

STUDENT SATISFACTION WITH SELECTED ACADEMIC  
AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS AT EASTERN  
OKLAHOMA STATE COLLEGE

1995-1998

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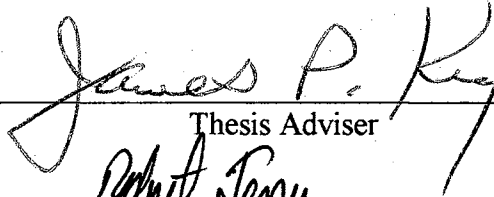
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The American community college has long borne the brunt and responsibility of serving under-prepared students in higher education. For the most part there is an open-door policy, which means they accept any high school graduate or adult who walks through the doors. For years community colleges have been providing developmental or remedial courses to entering students who do not possess the skills needed for academic success in college (Roueche, 1990). Tinto (1987) indicated that in American higher education, beginning students are more likely to leave their initial institution than stay. These students will leave their first institution without receiving a degree, and approximately 75% of these students who leave initially will not receive a degree (two or four year program). In fact, about four out of ten will not ever complete any degree from college.

Going to college may be a rough ride and the passenger is often either an eighteen year old or an adult in a transitional time of life. Freshmen are generally faced with the basic problems of adjustment; fitting in with a new group, finding people who share beliefs, missing their families and just trying to understand the college system. The first semester of the freshman year is the most critical time for this transition. Therefore, the

main task of higher education institutions may be to improve emotional and social conditions of the student. These problems are often unidentified and troublesome, yet can adversely affect success in higher education. The community college has become a passageway for many first time generation students, at-risk students, and students needing any type of remediation. Many programs are available to offset the initial problems of college if the student will take advantage. Noel, Levitz, Saluri, and Associates (1985) believed that most dropout prone students often made their decisions to leave the institution the first six weeks of classes. Data suggested a tremendous financial opportunity deficit for all of higher education. If simply one-half of these could be retained, a tremendous impact would be seen both for the institutions and quality of life for the students.

All problems will probably never be solved, yet administrators can implement policy to circumvent many obstacles that occur during a students' life at college. Community college leaders in the years ahead must get more and more serious about the need to build policies consistent with the needs of students who enroll in the open-door institutions (Roueche, 1990). These policies need to promote success in both retention and achievement. "We cannot direct the wind but we can adjust the sails" (Tracy-Mumford, 1994).

The two-year public college has experienced the highest attrition rate of any higher education group (Jones, 1986). Student departure has many forms and arises from a diversity of sources. It is very complex, yet it is possible to identify a number of causes for student withdrawal from higher education. For example, incongruency may arise when a student perceived demands that were too difficult for their abilities or commitment and

therefore a mismatch resulted. Students who find congruency through some type of social or academic integration will be more successful in persisting into college life (Crockett, 1978).

The main task is to provide the emotional condition or climate for the student that is conducive for persisting to the goals that the student has set forth. Many programs are available if students are willing to take advantage of them such as time management, study habits, financial aid workshops, mentoring, etc. There have been several studies focused on retention with results that assist students, yet does not provide the quick cure or fix that we diligently seek.

#### Statement of the Problem

Many small colleges encounter problems retaining students. There are both financial losses to the institutions of higher education as well as the personal losses resulting from students' failure to complete their initial career aspirations due to withdrawal from college. Education is progressive in nature and the mission for many higher education institutions is to provide a lifelong learning process for its constituents. With approximately 50% attrition nationwide, many institutions have trouble financially providing the quality programs of education that are expected by the consumers that walk through the doors. Therefore, there is a need to know student attitudes toward factors related to student retention.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine and compare student satisfaction with selected academic and institutional factors at Eastern Oklahoma State College from 1995 to 1998.

## Objectives of the Study

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following objectives were formulated.

1. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.
2. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of traditional and non-traditional students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.
3. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of agriculture and non-agriculture students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.
4. To identify major reasons for student withdrawal from Eastern Oklahoma State College.

## Background

Eastern Oklahoma State College is a rural two-year state supported community college in southeastern Oklahoma. In 1992, the president of Eastern Oklahoma State

College appointed a retention committee. The committee had campus-wide representation and embraced the challenge to make recommendations for the administration to consider to improve retention. One of the first recommendations was to enact an intrusive advising system for students by faculty. Within a few years, retention had risen from 50 % to 56%. This was encouraging, yet the committee felt that other initiatives could be explored to continue to enhance retention rates. Therefore, this study will review some of the major factors, that may affect retention, that has been under consideration by the committee and the researcher.

### Scope of the Study

The study included students that attended Eastern Oklahoma State College (main campus) from 1995 to 1998. All students were given the opportunity to participate by completing one of the standardized surveys provided by the American College Testing Program. The students were surveyed for their attitudes (levels of satisfaction) at one or two of three points of their college experience. They were surveyed at mid-second semester, and at graduation or withdrawal. A convenient sample method was used for sampling the student population by surveying the English II classes at mid-second semester. The survey used at this point was the Student Opinion Survey. In addition, the Outcomes Survey was utilized to obtain perceptions and attitudes of students at graduation with the counseling staff. However, if a student officially withdrew from the institution, they completed the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey to indicate their reasons for leaving. Both traditional and non-traditional students as well as agriculture and non-agriculture students were compared.

## Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

The respondents were students at Eastern Oklahoma State College. Conclusions were drawn and limited to a convenient sample from that population. The basic assumption was that students sincerely completed the surveys (instrument) and were truthful.

Other institutions were not studied; however, it was assumed that these findings could be useful for other rural two-year public schools in the mid-western section of the United States. Also, the American College Testing Program survey series was reliable and provided valid information for studying retention.

## Definitions

The following terms are defined as used in this study:

Retention - the ability to keep the students of an institution long enough to meet their educational needs (U. S. Department of Education, 1992).

Attrition - a gradual, natural reduction in the number of students at an institution or students leaving programs before achieving completion (Brunswick Foundation, 1982).

Dropouts - students who fail to complete their college goal within a specified period of time, and do not anticipate returning to an institution of higher education.

Persisters - students who continue and achieve their degree or program.

Non-persisters - students who discontinue enrollment and does not achieve their educational objective at the same institution.



Stop-outs - students who leave the institution with the intent of returning at a later time.

Transfers - students who leave one institution of higher education to attend another institution.

Academic satisfaction - satisfaction with the quality of education at the institution (Johnson and Richardson, Jr., 1986).

Academic performance - students' actual grade point average (Johnson and Richardson, Jr., 1986).

Academic integration - students who are interested, motivated, involved, and returning to school or completing a degree or program (Johnson and Richardson, Jr., 1986).

External factors - those outside entities of the institution that may effect the students decision to return to college (Johnson and Richardson, Jr., 1986).

Practical value - the degree to which one's education is believed useful for getting a job (Johnson and Richardson, Jr., 1986).

Traditional-aged students - students in a two-year school less than 20 years of age for freshmen and 21 years of age for graduates.

Non-traditional students - students in a two-year school 20 years of age or older for freshmen and 21 years of age or older for graduates.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

A prominent emphasis in research literature has been upon the relative impact of several factors which were correlated to student attrition (Astin, 1975, Noel, Levitz, Saluri, and Associates, 1985; Tinto, 1993). Within this review of the literature have been portrayed some of the factors related to student attrition, retention, and departure. One of the most integral factors for faculty members was the notion of importance for students and faculty to interact. Fox (1985) and Terenzini and Pascarella (1980) reported research indicating that student retention rates were affected by student and faculty interaction. The review of literature has presented related studies that have reported impact on student retention.

Traditional students (18-22 years of age) are decreasing at a steady rate. Therefore, the number of non-traditional students affects retention rates now more than ever and relates to many other factors both institutionally and individually. Bean and Metzner (1985) developed a model of persistence for the nontraditional students which focused on financial and work conditions. Tinto's model (1975, 1987) related social relations and academic integration as integral factors for attrition. However, other factors

such as educational goal orientations, family background, finances, and jobs were apparent in their effects on retention. Noel, et al. (1985); and Levitz and Noel (1989) indicated that a student's impression of a campus and campus life during the first few weeks of classes affects his or her entire educational experience at that college. In particular, a students' self-esteem can be greatly influenced during this time period. Therefore, the students' attitude toward both academic and institutional matters have presented themselves to be a major concern for higher education. The following sections are devoted to reporting the literature reviewed with regard to student retention or withdrawal.

### Relationship of Academic Factors on Retention

#### Predictors of Academic Success

Many researchers have tried to find better predictors of college performance and persistence in college, and many have given their predictions toward students staying in college. From an academic perspective, we may think of looking at certain predictors to help us target the departing student. High school GPA (grade point average), ACT scores, or SAT scores have been somewhat helpful in identifying potential retention problem students. Many students have entered college with little knowledge of their direction. If they have had a poor performance in high school or no direction, then they may not have the adequate motivational force to achieve the C- GPA or better (Gordon and Polsan, 1985; Titley and Titley, 1980). Astin (1975) indicated that persistence and undergraduate grade point average (GPA) were more closely related than any other single

factor studied for predicting retention. If one could predict persistence by only using one or two factors, then life would be more simple in the arena of higher education retention.

Astin (1975) again suggested that dropouts clearly displayed an increased chance of attrition as high school grades decreased. Rank in class followed high school grades as the best predictor of college persistence, except for blacks attending predominantly white colleges. The predictive strength of ACT/SAT scores was consistently smaller than high school grades for college retention. The American College Testing Program (1992) data indicated that as SAT scores decreased there was an observed increase in attrition. SAT scores greater than 1100 yielded only 8.0% attrition, while scores less than 700 depicted 45.5% dropouts. Using ACT and high school grades, Baird (1969) found that one could predict college grade point average with moderate success. Furthermore, Rossman and Kirk (1970) concluded that persisters had higher verbal SAT scores than those that withdrew.

### Importance of Social and Academic

#### Integration to Retention

Both academics and social life are major areas of concern for retention. The "fit" between social and academic factors has been reported by several researchers as an important situation that impacts persistence in higher education. Factors that seemed to result in persistence from college appeared to be similar to Durkheim's factors for suicide in society. This was consistent with the thought that when people have stronger relationships with other people they have higher chances to persist in society. This parallel from Durkheim relates to staying in college for students (Halpin, 1990). Astin (1975)

related the importance of the student-institutional “fit” and suggested that it was critical so students did not experience the excess stress of “culture shock” because of limited backgrounds, under preparedness, etc. Many times small-town high achieving students were only average in large institutions. This may depress the academic integration and cause the student to change schools or dropout completely. To make this “fit” work successfully, the students needed to find his/her match to an institution that would enhance both their social and academic needs.

Tinto (1975) described attrition as a series of changing commitments affecting students integration and ultimately the decision to persist or withdraw. Factors such as background and the ability to integrate both socially and academically were vital when predicting withdrawal or persistence. Pascarella and Terenzini (1983) indicated that academic integration had a positive influence on persistence, especially with low levels of social integration. As social integration increased, the influence of academic integration became of lesser importance. As students found their “fit” both socially and academically, they became more settled into college life and tended to concentrate on their goal commitments and thus persisted with a greater magnitude.

If students did not find their “niche” in the higher education arena, it seemed to be from a multitude of causes. In most cases, when the student could not cope with either the social or academic demands, they encountered various forms of stress. Academic difficulties, social isolation, and sheer sense of bewilderment were the real obstacles for the individual student. Some were simply unable to get through the trials during very early college careers (Christie and Dinham, 1991). In addition, Tinto (1987) found that adjustment and change was often painful and sometimes difficult. It may have been a

question of rearranging goals for a period of time or acquiring skills to a new situation. Adjustment was usually stressful when going to college because it involved both academic and social acclamations. Both traditional and nontraditional students fought these adjustments from their own perspective.

Students that have had problems with the feelings of isolation have lacked the ability to find the sense of connectedness or belonging. Kohut (1984) found that connectedness may have emerged during adolescence and extended further throughout life. In order for one to be comfortable and confident with self, they should not have been threatened by isolation or felt alone (belonging). By having this companionship it helped one to maintain positive feelings and identify with those perceived as different and self. Marngoni and Ickes (1989) indicated that loneliness was characterized by subjective aversive experience and was related to a deficit social relationship. Furthermore, a perceived social support was a reflection of social and self-environment much like belongingness, or loneliness. Belongingness leaned toward the thought of self, while perceived social support indicated appropriate social environment. Belongingness was a developmental process, whereas loneliness was related to experiences. In addition, loneliness was a possible result of the lack of belongingness (Russell, Cutrona, Rose, and Yurko, 1984). However, to overcome this feeling of isolation many adults in the educational setting may have their needs satisfied through ambitions and the desire for accomplishment (Lee and Robbins, 1995).

When studying factors that deterred this social and academic integration, one found that they were numerous. Morrisey (1971) presented six non-intellective variables for an impact on withdrawal or persistence. They included family independence, family

social status, independence as an individual, liberalism, peer independence, and gender. A positive relationship to persistence was derived from family social status, independence, liberalism and peer independence. It would stand to reason that these tie together as variables for an individual being persistent and adhering to their goals and commitments.

### How Faculty-Student Interaction Relates to Retention

I mentioned earlier that one of the main focal points in this review is to look at the interaction of faculty and students. Hopefully, if there is greater availability of faculty to students during non-class time, then students will interact and use faculty as both advisors and mentors. As early as 1969, Chickering reported the importance of informal interaction between faculty and students beyond the classroom as a significant factor in the retention and development of students. Also, Chickering (1969) noted that close faculty-student interaction were principle determinants for retention. In addition, Flannery (1973) proposed personalizing the education process to take away barriers between faculty/staff and students to improve retention.

As stated earlier in the Social/Academic Integration section, it was felt that students who felt more comfortable with faculty had a better chance of persistence. Jacob (1957) studied 22 institutions to determine students' values toward persistence. The findings exhibited homogeneity between faculty and students for high expectation of students and frequency of faculty/student informal contact. Furthermore, Tinto (1987) suggested that student and faculty informal interaction increased a students degree of academic and social integration, resulting in the student's increased chances of staying at the institution. It has been proposed that the frequency of student informal contact with

faculty outside of class was positively associated with persistence (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1976; Spady, 1971). Finally, Tinto (1987) referred to the classroom as learning communities. Students' time, especially commuters, was mostly spent on campus in the classroom. The academic community was noted to have small group communities within the classroom for interaction and involvement.

Research has found that persistence in college was positively related to contact with faculty (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991). Even though, some of the faculty functions included advising, teaching, research, public relations, etc. Beal and Noel (1980) identified effective teaching as related to student retention. Furthermore, they reported that scholarly and professional activities for faculty sometimes were seen as taking too much time away from the faculty-student contact. It was difficult to find the proper balance in a faculty member's list of responsibilities. However, Kramer (1995) concluded that regardless of the institution's mission or size, faculty was an integral part of the advising process. Astin (1977) depicted three items of relationships between faculty and students. They included personal contact, advice, and guidance.

Wilson, Gaff, Dienst, Wood and Bavry (1975) reported that students engaging in a high frequency of informal interaction with faculty differ from their classmates. They had more intellectual, artistic, and cultural interests common with faculty. These same students further indicated a higher satisfaction with their college experiences.

Furthermore, it has been suggested that career decisions was an area of student development and was influenced highly if there was a close faculty-student interaction (Feldman and Newcomb, 1969). Pascarella and Terenzini (1979) found that a student who received quality support from a faculty or staff member increased the chance of



persistence. Not only did academic factors come into consideration, but extrinsic academic performance and intrinsic rewards for personal intellectual growth were reached with informal relationships with faculty (Spady, 1970).

One interesting note was that Grafton and Roy (1981) indicated community college students who had failed at four-year schools depended more on faculty and staff the second time around at the community college and upon returning to the university. They became more involved and were more likely to ask for help and get acquainted with their advisors and faculty better. For those students that took advantage of this interaction, they persisted at a higher rate.

In summary, there has been significant relationships found between frequency of student-faculty contact and education outcomes. However, these findings may disappear when characteristics such as prior academic achievement, aptitude and personality orientation were held constant (Wilson, et al., 1975). Colleges may have influenced this frequency and quality of faculty student interaction through administrative policies which touch on the social and interpersonal climate of the institution. When faculty were participators in freshmen orientation and student residence life, this created more contact informally and thus increased the chances for satisfaction and persistence (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1978). However, one drawback from being able to get faculty involved was the lack of "reward" in the academic system both for time spent with students and for quality of relationships with students. Standards for tenure gave little value for retention factors and quality teaching. Yet, care and concern from some teachers still existed (Stodt, 1987).

## Relationship of Advising to Retention

One of the key aspects of faculty-student interaction is advising. Advising performed by both the counseling staff and faculty has been noted to be of the utmost importance in retention. In fact, Meyers (1981) found that freshmen who made a significant contact with an advisor or faculty member during their first three weeks of classes were more likely to remain in school.

The first formal recognized academic advisement system of faculty advising was found at Johns Hopkins University in 1877 (Kramer, 1995). Beal and Noel (1980) observed 944 institutions to analyze information concerning advising and retention. From this study, administration rated that a caring attitude by faculty and staff was the number one retention agent on campus. Improvement of academic advising was the most common retention strategy being employed. Astin (1977) estimated that 20% to 50% entering students were undecided about academic and career goals. Furthermore, 50% to 60% change their choice major or goals. With this in mind, it seemed evident that advising was a critical area that made a difference in a student's college career. Practices regarding academic advising seem to revolve from three questions: "Who does the advising? When is it performed? And how is it conducted?" (O'Bannon, 1972, p. 184).

Tinto (1996) indicated that advisement was one of the first two programs to implement when initiating a retention plan. Forrest (1982, p.44) reinforced this by stating "Probably the single most important move an institution can make to increase student persistence to graduation is to ensure that students receive the guidance they need at the beginning of the journey through college to graduation." However, Baldrige, Kemerer,

and Green (1982) ranked advisement as second for retention activities. In any event, quality advising ranked very high for retaining students.

Crockett and Levitz (1984) indicated that advisor training programs were important and ranked second in the area of academic advising factors. Faculty advisors were important in advising students on academic matters and perceived as an important role for faculty. Faculty were experts in their disciplines and related the proper course scheduling and career opportunities. Trombley (1984) reported that academic advising has traditionally been a responsibility of faculty who helped individual students select a schedule of course work that was applicable to degree requirements, approved registration forms, and monitored student records. Now, greater complexity exists for more interpersonal and inter-social advising. Crockett (1985) indicated that professional advisors were free of bias that plague some faculty due to the fact that they did not feel advising was a faculty role. The rise of counselors have several limitations. They may be more interested in psychological and therapeutic counseling and may not be versed enough in the students' interests and career exploration. Peer advisors were utilized at some institutions in orientation, residence halls, tutors, mentors, etc. Peers have been successful in supplementing academic advisors for institutional procedures and course selection. The major disadvantages was the lack of background to deal effectively with substitutions of courses, optional requirements sequencing, in-depth career choices, etc. Para-professionals were used to free up professional staff members. Para-professionals were trained to provide basic information on routine matters or basic enrollment in general education courses and sequenced programs (Crockett, 1985). In any event, advising has been a complex issue and has not been agreed by all involved.

Bean and Metzner (1985) suggested academic advising played an even more integral part in retaining older students than traditional students. The advisor, as the teacher, stimulated a positive active approach to both intellectual and interpersonal learning activities. This would hold true for traditional and nontraditional students. Kramer and Gardner (1977) indicated that the academic advisor must be aware of tremendous significance that the advising relationship had on either class of students. Faculty advisors should be expected to be sensitive to and concerned with the individual growth and development of their students. It was suggested that faculty look at the “whole student” and integrate social, physical, psychological and cognitive needs (Carberry, Baker and Prescott, 1986). This helps to substantiate the thought by Terenzini and Pascarella (1980) that faculty act as “informal agents of socialization.” Whether traditional or non-traditional the advisor should adhere to the needs of their students.

Habley (1975) reported that for a faculty advising program to be most effective several factors were needed. First, faculty must have a reasonable number of students to advise. Secondly, the faculty member must have devoted time. Finally, policies and procedures should have been maximized to their respective potential for the advisee and advisor interaction. Habley (1981) and Pascarella and Terenzini (1977) further indicated that academic advisors offered the link with student’s goals and institutional resources such as high quality advising. This can help students clarify goals and relate these to curriculum and to their future careers. This encouraged academic success by assisting students in the process of career selection. To substantiate this point, Metzner (1989) reported a direct relationship between this form of academic advising and retention, especially with attrition prone students.

However, Astin, Green and Korn (1987) indicated that surveys have revealed extensive student dissatisfaction with advisement. With better advising it may have increased retention as contrasted by poor advising which could have caused attrition rates to increase. Williamson (1972) felt that advising by faculty is outdated. Faculty may know curriculum and career opportunities yet lacked expertise in counseling, motivation, and professional guidance for personal problems. Also, Crockett and Levitz (1984) indicated findings from 754 institutions that found some disappointing results of academic advising. They listed four areas as problems: (1) majority of the institutions had no formal recognition or reward system for individuals found to be good advisors, (2) three-fourths did not consider advising in promotion or tenure decisions, (3) most institutions provided minimum training for advisors, and (4) they did not have a systematic appraisal for the advising program and/or advisors' performance.

This brings us back to the question of "Who should do the advising?" It was essential that faculty counselors realized the importance of counseling and that they devoted sufficient time and effort to make it successful (Moser and Moser, 1963). Glennen (1975) related that academic advising provided information or explanations about academic subjects, procedures, and regulations. Advisors needed to have quick insight and good judgement. Counseling involved more exploring of feelings and attitudes. Counselors strived to develop a student relationship where they could disseminate information, listen to problems, or give advice. However, most students did not succeed because faculty did not feel they were being paid for advising, already felt they were overworked, and felt threatened in any setting outside the classroom. Glennen (1975) further indicated a reduction in attrition with an intrusive counseling program. This could

have been one method to counteract the problems that have plagued faculty advising, in general.

The term “intrusive advising” means to deliberate structured student intervention at the first indication of academic difficulty in order to motivate a student to seek help (Earl, 1988). An intrusive advisement system may have included such models as “early warning”, “action-oriented responses”, or a “campus-wide participation in retention.” Glennen and Baxley (1985) found reduced attrition from 66% to 48% within the first year of the study and 48% to 25% in the second year with an intrusive advisement system. In fact, Glennen and Baxley reported that an intrusive advising program was a great value to an institution if utilized in a genuine and meaningful effort.

These types of intervention that more closely adhered to student needs have become more popular over the last few decades. Academic intervention programs have included such items as remediation courses, study skills, reading courses, learning centers, orientation programs, academic advising, and personal counseling to help under prepared students succeed (Patrick, Furlow, and Donovan, 1988). Roueche and Kirk (1973) indicated that these academic intervention programs were not the most productive means necessary to help under-prepared students necessary to “survive” college. Whereas, Beal and Noel (1980) indicated that these programs were successful and led to an increased student persistence.

Roueche and Roueche (1993) found one thing we know for sure and that was that each of us can recall at least one teacher who made the difference in our lives. The teacher/student relationship has easily been known to implicate results in higher retention rates. When there was a stronger teacher/student interaction there was also a feeling of

care and acceptance. Rouche and Rouche continued to summarize advising by including 13 general teaching themes as identified by excellent teachers. They included commitment, goal orientation, integrated perception, positive action, reward orientation, objectivity, active listening, rapport, empathy, individualized perception, teaching strategies, knowledge, and innovation. All of these could have been emphasized or highlighted, yet two that really stood out to me were rapport and empathy. First, “teachers who can laugh, seem more approachable” (Philbrick, 1989); and secondly, “the genuine concern and caring attitude” truly carried its weight for most respondents.

#### Mentoring (A Focus on Advising)

Mentoring was discussed earlier as a possible means of involving more student and faculty interaction. Jacobi (1991) described mentoring as the sincere desire to help students succeed. Many students have had trouble integrating into college life. Any time the institution could implement a program that would assist students to succeed, the goal has been achieved. When one began to define “mentoring”, there was a number of directions to notice. One of the first distinctions should have been between mentoring and advising. Levinson, Carrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978) noted a fine line between the mentoring and advising, yet indicated that when students were assigned mentors many times this was equivalent to an instructor/advisor and did not project the true definition and characteristics of mentoring.

Blackwell (1989, p.9) defined mentoring as “A process by which persons of superior rank, special achievements, and prestige instruct, counsel, guide, and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of persons identified as proteges.” In addition,

Schmidt and Wolfe (1980, p. 45) indicated that "Mentors are colleagues and supervisors who actively provide guidance, support, and opportunities for the protégé. The functions of a mentor consist of acting as a role model, a consultant/advisor, and sponsor."

Levinson, et al. (1978) indicated that mentoring was a relationship that lasted for two to ten years, whereas Phillip-Jones (1982) suggested that mentoring was as brief as a single encounter. Johnson (1989) described mentoring as a program that occurred during the freshman year to help students adjust during their entry year into college life.

Studies have been reported to rationalize the mentoring process to help students. Johnson (1989) reported positive functions of mentoring that first indicated that relationships were developed and focused on achievement. This idea was to assist and provide support, direct career assistance, and have an influence by role modeling. Also, mentoring offered reciprocal relationships and was personal. Lastly, mentors possessed a greater display of experience, influence, and achievement. In addition, McCallum (1980) studied 17-25 year-old students and found the mentor influenced "career identity" significantly for students at a private college.

Armstrong-West and de La Teja (1988) has described three different kinds of mentoring programs encountered in many institutions. First, a student mentor program was one that an incoming student was matched with upperclass students. Secondly, the faculty mentor programs matched faculty and staff members with students. Thirdly, a career mentoring program was possible in some situations. Students were complemented with professionals in the community to gain experience and information in their chosen field. Career development gained from this program lends to established networks in the student's chosen profession and was noted to be invaluable.



A major factor that influenced the success of mentoring was the usage of faculty as mentors. Cameron (1978) found interaction between faculty and proteges had a significant impact on students future employment, especially with graduate students. Faculty members were very significant players in providing motivation and offering support to students. The program was recommended to be an on-going interpersonal interaction that included help from various aspects of advice and resource utilization (Mendoza and Samuels, 1987). Whereas, Beal and Noel (1979) suggested several factors that influenced retention including student-faculty interaction, attitudes of faculty and staff, support services, etc. However, a "caring attitude" continued to surface among factors that related to faculty involvement and retention. This "caring attitude" was easily projected either in a positive or negative manner during the faculty-student relationships within the mentoring programs. Astin (1977), Pascarella and Terenzini (1977), and Pascarella (1980) all agreed that mentor relations positively impacted retention and achievement. They implicated faculty-student relationships as being important and even more effective on an informal basis. In fact, it has been reported that dissatisfied students who left college indicated their relationships with faculty were less positive than those who persisted (Lenning, Beal, and Sauer, 1980). Moses (1989, p. 9) said, "Ideally, a professor takes an undergraduate or graduate student under his or her wing, helps the student set goals and develop skills, and facilitates the student's successful entry into academic and professional circles."

Finally, Da Loz (1986) may have placed mentoring best when said "Mentors are guides. They lead us along the journey of our lives. We trust them because they have

been there before. They embody our hopes, cast light on the way ahead, interpret arcane signs, warn us of lurking dangers, and point out unexpected delights along the way.”

### Relationship of Institutional Factors on Retention

#### Relationship of Student Services and

#### Activities to Retention

While some researchers or administrators study academic preparedness they might have forgotten to observe the social aspect and special needs of student life. Besides academics, institutional services provided by the college can be an essential element in allowing students to “fit” into college life. Providing services and activities that meet the needs of students has been a long standing item of concern and challenge in higher education. It seems logical that if an institution could provide more programs that assisted the student to “fit in”, then the student would have a greater chance of persisting and continuing to reach their initial educational goals. Such was the contention of Noel and Saluri (1983, p. 11-12) who said, “Successful general education programs extend beyond the classroom attending to both the affective and cognitive needs of students and encompassing services ranging from orientation activities to remedial programs.” A considerable amount of measures were related to outcomes from student services such as academic offerings, extracurricular activities, counseling, etc. In addition, Tinto, Goodsell, and Russo (1993) implied that the relationship between effort and gain was not simply a function of student ability but a relation of student involvement in the college setting. In my opinion, this point was extremely important in terms of providing the social

aspects of college life so students can feel “a part” of the institution while attaining academic goals.

Simpson, Baker, and Mellinger (1980) felt that establishing close friends during the first month of school was an integral part of academic success. Moreover, peer interaction has been identified as a strong factor in students intellectual and personal development (Spady, 1970; Terenzini and Pascarella, 1980). These researchers agreed with the Tinto model that social integration played an important role in the “fit” that a student realized during the first few weeks of college. Also, this was a key factor in achieving academic success and persistence. As students felt more involved in the college community, they were more likely to persist (Astin, 1977). Tinto (1987) indicated “full integration” with the institution, whereas Astin related “involvement” as the key for the student to find their “fit”.

Student affairs has often been the expert for student services on many campuses. They have been the “tying link” to faculty development training courses for interaction and common ground integration (Cross, 1985). This interaction and integration was noted to take time. Astin (1985, b) suggested that the most precious institutional resource was time. The time that students spent to develop their talents was a matter of time they devoted to activities that produced results. Students had competition for their time, while non-traditional students that were older and/or part-time faced even greater intense competition with family, friends, jobs and other activities. In addition, Astin (1985, b) related that the most effective way to involve students was to encourage full-time campus living.

Extracurricular activities and organizations have been identified as excellent tools for student involvement. Billson and Terry (1982) indicated the importance of student organizations to aid students to persist. Participation in campus clubs, organizations, recreation programs, working on campus, campus governance, attending classes have been ways to increase student involvement and subsequently retention (Webb, 1987). Hyatt (1980) reported that extracurricular activities could be useful for students to become involved and that a blend of academics and activities has shown to be a positive influence on persistence. Furthermore, research suggested that retention depended heavily on student involvement with campus/program activities. According to Astin (1985, a), the more time and effort that students had spent toward their academic endeavors and related areas the greater the chance for persistence. Students that worked on campus, especially those who had work-study jobs that related to their major, saw an increase in GPA. This contradicted the thought of working during college deters student success. However, excessive participation in activities may have been a double-edged sword and more detrimental than positive toward retention. The longer a student stayed around in college the greater the opportunity to participate in extracurricular activities and subsequently increased involvement and retention (Astin, 1975).

Mendoza and Samuels (1987) indicated that tutoring services could be used as an integral part of academic and student development. The tutoring program should maintain an environment for support for all groups of students on campus. Furthermore, tutoring may provide assistance in test files, study skills, peer group test reviews, etc. The campus environment was just as important as many of the activities offered to assist students. The atmosphere must be positive where it mitigates any negative obstruction that may occur.

Another service which has been provided by most college campuses is that of counseling. Counseling has been shown to increase student retention (Grites, 1979; Davis, 1970). Davis further indicated that two-year colleges tended to be more pragmatic and applied more concern for providing coping skills for students. Programs such as counseling must have been built around the feelings that students brought with them and the encounters that they faced during a growing transpiration in early college life. Therefore, the institution became a "distribution center" for students and helped students discern their feelings. Also, they were excellent examples of duties that counseling services provided. However, O'Brian (1967) found that simply improving counseling skills was inadequate and that colleges needed to find ways to entice students to use more of student services offerings. O'Bannon and Thurston (1972) realized that there were not any fixed answers; however, to employ caring, concerned, dedicated professionals in the entire student services area would increase persistence. This fulfilled a total human resources challenge for resourceful student services.

Churchill and Iwai (1981) reported that the use of campus facilities on a continual basis will increase the chances of retention. If programs were to be successful on campus, they must be sold. Students have to be made aware of opportunities and that everyone has a chance to participate. Therefore, publicity must be attractive and informative (Noel, et al., 1985). Furthermore, facilities must be available and used to their maximum potential. They need to be accessible and convenient, especially to commuter students. Although more research may be needed, higher education can assume that an active student involved in campus activities will enhance the chances of persistence.

## How Orientation Influences Retention

When one considers some of the social or structural non-academic activities that an institution can offer to reduce attrition orientation always surfaces. However, some institutions have enhanced their orientation programs into freshman seminar courses that couples academics with a social setting. The new students of today have been mixed students of varying ages. They have entered college from high school or the work force, and have had different degrees of academic preparedness. Austin (1993) reported that 82% of respondents considered "the job" a very important reason in deciding to go to college. If we, in higher education, are to meet this expectation, we must provide the necessary tools to accommodate our customers. Most entering freshmen have needed assistance with such basics as decision making, knowledge about academic programs, personal strengths, values, life-style choices, and ultimately a career. Noel, et al. (1985) indicated that freshmen seminars, in the first term, provided structure to meet these needs and interests of new students.

In 1911, the first known orientation course was offered for credit at Reed College in Portland, Oregon (Gordon and Grites, 1984). By 1928, at least 100 institutions offered something similar. A semester long course allowed the opportunity to instruct new students in necessary academics and aid in interpersonal-social skill development. This coupling seemed to be one of the strongest factors influencing student persistence. Chandler (1972) and Kopecek (1971) found formal orientation programs an invaluable beginning in developing a feeling of belonging for entering freshman. This further substantiated what was the genesis of orientation or freshman seminars back in the 1920's.

Dannells and Kuh (1977, p. 103) said in the purest sense "Orientation attempts to provide a balanced introduction to the constraints imposed by and the opportunities available in the collegiate environment as well as to enable students to more clearly define their educational purpose."

Orientation programs have differed in style and method over the past thirty years. They have ranged anywhere from a one or two day event to a week in the summer or a complete one to two credit hour course during the fall semester. Pre-college orientation programs have offered to serve as a vehicle for providing a special welcome for new students. In addition, orientation provided a chance to capitalize on students' initial excitement and enthusiasm about starting college and allow new students an opportunity to bond informally with each other and with other members of the college community (Pascarella, Terenzini and Wolfe, 1986). Beal and Noel (1980) found orientation to be the third most effective retention activity overall. Their survey indicated several institutions ranked orientation first when targeting special groups.

John F. Kennedy once said, "Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other," (Pruitt, 1985, p. 239). An orientation course was the perfect opportunity to acquaint students with student organizations on campus and have the opportunity to become student leaders. Student leaders tended to be more dependable, active, and persistent as well as more socially oriented. By incorporating this mind set within an orientation program, one could see the reasons for effectiveness of orientation towards retention.

Noel, et al. (1985) indicated that freshmen were most dropout prone and often made their decision to leave the institution during the first six weeks. Orientation played

an important role in helping students become a part of the institution during this time. The first contact with advisors and other key administrators should be during orientation. By conducting orientation early in the student's college life, there was a greater chance of deterring problems before the student leaves.

In a longitudinal study, Boudreau and Kromrey (1994) found a significant difference in retention rates comparatively for participants versus nonparticipants in orientation. Furthermore, both Shauley and Witten (1990) and Wilkie and Kukuck (1989) compared groups of high-risk freshman seminar participants. They found a higher mean grade point average for participants than nonparticipants. Finally, a comparison study by Dunphy (1987) suggested that participants in freshman seminars versus nonparticipants yielded a 23% higher retention rate and a .4 higher grade point average (with similar backgrounds for high school rank and SAT scores).

Hoerber (1981) offered an orientation program where the faculty and staff were taught diagnostic skills to recognize academic signs of non-academic needs, and then were given methods to know how and where to make referrals. Teachers needed to be student-oriented and the recruitment of faculty with a strong belief in orientation was essential. Additional involvement of faculty with students that have enthusiasm, interest, and a cooperative spirit were the keys to positive success (Nelson, 1987). When the institution utilized experienced staff to orient new staff concerning how to greet and treat students, especially adults, greater results occurred in persistence. Support staff should have always presented a friendly, helpful attitude, be familiar with programs, and treated students with respect. Retention was improved through increased orientation as well as the incorporation of planned activities with orientation (Ratcliff, 1983).



Faculty have showed to play a very significant role in any orientation program and especially in the freshman seminar courses. Boyer (1987, p. 288) noted that the key question when assessing freshman orientation was, "Is the orientation program actively supported by faculty?" Student-oriented faculty needed to serve as instructors for different sections of orientation. Hossler, Bean, and Associates (1990) mentioned that meaningful contact with faculty was characterized by having a caring attitude, a genuine interest in having students succeed, and an ability to answer students' questions. Since faculty-student interaction and faculty advising was a critical initial orientation activity, faculty needed to assume an increasing role in orientation (Noel, et al., 1985). Titley (1985) indicated that front-end loading of outstanding faculty and advisors was of the utmost importance in a successful retention plan. After a comprehensive review of research for 25 years, Pantages and Creeden (1978) concluded that one approach to decreased attrition was to increase faculty-student interaction as early as possible.

As indicated earlier, there were numerous types of orientation programs.

O'Bannon and Thurston (1972) indicated that it was not when orientation occurred, yet it was how orientation was conducted. As mentioned earlier, most orientation programs were either one or two days or a semester (term) course. Some have developed into two semester courses giving a wealth of information as well as utilizing several activities and assignments to assist the students in becoming more familiar with the institutions and academic life. Students were exposed to chief officers of the college in a series of speeches designed to make students feel welcome and be informed of the procedures of the college. The sessions were often followed by citations of rules and regulations each student should remember during their college career. This "information blast" may have

included several clubs and activities available to the students. Finally, the students endured an offering of course options, advisor meetings, registration procedures, and where one should place the parking sticker.

O'Bannon and Thurston further provided another situation in orientation where the method was more academic in nature. The orientation content was primarily to help the students as far as note taking, social adjustments, use of library, understanding the rules and regulations, student rights, personal commitment, etc. Furthermore, voluntary faculty members worked with students and peer leaders, in order to lead and direct student participants in small groups. Many times peers related information and gave experiences to new students with higher efficiency than the chief officers or faculty.

Orientation courses were designed to integrate students more fully into the institutional community by suggesting solutions to problems and needs that may develop as new situations were encountered. They helped students adapt with survival skills. These included time management, making sound decisions, talking to faculty, coping with stress, financial planning, communication skills with peers, etc. No single approach was magical, but orientation was the most effective method for following the goals, budget, and meeting the needs of the individual and the institution (Titley, 1985).

One of the keys to effective retention in orientation was to go beyond information giving. Establishment of early contacts with peers, faculty and staff was critical. This served as a linchpin for institutional services and provided an integrated and systematic manner (Tinto, 1987). Moore, Peterson, and Wirag (1984) felt that institutions should have involved upper-class students in freshmen orientation seminar as peer counselors or mentors especially with traditional students. Peers were not perceived as intimidating

authority figures by some and could have increased how students related to the institution at the onset. Fidler and Hunter (1989) extended this thought one step further and suggested that small classes in freshmen seminars yielded higher academic advancement than those in large class sections. Higbee (1989) continued to indicate that no more than 20 students should be assigned to each section. Therefore, the ideal setup was to have peer mentors assist with small groups during and following orientation sessions (freshmen seminar).

There has been one controversy across the country concerning freshmen seminar. This has been the question of whether or not to offer credit for orientation type courses. Higbee (1989) suggested that a pass-fail credit system was acceptable. However, Gordon and Grites (1984) disagreed and indicated that institutions should conduct freshmen orientation seminar as credit-earning course. It was suggested that incentives should have been given for students to increase their motivation to become more actively engaged. Gordon and Grites (1984, p. 319) further stated that "Without official recognition by the institution, the student and instructor cannot maintain motivation and interest necessary for the course to achieve its intended outcome." Furthermore, Carney and Weber (1987) indicated that students preferred to take freshman orientation seminars for credit.

In summary, most orientation programs aimed at getting off to a running start and strived to make students feel welcome (Mueller, 1961). These efforts have helped prevent the feeling of isolation and provided a social setting to the student that would integrate them into college life. Higginson, Moore, and White (1982) indicated that elevating orientation to a key role in the retention strategy required the chief of student

affairs administration to (1) appoint more experienced and higher level personnel in order to determine program philosophy, (2) conduct needs assessment on specific population groups for planning, and (3) intensify and define strategies for evaluating orientation.

### Financial Implications Concerning Retention

In conversation with many educators, I have found varying opinions that have felt if a student really wants an education, finances can be found to assist the student. Using Spady's (1970) work, Tinto (1975, 1987) posited a theory that caused students to leave college. Attrition resulted from a lack of social and academic integration between the student and the institution. Sometimes this fit was enhanced or deterred by the ability to pay for the education. If subsidies or aid was impeded then financial barriers would be lifted and persistence would seem to be more successful. Grants, loans, work-study jobs, and part-time employment were all available to students who wished to enhance their journey of education. Tinto (1975) further suggested that a student's goal commitment and social and academic integration can be modified by the commitment to invest effort, money, and time in seeking a college degree. In addition, the perception of occupational and income opportunities after graduation affected the commitment and persistence of today's students. When a student began to select an institution (public or private, four-year or two-year), one should have been cognizant of the costs to enter and complete a program. However, this expected cost may have been inaccurately perceived and may result in departure for a short or long period of time.

The National Task Force in Student Aid Problems indicated that the amount of financial assistance to students in post-secondary education has increased 66 times in the

past twenty years (National Commission on the Financing of Postsecondary Education, 1973). This has led to an increased need to be concerned with financial assistance for students. One question that could be posited was "When is the most critical time that impacts students with financial problems?" Cabrera, Stampen, and Hansen (1990) and Porter (1990) reported that much of the impact of financial assistance occurred before or at the beginning of the first semester. Furthermore, Martin (1985) concluded that financial aid programs, in certain situations, could have helped to prevent attrition by allowing students to overcome temporary financial problems (child care, textbooks, etc.). To overcome these problems of finances O'Bannon and Thurston (1972) reported that 63% of junior college students worked, while only 18% of senior college students worked while attending college. Also, they suggested that many students selected a junior college over a senior college for the first two years because of lower costs. Therefore, financial reasons for departure may be more critical in a junior/community college than a university. One problem with trying to pinpoint financial aid alone was that other environmental factors continued to influence attrition. Therefore, Astin (1975) indicated that most variables did not occur in isolation.

When one considered financial aid as a variable in predicting or causing attrition, Voorhees (1985) found that all forms of federal support were equally effective in preventing students from withdrawal. Astin (1975) further found that scholarships and employment (work-study) posited positive relationships with persistence. In addition, Trent and Medsker (1968) reported that students who secure loans were more likely to persist. However, Astin (1975) found that dependency on loans had a negative affect on retention. He further contended that scholarships and grants were considered helpful and

was positively related to persistence. When a student received a grant or scholarship in the first year, it may have been a major influence on persistence and a lack of aid may have been a detriment. However, Olivas (1985) suggested that grants may have had negative effects if students relied too heavily on grants upon entry to college. What monies a student received one year may not be available the following years in the grant system. Iwai and Churchill (1982) observed that persisters relied more on aid than did non-persisters. However, Fields and Temay (1973) reported that no differences were found for voluntary withdrawal in persistence for recipients, non-recipients, or non-applicants of financial aid.

Demos (1964) and Gum (1973) offered suggestions, after conducting follow-up surveys, and found that students often gave more socially acceptable reasons for leaving rather than actual reasons for departure. Tinto (1987) reported that for most students persistence was more a result of their character than the social and intellectual experiences on campus. The citation of financial trouble as a reason for withdrawal was often a polite way of bowing out gracefully. However, the true reason may be with one's inability to meet their social and intellectual integration "fit" with the institution. Tinto continued to report that after entry, finances may have effected the individuals more directly. This may have prevented students from participating in institutional and social activities. When potential benefits of graduation were still hard to see, the costs of obtaining a degree tended to negatively effect persistence. Students who kept the long term goals in mind, seemed to bear the burdens and continue their college career.

Another factor that played an important role in financial implications for persistence was family background. Family finances has been mentioned to effect

persistence both directly and indirectly. Sewell and Hauser (1972) suggested variables for family background such as father's and mother's education, occupation, family income, ability to manage finances within the home, and number of siblings. Astin (1975) reported that parental financial assistance influenced 65% of the women and 47% of the men concerning a major source for the cost of college. He further indicated that 80% of the wives worked while the husband was in school, and supplied the major source of income. Yet, only 66% of the women going to school received their major expenses from the husband. Relying on parental support had a small but positive statistical effect on the students ability to persist. Lastly, those students from lower socioeconomic origins tended to be constrained by family background in the strife to move upward in society. One goal of financial assistance was to enhance the educational opportunities for economically disadvantaged students (Jensen, 1981).

In summary, once students were enrolled in college, factors other than financial reasons seemed to take over (Noel, et al., 1985). The lack of adequate financial resources was frequently cited by students as a reason for dropping out, although whether or not this was actually the case could certainly be debated. Administrators that offered students more financial funds for those indicating it as their number one reason for withdrawal found that many would still drop out. Finances seemed to be the socially acceptable excuse for departure. One of the suggested keys for higher education was to remove barriers that prevented students from leaving school. Noel, et al. (1985) mentioned that money management programs could have been effective tools to alleviate some of the problems, in order to remove some of these barriers or deterrents for retention.

## How Residence Affects Retention

Today students have been faced with overwhelming influences on their future. As they have pursued a career, education has played an integral role in determining the path to travel. Many students have undergone anxiety and stress like they have never experienced. As difficulties and changes occurred, a new environment was easily challenging. Students have learned to make decisions positively for their development and success for college and their professional career. As these students experienced these stresses and anxieties, new students needed to rely on programs initiated by the institution in which they had chosen to attend. Various programs in residence halls have shown to yield positive results to retain many students who otherwise would have dropped out.

Pantages and Creedon (1978) and Nowick and Hanson (1985) reported that residence halls influenced students better academically than those non-residence halls students. Astin (1973) indicated that residence halls students were more fully involved in extracurricular activities as well as academics, and therefore, they earned higher grade point averages and were more successful in college. Chickering (1974) agreed with Astin (1973) that students living in dormitories were more likely to persist than commuters. Astin (1977) concluded that residence halls students expressed more satisfaction with friendships, faculty, and institutional relationships than commuters. In addition, they were more apt to assume leadership roles and have greater self-esteem. Subsequently, he contended that this enhanced living in dormitories led to increased persistence.

If students were required to live in the dormitories they may experience negative integration and the beneficial effects would not be seen. In fact, it may have worked



against the true purpose of retaining students. Noel, et al. (1985) indicated that dormitory living was somewhat similar only to military and prison housing, when forced to live in mass housing. Gehring (1970) found that sorting and assigning students based on parents' educational level, size of high school, church, smoking habits, and predicted grade point average had no significance in compatibility as composed to randomly assigned students. However, Noel, et al. (1985) reported that randomly assigned students had higher attrition rates than those that chose their roommates. This was even stronger to believe for students that had full selection of their housing and environment showed the highest rates for retention. Hall and Willerman (1963) agreed that if students choose their own roommate, there was less likelihood of attrition. Lastly for room assignments, even non-traditional students were sometimes blended in with traditional students. Those that were placed in residence halls faced different problems as compared to their new roommates and this presented a very uncomfortable situation that did not always end positively (Zeller, 1991).

Astin (1975) related that the parent's home was the second most common residence during the freshman year. Living in an apartment or private room rather than with parents was beneficial to men, yet detrimental to women. For men, getting away from home may have enhanced greater activity in campus life, thus increasing their academic life.

Moreover, Brooks (1971) found that belonging to fraternities or sororities increased persistence as well as those students that declared a major at enrollment. These both seemed to follow the thought of goal commitment as an important indicator for retention. Being married at the time of entry increased a women's chances by eleven percent, but decreased a man's percentage of dropping out by eight percentile. However, the greatest chance of persistence was still dormitory residence.

Levitz and Noel (1989) identified the first six weeks as critical for sustaining students at college. When planning, it was noted that Residential life planners needed to think through activities and programs, especially during these first few weeks of eggshells. Coelho, Hamburg, and Murphy (1963) suggested coping strategies on how to plan time management, study skills, assess professors, seek out resources, break down larger projects into smaller more manageable projects, etc. Programs that connected students in residence halls to assist the first year students included "adopt a freshman," environmental planning such as honors floors, floors by majors, study lounges, computer rooms, quiet floors, interest floors, common areas, etc. Faculty involvement programs involved floor adoption by faculty, classrooms in the residence halls, eating with students, advisement in residence halls, etc (Zeller, 1991). Involvement in extracurricular activities, clubs, other organizations, athletics, and work-study employment were additional programs that had been offered through residence halls.

Oppelt (1989) found that numerous Native Americans were under-prepared in reading, writing, and mathematics. Therefore, they were unable to compare and succeed in college. Intervention programs and needs for Native Americans and other minorities needed to be given full consideration when planning residence hall programs to assist in retention. Harris (1990) related that residence halls programming along with mentoring, peer tutoring, and summer bridge programs increased retention rates at that particular institution. A caring environment was critical to retention and can be delivered by the institution in such programs as mentioned in the preceding reviews.

"Resident Assistant" involvement was found to be important in a successful residence halls program. Residence halls played an integral role if conducted appropriately.

Pre-program and orientation training sessions were again important for both residence halls and faculty (Kuh, Schuh, and Thomas, 1985). Resident Assistants acted as big brothers, mentors, etc. to assist first-year students. Identified student leaders, officers of clubs, etc. positioned more efficient resident assistants. Meeting students on their own "turf" made a positive impact for success. One note was that these programs took more involved time and that the quality of the interaction was more important than the number of students or time spent sitting around. Zeller (1991) indicated that resident assistants must be sensitive to roommate problems especially at the beginning of the first year and each semester. Zeller said, "Homesickness was a term commonly used to refer to a sense of loss or aloneness when the student was separated from the family unit." It was not always clear or evident. Most people were very reluctant to admit their problems to someone that they did not know. Homesickness can be relieved by involving new students in activities within residence halls and campus events. Zeller further noted that a college renders many choices to make decisions regarding new freedoms by students after leaving home. Students who did not make an adjustment rapidly was forced to make hasty decisions causing negative results. In addition, students have over-reacted to new situations and very poor decisions resulted. Resident Assistants assisted this problem either in small groups or one-on-one contact. Furthermore, some students have had difficulty in getting to know members of the opposite sex. Those with little prior experiences may have eventual isolation and anxiety problems. Students often looked to resident assistants for self-esteem factors that were critical when dealing with new students.

Another aspect of how resident assistants could have helped was to recognize the maturity level and be trained to spend the quality time to interact with those that needed

attention. Zirkel and Hudson (1975) measured the maturity level of students from different floors and found that the students associated with resident assistants showed the greatest changes. Apparently, resident assistants influenced the students in personal skills and had an impact on the development and success of not only the student, but the individual. Astin (1985, a) reported that the most effective method of academic support in resident halls was peer tutoring. Student-to-student delivery yielded an increased participation and raised comfort levels. Finally, Zunker (1990) substantiated Brown and Astin's findings for peer counselors and their effectiveness for student persistence.

One unique method of residence halls programs, yet unheard of at most institutions of higher education, was that of faculty involvement in the residence halls. In a study where faculty ate at least one meal per week with students, went to parties, and recreational activities, provided tutoring and counseling, and informally interacted with the residential areas observed increased retention significantly (Kuh, et al., 1985). Kuh and others further suggested that financial support be made available for some of the activities so that they could be a success. Faculty should be optimistic, gregarious, ebullient, and charismatic. This was described to fit the "right type," and that faculty should be recruited. Pre-program activities allowed faculty to get to know student leaders and staff for more effective communication and clarity of the program. Feedback sessions were held on an informal standpoint in order to reinforce the vital points of the program (evaluation). In addition, Pascarella and Terenzini (1978) suggested that faculty participation with freshmen in residence halls may have provided an increased caring attitude, increased interaction both socially and academically, thus leading to other factors associated with increased retention.

In summary, Astin (1977) and Bloom (1974) both reported that any time there was a move to a new environment (away from home), this created many losses and new demands on the student. A mismatch of the integration of social and academic activities and isolation from friends and relatives as well as the lack of involvement caused an increased in attrition. Furthermore, Astin (1975) contended that where students resided while attending college could be controlled by policy-makers, administrators, and students. Administrators who saw residence halls as beneficial could have appropriated funds accordingly to improve living and enhance integration through activities. It was apparent that when institutions structured their residential housing carefully that positive results occurred toward retention.

### Traditional versus Non-traditional Students to Retention

#### A Look at a Growing Population

“In a time of ever-tightening budgets, combined with the often frantic scramble of admissions for people to recruit the dwindling number of high school graduates, the adult student has suddenly acquired a new status. Admissions affairs all over the country are performing mental gymnastics in their efforts to find new, and more imaginative ways to attract adult students to their campuses,” (Kegel, 1977, p. 10). Adults and other defined non-traditional students have attended college for many different reasons. Noel, et al. (1985) indicated that there are three types of adult students. They were degree seekers, problem solvers, and cultural enrichment seekers.

Some characteristics of non-traditional students that impart persistence in college included sex, marital and parental status, ethnicity, and age. Men and women experienced

different needs. Students with children experienced more external factors than students without children. In addition, single parents had a greater variety of needs. Since the majority of students attending college today have met non-traditional definitions, it leaves higher education administration and faculty trying to understand why these students have dropped out of school and why they have stayed in school (Marlon, 1989). Women who found themselves in the role of the non-traditional student have faced numerous and conflicting roles. They have had to juggle the responsibilities of being an employee, homemaker, mother and a student (Smallwood, 1980). Champagne and Petitpas (1989) indicated both traditional and non-traditional students were at a transition point in their lives. The tasks may have differed, but the transition was similar.

Bean and Metzner (1985) defined non-traditional students as a student that could be from any part of the country, rich or poor, black, white, or hispanic. Furthermore, they were 18 years or older, working full or part-time, retired, with or without dependents. Also, they could be married, single, or divorced, and enrolled for either vocational or avocational reasons, a single course or in a degree or certificate program. One of the largest groups of non-traditional students has been women over 30 years of age. Stewart and Rue (1983) depicted a non-traditional student as one that did not agree with the traditional definition that included living on campus, full-time, and 18-24 years old. Martin (1988) agreed that non-traditional students were often those that were single, Anglo women who were or have been employed in technical, professional, or business occupations. Whereas, White (1980) defined non-traditional as students who were married, had children, over 24 years of age, financially independent of their parents, responsible for self and for others as well, and perceived by others as mature adults in

society. Reasons for going back to school varied, however the desire for occupational change and self-fulfillment were the most often cited.

Non-traditional students have been noted to be serious and motivated for various reasons. Hazard (1993) indicated that American higher education must make available to this group the academic assistance to obtain their educational objective. As non-traditional students have continued to grow and comprise a significant portion of enrollment at colleges and universities, strategic planning must have included non-traditional students in the overall retention program. These special needs for non-traditional students must not be ignored. Bean and Metzner (1985) indicated that institutional, curricular, political, economic, and social factors have led to the dramatic use in enrollment levels of non-traditional students. As large numbers of workers wanted to change from blue collar to white collar jobs they were forced to re-enter higher education to receive training in technical, business, or professional services. Allen (1993) pointed out that professions, vocations, and occupations have increased educational requirements for entry level positions. This has led to families taking the opportunity to take their chance with higher education to better their way of life. Furthermore, many couples felt it was necessary to hold down two careers per household for personal and financial reasons. In addition, the higher education status provided a higher social acceptance in lifelong learning. Many times one of the reasons for less retention was that non-traditional students had satisfied the necessary job requirements to re-enter the work force and did not necessarily need the completed degree program.

Because there has been many reasons for non-traditional students for leaving college, there have been probably as many reasons for attending. Astin (1975) and

Pantages and Creedon (1978) concluded that students that indicated themselves as having poor study habits also had higher dropout rates. Also, Trent and Medsher (1968) reported that persisters spent more time studying than dropouts. Furthermore, Solomon and Gordon (1981) entered the thought that students who returned to college lacked confidence in their ability to succeed. Kowalski (1977) and Bean (1980) supported absenteeism as a factor for attrition, especially for those with low academic confidence. Staman (1980) and Kowalski (1977) both substantiated that students positively related the degree of certainty to their major and persistence. In addition, non-traditional students reported a higher level of certainty for major than traditional students.

A study by Beder (1990) posited three reasons for why adult students did not participate in adult basic education. They were lack of sufficient motivation, unaware of programs, or the motivated students have other external or intrinsic factors that deterred their participation. Darkenwald (1981) indicated it was difficult to single out any one variable that was a deterrent to participation in an adult or non-traditional educational setting. Later he developed a cluster model to identify adults for participation. Darkenwald and Gavin (1987) and Hayes (1988) reported barriers for participation and identified typologies in order to plan strategies for adult educational programs. The specific deterrents reported included students' feelings, class location, schedules, employment, cost, family constraints, etc.

Lucke (1981) found that adult degree programs were more successful when they were tailored to unique adult audiences. Special programs for women, minorities, and professional groups have also enhanced completion and persistence ratings. Trussler (1983) pointed out that parking was an ongoing problem for non-traditional students on



most campuses. This issue was more severe for adults who must balance employment and family duties while trying to get to and from class. Trussler (1983) further contended that adults found registration to be too time-consuming and frustrating. Therefore, counselors/advisors and admission procedures should have been those that understood adults' time constraints and problems. In addition, Trussler (1983) found that the unavailability of child care facilities has often been problems for adults to continue as students. Child care costs were major factors, especially when a financial burden may have already existed.

While traditional students attended college for both social and academic reasons, non-traditional students felt more toward academic. Tinto (1975) indicated that social reasons were still vital, yet not as much as academic for non-traditional students. According to Noel, et al. (1985) the major themes related to attrition were academic boredom and uncertainty about what to study, transition/adjustment problems, academic under-preparedness, unrealistic expectations of college, incompatibility, and irrelevancy. Since older students tended to have lower high school performance, the older student academics at college has often been found to exceed expectations (Greer, 1980). Pinkston (1987) recognized students who were both older and academically under-prepared could be considered and labeled non-traditional and at-risk. However, Hazard (1993) noted non-traditional students generally performed better in the classroom, once they have decided to commit to entering college. The reason for this could be dependent upon their needs, beliefs, attitude, past experiences, maturity, self-concepts, and their own values. Kinimel and Murphy (1976) contended that improved retention for non-traditional students associated with faculty-student interaction. Hazard (1993) further pointed out that faculty

members felt intimidated by adults who challenged their lectures and found them to be irrelevant. It was noted that faculty had to overcome this intimidation if they were to be successful with adult students.

Pierce (1993) suggested that adult students were many times unaware of the work involved and time consumed by a college education. As these problems occurred, a realization of family, social or health problems may have conflicted with school. The students needed to be reminded and reassured that they were important individually and that they should value their education. Different constraints for non-traditional students arose as compared to traditional reasons for leaving college from an external viewpoint. Adults included financial aid, job responsibilities, moving to new area, transportation, and inadequate course offerings. Tinto (1987) related that they leave because of poor academic progress, change in objectives, or lack of motivation or energy. Swift (1987) found that non-traditional students with full time jobs, remaining in college was related to moral support by the employer, thus playing an important part of determining whether a student stays or leaves college. Furthermore, Hall (1975) relayed that "lack of time" was one of the most important and frequent reasons for attrition among non-traditional students. This would definitely have made an impact on full-time and part-time students. Authors such as Kowalski (1977), Louis, Colten and Demeke (1984), Pantages and Creedon (1978), Skaling (1971), and Goter (1978) expressed that financial difficulty were positively related to attrition and was among the top reasons for withdrawal for part-time and full-time students. Pascarella (1980) indicated that part-time non-traditional students reduced the amount of student-student and student-faculty contact and therefore decreasing the socializing influence of attending college. Many students with jobs while attending college

have fallen into this category as either part-time or full-time students. Other interesting studies included those of Astin (1975), Hunter and Sheldon (1980), and Louis, et al. (1984). They observed that the number of hours of employment had an effect on persistence. In particular, Astin (1975) reported that students that worked less than 20 hours per week were greater persisters and those that worked over 25 hours per week were negatively associated with retention.

One of the major considerations in promoting commitment to college for non-traditional students was the support of family and friends. This is especially true for programs that will "fill the gap" for students that have been away from an educational setting for a certain period of time. Hunter and Sheldon (1980) rated family pressures and obligations as a major reason for withdrawal. This would stand to reason that a parent with more children at home would have more responsibilities and, therefore, be more prone to depart. Roach (1976) stated that "Older students considered family reaction to their college attendance to be a vital part of their satisfaction of their educational experience. These types of pressures have been shown to lead to stress that cannot be overcome by the older student. Bean and Metzner (1985) depicted stress as a variable which students believed that they experienced from factors that were not related to college attendance as well as from the amount of time and energy required for college study.

Another key factor that played a major role with the non-traditional student was commuting. Stewart and Rue (1983) reported nationally, 80% of undergraduates were commuters, and that this was an integral point to address during the next few years in higher education. Noel, et al. (1985) defined a true commuter as one who basically lived at least 50 miles from school and had not packed up and moved from home to attend school.

From this definition there would be less commitment to the institution by students and to re-enroll may be too disruptive to their lives. However, many institutions define commuters as those that travel much less than 50 miles for college. Beal and Noel (1980), Chickering (1974), and Astin (1977) indicated that commuters were high-risk students for attrition. It was noted that it may be easier not to re-enroll for minor reasons than traditional students that were on campus. Therefore, this would mean that commuters were less involved in campus activities, less aware of opportunities, less satisfied with campus and more likely to leave. Chickering and Kuper (1971) reported earlier that commuters, compared to residents, spent more time with external factors. These included conflicts in the home, siblings, parents' attitude, marital conflicts, children, co-worker, employer negativity, peers, personal and family debt, and family illnesses. In addition, time was a valuable commodity and was limited for the commuter students. They came to campus for class and left.

However, the on-campus students were able to participate in scheduled programs and be provided with social integration activities. Commuter students often retained many friendships with old friends at home and did not join in the full college life with as many new friendships as compared to traditional students. Greer (1980) and Solomon and Gordon (1981) agreed with Chickering (1974) in that commuters had less social integration in college and usually wanted little to do with social events or life on campus. Louis, et al. (1984) further contended that more dropouts felt they had made fewer friends on campus.

In summary, Brand (1990, p. 2) said "Adult education has a critical role to play in helping thousands of people to participate fully in an increasingly complex and competitive world. For many adults education is the critical link to economic self-sufficiency and the

key to breaking the cycle of illiteracy.” Effective programs were noted to be aware of adult problems or situations. Two major barriers reflected family and work responsibilities.

Bohuslor (1980) indicated that there was undoubtedly a degree of stress associated with these factors for non-traditional students. However, the reasons for anxiety was unclear. In addition, to those previously mentioned, it may have been related to the lack of confidence in their academic skills.

Non-traditional students have been and are students of today and may be of more concern for tomorrow. Williamson (1972) indicated that we must not continue to neglect the student whom we loosely classify as a commuter. Allen (1993) reported that attention should have been given to creative class scheduling to meet the needs for commuters at times such as weekends, block times, evenings, etc. One of the newest methods of delivery was various forms of distance learning. Technologies for learning at a distance has affected the education of tomorrow and must be considered for non-traditional students. Noel (1985) reported similar approaches with learning assistance programs. The programs such as developmental courses, tutoring, etc. should be made available to help under-prepared students. Learning assistance programs that “fill the gap” for these students that possibly have been away from an educational setting for a certain period of time should have access to enhanced non-traditional education.

### Reasons for Leaving College

#### Withdrawal Reasons

Tinto (1987) described two attributes that stand out for departure on an individual basis. They were “intention” and “commitment.” On the institutional level four terms were

noted such as “adjustment”, “difficulty”, “incongruence”, and “isolation.” Each depicted an inter-factional outcome that arose from individual experiences with the institution. As to external factors related to persistence the two most notably were “obligations” and “finances.” Tinto (1987, p. 156-157) also said that “A person will tend to withdraw from college when he perceives that an alternative form of investment of time, energies and resources will yield greater benefits, relative to costs, over time than will staying in college.” He characterized that departures should be categorized into voluntary withdrawals and academic dismissals. He further contended that only ten to fifteen percent of all departures were due to academic failure. Therefore, 85 percent of the departures were voluntary and were usually related to student intentions and commitments and how they related to their academic and social involvement.

Noel, et al. (1985) described departure as voluntary and involuntary as opposed to Tinto’s voluntary withdrawal and academic dismissal. Yet Noel, et al. (1985) recognized Tinto’s terminology of academic dismissal synonymous with involuntary departure. This usually occurred when there was a lack of skill by the individual to do college work. This may also be a result of the lack of study skills, discipline, motivation or interest to apply the skills that they possessed. This would be seen more often in an open-door policy institution. Voluntary departure occurred most often. In this case, sometimes the top academic students may still lack the qualities to persist. Intentions, commitment, personal factors, and social integration continued to play an integral influence on persistence. One thing to consider was that withdrawal did not necessarily mean failure. Many students indicated that they may return at a later time and to a different institution. This has been a problem with trying to identify the true dropout.

By looking at various backgrounds of students, one might have thought that there would be a difference in retention based on such things as family status, family income, aptitude, etc. Astin (1964) found that families' socioeconomic status appeared to be inversely related to dropout rate. Moreover, students from lower income families experienced higher attrition rates. Furthermore, college persisters seem to get more advice, praise, and expressed interests from their families (Trent and Ruyle, 1965). However, Sewell and Shah (1967) reported that measured ability was nearly twice as important in accounting for dropout rates as the social status of the families. Background factors such as family, prior school experiences, individual ability, and interaction with goals impacted one's persistence (Tinto, 1975). Tinto further noticed that stronger family social positions and expectations led to children expecting more of themselves and subsequently persisting longer than lower status backgrounds.

Numerous factors have been reported as having an affect on withdrawal. Tinto (1987) found that the major causes for student withdrawal include academic adjustment, goals, uncertainty, commitment, integration and community membership, incongruence and isolation. Spady (1971) observed that participating in extracurricular activities was directly related to college persistence. These activities provides an integral link to social integration. Furthermore, it promotes commitment to the institution and therefore reduced the possibility of attrition. Bean (1982) listed predictors (independent variables) for dropout when student's sex and level of confidence is not available. The predictors listed, from the highest to the least, were intent to leave, grades, opportunity to transfer, practical value, certainty of choice, loyalty, family approval, courses, student goals, and major and

occupational certainty. Somewhat similar to Bean, Astin (1975) listed twelve reasons for dropping out of college. In order from highest to lowest were boredom with courses, financial, other, marriage, pregnancy or family, poor grades, dissatisfaction with requirement, change in career goals, inability to take courses desired, good job offer, illness, commuting difficulties, and disciplinary troubles. Noel et al. (1985) indicated that dropping out was not all that simple. It usually involved several reasons intertwined together. It first appeared that financial support would be more critical for low-income families, but this was inconclusive among most researchers. Furthermore, men seemed to be higher in retention than women, however, those women tended to be voluntary withdrawals and not academic dismissals according to (Spady, 1970). However, Heilbrun (1965) indicated that for stayers and leavers, dropouts were less mature, more likely to rebel against authority, less serious about their endeavors and less dependable.

Reports concerning the small community college were that 2-year colleges had higher withdrawal rates than 4-year institutions and could be attributable to lower levels of motivation and academic abilities for the entering students at each institution (Astin, 1972). However, Astin (1977) later indicated that students from small colleges were much more likely to be satisfied with student-faculty relations than those in large institutions. Large research oriented universities had a slightly lower satisfaction rate, possibly due to neglect of undergraduate teaching because of research efforts or impersonality in large organizational structures in large universities.

Astin (1977) further related that the highest correlation among satisfied students were academic reputation and intellectual environment. The quality of classroom instruction and faculty-student interaction ranked second. Noel, et al. (1985) felt that other



factors were related to retention. They included financial support, orientation activities, counseling and support services. However, they reported that number one reason was “dissatisfied with faculty” (66%).

Lastly, another area that may cause withdrawal was “stress.” Stress was “any situation that evokes negative thoughts and feelings in a person. The same situation is not evocative or stressful for all people” (Whitman, Spendlove, and Clark, 1984, p. 1). Critical issues dealing with stress had an effect on both education and retention. For some, simply moving away from home was stressful, whereas, others cope very well with this change. Also, Whitman and others noted that the need to overcome various levels of stress was one of the keys to persistence. Stress could also be challenging to some, yet threatening to others. Ideally, a student would experience stress as a challenge in a positive manner, yet too many times it led to distress and attrition. As college expenses have risen, there has been an increased competition in an uncertain job market. This has created excess stress to students that further caused departure.

Tinto (1975, p. 104) said “A persons integration into college into the academic and social domains of the institution are themselves the result of the person’s perception of the benefits (eg. academic attainments, personal satisfactions, friendships) and the costs (eg. finances, time, dissatisfactions, academic failures) of his attendance at college.” Many reasons were accountable for departure and they are multi-faceted. We must keep in mind that it was the combination of these relationships that affected students differently and at various levels. For whatever reasons one student may leave, another may stay for that same reason (Tinto, 1996).

## Summary

Educational attainment and attrition have involved more than diplomas from college. They have been related to the performance and the interaction of the individual as they attempted to find the "fit" into college life. Many social factors included issues that related to how conducive the campus environment was to the satisfactory progress of students outside the classroom. The quality of relationships that students developed during their first few weeks of school easily had an impact on the successful integration both socially and academically. There have been no easy answers to all the problems faced by students, therefore the institutions have continually embraced many theories to study and assist students to persist.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES

#### Design

The procedures in this study followed the purpose and objectives for assessing selected factors that pertain to retention at Eastern Oklahoma State College. Students were surveyed for their attitudes according to factors that have been shown in earlier research to have an impact on attrition, retention, or persistence. The instruments utilized were developed by the American College Testing Program. In this study, they were used to measure attitudes (levels of satisfaction) of students. The surveys used were the Student Opinion Survey, Outcomes Survey and Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey. The goal in mind, after analysis, would assist policy makers to develop further plans and ultimately decrease attrition at Eastern Oklahoma State College.

The following objectives guided the study:

1. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.
2. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of traditional and non-traditional students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.

3. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of agriculture and non-agriculture students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.

4. To identify major reasons for student withdrawal from Eastern Oklahoma State College.

### Population

Students at Eastern Oklahoma State College between the Fall 1995 and Spring 1998 were surveyed at three possible observation points. Students volunteering to participate completed the surveys. Students that persisted for more than one semester had the opportunity to complete the Student Opinion Survey at mid-second semester, whereas students completing a degree program in each Spring semester were asked to complete a survey that related to their total experience (Outcomes Survey) at Eastern Oklahoma State College. In contrast, those students that withdrew from Eastern Oklahoma State College during this time period and completed withdrawal procedures indicated their reasons for leaving (Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey).

Two groups were identified by the researcher to be valid comparisons of concern toward retention. As mentioned in the review of literature, non-traditional students are becoming more evident as an identified group in higher education. Therefore, a further study of traditional and non-traditional students is evident as useful information in strategic planning by administrators in higher education. Due to the nature of a rural community college, most traditional students are younger than the average age at a university. Therefore, the administration at Eastern Oklahoma State College identified 20

to 21 years of age as the traditional student age instead of 25 years of age. Furthermore, institutions that have included agriculture as a part of their curriculum has informally seen the added extracurricular activities and informal contact displayed by agriculture students and faculty. Subsequently, the question has been raised as to “Does this affect retention or satisfaction?” Therefore, evidence (data) is merited to verify the importance of these activities and informal contact toward student retention for a specific group such as agriculture. During this study, retention rates at Eastern Oklahoma State College have risen for agriculture students and the rates are above the average of the entire student body. Therefore, the answers concerning this increase, may be found from the results of the factors researched in this study.

Eastern Oklahoma State College considers student opinion to be an important part of ongoing efforts to constantly improve services and programs and to help in student retention. Surveys to measure student satisfaction were administered as described in the section titled “Surveying Procedures”.

#### Instruments for the Study

The students at Eastern Oklahoma State College, during the 3 year study, had the opportunity to complete at least one, if not two of the three ACT surveys. If the student completed a degree program, they completed the Student Opinion and Outcomes surveys. If a student withdrew from Eastern Oklahoma State College they completed one or two surveys depending on the time of departure. They should have completed the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey and possibly the Student Opinion Survey if they left after February of their first year. Furthermore, if a student indicated to the advisor or

counselor that they would not be returning the next semester, they were asked to complete the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey.

Archival records were obtained from the American College Testing Program for students completing the fore-mentioned surveys. The American College Testing Programs sub-divided the data into groups per request and returned the data to Eastern Oklahoma State College, therefore producing complete anonymity. An application for exemption was filed to the Internal Review Board at Oklahoma State University for this research study. The Internal Review Board is the governing body for review and approval of all research dealing with human subjects for Oklahoma State University. The purpose of this governing board is to ensure that the rights and welfare of human subjects were properly protected. This research project was given exempt status in June of 1997.

The standardized surveys included several sections, in order to obtain various information from students. In all three surveys the first page asked the student to give background information. The Student Opinion Survey included six sections to obtain information. Section two inquired about college impressions while section three asked the student to indicate their level of satisfaction for college services. The research information was obtained from this section. The researcher identified the specific questions within this section because of their similarity to questions in the Outcomes Survey and because of their relevance found in the literature. Furthermore, the researcher identified some of the factors from pertinent discussions from various retention committee members. Section four gave the student the opportunity to relate their opinions on the college environment. Lastly, sections five and six were optional to the college in case there were any additional questions or for students to provide personal comments for the institution.

The Outcomes Survey listed college outcomes in section two, yet section three was used for the study. Section three was titled "Satisfaction with given aspects of this college." Questions within this category were chosen because of the same reasons given in the fore-mentioned paragraph relating to the Student Opinion Survey. Section four questioned the students about their experiences at the college. Again, the remaining sections were available for additional college and student usage.

The Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey offered the institution to ask additional questions in section two while section three was used to obtain the information for the study. Section three was divided into five sections; personal, academic, institutional, financial, and employment.

The Student Opinion Survey studied the factors pertaining to perceptive attitudes and initial opinions from experiences such as Quality of Instruction, Availability of Instructor, Respect for Students, Academic Advising, Class Size, Financial Aid Services, Social Involvement, Orientation, Residence Halls, Career Planning, Student Employment, Cafeteria Services and Parking Facilities. These factors assisted the study to observe frequency data at mid-second semester. By this time, after someone completed a semester at the institution, most students had the opportunity to experience most programs and services on campus and project a better opinion of services as compared to the beginning of the school year. In addition, demographic data from the Student Opinion Survey was collected in order to relate comparisons such as traditional versus non-traditional students, and agriculture versus non-agriculture students.

The Outcomes Survey served the purpose of assessing the attitudes of those students who were successful and persisted. Many times knowing the reasons why

students stayed was as important as looking at the reasons for withdrawal or involuntary departure. The factors reported from the Outcomes Survey included Quality of Instruction, Availability of Instructor, Respect for Students, Academic Advising, Class Size, Financial Aid Services, Social Involvement, Orientation, Residence Halls, Career Planning, and Student Employment.

Lastly, the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey was utilized to record the primary reasons for attrition. Personal, academic and institutional factors were observed to determine whether the institution could have helped the student to persist and to ascertain future programs and services for students. The most often indicated observations were utilized by calculating means to see the predominant reason for why students left Eastern Oklahoma State College.

#### Validity and Reliability

The Evaluation Survey Service instruments were developed by the American College Testing Program (ACT). The instruments were constructed after a thorough review of the pertinent literature and after consultation with expert practitioners in the relevant fields. Many items were selected from instruments used in previous large-scale ACT research studies and research services; others were suggested by the literature and by professional educators. Each of the instruments were also examined for clarity and accuracy by a small sample of currently-enrolled secondary or post-secondary students. Following these reviews, a pilot version of each instrument was administered to several hundred students, prospective students, or former students at a number of institutions across the country. The American College Testing Program was careful to establish



validity and reliability of the instruments. Following these analysis, the final forms of the ESS instruments were developed (ACT User's Guide, 1996).

Perhaps the most direct evidence of the validity of the instruments was in the items themselves. They were easy to read, straightforward, logical questions that dealt directly with particular aspects of the college.

With respect to reliability, when group statistics were utilized, analogous group reliability statistics were appropriate. For example, generalizability coefficients were obtained from studying ten institutions for the Student Opinion Survey (Valiga, 1990). Valiga, 1990 indicated that when samples of students numbered above one hundred fifty there was a generalizability coefficient above .90 in all cases.

### Surveying Procedures

The Student Opinion Survey (short form) was administered in February in the English Composition II classes in 1996, 1997, and 1998. This was appropriate, at this point, because the opinion survey addressed attitudes that utilized the institutional experiences of students. The judgement of the students, after one full semester, would develop an initial valid opinion. In the Spring of 1996, 263 students completed the Student Opinion Survey. Furthermore, 253 students completed the same survey in February of 1997, and 168 students in 1998 completed the survey, in the same manner. Thus, the total number of students completing the Student Opinion Survey was 684.

The Outcomes Survey was given to all graduates when they visited the Counseling Center to finalize information for graduation. As a result of the time involved, the students completed the survey while waiting to see a counselor to discuss graduation

during the graduation exit interview procedure. This seemed to work quite nicely with very few complaints from students. The procedure seemed to fall in place systematically and was convenient for the respondents.

Graduating students surveyed using the Outcomes Survey totalled 689. A sum of 255 students were surveyed in May of 1996, whereas, 217 students completed the Outcomes Survey in May of 1997, and 217 students responded in April of 1998.

The Withdrawal/Non-returning Student Survey was given to departing students throughout the Fall, Spring and Summer semesters. When the withdrawal process was initiated by the student, a survey was completed in the Office of Student Services before the student completed paperwork to finalize withdrawal from school. However, if a student was involuntarily withdrawn, or students departed without following official procedures a survey was not completed. One hundred and three students recorded a Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey during the 1995-1996 school year. The Withdrawal/Non-returning Student Survey was given to 125 departing students throughout the Fall, Spring, and Summer of 1996-97. Whereas, 75 students responded to the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Survey for the 1997-98 school term during the Fall, Spring, and Summer semesters. Thus, totaling 303 students that completed the Withdrawal/Non-returning Student Survey during the three year period.

In summary, the total sample population consisted of 1676 students that completed surveys. This represented response rates of approximately 70 % for both the Student Opinion Survey and the Outcomes Survey. Whereas, only 15 % of those students that left Eastern Oklahoma State College during the time of this study completed the

Withdrawal/Non-returning Student Survey. One concern would be the responses from the non-respondents.

### Analysis of Data

The student opinion and outcomes surveys utilized a Likert type scale of six response choices for the students to respond. In order to calculate a mean response, the items in this study were assigned numerical values to the response categories. They are as follows: Very Satisfied (5) was the highest rating of satisfaction, followed by Satisfied (4), Neutral (3), Dissatisfied (2) and Very Dissatisfied (1). The sixth choice implied “not applicable for their situation.” This was scored a zero and reported in the tables as “No Response.” However, “No Responses” were not calculated in the determination of mean scores. Means and standard deviations were reported to give an indication of central tendency and amount of variation among the data. In this case, mean scores according to the following categories were implied from the data.

Very Satisfied	4.5 - 5.00
Satisfied	3.5 - 4.49
Neutral	2.5 - 3.49
Dissatisfied	1.5 - 2.49
Very Dissatisfied	1.49 and below

Means were calculated by multiplying the number of responses by the numerical value assigned and then was divided by the total number of actual respondents.

Moreover, the percentages, listed in the frequency tables, were calculated by dividing the number of responses by the number of possible respondents for academic factors, since academic factors applied to all students. However, there were students that did not respond to a particular institutional factor because the situation or factor did not apply to

them. Therefore, percentages for institutional factors were calculated by dividing the number of responses by the number of respondents for each situation. In both cases, a “No Response” was observed and reported. Therefore, “n” varied more for institutional factors because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses.

Furthermore, mean scores and standard deviations were compared for differences by utilizing the t test method. Tests of significance was determined for both the 95 and 99 percent confidence intervals.

Students that officially withdrew completed the Student Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey as a part of the withdrawal procedures. Forty-eight choices were available from these five categories for the students to select as a “major” or “minor” reason for leaving. In some cases, the students may have left several blank or indicated “not a reason.” If the student indicated the item was a “major” reason then the item was scored a three, whereas a “minor” reason equaled a two and “not a reason” or a blank response was scored a one.

### Statistical Procedures

Descriptive statistical analysis including the means of student attitude responses and frequency distributions were used to describe the information obtained from the surveys. Furthermore, t test comparisons were conducted to test differences of the mean comparisons from the observations of attitudes. This was intended to test the differences for traditional and non-traditional students as well as agriculture and non-agriculture students.

Students who completed four semesters and/or were continuously enrolled were classified as persisters while those who withdrew or failed to re-enroll were non-persisters. The persisters were used as the dependent variable and factors that lowered attitudes or caused withdrawal were the independent variables in this study.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the information obtained from students at Eastern Oklahoma State College concerning their attitudes (levels of satisfaction) about the college. Both academic and institutional factors were obtained from records using surveys developed by the American College Testing Program.

This chapter will be divided into five sections. First, frequency distributions will be presented for both academic and institutional factors from the Student Opinion Survey for all students, traditional-age students, non-traditional students, agriculture students and non-agriculture students. Secondly, frequency distributions will be reported in the same manner with the same categories for the Outcomes Survey. The third section will depict mean comparisons for academic and institutional factors between both traditional students and non-traditional students from the Student Opinion Survey. Also, this section will include a mean comparison for agriculture and non-agriculture students for academic and institutional factors. Fourthly, mean comparisons will be reported for academic and institutional factors for both traditional and non-traditional students as well as agriculture and non-agriculture students from the Outcomes survey. The final section will be devoted

devoted to reporting data (means) from the Student Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey. These data will represent the primary reasons for departure for those students officially withdrawing and completing the survey from the fall of 1995 through the spring of 1998.

### Frequency Distributions for Student Opinion Survey

The survey contained several factors for the students to answer, however, the researcher selected 13 pertinent factors to observe from the records. There were 684 respondents to five selected academic factors. The factors in question were Quality of Instruction, Availability of Instructor, Respect for Students by the instructors, Academic Advising, and Class Size. In each case “n” represented the number of possible respondents and “%” indicated the percentage of responses for that particular level of satisfaction. Table 1 was constructed to illustrate levels of satisfaction for all students on five selected academic factors at the mid-point of their second semester of enrollment. Using the procedures described in Chapter III, mean responses were calculated on the factors. It should be noted that on the average students indicated they were “satisfied” with all five of these academic factors. However, with a 4.32 mean response, it was disclosed that they were most satisfied with Class Size. Class Size exhibited the highest level of satisfaction with over 90 percent satisfaction being both very satisfied or satisfied. This was followed rather closely by Respect for Students with a 4.26 mean response. Availability of Instructor and Academic Advising, each with a 4.04 mean response, were the lowest rated of the factors.

TABLE 1

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS  
FOR ALL STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Academic Factor	Total Response n	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response $\bar{x}$	sd
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Quality of Instruction	684	232	33.9	317	46.3	89	13.0	17	2.5	5	0.7	24	3.5	4.14	.79
Availability of Instructor	684	194	28.4	329	48.1	119	17.4	13	1.9	8	1.2	21	3.1	4.04	.81
Respect for Students	684	275	40.2	320	46.8	69	10.1	8	1.2	4	0.6	8	1.2	4.26	.73
Academic Advising	684	217	31.7	307	44.9	99	14.5	31	4.5	9	1.3	21	3.1	4.04	.88
Class Size	684	272	39.8	352	51.5	51	7.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	7	1.0	4.32	.62



Data relative to traditional-age students (Table 2) revealed that Class Size and Respect for Students were the highest levels of satisfaction again (90 and 86 percent, respectively). Even though none of the five factors scored below the satisfied level, Availability of Instructor and Academic Advising were fourth and fifth consistently. Availability of Instructor seemed the one to be concerned about in this case since only 73.8 percent of the students felt that they could reach their instructor when needed. Table 2 further illustrated that non-traditional students followed a pattern much like the traditional students. Again, Class Size and Respect for Students were reported to be from 87 to 92 percent, while Availability of Instructor and Academic Advising were less than 80 percent. Similarly, mean responses were reported to be at or above 4.00.

Table 3 represented agriculture student attitudes. Data from Table 3 indicated that Quality of Instruction and Academic Advising were a close second and third to Class Size and were both very satisfied or satisfied (over 93 percent). Furthermore, the agriculture students claimed higher ratings for Availability of Instructor than did the overall student body (87.2 % to 76.5 %, Tables 1 and 3). In fact, when compared to the non-agriculture students (Table 3), agriculture students indicated a higher frequency of satisfaction in every factor combined for both very satisfied and satisfied. Even though the non-agriculture students' ratings of satisfaction was lower in magnitude, they continued to have mean scores above 4.0 (considered in the satisfied level).

Tables 4-6 represented frequency data for institutional factors for each group; (all students, traditional, non-traditional, agriculture, and non-agriculture). Responses from the Student Opinion Survey for eight institutional factors were observed. The factors included Financial Services, Social Involvement/Activities, Orientation, Residence Halls,

TABLE 2

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS FOR TRADITIONAL AND  
NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Academic Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
<u>Traditional</u>															
Quality of Instruction	420	131	31.2	203	48.3	61	14.5	6	1.4	1	.02	18	4.3	4.13	.73
Availability of Instructor	420	110	26.2	200	47.6	86	20.5	4	0.9	4	0.9	16	3.8	4.00	.78
Respect for Students	420	152	36.2	212	50.2	44	10.5	4	1.0	0	0	8	1.9	4.23	.66
Academic Advising	420	131	31.2	195	46.4	58	13.8	19	4.5	1	1.0	16	3.8	4.05	.85
Class Size	420	169	40.2	210	50.0	33	7.9	1	0.2	1	0.2	6	1.4	4.32	.64
<u>Non-Traditional</u>															
Quality of Instruction	264	101	38.3	114	43.2	28	10.6	11	4.2	4	1.5	6	2.3	4.14	.88
Availability of Instructor	264	84	31.8	129	48.9	33	12.5	9	3.4	4	1.5	5	1.9	4.09	.86
Respect for Students	264	123	46.6	108	40.9	25	9.5	4	1.5	4	1.5	0	0.0	4.31	.81
Academic Advising	264	86	32.6	112	42.4	41	15.5	12	4.6	5	1.9	8	3.0	4.03	.93
Class Size	264	103	39.0	142	53.8	18	6.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4	4.33	.60

TABLE 3

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS FOR AGRICULTURE  
AND NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Academic Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
<u>Agriculture</u>															
Quality of Instruction	78	34	43.6	39	50.0	4	5.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	.3	4.40	.57
Availability of Instructor	78	30	38.5	38	48.7	9	11.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	.3	4.28	.63
Respect for Students	78	36	46.1	31	39.7	10	12.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	4.34	.70
Academic Advising	78	34	43.6	38	50.0	4	5.1	1	1.3	0	0.0	1	1.3	4.36	.63
Class Size	78	39	50.0	35	44.9	3	3.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	4.47	.55
<u>Non-Agriculture</u>															
Quality of Instruction	606	198	32.7	278	45.9	85	14.0	19	3.1	1	0.2	25	4.1	4.12	.70
Availability of Instructor	606	164	27.1	291	48.0	110	18.2	13	2.1	8	1.3	20	3.3	4.01	.74
Respect for Students	606	239	39.4	289	47.7	58	9.6	8	1.3	4	0.7	8	1.3	4.25	.72
Academic Advising	606	183	30.2	268	44.2	95	15.7	29	4.8	9	1.5	22	3.6	4.01	.90
Class Size	606	233	38.4	317	52.3	48	7.9	1	0.2	1	0.2	6	1.0	4.30	.62

Career Planning, Student Employment Services, Cafeteria, and Parking Facilities. In this case, varying numbers represented each factor in the tables due to many students considering themselves to be not applicable to the particular situation.

Table 4 was constructed to illustrate levels of satisfaction on selected institutional factors for all students at mid-second semester. The highest rating of satisfaction for all students for institutional factors shown in Student Employment, (91% satisfied and a mean score of 4.34), while the Cafeteria easily was rated the lowest (36.8 % satisfied with a mean score of 2.81). Empirically, there was more inconsistency for institutional factors than for academic factors. In addition, Financial Services, Career Planning, Social Involvement, and Orientation exhibited means above a 3.67 which represented the satisfied level. In contrast, Cafeteria Services, Parking Facilities and Residence Halls reported means of less than 3.5. This revealed a Neutral mean, although this may not be as neutral as there are as many dissatisfied attitudes as there are satisfied attitudes. One note of interest is that many students have considered financial reasons as being a primary reason for departure, yet Financial Services received a high rating of satisfaction. This could agree with Demos (1964) and Gum (1973) in that many students offered financial reasons for leaving college as a socially acceptable reason. However, it could be that money management or lack of planning was the problem.

When considering traditional students for institutional factors (Table 5), it was observed that Cafeteria, Parking and Residence Halls disclosed mean scores below 3.5 and Orientation approached the 3.5 level of satisfaction. In fact, both Cafeteria Services and Parking Facilities were below the 3.0 rating of satisfaction. This could be interpreted that more students were dissatisfied than satisfied with these factors. This was definitely true

TABLE 4  
LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS  
FOR ALL STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Institutional Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
Financial Services	684	186	43.3	140	32.5	63	14.7	24	5.6	17	4.0	254	37.1	4.06	1.05
Social Involvement/Activities	684	45	19.9	130	57.5	42	18.6	7	3.1	2	0.9	458	67.0	3.88	.75
Orientation	684	78	17.2	225	49.7	109	24.1	27	6.0	14	3.1	231	33.8	3.67	.87
Residence Halls	684	23	12.5	88	47.8	31	16.9	28	15.2	14	7.6	500	73.1	3.39	1.13
Career Planning	684	53	35.1	80	53.0	15	9.9	3	2.0	0	0.0	533	77.9	4.21	.69
Student Employment	684	72	49.6	60	41.4	8	5.5	3	2.1	2	1.4	539	78.8	4.34	.78
Cafeteria	684	26	7.5	101	29.3	91	26.4	70	20.3	57	16.5	339	49.6	2.81	1.16
Parking Facilities	684	50	9.0	205	36.9	114	20.5	119	21.4	68	12.2	128	18.7	3.08	1.18

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

TABLE 5

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS FOR TRADITIONAL AND  
NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Institutional Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
<u>Traditional</u>															
Financial Services	420	96	38.2	86	34.3	39	15.5	19	7.6	6	2.4	169	40.2	4.02	1.08
Social Involvement/ Activities	420	39	22.2	94	53.4	30	17.1	5	2.8	2	1.1	244	58.1	3.92	.79
Orientation	420	39	12.8	152	49.8	78	25.6	18	5.9	9	3.0	115	27.4	3.59	.85
Residence Halls	420	25	15.8	71	44.9	27	17.1	22	13.9	11	7.0	262	62.4	3.48	1.13
Career Planning	420	30	31.6	48	50.5	9	9.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	325	77.4	4.23	.62
Student Employment	420	46	47.4	38	39.2	5	5.2	2	2.21	0	0.0	323	76.9	4.39	.70
Cafeteria	420	8	3.4	56	23.9	64	27.4	60	25.6	43	18.4	186	44.3	2.62	1.08
Parking Facilities	420	27	7.5	119	33.1	75	20.9	8	22.8	49	13.7	61	14.5	2.97	1.19
<u>Non-Traditional</u>															
Financial Services	264	90	47.4	54	28.4	24	12.6	5	2.6	11	5.8	74	28.0	4.10	1.11
Social Involvement/ Activities	264	6	10.2	36	61.0	12	20.3	2	3.4	0	0.0	205	77.7	3.80	.58
Orientation	264	39	24.4	73	45.6	31	19.4	9	5.6	5	3.1	104	39.4	3.79	.89
Residence Halls	264	4	10.0	17	42.5	6	15.0	6	15.0	3	7.5	224	84.9	3.33	1.10
Career Planning	264	23	34.9	32	48.5	6	9.1	3	4.6	0	0.0	198	75.0	4.17	.76
Student Employment	264	26	44.8	22	37.9	3	5.2	1	1.17	2	3.5	206	78.0	4.25	.87
Cafeteria	264	18	15.4	45	38.5	27	23.1	10	8.6	14	12.0	147	55.7	3.29	1.19
Parking Facilities	264	23	11.1	86	41.3	39	18.8	37	17.8	19	9.1	56	21.2	3.25	1.15

for the Cafeteria (only 27.3 % satisfied or very satisfied), but the frequency of satisfied students for Parking revealed 40.6 % satisfied or very satisfied, while 36.5 % were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied. The reason for the mean being slightly less than 3.0 was that there was a higher percentage of very dissatisfied versus very satisfied (13.7 % to 7.5 %).

Furthermore, Table 5 depicted non-traditional students in which they followed much the same pattern as the traditional students, except for Cafeteria Services. Cafeteria ratings continued to be low, yet the frequency percentage of satisfaction levels were much higher (53.9 % satisfied) for non-traditional than traditional students (27.3 %, almost double). In addition, mean scores for non-traditional students were higher than for traditional students (3.29 versus 2.62). One can only speculate why this would occur. Possibly, older students were more mature and understanding of feeding large numbers in a cafeteria setting. Another reason may be that they were simply more appreciative after they have been away from home and eaten their own cooking for a few years.

Table 6 illustrated the levels of satisfaction for institutional factors for both agriculture and non-agriculture students. One hundred percent of the agriculture students, affected by jobs on campus, were very satisfied or satisfied with Student Employment Services, thus rendered the highest mean score for institutional services (4.5). Financial Services, Social Involvement, and Career Planning rated highly (above 72 percent) for satisfaction with each factor, even though they did not rank as high as Student Employment (100%). Consistent with all students as well as traditional and non-traditional students, agriculture students indicated that Cafeteria, Parking and Residence Halls ranked the lowest in satisfaction. Less than 17 percent of the agriculture students

TABLE 6

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS FOR AGRICULTURE  
AND NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Institutional Factor	Total Response n	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response $\bar{x}$	sd
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
<u>Agriculture</u>															
Financial Services	78	19	37.3	18	35.3	6	11.8	5	9.8	0	0.0	27	34.6	3.98	.99
Social Involvement/Activities	78	9	22.5	21	52.5	7	17.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	38	48.7	4.07	.64
Orientation	78	9	16.4	27	49.1	13	23.6	2	3.6	3	5.5	23	29.5	3.73	.83
Residence Halls	78	4	12.9	14	45.2	6	19.4	4	12.9	2	6.5	47	60.3	3.43	1.03
Career Planning	78	7	35.0	12	60.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	58	74.4	4.43	.47
Student Employment	78	10	50.0	10	50.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	58	74.4	4.5	.49
Cafeteria	78	1	2.0	7	14.3	16	32.7	11	22.4	14	28.6	29	37.2	2.37	.95
Parking Facilities	78	5	7.8	25	39.1	14	21.9	10	15.6	8	12.5	14	18.0	3.17	1.12
<u>Non-Agriculture</u>															
Financial Services	606	167	43.7	122	31.9	57	14.9	19	5.0	17	4.5	224	37.0	4.06	1.03
Social Involvement/Activities	606	37	19.8	108	57.1	35	18.5	7	3.7	2	1.1	417	68.8	3.90	.72
Orientation	606	69	17.3	198	49.6	96	24.1	25	6.3	11	2.8	207	34.2	3.72	.80
Residence Halls	606	25	15.8	74	46.8	23	14.6	24	15.2	12	7.6	448	73.9	3.63	1.14
Career Planning	606	46	34.9	68	51.5	15	11.4	3	2.3	0	0.0	474	78.2	4.19	.69
Student Employment	606	62	49.6	50	40.0	8	6.4	3	2.4	2	1.6	481	79.4	4.33	.61
Cafeteria	606	25	8.5	94	31.8	75	25.3	59	19.9	43	14.5	310	51.2	3.00	1.11
Parking Facilities	606	45	9.1	180	36.4	100	20.2	109	22.1	60	12.2	112	18.5	3.08	1.16



were satisfied with the Cafeteria, while Parking and Residence Halls fared much better at 46.9 and 58.1 percent, respectively, yet were lower than the other five factors. In addition, mean scores of 2.37, 3.17, and 3.43 for Cafeteria, Parking, and Residence Halls revealed a less than satisfied level.

Means and percentages for non-agriculture students appeared to be similar to those of agriculture students, except for Cafeteria and Career Planning (Table 6). Agriculture students indicated a higher satisfaction level for Career Planning, 95 percent while non-agriculture students reported a 80.8 percent satisfied response.

In contrast, non-agriculture students rated the Cafeteria much higher than the Agriculture students (means of 3.00 compared to 2.37). Again, Student Employment was indicated as the highest level for non-agriculture students with over nearly 90 percent satisfaction and a mean response of 4.33. Finally, we observed that non-agriculture students, ranked Financial Services second with a satisfaction level of 75.6 percent in the very satisfied or satisfied category.

#### Frequency Distributions for the

#### Outcomes Survey

Frequency data for all students, traditional, non-traditional, agriculture, and non-agriculture with both academic and institutional factors are reported in Tables 7-12 regarding the Outcomes Survey at graduation. Tables 7-9 display the academic factors and Tables 10-12 exhibit the results for the institutional factors. There were 689 respondents that completed the survey for the academic factors, whereas varied numbers

of respondents completed the institutional factors. This was dependent upon the relativity to each respondent.

Table 7 illustrated that every academic factor depicted an eighty percent or higher rating for very satisfied and satisfied combined from all the students. The highest rating was Class Size (mean response of 4.31), while the lowest level of satisfaction was for Availability of Instructor (4.13). In fact, the frequency ratings at graduation for academic scores were similar to the academic ratings for the Student Opinion Survey at mid-second semester. Even though the mean scores and percentages of satisfaction were considerably high for all academic factors, one may want to be cautious of the lowest rating whenever retention percentages decline abruptly.

Table 8 indicated that traditional students level of satisfaction records for the Outcomes Survey indicated that they were much like all the students in regard that Class Size (mean response of 4.35) and Respect for Students (4.24) rated higher than Availability of Instructor, Quality of Instruction, and quality of Academic Advising (4.18, 4.13, and 4.19, respectively). However, the percentage of acceptable satisfaction levels continued to be easily above eighty-five percent.

Class Size continued to be the highest frequency for both mean score and level of satisfaction, 4.29 and 89.4 % for non-traditional students. Furthermore, Availability of Instructor had the lowest attitude rating with a 4.09 and a level of satisfaction percentage of 78.5 percent. In comparison, traditional students recorded the lowest mean score for Quality of Instruction (4.13), while non-traditional students scored Availability of Instructor as the lowest mean score (4.09). However, in both cases, mean scores were above a 4.0 (satisfied) and percentage of satisfied or better was above 78 %.

TABLE 7

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS  
FOR ALL STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Academic Factor	Total Response n	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	sd
Quality of Instruction	689	231	33.5	367	53.3	72	10.5	16	2.3	2	.03	1	.2	4.17	.73
Availability of Instructor	689	247	35.8	317	46.0	93	13.5	21	3.1	8	1.2	3	.4	4.13	.83
Respect for Students	689	282	40.9	319	46.3	63	9.1	18	2.6	5	0.7	2	.3	4.24	.78
Academic Advising	689	285	41.4	293	42.5	70	10.2	21	3.1	12	1.7	8	1.2	4.20	.87
Class Size	689	284	41.2	334	48.5	61	8.9	6	0.9	0	0.0	4	.6	4.31	.66

TABLE 8

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS FOR TRADITIONAL  
AND NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Academic Factor	Total Response n	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response $\bar{x}$	sd
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
<u>Traditional</u>	326	95	29.1	188	57.7	34	10.4	9	2.8	0	0.0	0	0	4.13	.70
Quality of Instruction															
Availability of Instructor	326	117	35.9	163	50.0	36	11.0	7	2.1	3	0.9	0	0	4.18	.78
Respect for Students	326	129	39.6	158	48.5	30	9.2	7	2.2	2	0.6	0	0	4.24	.75
Academic Advising	326	131	40.2	149	45.7	29	8.9	11	3.4	5	1.5	1	.3	4.19	.86
Class Size	326	143	43.9	154	47.2	26	8.0	2	0.6	0	0.0	1	.3	4.35	.66
<u>Non-Traditional</u>	349	132	37.8	171	49.0	36	10.3	7	2.0	2	0.6	1	.3	4.21	.76
Quality of Instruction															
Availability of Instructor	349	127	36.4	147	42.1	55	15.6	13	3.7	5	1.4	2	.6	4.09	.89
Respect for Students	349	151	43.3	151	43.3	32	9.2	11	3.2	3	0.9	1	.3	4.24	.82
Academic Advising	349	150	43.0	137	39.3	40	11.5	10	2.9	7	2.0	5	1.4	4.20	.91
Class Size	349	139	39.8	173	49.6	32	9.2	4	1.2	0	0.0	1	.3	4.29	.66

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

In review of the Outcomes Survey for the agriculture and non-agriculture students it appeared that academic factors was consistently rated higher by agriculture students. Each factor exhibited a mean score above a 4.20 and every level of satisfaction percentage of very satisfied and satisfied combined was above ninety percent (Table 9). Eighty six agriculture students indicated Class Size as the highest satisfaction level (mean score of 4.41), yet quality of Academic Advising tied Class Size for satisfaction level with 95.4 %. In contrast, all the students, and both traditional and non-traditional students did not rate Academic Advising as high as the agriculture students.

Table 9 depicted the non-agriculture levels of satisfaction for students for academic factors. Again, Class Size topped the rating with a 88.9 % for very satisfied and satisfied combined as well as a mean score of 4.30. Furthermore, Availability of Instructor and Academic Advising were the lowest rated factors at 80.4 % and 82.3 %, respectively, for the combined satisfaction levels. However, we should realize that in all ratings, combined satisfaction levels were above 80 percent and the mean scores were above 4.10 (satisfied).

In contrast to the Student Opinion Survey where Student Employment was the highest rated satisfaction level, the Outcomes Survey at graduation indicated financial services as the highest combined satisfaction. Table 10 illustrated the levels of satisfaction for the selected institutional factors for all students at graduation. It should be noted that Financial Services rated 75.4 % satisfaction with a mean score of 3.94. In contrast, all the students at graduation rated Student Employment next to last (mean score of 3.65 and a 59.4 % combined satisfaction). For some reason or reasons, during the time period of mid-second semester to the end of their college experience, the attitude of Student

TABLE 9

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED ACADEMIC FACTORS FOR AGRICULTURE  
AND NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Academic Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
<u>Agriculture</u>															
Quality of Instruction	86	30	34.9	52	60.5	4	4.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0	4.30	.54
Availability of Instructor	86	31	36.1	48	55.8	3	3.5	2	2.23	2	2.23	0	0	4.20	.80
Respect for Students	86	34	39.5	46	53.5	5	5.8	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0	4.33	.66
Academic Advising	86	41	47.7	41	47.7	2	2.23	2	2.23	0	0.0	0	0	4.40	.63
Class Size	86	41	47.7	41	47.7	3	3.35	1	1.12	0	0.0	0	0	4.41	.62
<u>Non-Agriculture</u>															
Quality of Instruction	603	201	33.3	315	52.2	68	11.3	16	2.7	2	0.3	1	.2	4.16	.74
Availability of Instructor	603	216	35.8	269	44.6	90	14.9	19	3.2	6	1.0	3	.5	4.12	.83
Respect for Students	603	248	41.1	273	45.3	58	9.6	17	2.8	5	0.8	2	.3	4.24	.77
Academic Advising	603	244	40.5	252	41.8	68	11.3	19	3.2	12	2.0	8	1.3	4.17	.85
Class Size	603	243	40.3	293	48.6	58	9.6	5	0.8	0	0.0	5	.8	4.30	.65

TABLE 10

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS  
FOR ALL STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Institutional Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
Financial Services	689	189	30.1	285	45.3	106	16.9	31	4.9	18	2.9	60	8.7	3.94	.96
Social Involvement/Activities	689	139	23.2	278	46.6	150	25.1	19	3.2	11	1.8	92	13.4	3.86	.87
Orientation	689	164	25.6	289	45.0	159	24.8	19	3.0	11	1.7	47	6.8	3.90	.88
Residence Halls	689	70	19.8	164	46.5	160	45.3	38	10.8	21	6.0	336	48.8	3.51	.99
Career Planning	689	140	22.2	295	46.8	159	25.2	27	4.3	9	1.4	59	8.6	3.84	.87
Student Employment	689	125	21.7	217	37.7	163	28.4	46	8.0	24	4.2	114	16.6	3.65	1.03

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

Employment declined. Again, note Cafeteria and Parking Facilities were not included as choices in the Outcomes Survey. Residence Halls was consistently the low rated factor in both the Student Opinion Survey and Outcomes Survey when Cafeteria and Parking were not considered. For all students completing the Outcomes Survey at graduation, Residence Halls displayed the lowest rating of satisfaction with a mean score of 3.51 and a combined percentage of satisfaction at 66.3. This indicated a borderline level of satisfaction.

Table 11 exhibited data indicating that traditional students had higher levels of satisfaction for Social Involvement and activities, than the other institutional factors, with a 77.8 percent combined satisfaction and a mean score of 3.95. Astin (1977) and Tinto, et al. (1993) reported that involvement and full integration into social activities made a difference in students feeling a part of the institution and would result in better retention. This made sense that traditional students would indicate Social Involvement as a high priority or aspect of satisfaction. In contrast, Table 11 showed that non-traditional students depicted that Social Involvement and activities ranked fourth for satisfaction for the institutional factors. Financial services, Orientation, and Career Planning each ranked above Social Involvement for these students while Residence Halls and Student Employment continued to be the lowest ranked institutional factors at graduation. In fact, when combining the very satisfied and satisfied levels of satisfaction, Social Involvement as well as Student Employment and Residence Halls had less than sixty-two percent satisfaction for non-traditional students.



TABLE 11

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS FOR  
TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Institutional Factor	Total Response	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response	sd
	n	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	$\bar{x}$	
<u>Traditional</u>															
Financial Services	326	79	26.8	131	44.4	59	20.0	17	5.8	9	3.1	31	9.5	3.86	.97
Social Involvement/Activities	326	74	23.8	168	54.0	55	17.7	5	1.6	9	2.9	15	4.6	3.95	.84
Orientation	326	77	24.8	144	46.3	75	24.1	11	3.5	4	1.3	15	4.6	3.90	.85
Residence Halls	326	42	16.0	113	43.0	66	25.1	27	10.3	15	5.7	63	19.3	3.53	1.05
Career Planning	326	61	19.4	153	48.7	82	26.1	14	4.5	4	1.3	12	3.7	3.80	.84
Student Employment	326	58	20.1	105	36.5	90	31.3	26	9.0	9	3.1	38	11.7	3.60	1.00
<u>Non-Traditional</u>															
Financial Services	349	107	33.0	150	46.3	45	13.9	13	4.0	9	2.8	25	7.2	4.02	.94
Social Involvement/Activities	349	65	23.6	105	38.0	91	33.0	13	4.7	2	0.7	73	20.9	3.80	.85
Orientation	349	85	27.4	129	41.6	82	26.5	7	2.3	7	2.3	39	11.2	3.90	.91
Residence Halls	349	28	14.5	58	30.1	91	47.2	11	5.7	5	2.6	156	44.7	3.50	.92
Career Planning	349	79	25.9	132	43.3	76	24.9	13	4.3	5	1.6	44	12.6	3.88	.89
Student Employment	349	65	23.3	106	38.0	73	26.2	20	7.2	15	5.4	70	20.1	3.67	1.07

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

Table 12 illustrated levels of satisfaction for agriculture, non-agriculture students at graduation. Agriculture students continued to rank institutional factors higher than non-agriculture students at graduation. Agriculture students reported the highest mean score for Orientation (4.02). This was the only factor reported above a 4.00 for either agriculture or non-agriculture students for institutional factors at graduation. The remaining factors were close, except for Residence Halls (mean response of 3.60). Furthermore, Orientation received a 77.4 percent satisfaction rating while Residence Halls received 68.5 percent. The only factor receiving less than 70 percent, other than Residence Halls, was Student Employment (67.0 %).

Non-agriculture students exhibited similar rankings to the agriculture students for institutional factors, yet indicated lower mean scores in each comparison. Furthermore, financial services, Orientation, Career Planning, and Social Involvement were similarly rated for satisfaction, yet were placed in a different order. Also, Table 12 showed that the satisfactory level for any of the institutional factors was less than 75 percent. Frequency means of less than 4.0 were recorded by the non-agriculture students with the lowest score of 3.50. This indicated that a fairly positive attitude for institutional factors continued to exist, yet did not exhibit as high of mean scores compared to academic factors.

TABLE 12

LEVELS OF SATISFACTION ON SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS FOR AGRICULTURE  
AND NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Institutional Factor	Total Response n	Very Satisfied (5)		Satisfied (4)		Neutral (3)		Dissatisfied (2)		Very Dissatisfied (1)		No Response		Mean Response $\bar{x}$	sd
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
<u>Agriculture</u>															
Financial Services	86	19	24.7	42	54.6	10	13.0	4	5.2	2	2.6	9	10.5	3.95	.88
Social Involvement/Activities	86	16	19.3	51	61.5	15	18.1	0	0.0	1	1.2	3	3.5	3.97	.70
Orientation	86	22	26.2	43	51.2	16	19.1	3	3.6	0	0.0	2	2.3	4.02	.75
Residence Halls	86	11	14.5	41	54.0	11	14.5	9	11.4	4	5.3	10	11.6	3.60	1.02
Career Planning	86	20	23.8	45	53.6	17	20.2	1	1.2	1	1.2	2	2.3	3.99	.76
Student Employment	86	16	18.8	41	48.2	22	25.9	6	7.1	0	0.0	1	1.2	3.85	.76
<u>Non-Agriculture</u>															
Financial Services	603	170	30.8	243	44.0	96	17.4	27	4.9	16	2.9	51	8.5	3.94	.95
Social Involvement/Activities	603	123	23.9	227	44.2	135	26.3	19	3.7	10	2.0	89	14.8	3.84	.90
Orientation	603	142	25.5	246	44.1	143	25.6	16	2.9	11	2.0	45	7.5	3.88	.87
Residence Halls	603	59	14.9	143	36.0	149	37.5	29	7.3	17	4.3	206	34.2	3.50	.98
Career Planning	603	120	22.0	250	45.8	142	26.0	26	4.8	8	1.5	57	9.5	3.82	.91
Student Employment	603	109	22.2	176	36.5	141	28.9	40	8.2	24	4.9	113	18.7	3.62	1.04

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

## Mean Comparisons For Satisfaction Levels

### For the Student Opinion Survey

The purpose of this section of the chapter is to explain the mean comparisons for traditional and non-traditional students as well as agriculture and non-agriculture students for the Student Opinion Survey. The statistical “t” test was utilized to test the difference between the two means of academic and institutional factors for the respective two groups of students. Tables 13 to 16 depicted these mean comparisons and noted the significant differences.

When observing the significance between traditional and non-traditional students, Table 13 reported no difference for any of the academic factors. Both Availability of Instructor and Respect for Students indicated a .09 difference, yet was not significantly different at the 95 percent confidence level.

However, when agriculture and non-agriculture students were compared for academic factors at mid-second semester, differences were observed for four of the five factors. Table 14 reported that agriculture students significantly exhibited a higher attitude ( $P < .01$ ) concerning Quality of Instruction, Availability of Instructor, and Academic Advising. Furthermore, agriculture students indicated a higher satisfaction for Class Size at the 95 percent confidence level. The only academic factor that was non-significant ( $P > .05$ ) was Respect for Students. Consequently, it may be that the agriculture faculty spent more quality time in and out of class with students than the non-agriculture faculty.

TABLE 13

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED ACADEMIC  
FACTORS FROM TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL  
STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Factor	<u>Traditional</u>			<u>Non-Traditional</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Quality of Instruction	420	4.13	(.73)	264	4.14	(.88)	.15
Availability of Instructor	420	4.00	(.78)	264	4.09	(.86)	1.38
Respect for Students	420	4.23	(.66)	264	4.31	(.81)	1.34
Academic Advising	420	4.05	(.85)	264	4.03	(.93)	.28
Class Size	420	4.32	(.64)	264	4.33	(.60)	.20

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$

TABLE 14

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED ACADEMIC  
FACTORS FROM AGRICULTURE AND NON-AGRICULTURE  
STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Factor	<u>Agriculture</u>			<u>Non-Agriculture</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Quality of Instruction	78	4.40	(.57)	606	4.12	(.70)	3.95 **
Availability of Instructor	78	4.28	(.63)	606	4.01	(.74)	3.47 **
Respect for Students	78	4.34	(.70)	606	4.25	(.72)	1.06
Academic Advising	78	4.36	(.63)	606	4.01	(.90)	4.34 **
Class Size	78	4.47	(.55)	606	4.30	(.62)	2.52 *

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$

Table 15 illustrated mean comparisons for institutional factors between traditional and non-traditional students and showed significant differences ( $P < .01$ ) for three of the eight factors. Non-traditional students had significantly higher levels of satisfaction for Orientation, Cafeteria, and Parking Facilities. Ironically, two of these three (Cafeteria and parking) exhibited low ratings when observing the frequency data. The other five factors for institutional services reported no differences.

Only one of the eight institutional factors exhibited a difference when comparing agriculture and non-agriculture students. Non-agriculture students significantly ( $P < .01$ ) preferred the Cafeteria (3.00 to 2.37) to the agriculture students (Table 16). Even though mean differences were as much as .20, they were not significant at the 95 percent confidence level for seven of the eight institutional factors.

#### Mean Comparisons For Satisfaction Levels of the Outcomes Survey

The purpose of this section is to discuss the mean comparisons for traditional and non-traditional students along with agriculture and non-agriculture students at graduation from the Outcomes Survey. As previously mentioned, the statistical method used was the “t” test. Mean comparisons for the above mentioned groups are listed in Tables 17-20.

Traditional and non-traditional students completing the Outcomes Survey indicated no significant differences of mean scores for the five academic factors. Both traditional and non-traditional students indicated mean scores above 4.09 in each factor (Table 17). Therefore, both age groups were satisfied ( $> 4.00$ ) at the same level for the five academic factors.

TABLE 15

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL  
FACTORS FOR TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL  
STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Factor	<u>Traditional</u>			<u>Non-Traditional</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Financial Aid	251	4.02	(1.0)	190	4.10	(1.11)	.782
Social Involvement	176	3.92	(.79)	59	3.80	(.58)	1.247
Orientation	305	3.59	(.85)	160	3.79	(.89)	3.44 **
Residence Halls	158	3.48	(1.13)	40	3.33	(1.10)	.766
Career Planning	95	4.23	(.62)	66	4.17	(.76)	.53
Student Employment	97	4.39	(.70)	58	4.25	(.87)	1.040
Cafeteria	234	2.62	(1.08)	117	3.29	(1.19)	5.125 **
Parking Facilities	359	2.97	(1.19)	208	3.25	(1.15)	2.758 **

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$



TABLE 16

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL  
FACTORS FROM AGRICULTURE AND NON-AGRICULTURE  
STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Factor	<u>Agriculture</u>			<u>Non-Agriculture</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Financial Aid	51	3.98	(.99)	382	4.06	(1.03)	.5394
Social Involvement	40	4.07	(.64)	189	3.90	(.72)	1.538
Orientation	55	3.73	(.83)	399	3.72	(.80)	.0841
Residence Halls	31	3.43	(1.03)	158	3.63	(1.14)	.9707
Career Planning	20	4.43	(.47)	132	4.19	(.69)	1.617
Student Employment	20	4.50	(.49)	125	4.33	(.61)	1.388
Cafeteria	49	2.37	(.95)	296	3.00	(1.11)	4.19 **
Parking Facilities	64	3.17	(1.12)	494	3.08	(1.16)	.6023

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$

TABLE 17

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED ACADEMIC  
FACTORS FROM TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL  
STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Factor	<u>Traditional</u>			<u>Non-Traditional</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Quality of Instruction	326	4.13	(.70)	349	4.21	(.76)	1.42
Availability of Instructor	326	4.18	(.78)	349	4.09	(.89)	1.39
Respect for Students	326	4.24	(.75)	349	4.24	(.82)	0.00
Academic Advising	326	4.19	(.86)	349	4.20	(.91)	.14
Class Size	326	4.35	(.65)	349	4.29	(.66)	1.18

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$

Table 18 indicated that agriculture students had significantly higher attitudes concerning Quality of Instruction (4.30 to 4.16,  $P < .05$ ), and Academic Advising (4.40 to 4.17,  $P < .01$ ) than non-agriculture majors. However, agriculture and non-agriculture students reported no differences for Availability of Instructors, Respect for Students and Class Size, even though the agriculture students had a slight tendency to have higher attitudes for these factors than non-agriculture students.

Table 19 reported mean score differences ( $P < .05$ ) for Financial Aid Services and Social Involvement from the Outcomes Survey for traditional versus non-traditional students. However, non-traditional students exhibited higher attitudes for Financial Aid Services (4.02 versus 3.86), while traditional students preferred Social Involvement/activities (3.95 to 3.80). The latter made sense to the researcher because more traditional students live on campus and participate in clubs, organizations, athletic events, etc. This agrees with Astin (1975, 1985), Hyatt (1980), Billson and Terry (1982), Nowick and Hanson (1985), and Webb (1986) in regard to students living in Residence Halls, participating and being more socially involved. Although, Residence Halls did not exhibit a significant difference, traditional students reported a slightly higher (non-significant) attitude (3.53 to 3.50). Furthermore, Orientation, Career Planning and Student Employment reported no differences. However, non-traditional students indicated a slightly higher, but non-significant, attitude for Career Planning and Student Employment.

Data from the Outcomes Survey further reported, in Table 20, that 86 agriculture students had higher attitudes for each institutional factor than non-agriculture students. However, all factors were non-significant, except for Student Employment. Agriculture

TABLE 18  
 MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED ACADEMIC  
 FACTORS FOR AGRICULTURE AND NON-AGRICULTURE  
 STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Factor	<u>Agriculture</u>			<u>Non-Agriculture</u>			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Quality of Instruction	86	4.30	(.54)	603	4.16	(.74)	2.14 *
Availability of Instructor	86	4.20	(.80)	603	4.12	(.83)	.86
Respect for Students	86	4.33	(.66)	603	4.24	(.77)	1.16
Academic Advising	86	4.40	(.63)	603	4.17	(.85)	3.01 **
Class Size	86	4.41	(.62)	603	4.30	(.65)	1.53

\* = Denotes P < .05

\*\* = Denotes P < .01

TABLE 19

MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL  
FACTORS FROM TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL  
STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Factor	<u>Traditional</u>			<u>Non-Traditional</u>			t Test (t value )
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Financial Aid	326	3.86	(.97)	349	4.02	(.94)	2.17 *
Social Involvement	326	3.95	(.84)	349	3.80	(.85)	2.31 *
Orientation	326	3.90	(.85)	349	3.90	(.91)	0.00
Residence Halls	326	3.53	(1.05)	349	3.50	(.92)	.39
Career Planning	326	3.80	(.84)	349	3.88	(.89)	1.20
Student Employment	326	3.60	(1.00)	349	3.67	(1.09)	.87

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

\* = Denotes  $P < .05$

\*\* = Denotes  $P < .01$

TABLE 20  
 MEAN COMPARISONS OF SATISFACTION LEVELS FOR SELECTED  
 INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS FROM AGRICULTURE AND  
 NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS AT GRADUATION

Factor	Agriculture			Non-Agriculture			t Test (t value)
	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	n	$\bar{x}$	(sd)	
Financial Aid	86	3.95	(.88)	603	3.94	(.95)	.10
Social Involvement	86	3.97	(.70)	603	3.84	(.90)	1.52
Orientation	86	4.02	(.75)	603	3.88	(.87)	1.58
Residence Halls	86	3.60	(1.02)	603	3.50	(.98)	.83
Career Planning	86	3.99	(.76)	603	3.82	(.91)	1.87
Student Employment	86	3.85	(.76)	603	3.62	(1.04)	2.43 *

Note: "n" may vary because not all factors applied to all students and this led to widely varying numbers of responses

\* = Denotes P < .05

\*\* = Denotes P < .01

students indicated a mean score of 3.85 while a mean score of 3.62 was reported for non-agriculture students for Student Employment ( $P < .05$ ). One note of interest was that Table 18 depicted a higher attitude level from agriculture students for academic advisement by faculty, but Table 20 did not exhibit a significance for Career Planning from the institutional factors. It may be presumed that the majority of the agriculture students were receiving their career advise from the agriculture faculty.

### Mean Scores for Most Often Given

#### Reason for Leaving

Students that officially withdrew from Eastern completed the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey. Students had the choice to choose 48 reasons for leaving from five different categories. The categories included personal, academic, institutional, financial, and employment reasons for departure. Three hundred and three students completed the survey during the time period of fall 1995 through the spring of 1998. Records indicated (Table 21) that the same five reasons for leaving was given each year. These five reasons were "Conflict between job and college", "Job acceptance" and "Unexpected expenses" as well as "Health related" and "Family responsibilities." The mean scores were above 1.46 each year (1996-1998) for each of the five reasons. In addition, mean scores of 1.14 or lower were reported for the other identified items. These items included "Dissatisfied with social life", "Financial aid inadequate", "Disappointed with the Quality of Instruction", "Academic Advising", and "Impersonal attitudes by the faculty and staff." These items were representative of the academic and institutional factors in this study.

TABLE 21

## MEAN SCORES FOR REASONS MOST OFTEN GIVEN FOR LEAVING

Reason	1996	(rank)	1997	(rank)	1998	(rank)	Mean Total	(rank)
Conflict between job and college	1.63	(1)	1.52	(3)	1.64	(1)	1.60	(1)
Job acceptance / full-time	1.59	(2)	1.54	(1)	1.61	(3)	1.58	(2)
Unexpected expenses	1.58	(3)	1.46	(5)	1.49	(5)	1.51	(4)
Health related	1.52	(4)	1.47	(4)	1.64	(1)	1.54	(3)
Family responsibilities	1.50	(5)	1.53	(2)	1.50	(4)	1.51	(4)
Financial aid inadequate	1.14	(20)	1.11	(23)	1.03	(42)	1.09	(28)
Disappointed with Quality of Instruction	1.12	(24)	1.09	(28)	1.14	(19)	1.12	(24)
Dissatisfied with social life	1.10	(27)	1.09	(28)	1.03	(42)	1.07	(33)
Impersonal attitudes of faculty and staff	1.08	(29)	1.04	(42)	1.04	(41)	1.05	(37)
Academic Advising inadequate	1.08	(29)	1.05	(37)	1.11	(28)	1.08	(31)

major reason = 3

minor reason = 2

not a reason = 1



The consistent pattern of having the same factors each year is not particularly easy to explain, yet could make predictions very simple. Three of the top five reasons for leaving exhibited symptoms of financial trouble, yet financial services was earlier rated at a satisfied rate. In fact, non-traditional students indicated it as the highest rated factor at graduation. Apparently, Eastern Oklahoma State College is offering satisfactory financial services, yet finances for the individual students continues to be a problem. Whether or not these scores are truly the reasons for leaving or whether the highest scored items were the most socially acceptable may be a question that needs to be addressed in another study. However, in this study, one of the assumptions was that students were truthful in their responses to the surveys.

Table 21 further included mean totals for the three years and reported “Conflict between job and college” the number one reason for students leaving college (mean score of 1.60). Secondly, “Full-time job acceptance” ranked next with a mean score of 1.58, while “Health related” factors rated third (1.54). Completing the top five, “Unexpected expenses” and “Family responsibilities” tied for fourth and fifth with a mean score of 1.51. The three reasons that related to financial problems (conflict between job and college, full-time job acceptance, and unexpected expenses) rated first, second, and fourth, yet “financial aid inadequate” ranked 28<sup>th</sup> with a mean score of 1.09. Note, the two remaining top five reasons that are related to personal reasons could not be given assistance to the student by the college.

In addition, Table 21 included various reasons that dealt with academic or institutional factors. The factors that eluded to academic or faculty matters were “Disappointed with Quality of Instruction”, “Impersonal attitudes of faculty and staff” and

“Academic Advising inadequate.” Each of the academic items ranked in the lower one-half of the 48 choices by the students. Moreover, mean scores were less than 1.12 compared to above 1.51 for the top five reasons.

Lastly, “Dissatisfied with social life” could be an indicator to the isolation problem that many students encounter in their college experience. Tinto (1987) indicated that the main reason for leaving college was an incongruence between academic and social integration for the individual. In this study, the mean score of “Dissatisfied with social life” was 1.07 and ranked 31<sup>st</sup>. Compared to the above academic factors, students ranked social reasons for leaving similar in their attitudes for departure, and was not in the top twenty-four reasons for leaving. Therefore, the average of the students leaving generally left for other reasons than academic or social integration problems.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the findings related to the purpose and objectives of this study. After a review of the findings, conclusions and recommendations will be presented based upon the analysis of the findings.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine and compare student satisfaction with selected academic and institutional factors at Eastern Oklahoma State College from 1995 to 1998.

#### Objectives of the Study

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following objectives were utilized.

1. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.

2. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of traditional and non-traditional students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.

3. To measure and determine if there were differences in student attitudes of agriculture and non-agriculture students toward selected academic and institutional factors at mid-second semester and at graduation.

4. To identify major reasons for student withdrawal from Eastern Oklahoma State College.

### Design and Conduct of the Study

Records were obtained from the American College Testing Program (ACT) and from Eastern Oklahoma State College to assess attitudes (levels of satisfaction) of students. These records were from three standardized ACT surveys; Student Opinion Survey, Outcomes Survey, and the Withdrawal/Nonreturning Student Survey. The data was collected during a three year period (fall of 1995 to spring of 1998). Surveys were collected during the school year that seemed most appropriate to the students educational experience. One thousand six hundred and seventy-six students completed surveys during this time frame.

### Characteristics of the Respondents

Students completing the surveys were students enrolled at Eastern Oklahoma State College (Main Campus). There was not any differentiation for residence or commuter

design of the study, comparisons for age groups and major field of study were divided and observed.

### Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of the study were divided into five sections. They were as follows:

1. Frequency distributions for the Student Opinion Survey
2. Frequency distributions for the Outcomes Survey
3. Mean comparisons for the Student Opinion Survey
4. Mean comparisons for the Outcomes Survey
5. Reasons given most often for leaving

### Frequency Distributions for Student Opinion Survey

Five factors were selected from the survey that alluded to academic areas. The factors of notice were Quality of Instruction, Availability of Instructor, Respect for Students, Academic Advising, and Class Size. In addition, eight factors were singled-out for institutional factors. The eight factors were Financial Services, Social Involvement, Orientation, Residence Halls, Career Planning, Student Employment, Cafeteria Services, and Parking Facilities. In each case, the researcher observed the attitudes concerning these key areas that contribute to retention/attrition problems.

In all cases for academic factors, the Student Opinion Survey, at mid-second semester, reported Class Size highest for levels of satisfaction. Furthermore, Respect for

Students followed closely in second, except when comparing agriculture and non-agriculture students. Agriculture students indicated Quality of Instruction as the second most accepted academic factor. Also, agriculture students rated all factors higher than non-agriculture students. Probably the most notable summation for academic factors from the Student Opinion Survey was that each group rated all factors above the satisfactory level ( $\bar{x} > 4.0$ ). Furthermore, the lowest frequency of Very Satisfied and Satisfied was approximately 75 %, whereas the highest was close to 95 percent.

In reference to institutional factors from the Student Opinion Survey, at mid-second semester, students consistently ranked the Cafeteria the lowest and Student Employment Services the highest. For both Cafeteria Services and Parking Facilities, students indicated they were displeased. Both factors reported means of three or less. In either case, less than one-half satisfaction for both factors is alarming. All groups rated four of the remaining five institutional factors above a 3.50. The exception was Residence Halls. Only non-agriculture students indicated a mean above a 3.5 for Residence Halls. These data indicated satisfactory attitudes from students for five of the eight factors, yet Residence Halls were considered marginal and Cafeteria Services and Parking were dissatisfied.

#### Frequency Distributions for Outcomes Survey

Data from all students reported similar findings to the Student Opinion Survey. Again, Class Size consistently had the highest mean score and percentage of satisfaction. In fact, all academic factors were perceived satisfactory. This was shown by a seventy-eight percent or higher rating for very satisfied and satisfied combined from the

respondents for each academic factor. More specifically, agriculture students reported the best attitudes for academic factors and indicated Academic Advising as high as Class Size (95.4 % satisfactory combined frequency).

In contrast to the Student Opinion Survey where Student Employment Services ranked the highest satisfaction for institutional factors, the Outcomes Survey at graduation revealed Financial Services as the highest mean score and frequency for all students. By the time of graduation, students depicted Student Employment Services second to the lowest factor. Cafeteria Services and Parking Facilities were not available in the Outcomes Survey for the graduating respondents. Traditional students rated Social Involvement as the highest level of satisfaction while non-traditionally aged students ranked Social Involvement fourth out of the six factors. Non-traditional students reported financial services the highest level of acceptance, and it was the only mean score above 4.00. Agriculture students continued to rank institutional factors higher than non-agriculture students. All factors were close, except Residence Halls, for agriculture students. Non-agriculture students followed agriculture in similarity by ranking Residence Halls lowest, but ranked the remaining factors differently than agriculture students. However, except for Residence Halls, both agriculture and non-agriculture students indicated positive attitudes for institutional factors.

#### Mean Comparisons for Satisfaction Levels

##### for the Student Opinion Survey

Table 22 illustrates a summary of records from 1995 to 1998 for all factors for both comparison groups. The data reported that traditional and non-traditional students

differ in their attitudes for academic factors. Also, when comparing mean attitudes for institutional factors, non-traditional students depicted better attitudes than traditional students for Orientation, Parking and Cafeteria Services. There were no differences of mean comparisons for Financial Services, Social Involvement, Residence Halls, Career Planning, and Student Employment, yet students were satisfied. However, Residence Halls was on the borderline of being satisfied (3.48 and 3.33 mean scores). Agriculture students significantly reported higher ratings than non-agriculture students in Table 22. Yet, the non-agriculture students preferred the cafeteria over the agriculture students. In addition, agriculture students exhibited higher levels of satisfaction for the academic factors, yet did not exhibit the same sentiment for institutional factors from the Student Opinion Survey at mid-second semester.

#### Mean Comparisons for Satisfaction Levels for the Outcomes Survey

Table 23 displays a summary of mean comparisons for traditional and non-traditional students as well as agriculture and non-agriculture students at graduation. The data continued to show no significant mean differences for academic factors at the end of their two-year college experience for traditional and non-traditional students. However, agriculture students indicated higher attitudes, significantly, than non-agriculture students for Quality of Instruction and Academic Advising. Therefore, upon graduation most students did not differ in attitude on most academic factors, yet agriculture students rated their experience with faculty and advisors higher.



TABLE 22

SUMMARY OF MEAN COMPARISONS FOR TRADITIONAL AND  
NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AS WELL AS  
AGRICULTURE AND NON-AGRICULTURE  
STUDENTS AT MID-SECOND SEMESTER

Factor	Traditional	Non- traditional	Agriculture	Non- Agriculture
	x	x	x	x
Quality of Instruction	4.13	4.14	4.40	4.12**
Availability of Instructor	4.00	4.09	4.28	4.01**
Respect for students	4.23	4.31	4.34	4.25
Academic Advising	4.05	4.03	4.36	4.01**
Class Size	4.32	4.33	4.47	4.30*
Financial Aid Services	4.02	4.10	3.98	4.06
Social Involvement	3.92	3.80	4.07	3.90
Orientation	3.59	3.79**	3.73	3.72
Residence Halls	3.48	3.33	3.43	3.63
Career Planning	4.23	4.17	4.43	4.19
Student Employment	4.39	4.25	4.50	4.33
Cafeteria Services	2.62	3.29**	2.37	3.00**
Parking Facilities	2.97	3.25**	3.17	3.08

\* =  $p < .05$

\*\* =  $p < .01$

TABLE 23

SUMMARY OF MEAN COMPARISONS FOR TRADITIONAL AND  
NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AND AGRICULTURE AS  
WELL AS NON-AGRICULTURE STUDENTS  
AT GRADUATION

Factor	Traditional x	Non- traditional x	Agriculture x	Non- Agriculture x
Quality of Instruction	4.13	4.21	4.30	4.16 *
Availability of Instructor	4.18	4.09	4.20	4.12
Respect for Students	4.24	4.24	4.33	4.24
Academic Advising	4.19	4.20	4.40	4.17 **
Class Size	4.35	4.29	4.41	4.30
Financial Aid Services	3.86	4.02*	3.95	3.94
Social Involvement	3.95	3.80*	3.97	3.84
Orientation	3.90	3.90	4.02	3.88
Residence Halls	3.53	3.50	3.60	3.50
Career Planning	3.80	3.88	3.99	3.82
Student Employment	3.60	3.67	3.85	3.62 *

\* =  $p < .05$

\*\* =  $p < .01$

Furthermore, Table 23 showed that records from the Outcomes Survey (at graduation) for institutional factors indicated differences for Financial Services and Social Involvement between traditional and non-traditional students. Traditional students reported higher satisfaction with the social opportunities while non-traditional students preferred the Financial Services.

However, Table 23 revealed that when agriculture and non-agriculture students were compared, agriculture students rated only Student Employment Services significantly higher than their counterparts. Financial and Social Involvement was not significantly different for agriculture and non-agriculture students. As compared to Table 20, all other institutional factors did not exhibit significant differences, even though the agriculture students consistently reported higher satisfaction mean scores than non-agriculture students.

#### Reasons Given Most Often for Leaving

Mean scores related to reasons for withdrawal were reported for students that officially withdrew from the college. Ten of the 48 items were selected to be reported by the researcher as shown in Table 24. The higher the mean score represented the most often reason given for leaving. Three of the top five, out of 48, reported financial reasons as the most often given reason for departure. Ironically, students indicated high levels of satisfaction with the Financial Services at Eastern from the frequency data. Therefore, services were provided satisfactorily, yet the lack of planning, budgeting, or unforeseen financial situations had arisen and the students departed.

TABLE 24  
SUMMARY OF REASONS GIVEN FOR LEAVING

Reason	Mean	Rank
Conflict between job and college	1.60	1
Job acceptance/full-time	1.58	2
Health related	1.54	3
Unexpected expenses	1.51	4
Family responsibilities	1.51	4
Dissatisfied with Quality of Instruction	1.12	5
Financial aid inadequate	1.09	6
Academic Advising inadequate	1.08	7
Dissatisfied with social life	1.07	8
Impersonal attitudes of faculty and staff	1.05	9

Major reason = 3      Minor reason = 2      Not a reason = 1

Some authors such as Demos (1964), Green (1973), and Tinto (1987) have indicated that financial trouble was really not an issue, but was an “easy way out” and was the socially acceptable choice for departing. However, in a depressed economic or high unemployment geographical area, finances may truly be a legitimate reason for leaving.

Two of the top five choices that were listed that did not relate to finances were health related problems and family responsibilities. These two items are generally incongruent with institutional strategic planning and are very difficult to determine or control.

Some of the factors listed in this study such as Academic Advising, Quality of Instruction, Social Involvement, Attitudes Toward Students, etc. were ranked low as reasons for leaving college. Even though Cafeteria Services, Parking Facilities, and Residence Halls scored lowest by the students, these factors were not the primary reasons reported for departure. The concern we may have relating to financial reasons for departure could be one of the lack of financial planning by the individuals, not the services provided by the college. However, financial planning workshops for students may be merited for future consideration.

### Conclusions

1. Overall levels of satisfaction were nearly equal for academic factors between mid-second semester and graduation. Levels of satisfaction in institutional factors were slightly lower at graduation in most factors. All factors at most times rated satisfactory except Residence Halls, Cafeteria, and Parking, which were neutral. This indicated

students were satisfied with academic and institutional factors overall both at mid-second semester and graduation with very little variation in any factors. Most were satisfied with class size as indicated by ratings.

2. There were no significant differences between traditional and non-traditional students at either mid-second semester or graduation in academic factors and all rated satisfied. Three institutional factors (Orientation, Cafeteria Services, and Parking Facilities) were rated significantly higher by non-traditional students at mid-second semester. Two (Financial Aid Services-higher and Social Involvement-lower) were rated significantly different by non-traditional students at graduation. This indicated they agreed on a majority of the factors and were satisfied with all but Cafeteria Services.

3. Agriculture students rated all academic factors higher than non-agriculture students with four significantly higher at mid-second semester and two at graduation. They rated one institutional factor significantly lower at mid-second semester and one significantly higher at graduation than the non-agriculture students. This indicated agriculture students were more satisfied than non-agriculture students with all factors (except Financial Aid Services, Residence Halls, and Cafeteria Services at mid-second semester.)

4. Three of the top five reasons for withdrawal from school related to finances (or job), but all only rated as minor reasons. Identification of major reasons for withdrawal was not accomplished.

## Recommendations

1. It is recommended that current emphasis and support be continued for all academic and institutional factors, except Residence Halls, Cafeteria, and Parking Facilities, which need additional emphasis and support.
2. It is recommended additional emphasis and support be placed upon Orientation, Cafeteria, Parking Facilities, and Financial Aid Services for traditional students and on Social Involvement for non-traditional students.
3. It is recommended additional emphasis and support be placed on Financial Aid Services, Residence Halls, and Cafeteria Services during the first year for agriculture students.
4. More research is needed into why students withdrew, but current findings reinforce the need for additional emphasis and support in financial areas.
5. Specific recommendations include:
  - a. Enhance Student Employment opportunities, especially for the sophomore students.
  - b. Survey the students to consider modifications for Cafeteria Services and Parking Facilities.
  - c. Utilize training workshops for personnel in Residence Halls to assist with social integration, referrals and intervention.
  - d. Include a financial planning workshop for students within the Orientation program (within the first six weeks of school).

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**APPENDIX A**

**STUDENT OPINION SURVEY**





### SECTION II—COLLEGE IMPRESSIONS

Indicate your impressions of this 2-year college.

**A** INDICATE WHETHER EACH OF THE FOLLOWING WAS A MAJOR REASON, A MINOR REASON, OR NOT A REASON, THAT YOU SELECTED THIS PARTICULAR 2-YEAR COLLEGE

MAJOR REASON  
 MINOR REASON  
 NOT A REASON

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Convenient Location
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Offered the Courses I Wanted
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Low Cost of Attending
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Could Work While Attending
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Good Vocational or Academic Reputation
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Liked the Social Atmosphere
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Liked the Size of the College
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Good Chance of Personal Success
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Availability of Scholarship or Financial Aid
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Advice of Parents or Relatives
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Advice of High School Counselor, Teacher, Principal, etc.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Wanted to Be with Friends

**B** INDICATE YOUR RATING OF THIS 2-YEAR COLLEGE AT THE TIME YOU APPLIED FOR ADMISSION

It Was My First Choice  
 It Was My Second Choice  
 It Was My Third Choice  
 It Was My Fourth Choice or Lower

**C** IF YOU COULD START COLLEGE OVER, WOULD YOU CHOOSE TO ATTEND THIS COLLEGE?

Definitely Yes  
 Probably Yes  
 Uncertain  
 Probably No  
 Definitely No

**D** WHAT IS YOUR OVERALL IMPRESSION OF THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION AT THIS 2-YEAR COLLEGE?

Excellent  
 Good  
 Average  
 Below Average  
 Very Inadequate

### SECTION III—COLLEGE SERVICES

For each service (or program) listed below, indicate whether or not you have used the service, and if you have used the service, your level of satisfaction with the service. If a service is not offered at this 2-year college, mark "Not Available at This College" and leave Part B blank. If a service is offered but you have not used it, mark "I Have Not Used This Service" and also leave Part B blank. Indicate your level of satisfaction (Part B) only if you HAVE used the service.

PART A: USAGE			COMPLETE PART B ONLY IF YOU HAVE USED THE SERVICE	PART B: LEVEL OF SATISFACTION				
NOT AVAILABLE AT THIS COLLEGE	I HAVE NOT USED THIS SERVICE	I HAVE USED THIS SERVICE	COLLEGE SERVICE OR PROGRAM	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	NEUTRAL	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
0	0	0	1. Academic advising/course planning services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	2. Personal counseling services (for personal concerns and problems)	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	3. Vocational guidance/career planning services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	4. Job placement services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	5. Financial aid services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	6. Recreational and intramural programs and services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	7. Library/learning resources center facilities and services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	8. Resident hall programs and services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	9. Student health services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	10. College-sponsored tutorial services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	11. Student employment services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	12. Cafeteria/food services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	13. College-sponsored social activities	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	14. Cultural programs and activities	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	15. College orientation program	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	16. Credit by examination program (CLEP, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	17. Computer services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	18. Parking facilities and services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	19. Veterans services	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	20. Day care services	0	0	0	0	0

### SECTION IV—COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

Please blacken the oval indicating your level of satisfaction with each of the following aspects of this 2-year college. If any item is not applicable to you or to this college, fill

in the oval in the "Does Not Apply" column and proceed to the next item. Please respond to each item by choosing only one of the six alternatives.

		LEVEL OF SATISFACTION						
		DOES NOT APPLY	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	NEUTRAL	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED	
ACADEMIC	1. Testing/grading system	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	2. Course content in your major area of study	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	3. Quality of instruction in your major area of study	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	4. Out-of-class availability of your instructors	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	5. Attitude of the teaching staff toward students	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	6. Variety of courses offered at this 2-year college	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	7. Class size relative to the type of course	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	8. Flexibility to design your own program of study	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	9. Availability of your advisor	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	10. Value of the information provided by your advisor	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	11. Challenge offered by your program of study	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	12. Preparation you are receiving for your chosen occupation	0	0	0	0	0	0	
ADMISSIONS	13. General admissions/entry procedures	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	14. Accuracy of college information you received before enrolling	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	15. Availability of financial aid information prior to enrolling	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	16. Assistance provided by the college staff when you entered this college	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	17. College catalog/admissions publications	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	18. Rules governing student conduct at this college	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	19. Student voice in college policies	0	0	0	0	0	0	
RULES & POLICIES	20. Academic probation and suspension policies	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	21. Purposes for which student activity fees are used	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	22. Personal security/safety at this college	0	0	0	0	0	0	
FACILITIES	23. Classroom facilities	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	24. Industrial arts/shop facilities (woodworking, mechanical, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	25. Business-training facilities/equipment (computers, typewriters, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	26. Laboratory facilities	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	27. Athletic facilities	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	28. Study areas	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	29. Student community center/student union	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	30. College bookstore	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	31. Availability of adequate housing for students	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	32. General condition and appearance of the buildings and grounds	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	REGISTRATION	33. General registration procedures	0	0	0	0	0	0
		34. Availability of the courses you want at times you can take them	0	0	0	0	0	0
35. Academic calendar for this college (semester system, etc.)		0	0	0	0	0	0	
36. Billing and fee payment procedures		0	0	0	0	0	0	
GENERAL	37. Concern for you as an individual	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	38. Attitude of the college nonteaching staff toward students	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	39. Racial harmony at this college	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	40. Opportunities for student employment	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	41. Opportunities for personal involvement in college activities	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	42. Student government	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	43. College media (college newspapers, campus radio, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	44. This college in general	0	0	0	0	0	0	



**APPENDIX B**

**COLLEGE OUTCOMES SURVEY**





**SECTION II CONTINUED**

Your personal growth since entering this college can be attributed to many factors, some of which may NOT be related to your experiences at this college.

**PERSONAL GROWTH:** Indicate to the LEFT of each item the extent of your growth since entering this college (regardless of the extent of the contribution made by your experiences at this college).

**COLLEGE CONTRIBUTION:** Indicate to the RIGHT of each item the extent of the college's contribution (i.e., your college experiences both in and out of class) to your growth (regardless of the extent of your personal growth in a given area).

D	PERSONAL GROWTH						COLLEGE CONTRIBUTION					
	VERY MUCH	MUCH	MODERATE (Average)	LITTLE	NONE		NOT A GOAL OF MINE	VERY GREAT	GREAT	MODERATE (Average)	LITTLE	NONE
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1. Becoming an effective team or group member	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	2. Becoming more willing to consider opposing points of view	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	3. Interacting well with people from cultures other than my own.	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	4. Improving my ability to relate to others	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	5. Preparing to cope with changes as they occur (e.g., in career, relationships, lifestyle)	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	6. Developing leadership skills	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	7. Actively participating in volunteer work to support worthwhile causes	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	8. Learning to be adaptable, tolerant, and willing to negotiate	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	9. Seeking and conveying the spirit of truth	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	10. Becoming more aware of global and international issues/events	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	11. Preparing myself to participate effectively in the electoral process	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	12. Becoming more aware of local and national political and social issues	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	13. Gaining insight into human nature through the study of literature, history, and the arts	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	14. Recognizing my rights, responsibilities, and privileges as a citizen	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	15. Becoming sensitive to moral injustices and ways of avoiding or correcting them	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	16. Understanding religious values that differ from my own	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	17. Taking responsibility for my own behavior	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	18. Learning how to become a more responsible family member	0	0	0	0	0
							19. Clarifying my personal values	0	0	0	0	0
							20. Developing a sense of purpose, value, and meaning for my life	0	0	0	0	0
							21. Learning how to manage finances (personal, family, or business)	0	0	0	0	0
							22. Dealing fairly with a wide range of people	0	0	0	0	0
							23. Developing moral principles to guide my actions and decisions	0	0	0	0	0
							24. Acquiring appropriate social skills for use in various situations	0	0	0	0	0
							25. Becoming academically competent	0	0	0	0	0
							26. Developing productive work relationships with both men and women	0	0	0	0	0
							27. Increasing my intellectual curiosity	0	0	0	0	0
							28. Setting long-term or "life" goals	0	0	0	0	0
							29. Constructively expressing both emotions and ideas	0	0	0	0	0
							30. Understanding myself, my talents, and my interests	0	0	0	0	0
							31. Developing self-confidence	0	0	0	0	0
							32. Becoming more willing to change and learn new things	0	0	0	0	0
							33. Developing my religious values	0	0	0	0	0
							34. Improving my ability to stay with projects until they are finished	0	0	0	0	0
							35. Becoming a more effective member in a multi-cultural society	0	0	0	0	0
							36. Acquiring a well-rounded General Education	0	0	0	0	0





**APPENDIX C**

**WITHDRAWING/NONRETURNING**

**STUDENT SURVEY**



### SECTION III—REASONS FOR LEAVING THIS COLLEGE

Listed below are a number of reasons why a student might leave college. Please blacken the oval indicating whether each of the reasons listed was a major reason, a

minor reason, or not a reason that you decided to leave this college.

	MAJOR REASON	MINOR REASON	NOT A REASON
1	0	0	0
2	0	0	0
3	0	0	0
4	0	0	0
5	0	0	0
6	0	0	0
7	0	0	0
8	0	0	0
9	0	0	0
10	0	0	0
11	0	0	0
12	0	0	0
13	0	0	0
14	0	0	0
15	0	0	0
16	0	0	0
17	0	0	0
18	0	0	0
19	0	0	0
20	0	0	0
21	0	0	0
22	0	0	0
23	0	0	0
24	0	0	0
25	0	0	0
26	0	0	0

	MAJOR REASON	MINOR REASON	NOT A REASON
27	0	0	0
28	0	0	0
29	0	0	0
30	0	0	0
31	0	0	0
32	0	0	0
33	0	0	0
34	0	0	0
35	0	0	0
36	0	0	0
37	0	0	0
38	0	0	0
39	0	0	0
40	0	0	0
41	0	0	0
42	0	0	0
43	0	0	0
44	0	0	0
45	0	0	0
46	0	0	0
47	0	0	0
48	0	0	0

Please reexamine your major reasons for leaving this college, and indicate the single most important reason by completely blackening the circle containing the number of that reason. For example, if your most important reason for leaving college was "19 Wanted to travel," you would blacken the circle containing the number "19" as illustrated below. (Blacken only one circle.)

19	0	0	0
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**APPENDIX D**

**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD**

**APPROVAL FORM**

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD  
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 06-30-97

IRB#: AG-97-028

Proposal Title: ASSESS STUDENT ATTITUDES ON RETENTION ASPECTS FOR EASTERN  
OKLAHOMA STATE COLLEGE

Principal Investigator(s): James P. Key, Randy Harp

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT  
NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE  
APPROVAL PERIOD.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR  
PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE  
SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

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**Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:**

It appears that neither names or social security numbers will be given to the researchers. Further, the researchers state that the survey data are extant data and released in a "mini-aggregate" form lacking specific identifiers. Therefore, this application is exempt.

Signature: 

Chair of Institutional Review Board  
cc: Randy Harp

Date: June 30, 1997

VITA

Randal M. Harp

Candidate for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

**Thesis:** STUDENT SATISFACTION WITH SELECTED ACADEMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS AT EASTERN OKLAHOMA STATE COLLEGE 1995-1998

**Biographical:**

**Personal Data:** Born September 12, 1954, the son of Ramon and Audrey Harp.

**Education:** Graduated from Jay High School, Jay, Oklahoma in May, 1972; received Bachelor of Science degree from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in 1976; received Master of Science degree from New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico in 1979; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 1998.

**Professional Experience:** American Meat Science Association; Institute of Food Technologists; Council for Agriculture Science and Technology; American Society of Animal Science; Okla-Texas Meat Processors Association; Alpha Zeta Alumni; 4-H Key Club Alumni; Co-Chairman, Faculty Advisory Committee to the Chancellor of Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education (Charter Member); President, Wilburton Lions Club; President, American Meat Science Association/Coaches Association; Chairperson, Faculty Council Executive Committee; Coached National Champion Meat Evaluation Teams; Aggie Club Sponsor; Chairman, General Education and Programs Committee.