed indicated that fellow students were their closest friends, many of them also maintained close friendships with individuals who were not affiliated with the University. In contrast, nearly all resident students identified fellow students as their closest friends. Nevertheless, only a fourth of the resident students indicated that the University had positively affected their social lives, compared with 37% of the commuters.

The study by Burtner and Tinch (1979), revealed that 90% of the resident students surveyed felt their closest companions were new friends whom they had met since enrolling at Auburn University. In contrast, only 71% of the non-residents described their closest companions in this way. However, it was also found that 22.4% of the non-residents associated primarily with high school friends who were also enrolled at Auburn, compared with only 6.7% of the resident students. Although non-residents were more likely than residents to associate primarily with

individuals who were not affiliated with the University, the vast majority of students in both categories appeared to have close ties with their student peers.

Another study by Pascarella (1985), involved 4,191 Caucasian students attending 74 four-year colleges, who were surveyed as freshmen in 1975 and again in 1977. The findings of this study revealed that with all other variables held constant, on-campus living had a significant direct effect on both social integration with peers and social integration with faculty. The student's place of residence had a stronger direct effect on these two variables than did any other predictor.

A number of authors (George and George, 1971; Goldberg, 1973; Graham, 1962; Medsker, 1960) have specifically observed a tendency for community and junior college students to maintain primary social ties with friends from their high schools and neighborhoods, rather than from their collegiate institutions. The failure to develop strong social ties with others on campus also appears to be common among part-time students. In a study by the Carnegie Foundation (1986b), only 47% of part-time students surveyed reported feeling a sense of community on their campuses, compared with 63% of their full-time counterparts. Similar attitudes have also been observed among adult learners. In a study involving 40 students over the age of 30, who were enrolled in certificate or degree programs at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Rawlins (1979) found that 85% of those interviewed expressed concern over the lack of opportunities for social interaction with other adult learners on campus. They reported feelings of isolation and a sense of not belonging on campus.

One of the areas in which differences between resident and commuter students have been well documented is in their patterns of cocurricular involvement. Numerous authors (Astin, 1977; Demos, 1966, 1967; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Wilmes and Quade, 1986) have dealt with the issue of low participation rates among commuter students and the difficulty encountered by student affairs professionals seeking to involve commuters in the cocurricular life of their institutions. In general, studies of resident and commuter students' patterns of cocurricular involvement have supported the authors' claims.

One notable exception was a study by Stark (1965), involving a sample of 140 men and women enrolled at a private nonsectarian university located in a midwestern city. The study revealed no significant difference between the number of resident students and the number of commuters who participated in extracurricular activities during an average week in the spring semester.

In a more recent study involving 5,351 students enrolled in a variety of different types of institutions, Chickering (1974) found that incoming freshmen differed in their levels of cocurricular achievement in high school, with resident students rating substantially higher than commuters on 11 out of 12 items. Furthermore, the results of a follow-up survey indicated that the gap between the two groups became wider, rather than narrower, over the course of the freshman year.

Another study by Foster, Sedlacek, and Hardwick (1977) involved 407 undergraduate students enrolled at the University of Maryland. The findings of this study indicated that, as compared with commuters, resident students participated in nearly twice as many recreational activities during the school year, were more satisfied with campus

recreational facilities, and were less likely to use off-campus recreational facilities.

In their study of Auburn University students, Burtner and Tincher (1979) found that 55% of resident students reported participating in many cocurricular activities, compared with only 18% of non-residents. Resident students were also more likely to be active members of service fraternities and sororities and to attend films and athletic events on campus.

A number of authors (George and George, 1971; Goldberg, 1973; Monroe, 1972) have expressed concern specifically about low levels of interest and participation in cocurricular activities at community and junior colleges. According to Graham (1962), "junior college administrators speak in terms of a successful student activities program if only ten percent of the student body participates" (p. 44).

Students entering two-year colleges are particularly unlikely to have an impressive record of past cocurricular achievement. Citing a study by the American Council of Education, Raines (1967) pointed out that students entering junior colleges are approximately one-half as likely to have been editor of a student newspaper or president of a student organization as are their counterparts at four-year institutions. Additionally, he noted that they are less likely to have published an original written work, participated in a speech contest, held a major role in a play, or to have earned a high rating in a music contest. He did point out, however, that artistic and athletic awards were received with approximately the same frequency within the two groups of students. Using information from the American College Testing Program, Richards and Braskamp (1969) concluded that two-year college

students tend to have fewer past nonacademic achievements, when compared with four-year college students, except in the area of art.

In a study of 4,009 students enrolled at 29 two-year colleges, Baird, Richards, and Shevel (1969) found that during college, these students did typically participate in several areas of cocurricular activity. However, they typically did not rate high in cocurricular achievement, by gaining public recognition for their accomplishments.

According to Solmon and Gordon (1981), participation in nonacademic activities on campus is particularly low among adult learners. In a study by Kuh and Ardaiole (1979), comparisons were drawn between students 23 years of age or older and those 17 to 20 years of age, who were attending either of two campuses of a major midwestern university, one of which was predominantly residential, the other predominantly commuter. The findings of the study revealed that older students tended to participate in cocurricular activities less than did traditional aged students. Participation rates were particularly low among adult learners at the commuter campus. In another study, Kuh and Sturgis (1980) drew comparisons between adult learners and traditional aged students at a major research university and a regional comprehensive university. Both institutions were located in the midwest and were primarily residential. The findings of the study revealed that students 25 years of age or older were less likely to participate in social or athletic cocurricular activities than were those between the ages 18 and 22. However, adult learners at the major research university were more involved in cultural and academic activities than were either adult learners at the regional comprehensive university or traditional aged students.

One common barrier to commuter student involvement is the lack of effective channels of communication on many campuses (Copland-Wood, 1985; Jacoby and Girrell, 1981; Rue, 1982; Rue and Ludt, 1983; Ward and Kurz, 1969; Wilmes and Quade, 1986). In their study of Auburn University students, Burtner and Tincher (1979) found that 28% of the non-residents surveyed disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that they were sufficiently aware of events and activities scheduled on campus, compared with only 8% of the residents surveyed. In the study of University of Minnesota students, conducted by Matross et. al. (1984), it was found that 41% of the commuters surveyed felt they were not well informed of events and activities scheduled on campus, compared with only 28% of the residents surveyed.

An additional obstacle to commuter students' involvement in campus life stems from the fact that they often have many roles other than that of a student (Andreas, 1983; Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Wilmes and Quade, 1986). This is particularly true of adult learners (Hughes, 1983; Leckie, 1978). According to Flanagan (1976) work commitments tend to be of less importance to resident students than to commuter students. However, in Stark's (1965) study of commuter and residence hall students, no significant difference was found in the percentage of students from each group who had worked for pay during an average week in the spring semester.

Work commitments appear to be quite important to students at urban institutions. As Harrington (1974) pointed out, students often choose to commute to urban institutions for financial reasons. For many students, part-time employment is a necessary means of financing their education, and opportunities for such employment are often greater in

urban areas. Ward and Kurz (1969) found that 55% of the full-time students and approximately 80% of the part-time students at Wayne State University worked during the academic year. Moreover, 41% of those employed worked 40 or more hours, and 30% worked 20 to 39 hours.

The Carnegie Foundation (1986b) also reported a high percentage of part-time students working, particularly when compared with their full-time peers. Full-time employment was particularly common among part-time students. Of those undergraduate students attending four-year institutions in 1984 on a part-time basis, 59% were employed full-time, compared with only 4% of those attending on a full-time basis. In contrast, part-time employment was more common among full-time students, 48% of whom were employed part-time, compared with only 25% of those enrolled on a part-time basis.

A large percentage of students enrolled at community and junior colleges are employed on either a part-time or full-time basis (George and George, 1971; Merlo, 1964; Raines, 1967). According to Glass and Hodgins (1977), at least half of all students commuting to community colleges hold part-time jobs. Edinger and Bell (1963) reported that 58% of the full-time junior college students in Florida during the 1961-62 academic year were employed part-time in their communities. More recently, Goldberg (1973) reported that 85% of the students attending Rhode Island Junior College worked on at least a part-time basis. He added that 49% worked almost 30 hours per week and 12% worked 40 hours per week. In the national study on which Baird et. al. (1969) reported, it was found that only 17% of those surveyed did not work while enrolled in a two-year college. Moreover, almost 30% had worked 20 or more hours per week. The National Center for Education Statistics (1990) reported

that students enrolled in four-year institutions, on the average, worked fewer hours than did their counterparts at institutions offering less than a four-year program.

The conflicting demands of work and collegiate life are particularly common among older students (Friedlander, 1980; Richter-Antion, 1986; Shriberg, 1984; Spratt, 1984). In her study of University of Nebraska students, Rawlins (1979) found that 38% of the respondents were employed part-time and 18% worked full-time. In the study by Kuh and Ardaiole (1979), 43% of the older students at the commuter campus and 27% of those at the residential campus were employed while attending school, compared with only 12% of the traditional aged students. In a study of 323 women 30 years of age or older, who were attending community colleges in Kansas, Reehling (1980) found that almost half were employed. Most of those who were employed worked 31 or more hours per week. In a national study of 9,039 students, 134 of whom were classified as adults, Solmon and Gordon (1981) found that while part-time employment was common among both adult learners and traditional aged students, the former were far more likely to have worked full-time while attending college. Twenty-three percent of those age 22 or older had worked full-time during the entire duration of their college enrollment, compared with only 2% of those under 22 years of age. In a study of 1,343 adult learners enrolled in degree programs at six campuses of a large midwestern university, Sewall (1984) found that 66% were employed, including 43% who worked full-time. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1990), those over the age of 23 accounted for 73.1% of all college students enrolled in Fall 1986 who were employed full-time, while only 32.3% of those students who were not employed were

in this age group.

In addition to work responsibilities, family obligations often pose an obstacle to commuter students' participation in campus life (Andreas and Kubik, 1980; Glass and Hodgins, 1977; Wilmes and Quade, 1986). Ward and Kurz (1969) noted a higher percentage of married students at commuter institutions, as compared with residential colleges. As an example, they cited Wayne State University, where 29% of all undergraduates were married.

Glass and Hodgins (1977) pointed out that a large percentage of community college students are also married. In a study of more than 8,000 students enrolled in six public two-year colleges in California, Medsker (1960) found that 23 percent were married. Goldberg (1973) noted that 12% of the students at Rhode Island Junior College were married. In the study by Solmon and Gordon (1981), it was found that in 1975, a majority of students in two-year institutions were married. By 1978, however, 57% of the men and 44% of the women were unmarried. By 1986, only 35.0% of those enrolled in public two-year institutions were married and only 12.8% had dependent children (National Center for Education Statistics, 1990).

Family obligations are of common concern to part-time students. According to the Carnegie Foundation (1986b), slightly more than half of all part-time students attending four-year institutions are married, compared with only 10% of their full-time counterparts. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1990), 42.4% of part-time students are married, compared with 13.2% of full-time students. Additionally, 22.0% of part-time students have dependent children, compared with 7.7% of full-time students.

The challenge of balancing family life with campus involvement is known well to the typical adult learner (Friedlander, 1980; Hughes, 1983; Kuh and Ardaiole, 1979; Rawlins, 1979; Richter-Antion, 1986; Shriberg, 1984; Thon, 1984). In fact, in a national study of American adults, 78% of whom were 25 years of age or older, Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974) found that 32% of those identified as "would be learners" (p. 46) cited home responsibilities as a barrier to their even pursuing further education. In his more recent study of adult learners, Sewall (1984) found that 61% were married and had dependent children. When asked to indicate the degree to which nine possible barriers contributed to their delay in continuing their education, 47% of the respondents indicated that family responsibilities had influenced their decisions "very much" (p. 311). When forced to choose the single most important barrier, more respondents chose this particular item than any other. Twenty-seven percent of those surveyed indicated that it was the single most important reason for their delay in college enrollment.

While much of the literature has dealt with the conflicts faced by married students who return to school, it appears that younger commuters experience other demands stemming from their ongoing interaction with their families of origin. Often commuter students are first-generation college attenders (Schuchman, 1974). Their families are not always fully supportive of their enrollment, and often do not understand the demands of college life (Richardson, 1966; Schuchman, 1966, 1974). They may expect the student to perform many household chores, to care for relatives, and possibly even to contribute to the household financially (Jacoby, 1983; Schuchman, 1966, 1974; Ward and Kurz, 1969). Furthermore, according to Schuchman (1974), many commuter students choose

to stay at home because of their own emotional ties to their families. This type of family involvement can draw the student away from full participation in campus life. As Glass and Hodgins (1977) pointed out, "[young single commuters] are often gripped by latent and manifest conflict as they are embroiled in family emotional and financial concerns" (p. 254).

For adult learners, a number of other unique barriers to campus involvement also exist. As Shriberg (1984) noted, activities which are of interest to traditional aged students are not always of interest to adult learners. According to Fitzgerald, Johnson, and Norris (1970), "the interests and activity patterns of adult, graduate, and married students have had only limited study and impact upon the campus even after two decades of influence" (p. 329). Richter-Antion (1986) added that while traditional aged students deal with the developmental tasks of young adulthood together, as a single age cohort, this is not true of older students. Because adult learners cover such a broad age range, they are not even dealing with the same concerns as one another.

Another important factor in adult learners' integration into campus life is the degree to which younger students are accepting toward them (Peabody and Sedlacek, 1982). In Rawlins' (1979) study of adult learners, a major initial concern expressed by many of the respondents was a fear of rejection, conspicuousness, or inability to communicate effectively with younger students. These concerns were dissipated, however, once the respondents actually began attending classes. Nevertheless, in a study of 215 traditional aged freshmen who were asked to respond to ten hypothetical situations involving older students, Peabody and Sedlacek (1982) found that while the students' attitudes

toward adult learners were favorable in academic or nonintimate situations, they were negative in social or intimate situations, particularly among female students. This type of attitude on the part of traditional aged students could pose a barrier to cocurricular involvement on the part of adult learners.

The life circumstances of many commuter students, particularly adult learners, not only prevent them from participating fully in the cocurricular life of their institutions, but can also prevent them from accessing various student services on their campuses. Frequently, student services offices are open only during the daytime hours, and are closed in the evening, when many nontraditional students are on campus (Friedlander, 1980). In a study of 75 two-year colleges, Medsker (1960) found that only about one third of those offering adult programs made regularly assigned counselors available to evening students. A number of authors (Rawlins, 1979; Sewall, 1984; Shriberg, 1984) have stressed the importance of making services such as counseling and registration more accessible to adult learners.

Thon (1984) speculated that adult learners may actually be less interested in student services, when compared with their traditional aged counterparts. He pointed out that many of these students' nonacademic needs are adequately served by their families and communities. However, in her study of adult learners at the University of Nebraska, Rawlins (1979) found that a number of the respondents desired greater assistance in the registration process, as well as improved services in the areas of financial aid, advising, child care, and housing.

Burtner and Tincher (1979) found that over 70% of both resident and

nonresident students included in their study felt that financial counseling services and placement services for both full-time and part-time employment were strongly needed and should be provided by the institution. More than 80% of both groups felt that vocational guidance was strongly needed and should be provided by the institution. Sixty percent of the residents and 55% of the nonresidents felt the institution should provide personal counseling services.

Matross et. al. (1984) found that a large number of both resident students and commuters would use administrative services between the hours of 4:30 and 7:00 if they were available. Even during the extended hours, however, resident students were more likely to use these services than were commuters.

A number of studies have indicated that counseling services in particular are used by commuter students, including adult learners and those enrolled part-time, when these services are made available and are known to them. In the study by Burtner and Tincher (1979), it was found that 36% of the residents surveyed had used the University Counseling Services, compared with only 19% of the nonresidents. However, 30% of the nonresidents indicated that they were unaware of the availability of these services, compared with only 17% of the residents. Solmon and Gordon (1981) found that those 22 year of age or over made greater use of counseling services than did younger students. This was true for all types of services, including academic, vocational, and personal counseling. Results of a Carnegie Foundation (1986b) study indicated that while 73% of both full-time and part-time students had received academic advising, other advising services were more frequently used by full-time students.

While nontraditional students have sometimes made use of the counseling services available to them, they have not been universally satisfied with these services. The study by Solmon and Gordon (1981) revealed that only 25% of the older respondents were very satisfied with the counseling received. However, the younger students were even less satisfied, with only about 15% indicating that they were very satisfied. In the Carnegie Foundation (1986b) study, it was found that part-time students were consistently less satisfied with advising services than were full-time students.

Additionally, resident students and commuters have been found to differ in their overall satisfaction with the college experience. In Astin's (1973) study, living in a residence hall was found to increase the likelihood that students would be satisfied with the undergraduate experience in general, particularly in relation to interpersonal contact with faculty members and other students. In Chickering's (1974) study of the freshman year experience, commuter students were found to be significantly less satisfied with their colleges than were resident students. They were also less likely to plan on returning and studying full-time. Commuter students' ratings on these variables were lower than predicted, based on entering characteristics.

Baird et. al. (1969), in their study of two-year college students, found that while the respondents were generally satisfied with the quality of teaching that they received and their preparation for further education, they were considerably less satisfied with the quality of social life on their campuses. Only 22.9% of those surveyed indicated that they were very satisfied with this aspect of their experience, and 22.6% indicated that they were dissatisfied with it.

In the Carnegie Foundation (1986b) study, 80% of part-time students reported being satisfied with their overall college education, compared with 79% of full-time students. However, only 73% of part-time students stated that they were satisfied with the overall college experience, compared with 80% of full-time students.

Adult learners were less likely to feel support and an emphasis on self-understanding within their campus environments than were younger students, in the study by Kuh and Sturgis (1980). The authors concluded that "the difference in environmental perceptions between traditional age students and adult learners suggested that these two groups have different needs of expectations and that these concerns are not being adequately met for older students" (p. 489).

In contrast, however, Solmon and Gordon (1981) found that older students were more satisfied with the college experience than were younger students. While satisfaction levels were high within both groups, 58% of those age 22 or over indicated that they were very satisfied with the experience, compared with only 51% of those under age 22.

In recent years, the student affairs profession has become increasingly attentive to serving the needs of nontraditional student populations. This concern has drawn attention to the need for representation of these populations within the profession itself. Shriberg (1984) specifically emphasized the need for older staff members to deal with the needs of adult learners. In response to a predicted rise in the number of both minority students and adult learners on college campuses, Rodgers (1977) stated that "since there is growing evidence that people can work most easily, at least initially, with

persons similar to themselves, this may mean that we should admit larger percentages of these 'new' students into our professional preparation programs" (p. 22).

In summary, as the student affairs profession attempts to deal with the issue of regeneration, consideration should be given to factors influencing the recruitment of nontraditional students into the field. Growing numbers of part-time students, adult learners, and traditional aged commuter students have begun attending the nation's colleges and universities. Community colleges and four-year urban institutions have grown considerably in recent years, making higher education accessible to many students who would previously have been unable to attend. With declines in the nation's traditional college aged population, many residential campuses have also begun to focus on serving the needs of adult learners and other nontraditional students. These students may constitute a large pool of prospective student affairs professionals, that has heretofore remained largely untapped.

Traditional means of introduction to the profession have generally bypassed this particular segment of the undergraduate population. Experiences identified as significant in the vocational development of current practitioners have generally not been shared by these individuals. Research has generally shown that part-time students, adult learners, and commuter students tend to be relatively uninvolved in the life of their institutions. They often spend only a limited amount of time on campus, and socialize primarily with individuals who are not affiliated with their institutions. Participation in cocurricular activities is particularly low among nonresident students, due largely to the demands of work and family life, as well as limited awareness of

campus events. For adult learners, several additional barriers to involvement exist, including a lack of shared interests and receptivity on the part of younger students. In some cases, nontraditional students also have limited access to student services, and direct interaction with those who provide these services. Often, they are also less satisfied with their undergraduate experiences, particularly their experiences outside of the classroom.

These individuals have typically enjoyed few of the experiences that inspire interest in student affairs careers, and perhaps more importantly, that provide information about the field as a career alternative. If current professionals hope to recruit future colleagues from this growing constituency, alternative means of introduction to the profession must be explored.

Alternative Means of Introduction to the Student Affairs Profession

In recent years, the student affairs profession has begun to shift greater attention toward active recruitment of future practitioners. A major force in this movement has been Commission XII of the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), which is charged with promoting excellence in the preparation of student affairs professionals. This body has established a Task Force on Recruitment, which has emphasized the need to attract a diverse population into the profession during the years ahead (Champagne, 1988).

In 1987, the Association initiated an annual event, "National Careers in Student Affairs Week" (Keegan, 1989, p. 1). During the designated week, student affairs professionals on numerous campuses have planned special activities to promote awareness of career opportunities

in the field. Specific strategies have included open houses in student affairs departments and academic departments offering professional preparation programs, in addition to campus-wide resource fairs, receptions, information sessions, bulletin boards, and mentoring programs (National week, 1988).

Thompson, Carpenter, and Rausch (1990) described a non-credit course offered to interested students at Texas A&M University. The course consisted of three sessions of approximately three hours each, which provided an introduction to the profession, including information about professional preparation programs. Students were also given an opportunity to explore their own personal styles and work values in relation to the profession.

In 1989, ACPA co-sponsored a pilot program with the University of Vermont and the University of Maryland. The program consisted of a regional recruiting event, designed to introduce undergraduate students in the northeastern United States to the student affairs profession and to various professional preparation programs. The program was directed primarily toward minority students (Keegan, 1989).

The booklet, Careers in the College Student Personnel Profession (Knock and Rentz, In press) was written to provide general information about the profession. It was directed specifically toward undergraduate students considering careers in student affairs. It included information about the history and philosophy of the profession, educational requirements for entry, roles and responsibilities of student affairs professionals, and an overview of specific functional areas.

Career Perspectives in Student Affairs (Kirby and Woodard, 1984) provided an examination of career-related issues of concern to

professionals with varying lengths of tenure in the field. However, it also included information of concern to undergraduate students still considering entry into the field.

Recently, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), in conjunction with ACPA, appointed a Task Force on Professional Preparation and Practice. After examining issues related to the recruitment of new professionals, the Task Force presented the following recommendations (Recruitment, preparation, 1989, pp. 16-18):

1. Launch a sustained, national campaign among current members of the profession to increase sensitivity to and acceptance of their professional obligation for identifying and recruiting promising people into graduate preparation programs.
2. Develop a highly sophisticated multimedia recruitment effort which would target a number of different audiences for the purpose of informing them about the field of student affairs as an attractive and viable career choice, appropriate undergraduate and graduate studies, and experiences which are appropriate to satisfying careers and successful practice.
3. Continue and further refine the initiatives of the National Careers in Student Affairs Week directed toward recruiting undergraduates into the profession as a basic functional responsibility of the division of student affairs and graduate preparation faculty on campuses.
4. NASPA and ACPA should begin a scholarship program to provide grants to outstanding students from under-represented groups to pursue graduate study at both masters and doctoral levels. ACPA and NASPA should encourage other professional associations to do likewise.
5. ACPA and NASPA should commission a series of national studies to promote a more systematic understanding of the nature of professional employment in student affairs including compensation, work environments and the nature and opportunities for career advancement.
6. Adopt specific marketing strategies aimed at informing the most relevant publics of the profession of the field's benefits to students and faculty in higher education, and to reverse the current lack of image or invisibility.

7. Encourage local student affairs divisions to hold frequent recognition programs on campus that highlight the work of student affairs professionals.
8. Encourage local student affairs professionals to involve undergraduate and graduate students in their work whenever possible, going beyond assisting students in their projects to include students in professional activities.
9. Advocate the expansion of graduate assistantship positions beyond the traditional areas of residence halls, student activities, and student unions to include admissions, financial aid, academic advising, recreation and intramural sports, student records, health services, and other student affairs sites.
10. Encourage all professional associations to hold career sessions during their regular conferences designed both for potential and current professionals.
11. Advocate through student affairs professional associations that student affairs divisions in colleges and universities should organize and budget for recruiting and staff development as a normal function of their operation.
12. Offer incentives for the most successful marketing and recruitment activities both at the local and national levels.
13. Produce and disseminate attractive career materials for all levels of education, including K-12, high school, and college.
14. Create financial incentives (fee/tuition remission, time off) for student affairs professionals to pursue part-time and full-time graduate studies on or off campus at the masters and doctoral levels.
15. Offer, following the ACUHO-I model, paid summer internships (away from the home campus) to undergraduates who have been identified as being particularly promising in careers in student affairs.
16. Utilize campus student leadership courses for identifying promising students and for exposing them to opportunities in the field and to graduate preparation programs.
17. Persuade student affairs professionals who work on campuses with graduate preparation programs to achieve full integration of practice and preparation.
18. Encourage graduate educators to provide superior preparation that links theory with practice, research knowledge with conventional wisdom, and materialistic career ambitions with altruistic purpose for all students in graduate preparation

programs. (Reprinted by permission of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1989)

Despite the profession's increased attention toward alternative recruitment strategies, there appears to have been little research conducted, relative to the effectiveness of these strategies. In the study by Williams et. al. (1990), it was found that sources of information which did not involve personal interaction with current professionals or direct participation in activities related to the field were not particularly influential in graduate students' decisions to enter the field. The three sources of information that were identified as least helpful were career counselors, brochures about the profession, and academic or faculty advisors. However, it is not clear from this study whether these sources of information are truly ineffective as a means of introduction to the profession, or whether the students' responses simply reflect the fact that few individuals are introduced to the profession in this way.

Because researchers have relied primarily on retrospective reporting of influential factors in the vocational development of student affairs professionals, it is not surprising that traditional sources of information have been widely cited as influential. There appears to have been no experimental research on the influence of nontraditional sources of information on undergraduate students who have not otherwise been exposed to the profession through their activities. There also appears to have been no research on possible differences in majority and minority students' responses to various sources of information. Perhaps most importantly, there appears to have been no attempt to determine the degree to which information about student affairs careers influences students differentially, based on their levels

of compatibility with the profession. During the years ahead, research in this area could play a key role in the profession's attempts to develop a steady supply of new and relatively young members for the profession, and to attract and maintain a group of individuals representing the growing diversity of the American collegiate population and the nation as a whole.

Chapter Summary

This chapter contained a review of the literature related to the regeneration of the student affairs profession. Studies of the regenerative patterns of the profession in recent years revealed a decline in the number of new students entering professional preparation programs, coupled with a high rate of attrition from the field.

The challenges posed by this situation were explored in relation to a career development theory proposed by Holland. This theory asserted that personality types and work environments can be classified according to prevailing interests and work values. According to this theory, both initial attraction to a profession and subsequent success and satisfaction in the chosen field are influenced by the degree of compatibility between the personality type and the environmental type. Studies of student affairs professionals' perceptions of occupational rewards have revealed that interpersonal contact is a primary reward for those engaged in this type of work, while occupation status and salary are generally poor motivators. Current professionals' areas of academic interest have often included the social sciences, education, and the humanities. Studies of today's undergraduate students have generally revealed a tendency toward greater materialism and pragmatism. Over the past 20 years, students have become less likely to pursue traditional

graduate studies, and have become more likely to study business as undergraduates and to pursue business careers upon graduation.

Issues related to race and ethnicity were also explored.

Projections of the nation's racial and ethnic composition during the years ahead revealed an increase in the proportion of Americans representing minority groups. The need for racial and ethnic diversity within the student affairs profession was stressed in much of the professional literature. Studies of minority representation within the profession have generally revealed progress over the course of the past 20 years, particularly in public institutions. However, levels of minority enrollment in professional preparation programs have shown some declines in recent years. Patterns of minority representation in higher education have raised additional cause for concern. While minority representation in the general population has increased in recent years, representation in higher education, particularly at the graduate level has remained relatively low.

The influence of the undergraduate experience on students' vocational development was also explored in this chapter. In general, studies of the vocational development of undergraduate students have revealed a number of factors in the undergraduate experience that can be influential. Interaction with faculty appears to play a critical role in many students' vocational development. Studies of the undergraduate experiences of current student affairs professionals have generally revealed that career-related activities and personal interaction with mentors are also influential in their vocational development during this period. However, because academic programs in student affairs are not offered below the graduate level, much of the future practitioner's

development is influenced by activities that occur outside of the classroom. In view of this pattern, recent changes in the typical undergraduate student profile raise additional cause for concern. Today, growing numbers of part-time students, adult learners, and traditional aged commuters are enrolling in American colleges and universities. Studies of these students' levels of involvement in their institutions have generally revealed a limited sense of affiliation with the campus, and particularly low levels of participation in cocurricular activities.

In recent years, the student affairs profession has begun to place greater emphasis on alternative means of recruiting future practitioners. A number of creative approaches have been employed on various campuses, as well as at the regional and national levels. However, there appears to have been little research on the effectiveness of these strategies for recruiting future professionals. In reviewing the literature, it becomes apparent that there is a need for experimental research on the influence of career-related information on the vocational development of prospective student affairs professionals.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of exposure to printed materials related to careers in student affairs on the level of interest in such careers among undergraduate students enrolled in two leadership training courses at Michigan State University. The study dealt specifically with the relationship between students' responses to this exposure and their compatibility with the profession, based on Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) theory of career development.

The study also examined the degree to which compatibility with the profession and a favorable response to the presentation of information about the field are related to various student characteristics. Specific factors which were examined included: residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Possible differences in students' responses to the presentation of information, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds, were also explored.

This chapter includes an overview of the methodology employed in the investigation. Information is presented on the subjects, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and statistical analyses which were used.

Subjects

The subjects included 177 students enrolled in two undergraduate student leadership training courses at Michigan State University during winter of 1991. One hundred fifty-six (88%) of these students were enrolled in a course dealing with the general topic of leadership. The remaining 21 students were enrolled in a course dealing specifically

with minorities in leadership. The general course was taught in seven sections, each with an enrollment of approximately 25 students. The special topic course was taught in one section, which also enrolled approximately 25 students. Each course section was taught by a different instructor or team of instructors.

A common syllabus was used for all sections of the general leadership course. Topics covered in the course included: leadership theory, personal management, communication, diversity and leadership, values and ethics, group and relationship dynamics, and making groups work. The special topic course provided a more detailed analysis of these issues, with special attention to the influence of cultural differences on leadership and the interpersonal dynamics of groups.

Of those enrolled in the two courses, 181 were initially available for participation in the study. Of these individuals, 179 chose to participate. Of the original participants, one was disqualified from continued participation due to graduate student status, and one chose to withdraw prior to the close of the study and was therefore excluded from all analyses. Ninety-eight percent of those available and qualified for participation in the study were included.

Instrumentation

The Extracurricular Involvement Inventory

The first instrument used in this study, the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII), was developed by Massaro and Winston for the purpose of measuring the intensity of students' cocurricular involvement. The developers of the instrument explained the concept of intensity of involvement as follows (Winston and Massaro, 1987, p. 171):

The intensity of involvement is the product of the interaction of

the quality and quantity of effort. In terms of involvement in student groups and organizations, the quantity dimension can be measured by the amount of time (number of hours) devoted to an activity. The quality dimension, although more difficult to measure, includes aspects of physical presence, public affirmation of affiliation, degree of psychological investment in success of the organization, and contributions to goal accomplishment.

The EII is a questionnaire that consists of 15 items. The first six items request information about the student's age, gender, ethnic background, class standing, marital status, and residency. The remaining items pertain to the student's involvement in cocurricular activities for which he or she is not compensated. The Inventory includes items dealing with both the quantity and quality dimensions of involvement (See Appendix A for complete instrument).

The instrument has a test-retest reliability of .97 at two weeks. In a validation study involving two groups of college students who also completed the Clubs and Organizations (C&O) scale from Pace's College Student Experiences questionnaire, significant correlations between students' scores on the two instruments were found for both groups. In a related study, students with high, medium, and low EII scores were compared, using one-way analysis of variance, with C&O scores as the dependent variable. In this study, a significant difference was found between the low scoring group and the other two groups, though no significant difference was found between the medium and high scoring groups, suggesting that the EII may be more sensitive than the C&O scale in measuring levels of involvement at the upper end of the continuum (Winston and Massaro, 1987).

The Vocational Preference Inventory

The second instrument used in the study was the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) - 1985 Revision, developed by Holland. It is

a 15 to 30 minute personality-interest inventory, consisting of 160 "Yes" or "No" items. The instrument yields scores on 11 scales: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional, Self-Control, Masculinity/Femininity, Status, Infrequency, and Acquiescence. For purposes of this study, however, the instrument was adapted to include only 84 items, those which pertain to the first six scales (See Appendix B for abridged instrument).

Studies of the VPI - Seventh [1977] Revision showed the first six scales of the instrument having internal consistencies ranging from .85 to .91 for men and .86 to .91 for women (Holland, 1985b). A study of the VPI - Sixth [1968] Revision, involving adult women, revealed test-retest reliabilities for the first six scales ranging from .65 to .83 at two weeks, and .57 to .84 at two months (Harvey, in Holland, 1985b). A study of the VPI - Sixth Revision, involving college seniors, showed test-retest reliabilities for the first six scales ranging from .74 to .98 at six weeks, while a similar study, involving college freshmen, produced figures ranging from .61 to .86 at one year. Finally, in a study of the VPI - Sixth Revision, involving National Merit finalists, four year test-retest reliability coefficients for the first six scales ranged from .47 to .61 for men and .45 to .56 for women (Holland, 1985b).

Numerous studies have been conducted on the validity of the instrument, with generally supportive findings. Holland (1985a) summarized the results of more than 400 studies of the personal characteristics associated with each of the six basic personality types presented in his theory of career development. The majority of these studies supported the theoretical foundation for the first six scales of

the VPI.

In a study of college students, conducted by Holland (1968), high point codes on the VPI - Sixth Revision were correlated with data from the Preconscious Activity Scale, the Interpersonal Competency Scale, the Dogmatism Scale, the Student Orientation Survey - Form C, and additional questionnaires. The findings of the study revealed that student characteristics, including competencies, life goals, and personality and attitudinal scales, were generally associated with appropriate Holland personality types.

In a study, involving female high school students, Rezler (1967) correlated the ten scales of the VPI - Fifth [1965] Revision with the ten scales of the Kuder Preference Record, and found 29 significant relationships for juniors and 44 for seniors. The relationships that occurred were in the expected directions.

In a study involving male college freshmen, Lee and Hedahl (1973) analyzed students' scores on the 22 Basic Interest Scales (BIS) of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) for differences in the students' scores on the first six scales of the VPI - Sixth Revision. Significant relationships were found on 21 of the 22 scales. Most of the relationships were in accordance with Holland's theory. However, in a study by Cockriel (1972), involving female freshmen in a college of education, the BIS and the first six scales of the VPI were not found to be highly correlated. Specific scales on the two instruments which were expected to be highly correlated were significantly correlated, though at a lower level than anticipated.

In a study of male graduate students, Williams (1972) found that students' scores on the first six scales of the VPI - Fifth Revision were

appropriately related to their fields of study. Results from the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, the Miller Occupational Values Indicator, and the Cattell and Eber Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire were also related to students' chosen fields in ways that were consistent with Holland's theory.

In one study by Hughes (in Holland, 1985b), the VPI was administered to a sample of adult men. In this study, the occupational groups of 42% of the sample were correctly identified by their VPI profiles. In a study of individuals ranging in age from 50 to 88 years, Warren, Winer, and Dailey (1981) found that VPI high-point codes were consistent with the participants' work histories. Additionally, several studies have revealed significant relationships between VPI scales and employee satisfaction within specific occupations. Several studies of high school and college students have also shown relationships between VPI scales and students' choices of occupations and major fields of study, in addition to their persistence and achievement within certain curricula. Holland (1985b) provided a summary of the findings from these studies.

In addition to its concurrent validity, the predictive validity of the VPI has been examined in several studies. In a longitudinal study, involving high school students designated as National Merit Scholars, Holland (1962) found that VPI scores correctly predicted the college majors of 36.7% of the girls and 45% of the boys. The scores also correctly predicted the career choices of 35.1% of the girls and 48% of the boys. In a study of college students, Holland and Lutz (1968) found that students' high-point codes on the VPI - Sixth Revision were predictive of major choices at rates of 21.5 to 51.4% after approximately

one year.

Although most of the research on the VPI has involved predominantly Caucasian sample groups, several studies have explored possible irregularities in VPI outcomes, related to racial or ethnic differences. The results of these studies have not followed a consistent pattern. In one study by Yom, Doughtie, Chang, Alston, and Wakefield (1975), factor analysis of VPI scores for a sample of Black and White college students revealed a considerable degree of similarity between the variables measured by the VPI scales for the two groups. However, in a study of a predominantly Black sample of disadvantaged college students, Williams and Whitney (1978) found discrepancies in correlations between the VPI scales, when compared with those presented by Holland et. al. (1969). Among women, only minor differences were found. However, among men, the relationship of the artistic scale to the other five scales differed dramatically from that which Holland presented. In a study of Black and White women, who possessed college degrees and were working in the fields of law, medicine, and engineering, Walsh, Bingham, Horton, and Spokane (1979) found that within a single profession, women of both races were very similar in their VPI scores. In a similar study of Black and White working women, who did not possess college degrees, Walsh, Hildebrand, Ward, and Matthews (1983) found that women of different races within a single occupation were more different than similar in their VPI scores. However, in this case, the scores of Black women were more consistent with predictions than were those of White women.

The Student Information Questionnaire

The third instrument used in this study, the Student Information Questionnaire, consists of thirteen items. The first two items solicit

information about the student's current employment status, and the remaining items deal with his or her level of familiarity with the student affairs profession, likelihood of entering the field, and likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field (See Appendix C for complete instrument).

The instrument was initially developed by the investigator in October, 1989. The original instrument, which consisted of five items, was reviewed by two other doctoral students in College and University Administration at Michigan State University, both of whom were employed in a student services capacity at the University. The questionnaire was then administered to 23 undergraduate students enrolled in a course at the University, dealing with leadership in fraternities and sororities. At that time, students were asked to evaluate the instrument for clarity of meaning and ease of completion. The results of the initial pilot study were then reviewed by the researcher and the two other doctoral students, and the instrument was revised accordingly. In November, 1989, the revised questionnaire was administered to 25 undergraduate students at the University, who were enrolled in the general student leadership training course. Again, students completing the instrument were asked to evaluate it for clarity of meaning and ease of completion. The results of the second pilot study were then reviewed by the researcher and the two other doctoral students, and further revisions were made. In February, 1990, the questionnaire was administered to a different group of students enrolled in the general leadership course. Twenty-one students were in this group. All of the items included in the questionnaire were found to be sufficiently clear and easily completed at that time.

In November, 1990, the instrument was reviewed by four faculty members of the College of Education at Michigan State University, three of whom held appointments in the Department of Educational Administration with specialization in College and University Administration, and one of whom held an appointment in the Department of Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education with specialization in Educational Systems Development. Based upon their recommendations, the instrument was expanded to include four additional items dealing with the student's likelihood of engaging in various behaviors associated with interest in pursuing a career in the field of student affairs and four additional items dealing with his or her likelihood of engaging in several specific behaviors associated with the decision to pursue graduate study in the field. The additional items were reviewed by the member of the Department of Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education, and two of the three members of the Department of Educational Administration. Two alternative layouts were developed, with items on both versions being substantially the same. In December, 1990, the two revised versions of the instrument were administered to 19 students enrolled in one section of the general student leadership training course. At that time, all items were found to be sufficiently clear and easily completed, and a consensus emerged within the class, in favor of one format over the other.

The final version of the instrument was then administered to 18 students enrolled in a separate section of the general leadership course during the last two class periods of the fall term of 1990. The interval between the two class periods was two days. Subsequent analysis of the data collected at that time revealed an overall

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test-retest reliability of .47 for the first scale, which dealt with interest in pursuing a student affairs career. An overall reliability of .58 was found for the second scale, which dealt with interest in pursuing a master's degree in the field. The reliability of individual items ranged from $-.08$ to $.54$ on the first scale, and from $-.07$ to $.72$ on the second scale (See Appendix K for reliability of individual items).

The College Student Affairs & Services
Career Interest Questionnaire

The fourth instrument used in this study, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire, consists of an abbreviated version of the third instrument. It includes only those items pertaining to the likelihood of entering a graduate preparation program in student affairs and the likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career. It serves as a post-test for use in conjunction with the Student Information Questionnaire (See Appendix D for abbreviated questionnaire).

The instrument was initially developed by the investigator in February, 1990, based on the results of earlier pilot studies on the Student Information Questionnaire. The College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire was again revised in December, 1990, in accordance with subsequent revisions of the Student Information Questionnaire. The College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire was reviewed by a member of the faculty of the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University shortly after the final revision.

The College Student Affairs & Services

Career Information Questionnaire

The fifth instrument used in the investigation, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire, consists of three questions. The first item requests that students indicate whether or not they have read any information about the student affairs profession during the seven weeks preceding completion of the instrument. The second two items are open-ended questions soliciting information about the nature of any materials read and the student's reactions to these materials. The purpose of the instrument is to determine whether or not the amount of information that is actually assimilated by students differs, based upon their assignment to either of two conditions, and to assess students' levels of satisfaction with the information that is available to them. The instrument was developed by the investigator in December, 1990, and then reviewed by a member of the faculty of the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University (See Appendix E for instrument).

Data Collection Procedures

The design which was employed in the experimental component of the investigation is known as a "pretest-posttest control group design." According to this design, subjects are randomly assigned to either of two groups. One of the groups, the experimental group, then receives a particular treatment, while the remaining group, the control group, receives no treatment. Observations of both groups before and after the application of the treatment become the basis of comparison between the two groups. This design has been widely recommended in the methodological literature, because it can be used to control for a number common sources

of internal invalidity including the effects of: maturation, history, testing, changes in instrumentation, statistical regression, biases in selection procedures, differential attrition from comparison groups, and selection-maturation interaction (Campbell and Stanley, 1963).

In this particular experiment, instructors of the two leadership training courses provided assistance in the collection of the pre- and post-test data. The instructors were not informed of whether students had been assigned to the experimental or control group. This procedure was adopted in order to reduce the likelihood of subjects being influenced by biases, either in the instruction of the course or in the collection of data.

The nature and purpose of the study were first explained to the instructors during a training meeting, conducted in December, 1990. At that time, a written description of the investigation was also provided. In a subsequent training meeting, conducted in January, 1991, instructors received all materials necessary for data collection. Copies of the five instruments used in the study were provided for all students enrolled in their classes. A copy of the student identification form, letter to the student, and consent form was also provided for each student. Each instructor also received a complete set of written instructions for administering the various instruments, and an instructor's report form for each phase of the study (See Appendix G for instructor's directions, instructor's report forms, student identification form, letter to the student, and consent form). A copy of the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) Manual - 1985 Edition (Holland, 1985b) was also provided for each instructor.

A copy of the eight-page booklet, You and Your Career (Holland,

1985c), was provided to each instructor for each student enrolled in his or her class. This publication provides information on the Holland typology and career decision-making strategies. Instructors also received copies of two Michigan State University publications, the Career Planning Guide (1990) and the Graduate/Professional School Preparation Guide & Checklist (1989), for distribution to the students in their classes. The former document consists of an eight-page brochure outlining the career planning process. The latter consists of a 20 page booklet and pull-out poster, which deal with graduate and professional school selection, preparation, and application processes. In addition to these materials, each instructor received a limited number of copies of the Self-Directed Search, a self-scored instrument developed by Holland, which yields results similar to those obtained on the first six scales of the VPI.

In accordance with the directions provided to the instructors, students received a standardized verbal explanation of the study during a class period within the first two weeks of the term. At that time, all students also received copies of You and Your Career (Holland, 1985c). During the data gathering period, those students who chose not to participate were given an opportunity to complete the Self-Directed Search.

Students interested in participating in the study were first given a blank envelope, a letter from the researcher, and a consent form. They were asked to read the letter. If they still wished to participate, they were asked to sign the consent form and place it in the envelope..

The student identification forms were then distributed by the instructors. Information provided on the forms included the student's

name, address, mother's maiden name, and the last four digits of his or her student identification number. Students were informed that the information requested would be used for cross-referencing documents, and for possible follow-up communication. Students were also informed that their VPI results would be made available to them through their instructors, upon completion of the study. Students wishing to receive a score report were asked to so indicate on the student identification form. Once the students completed the forms, they were asked to place them in the envelopes.

The Student Information Questionnaire was then distributed, along with a set of written directions (See Appendix C for instrument and instructions). Instructors then verbally presented directions for completing the questionnaire to the students, and asked that they complete the form at that time. Once completed, the students placed their questionnaires in the envelopes. The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) was then distributed (See Appendix B for instrument). Instructors read the directions for completing the VPI to the students, who then completed the instrument. Completed VPI's were also placed in the envelopes. Finally, the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII) was distributed (See Appendix A for instrument). Instructors verbally presented directions for completing the EII to the students, who then completed the inventory. Once completed, students placed the EII's in the envelopes, and returned their entire packets to the instructors. Each instructor then hand delivered the packets from his or her class to the investigator.

After the packets had been returned, approximately half of the students who had completed usable identification forms, VPI's, EII's,

and Student Information Questionnaires were randomly assigned to the experimental group (n=89). The remaining students served as a control group (n=90).

According to Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1978), in conducting experimental research, random assignments should be made at the smallest unit possible. Because in this case the focus of the intervention was on the student, random assignments were made at the individual level rather than at the classroom level. This type of assignment was possible because the experimental treatment was one which could be randomly distributed within one functioning group. Campbell and Stanley (1966) noted that such an assignment pattern can create a common "intrasession history" (p. 14) for both the experimental and control groups, thus reducing the likelihood of confounding variables occurring.

The assignment of individuals to the experimental and control groups was accomplished using a stratified random selection technique known as "blocking." This technique involves the random assignment of an equal number of units to the experimental and control groups from within "blocks" of units which are formed on the basis of one or more key variables. This technique is useful when certain entering characteristics are likely to affect the results of an experiment (Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, 1978).

In this study, students were blocked on the basis of their course sections, in order to further control for the effect of unique group experiences within each section. Students were also blocked on the basis of their own ratings of their initial familiarity with the student affairs profession, since this particular variable related directly to the conditions of the experiment. The two blocks which were

formed on this basis consisted of those students rating their familiarity with the profession as "Moderate," "High," or "Very high" (n=93), and those rating their familiarity with the profession as "Low" or "Very low" (n=85).

Three weeks after completion of the first three assessment instruments, each student assigned to the experimental group was mailed a copy of an informational booklet written by the investigator, along with a cover letter encouraging him or her to explore career possibilities in student affairs (See Appendix G for cover letter and booklet).

During the last two weeks of the term, instructors administered the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire to all students participating in the study (See Appendix D for instrument) . The instrument was distributed to students during a class period. Written instructions appeared on the instrument itself, and a verbal explanation was given by the instructors. Each participating student also received an envelope, in which to place the completed instrument. After the students had completed the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire and placed it in the envelope, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire was distributed (See Appendix E for instrument). Written instructions were provided on this instrument as well, and a verbal explanation was given by the instructors. Once the instrument was completed, it was placed in the envelope and returned to the instructor. All completed instruments were then hand delivered to the investigator by the instructors.

Instructors were contacted by telephone one week prior to the date scheduled for the second phase of data collection, to remind them about it, and to provide any necessary clarification of instructions. At that

time, VPI score reports were also made available to the instructors for all students in their classes who had requested them. A memorandum was enclosed with the score reports, in order to provide clarification of procedures for distribution and interpretation of the reports (See Appendix H for memorandum to instructors). Instructors also received descriptive materials drawn from the Second Edition of Making Vocational Choices (Holland, 1985, pp. 19-23), which provided an overview of the six basic Holland personality types. Score reports were not distributed to students until after they had completed their participation in the study, in order to reduce the likelihood of the posttest results being influenced by the information presented in the reports. Upon completion of the students' participation in the study, copies of the Career Planning Guide (1990) were provided for all students enrolled in the two courses. Additionally, copies of the Graduate/Professional School Preparation Guide & Checklist (1989) were provided to those students considering graduate or professional school attendance.

In addition to the one student who was disqualified from continued participation in the study due to graduate student status and the one student who chose to withdraw from the study, 10 students were not available for participation in the second phase of the experiment. Therefore, the overall number of participants in the study was reduced to 177 and the number participating in the experimental component of the investigation was reduced to 167. Of these individuals, 83 had been assigned to the experimental group and 84 had been assigned to the control group.

Scoring the Data

Each student's three highest scores on the VPI were used to determine his or her individual personality pattern, which was then compared with the composite pattern representing the general orientation of the profession, using a system devised by Iachan (1984), which places a weighted value on matched scales, based on their placement within the three letter configuration. These values are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Illustrative Weights for Assessing Agreement Between Two Three-Letter Codes

Code 1 (composite profile of profession)	Code 2 (individual student profile)		
	First letter	Second letter	Third letter
First letter (S)	22	10	4
Second letter (E)	10	5	2
Third letter (A)	4	2	1

Note. Adapted from "A Measure of Agreement for Use with the Holland Classification System" by R. Iachan, 1984, Journal of Vocational Behavior, 24, p. 135. Copyright 1984 by Academic Press, Inc. All rights of reproduction in any form reserved. Adapted and reproduced with permission.

The measure of agreement between students' personality patterns and the composite pattern for the profession was calculated as the sum of the weighted values assigned to each matched scale within the two codes. This value was then used to divide all of the students included in the study into three categories of approximately equal size, labeled "High" (n=58), "Medium" (n=56), and "Low" (n=63). These designations were used to

identify students' levels of compatability with the profession.

The EII was used to obtain an extracurricular involvement index for each student. The students were then divided, according to their involvement indices, into three categories of approximately equal size, also labeled "High" (n=58), "Medium" (n=58) and "Low" (n=61). These classifications were used to describe students' levels of cocurricular involvement.

Students were divided into two categories based on their responses to the third item on the EII, which deals with racial or ethnic background. Those identifying themselves as "White or Caucasian" formed one category (n=126). The second category was composed of those identifying themselves as "Black or Afro-American," "Hispanic," "Oriental or Asian-American," or "Indian or Native People" (n=46). The consolidation of minority classes was necessary due to limited representation within individual categories.

Those students of at least sophomore status were also divided into two categories based on their responses to the sixth item on the EII, which deals with residency. The purpose of the two categories was to distinguish between those students who were participating in a traditional residential undergraduate experience and those who were not. Therefore, the first category was defined as those describing their housing as "Single-sex college residence hall," "Coed college residence hall," or "Fraternity/Sorority House" (n=78). The second category consisted of those describing their housing as "At home with parent(s)," "At home with spouse," or "In apartment/house/trailer [not with parent(s) or spouse]" (n=82). Freshmen were excluded from this segment of the investigation because of the University's freshman residency requirement,

which would result in disproportionate assignment of freshmen to the resident student category.

Students' responses to the first two items on the Student Information Questionnaire were used to determine their employment statuses. This was accomplished by initially establishing a record of all responses to the second item on the instrument, which pertains to on-campus employment. All on-campus departments or positions identified by respondents were then incorporated into a separate rating form, entitled the Rating of On-Campus Jobs' Relationship to Student Affairs. The purpose of the form was to enable an evaluator to rate each department or position according to its degree of relationship to the student affairs profession, using a Likert type scale (See Appendix I for rating form).

The rating form was completed by the investigator and two other doctoral students majoring in College and University Administration with a Student Affairs emphasis. Each of these individuals was also employed in a student services capacity at Michigan State University. Once the evaluators had completed the form, the sum of their ratings was used to classify each position or department according to its relationship to the student affairs profession. Those positions or departments receiving an overall rating of 12 or higher, indicating that the mean of their individual ratings was equivalent to a rating of "High" or "Very high," formed one category (n=22). Those receiving overall ratings of 11 or lower formed a second category (n=45) (See Appendix J for classification and overall ratings of individual positions and departments). A third employment category consisted of those students who responded affirmatively to the first item and negatively to the second item,

indicated that they were employed off campus, but were not employed on campus (n=49). A fourth category consisted of those students who gave negative responses to both items, indicating that they were not employed (n=60).

The last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire were used to assess each student's initial level of interest in student affairs as a field of possible future endeavor. Each student's ratings of the five Likert type items pertaining to careers in student affairs were totaled, to produce an index of his or her initial likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Ratings of the five items pertaining to graduate preparation in the field were likewise totaled, to produce an index of the student's initial likelihood of pursuing a relevant master's degree.

All College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaires were scored using the same procedures employed in scoring the last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire, thereby providing posttest indices of students' likelihood of pursuing careers in student affairs and related graduate preparation. Pretest indices were then subtracted from the corresponding posttest indices, in order to determine the degree and direction of change, if any, in each student's attitude toward careers in the field of student affairs and related professional preparation.

Data Analysis

After the students' participation in the study was concluded, a t-test was conducted, to compare the experimental and control groups, on the basis of age, initial likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career, and initial likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Chi-square analysis was used to compare the two groups, on the basis of

gender, racial or ethnic background, class standing, compatibility with the student affairs profession, residency, cocurricular involvement, and employment. The purpose of these analyses was to determine the degree to which the two groups were initially equivalent.

The t-test was selected for comparing the two groups on the basis of the first three variables, because only two groups were being compared, and in each case the variables were measured on an interval or ratio scale. According to Borg and Gall (1979), the t-test is "used to determine whether two means, proportions, or correlation coefficients differ significantly from each other" (p. 428). In comparing the two groups on the basis of the last eight variables, chi-square analysis was used because the variables were identified nominally or ordinally. According to Mouly (1978), chi-square analysis "is used primarily when the data are in the form of frequency counts, relating to mutually exclusive categories in a two-way classification" (p. 119).

The mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings for the experimental and control groups were compared, using a t-test, in order to determine the main effect, if any, of exposure to the printed materials. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), when determining the main effect of a treatment using the pretest-posttest control group design, "the most widely used acceptable test is to compute for each group pretest-posttest gain scores and to compute a t between experimental and control groups on these gain scores" (p. 23).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, in order to determine what relationship, if any, existed between students' residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, and compatibility with the student affairs profession and their response to the presentation of information

about the field. Comparisons based on residency were drawn only for those students of at least sophomore status, due to the University's freshman residency requirement.

According to Glass and Hopkins (1984), using ANOVA, "two or more independent variables (factors) can be assessed separately and simultaneously" (p. 444). They added that "in addition to testing main effects, ANOVA can identify interactions between factors" (p. 444).

Chi-square analysis was used to compare all subjects' levels of compatibility with the profession, according to their employment and cocurricular involvement. This procedure was also used to compare levels of compatibility with the profession among all students of at least sophomore status, on the basis of their residency. Chi-square analysis was used because of its suitability for determining the significance of relationships between variables which are defined nominally or ordinally.

Finally, ANOVA was used to detect possible differences in students' responses to the presentation of information about the profession, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds. Although the use of ANOVA ordinarily requires a proportionate distribution across all subclasses, the "nonorthogonal" analysis employed in this case adjusted for unbalanced designs, and was therefore appropriate for use in comparing Caucasian students with racial and ethnic minority students (Bock and Haggard, 1968; Wilkinson, 1989).

In all tests of significance, a .05 level of confidence was established as the basis for rejecting the null hypothesis. According to Borg and Gall (1979), this standard is generally used in educational research. According to Kerlinger (1964, p. 154), "the .05 level was originally chosen - and has persisted with researchers - because it is

considered a reasonably good gamble."

In testing hypotheses, two types of errors can occur. The Type I error occurs in cases where a difference is accepted as significant when in fact it is not. The Type II error occurs in cases where a difference is not accepted as significant when in fact it is. According to Rowntree (1981), applying a standard which is not stringent enough increases the risk that a Type I error will occur, while applying a standard which is too stringent increases the likelihood that a Type II error will occur. According to Kerlinger (1964), the .05 level of significance "is neither too high nor too low for most social scientific research" (p. 154).

CHAPTER 4

Presentation and Analysis of the Data

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to to explore the influence of exposure to printed materials related to careers in student affairs on the level of interest in such careers among undergraduate students enrolled in two leadership training courses at Michigan State University. The study focused specifically on the relationship between students' degrees of compatibility with the profession and changes in their attitudes toward careers in the field, subsequent to exposure to the printed materials. The study also examined the degree to which compatibility with the profession and a favorable response to the presentation of information about the field were related to students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Differences in students' responses to the intervention, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds, were also explored.

The primary sources of data used in the investigation were four written assessment instruments completed by the subjects. These instruments included: the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII), the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), the Student Information Questionnaire, and the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire. A fifth instrument, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire was used to gain additional insight into the phenomena observed in students' responses to the other questionnaires and inventories.

The data collected, using the EII, the VPI, the Student Information Questionnaire, and the College Student Affairs & Services Career

Interest Questionnaire were analyzed, according to the procedures presented in the previous chapter. The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter.

Information about the initial characteristics of the subjects is presented. Specific variables which were examined include: likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career, likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs, compatibility with the student affairs profession, residency, cocurricular involvement, employment status, racial or ethnic background, age, class standing, gender, and marital status. Using the procedures presented in the previous chapter, the experimental and control groups were compared on the basis of each of these variables, with the exception of marital status, to ensure equivalence. It was not possible to test the significance of the difference between the two groups based on marital status, due to insufficient representation of married or previously married students within the overall sample. Where each of the other variables is concerned, the results of a test of significance are presented along with the basic information about the experimental and control groups.

In accordance with the procedures presented in the previous chapter, changes in students' attitudes toward careers in student affairs and related professional preparation, within the experimental and control groups, were compared in order to determine the main effect, if any, of the experimental treatment. Further analysis focused on the nature of the relationship, if any, that exists between students' responses to the intervention and their residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, compatibility with the profession, and racial or ethnic backgrounds. Efforts were also made to determine what relationship, if any, exists

between students' levels of compatibility with the student affairs profession and their employment, residency, and cocurricular involvement. Fifteen hypotheses were tested. The results of each test are presented in this chapter. A descriptive summary of students' responses to the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire is also provided in this chapter.

Student Characteristics

Initial Likelihood of Pursuing a Career or Graduate Education in Student Affairs

Because the dependent variables examined in the experiment were the degree of change in students' likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs and the degree of change in their likelihood of pursuing graduate education in the field, it was necessary to compare the experimental and control groups based on their members' initial likelihood of pursuing a career or graduate education in the field. Had the groups not been equivalent initially, it would not have been possible to determine the influence of the treatment. Tables 2 and 3 contain information on the pretest ratings of the two groups, based on a scale of 5 to 25. A t-test revealed no significant differences between the groups on the basis of their initial likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($t=.804$, $df=162$, $p=.856$) or their initial likelihood of pursuing graduate education in the field ($t=.324$, $df=165$, $p=.746$).

Table 2

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Initial
Likelihood of Pursuing a Student Affairs Career

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	11.42	12.02
SD	4.61	5.04

Table 3

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Initial
Likelihood of Pursuing a Master's Degree in Student Affairs

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	9.84	10.08
SD	4.68	4.88

Compatibility With the Student Affairs Profession

The experimental and control groups were also compared on the basis of their members' compatibility with the student affairs profession. Because of concern for both recruitment and retention of new professionals in student affairs, this study included an examination of the potential relationship between students' responses to the intervention and their levels of compatibility with the profession. Because of the potential relationship between students' compatibility with the profession and their response to the treatment, it was necessary that the experimental and control groups be equivalent on the basis of compatibility with the profession, in order for accurate conclusions to

be drawn from the investigation. Table 4 contains information on the distribution of the experimental and control groups according to compatibility with the profession. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the two groups on the basis of compatibility with the profession ($\chi^2=2.869$, $df=2$, $p=.238$).

Table 4

Subjects' Compatibility With the Student Affairs Profession

Compatibility Rating	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Subjects
High compatibility	22	31	5
Medium compatibility	26	27	3
Low compatibility	35	26	2

Residency

Students' residency is also directly related to the purpose of the study, which included an examination of the potential relationship between students' responses to the intervention and their residency. This potential relationship was examined because of the changing nature of the undergraduate experience. In recent years, proportionately fewer students have participated in a traditional residential undergraduate experience. Many of the activities which have thus far served as a primary means of introduction to the student affairs profession are representative of this traditional experience. This study examined the influence of residency relative to nontraditional sources of information about the profession. Because of the potential impact of residency on students' responses to the treatment, the experimental and control

groups must be equivalent on the basis of residency in order for accurate conclusions to be drawn from the investigation.

Table 5 contains information on the distribution of the experimental and control groups based on residency. Four (2.3%) of the participants in the study described their housing as "Single-sex college residence hall," 69 (39%) described their housing as "Coed college residence hall," 1 (0.6%) described her housing as "At home with parent(s)," 2 (1.1%) described their housing as "At home with spouse," 79 (44.6%) described their housing as "In apartment/house/trailer [not with parent(s) or spouse], and 21 (11.9%) described their housing as "Fraternity/sorority house." It was not possible to test the significance of differences between the experimental and control groups, based on the specific housing arrangements of their members, due to low representation in the overall sample. However, when the the two groups were compared on the basis of overall representation of resident and nonresident students, using chi-square analysis, no significant difference was found ($\chi^2=.291$, $df=1$, $p=.589$).

Table 5

Subjects' Housing Arrangements While Attending School

Housing Arrangements	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Subjects
Single-sex college residence hall	1	3	0
Coed college residence hall	30	32	7
At home with parent(s)	1	0	0
At home with spouse	1	0	1
In apartment/house/trailer [not with parent(s) or spouse]	40	38	1
Fraternity/sorority house	10	10	1
Not provided	0	1	0

Cocurricular Involvement

Historically, cocurricular involvement has also been related to students' levels of interest in student affairs careers, with most individuals who subsequently enter the field being highly involved in the cocurricular life of their undergraduate institutions. For this reason, the study also included an examination of the potential relationship between students' responses to the intervention and their cocurricular involvement. Because of this potential relationship, it was also necessary to compare the experimental and control groups on the basis of cocurricular involvement. If the two groups were not equivalent, it would not be possible to draw conclusions, with any certainty, from the investigation.

Table 6 contains information on the distribution of the experimental

and control groups based on cocurricular involvement. Fifty-eight (32.8%) of the subjects were rated as "High" in cocurricular involvement, another 58 (32.8%) were rated as "Medium" in cocurricular involvement, and 61 (34.5%) were rated as "Low" in cocurricular involvement. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, on the basis of cocurricular involvement ($\chi^2=.460$, $df=2$, $p=.795$).

Table 6

Subjects' Cocurricular Involvement

Involvement Level	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Subjects
High involvement	24	28	6
Medium involvement	29	29	0
Low involvement	30	27	4

Employment

Undergraduate employment in an area related to student affairs has also traditionally served as a vehicle for introduction to the profession. For this reason, the study was designed to include an examination of the potential relationship between students' responses to the intervention and their employment statuses. Because of this potential relationship, it was necessary to compare the experimental and control groups, based on the employment statuses of their members, in order to ensure that accurate conclusions could be drawn from the investigation.

Table 7 contains information on the distribution of the experimental

and control groups based on employment. Sixty (33.9%) of the subjects were not employed, 49 (27.7%) were employed off campus but were not employed on campus, 45 (25.4%) were employed on campus in positions which were not closely related to student affairs, and 22 (12.4%) were employed in positions on campus which were closely related to student affairs. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, on the basis of employment ($\chi^2=3.364$, $df=4$, $p=.499$).

Table 7

Subjects' Employment Statuses

Employment Status	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Participants
Not employed	25	34	1
Employed off campus, not employed on campus	24	22	3
Employed on campus, not employed in student affairs	24	18	3
Employed in student affairs	10	9	3
Not provided	0	1	0

Racial or Ethnic Background

It was also necessary to examine the racial or ethnic background of the subjects, due to its direct relationship to the purpose of the investigation. The study included an examination of possible differences in students' responses to the presentation of information about the student affairs profession, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds. The rationale for this aspect of the examination stems from the

profession's commitment to representing the growing diversity of its clientele. In accordance with the goals of the profession, strategies for recruitment of new student affairs practitioners must be evaluated in part based on their capacity to attract individuals from a variety of racial and ethnic backgrounds.

Because of the potential relationship between racial or ethnic background and students' responses to the treatment, it was necessary that representation of racial and ethnic minorities be equivalent within the experimental and control groups, in order for accurate conclusions to be drawn from the investigation. Furthermore, the overall representation of minority groups among the subjects could influence the generalizability of any conclusions which may be drawn.

Table 8 contains information on the racial or ethnic backgrounds of the subjects. Thirty-four (19.2%) of those participating in the study described themselves as "Black or Afro-American," 5 (2.8%) described themselves as "Hispanic," 3 (1.7%) described themselves as "Oriental or Asian or Pacific Islander," 3 (1.7%) described themselves as "Indian or Native People," 125 (70.6%) described themselves as "White or Caucasian," and 1 (0.6%) described himself as "Any Other." It was not possible to test the significance of differences between the experimental and control groups, based on representation of specific minority classes, due to low representation in the overall sample. However, when the the two groups were compared on the basis of overall minority representation, using chi-square analysis, no significant difference was found ($\chi^2=.250$, $df=1$, $p=.617$).

Table 8

Racial or Ethnic Background of Subjects

Racial or Ethnic Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Subjects
Black or Afro-American	13	19	2
Hispanic	1	3	1
Oriental or Asian or Pacific Islander	2	0	1
Indian or Native People	3	0	0
White or Caucasian	63	57	5
Any Other	1	0	0
Not provided	0	5	1

Age

Although not directly addressed in the hypotheses, the age of the students participating in the study is relevant to the outcomes of the investigation for two primary reasons. First, in a general sense, both the nature of an individual's decisions concerning the selection of a life's work and the importance which an individual attaches to these decisions vary across the life span. Secondly, research on current graduate students in the field of student affairs suggests that individuals entering graduate preparation programs in the field are typically of a "traditional" age during the undergraduate experience (Forney, 1989; Kuh, Greenlee, and Lardy, 1978; Luckadoo, 1990; Richmond and Benton, 1988; Williams, McEwen, and Engstrom, 1990). Therefore, the degree to which nontraditional aged students were represented among the subjects holds implications with regard to the generalizability of the

conclusions drawn from the investigation. Moreover, the degree to which the experimental and control groups were equivalent in age holds implications with regard to the internal validity of the experiment itself.

Table 9 contains a frequency distribution of all subject by age, while Table 10 presents a comparison of the experimental and control groups on the basis of age. A t-test revealed no significant difference in age between the two groups ($t=.389$, $df=162$, $p=.698$).

Table 9

Distribution of Subjects by Age

Age	n	
17	2	(1.1%)
18	12	(6.8%)
19	24	(13.6%)
20	40	(22.6%)
21	54	(30.5%)
22	29	(16.4%)
23	7	(4.0%)
24	2	(1.1%)
25	1	(0.6%)
30	1	(0.6%)
33	1	(0.6%)
35	1	(0.6%)
Not provided	3	(1.7%)

Note: Total percentage does not equal 100% due to rounding error.

Table 10

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Age

	Experimental (n=82)	Control (n=82)
<u>M</u>	20.77	20.65
SD	1.92	2.09

Class Standing

The class standing of students participating in the study is also of concern, due to the relationship between class standing and vocational development. As students progress toward completion of their degrees, it becomes increasingly urgent that they commit to a major field of study, which in turn places some limitations on their career options. If the experimental and control groups were found to differ on the basis of class standing, a difference in their levels of openness to career exploration might also be anticipated. Furthermore, disproportionate representation of students in the overall sample, on the basis of class standing, could limit the generalizability of any conclusions drawn from the investigation. Table 11 provides information on the class standing of the participants in the study. Seventeen (9.6%) of the subjects identified themselves as freshmen, 37 (20.9%) identified themselves as sophomores, 36 (20.3%) identified themselves as juniors, and 87 (49.2%) identified themselves as seniors. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, on the basis of class standing ($\chi^2=4.594$, $df=3$, $p=.204$).

Table 11

Class Standing of Subjects

Class Standing	Experimental Group	Control Group	Other Subjects
Freshman	7	8	2
Sophomore	12	23	2
Junior	18	14	4
Senior	46	39	2

Gender

The gender of the subjects is relevant to the outcomes of the investigation, due to the relationship that exists between gender and occupational choice. A number of fields have traditionally attracted men and women in disproportionate numbers. Within the field of student affairs, women have comprised a majority of those enrolled in master's degree programs in recent years (Forney, 1989; Keim, 1983; Luckadoo, 1990; Stamatakos, 1989; Williams, McEwen, and Engstrom, 1990).

Therefore, it was necessary to confirm the equivalence of the experimental and control groups on the basis of gender. It was also necessary to determine the degree to which men and women were equally represented among the participants in study in order to determine the generalizability of any conclusions drawn from the study. Table 12 contains data on the gender of the subjects. Sixty-two (35%) of the subjects identified themselves as men, and 114 (64%) identified themselves as women. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, on the basis of

gender ($\chi^2=.027$, $df=1$, $p=.870$).

Table 12

Gender of Subjects

	Male	Female
Experimental Group	29	54
Control Group	27	56
Other Subjects	6	4

Marital Status

The marital status of the subjects is of concern, due to its impact upon the undergraduate experience. Because the demands of family life often prevent married students from engaging in activities which have traditionally been associated with subsequent entry into the student affairs profession, it seems likely that the results of the study would be influenced by the degree to which married students were represented among the subjects. Two (1.1%) of the participants in the study were married. The remaining 175 participants had never been married. Both of the married students were assigned to the experimental group. Due to the uneven distribution of students based on marital status, it was not possible to test the significance of the difference between the experimental and control groups.

Empirical Analysis

The information provided on the Student Information Questionnaire and College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire was used to obtain pretest and posttest ratings of the subjects' likelihood

of pursuing a career in student affairs and their likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The mean differences in pretest and posttest ratings for the experimental and control groups were then compared, using a t-test, in order to determine the main effect, if any, of exposure to printed materials containing information about the student affairs profession upon students' levels of interest in the field. Table 13 contains a comparison of the experimental and control groups based on the change in their members' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Table 14 provides a comparison of the two groups based on the change in their members' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.

Table 13

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Change in Likelihood of Pursuing a Student Affairs Career

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	-0.49	-0.83
SD	4.26	3.47

Table 14

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Change in Likelihood of Pursuing a Master's Degree in Student Affairs

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	-0.72	-0.49
SD	3.84	4.14

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, in order to determine what relationship, if any, existed between students' residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, racial or ethnic background, and compatibility with the profession and their responses to the presentation of information about the field. Comparisons based on residency were drawn only for those students of at least sophomore status, due to the University's freshman residency requirement. Table 15 contains the ANOVA results relevant to changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Table 16 provides ANOVA results relevant to changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field.

Table 15

Analysis of Variance for Interaction of Treatment With
Selected Student Characteristics Relevant to Changes in
Likelihood of Pursuing a Student Affairs Career

Variable	n	df	MS	F	p
Compatibility with the student affairs profession	167	2	11.026	0.724	0.486
Residency	152	1	0.880	0.062	0.804
Employment	166	3	27.521	1.826	0.145
Cocurricular involvement	167	2	17.463	1.158	0.317
Racial or ethnic background	161	1	33.773	2.261	0.135

Table 16

Analysis of Variance for Interaction of Treatment With
Selected Student Characteristics Relevant to Changes in
Likelihood of Pursuing a Master's Degree in Student Affairs

Variable	n	df	MS	F	p
Compatibility with the student affairs profession	167	2	32.367	2.049	0.132
Residency	152	1	3.861	0.265	0.608
Employment	166	3	16.920	1.044	0.375
Cocurricular involvement	167	2	13.969	0.872	0.420
Racial or ethnic background	161	1	0.406	0.025	0.875

Chi-square analysis was used to compare all subjects' levels of compatibility with the student affairs profession, according to their employment statuses and cocurricular involvement. This procedure was also used to compare levels of compatibility with the profession, among all students of at least sophomore status, on the basis of their residency. Table 17 contains information on the subjects' compatibility with the profession, according to their employment statuses. Table 18 presents information on the subjects' compatibility with the profession, according to their levels of cocurricular involvement. Table 19 provides information on compatibility with the profession, among those students of at least sophomore status, based on their residency.

Table 17

Subjects' Compatibility With the Student
Affairs Profession by Employment Status

Employment Status	Compatibility		
	Low	Medium	High
Not employed	26	19	15
Employed off campus, not employed on campus	17	16	16
Employed on campus, not employed in student affairs	12	16	17
Employed in student affairs	8	5	9

Table 18

Subjects' Compatibility With the Student Affairs
Profession by Levels of Cocurricular Involvement

Cocurricular Involvement Level	Compatibility		
	Low	Medium	High
Low	26	17	18
Medium	17	21	20
High	20	18	20

Table 19

Subjects' Compatibility With the
Student Affairs Profession by Residency

Residency	Compatibility		
	Low	Medium	High
Resident	26	27	25
Nonresident	32	23	27

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 states that there is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The t-test revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, based on the mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($t=.567$, $df=165$, $p=.573$). Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that there is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The t-test revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, based on the mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a masters degree in student affairs ($t=.488$, $df=165$, $p=.708$). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 states that there is no relationship between compatibility with the student affairs profession, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of compatibility with the profession and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($F=.724$, $df=2$, $p=.486$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 states that there is no relationship between compatibility with the student affairs profession, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of compatibility with the profession and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs ($F=.2.049$, $df=2$, $p=.132$). Therefore, hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their residency. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and residency among those subjects of at least sophomore status ($\chi^2=.918$, $df=2$, $p=.632$). Therefore,

hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their employment statuses. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and employment status within the overall sample ($\chi^2=4.708$, $df=6$, $p=.582$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their levels of cocurricular involvement. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and level cocurricular involvement within the overall sample ($\chi^2=2.475$, $df=4$, $p=.649$). Therefore, hypothesis 7 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 states that there is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of residency and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($F=.062$, $df=1$, $p=.804$). Therefore, hypothesis 8 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 states that there is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student

affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of residency and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs ($F=.265$, $df=1$, $p=.608$). Therefore, hypothesis 9 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 states that there is no relationship between employment status, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of employment status and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($F=1.826$, $df=3$, $p=.145$). Therefore, hypothesis 10 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 states that there is no relationship between employment status, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of employment status and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs ($F=1.044$, $df=3$, $p=.375$). Therefore, hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 12

Hypothesis 12 states that there is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of cocurricular involvement and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($F=1.158$, $df=2$, $p=.317$). Therefore, hypothesis 12 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 13

Hypothesis 13 states that there is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of cocurricular involvement and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs ($F=.872$, $df=2$, $p=.420$). Therefore, hypothesis 13 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 14

Hypothesis 14 states that there is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of racial or ethnic background and participation in the experimental group relevant to

differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs ($F=2.261$, $df=1$, $p=.135$). Therefore, hypothesis 14 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 15

Hypothesis 15 states that there is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. Analysis of variance revealed no significant interactive effect of racial or ethnic background and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs ($F=.025$, $df=1$, $p=.875$). Therefore, hypothesis 15 was not rejected.

Descriptive Analysis

The College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire was used to solicit information on any materials related to the student affairs profession which students in either the experimental or control group may have read over the course of the period during which the experiment was conducted. The purpose of the instrument was to determine the degree to which the two groups differed in their actual assimilation of information about the profession, and to assess students' levels of satisfaction with the informational materials available to them.

Of those subjects completing the instrument, 20 (12%) indicated that they had read printed materials specifically related to careers in student affairs or graduate education in the field within the seven weeks preceding completion of the instrument. The remaining 146

subjects completing the instrument indicated that they had not read such materials during the stated time period. Within the experimental group, 14 (17%) of the subjects completing the instrument indicated that they had read such materials during the stated time period, while the remaining 68 indicated that they had not. In comparison, 6 (7.1%) of the subjects assigned to the control group also indicated that they had read materials specifically related to careers in student affairs or graduate education in the field within the seven weeks preceding completion of the instrument, while the remaining 78 subjects in the control group indicated that they had not read such materials during the stated time period.

Of those students in the experimental group who indicated that they had read materials related to the profession, eight (57%) clearly described these materials as including the booklet provided. Four (50%) of those individuals who specifically identified the booklet indicated that it was interesting and informative, but that it was not of relevance to their own career plans. Two (25%) did not comment on the informational value of the booklet, but indicated that it was not of interest to them. One (12.5%) did not comment on the content of the booklet but expressed dissatisfaction with the layout. One other subject indicated that the booklet was very informative, and expressed surprise at the breadth of the field. This individual also expressed particular interest in the information presented regarding minorities and other nontraditional students.

Of those individuals in the experimental group who read materials related to the profession but did not specifically indicate that the booklet provided was among the materials which they read, two (33.3%)

indicated that the materials were interesting, but that they did not plan to pursue a career in the field. One (16.7%) indicated that the materials had created "second doubts" concerning the subject's choice of a career, though the exact nature of this ambivalence was not specified. One other subject indicated that the materials had created a greater awareness of alternatives to a career in engineering.

Of those individuals in the control group who indicated that they had read materials specifically related to careers or graduate education in student affairs, four (66.7%) indicated that the materials were interesting. Four also stated that the materials were informative.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the data obtained from the investigation, and the results of statistical analysis involving these data. Information was presented on the characteristics of the subjects, and comparisons were drawn between the experimental and control groups. No significant differences between the two groups were found on the basis of initial likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs, initial likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs, compatibility with the student affairs profession, residency, cocurricular involvement, employment, racial or ethnic background, age, class standing, or gender.

The results of t-tests comparing the experimental and control groups based on changes in their expressed likelihood of pursuing a career or graduate education in student affairs were presented. The chapter also included the results of analysis of variance in which potential relationships between students' responses to the treatment and their residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, compatibility

with the student affairs profession, and racial or ethnic background were examined. The results of chi-square analysis dealing with the potential relationship between students' compatibility with the profession and their residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement were also presented. The tests of significance were applied to 15 hypotheses presented in the first chapter of this report. None of the null hypotheses were rejected on the basis of the data analysis.

Finally, the chapter included a descriptive analysis of students' responses to a questionnaire in which they were asked to indicate whether or not they had read any materials related to careers or graduate education in student affairs over the course of the period during which the experiment was conducted, and to describe and evaluate any such materials which were read. The results indicated that the vast majority of students in both the experimental and control groups did not read any materials dealing with the student affairs profession. Those who had read materials about careers or graduate education in the field generally found them to be interesting and informative, though few indicated that the materials had influenced them to consider entering the field.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Discussion, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter contains an overview of the study, including a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the need for the study, and the methodology employed. The chapter also includes an examination of the limitations of the study and its generalizability, followed by a review of the results of the study and a presentation of the conclusions. Finally, the practical implications of the findings are examined, and a series of recommendations for further research are presented.

Summary

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, concern has been raised, regarding the student affairs profession's ability to proliferate during the years ahead. This concern has stemmed from a combination of trends, including a decline in the number of students enrolling in professional preparation programs and a high rate of attrition from the profession among experienced practitioners.

Additionally, representation of racial and ethnic minorities in professional preparation programs has fallen below previous levels of representation among program graduates, despite the fact that minority representation in the general population has increased. This pattern has raised further concern regarding the profession's ability to respond to the demands of its increasingly diverse clientele.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of exposure to printed materials related to careers in student affairs on the level of interest in such careers among undergraduate students enrolled in two leadership training courses at Michigan State University. The study dealt specifically with the relationship between students' degrees of compatibility with the profession and changes in their attitudes toward careers in the field, subsequent to exposure to the printed materials.

Compatibility with the profession was determined in accordance with a theory of vocational development proposed by Holland (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a). According to this theory, personalities can be broadly classified according to their resemblance to each of six basic types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. Each of these types represents a different category of preferred work activities. The primary personality type of the individual refers to that type which he or she most closely resembles. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which the individual resembles them, it is possible to obtain a more complete profile, known as a "personality pattern." These patterns are identified by the names of two or more of the six basic types, usually abbreviated using the first letter of each.

In addition to individuals, Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) classification system is used to describe work environments. Using the six basic categories, these environments are classified according to the predominant personality types of those who work within them. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which they dominate a particular work environment, it is possible to obtain an environmental

pattern comparable to the individual personality pattern. According to Holland's theory, satisfaction and success in a particular field depend upon an appropriate match between the personality type of the individual and the environmental type of the particular work setting.

In this study, compatibility with the student affairs profession was measured by the degree of conformity between the student's Holland personality pattern and a corresponding pattern representing the overall orientation of the profession. The pattern used to represent the profession, Social Enterprising Artistic (SEA), was based on information about the undergraduate majors of members of the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), which was obtained by Frantz (1969a).

This study also examined the degree to which compatibility with the profession and a favorable response to the presentation of information about the field were related to students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement. Differences in students' responses to the intervention based on race and ethnicity were also explored.

Need for the Study

According to Holland's (1959, 1966, 1973, 1985a) theory of career development, both initial attraction to a particular field and subsequent success and satisfaction in that field depend upon the degree of compatibility that exists between an individual and his or her work environment. It would seem that a key element in satisfactory occupational decision making would be the possession of accurate information about a particular field prior to entry. It would follow, therefore, that the degree to which accurate information about the student affairs profession is made available to undergraduate students would hold implications with regard to both declining enrollments in professional

preparation programs and the currently high rate of attrition from the profession. Wider dissemination of information about the student affairs profession could provide a solution to both of these problems, should such dissemination be found to promote interest in the field among those who are likely to respond favorably to its challenges and rewards, while not encouraging entry into the profession by those who are unlikely to find success and satisfaction in the field.

Thus far, undergraduate activities related to student affairs, such as paraprofessional employment and participation in student organizations, have served as a primary means of introduction to the profession. However, reliance upon this form of exposure may no longer be sufficient when the changing nature of the typical undergraduate experience is considered. In recent years, proportionately more students have commuted to their campuses, rather than participating in a traditional residential undergraduate experience. Within the commuter population are large numbers of part-time students and adult learners. These students tend to be less involved than their more traditional peers in many of the undergraduate activities that are closely related to student affairs.

Although the student affairs profession has begun to employ alternative means of introduction to the field, there appears to have been little research dealing with the effectiveness of these new approaches. Research involving current graduate students in the field has revealed that thus far sources of information which involve direct participation in activities related to student affairs or personal interaction with practitioners in the field continue to be regarded as more helpful than other sources of information. However, it is possible

that these findings simply reflect the fact that availability of information about the field from nontraditional sources remains limited. The results of retrospective reporting by current professionals do not necessarily provide an indication of the potential effectiveness of these sources.

There appears to have been no experimental research on the influence of nontraditional sources of information upon undergraduate students who have not otherwise been exposed to the profession through their activities. There also appears to have been no research on possible differences in students' reactions to nontraditional sources of information, based on their racial or ethnic backgrounds, or levels of compatibility with the profession. Depending upon the findings, this study could assist current student affairs professionals in attracting and retaining new professionals who would represent the growing diversity of the nation's collegiate population and the broader society.

Methodology

A series of questionnaires and inventories were administered to 177 students enrolled in two undergraduate student leadership training courses at Michigan State University, by their instructors, during the first two weeks of the 1991 winter term. The first instrument, the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII), was developed by Massaro and Winston (Winston and Massaro, 1987) for the purpose of measuring the intensity of students' cocurricular involvement. In addition to demographic information about the student, the EII solicits information about his or her involvement in cocurricular activities for which no compensation is provided. The second instrument which was administered to the students was an abbreviated version of the Vocational Preference

Inventory (VPI) - 1985 Revision, developed by Holland. The adapted instrument provides ratings on six scales: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. The instrument served as a basis upon which to assess students' Holland personality patterns. The third instrument which was administered to the students, the Student Information Questionnaire, was developed by the investigator for purposes of soliciting information about the student's current employment status, and for assessing his or her level of familiarity with the student affairs profession, likelihood of entering the field, and likelihood of pursuing a related master's degree.

Once these instruments had been completed and returned to the investigator, approximately half of the students from each course section who provided usable materials were assigned to the experimental group. The remaining students served as a control group. Students were assigned to the experimental and control groups, using a stratified random selection technique whereby students rating their familiarity with the profession as "Moderate," "High," or "Very high" were equally distributed between the two groups.

The students' instructors were not aware of whether they had been assigned to the experimental or control group. Three weeks after completion of the first three assessment instruments, each student assigned to the experimental group was mailed a copy of an informational booklet written by the investigator, along with a cover letter encouraging him or her to explore career possibilities in student affairs.

During the last two weeks of the term, instructors administered a fourth instrument, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire, to the students in their course sections who were

participating in the study. The instrument consists of an abbreviated version of the Student Information Questionnaire. It includes only those items pertaining to the likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career and the likelihood of entering a graduate preparation program in the field. It serves as a posttest for use in conjunction with the Student Information Questionnaire.

Once this instrument was completed, a fifth instrument, the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire, was administered. The questionnaire solicits information about any materials which students may have read, pertaining to the student affairs profession, over the course of the seven week period preceding completion of the instrument. The information requested relates to both the nature of any materials read and the student's reactions to these materials. The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine whether or not the amount of information about the profession that is actually assimilated by students differs, based upon their assignment to either the experimental or control group. The instrument is also designed to assess students' overall level of satisfaction with the information about the profession that is available to them.

Once the materials were completed, each student's three highest scores on the VPI were used to determine his or her individual personality pattern, which was then compared with the composite pattern representing the general orientation of the student affairs profession, using a system devised by Iachan (1984), which places a weighted value on matched scales, based on their placement within the three letter configuration. The measure of agreement between students' personality patterns and the composite pattern for the profession was calculated as

the sum of the weighted values assigned to each matched scale within the two codes. This value was then used to divide the students into three categories of approximately equal size, designated as "High," "Medium," and "Low." These labels were used to describe students' levels of compatibility with the profession.

The EII was used to obtain an extracurricular involvement index for each student. The students were then divided, according to their involvement indices, into three categories of approximately equal size, also identified as "High," "Medium," and "Low." These categories were used to designate students' levels of cocurricular involvement.

Students were divided into two categories on the basis of their responses to the third item on the EII, which deals with racial or ethnic background. The categories used included: (1) White or Caucasian, and (2) racial or ethnic minority. Students were also divided into two categories based on their responses to the sixth item on the EII, which deals with residency. The categories used included: (1) residence halls and fraternity or sorority houses, and (2) other housing.

Students' responses to the first two items on the Student Information Questionnaire were used to determine their employment statuses. This determination was accomplished by initially establishing a record of all responses to the second item on the instrument, which pertains to on-campus employment. All on-campus departments or positions identified by respondents were then incorporated into a separate rating form, entitled the Rating of On-Campus Jobs' Relationship to Student Affairs. The purpose of the form was to enable an evaluator to rate each department or position according to its degree of relationship to the student affairs profession, using a Likert type scale.

The rating form was completed by the investigator and two other doctoral students majoring in College and University Administration with a Student Affairs emphasis. Once the evaluators had completed the form, the sum of their ratings was used to classify each position or department according to its relationship to the student affairs profession. Those positions or departments receiving an overall rating of 12 or higher, indicating that the mean of their individual ratings was equivalent to a rating of "High" or "Very high," formed one category. Those receiving overall ratings of 11 or lower formed a second category. A third employment category consisted of those students who indicated that they were employed off campus, but were not employed on campus. A fourth category consisted of those students who indicated that they were not employed.

The last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire were used to assess each student's initial level of interest in student affairs as a field of possible future endeavor. Each student's initial likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs was measured as the sum of his or her ratings of the five Likert type items pertaining to careers in the field. The student's initial likelihood of pursuing a related master's degree was measured as the sum of his or her ratings of the five items pertaining to graduate preparation in the field.

All College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaires were scored according to the same procedures used in scoring the last two sections of the Student Information Questionnaire, thereby providing indices of students' subsequent likelihood of pursuing a career or a master's degree in student affairs. The corresponding preliminary indices were then subtracted from these indices, in order to

determine the degree and direction of change, if any, in each student's attitude toward careers in the field of student affairs and related professional preparation.

After the students' participation in the study was concluded, a t-test was conducted, to compare the experimental and control groups, based on age, initial likelihood of pursuing a student affairs career, and initial likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Chi-square analysis was used to compare the two groups, based on gender, racial or ethnic background, class standing, residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, and compatibility with the student affairs profession. The purpose of these analyses was to determine the degree to which the two groups differed from one another initially.

The mean differences in pretest and posttest ratings for the experimental and control groups were compared, using a t-test, in order to determine the main effect, if any, of exposure to the printed materials. Analysis of variance was used to determine what relationship, if any, existed between students' compatibility with the profession and their response to the presentation of information about the field. Chi-square analysis was used to compare all subjects' levels of compatibility with the profession, according to their employment and cocurricular involvement. Chi-square analysis was also used to compare levels of compatibility with the profession for all students of at least sophomore status, according to their residency. Because of the University's freshman residency requirement, it was not possible to examine differences in levels of compatibility with the profession, among freshmen, on the basis of residency. Analysis of variance was used to detect possible differences in students' responses to the presentation of

information about the profession, which related to their residency, employment, cocurricular involvement, and racial or ethnic backgrounds. Again, differences based on residency were determined only for students of at least sophomore status. The level of significance in all statistical tests was $p=.05$.

Descriptive data were compiled for both the experimental and control groups, based on their responses to the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire. The purpose of the descriptive analysis was to establish a basis upon which to compare the amounts of information actually assimilated by the two groups, and to better understand students' responses to the information that was available to them.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations in the Initial Design

The initial design of the study placed some inherent limitations on the conclusions which may be drawn from it. These limitations were recognized in advance, and served to define the parameters of the investigation.

First, it was recognized that limitations existed in the assessment of compatibility with the student affairs profession. Compatibility was defined according to the degree of conformity between the individual's personality pattern and a composite pattern representing the general orientation of the profession. The personality pattern of the individual was based on his or her responses to a single inventory. The overall orientation of the profession was based on the relative prevalence of six primary personality types within a sample of professionals in the field. The personality types of these individuals were determined

entirely on the basis of their chosen fields of undergraduate study. Moreover, the information pertaining to these individuals is now over 20 years old. Although the fundamental nature of student affairs work has not changed substantially over the last two decades, it is possible that changes have occurred in the prevailing temperament of individuals who have found success in the field. More recent studies dealing with the undergraduate majors of current graduate students in the field have continued to reveal a preference for majors similar to those identified in the earlier study, suggesting that the prevailing temperament of those initially drawn into the field has not changed dramatically over the last 20 years.

It should be noted that no attempt was made to identify those personal characteristics or experiences which are commonly associated with departure from the field. Because of its emphasis on the area of recruitment of new professionals, the study dealt only with characteristics which would be of predictive value during the undergraduate years. Efforts were made only to identify ways in which undergraduate students may manifest personality characteristics which are commonly associated with success and satisfaction in the field.

In its assessment of the impact of the presentation of information about the student affairs profession, this study focused on a single intervention. Therefore, conclusions cannot necessarily be drawn, regarding other nontraditional vehicles for presenting information to undergraduate students about career opportunities in the field. This is particularly true of those methods of presentation which involve the use of nonprint media.

In the analysis of data, a number of possible complex interactive

effects were not explored, due to the limited size of the sample. Moreover, all independent variables were defined rather broadly. While racial and ethnic minority students were distinguished from Caucasian students, no distinctions were drawn between specific minority groups. In view of the differences which have previously been observed in the career interests of students from various minority groups, it would seem likely that observations concerning minority students' responses to the treatment, when taken collectively, would not accurately reflect the patterns of response which might be found within certain individual minority groups.

Specifically, it should be noted that Asian-Americans have previously been found to differ considerably from other identified racial and ethnic minority groups in their preferred fields of study (Greene, 1987). A reanalysis of the data, with Asian-Americans excluded, revealed no significant relationship between students' racial or ethnic backgrounds and their responses to the treatment ($X^2=.911$, $n=169$, $df=2$, $p=.634$), suggesting that the inclusion of Asian-Americans in the initial analysis did not distort the findings relative to other minority students. However, due to low representation, it was not possible to examine the specific responses of Asian-American students themselves in relation to those of other students. Therefore, caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions about this particular segment of the minority student population.

Although distinctions were drawn between on-campus employment and off-campus employment, as well as on-campus student affairs employment and other on-campus employment, other differences in the nature of students' work were not considered in analyzing its relationship to

their personality types and career aspirations. Distinctions between types of student housing were also limited. Although residence halls and fraternity or sorority houses were distinguished from other types of housing, further distinctions were not drawn. Additionally, students' residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement classifications were based entirely upon their statuses at the time of the initial survey. The influence of previous residency, employment, and cocurricular involvement has remained largely unknown.

Finally, it must be noted that the investigation was conducted over a period of approximately seven weeks. Therefore, definite conclusions concerning the long-term impact of exposure to information about the student affairs profession would not be justified, based upon the results of this study alone.

Reading Behavior of the Subjects

As mentioned previously, the study dealt only with one specific treatment. This particular intervention involved the use of the printed word as the sole medium by which to convey information about the profession to undergraduate students. One of the limitations of this type of intervention is the energy required on the part of students to make use of the information that is provided to them. Unless students actually read the materials, the information cannot arouse their interest in the profession. However, without a minimal level of initial interest, it seems unlikely that they would read the materials.

Students' responses to the Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire revealed that only 14 (17%) of the students assigned to the experimental group had read any materials related to careers or graduate education in student affairs over the course of the

period during which the experiment was conducted. Furthermore, only 8 (9.8%) clearly indicated that they had read the materials provided through this study. Additionally, 6 (7.1%) of the students assigned to the control group indicated that they had read materials related to careers or graduate education in the field, although no such materials were provided through this study.

These factors are important in considering the results of comparisons between the experimental and control groups. Because the study was concerned with the ready availability of information about the profession, the findings are not entirely without value, since the two groups did in fact differ in the degree to which information was made readily available to them. However, it is within this context that all conclusions based on the experiment must be framed. It does not appear that the two groups differed dramatically in their actual knowledge of the subject matter presented in the booklet. Therefore, conclusions concerning the effect of this type of knowledge would not be justified based on the findings of this study.

Reliability of the Instrumentation

An additional limitation on the conclusions which may be drawn from the experimental component of the investigation relates to the reliability of the Student Information Questionnaire and the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire. Students' responses to items contained in these two instruments were used to measure their initial and subsequent likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs or a related master's degree. Changes in students' ratings on these variables formed the basis for comparison between the experimental and control groups. In order for these changes to be attributable to the

treatment, rather than to chance, it is necessary that the instrumentation employed be high in reliability.

In order to establish a basis upon which to determine the reliability of the instrumentation, the Student Information Questionnaire was administered to 18 students enrolled in a section of the general leadership training course during the last two class periods of the fall term of 1990. The interval between the class periods was two days. Subsequent analysis of the data collected at that time revealed an overall test-retest reliability of .47 for the first scale, which dealt with interest in pursuing a student affairs career. An overall reliability of .58 was found on the second scale, which dealt with interest in pursuing a master's degree in the field. The reliability of individual items ranged from $-.08$ to $.54$ on the first scale, and from $-.07$ to $.72$ on the second scale.

According to Dominowski (1980), "reliability coefficients below $+0.50$, regardless of the method used, are a clear signal to treat scores with caution" (p. 260). Dominowski (1980) also noted the influence of the test-retest interval, stating that "it would not be unusual for the correlation to be near $+.85$ for a short interval such as a few days but drop to $+.50$ over weeks or months" (p. 260). In light of the fact that the test-retest interval in this case was only two days, the low reliability of the instrumentation must be regarded as a limitation on the conclusions which may be drawn from the investigation.

The low overall reliability of the instrumentation was due in part to the presence of an individual item on each scale which had a negative reliability coefficient. Additionally, a second item on each scale had a reliability coefficient of $.40$ or less. In order to gain further

insight into possible influences of the questionnaires' low reliability upon the outcomes of the investigation, a reanalysis of the data was conducted, using a three item scale to measure each of the dependent variables. The reliability of the adapted scale pertaining to interest in pursuing a student affairs career was .60. The reliability of the adapted scale pertaining to interest in pursuing a related master's degree was .64. Based on the reanalysis of the data, all of the null hypotheses were again upheld (See Appendix L for t-test and ANOVA results based on adapted scales). Given the reading behavior of the participants in the study, it is unlikely that significant differences between the experimental and control groups would have been found, even had more reliable instrumentation been used.

Generalizability of the Results

Generalizability to the Population Studied

Due to ongoing changes of enrollment during the initial phase of the investigation, precise enrollment figures for the two courses at the time of the study's inception are not available. However, the overall undergraduate enrollment of the two courses has been estimated at 198 students, based on figures available at the close of registration. One hundred eighty undergraduate students were initially available for participation in the study, 177 of whom were included in the nonexperimental component of the investigation and 167 of whom were included in the experimental component. The 177 students included in the nonexperimental component of the investigation accounted for 98% of those initially available for participation, and approximately 89% of those initially enrolled. The 167 students who completed their participation in the experimental component of the investigation accounted for 93% of

those initially available for participation and approximately 84% of those initially enrolled. It seems likely, therefore, that the participants in the study were sufficiently representative of those enrolled in the courses for conclusions to be generalized to that particular population.

Generalizability to Other Populations

Although it seems that the participants in the study were highly representative of the specific population from which they were drawn, several unique characteristics of this population may limit the degree to which the findings can be further generalized. In addition to the defining characteristics of the population itself, several characteristics which emerged among the individuals participating in the study imposed further limitations on the generalizability of the findings.

Defining characteristics of the population studied. First, it should be noted that all students participating in the study were enrolled in student leadership training courses. This population was selected partly in response to a report by the ACPA-NASPA Task Force on Professional Preparation and Practice (Recruitment, Preparation, 1989), in which it was recommended that such courses be employed as a vehicle for disseminating information about the profession. Enrollment in these courses may reflect an initial interest in campus leadership activities, which are often closely related to student affairs work. Students enrolled in these courses may, therefore, be more responsive to the treatment than would be the general student population.

Additionally, it should be noted that all students participating in the study were enrolled at Michigan State University. A number of

unique characteristics of the University and its students may have influenced the outcomes of the study, and limited generalizability of its findings and conclusions. Specifically, it should be noted that the University offers nationally recognized professional preparation programs in College and University Administration with a Student Affairs emphasis (Beatty, 1988; Sandeen, 1982). Therefore, students enrolled at the University may have greater exposure to the profession than would the general student population.

Class standing of the subjects. An additional limitation on the generalizability of the findings and conclusions of the study relates to the uneven representation of students, based on class standing. Eighty-seven (49.2%) of the subjects identified themselves as seniors, compared with only 17 (9.6%) who identified themselves as freshmen. The remaining students were fairly evenly divided, with 37 (20.9%) identifying themselves as sophomores and 36 (20.3%) identifying themselves as juniors.

As students progress toward completion of their degrees, it becomes increasingly urgent that they commit to a major field of study, which in turn places limitations on their levels of openness to career exploration. The disproportionately high representation of seniors within the sample may have resulted in a lower overall level of interest in the field than might otherwise have been found. Further analysis of students' pretest indices of interest in student affairs careers and graduate preparation in the field, based on class standing, revealed that freshmen were rated highest on both scales, with mean ratings of 13.29 and 13.35 respectively. In contrast, seniors were rated lowest on both scales, with mean ratings of 10.81 and 9.10 respectively. Sophomores had

mean ratings of 11.97 and 10.00 respectively, while juniors had mean ratings of 12.97 and 10.69 respectively. Analysis of variance revealed a significant relationship between class standing and initial ratings of interest in professional preparation in student affairs ($F=4.152$, $n=177$, $df=3$, $p=.007$). However, the difference in students' initial ratings of interest in student affairs careers, based on class standing, fell slightly short of statistical significance ($F=2.583$, $n=177$, $df=3$, $p=.055$).

It does not appear that the disproportionate representation of students by class level was a factor in the patterns of reading behavior which were observed. Further analysis of the data revealed no significant difference between lower division students (freshmen and sophomores) and upper division students (juniors and seniors) in their reading behavior ($\chi^2=1.579$, $df=1$, $p=.209$). Due to the size of the sample, a more precise analysis was not possible. It was found, however, that 2 (13.3%) of the freshmen, 1 (2.9%) of the sophomores, 6 (18.8%) of the juniors, and 11 (12.9%) of the seniors indicated that they had read materials related to careers or graduate education in the field of student affairs.

The disproportionate representation of students by class level likewise does not appear to have influenced students' responses to the treatment. Further analysis of the data revealed no significant interactive effect of class standing and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing either a career in student affairs ($F=.400$, $n=167$, $df=3$, $p=.753$) or a related master's degree ($F=.458$, $n=167$, $df=3$, $p=.712$).

Gender of the subjects. It was also found that men and women were not equally represented among the participants in the study. One hundred fourteen (64%) of the subjects identified themselves as women and 62 (35%) identified themselves as men. The disproportionately high representation of women further limits the generalizability of the findings and conclusions. In recent years, women have comprised a majority of those enrolled in master's degree programs in student affairs (Forney, 1989; Keim, 1983; Luckadoo, 1990; Stamatakos, 1989; Williams, McEwen, and Engstrom, 1990).

Further analysis of the data collected in this study revealed a significant difference in students' levels of compatibility with the profession, based on gender ($X^2=12.847$, $n=176$, $df=2$, $p=.002$). While 36.8% of the women participating in the study were rated as "High" in their compatibility with the profession, only 25.8% of the men were so rated. Those rated as "Medium" in their compatibility with the profession also accounted for 36.8% of the women participating in the study, but accounted for only 21.0% of the male participants. In contrast, the "Low" compatibility rating applied to 53.2% of the male participants, but only 26.3% of the female participants.

Further analysis also revealed that women's initial levels of interest in pursuing a career in student affairs were significantly higher than were those of men ($t=2.619$, $n=176$, $df=174$, $p=.010$). However, men and women were not found to differ significantly in their initial levels of interest in pursuing a related master's degree ($t=1.607$, $n=176$, $df=174$, $p=.110$), nor were they found to differ significantly in their reading behavior ($X^2=.293$, $n=165$, $df=1$, $p=.588$). Additionally, no significant interactive effect was found between gender

and participation in the experimental group, relevant to changes in the likelihood of pursuing either a career in student affairs ($F=.899$, $n=166$, $df=1$, $p=.345$) or a related master's degree ($F=1.475$, $n=166$, $df=1$, $p=.226$).

In view of the differences observed between male and female participants in this study, as well as the related findings of other research, it seems that the overrepresentation of women in the population studied may have resulted in higher overall levels of interest in student affairs careers than might otherwise have been found. Therefore, caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions concerning populations in which men and women are equally represented.

Racial or ethnic backgrounds of the subjects. As stated previously, the limited representation of certain racial or ethnic minority groups within the population studied precluded a more detailed analysis of differences between the subjects on the basis of racial or ethnic background. The degree to which various minority groups were represented in this population also places limitations on the generalizability of the findings.

Previous research has revealed differences in preferred fields of study among various racial or ethnic groups (Green, 1987; Powers and Lehman, 1983). Further analysis of the data from this study revealed that minority students' initial levels of interest in pursuing a career in student affairs were significantly higher than were those of majority students ($t=3.219$, $n=170$, $df=168$, $p=.002$). Minority students' initial levels of interest in pursuing a related master's degree were likewise significantly higher than were those of majority students ($t=2.601$, $n=170$, $df=168$, $p=.010$). However, the two groups were not found to differ

significantly in their compatibility with the profession. Due to the limited readership and low representation of minority students in the sample, it was not possible to test the significance of differences in students' reading behavior on the basis of racial or ethnic background. It was observed, however, that 10% of those subjects identifying themselves as members of minority classes indicated that they had read materials about the student affairs profession during the stated time period, as did 12.5% of those subjects describing themselves as Caucasian. Because of the differences which have been observed in the vocational interests of students from various racial or ethnic backgrounds, caution must be exercised in drawing conclusions concerning other populations in which representation of various racial or ethnic groups differs from that observed in the population studied.

Age of the subjects. An additional limitation on the generalizability of the findings stems from the relatively narrow distribution of the subjects, by age. Of the 174 participants who provided their ages, 166 (89.9%) were from 18 through 23 years of age. All of the participants who provided their ages were from 17 through 35 years of age.

The limited age range has implications with regard to the generalizability of the findings for two primary reasons. First, both the nature of vocational decisions and the importance which is placed on these decisions generally change as an individual passes through various life stages. Secondly, research on current graduate students in the field of student affairs suggests that individuals entering professional preparation programs in the field are typically of a "traditional" age during the undergraduate experience (Forney, 1989; Kuh, Greenlee, and

Lardy, 1978; Luckadoo, 1990; Richmond and Benton, 1988; Williams et. al., 1990). Therefore, it seems that conclusions drawn from the study would not necessarily be generalizable to populations in which nontraditional aged students are represented in greater numbers.

Marital status of the subjects. The generalizability of the findings was also limited by the homogeneity of the particular population, based on marital status. Only two (1.1%) of the subjects were married at the time of the study, and the remaining 175 subjects had never been married. Because the demands of family life often prevent married students from participating in activities which have traditionally been associated with subsequent entry into the student affairs profession, it seems likely that the results of the study would be influenced by the degree to which married students were represented among the subjects. The findings of the study are not necessarily generalizable to populations in which married and previously married students are more heavily represented.

Results of the Study

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 states that there is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the investigation revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, based on the mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that there is no relationship between exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results also revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, based on the mean difference in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a masters degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 states that there is no relationship between compatibility with the student affairs profession, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the study revealed no significant interactive effect of compatibility with the profession and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 states that there is no relationship between compatibility with the student affairs profession, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results also revealed no significant interactive effect of compatibility with the profession and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the

likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their residency. The results of the investigation revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and residency among those subjects of at least sophomore status. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their employment statuses. The results of the study revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and employment status within the overall sample. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 states that there is no relationship between students' compatibility with the student affairs profession and their levels of cocurricular involvement. The results also revealed no significant relationship between compatibility with the profession and level cocurricular involvement within the overall sample. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 states that there is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the study revealed no

significant interactive effect of residency and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 8 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 states that there is no relationship between residency, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results of the investigation revealed no significant interactive effect of residency and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 9 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 states that there is no relationship between employment status, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the study revealed no significant interactive effect of employment status and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 10 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 states that there is no relationship between employment status, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results also

revealed no significant interactive effect of employment status and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 12

Hypothesis 12 states that there is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the investigation revealed no significant interactive effect of cocurricular involvement and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 12 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 13

Hypothesis 13 states that there is no relationship between level of cocurricular involvement, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results of the study revealed no significant interactive effect of cocurricular involvement and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 13 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 14

Hypothesis 14 states that there is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information

about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in the field. The results of the study revealed no significant interactive effect of racial or ethnic background and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 14 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 15

Hypothesis 15 states that there is no relationship between racial or ethnic background, exposure to printed materials presenting information about the student affairs profession, and changes in students' expressed likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in the field. The results also revealed no significant interactive effect of racial or ethnic background and participation in the experimental group relevant to differences in pretest and posttest ratings of the likelihood of pursuing a master's degree in student affairs. Therefore, hypothesis 15 was not rejected.

Conclusions

The fact that no significant difference was found in students' levels of compatibility with the student affairs profession on the basis of residency suggests that a traditional residential undergraduate experience is not necessarily associated with greater temperamental compatibility with the profession. The fact that no significant differences were found in students' levels of compatibility with the profession on the basis of cocurricular involvement and employment suggests, further, that the previously identified undergraduate populations from which new professionals have traditionally been drawn are not necessarily more innately compatible with the profession than are other student populations.

Therefore, the fact that individuals who subsequently enter the student affairs profession typically engage in certain types of activities as undergraduates is perhaps primarily reflective of the influence of these activities, rather than of the characteristics of individuals who typically engage in them. Moreover, the results of the study suggest that the nature of this influence may extend beyond the mere provision of information about the field, since access to this type of information alone was not found to be significantly related to changes in students' levels of interest in student affairs careers or related professional preparation.

As stated previously, the results of the study do not provide a basis for conclusions concerning the influence of actual assimilation of information about the profession, due to the fact that few of the participants in the experimental group actually read the materials which were provided. Had they read these materials, it is possible that changes in their expressed likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs or a related master's degree would have differed significantly from those observed in the control group. It is also possible that significant interactive effects of exposure to the materials and compatibility with the profession, residency, cocurricular involvement, employment, and racial or ethnic background upon the subjects' levels of interest in student affairs careers or related graduate education would have been observed.

However, the fact that students chose not to read the materials may, in itself, be telling. All subjects were provided with the minimal amount of information about the profession which was deemed necessary for their completion of the questionnaires provided. It is possible that

even the most basic information about the profession is sufficient for most students to make reasoned judgements concerning their likelihood of finding satisfaction in the field. Students may have disregarded the materials because they were genuinely uninterested in the content, based upon their previous knowledge of the profession or the intensity of their commitment to other occupational fields. Both the limited readership and low overall interest in student affairs careers may be reflective of the prevailing vocational interests of contemporary students.

Another possible explanation for the students' attitudes and behavior is that the specific materials which were provided were not sufficiently attractive to capture their attention and to arouse further interest. It is also possible that the particular medium employed was not appropriate for conveying information about the field. Because the profession tends to attract socially oriented individuals, the impersonal nature of printed materials may detract from their effectiveness in inspiring interest in student affairs careers among those who are most compatible with the profession.

Practical Implications

The life circumstances of a growing number of undergraduate students preclude their participation in activities which have traditionally served as the primary means of introduction to the student affairs profession. The findings of this study, however, do not support the notion that individuals who engage in these activities are inherently more compatible with the profession than are nonparticipating students. It would seem, therefore, that efforts should be made to develop alternative means of introduction to the profession.

Since the influence of traditional means of introduction to the profession appears to entail more than the mere provision of information about the field, it would seem that in developing alternative approaches many of the characteristics of more traditional means of introduction should be emulated. Specifically, personal contact with practitioners in the field and exposure to their work activities should be incorporated into newly developed methods of recruiting new professionals. Student leadership courses may provide an appropriate vehicle for this type of contact, since they are typically taught by practitioners in the field, and often enroll students who might not otherwise have contact with student affairs professionals. It would seem that instructors should personalize the dissemination of information about the field, rather than relying exclusively or primarily on the use of printed materials.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Because of their potential utility for attracting new professionals from nontraditional student populations, it is recommended that further research be conducted on alternative sources of information about the student affairs profession, and the influence of this information upon undergraduate students' attitudes toward careers and professional preparation in the field. Because of the inherent limitations of printed materials, it is particularly recommended that research be conducted on methods of disseminating information about the profession which do not entail the exclusive use of print media.

2. Nontraditional aged students and those who are married or were previously married constitute a large segment of the undergraduate student population from which student affairs professionals have not historically been drawn in large numbers. Moreover, few of these individuals have participated in the types of activities which have served as the primary means of introduction to the field, and few attempts have been made to develop other vehicles through which to convey information about the profession to them. Because the overwhelming majority of the participants in this study were of a traditional college age and had never been married, little is known about the potential impact of the treatment on nontraditional aged students and those who are married or were previously married. Further research involving this segment of the undergraduate student population is strongly recommended.
3. If the basic design of this study is to be replicated, it is essential that more reliable instrumentation be developed for measuring changes in students' attitudes toward careers and graduate education in student affairs. The patterns which were observed in the reliability of individual items on the instruments used in this study hold implications for the design of future instrumentation. On each scale, the item which dealt most directly with students' likelihood of entering the student affairs profession, either by "pursuing a long-term career in college student affairs and services" or by "enrolling in a master's degree program specifically related to college student affairs and services," had a negative test-retest reliability coefficient. Of the remaining items on each scale, the lowest reliability was again found on that which

reflected the strongest commitment to entering the profession, either by "applying for professional employment in the field of college student affairs and services" or by "applying for admission to a master's degree program specifically related to college student affairs and services." In view of this pattern, it is recommended that future scales for measuring students' likelihood of pursuing a career in student affairs or related professional preparation include a number of items pertaining to more subtle behaviors which reflect an interest in the field, rather than items which directly request that students rate their levels of interest in the profession.

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APPENDIX A
EXTRACURRICULAR INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY

Last four digits of student identification number: _____

Mother's maiden name: _____

EXTRACURRICULAR INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY

Anne V. Massaro • Roger B. Winston, Jr.

This Inventory is concerned with your involvement in extracurricular activities. Membership in any organized student group for which you *are not paid and do not receive academic credit* is considered involvement in extracurricular activities. Examples of extracurricular groups and organizations include: residence hall council, student center/union committee, Wesley Foundation, social fraternity/sorority, intramural football team, intercollegiate track team, student government council or committee, service organization, college newspaper or yearbook, debate team, Bible study group, drama club, choir, Biology Club, Mortar Board, etc.

Please begin by answering the following questions.

1. What is your gender? (*Check one.*)
☐ Male ☐ Female
2. What was your age at your last birthday? _____
3. What is your racial or cultural background? (*Select the one best response.*)
☐ Black or Afro-American ☐ Indian or Native People
☐ Hispanic ☐ White or Caucasian
☐ Oriental or Asian or Pacific Islander ☐ Decline to Respond
☐ Any Other, Specify: _____
4. What is your class standing? (*Check one.*)
☐ Freshman ☐ Junior ☐ Graduate Student
☐ Sophomore ☐ Senior ☐ Other, Specify: _____
5. What is your marital status? (*Check one.*)
☐ Never married ☐ No longer married ☐ Married
6. Where do you presently live? (*Select the one best response.*)
☐ Single-sex college residence hall ☐ In apartment/house/trailer (*not with parent(s) or spouse*)
☐ Coed college residence hall
☐ At home with parent(s) ☐ Fraternity/Sorority House
☐ At home with spouse
7. During the past four weeks, in how many extracurricular groups or organizations (as defined above) have you been involved? (*Check one.*)
☐ None . . . *You need complete no more of the Inventory. Thank you!*
☐ One
☐ Two
☐ Three
☐ Four
☐ Five or more

If you indicated that you were involved in one or more student groups or organizations within the past four weeks, please complete one of the attached Involvement Indexes for each.

INVOLVEMENT INDEX

Anne V. Massaro • Roger B. Winston, Jr.

Please indicate: (1) the type of organization it is, (2) the approximate number of hours you have been involved (for example, attending meetings, working on projects, or playing games) with this group or organization in the *last four weeks*, and (3) leadership position held, if any. Then, answer questions 1 through 5 below.

What type of organization is it? (*Check one.*)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social Fraternity/Sorority | <input type="checkbox"/> Intercollegiate Athletic Team |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Religious | <input type="checkbox"/> Academic (academic department or major related) Club or Society |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Academic Honorary | <input type="checkbox"/> Programming (e. g., Student Center/Union, lecture or concert committee) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Intramural Sports Team | <input type="checkbox"/> Student Publication (e. g., newspaper, magazine, or yearbook) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Service or Philanthropic | <input type="checkbox"/> Performing Group (e. g., choir, drama production, debate team) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Governance (e.g., hall council, student government, student judiciary) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify): _____ | |

In the last four weeks, for approximately how many hours have you been involved with this group or organization and its activities or programs? (*Check one.*)

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> None | <input type="checkbox"/> 9-16 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 25-32 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 41-48 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 57-64 hours |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-8 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 17-24 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 33-40 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 49-56 hours | <input type="checkbox"/> 65 or more hours |

In the last four weeks have you held an office in this organization or a position equivalent to one of the following offices? (*Check one.*)

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> President/Chairperson/Team Captain/Editor | <input type="checkbox"/> Treasurer |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Vice-President/Vice-Chairperson | <input type="checkbox"/> Committee/Task Force/Project Chairperson |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Secretary | <input type="checkbox"/> I held no office or leadership position. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other Office, Please specify: _____ | |

Please respond to the following statements about your involvement in the above student organization or group. Check the one best response for each statement.

DURING THE PAST FOUR WEEKS . . .

1. When I attended meetings, I expressed my opinion and/or took part in the discussions.
☐ Very Often ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Never
☐ I attended no meetings in the past four weeks.
☐ The group/organization held no meetings in the past four weeks.
2. When I was away from members of the group/organization, I talked with others about the organization and its activities, or wore a pin, jersey, etc. to let others know about my membership.
☐ Very Often ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Never
3. When the group/organization sponsored a program or activity, I made an effort to encourage other students and/or members to attend.
☐ Very Often ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Never
☐ The organization had no program or activity during the past four weeks.
4. I volunteered or was assigned responsibility to work on something that the group/organization needed to have done.
☐ Very Often ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Never
5. I fulfilled my assigned duties or responsibilities to the group/organization on time.
☐ Very Often ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Never
☐ I had no duties or responsibilities except to attend meetings.

Please continue until you have completed an Involvement Index for every student group or organization in which you have been involved in the last four weeks.

APPENDIX B

VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY - 1985 REVISION (SHORT FORM),

**VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY (VPI) - 1985 REVISION
[SHORT FORM]**

Developed by John L. Holland, Ph.D.

This is an inventory of your feelings and attitudes about many kinds of work. Fill out your answer sheet by following the directions given below:

1. Show on your answer sheet the occupations which *interest* or *appeal* to you by circling Y for "Yes."
2. Show the occupations which you *dislike* or find *uninteresting* by circling N for "No."
3. Make *no marks* when you are undecided about an occupation.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Airplane Mechanic | 19. Carpenter |
| 2. Meteorologist | 20. Medical Laboratory Technician |
| 3. Poet | 21. Author |
| 4. Sociologist | 22. Speech Therapist |
| 5. Speculator | 23. Manufacturer's Representative |
| 6. Bookkeeper | 24. Certified Public Accountant |
| 7. Fish and Wildlife Specialist | 25. Hunting or Fishing Guide |
| 8. Biologist | 26. Anthropologist |
| 9. Symphony Conductor | 27. Commercial Artist |
| 10. High School Teacher | 28. Marriage Counselor |
| 11. Buyer | 29. Television Producer |
| 12. Business Teacher | 30. Credit Investigator |
| 13. Auto Mechanic | 31. Surveyor |
| 14. Astronomer | 32. Zoologist |
| 15. Musician | 33. Free-Lance Writer |
| 16. Juvenile Delinquency Expert | 34. School Principal |
| 17. Advertising Executive | 35. Hotel Manager |
| 18. Budget Reviewer | 36. Court Stenographer |

[Continue on the back.]

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 37. Construction Inspector | 61. Bus Driver |
| 38. Chemist | 62. Geologist |
| 39. Musical Arranger | 63. Composer |
| 40. Playground Director | 64. Youth Camp Director |
| 41. Business Executive | 65. Real Estate Salesperson |
| 42. Bank Teller | 66. Financial Analyst |
| 43. Radio Operator | 67. Locomotive Engineer |
| 44. Independent Research Scientist | 68. Botanist |
| 45. Journalist | 69. Sculptor/Sculptress |
| 46. Clinical Psychologist | 70. Personal Counselor |
| 47. Restaurant Manager | 71. Publicity Director |
| 48. Tax Expert | 72. Cost Estimator |
| 49. Electronic Technician | 73. Machinist |
| 50. Writer of Scientific Articles | 74. Scientific Research Worker |
| 51. Portrait Artist | 75. Playwright |
| 52. Social Science Teacher | 76. Psychiatric Case Worker |
| 53. Master of Ceremonies | 77. Department Store Manager |
| 54. Inventory Controller | 78. Payroll Clerk |
| 55. Tree Surgeon | 79. Electrician |
| 56. Editor of Scientific Journal | 80. Physicist |
| 57. Concert Singer | 81. Cartoonist |
| 58. Director of Welfare Agency | 82. Vocational Counselor |
| 59. Salesperson | 83. Sales Manager |
| 60. IBM Equipment Operator | 84. Bank Examiner |

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VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY (VPI) - 1985 REVISION [SHORT FORM]

Answer Sheet

Identifying information:

Last four digits of student identification number: _____

Mother's maiden name: _____

Answer section:

- | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. Y N | 18. Y N | 35. Y N | 52. Y N | 69. Y N |
| 2. Y N | 19. Y N | 36. Y N | 53. Y N | 70. Y N |
| 3. Y N | 20. Y N | 37. Y N | 54. Y N | 71. Y N |
| 4. Y N | 21. Y N | 38. Y N | 55. Y N | 72. Y N |
| 5. Y N | 22. Y N | 39. Y N | 56. Y N | 73. Y N |
| 6. Y N | 23. Y N | 40. Y N | 57. Y N | 74. Y N |
| 7. Y N | 24. Y N | 41. Y N | 58. Y N | 75. Y N |
| 8. Y N | 25. Y N | 42. Y N | 59. Y N | 76. Y N |
| 9. Y N | 26. Y N | 43. Y N | 60. Y N | 77. Y N |
| 10. Y N | 27. Y N | 44. Y N | 61. Y N | 78. Y N |
| 11. Y N | 28. Y N | 45. Y N | 62. Y N | 79. Y N |
| 12. Y N | 29. Y N | 46. Y N | 63. Y N | 80. Y N |
| 13. Y N | 30. Y N | 47. Y N | 64. Y N | 81. Y N |
| 14. Y N | 31. Y N | 48. Y N | 65. Y N | 82. Y N |
| 15. Y N | 32. Y N | 49. Y N | 66. Y N | 83. Y N |
| 16. Y N | 33. Y N | 50. Y N | 67. Y N | 84. Y N |
| 17. Y N | 34. Y N | 51. Y N | 68. Y N | . |

APPENDIX C

STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE AND INSTRUCTIONS

QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUCTIONS

College student affairs and services is a profession that is concerned with promoting the total development of college and university students, through a variety of services and programs, including: Residence Life, Student Activities, Career Planning and Placement, Admissions and Records, Counseling, International Student Services, Minority Student Affairs, New Student Orientation, Intramural Sports and Recreation, Financial Aid, and Judicial Affairs.

The attached questionnaire has been developed for use in a study of undergraduate students' attitudes concerning college student affairs and services as an occupational field.

The purposes of the questionnaire are:

- o To determine undergraduate students' current levels of familiarity with college student affairs and services, as an occupational field.**
- o To assess undergraduate students' levels of interest in working as student affairs and services professionals, at any college or university, at some time in the future.**
- o To assess undergraduate students' levels of interest in pursuing graduate studies specifically related to college student affairs and services at some time in the future.**
- o To examine the current employment status of students with various levels of interest in the field of college student affairs and services.**

In completing the questionnaire, please read each item carefully and completely before responding. Provide exactly the information that is requested, based on your current knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. Respond by choosing from among the alternatives presented. Circle only one response for each item.

STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Identifying Information:

1. Last four digits of student identification number: _____
2. Mother's maiden name: _____

Employment:

Please respond to the following items by circling the appropriate response:

1. Are you presently employed off campus?
 - a. No
 - b. Yes
2. Are you presently employed on campus?
 - a. No
 - b. Yes (Please specify department): _____

Familiarity with the college student affairs and services profession:

Please rate your level of familiarity with the occupational field of college student affairs and services (Circle only one response):

1. Very low
2. Low
3. Moderate
4. High
5. Very high

Interest in college student affairs and services careers:

Please rate the probability of your engaging in the behaviors listed below at any time in the future, using the following scale (Circle only one response for each item):

1. Very low
2. Low
3. Moderate
4. High
5. Very high

		VL	L	M	H	VH
1.	Initiating contact with a college student affairs and services professional, to discuss career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Reading books and periodicals about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Contacting a professional organization in the field of college student affairs and services, to inquire about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Applying for professional employment in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Pursuing a long-term career in college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5

Interest in college student affairs and services graduate preparation programs:

Please rate the probability of your engaging in the behaviors listed below at any time in the future, using the following scale:

1. Very low
2. Low
3. Moderate
4. High
5. Very high

		VL	L	M	H	VH
1.	Initiating contact with a faculty or staff member to discuss types of master's degree programs <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Referring to college guides or graduate program directories to obtain information about master's degree programs <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Contacting a graduate school to inquire about a particular master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Applying for admission to a master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Enrolling in a master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D
COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS & SERVICES
CAREER INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS & SERVICES CAREER INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

Identifying Information:

1. Last four digits of student identification number: _____
2. Mother's maiden name: _____

Questionnaire Instructions:

Several weeks ago, you were asked to respond to several questions concerning your attitude toward the occupational field of college student affairs and services, and the likelihood of your pursuing a career or graduate education in the field. While enrolled in this course, you have probably had an opportunity to learn more about the relationship between the academic and cocurricular aspects of university life. The purpose of this follow-up questionnaire is to assess your level of interest in the field of college student affairs and services as of today.

In completing the questionnaire, please read each item carefully and completely before responding. Provide exactly the information that is requested, based on your current knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. Respond by choosing from among the alternatives presented. Circle only one response for each item.

Please rate the probability of your engaging in the behaviors listed below at any time in the future, using the following scale (Circle only one response for each item):

1. Very low
2. Low
3. Moderate
4. High
5. Very high

		VL	L	M	H	VH
1.	Initiating contact with a college student affairs and services professional, to discuss career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Reading books and periodicals about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Contacting a professional organization in the field of college student affairs and services, to inquire about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Applying for professional employment in the field of college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Pursuing a long-term career in college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Initiating contact with a faculty or staff member to discuss types of master's degree programs <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Referring to college guides or graduate program directories to obtain information about master's degree programs <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Contacting a graduate school to inquire about a particular master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Applying for admission to a master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Enrolling in a master's degree program <u>specifically</u> related to college student affairs and services.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS & SERVICES
CAREER INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

**COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS & SERVICES
CAREER INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE**

Identifying information:

Last four digits of student identification number: _____

Mother's maiden name: _____

Please respond to the following questions as carefully and completely as possible.
You may write on the back of this page if necessary.

1. Have you read any printed materials specifically related to careers in college student affairs and services or graduate education in the field, within the past seven weeks?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
2. If you responded "Yes" to item 1, please describe the materials which you read. Indicate the nature of the document(s) (e.g., book, journal article, informational brochure). If possible, please also name the title and author of the particular work(s).
3. If you responded "Yes" to item 1, please share your reaction to the materials which you read. Were they interesting? Informative? What information contained in the materials was most useful to you?

APPENDIX F

INSTRUCTOR'S DIRECTIONS,
INSTRUCTOR'S REPORT FORMS,
STUDENT IDENTIFICATION FORM,
LETTER TO THE STUDENT,
CONSENT FORM

INSTRUCTOR'S DIRECTIONS

These instructions have been prepared in order to assist you in collecting data from the students enrolled in your section of EAD 415. It is important that you completely adhere to the procedures outlined, and that all instructions to the students be read verbatim.

1. Schedule approximately 35 minutes, within the first two weeks of the term, for explanation of the study, and completion of the following materials:
 - a. Consent Form
 - b. Student Identification Form
 - c. Student Information Questionnaire
 - d. Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI)
 - e. Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII)

It is recommended that you schedule this time at the end of a class period, since students will vary in the amount of time required to complete the EII.

2. At the scheduled time, administer the questionnaires and inventories to the students, using the following script:

YOU HAVE BEEN SELECTED TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY DEALING WITH THE OCCUPATIONAL FIELD OF COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES.

COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES IS A PROFESSION THAT IS CONCERNED WITH PROMOTING THE TOTAL DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS, THROUGH A VARIETY OF SERVICES AND PROGRAMS, INCLUDING: RESIDENCE LIFE, STUDENT ACTIVITIES, CAREER PLANNING AND PLACEMENT, ADMISSIONS AND RECORDS, COUNSELING, INTERNATIONAL STUDENT SERVICES, MINORITY STUDENT AFFAIRS, NEW STUDENT ORIENTATION, INTRAMURAL SPORTS AND RECREATION, FINANCIAL AID, AND JUDICIAL AFFAIRS.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY IS TO GAIN A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' LEVELS OF FAMILIARITY WITH THIS FIELD, AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD THE FIELD, AS A POSSIBLE CAREER ALTERNATIVE FOR THEMSELVES.

AS A PARTICIPANT IN THIS STUDY, YOU WILL BE ASKED TO RESPOND TO SEVERAL QUESTIONS CONCERNING YOUR OWN KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES RELATED TO THE PROFESSION, AND YOUR CURRENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS. YOU WILL ALSO BE ASKED TO COMPLETE TWO PERSONAL ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS. ONE OF THESE INSTRUMENTS, THE EXTRACURRICULAR INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY, DEALS PRIMARILY WITH YOUR PARTICIPATION IN OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES ON CAMPUS, IN ADDITION TO

SOLICITING DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ABOUT YOU.

THE SECOND ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT, THE VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY, DEALS WITH YOUR ATTITUDES TOWARD MANY KINDS OF WORK. THE INSTRUMENT WAS DEVELOPED BY DR. JOHN HOLLAND, TO ASSIST PEOPLE IN IDENTIFYING TYPES OF WORK THAT ARE SUITED TO THEIR INTERESTS. AT THIS TIME, YOU WILL BE RECEIVING A COPY OF THE BOOKLET, YOU AND YOUR CAREER, WHICH EXPLAINS DR. HOLLAND'S SYSTEM OF CAREER DECISION MAKING. YOU MAY KEEP THE BOOKLET, EVEN IF YOU CHOOSE NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY.

[Distribute You and Your Career.]

IF YOU WOULD LIKE TO KNOW THE RESULTS OF YOUR VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY, THIS INFORMATION WILL BE MADE AVAILABLE TO YOU UPON COMPLETION OF THE STUDY. THE RESULTS OF THE INVENTORY CAN BE VERY USEFUL FOR IDENTIFYING THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONS IN WHICH YOU ARE LIKELY TO FIND SUCCESS AND SATISFACTION AS A LEADER, PARTICULARLY WITHIN THE WORLD OF WORK. YOU ARE ENCOURAGED TO SAVE THE BOOKLET THAT YOU'VE RECEIVED, SINCE IT WILL HELP YOU TO BETTER UNDERSTAND YOUR RESULTS FROM THE VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY WILL REQUIRE A TOTAL OF APPROXIMATELY 50 MINUTES, DURING TWO CLASS PERIODS OVER THE COURSE OF A SEVEN WEEK PERIOD, FOR COMPLETION OF ALL QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES.

YOU WILL BE ASKED TO PROVIDE YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS TO THE RESEARCHER. THIS INFORMATION IS NECESSARY FOR POSSIBLE FOLLOW-UP COMMUNICATION. HOWEVER, ALL IDENTIFYING INFORMATION APPEARING ON THE QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES WILL BE CODED. ALL RESULTS WILL BE KEPT STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL, AND THE IDENTITIES OF INDIVIDUAL PARTICIPANTS WILL NOT BE INCLUDED IN THE FINAL REPORT OF THE STUDY.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY, AND YOUR GRADE IN THIS COURSE WILL NOT BE AFFECTED IN ANY WAY IF YOU CHOOSE NOT TO PARTICIPATE. HOWEVER, YOUR PARTICIPATION WOULD CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUCCESS OF THE INVESTIGATION, AND WOULD BE GREATLY APPRECIATED.

YOU HAVE THE RIGHT TO WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY AT

ANY TIME WITHOUT PENALTY.

AT THIS TIME, YOU WILL RECEIVE AN ENVELOPE, A LETTER FROM THE RESEARCHER EXPLAINING THE STUDY, AND A CONSENT FORM.

[Distribute envelopes, letters, and Consent Forms.]

PLEASE TAKE A FEW MOMENTS TO READ THESE MATERIALS. IF YOU CHOOSE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY, PLEASE SIGN THE CONSENT FORM AND PLACE IT IN THE ENVELOPE.

IF YOU CHOOSE NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY, YOU MAY USE THIS TIME TO COMPLETE ANOTHER ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT KNOWN AS THE SELF-DIRECTED SEARCH. LIKE THE VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY, THIS INSTRUMENT WAS DEVELOPED BY DR. HOLLAND TO ASSIST PEOPLE IN IDENTIFYING TYPES OF WORK THAT ARE SUITED TO THEIR INTERESTS. HOWEVER, THIS PARTICULAR INVENTORY CAN BE SCORED BY YOU. A MEMBER OF THE STUDENT LIFE STAFF WILL BE AVAILABLE DURING A LATER CLASS PERIOD, TO INDIVIDUALLY DISCUSS YOUR RESULTS WITH YOU, IF YOU SO CHOOSE.

[Distribute Self-Directed Search to all nonparticipating students. Continue after all participating students have placed their forms in the envelopes.]

NOW YOU WILL RECEIVE A STUDENT IDENTIFICATION FORM.

[Distribute Student Identification Forms.]

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FORM, PROVIDING YOUR NAME AND THE ADDRESS WHERE YOU LIVE WHILE YOU ARE AT SCHOOL. IT IS ALSO IMPORTANT THAT YOU PROVIDE THE LAST FOUR DIGITS OF YOUR STUDENT IDENTIFICATION NUMBER* AND YOUR MOTHER'S MAIDEN NAME, BECAUSE THIS INFORMATION WILL BE USED FOR CODING YOUR QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES.

- *If the student identification number is not known, the student can substitute the last four digits of his or her social security number. The last four digits of his or her home telephone number can be used only if neither the student identification number nor the social security number is known.*

IF YOU WOULD LIKE TO RECEIVE A REPORT OF YOUR VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY RESULTS, PLEASE

INDICATE THIS BY CIRCLING THE LETTER "A" AT THE BOTTOM OF YOUR FORM. THE RESULTS WILL BE PROVIDED BY THE INSTRUCTOR IF REQUESTED, SO THAT THE INSTRUCTOR CAN HELP INTERPRET THE RESULTS. ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE FORM, PLEASE PLACE IT IN YOUR ENVELOPE WITH THE OTHER MATERIALS.

[Continue when all participating students have completed their forms and placed them in their envelopes.]

AT THIS TIME, YOU WILL RECEIVE A QUESTIONNAIRE DEALING WITH YOUR CURRENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND YOUR ATTITUDES TOWARD THE FIELD OF COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES. YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DESCRIBE YOUR CURRENT LEVEL OF FAMILIARITY WITH THE PROFESSION, AND YOUR LIKELIHOOD OF PURSUING GRADUATE STUDIES SPECIFICALLY RELATED TO THE FIELD. YOU WILL ALSO BE ASKED ABOUT YOUR LEVEL OF INTEREST IN WORKING AS A STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES PROFESSIONAL, AT ANY COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY, AT SOME TIME IN THE FUTURE.

[Distribute the Student Information Questionnaire and Questionnaire Instructions.]

IN COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND COMPLETELY BEFORE RESPONDING. PROVIDE EXACTLY THE INFORMATION THAT IS REQUESTED, BASED ON YOUR CURRENT KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE SUBJECT MATTER. RESPOND BY CHOOSING FROM AMONG THE ALTERNATIVES PRESENTED. CIRCLE ONLY ONE RESPONSE FOR EACH ITEM. ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE PLACE IT IN YOUR ENVELOPE WITH THE OTHER MATERIALS.

[Continue when all participating students have completed their questionnaires and placed them in their envelopes.]

NOW YOU WILL RECEIVE THE VOCATIONAL PREFERENCE INVENTORY.

[Distribute the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), including both the list of occupations and the answer sheet.]

THIS IS AN INVENTORY OF YOUR FEELINGS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT MANY KINDS OF WORK. IN FILLING OUT YOUR ANSWER SHEET, SHOW THE OCCUPATIONS WHICH INTEREST OR APPEAL TO YOU BY CIRCLING THE LETTER "Y" FOR "YES." SHOW THE OCCUPATIONS WHICH YOU DISLIKE OR FIND UNINTERESTING BY CIRCLING THE LETTER "N" FOR "NO." MAKE NO MARKS WHEN YOU ARE

UNDECIDED ABOUT AN OCCUPATION. ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE INVENTORY, PLEASE PLACE BOTH SHEETS IN YOUR ENVELOPE.

[Continue when all participating students have placed their VPI's in their envelopes.]

YOU WILL NOW RECEIVE THE EXTRACURRICULAR INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY.

[Distribute the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory (EII).]

THIS INVENTORY IS CONCERNED WITH YOUR INVOLVEMENT IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES. MEMBERSHIP IN ANY ORGANIZED STUDENT GROUP FOR WHICH YOU ARE NOT PAID AND DO NOT RECEIVE ACADEMIC CREDIT IS CONSIDERED INVOLVEMENT IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES. EXAMPLES OF EXTRACURRICULAR GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS INCLUDE: RESIDENCE HALL COUNCIL, STUDENT CENTER OR UNION COMMITTEE, WESLEY FOUNDATION, SOCIAL FRATERNITY OR SORORITY, INTRAMURAL FOOTBALL TEAM, INTERCOLLEGIATE TRACK TEAM, STUDENT GOVERNMENT COUNCIL OR COMMITTEE, SERVICE ORGANIZATION, COLLEGE NEWSPAPER OR YEARBOOK, DEBATE TEAM, BIBLE STUDY GROUP, DRAMA CLUB, CHOIR, BIOLOGY CLUB, MORTAR BOARD, ETC.

THE FIRST PAGE OF THE INVENTORY REQUESTS SOME BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT YOU. YOU WILL ALSO BE ASKED TO INDICATE THE NUMBER OF EXTRACURRICULAR GROUPS OR ORGANIZATIONS IN WHICH YOU HAVE BEEN INVOLVED DURING THE PAST FOUR WEEKS. THIS IS TO BE UNDERSTOOD AS THE LAST FOUR FULL WEEKS, OF EITHER THIS TERM OR LAST TERM, DURING WHICH CLASSES WERE IN SESSION. IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN INVOLVED IN ANY EXTRACURRICULAR GROUPS OR ORGANIZATIONS DURING THIS TIME, IT WILL NOT BE NECESSARY FOR YOU TO COMPLETE THE REMAINING PAGES OF THE INVENTORY. IF YOU HAVE BEEN INVOLVED IN ONE OR MORE STUDENT GROUPS OR ORGANIZATIONS DURING THE LAST FOUR WEEKS OF CLASSES, IT WILL BE NECESSARY FOR YOU TO COMPLETE ONE OF THE PAGES LABELED "INVOLVEMENT INDEX" FOR EACH OF THESE GROUPS. FIVE INVOLVEMENT INDEX PAGES HAVE BEEN PROVIDED FOR YOUR USE. ADDITIONAL INVOLVEMENT INDEX PAGES ARE AVAILABLE IF NECESSARY. IF YOU HAVE BEEN INVOLVED IN MORE THAN FIVE STUDENT GROUPS OR ORGANIZATIONS DURING THE LAST FOUR WEEKS OF CLASSES, PLEASE INDICATE THIS BY RAISING YOUR HAND AT THIS TIME.

[Provide students with one additional Involvement Index page for each group or organization beyond their first five.]

ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE INVENTORY, PLEASE PLACE THE COMPLETED FORM IN THE ENVELOPE WITH THE OTHER MATERIALS.

[Once the students have completed their EII's and placed them in their envelopes, collect the envelopes, and thank them for their participation.]

3. After all of the envelopes have been collected, write your section number on the outside of each one, and hand deliver them to Joe Murray at 101 Student Services Building, along with the Phase I Instructor's Report Form.
4. Schedule a period of approximately 15 minutes for completion of the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire and the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire, seven weeks after the students have completed the other instruments. If any of the students in your section chose not to participate in the study, notify Joe Murray of the specific time at which the second phase of the investigation is scheduled, so that a member of the Student and Leadership Development staff can be present to discuss the nonparticipating students' Self-Directed Search results with them.
5. At the scheduled time, administer the questionnaire, using the following script:

SEVERAL WEEKS AGO, MANY OF YOU AGREED TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE OCCUPATIONAL FIELD OF COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES. AT THAT TIME, YOU COMPLETED SEVERAL QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES. TO CONCLUDE YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY, YOU ARE NOW ASKED TO COMPLETE TWO VERY BRIEF QUESTIONNAIRES.*

- * *If any of the students in your section have chosen not to participate in the study, read the following statement:*

DURING THE INITIAL PHASE OF THIS STUDY, SOME OF YOU CHOSE INSTEAD TO COMPLETE AN ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT KNOWN AS THE SELF-DIRECTED SEARCH. DURING THIS PHASE OF THE INVESTIGATION, [NAME OF STUDENT LIFE STAFF MEMBER PRESENT], FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF STUDENT LIFE, WILL BE AVAILABLE TO MEET WITH YOU AND DISCUSS THE RESULTS OF THE SELF-DIRECTED SEARCH, IF YOU SO CHOOSE.

[Distribute the College Student Affairs and Services Career Interest Questionnaire and envelopes.]

AMONG THE QUESTIONS THAT YOU WERE ASKED PREVIOUSLY WERE SEVERAL DEALING WITH YOUR LIKELIHOOD OF PURSUING A CAREER OR GRADUATE EDUCATION IN COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES AT SOME TIME IN THE FUTURE. WHILE ENROLLED IN THIS COURSE, YOU HAVE PROBABLY HAD AN OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN MORE ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACADEMIC AND COCURRICULAR ASPECTS OF UNIVERSITY LIFE. THE PURPOSE OF THIS FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE IS TO ASSESS YOUR LEVEL OF INTEREST IN THE FIELD OF COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES AS OF TODAY. IN COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND COMPLETELY BEFORE RESPONDING. PROVIDE EXACTLY THE INFORMATION THAT IS REQUESTED, BASED ON YOUR CURRENT KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE SUBJECT MATTER. RESPOND BY CHOOSING FROM AMONG THE ALTERNATIVES PRESENTED. CIRCLE ONLY ONE RESPONSE FOR EACH ITEM. IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOU ALSO PROVIDE THE IDENTIFYING INFORMATION, USING THE CODE EMPLOYED ON THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES. ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE PLACE IT IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED.

[Once the students have completed the questionnaires and placed them in the envelopes, distribute the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire.]

THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE THAT YOU WILL BE COMPLETING DEALS WITH ANY INFORMATIONAL MATERIALS WHICH YOU MIGHT HAVE READ DURING THE LAST SEVEN WEEKS, RELATED SPECIFICALLY TO CAREER OPPORTUNITIES IN THE FIELD OF COLLEGE STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES OR RELATED GRADUATE PREPARATION. PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND COMPLETELY. AGAIN, IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOU PROVIDE THE IDENTIFYING INFORMATION, USING THE CODE EMPLOYED PREVIOUSLY. ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLEASE PLACE IT IN YOUR ENVELOPE.

[Collect the envelopes once the students have completed both questionnaires, and thank them for their participation.]

6. After all of the envelopes have been collected, write your section number on the outside of each one, and deliver them by hand to Joe Murray at 101 Student Services Building, along with the Phase II Instructor's Report Form.

7. VPI profile reports for all students in your course section who have requested their results will be provided to you immediately upon receipt of the follow-up questionnaires. At that time you will also receive copies of Michigan State University's Career Planning Guide for ALL students enrolled in your section. A limited number of copies of the University's Graduate/Professional School Preparation Guide & Checklist will also be made available. These booklets are to be distributed to those students in your section who are considering entering graduate or professional school at some time in the future.

When you distribute the VPI results, you are encouraged to review Holland's theory of career development, in order to assist students in interpreting their scores. You may also wish to refer them to the booklet, You and Your Career, at that time.

PHASE I INSTRUCTOR'S REPORT FORM

Course (EAD 415A or EAD 415B) and section number: _____

Date of Phase I session: _____

Number of students enrolled in the class: _____

Number of students participating in the study: _____

Number of students declining to participate in the study: _____

Number of students absent or otherwise unavailable for participation: _____

Please use the remaining space to comment on any unusual circumstances which might affect the outcomes of the study.

Instructor's signature: _____

PHASE II INSTRUCTOR'S REPORT FORM

Course (EAD 415A or EAD 415B) and section number: _____

Date of Phase II session: _____

Number of students enrolled in the class: _____

Number of students participating in the study: _____

Number of students declining to participate in the study: _____

Number of students absent or otherwise unavailable for participation: _____

Please use the remaining space to comment on any unusual circumstances which might affect the outcomes of the study.

Instructor's signature: _____

STUDENT IDENTIFICATION FORM

Name: _____

Local address: _____

Mother's maiden name: _____

Last four digits of student identification number: _____

Do you wish to receive a copy of your Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) profile upon completion of this study?

- a. Yes
- b. No

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT
FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES
STUDENT SERVICES BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1113

Dear Student:

Thank you for your participation in this study. The information requested of you will be used to gain a better understanding of undergraduate students' levels of familiarity with the occupational field of college student affairs and services, and their attitudes toward this field, as a possible career option for themselves.

As a participant in this study, you will be asked to respond to several questions concerning your own knowledge and attitudes related to the profession, and your current employment status. You will also be asked to complete two personal assessment instruments. One of these instruments, the Extracurricular Involvement Inventory, deals primarily with your participation in out-of-class activities on campus, in addition to soliciting general demographic information about you. The second assessment instrument, the Vocational Preference Inventory, deals with your attitudes toward various types of work. All of the questionnaires and inventories will be completed in a total of approximately 50 minutes, during two class sessions, over the course of a seven week period.

You will be asked to provide your name and address. This information is necessary for possible follow-up communication. Individual participants will be identified on all questionnaires and inventories, for purposes of data analysis. However, a coding system will be used, with complete identifying information provided on a separate document. Participants' names will not appear on any of the questionnaires or inventories. All results will be kept strictly confidential, and the identities of individual participants will not be included in the final report of the study.

Upon completion of the study, the results of your Vocational Preference Inventory will be made available to you. Results will be provided by your instructor if requested, so that the instructor can help interpret the results. You will probably find the information provided to be quite helpful in identifying the characteristics of organizations in which you are likely to find success and satisfaction as a leader, particularly within the world of work.

Thank you, again, for your participation. Your time and cooperation are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Joseph L. Murray
Staff Advisor, Department of Student Life
Research Assistant, Department of Educational Administration

CONSENT FORM

I understand that by signing this consent form, I agree to participate in a research project on student attitudes toward careers in college student affairs and services, by completing the materials provided as fully and completely as possible.

I understand that I am free to discontinue my participation without penalty at any time if I so choose.

Further, I can obtain a copy of the results of this study by contacting the researcher at any time after the conclusion of my participation.

(signature)

APPENDIX G

COVER LETTER TO STUDENT AND
INFORMATIONAL BOOKLET

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT
FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES
STUDENT SERVICES BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1113

February 4, 1991

[Name and address of student]

Dear [Name of student]:

Thank you for your participation in the current study of undergraduate students' knowledge and attitudes concerning careers in the field of college student affairs and services. Your time and cooperation are greatly appreciated.

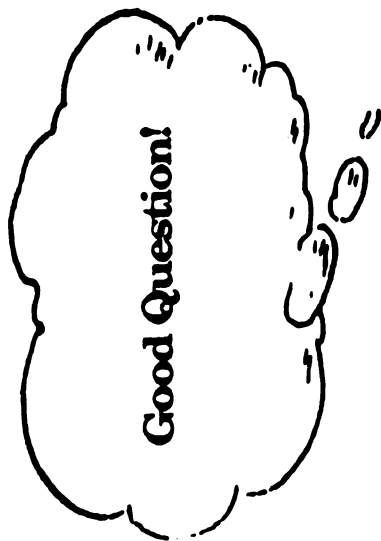
I am enclosing a booklet which I thought you might find interesting. The booklet provides some basic information about the field of college student affairs and services. It provides an overview of the profession's philosophy and purpose, as well as the various types of work available in the field. It also includes information about professional preparation programs, and opportunities for graduate assistantships, which can serve as a means of financing your graduate education, while also providing professional work experience. I encourage you to read the booklet, and to consider career options in the field of college student affairs and services.

Thank you, again, for participating in the study. I wish you much success in whatever occupational field you choose.

Sincerely,

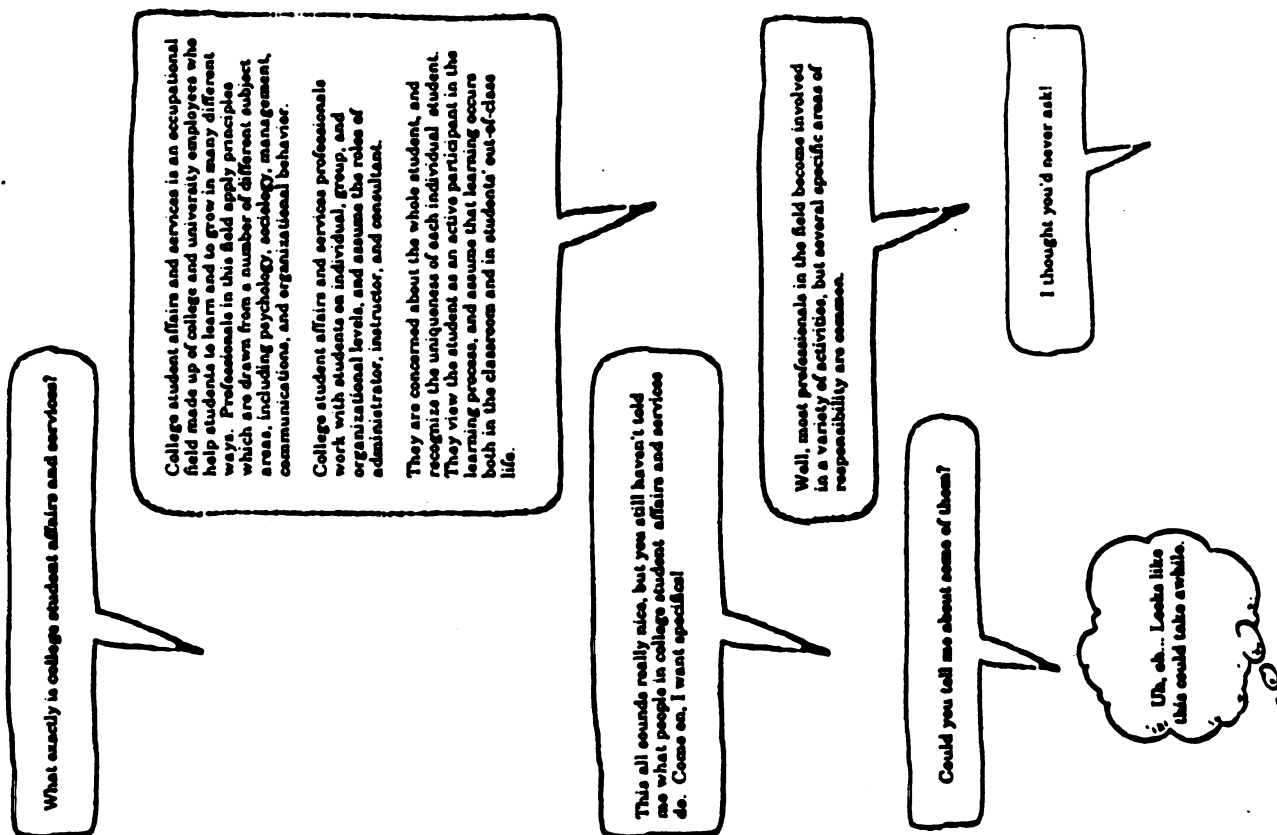
Joseph L. Murray
Staff Advisor, Department of Student Life
Research Assistant, Department of Educational Administration

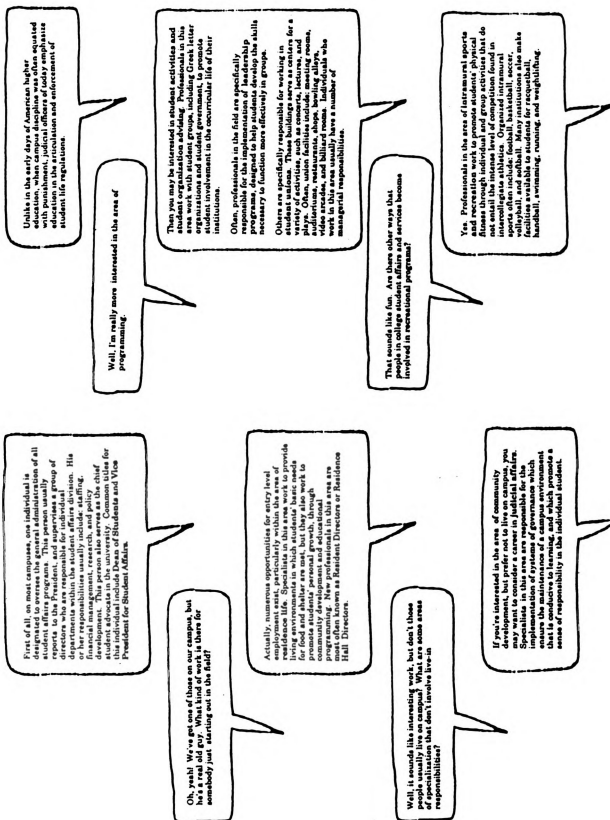
Enclosure.



**Things You'll Be Glad to Know About
College Student Affairs and Services**

**by
Joseph L. Murray
Michigan State University**





I've always been interested in health and fitness. Are there other ways that I can be involved with issues related to physical health?

Yes. The area of student health services is often considered to be the most direct way to become involved with health and fitness. Although student health centers on most campuses are staffed primarily by medical professionals, they are often housed in the student affairs divisions of their institutions, and incorporate student involvement into their programs. Professionals in this area often develop programs and publications dealing with health issues, such as substance abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, and occupational safety.

Individuals responsible for "wellness" programs in institutions are also concerned with a balanced lifestyle, with attention to all facets of health and well-being. These individuals are concerned with the overall concept of student health, not just physical health, and numerous aspects of students' lives.

Educational programming sounds like fun, but I also like to work with people individually, and so help them with their problems. Are there other ways that I can be involved with this type of work?

The field offers many opportunities for this type of work, particularly in the area of counseling. Counselors work to provide a safe and confidential environment in which students can seek assistance in adapting to the demands of their environments. This often involves goal setting and decision-making with regard to educational, vocational, or personal issues.

In addition to working with students on an individual basis, many professionals in the field work with workshops and support groups which assist students in dealing with issues of common concern. These issues may include such things as stress and time management. Support groups are sometimes offered for victims of sexual abuse or for adult children of alcoholic parents.

It sounds like you're talking about psychologists.

Well, counselors do deal with psychological concerns, and they do typically hold advanced degrees specifically in counseling psychology.

I like psychology, but aren't there other ways that I can be involved with this type of work? Are there other ways that I can help students deal with individual concerns?

Yes. Academic advisors also work in helping relationships with students, but are concerned primarily with assisting those in the development of their academic programs and future academic plans.

Are there any other ways that people in college student affairs and services help students to prepare for the future?

Yes. Specialists in career planning and placement help students to develop their own career plans, and assist them in developing mature lifestyle plans, with special attention to the role of work in their lives.

In addition to assisting students in choosing a vocation, career planning and placement specialists also assist students in developing necessary skills for gainful employment in their chosen fields. Through workshops and individual consultation, professionals in the field assist students in developing skills including job search strategies, resume writing, and interviewing skills.

Another way in which career planning and placement specialists are helping students is by helping them to locate either paid or volunteer internships which provide them with practical experience related to various occupational fields. On more and more campuses, however, separate offices of volunteerism are being set up to coordinate these positions which may or may not be related to students' careers.

Career planning and placement specialists also are helping students to locate and be related in a variety of vocational areas. They also work to establish linkages with employers. This helps students to learn about the types of employment opportunities, and to provide students with an opportunity to interview on campus for future employment.

Even after graduation, career planning and placement specialists continue to help students alumni, by maintaining credential files, which typically include information forms, transcripts, and letters of recommendation.

What are some of the other services that people in the career planning office and service provide to students and alumni?

There are many ways in which professionals in the field are of service to the students. Career planning begins even before students enroll. Specialists in this area work to provide prospective students with information about the types of opportunities available to benefit from enrollment in the institution. Administrators often are about incoming students that is needed throughout their enrollment.

In some institutions, a single office of admissions and records also handles transcripts containing information about continuing education earned out by a separate office, often known as the registrar's office, while the office of admissions is primarily for information about incoming students only.

I like the idea of working with incoming students. Are there any other areas of specialization where I'd have a chance to do that?

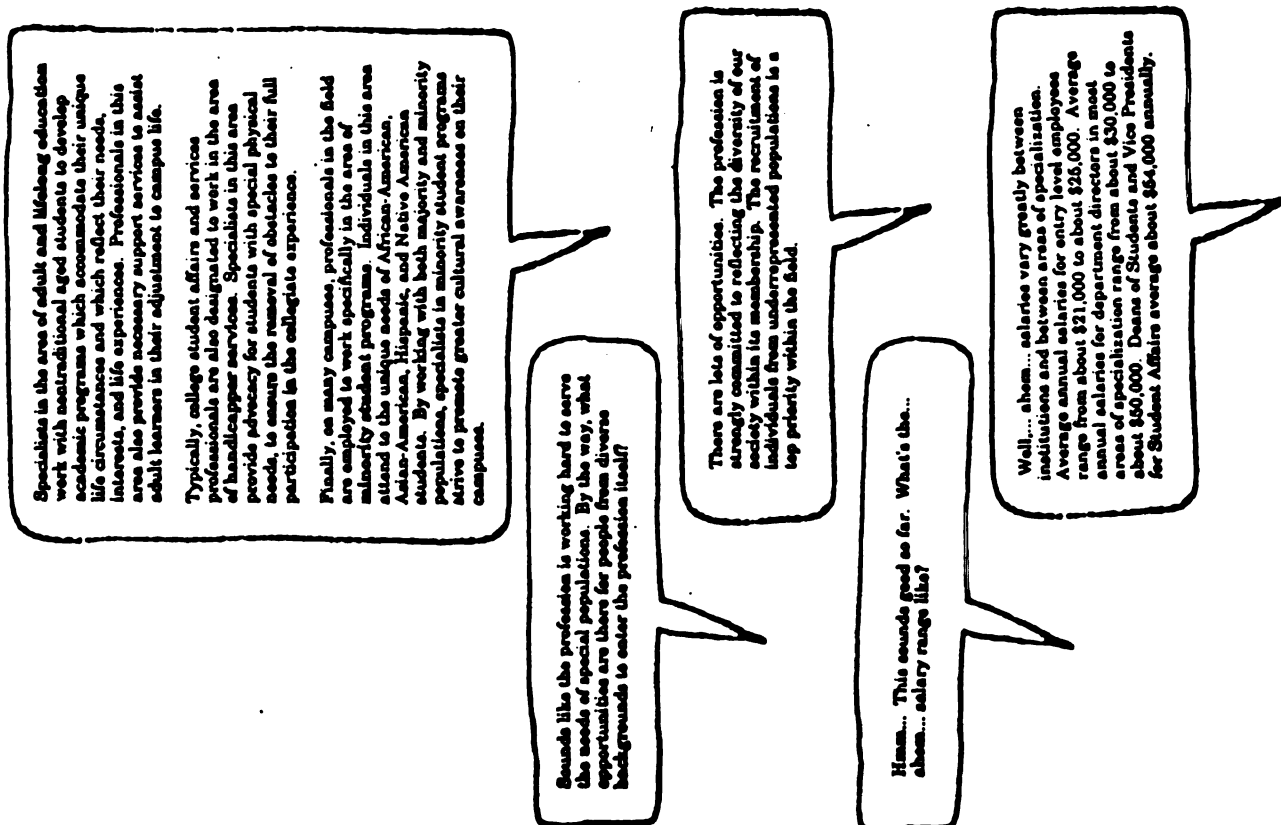
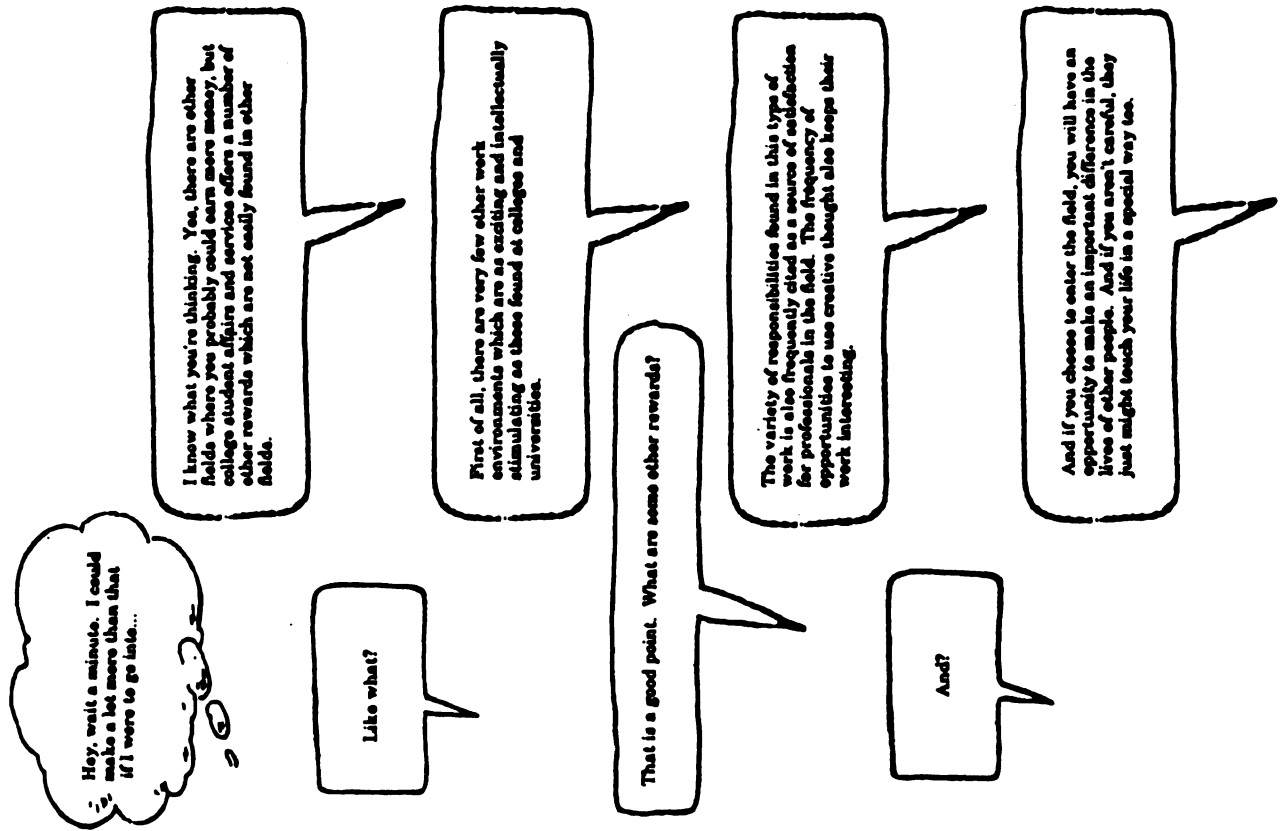
Yes. Another area in which service begins prior to enrollment is in the area of financial management. This work with students to develop plans for financing of education is a very important responsibility. They are helped to develop plans for financing of education, which may include scholarship grants, loans, and on-campus employment. In addition to these areas, financial aid officers work to promote students' skills in the area of financial management.

Hmm. I've never really been very good with money myself. On the other hand, I really do like working with new students. They're always so enthusiastic. You can really have a lot of fun with them.

I've got it! You'd love new student orientation. Professionals in this area work to assist new students in their adjustment to college life. They are often college students. In addition to providing information to freshmen, transfer students, and new students, they also work to assist students in returning students to plan activities which integrate new students into the social life of the campus.

That's important. All students should be made to feel welcome and integrated on their campuses. By the way, what types of services are offered to specific student populations?

On most campuses, college student affairs and services professionals are designated to work in the field of international students. They are responsible for providing documentation necessary for international students to enroll. Professionals in this area work to assist students in their adjustment to college life and to American culture. Additionally, they work with American students to promote greater understanding and appreciation of other cultures.



OK. OK. You're anxious to get to me, alright. But before the vidalia begin, let me ask a few more questions.

Sure.

Well, first of all, what are the educational requirements for entry into the profession?

It is generally recommended that entry level professionals have master's degrees specifically related to college student affairs and services. The minimum requirements for entry into the college Student Personnel, Student Affairs, Student Development, and Higher Education Administration divisions are usually a master's degree in counseling, planning to work in counseling centers usually major in counseling, and a master's degree in the field of professional careers in student health services typically study medicine or a related field. Specialists in student health services are frequently major in fields related to physical education.

New wait a minute. I can't afford to go to grad school.

Yes, you can. Numerous opportunities exist for graduate students to hold assistantships on their campuses. These are usually paid positions in the Student Personnel or Student Affairs divisions. Remuneration for this type of work usually includes both a stipend and a tuition department usually also receive room and board.

More importantly, in addition to providing a means of financing graduate education, these positions provide an excellent opportunity for the graduate student to gain valuable experience related to their future careers.

This is really starting to sound good. Maybe I can get a master's degree in a related field. But what should I major in as an undergraduate?

Professionals in the field come from a variety of undergraduate student backgrounds. However, it is generally recommended that students major in the behavioral sciences, such as psychology and sociology, or in education.

That sounds good to me. I'm interested in all of those subjects. But what else can I do now to prepare for a career in the field?

First of all, you can become involved in related activities on your campus. Join a student organization, such as the National Student Personnel Association. Volunteer to be a student leader. Apply for student employment in one of the student organizations on campus. An Assistant position offers a particularly good opportunity for undergraduate students to learn about the field of student affairs and gain valuable experience through service activities in your community. If you don't overlook opportunities to gain related experience through service activities on your campus, you will have a great opportunity to develop skills in helping relationships.

That's a good idea. I've been wanting to get more involved in my college and community anyway. Now I have an added incentive. Just one more question. What should I do now to get the most out of this? I need more information about the profession?

Well, you can start by talking with people who work in the field. They can provide you with information about the student affairs division of your institution. People who work in the field are usually very helpful and loves to talk about their work, particularly with people who are considering entering the field themselves.

You can also read various books and periodicals about careers in the field. *Careers in the College Student Personnel Field* (1979), by Alan F. Kirby and Dudley Woodard (Bentley Inc. press), and *Career Perspectives in Student Affairs*, edited by Alan F. Kirby and Dudley Woodard (1979), by the American College Personnel Association, are two useful books for students considering student affairs careers. If you want to learn more about student affairs in general, you may want to read *Student Affairs: A Career Preparation Program in College Student Personnel*.

There are also several professional organizations in the field of student affairs. Each of these organizations receives additional information about the profession. These include:

American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
 1415 University Avenue
 Association for Counseling and Development (AACD)
 6000 Boulevard
 Alexandria, VA 22304-3303
 (703) 825-8800

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA)
 Suite 301
 1700 18th Street, NW
 Washington, DC 20036-2608
 (202) 295-7700

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors (NAWDAC)
 Suite 210
 1700 18th Street, NW
 Washington, DC 20036-2611
 (202) 698-9330

In addition to these associations, there are a number of specialized organizations dealing with individual areas of college student affairs. You can find out more about these organizations by contacting individuals on your campus who work in the particular areas of specialization.

Good! Hey, thanks for the information. It's been a big help.

You're welcome... and good luck!

APPENDIX H
MEMORANDUM TO INSTRUCTORS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT
FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS AND SERVICES
STUDENT SERVICES BUILDING

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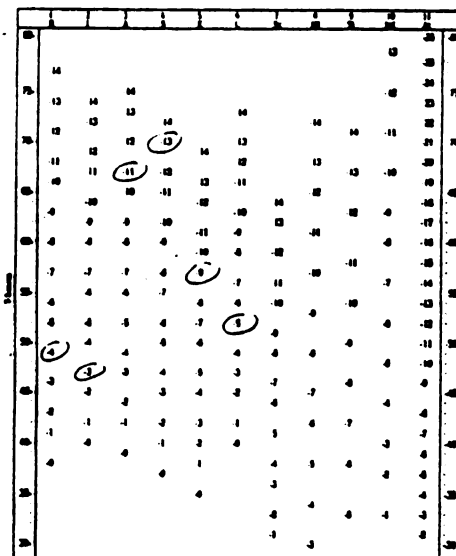
February 22, 1991

MEMORANDUM

TO: EAD 415 Instructors
FROM: Joe Murray *pl*
RE: VPI Profiles

Thank you for your assistance in gathering data for my study of undergraduate students' attitudes toward careers in the Student Affairs profession. Your time and dedication are greatly appreciated.

I am enclosing a Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) score report for each student in your section of EAD 415 who requested his or her results. Please do not return or examine the students' reports until after you have administered the College Student Affairs & Services Career Interest Questionnaire and the College Student Affairs & Services Career Information Questionnaire. In the meantime, please refer to the sample illustration below in order to familiarize yourself with the general format of the reports.



Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI)

MALE Profile — 1985 Revision

By JOHN L. HUGHES, PhD

File? Ignate

49 _____ January 18, 1991

WFOb S.A.J

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1

100

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Opportunity Institution

Page 2

You will notice that scores are provided for the first six scales only. The abbreviated form of the instrument, which was used in this study, did not include those items pertaining to the remaining scales.

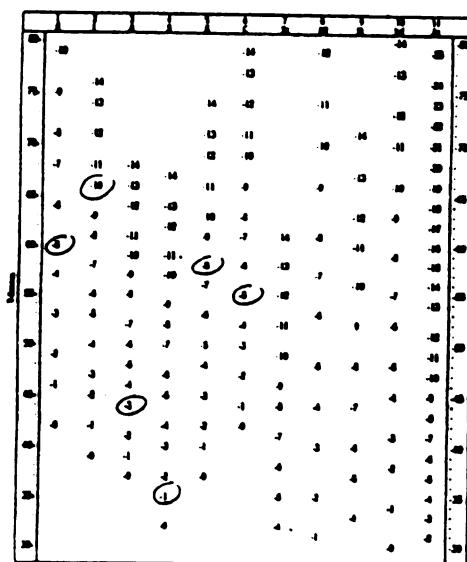
Normative data are provided on the profile forms. A T-score of 30 equals the second percentile, 40 equals the sixteenth percentile, 50 equals the fiftieth percentile, 60 equals the eighty-fourth percentile, and 70 equals the ninety-eighth percentile. Separate norms are provided for male and female populations, and students' scores are plotted accordingly.

In interpreting students' vocational orientations, please refer to their raw scores, rather than to the corresponding T-scores. The scales on which students receive their highest raw scores represent those personality types which they most closely resemble. Please note that the markings (-) to the left of the raw scores are purely for purposes of plotting relationships between scores. They are not to be interpreted as signifying negativity.

I am enclosing descriptions of the six basic personality types represented on the occupational scales of the VPI. The descriptions are drawn directly from the Second Edition of Making Vocational Choices, by John L. Holland (1985).

Most individuals bear some degree of resemblance to each of these types, though the degree of resemblance varies. By ranking the basic types, according to the individual's degree of resemblance to them, it is possible to obtain a more detailed profile of his or her vocational orientation. This type of profile is known as a personality pattern, and is identified by two or more of the six basic labels, presented in sequence and abbreviated using the first letter of each.

Each student's personality pattern is presented on his or her score report, on the line labeled "VPI Code." In most cases, three letters will be presented, separated by commas, with the first letter representing the highest score, the second letter representing the second highest score, and the third letter representing the third highest score. In some cases, students' scores on at least two of the more highly rated scales are identical. In such cases, a slash (/) mark is used to separate the letters representing these scales, rather than a comma. Because of a lack of differentiation among some students' highest scores, their personality patterns include more than three letters. Similarly, some students' patterns include less than three letters, due to a lack of differentiation between their lowest scores. Examples of each type of profile are provided on the following page.



Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI)

FEMALE Profile — 1985 Revision

by John L. Holland, PhD

Name: John L. Holland

Age: January 15, 1991

VI Code: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

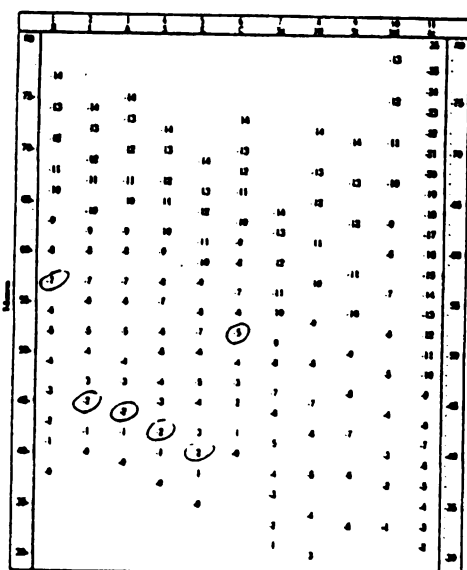
Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

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Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI)

MALE Profile — 1985 Revision

by John L. Holland, PhD

Name: John L. Holland

Age: January 15, 1991

VI Code: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

Number: _____

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In addition to individuals, Holland's system is used to describe work environments. Using the six basic categories, these environments are classified according to the predominant personality types of those who work within them. By ranking the basic types according to the degree to which they dominate a particular work environment, it is possible to obtain an environmental pattern comparable to the individual personality pattern. Satisfaction and success in a particular work situation depend upon an appropriate match between the personality pattern of the individual and the environmental pattern of the work setting.

Page 4

The personality patterns obtained from individuals' VPI results are frequently used to provide vocational guidance. Some of the students in your class may be interested in exploring occupations corresponding to their personality types. I am enclosing a copy of The Occupations Finder. This booklet includes a list of occupations, classified according to occupational code. You may wish to share the information contained in the booklet with the students in your class. You may also wish to refer interested students to the Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes (Gottfredson and Holland, 1989), which provides a more complete list of occupations.

In presenting students' score reports to them, it will be helpful to review Holland's theory of career development. You may wish to refer them to the booklet, You and Your Career. Additional information on the interpretation of the VPI is provided on pages 5 through 14 in the user's manual.

Please remember to also distribute copies of the Career Planning Guide to all students in your class. The Graduate/Professional School Preparation Guide & Checklist should be distributed only to those students interested in pursuing graduate studies at some time in the future. If you have questions or need additional copies of any of the materials provided, please contact me at 353-3860 or 484-5667.

Thank you again for your time and assistance.

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APPENDIX I

RATING OF ON-CAMPUS JOBS'
RELATIONSHIP TO STUDENT AFFAIRS

RATING OF ON-CAMPUS JOBS' RELATIONSHIP TO STUDENT AFFAIRS

The list of on-campus jobs and departments below was drawn from students' responses to the following item on the Student Information Questionnaire:

Are you presently employed on campus?

- a. No
- b. Yes (Please specify department): _____

The positions and/or departments are presented exactly as they were presented by the students themselves.

Using the following scale, please rate the degree of relationship that you perceive between student employment in the particular department or position and professional employment in the field of college student affairs and services:

- 1 Very low
- 2 Low
- 3 Moderate
- 4 High
- 5 Very high

In rating each item, please consider the degree to which the work environment provides opportunities for meaningful interaction with current student affairs professionals and/or opportunities to engage in work activities which are typically conducted under the auspices of student affairs professionals, either at Michigan State University or at other collegiate institutions. Please circle only one response for each item.

- 1 2 3 4 5 ASMSU - Student Govt.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Brody Bakery
- 1 2 3 4 5 Cafeteria
- 1 2 3 4 5 Cafeteria (Brody)
- 1 2 3 4 5 Cafeteria in dorm
- 1 2 3 4 5 Central Bakery, MSU
- 1 2 3 4 5 Department of Art
- 1 2 3 4 5 Department of Public Safety
- 1 2 3 4 5 Department of Residence Life

1 2 3 4 5	Desk Receptionist Shaw Hall
1 2 3 4 5	English
1 2 3 4 5	Entomology
1 2 3 4 5	Family and Child Ecology
1 2 3 4 5	Family Cancer Caregiver Studies College of Nursing
1 2 3 4 5	FCE Cooperative Extension Service
1 2 3 4 5	Financial Aid (Records)
1 2 3 4 5	Financial Aid Office - Scholarships
1 2 3 4 5	Food and Housing Services
1 2 3 4 5	Food Service
1 2 3 4 5	General Stores
1 2 3 4 5	Holden Hall Resident Life Staff R.A.
1 2 3 4 5	Honors College
1 2 3 4 5	Housing
1 2 3 4 5	IM
1 2 3 4 5	IM Sports
1 2 3 4 5	Intramural Sports
1 2 3 4 5	Jack Breslin Student Event Center
1 2 3 4 5	Kellogg Center
1 2 3 4 5	Kellogg Center Catering
1 2 3 4 5	Libraries
1 2 3 4 5	Library
1 2 3 4 5	Library (Document Delivery)
1 2 3 4 5	Math dept.
1 2 3 4 5	M.S.U. Alumni Association
1 2 3 4 5	Museum

1 2 3 4 5	Office of Minority Student Affairs
1 2 3 4 5	Office of Provost
1 2 3 4 5	OPB - Administration (Office of Planning & Budgets)
1 2 3 4 5	Parking Division of DPS
1 2 3 4 5	Pest Control
1 2 3 4 5	PH Res Lab - DOE
1 2 3 4 5	Physical Plant
1 2 3 4 5	Physics Dept.
1 2 3 4 5	Registrar's Office Admin. Building
1 2 3 4 5	Residence hall
1 2 3 4 5	Residence Life, Cafeteria
1 2 3 4 5	Residence Life Staff
1 2 3 4 5	Residence Life Staff (Sny/Phi)
1 2 3 4 5	Resident Assistant
1 2 3 4 5	Shaw Cafeteria
1 2 3 4 5	Sports information
1 2 3 4 5	Student Radio
1 2 3 4 5	Student Services Career Info. Center
1 2 3 4 5	Union Catering
1 2 3 4 5	Univ. Housing
1 2 3 4 5	University H & FS Snack Shop
1 2 3 4 5	University Housing Programs
1 2 3 4 5	Vehicle Office
1 2 3 4 5	Wharton Center
1 2 3 4 5	Wilson Hall Cafeteria
1 2 3 4 5	Wonders Hall Desk recp.

APPENDIX J

CLASSIFICATION AND OVERALL RATINGS OF
INDIVIDUAL POSITIONS AND DEPARTMENTS,
BASED ON RELATIONSHIP TO STUDENT AFFAIRS

Table J-1

Ratings of On-Campus Jobs Classified as Related to Student Affairs

Position or Department Description	Rating
Department of Residence Life	15
Holden Hall Resident Life Staff R.A.	15
Office of Minority Student Affairs	15
Residence Life Staff	15
Residence Life Staff (Sny/Phi)	15
Resident Assistant	15
Student Services Career Info. Center	15
University Housing Programs	15
ASMSU - Student Govt.	14
Desk Receptionist Shaw Hall	13
Financial Aid (Records)	13
Financial Aid Office - Scholarships	13
Housing	13
IM	13
IM Sports	13
Intramural Sports	13
Residence hall	13
Univ. Housing	13
Jack Breslin Student Events Center	12

Note: All ratings are based on a scale of 3 to 15.

Table J-2

Ratings of On-Campus Jobs Not Classified as Related to Student Affairs

Position or Department Description	Rating
Registrar's Office Admin. Building	11
M.S.U. Alumni Association	10
Wharton Center	10
Wonders Hall Desk recp.	10
Food and Housing Services	9
Kellogg Center	8
Residence Life, Cafeteria	8
Shaw Cafeteria	8
Student Radio	8
Union Catering	8
University H & FS Snack Shop	8
Wilson Hall Cafeteria	8
Cafeteria	7
Cafeteria (Brody)	7
Cafeteria in dorm	7
Department of Public Safety	7
Food Service	7
Kellogg Center Catering	7
Sports information	7
Vehicle Office	7

(table continues)

Table J-2 (cont'd)

Position or Department Description	Rating
Brody Bakery	6
Central Bakery, MSU	6
FCE Cooperative Extension Service	6
Office of Provost	6
OPB - Administration (Office of Planning & Budgets)	6
Parking Division of DPS	6
Family Center Caregiver Studies College of Nursing	5
English	4
Entomology	4
Family and Child Ecology	4
General Stores	4
Honors College	4
Libraries	4
Library	4
Library (Document Delivery)	4
Math dept.	4
Museum	4
Physical Plant	4
Department of Art	3
Pest Control	3
PH Res Lab - DOE	3
Physics Dept.	3

Note: All ratings are based on a scale of 3 to 15.

APPENDIX K

TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY OF
STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Table K-1

Test-Retest Reliability of Individual
Student Information Questionnaire Items

Item	r
Initiating contact with a college student affairs and services professional, to discuss career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	0.55
Reading books and periodicals about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	0.50
Contacting a professional organization in the field of college student affairs and services, to inquire about career opportunities in the field of college student affairs and services.	0.62
Applying for professional employment in the field of college student affairs and services.	0.38
Pursuing a long-term career in college student affairs and services.	-0.08
Initiating contact with a faculty or staff member to discuss types of master's degree programs specifically related to college student affairs and services.	0.72
Referring to college guides or graduate program directories to obtain information about master's degree programs specifically related to college student affairs and services.	0.53
Contacting a graduate school to inquire about a particular master's degree program specifically related to college student affairs and services.	0.45
Applying for admission to a master's degree program specifically related to college student affairs and services.	0.40
Enrolling in a master's degree program specifically related to college student affairs and services.	-0.07

APPENDIX L

T-TEST AND ANOVA RESULTS
BASED ON ADAPTED SCALES

Table L-1

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by
Change in Likelihood of Pursuing a Student
Affairs Career, Based on Adapted Scale

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	-0.49	-0.45
SD	2.98	2.45
t=.099, df=165, p=.922		

Table L-2

Experimental and Control Groups Compared by Change
in Likelihood of Pursuing a Master's Degree in
Student Affairs, Based on Adapted Scale

	Experimental (n=83)	Control (n=84)
<u>M</u>	-0.55	-0.35
SD	2.53	2.71
t=.515, df=165, p=.607		

Table L-3

Analysis of Variance for Interaction of Treatment
With Selected Student Characteristics Relevant to
Changes in Likelihood of Pursuing a Student
Affairs Career, Based on Adapted Scale

Variable	n	df	MS	F	p
Compatibility with the student affairs profession	167	2	5.843	0.780	0.460
Residency	152	1	0.549	0.077	0.782
Employment	166	3	9.044	1.203	0.311
Cocurricular involvement	167	2	7.584	1.032	0.359
Racial or ethnic background	161	1	8.683	1.167	0.282

Table L-4

Analysis of Variance for Interaction of Treatment
With Selected Student Characteristics Relevant to
Changes in Likelihood of Pursuing a Master's Degree
in Student Affairs, Based on Adapted Scale

Variable	n	df	MS	F	p
Compatibility with the student affairs profession	167	2	17.878	2.641	0.074
Residency	152	1	2.490	0.399	0.529
Employment	166	3	5.734	0.815	0.487
Cocurricular involvement	167	2	6.897	1.008	0.367
Racial or ethnic background	161	1	5.105	0.719	0.398

APPENDIX M

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Street Address: 16204 N. Florida Ave./Lutz, Florida 33549

Telephone (813) 968-3003
Teletax (813) 968-2598

October 26, 1990

Mr. Joseph L. Murray
105 N. Pennsylvania Avenue
Apartment F
Lansing, MI 48912

Dear Mr. Murray:

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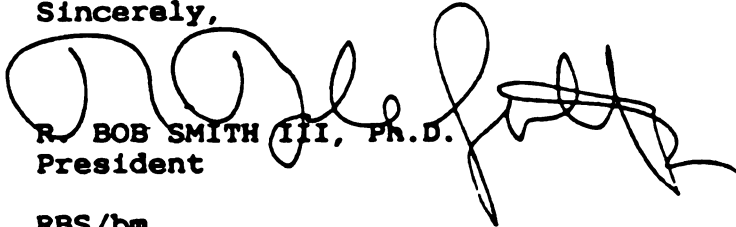
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Mr. Joseph L. Murray
October 26, 1990
Page 2


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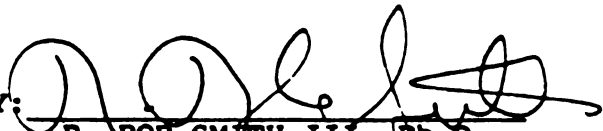

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BY: 
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DATE: 12/6/90

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July 11, 1991

Joseph L. Murray
Staff Advisor
Department of Student Life
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824-1113

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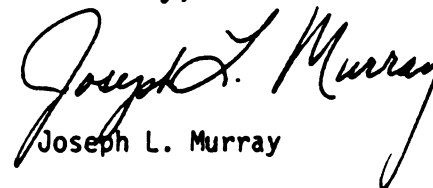
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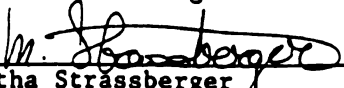

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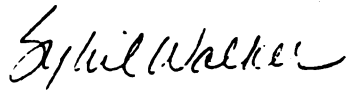
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