



North Carolina State University

P. O. Box 5067, Raleigh, N. C. 27650

Office of the Provost
and Vice-Chancellor

February 10, 1984

MEMORANDUM TO: Minority Coordinators
Associate Deans
Department Heads
Faculty

FROM: Dr. Larry Clark *Larry*
Associate Provost

SUBJECT: Dr. William Sedlacek's Presentation

Dr. William Sedlacek, Director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland, will be visiting on campus on February 16 and 17 to discuss minority retention. He will address the topic "Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising" at two different times. The sessions are open to all faculty and staff. I hope that the Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads will be able to attend the session designed specifically for their respective schools. However, if there are scheduling conflicts, please attend the alternate session.

The presentations will be held in the Brown Room of the University Student Center. The schedule is as follows:

Thursday, February 16

3:15 - 4:45 p.m. - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads from the Schools of Agriculture and Life Sciences, Engineering, and Physical and Mathematical Sciences.

Friday, February 17

10:30 - 12:00 Noon - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Design, Education, Forest Resources, Textiles, Humanities and Social Sciences and Veterinary Medicine.

LC/ci

NON-COGNITIVE VARIABLES

- I. POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT OR CONFIDENCE. Strong self-feeling, strength of character. Determination, independence.
- II. REALISTIC SELF-APPRAISAL, especially academic. Recognizes and accepts any deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need to broaden his/her individuality.
- III. UNDERSTANDS AND DEALS WITH RACISM. Realist based upon personal experience of racism. Is committed to fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, nor hostile to society, nor a "cop-out." Able to handle racist system. Asserts school role to fight racism.
- IV. PREFERS LONG-RANGE GOALS TO SHORT-TERM OR IMMEDIATE NEEDS. Able to respond to deferred gratification.
- V. AVAILABILITY OF STRONG SUPPORT PERSON to whom to turn in crises.
- VI. SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE in any area pertinent to his/her background (gang leader, sports, etc.)
- VII. DEMONSTRATED COMMUNITY SERVICE. Has involvement in his/her cultural community.
- VIII. KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRED IN A FIELD. Unusual and/or culturally related ways of obtaining information and demonstrating knowledge. Field itself may be non-traditional.

NON-COGNITIVE MINORITY ADMISSIONS VARIABLES

William E. Sedlacek

- I. POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT OR CONFIDENCE. Strong self-feeling, strength of character. Determination, independence.
- II. REALISTIC SELF-APPRAISAL, especially academic. Recognizes and accepts any deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need to broaden his/her individuality.
- III. UNDERSTANDS AND DEALS WITH RACISM. Realist based upon personal experience of racism. Is committed to fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, nor hostile to society, nor a "cop-out." Able to handle racist system. Asserts school role to fight racism.
- IV. PREFERS LONG-RANGE GOALS TO SHORT-TERM OR IMMEDIATE NEEDS. Able to respond to deferred gratification.
- V. AVAILABILITY OF STRONG SUPPORT PERSON to whom to turn in crises.
- VI. SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE in any area pertinent to his/her background (gang leader, sports, etc.)
- VII. DEMONSTRATED COMMUNITY SERVICE. Has involvement in his/her cultural community.
- VIII. KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRED IN A FIELD. Unusual and/or culturally related ways of obtaining information and demonstrating knowledge. Field itself may be non-traditional.

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COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND 20742

MINORITY ADMISSIONS VARIABLES/QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

William E. Sedlacek

- I. Positive Self-Concept or Confidence
Items 1, 2, 15, 17
- II. Realistic Self-Appraisal
Items 2, 7, 16
- III. Understands and Deals with Racism
Items 3, 6, 13
- IV. Prefers Long-Range Goals to Short-Term or Immediate Needs
Items 4, 8, 14
- V. Availability of Strong Support Person
Items 10, 18
- VI. Successful Leadership Experience
Items 5, 9, 12, 19
- VII. Demonstrated Community Service
Items 5, 11, 19
- VIII. Knowledge Acquired in a Field
Items 4, 5, 19

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University of Maryland, College Park 20742

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In the Field

Reports of programs,
practices, or techniques

Racism and Research: Using Data to Initiate Change

WILLIAM E. SEDLACEK
GLENWOOD C. BROOKS, JR.

Does research make a difference? This question has long puzzled administrators, faculty, students, and personnel workers in higher education. Many researchers also have struggled with the issue but, as with many things, few if any satisfactory answers have emerged. Determining outcomes of any educational activity is a difficult and complicated process, but counseling and student personnel functions have been particularly hard to assess in this period of tight budgets and accountability. "Students are here to study academic subjects and not to have their hands held by a bunch of do-gooders," goes one argument. As higher education is being asked to defend and justify itself by many components of society, the unresolved dilemma of the **role of research** is growing more acute.

Undoubtedly, research has sometimes had a direct and relatively immediate effect. At other times differences may appear, but much later in time and unbeknownst to the researcher. As journals are published, reports circulated, and pre-

sentations given, researchers are seldom provided with any direct feedback on how data have influenced the policies, practices, or even research of others.

But these uses of data are *passive* and require that action or reaction be initiated by others in pursuing the outcomes of the research. This article deals with the *active* use of data to initiate change or to influence others. The Cultural Study Center was begun at the University of Maryland—College Park in 1969 for the purpose of conducting intercultural and race-related research aimed at changing the education system and the larger society. The Center has generated many studies, but Center staff must continually ask the question: Have we changed anything?

While change can take many forms, we were particularly concerned with reducing and eliminating institutional racism, which in this context means action taken by a social system or institution that results in negative outcomes for members of a certain group or groups (Sedlacek & Brooks in press [b]). The definition is behavioral: results, not intentions, are important. This article deals with two fairly clear-cut examples of change resulting directly from research data. Admittedly, it is difficult to determine if the

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outcomes would have been the same without the research, since there was no control condition or group. However, the circumstances provide rather direct evidence of the role of research in eliminating racism.

EXAMPLE 1: ADMISSIONS POLICIES

The University of Maryland for some years had employed minimum entrance requirements for instate students: a C average and graduation from high school. Students were required to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), but scores were used for placement rather than selection. Faced with increased enrollment applications and a lack of expansion of facilities and services, the Board of Regents passed a policy that would incorporate the SAT and high school grade point average in a single regression equation for all entering freshmen regardless of race or sex, using end-of-year freshman grades as a criterion. The equation was developed by another research office on campus and was competently done as far as it went. This other office, however, had neglected to consider any race or sex subgroup differences such as bias in the predictors, differential weights for subgroups in the regression coefficients, or alternative predictors for subgroups. The Cultural Study Center had conducted research on these topics, and this research was provided to the Board of Regents and the central administration. This use of the data was passive, however, as it required a synthesis and reaction by the decision makers. Even though we felt that the Center data strongly indicated that an overall regression equation would be inappropriate and unfair to blacks, the decision had been made otherwise.

It seemed that we had a classic example of institutional racism in the revised admissions policy. The key results from our studies had indicated several things.

First, there existed sampling and measurement problems, such as studying only those blacks available rather than all possible black applicants; studying only those blacks who stayed in school a full year; or restricting the range of scores. There is evidence that these issues differentially affect the prediction of black students' performance compared to that of white students (Sedlacek in press). Second, black students often require a longer period to adjust to a primarily white university, and therefore criteria beyond the freshman year should be employed. Third, attrition rates for blacks were comparable to those for whites using the previously employed admissions policies, indicating the viability of those policies for selection purposes (DiCesare, Sedlacek & Brooks 1972). Fourth, optimal regression weights vary considerably for race and sex subgroups of students. For instance, high school grades are a consistently poor predictor for black males. Also, white females tend to determine the weights in an overall equation, since they are more predictable than any other subgroup (Pfeifer & Sedlacek 1971). Fifth, universities around the country that relied heavily on standardized achievement tests were enrolling relatively few blacks (Sedlacek, Brooks & Mindus 1973). We also provided local data indicating that the proportion of blacks selected would decrease under the new system. Sixth, a number of alternative predictors have been identified and validated for blacks in general as well as those in special programs. These have been empirically determined but reflect variables such as being independent, being self-assured, being realistic about racism they will face, being able to handle difficult adjustments, and responding positively to external control (Sedlacek & Brooks in press [a]).

Armed with these data, we embarked on an active course. We worked with many individuals, groups, and coalitions

to convince them of the soundness of our data and position. These groups included, among others, central administrators, black faculty and staff, admissions staff, black students, white students, a coalition group of students, and interested faculty and staff. We strategically employed all the roles we could to pull together these elements around our position. Many of those disagreeing with the announced policy shared our concern but could offer no logical, pragmatic alternatives.

Possession of the kinds of research data cited above enabled us to assume a strong position in suggesting practical solutions to the dilemma. Ultimately, through developing power bases in those groups and playing the Teddy Roosevelt role of "speak softly and carry a big stick," one of us was appointed to a committee of faculty and administrators formed to advise the central administration. Through the report of this committee, the central administration recommended that the Board of Regents reverse its decision, which it did. The decision was that freshmen could be admitted by an overall regression equation including SAT or another equation using high school grade point average and class rank only. Additionally, 104 students would be selected for the next fall semester using the alternative predictors we had developed in our research.

While the decision was not ideal from our perspective, it was a practical alternative that led the institution to alter its position and work against institutional racism. It was probably only one battle in a larger war, but we felt we were able to demonstrate the active and practical use of data to promote change.

EXAMPLE 2: CURRICULAR CHANGE

Adding or changing courses in a curriculum is one of the more laborious and difficult processes in higher education.

Despite great breast-beating and ballyhoo, the courses available for training counselors, personnel workers, and other educators have changed little in the last decade. This is particularly true in the racial area. Courses on teaching or counseling blacks or minorities are beginning to enter curriculums, but this is at best only half the problem. Most whites have little, if any, exposure or contact with their own racism and prejudice, whether institutional or individual.

The futility of realistically altering the behavior of any white personnel worker toward black students without dealing with white racism seemed apparent. There existed no course at the University of Maryland likely to be taken by personnel workers that dealt even superficially with the topic of racism.

Some readers may doubt the usefulness of a course in eliminating racism. It is true that the ultimate answer is whether people who take the course *do something differently* as a result. We felt that emphasizing the principles discussed in this article and focusing on change agent behaviors in class were practical ways to fight racism.

The staff of the Cultural Study Center set about developing and trying out curriculum materials through seminars, workshops, and experimental courses. After acquiring experience in this area, Center staff and interested faculty approached an academic administrator regarding the initiation of a course on racism for educators. The administrator refused to consider the course, even on a special topics basis taught by one of his own faculty, who was also a member of the Cultural Study Center staff. His stated reasons for opposition primarily centered around skepticism about the viability of racism, particularly racism in education, as a legitimate academic topic. He considered racism as left-wing, "pop" sociology and asked, "What good would it do to tell people they are racist

for sixteen weeks?" Additionally, he professed doubt that there was any racism in the education system worth discussing. We had asked ourselves similar questions some years earlier and had set about answering them through research.

We had hoped to locate a suitable paper-and-pencil measure of the attitudes of whites toward blacks and simply use it on campus. However, three primary problems were found with existing scales: Item content was not contemporary, validity evidence was not provided, and no provision was made for a social set to appear tolerant toward blacks. In order to avoid or reduce these problems, we developed our own scale. The Situational Attitude Scale (SAS) contains 10 personal or social situations that have some relevance to a racial response. For each situation, 10 bipolar semantic differential scales were written. Two forms of the SAS were developed, identical in every respect except that the word *black* was inserted into each situation in form B. Thus, if randomly assigned groups respond differently to form B and form A, the differences could be attributed to the word *black* (Sedlacek & Brooks 1972).

The SAS has been used in studies on and off campus numerous times, with the following results:

- White students at all levels in the university have generally negative attitudes toward blacks.
- There is a difference between what white students feel are socially acceptable attitudes toward blacks and how they themselves actually feel toward blacks.
- Negative racial attitudes exist in a similar pattern among incoming white freshmen, practicing white educators, and graduates of the university's college of education.
- Negative racial attitudes are correlated with authoritarianism and dogmatism among students.

- White females are particularly negative about physical or sexual contact with blacks.

- White attitudes toward blacks in the U.S. appear similar to white attitudes toward "Negroes" and white attitudes toward minority groups in other countries.

The above data, along with the curricular materials, more than adequately supported the point that racism exists, that it is measurable and operational, and that it takes many complex forms, including some that are peculiar to education and educators. Working with a group of interested graduate students and faculty, we eliminated several barriers to the course's adoption and presented it in such a way as to make it of self-evident value to the university. As of this writing, the course, called Education and Racism, is being offered; and further work is being done to make it a required course.

It should be added that many studies other than those reported here were used in generating the change. Interested readers may obtain an annotated bibliography from the authors.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CHANGE AGENTS

The two examples cited here are briefly stated and involved many complexities and problems not summarized. But they do affirm that it is possible for research to make a difference on contemporary and controversial issues. Whether gains outweigh losses and whether the results are generalizable are hard to determine. However, several overall conclusions seem warranted.

First, the context in which the data are used is critical. In both of these situations the persons pushing for the change were able to organize and alter the components in the environment so the data could be used. A research staff that did not have routine involvement in many segments of the campus or community

would likely find it much more difficult to bring about change. Sophistication and knowledge about the system one is trying to change seem mandatory.

Second, the size of the unit pushing for change does not appear to be critical; the Cultural Study Center has limited funds and only one full-time researcher. Additionally, the Center is located in the Division of Student Affairs, which is not in a very powerful position to produce changes in academic affairs areas. Despite this fact, both examples involved change outside student affairs: one in the central administration and the other in an academic unit. Thus, a change mechanism with little formal power can acquire what it needs through informal means. As a matter of fact, an important part of the course Education and Racism deals with developing and using power to effect change.

Third, it is important that a uniqueness and expertise be developed such that the research provides the most crucial and irreplaceable resource available. Developing power by becoming the only viable information source on a topic is critical.

Fourth, power should not be used directly if it can be avoided. The more it can be made to appear that the change was brought about by the institution itself or the individuals within it, the more likely the chances of success. The "big stick" will have to be used every once in a while, but an eye should be kept on the goal—change—rather than on the method—the exercise of power and influence through research. Hence this article is a risky one, and we thought a great deal before writing it. We are taking the risk that in informing interested colleagues around the country of some of our methods and results, we may be making some local issues more difficult to change.

The last point we wish to make is that selected goals should be accomplishable. Fighting the good fight, losing, and feel-

ing good about it is detrimental to change in the long run. The wrong result is positively reinforced. Results, not intentions, are the mark of success. High expectations for realistic change is the desired philosophy.

We hope these comments will influence readers to think about using data to generate change. Ultimately it will take efforts by many individual researchers, counselors, and personnel workers to radically alter institutional racism in the education system and the larger society. While a change agent role is beginning to be discussed in many quarters as a viable, perhaps prototypical model for student personnel workers and counselors, this article provides operational evidence that such a role is possible and practical. ■

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NON-COGNITIVE MINORITY ADMISSIONS VARIABLES

William E. Sedlacek

- I. POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT OR CONFIDENCE. Strong self-feeling, strength of character. Determination, independence.
- II. REALISTIC SELF-APPRAISAL, especially academic. Recognizes and accepts any deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need to broaden his/her individuality.
- III. UNDERSTANDS AND DEALS WITH RACISM. Realist based upon personal experience of racism. Is committed to fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, nor hostile to society, nor a "cop-out." Able to handle racist system. Asserts school role to fight racism.
- IV. PREFERS LONG-RANGE GOALS TO SHORT-TERM OR IMMEDIATE NEEDS. Able to respond to deferred gratification.
- V. AVAILABILITY OF STRONG SUPPORT PERSON to whom to turn in crises.
- VI. SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE in any area pertinent to his/her background (gang leader, sports, etc.)
- VII. DEMONSTRATED COMMUNITY SERVICE. Has involvement in his/her cultural community.
- VIII. KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRED IN A FIELD. Unusual and/or culturally related ways of obtaining information and demonstrating knowledge. Field itself may be non-traditional.

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MINORITY ADMISSIONS VARIABLES/QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

William E. Sedlacek

I. Positive Self-Concept or Confidence

Items 1, 2, 15, 17

II. Realistic Self-Appraisal

Items 2, 7, 16

III. Understands and Deals with Racism

Items 3, 6, 13

IV. Prefers Long-Range Goals to Short-Term or Immediate Needs

Items 4, 8, 14

V. Availability of Strong Support Person

Items 10, 18

VI. Successful Leadership Experience

Items 5, 9, 12, 19

VII. Demonstrated Community Service

Items 5, 11, 19

VIII. Knowledge Acquired in a Field

Items 4, 5, 19

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This article is an excerpt from Brown, S.E. and Marengo, E., Jr., Law School Admissions Study. San Francisco: Mexican-American Legal Defense and Educational Fund, 1980.

ALTERNATIVE ADMISSIONS MODELS

There is no argument against the logic that Blacks and whites who seek to master the same professional discipline must each develop the same body of skills and understandings. What is argued is that the disposition to learn them (aptitude) may be measured differentially with respect to group membership, and this should be considered in selection.

Open affirmative action programs have no need to apologize for using tests as only one part of a selection process. In order to develop a program of fair selection, the weaknesses of employing a purely psychometric basis for selection must be recognized and dealt with squarely. No apologies need be made for including relevant dimensions in the selection process.

Selection instruments need not be discarded, because they are found wanting. The same argument presented here in assessing tests could be repeated for any arbitrary procedure based on comparing an individual to group performances. *The solutions are not psychometric; they are social policy decisions, but they can be made more difficult by psychometric misunderstandings.* [emphasis added] Psychometricians can give us useful tools, but they must not be misused. This does not absolve test constructors of responsibility. They should be spending as much time and money assisting selectors for schools and employment in using other predictors as they do in developing tests. In fairness to all, affirmative action has the potential to enrich our society with the contributions to many areas which have too long stood dry from healthy infusion of a diverse racial and sexual populace.

From Johnson, *The Measurement Mystique*, pp. 47-48.

INTRODUCTION

The alternative law school admissions criteria which follow focus on a deemphasis of the LSAT as an evaluator of law school potential with an accompanying emphasis on other factors which have been shown to be indicative of success in

legal studies, as well as constitutionally permissible. The advocated models recognize the unique character of each law school and should be evaluated and implemented as appropriate in each individual institution while also satisfying the constitutionally permissible and morally compelling goal of increasing access for minority law students.¹

1. In *Bakke* Justice Powell stated: "No such facial infirmity [intent to discriminate] exists in an admissions program where race or ethnic background is simply one element—to be weighed fairly against other elements in the selection process. . . . And a court would not assume that a university, professing to employ a facially nondiscriminatory admissions policy, would operate it as a cover for the functional equivalent of a quota system. In short, good faith would be presumed in the absence of a showing to the contrary." *The Regents of the Univ. of Cal. v. Bakke*, 438 U.S. 265, 318-319 (1978).

HEW issued the following interpretation of the effect of the *Bakke* decision on Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In essence, HEW's interpretation encourages educational institutions "to continue and expand voluntary affirmative action programs to increase their enrollment of minority group members. . . ." Although the interpretation notes that institutions may not set aside a fixed number of places for

Moreover, the following models are not mutually exclusive one from the other, but rather may be combined and tailored to the stated institutional objectives of each school. As discussed in Section III, *supra*, the alternative criteria are structured around the pedagogically sound premise that standardized tests, in general, and the LSAT, in particular, measure only one set of cognitive skills out of the many that are necessary to become a competent attorney.² As the Carnegie Council of Policy Studies in Higher Education stated:

Grades and tests looked at together are more predictive of subsequent academic performance than grades alone or tests alone. More generally, Torsten Husen (1976) has noted that: "Extensive empirical research tells us that at most half of individual differences in educational attainments are attributable to purely intellectual fac-

tors. The rest may be attributed to motivation, interest, perseverance, health, and, of course, home background." . . . Some of these other factors, however, have proven difficult to assess prior to admission. These other factors also, of course, affect earlier grades and entrance test scores.³

For minority students it is questionable whether a combination of tests and grades is more predictive than grades alone.⁴ Irrespective, minority test scores cannot be divorced from the economic and cultural background of the examinee.

The following alternative criteria are also presented within a sociological context which acknowledges the necessity of a critical mass of minority students in a given institution not only to approach population parity but to guarantee the optimal performance of minority candidates.⁵ For example, studies conducted on

minority students absent a judicial, legislative, or administrative finding of past discrimination, the guidelines expressly permit, "consideration of race, color, or national origin among the factors evaluated in selecting students; increased recruitment in minority institutions and communities; use of alternative admissions criteria when traditional criteria are found to be inadequately predictive of minority student success; [emphasis added] provision of preadmission compensatory and tutorial programs; and the establishment and pursuit of numerical goals to achieve the racial and ethnic composition of the student body the institution seeks." [emphasis added]

The guidelines further state that, in addition to these techniques, "institutions may use their authority to broaden admissions criteria generally to evaluate better the qualifications of minority applicants . . . by giving increased consideration to an applicant's character, motivation, ability to overcome economic and educational disadvantage, work experience, and other factors." HEW, "Nondiscrimination Policy Interpretation," pp. 58509-58511.

2. Fuller and McNamara state: "Leona Tyler's (1978) review of research and philosophy on individual psychological differences provides a broad view of human skills related to, yet distinct from competence in processing information. For example, 'field-dependent' individuals, who may be less able to reduce a problem to its component parts, may be more competent to work in small groups rather than alone. Evidence also indicates that those most proficient at solving problems with one 'right' answer, for example, questions on standardized tests, may be less able to think divergently, creatively hypothesizing alternative approaches to a problem (Frederiksen, 1978). In the rush to rank applicants by their competence at processing information, other individual differences that could nurture greater diversity among students within professions are ignored." Bruce Fuller and Patricia P. McNamara, "Defining and Assessing Disadvantage," *Admitting and Assisting Students After Bakke*, ed. Bruce Fuller and Kenneth C. Green (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978), p. 68.

See also University of California Task Force Report, September 1977, p. 40.

3. "Public Policy and Academic Policy," *Selective Admissions in Higher Education*, p. 10 & n. 5.
4. Astin, "Quantifying Disadvantage," p. 75.
5. Eve Spangler, Marsha A. Gordon, and Ronald M. Pipkin, *Token Women: An Empirical Test of Kanter's Hypothesis, Law Student Activity Patterns* Project of the American Bar Foundation (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1978); reprinted from *The American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 84, no. 1 (July 1978), pp. 160-170.

women in law school indicate that women law students when enrolled in proportionally small numbers within a predominantly male student body either overachieve or settle for very mediocre academic performance. The same studies, however, demonstrate that women tend to distribute themselves evenly along the range of academic performance with other students when enrolled in more than token numbers.⁶ Thus, it is suggested that for minority law students to reach their true potential in legal studies, their numbers must allay possible feelings of isolation and alienation.⁷

With these considerations in mind, the following alternative criteria are offered to law school deans, professors, admissions officers, students, and shapers of public policy for their serious consideration. It must be reiterated that the following admissions models, just as every existing admissions model now in use in law schools, contain an implicit or explicit policy decision. Since the LSAT is not a perfect instrument for selection, law schools consider a variety of other criteria. Thus, admissions decisions are currently made not only on the basis of minute yet seemingly significant differences in predicted first-year law grades, but also on a consideration of a diverse set of noncognitive characteristics.⁸ Our models seek to effectuate a policy of greater diversity and

integration within the legal profession by suggesting other indices for selection apart from GPA and LSAT.⁹

Although our models are not necessarily predictive of first-year success in law school in the same way as traditional admissions indices, they assist in a more complete assessment of law school candidates. By definition, the advocated models are not finished admissions procedures that can be used without further testing and subsequent revision. Rather, our models are specific, concrete approaches, with directions for implementation, that law schools will need to review closely and test before the models can be fully adopted:

A. CULTURAL DIVERSITY MODEL

RATIONALE OF THE DIVERSITY MODEL

The cultural diversity model directly responds to and satisfies the constitutional import of *Bakke*. As Justice Powell observed:

Thus, in arguing that its universities must be accorded the right to select those students who will contribute the most to the "robust exchange of ideas," petitioner invokes a countervailing constitutional interest, that of the first amendment. In this light, petitioner must be viewed

6. *Ibid.*

7. Green and McNamara observe: "The rarity of minority students and faculty members on a campus, let alone within a department or professional school, contributes to this feeling of alienation and isolation experienced by minority students. Says one black law student, 'You do feel isolated because there are so few black students. And I guess you become somewhat angered because you know that there are more qualified black students out there who could just as well be here.'" Kenneth C. Green and Patricia P. McNamara, "The Student Experience," *Admitting and Assisting Students After Bakke*, ed. Bruce Fuller and Kenneth C. Green (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978), p. 32.

8. See Section IV, *supra*, for an analysis of MALDEF's survey instrument distributed to all ABA-approved law schools in California.

9. In advocating alternative criteria, MALDEF recognizes that some of the suggested alternatives would require a greater financial and time commitment on the part of law school admissions officers, committees, faculties, and deans than exists presently. Notwithstanding, one can legitimately ponder why the medical schools have been willing to make that additional commitment toward an individualized selection process when many law schools have not.

as seeking to achieve a goal that is of paramount importance in the fulfillment of its mission.¹⁰

Not only is diversity a compelling constitutional interest, but the diversity formula set forth in this model capitalizes on the established admissions procedures and student composition of each law school, thereby according utmost deference to traditional university autonomy while satisfying first amendment rights.

Further, the cultural diversity model recognizes and resolves the perplexing fact that diversity, in the sense of meaningful racial and ethnic diversity, will not exist in the absence of admissions models which expand from the traditional cognitive criteria of GPA and LSAT. Franklin Evans of the Educational Testing Service documented that:

If the nation's law schools were to adopt an admissions policy taking no account of minority backgrounds of blacks and Chicanos, a majority of the students from those groups now admitted and enrolled would be excluded. . . . If numerical predictors were employed exclusively for all applicants, the resulting reductions would be 76 to 78% for blacks and 45 to 48% for Chicanos.¹¹

Yet there is no statistical, constitutional, or moral reason to limit admissions criteria to strictly numerical indices. On the

contrary, the studies cited in Section III, *supra*, indicate that cognitive scores are likely to be misused against all applicants if isolated from other relevant candidate data.

This diversity model provides other relevant factors for applicant evaluation. It has the important feature of adjusting the weight accorded to an applicant's cultural diversity on the basis of the racial/ethnic enrollment in that particular institution. Applicants who are underrepresented will automatically receive more weight on the cultural diversity part of the formula than will candidates who are already well represented at the law school. Thus, the "robust exchange of ideas" which Justice Powell found compelling will be achieved without quotas and within the framework of a formula which is relatively simple and administratively feasible. Moreover, this model, by virtue of its noncognitive component, encompasses diversity characteristics apart from race and ethnicity.

DESCRIPTION

The purpose of this model is to provide a systematic procedure focusing on noncognitive admissions characteristics which research demonstrates may be useful in evaluating candidates for graduate and professional schools.¹² Although the

10. *The Regents of the Univ. of Cal. v. Bakke*, 438 U.S. 265, 313 (1978).

11. Evans, "Applications and Admissions to ABA Accredited Law Schools," pp. 566-567. See also Section III, *supra*.

12. The above model was developed by Dr. William E. Sedlacek. Dr. Sedlacek is one of the leading researchers in the formulation of noncognitive variables which have been shown to be indicative of minority success in higher education. His work includes: C. M. Pfeifer, Jr. and W. E. Sedlacek, "Nonintellectual Correlates of Black and White Students' Grades at the University of Maryland," *Cultural Study Center Research Report #3-70* (College Park, Maryland: University of Maryland, 1970); C. M. Pfeifer, Jr. and W. E. Sedlacek, "Predicting Black Student Grades With Nonintellectual Measures," 43 *J. Negro Educ.* 67-76 (1974); C. M. Pfeifer, Jr. and W. E. Sedlacek, "The Validity of Academic Predictors for Black and White Students at a Predominantly White University," 8 *J. Educ. Measurement* 253-261 (1971); and D. O. Prieto, P. G. Bashook, A. G. D. Costa, P. R. Elliott, R. K. Jarecky, B. Kahrahrhah, W. F. Leavell, and W. E. Sedlacek, *Simulated Minority Admissions Exercise Workbook* (Washington, D.C.: Association of American Medical Colleges, 1978), pp. 1-33.

Other researchers whose work supports that of Dr. Sedlacek are: A. R. Baggaley, "Academic Prediction at an Ivy League College, Moderated by Demographic Variables," *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance*, 6 (1974): 232-235; F. H. Borgen, "Able Black Americans in College: Entry and Freshman Experiences," *Merit Scholarship Corporation Research Reports*, 6, no. 2 (1970); R. D. Goldman, "Hidden

characteristics are particularly relevant to minority candidates, they can be used as criteria to gain additional information on all applicants.¹³

The elements of our cultural diversity model are expressed by the following formula:

$$[\text{NC (nongcognitive) score} + \text{C (cognitive) score}] \times \text{CD (cultural diversity) score} = \text{AS (applicant score)}^{14}$$

This formula describes a procedure for law student selection which gives weight to cultural diversity based on the existing racial/ethnic composition of a particular law school and, hence, increases the chance of minority student selection. Moreover, the criteria are keyed to the philosophy that excellence in education is promoted when a critical number of individuals with varying characteristics are recruited for professional school preparation.¹⁵

As designed, the cultural diversity formula may be implemented in one of two ways. Pursuant to a unitary admissions approach, the formula may be applied to every law school applicant to a particular institution. In the alternative, a predetermined percentage of students may be admitted under the existing criteria of a law school with the remaining applicants being evaluated on the basis of the nongcognitive and diversity factors which follow.

Dr. William E. Sedlacek, developer of the model, suggests that, for administrative reasons, 50 percent of law applicants to a particular school be admitted under the school's established criteria. This percentage, of course, could be adjusted by any school, in keeping with the HEW guidelines on Title VI, according to its own numerical targets and/or prior experience in minority enrollment.¹⁶ If 50

Opportunities in the Prediction of College Grades for Different Subgroups," 10J. Educ. Measurement 205-210 (1973); F. Perry, Jr., "Selected Variables Related to Academic Success of Black Freshman Students at the University of Missouri—Columbia," (Ph.D. diss., University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, 1972); and G. Temp, "Validity of the SAT for Blacks and Whites in Thirteen Integrated Institutions," 8J. Educ. Measurement 245-251 (1971).

13. The theoretical framework underlying the use of nongcognitive variables in admissions decisions is based on research which indicates that the GPA and LSAT are incomplete instruments on which to make a full evaluation of a candidate, especially a nontraditional applicant. See Section III, Part B, footnotes 7-12, *supra*.

Moreover, studies support the proposition that if traditional predictors are used, there must be separate equations or cutoffs for each subgroup to achieve optimum validity. Other studies supporting the differential regression equations for race/sex subgroups include: A. S. Farver, W. E. Sedlacek, and G. C. Brooks, Jr., "Longitudinal Predictions of University Grades for Blacks and Whites," *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance*, 7 (1974): 243-250.

14. As used in this formula, the symbols connote the following: NC represents the nongcognitive score, C represents the cognitive score (GPA and LSAT) with CD representing the cultural diversity score. AS denotes the total applicant score on the basis of which offers are made.

15. "As noted in Justice Powell's opinion in *Bakke v. University of California* [sic], "... we do not compel the University to utilize only "the highest objective academic credentials" as the criterion for admission." Institutions do in fact select students at least in part on a variety of other grounds. For example, institutions routinely consider nonacademic characteristics in order to:

- select students likely to exhibit outstanding performance on criteria other than traditional grades (e.g., leadership, scientific creativity, artistic achievement)
- select students who are more likely to persist to a degree
- achieve reasonable representation of important demographic groups (e.g., sex, race) . . .
- select students who are related to important sources of support to the institution (e.g., relatives of alumni, faculty, or benefactors)"

Hunter M. Breland and Warren W. Willingham, "Personal Qualities in Admissions," mimeographed, a cooperative research and development project between the College Board and the Educational Testing Service (Princeton, N.J., December 1978), pp. 5-6.

16. See Section V, *supra*, for the HEW "Nondiscrimination Policy Interpretation," governing the interpretation of Title VI in light of *Bakke*.

percent were admitted traditionally, then the remaining 50 percent would be chosen based on the above formula which seeks to foster true diversity in entering law classes. Although the cultural diversity and noncognitive components of the formula may be adjusted by different schools based on their test-pilots of the model, the essential procedure for implementation is as follows:

IMPLEMENTATION PROCEDURE

1. Select 50 percent of the entering class using traditional methods (GPA, LSAT, letters of recommendation, etc.). In the alternative, omit this step and evaluate all applicants as detailed in steps 2 through 5.

2. Develop a composite score for all applicants, or the remaining 50 percent, on the following eight noncognitive variables. These variables are scored on a scale of 1, 2, or 3 points, with 3 being the highest. Data to achieve scores may be obtained from letters of recommendation, personal statements, interviews, etc. They are variables which admissions personnel and committees must scan for, since they could be contained anywhere in the applicant's record. All are supported with research as to their utility, particularly for racial/ethnic groups, but for whites as well.¹⁷

- a. Noncognitive variables:
 1. Self-concept.
 2. Realistic self-appraisal.
 3. Understanding racism.
 4. Long-range goals.
 5. Availability of a strong support person.
 6. Leadership.
 7. Community service.
 8. Demonstrated legal interests.¹⁸

b. The highest score obtainable is $8 \times 3 = 24$, while the lowest is $8 \times 1 = 8$. Since there are eight traits with a maximum value of 3 points per trait, a score of 24 would be the maximum while 8 would be the minimum because each applicant receives at least 1 point per trait. Develop a distribution of these scores for all candidates, or the remaining 50 percent, and convert these scores into T scores which have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. A T score is merely a statistical method for equating scales which are not equivalent.¹⁹ The resulting score, in this component of the formula, is called the NC or noncognitive score.

3. Develop a distribution of the remaining applicants based on the traditional cognitive variables (GPA, LSAT) used by an institution in ranking and selecting admittees. This distribu-

17. William E. Sedlacek, "A Cultural Diversity Selection Model for Law School Admissions," prepared for the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund, mimeographed (College Park, Maryland: University of Maryland, 1 October 1979).

18. Studies corroborate the utility of these factors for student assessment; see footnote 12, *supra*. Please refer to Addendum A which immediately follows this model for a description of the weighting of the scale values for each of the components making up the noncognitive score.

19. T score is a standardized score where the mean is set at 50 and the standard deviation is 10. For instance, applicant A had a GPA of 3.6. If the pool of applicants to a particular school had a mean GPA of 3.3 with a standard deviation of 0.2, we would set 3.3 equal to 50 and each unit of 0.2 above or below the mean equal to 10. Thus a GPA of 3.5 would equal a T of 60, a GPA of 3.1 would equal a T of 40, and a GPA of 3.6 would equal a T of 65; a GPA of 3.6 would be 1.5 standard deviations, or 0.3 above the mean, so $3.3 + 0.3 = 3.6$. T scores allow for scores based on different scales to be compared, added, subtracted, etc. The scoring system employed by many standardized tests such as the SAT and the LSAT is similar to the T score in that the mean is set at 500 and the standard deviation at 100. A more complete discussion of T scores can be found in F. G. Brown, *Principles of Educational and Psychological Testing*, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976).

tion, as discussed previously, will contain either all candidates or the remaining 50 percent of the applicants after the first 50 percent were admitted pursuant to established criteria. The goal is to develop a distribution based on a single composite ranking of the cognitive variables for each applicant. This distribution, as the non-cognitive distribution, will be converted into T scores and will represent the C or cognitive score. For hypothetical examples of conversions of student GPAs, LSATs, and noncognitive traits into T scores, please refer to Addendum B at the end of this part.

4. Depending on the admissions formula chosen by the institution, cultural diversity scores will be assigned to all students or to those remaining after a specified percentage were admitted by the existing criteria of a law school. For a cultural diversity score to be assigned, however, there must be some external norm against which the weight of the score is determined; this is so because the purpose of the diversity model is to automatically adjust the weight each racial/ethnic group receives in evaluation for admission based on the representation of that particular group in a specific law school. The model, therefore, facilitates law school access to those groups least represented in a given law school by assigning them a higher cultural diversity score.

The HEW "Nondiscrimination Policy Interpretation," on Title VI as discussed in Section V, *supra*, permits a university to establish a numerical target for ethnic/racial minority admissions. Certainly a law school could use some numerical target or even last year's actual enrollment, as broken down by race and ethnicity, to establish a benchmark against which to measure applicants for cultural diversity. Cultural diversity scores then, are calculated as follows:

<u>Institutional Composition</u>	<u>CD score (multiplier)</u>
Less than 10 percent of the applicant's racial/ethnic group is represented (a) in the 50 percent of the class already admitted under established criteria or (b) in the student body of a particular law school or (c) by some other numerical target used as a benchmark for assigning cultural diversity scores.	1.5
Between 11 and 50 percent is represented.	1.25
More than 50 percent is represented.	1.0

5. Final selection is made pursuant to the following formula:
- a. $(NC \text{ score} + C \text{ score}) \times CD \text{ score} = AS$
 - b. Those individuals with the highest applicant scores are selected for admission.

CONCLUSION

The cultural diversity model is inherently fair in that every applicant is compared against every other applicant on the basis of cognitive, noncognitive, and cultural diversity traits. If the model is not applied to all applicants, it is still fair since every applicant not admitted pursuant to the traditional criteria of the law school must compete individually with every other applicant not admitted by the established criteria. The criteria utilized in this model, moreover, are indisputably within the letter and spirit of *Bakke*, as articulated by Justice Powell, in that applicants are assessed on a multitude of traits in an effort to achieve true diversity within the law school. Cultural diversity is not assigned a fixed weight nor is it implemented by arbitrary quotas. Rather,

applicants are individually evaluated for cultural diversity, among other traits, based on the specific cultural composition of the law school to which they are applying. Finally, the cultural diversity component of the model is adjusted automatically in the admissions process according to the percentage of particular racial/ethnic groups already represented in the institution.

ADDENDUM A TO SECTION VI, PART A

Below is a description of the weighting of the scale values for each of the components that make up the NC score.

1. Positive Self-Concept

(Strong self-feeling; strength of character. Determination, independence.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
----------------	--------------------------

Initiates statements or behaviors that indicate strong positive feelings about oneself, e.g., "I felt I could do well on a project so I took extra initiative." Took heavy course-loads in school. Willingness to try new things over a long period of time.	3
--	---

Some evidence of positive feelings or behaviors but not strong. Some good evidence, some bad. Does <i>not</i> take initiative in trying new things or presenting evidence of self-worth; or only recent evidence of good self-concept.	2
--	---

Shows no evidence of good self-concept or negative evidence. No evidence of trying new things; statements of expected failure made.	1
---	---

2. Realistic Self-Appraisal

(Especially academic. Recognizes and accepts any deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need to broaden his/her individuality.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
----------------	--------------------------

Presents clear evidence of assessing shortcomings in his/her background and <i>has taken steps</i> to overcome.	3
---	---

Could be curricular or personal, e.g., "I knew that I was short in math so I took an extra course." "I was <i>not</i> effective in dealing with colleagues so I sought them out for reasons why."	
---	--

Some recognition of some shortcomings but has generally not taken action to correct.	2
--	---

No evidence that shortcomings recognized; defensive or avoids questions concerning possible problem. Covers up and offers excuses.	1
--	---

3. Understands and Deals With Racism

(Realist based on personal experiences of racism. Is committed fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, hostile to society, or a "cop-out." Able to handle racist system.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
----------------	--------------------------

Initiates realistic explanations of how racism (particularly institutional racism) affects life. Not bitter.	3
--	---

Understands that <i>some</i> of his/her life is controlled by the system based on race or sex and some is individually determined. Evidence of	
--	--

successfully handling interracial and/or intersexual situations, e.g., "I expect that some people may not understand modern women, but I had one supervisor who came around after I let him know what I could do."

Some good evidence, some not so good or tentative. Not a full understanding. May be bitter or confused. 2

No understanding of racism, hostile, resentful. Blames everything on the system being against Hispanics, Blacks, etc., if a minority. Feels resentful of reverse discrimination if white. No demonstrated method of handling interracial or intersexual situations well. 1

4. Prefers Long-Range Goals to Short-Term or Immediate Needs
(Able to respond to deferred gratification.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
Consistent evidence of planning and future orientation over a long period, e.g., "As a freshman, I figured I had better study if I wanted to get into law." "I realized I had to learn X procedure on the job before I could get promoted."	3

Some recognition of long-term goals but no long-term evidence, or mixed evidence.	2
---	---

No evidence of long-term planning; looks at issues in	1
---	---

immediate terms, unprepared for future.

5. Availability of Strong Support Person
(To whom to turn in crises.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
----------------	--------------------------

Someone has provided assistance in times of crisis. Generally same person or one at a time sequentially, e.g., grandmother, then teacher, then boss, etc. Knows where to go in a crisis.	3
--	---

Sometimes has received help but not consistently; somewhat unclear about where to go in crisis.	2
---	---

No evidence of turning to others, loner, tough it out. Then says no problem.	1
--	---

6. Successful Leadership Experience
(In any area pertinent to background, e.g., gang leader, sports.)

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Code (Points)</u>
----------------	--------------------------

Behavioral evidence of influencing others in the context of his/her cultural or socialized background (may not be traditional, e.g., gang leader, unusual hobby, or community work). Has shown evidence over a period of time.	3
--	---

Some evidence of leadership position. Not clear what his/her influence really was, may list offices held in student or other organization.	2
--	---

No evidence of influencing others or holding office.	1
--	---

May avoid or be uncomfortable in leadership role, e.g., "Let others do it—I'm too busy."

ADDENDUM B TO SECTION VI, PART A

Applicant A

Description: White, high grades and LSATs but not involved in activities. Shows performance in traditional ways in classroom.

GPA = 3.6 = T score of 65
LSAT = 750 = T score of 75

Computation of C score:

The school evaluating Applicant A weights GPA 50% and LSAT 50%. Thus we can simply get the mean of the two T scores $(65 + 75) \div 2 = 70$. (C = 70)

Computation of NC score:

Applicant A scored as follows on the eight noncognitive variables making up the NC score:

- Self-concept = 2
- Realistic self-appraisal = 2
- Understands racism = 1
- Long-range goals = 2
- Strong support person = 1
- Leadership = 1
- Community = 1
- Demonstrated legal interests = 3

The sum of these eight scores is 13. If we compare this to a distribution of these scores from all applicants to the school we get a T score of 40 or 1 standard deviation below the mean. This person would be at the 16th percentile, or the lowest 16% of the applicants on NC. (NC = 40)

Computation of CD score:

Based on applicant's race applicant receives a 1 for being in a group that represents more than 50% of the applicants. The reference group here could be the current year's applicants, last year's admittees, residents in the area, etc. The weights assigned to cultural/racial groups as of this date are: 1 = more than 50% represented; 1.25 = 11 to 50% represented; 1.5 = 10% or less represented. (CD =

7. Demonstrated Community Service

Meaning	Code (Points)
Behavioral evidence of activity and identification with community. Long term involvement and interest. Community must be allowed to be cultural/racial as well as geographical.	3
Some contacts with community but may be just recent, or perhaps, more likely, in the past with an uncertain present and future.	2
No contact with community. Little or no evidence that he or she is aware of the concept or its importance. Alienated, separated from cultural/racial background.	1

8. Demonstrated Legal Interests

Meaning	Code (Points)
Behavioral evidence of activity and interest in the law and legal issues for some time. Interest may be through one's culture, bettering one's culture through the law, etc. Allow for non-traditional views of legal interest.	3
Some behavioral evidence of legal interests but not strong or long term.	2
No evidence of interest in the law or legal issues, or perhaps avoidance of such issues.	1

1)

Computation of applicant score (AS):

$$(70 + 40) \times 1 = 110$$

Applicant B

Description: Chicano, average LSAT and grades, but shows good performance in many areas outside the traditional educational setting.

GPA = 2.9 = T score of 45

LSAT = 450 = T score of 38

Computation of C score:

The scores for GPA and LSAT are based on the applicant pool of the school involved. The school evaluating Applicant B weights GPA two-thirds and LSAT one-third. Thus, $C = (45 + 45 + 38) \div 3 = 42.67$.

Computation of NC score:

Applicant B scored as follows on the eight noncognitive variables making up the NC score:

Self-concept = 2

Realistic self-appraisal = 2

Understands racism = 3

Long-range goals = 3

Strong support person = 2

Leadership = 2

Community = 3

Demonstrated legal interests = 2

The sum of the noncognitive variables is 19. If we compare this score to a distribution of these scores from all applicants we get a T score of 66 for the NC component. (NC = 66)

Computation of CD score:

There were 11-50% Chicanos in the reference group employed by the school. (CD = 1.25)

Computation of applicant score (AS):

$$AS = (42.67 + 66) \times 1.25 = 135.83$$

Applicant C

Description: Black, low grades and SATs,

few activities and performance in areas outside education.

GPA = 2.6

LSAT = 370

Computation of C score:

The school evaluating Applicant C does not specifically weight GPA and LSAT, but makes an overall assessment of academic qualifications and ranks all the applicants to this school. Applicant C was in the lowest 20%, the T score equivalent of 30. (C = 30)

Computation of NC score:

Applicant C scored as follows on the eight noncognitive variables making up the NC score:

Self-concept = 2

Realistic self-appraisal = 1

Understands racism = 1

Long-range goals = 2

Strong support person = 1

Leadership = 1

Community = 1

Demonstrated legal interests = 2

The distribution of applicants yielded a T score of 32 for the sum of 11. (NC = 32)

Computation of CD score:

1.5 was assigned because the applicant reference group was 10% or less Black. (CD = 1.5)

Computation of applicant score (AS):

$$AS = (30 + 32) \times 1.5 = 93$$

20. Please refer to Section IV, *supra*, for an analysis of the weights assigned to the GPA and LSAT in ABA-approved California law schools.

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NON-COGNITIVE VARIABLES IN PREDICTING
ACADEMIC SUCCESS BY RACE

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Research Report # 1-82

*Example
of Research
Monograph*

Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational
Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

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SUMMARY

A questionnaire designed to measure seven non-cognitive predictors of academic success was administered to two successive samples of incoming university freshmen. The responses were examined with regard to the reliability of the instrument, and three separate indicators of academic success--first semester college GPA, three semester cumulative GPA and persistence after three semesters. The results showed reliability and construct validity for the instrument. Further using this instrument added to the predictive validity of using traditional measures (SAT scores) on academic success. Also, different items were predictive of success for the different racial subsamples. The questionnaire was particularly predictive of the persistence of blacks. The implications of the results are discussed.

Non-Cognitive Variables in Predicting
Academic Success by Race

Since the 1970's there has been evidence of the growing importance of retention in higher education for both human value reasons and for the continued existence of schools. A particularly vital aspect of this issue is minority student retention. The retention rate for minority students, particularly black, is lower than the rate for majority students (Astin, 1975; Sedlacek & Pelham, 1976). The rate of minority retention is particularly low, and decreasing, in predominantly white institutions (Goodrich, 1978; Sedlacek and Webster, 1978). This is obviously a great loss of human potential and it is thus critical that steps be taken to understand and reduce attrition, particularly for minorities.

One means of increasing the retention rate is to do a better job of selection and admission (Ott, 1978). But most admissions criteria and procedures have been validated on typically white samples. Studies that have applied the usual college admissions criteria to blacks have tended to get lower validity than that obtained with the predominantly white samples (Baggeley, 1974; Borgen, 1972; Farver, Sedlacek, & Brooks 1975; Pfeifer & Sedlacek, 1970, 1971, 1974). Among the possible explanations for this difference are cultural/ racial biases in the traditional predictors (e.g., standardized tests, grades, etc.) and that minority applicants do not know how to play the admissions "game." That is, white applicants tend to know what is viewed as desirable in college applications, but

many blacks do not. Given these problems, steps must be taken to find alternative ways of obtaining valid information on minority applicants that are indicative of college success.

The purpose of this research was to design and test out a brief questionnaire for use at a predominantly white institution that might tap information related to retention not normally available. The questionnaire was specifically designed to assess the seven non-cognitive predictors of minority college success proposed by Sedlacek and Brooks (1976). Through research, they found seven variables that have been demonstrated to be related to college success, particularly for minorities. These seven variables are: positive self-concept, realistic self-appraisal, understanding of and ability to deal with racism, preference for long-range goals over short-term or immediate needs, availability of a strong support person, successful leadership experience, and demonstrated community service. While these variables have been studied individually, little work has been done on them collectively. So the focus of this study was the development of a quick, reliable and valid measure of these variables. This project was part of an ongoing research plan aimed at gaining a more complete, longitudinal picture of retention, particularly with regard to minorities.

Method

Sample

Two separate samples of incoming freshmen at the University of Maryland, College Park (1979 entering freshmen, N=2137; 1980 entering

freshmen, N=573) were given the Non-Cognitive Questionnaire (NCQ) during summer orientation. Only those freshmen who had completed all the NCQ and whose SAT scores were able to be obtained from university records were included in this study. This resulted in final samples of 1644 for the 1979 freshmen and 478 for the 1980 freshmen. Of this final 1979 sample of 1644, 1339 identified themselves as white, 190 as black and 110 as being of other racial/ethnic backgrounds (predominately Asian-American). For the 478 freshmen in the 1980 sample, 355 were self-identified as white, 89 as black and 34 as other (again, predominantly Asian-American).

Instrument

The Non-Cognitive Questionnaire (NCQ) was designed with past research as a base and is intended to assess seven non-cognitive variables found to be related to minority retention (Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976). The NCQ consists of two nominal items relating to educational expectations, 18 Likert-type items relating to expectations about college and self-assessment, and three open-ended questions relating to present goals, past accomplishments and offices held/groups belonged to. All items, with the exception of the open-ended items, have been found to have adequate test-retest reliability. The two week correlations (N=18) for the items range from .70 to .94. The open-ended items were included in the questionnaire as they may have been able to access dimensions not covered in the structured Likert-type item format. The responses to the question asking for one's goals were rated for: 1) the amount of time required to complete the goals,

i.e., how long-range they are (interrater $r=.89$) and 2) the degree to which the goals are related to academia (academic goals interrater $r=.83$). The open-ended item asking for which past accomplishments one is proudest of was rated for the degree of difficulty relative to all high school graduates (interrater $r=.88$). The final open-ended item asked the respondent to list all offices held and/or extracurricular activities. This item was rated on four dimensions: 1) number of activities (interrater $r=1.00$), 2) degree of leadership exhibited (interrater $r=.89$), 3) degree list was related to academia (academic activities interrater $r=.98$) and 4) the degree to which community involvement was reflected (interrater $r=.94$). Lockett (1980) reported coefficient alpha reliabilities ranging from .54 to .73 for scales on a modified version of the NCQ employed in the present study.

Analyses

There were two basic types of analyses performed on the data, each reflecting the major purposes of this study. First, the properties of the instrument itself were examined to see if the responses did vary across the races and if the items were content valid in their ability to tap the seven non-cognitive dimensions posited by Sedlacek and Brooks (1976). To accomplish this, the relationships among the Likert-type items were examined using separate factor analyses for each race. A principal components factor analysis, using squared multiple correlations as commonality estimates and varimax rotation was done on the Likert-type items for the entire sample,

the white sample, and the black sample. These factor analyses would yield information on the degree to which the items clustered along the posited seven non-cognitive dimensions and how this varied by race.

The second set of analyses was designed to establish the external validity of the NCQ as a predictor of collegiate success. College success can be defined in many different ways, i.e., grade point average, continued enrollment, etc. Examining retention using only one of these definitions can lead to an invalid or biased picture of what contributes to retention (Tracey & Sedlacek, 1981). As such, this study used two separate, albeit not mutually exclusive, measures of collegiate success, grade point average (GPA) and enrollment status, to move toward gaining a complete understanding of this issue.

Separate step-wise regressions were performed on each sample (1979 freshman and 1980 freshmen) examining the relationship of the NCQ items and SAT scores to GPA (one semester GPA and three semester GPA for the 1979 sample and one semester GPA for the 1980 sample). In addition, as traditional cognitive data (i.e., SAT scores) often dominate regression equations which include noncognitive variables, separate regressions were done using only the NCQ responses as predictors. The above regressions were performed on: 1) the entire sample for each year, 2) whites only subsample for each year, and 3) blacks only subsample for each year.

To examine the relationship of the NCQ responses and SAT scores to persistence, stepwise discriminant analyses were used. As an accurate determination of persistence (enrolled vs. not enrolled) could only be obtained after several semesters, this analysis was done using only the

1979 sample, as enrollment status was determined over three semesters not just one. As with the regression analyses, stepwise discriminant analyses were done using NCQ responses plus SAT scores, and NCQ responses alone as predictors to determine the extent of overlap between the data sets. Also, as with the regressions above, separate discriminant analyses were done for the entire sample for each year, the white sample for each year and the black subsample for each year.

Results

This section will be divided into two parts, the first describing those results which examine the differences and similarities in the responses to the instrument across races. In a sense, this part concerns itself with measurement properties of the questionnaire. The second part of the results will be concerned with describing the analysis done relating questionnaire responses to success in college. This section emphasizes the application of the data. As the questionnaire as a whole was developed with minority selection in mind, most of the subsequent writeup will center on the minority data, particularly black, as this group had sufficient numbers for all the analyses, which most of the other minority groups did not. All differences noted below are statistically significant at the .05 level.

Internal Questionnaire Results

The results of the separate factor analyses conducted showed fairly similar structures for each racial group. Because this study was most concerned with minority students and because of space limitations, only

the factor analysis on the black sample will be presented. Table 1 is a summary of the factors obtained and the items that loaded from this factor analysis on the black sample. As can be seen from Table 1, the results of the factor analysis demonstrate support of six of the seven non-cognitive variables suggested by Sediacek and Brooks (1976). The six variables that were supported by the factor analysis were: Leadership (Factor I), recognizing racism (Factor II), preference for long-range goals (Factor III), realistic self-appraisal (Factor IV), support for college plans (Factor V), self-confidence (Factors VI and VII). Factor VIII seemed to be assessing general familiarity with academia unrelated to academic self-confidence. So the items used do appear to cluster along the seven variables as designed.

Insert Table 1 about here

Predicting Collegiate Success

Given the number of items and analyses done on the different samples, only those items that significantly added to the prediction of any of the criteria (first semester GPA, three semester cum or enrollment status) will be presented. The specific items that significantly added to prediction in each analysis and the overall multiple correlation coefficients are summarized in Table 2.

Insert Table 2. about here

In all the analyses, the NCO items were at least as highly predictive of the criteria examined as SAT scores alone. Combining the NCO items with SAT scores resulted in significant increases in prediction in each of the eight separate analyses performed. So for all criteria, the usage of the NCO items added to the ability to predict collegiate success, for blacks and whites.

When the criterion that was examined was first semester grades, the NCO was found to be more predictive for whites than blacks in both sample years. Further, the same non-cognitive variables were related to first semester grades for each racial group. The variables that were found to be predictive for both races were: positive self-confidence (items 3 and 8, as listed in Table 2) and realistic self-appraisal (items 9, 12, and 13). For the white subsample only, community involvement (item 14c) leadership (item 4) and preference for long range goals (item 7) were also predictive of first semester grades. Thus, the non-cognitive variables (particularly self-confidence and self-appraisal) were predictive of first semester grades for both races but this relationship was stronger for whites than blacks.

A similar picture appears from the analyses performed using three semester cum as the criterion. The non-cognitive variables of positive self-concept (items 8, 11 and 3 alone for whites) and realistic self-appraisal (item 2 for blacks and items 2, 6 and 13 for whites) were highly related to cum for both races. And like the previous analyses, more of the non-cognitive variables were predictive for whites. For whites only, the variables of

preference for long range goals (item 1) and recognizing racism (item 10) were related to cum. It is noteworthy that the multiple correlation coefficients in these analyses were higher than those coefficients of the analyses done on first semester grades. The NCQ items, and implicit variables, were more predictive with increasing time.

The final analyses related the NCQ items to enrollment status after three semesters. It was here that a strong relationship was found between the non-cognitive variables and college success for the black subsample but not the white subsample. Only one of the non-cognitive variables (realistic self-appraisal) was predictive of enrollment for whites, while four of the variables were predictive for blacks. Realistic self-appraisal (item 2), positive self-confidence (items 3 and 8), support (item 5) and community involvement were significantly related to continued enrollment. Of all the analyses done, this was the only set where the predictive power of the resulting equation for the blacks was higher than the prediction of the equation for the whites. So, for blacks, the non-cognitive variables are most predictive of continued enrollment and moderately predictive of grades; while these variables are predictive of grades for whites but not particularly predictive with regard to enrollment status.

Discussion

The results of this study support the increase in predictive power gained by using non-cognitive variables, as measured by the NCQ, in addition to the usual academic predictors, i.e., SAT scores. In every one of the

analyses performed, the addition of the non-cognitive items to the SAT scores significantly increased the prediction of grades and enrollment status. Further, the use of the NCO items alone (without SAT scores) yielded a significantly higher relationship to college success (GPA and enrollment status) than did the SAT scores alone.

The predictive power of the NCO was evident in each of the racial subgroups studied. In fact, using the NCO added slightly more to the prediction of college grades for whites than it did for blacks. But this result was probably more due to the far greater number of whites in the sample than blacks. With this much higher number, any relationship evidenced in the regression would more likely attain significance even though the level of the relationship (r) in the two samples was equal.

Generally, it was slightly easier to predict grades after one and three semesters for white students than it was for black students, even with the inclusion of the NCO which was designed to increase prediction with blacks. But when a different criterion of collegiate success was examined, that of enrollment status after three semesters, the opposite relationship was evidenced. The enrollment status of blacks was much better predicted from the NCO whereas using this questionnaire yielded little predictive power for whites. So it appears that different processes are operative for each race with regard to collegiate success.

For whites, the non-cognitive dimensions (Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976) of self confidence, preference for long range goals over short-term or immediate needs, and realistic self-appraisal ~~were most strongly~~ related to GPA.

In addition, some items relating to leadership, community service and not understanding racism entered some of the predictive equations but the relationship was not as strong as those above. But with regard to enrollment status, the only items that were significant, albeit marginally, were those reflecting positive self-concept. So the non-cognitive dimensions of positive self-concept, ability to delay gratification, and realistic self-appraisal were highly related to doing well academically in college for whites. The dimensions related to continued perseverance in school for whites were not generally related to the variables measured in the NCQ and proposed by Sedlacek and Brooks (1976).

For blacks, the opposite pattern emerged. The only non-cognitive variables that were related to academic achievement, i.e., GPA, were positive self-concept and realistic self-appraisal. The strength of the relationship of these dimensions to GPA was not as high as it was for the white subsamples. But while there was little, if any, ability to predict enrollment status using the NCQ for whites, there was a strong relationship for the black subsample. For blacks, the dimensions that were related to continued enrollment were positive self-concept, support and community service. Having a person(s) available to support the black student when needed and having had experience in community service were strongly related to staying in school. This support person does not have to be a member of the family (as these items did not load into the analyses). What seems to be measured by these dimensions is an ability to reach out in a constructive manner and being able to ask for help when it is needed. This ability was much more crucial for continued existence in college for blacks than whites.

It is interesting to note that the variables of support and community service are related to continued enrollment for blacks and not to GPA. This seems to indicate that those blacks who do get good grades and stay in school have similar levels of self-confidence and ability to realistically appraise themselves as those blacks who do not persevere. The key difference between these two groups of blacks is that those who continue have more support in the family and community to continue. This continuance relationship does not appear at all for whites. This result indicates that the process of succeeding in college varies between the races. Success for whites should be examined in terms of grades; while success for blacks should be examined first with regard to enrollment status and then with regard to grades as different processes appear involved.

The results of this study demonstrate that the Non-Cognitive Questionnaire is both reliable and valid as an aid in predicting collegiate success for both blacks and whites. The exact relationship of the NCQ to collegiate success varies between blacks and whites. For whites, the NCQ significantly adds to the prediction of grades while for blacks it is related to both grades and enrollment status. Lockett (1980), using a modification of the NCQ presented here, found that for blacks at the University of Missouri positive self-concept, community participation, leadership, and understanding racism correlated with grade point averages. Lockett further found that long range goals, lower self-concept and realistic self-appraisal correlated with satisfaction with the college environment for black students. Given this reliability and validity, the NCQ items can be used as a beneficial

addition to those collected in initially selecting students. Also, the NCQ could be of value post-admission. Students could be given the NCQ during orientation, as was done here, and those students lacking in the dimensions that are related to collegiate success could be identified. Programs aimed specifically at these students could then be developed and implemented. Thus, efforts could be directed where they are most needed such as aiding black students that do not have the self-confidence, support and community service experience to keep them in school.

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Table 1

Summary of the Factors and Largest Loading

Items¹ Identified in the Black Sample²Factor I Leadership (32.8% of common variance)

Item	Loading
I am sometimes looked up to by others.	.73
If I ran into problems concerning school, I have someone who would listen to me and help me.	.41
In groups where I am comfortable, I am often looked to as leader.	.55

Factor II Fair academic opportunity (13.9%)

Item	Loading
I want a chance to prove myself academically.	.62
If course tutoring is made available on campus at no cost, I would attend regularly.	.54
I expect I will encounter racism at UMCP.	.33

Factor III Preferring long-range goals (13.5%)

Item	Loading
Once I start something, I finish it.	.90
When I believe strongly in something, I act on it.	.54

Factor IV Academic Self-Appraisal (10.9%)

Item	Loading
I am as skilled academically as the average applicant to UMCP.	.58
I expect to have a harder time than most students at UMCP.	.45

Factor V Family Support (9.1%)

Item	Loading
My family has always wanted me to go to college.	.62
My friends and relatives don't feel I should go to college.	.62

Table 1 (Continued)

<u>Factor VI Lack of Perseverance (7.7%)</u>	
Item	Loading
I get easily discouraged when I try to do something and it doesn't work.	.51
People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was already made up on the subject.	.44
<u>Factor VII Self-Confidence (6.5%)</u>	
Item	Loading
When I believe strongly in something, I act on it.	.39
My high school grades don't reflect what I can do.	.38
Rated difficulty of three best accomplishments.	.31
<u>Factor VIII Academic Familiarity (5.6%)</u>	
Item	Loading
It should not be very hard to get a B (3.0) average at UMCP.	.43
Rated degree of academic relatedness of three most primary goals.	.41

¹ Only those items with loadings above .30 are reported.

² Complete factor and intercorrelation matrices for this sample and the white sample are available upon request from William Sedlacek, Counseling Center, UMCP, College Park, MD, 20742.

Table 2

Summary of the NCQ Items that were Significant¹ and Corresponding Beta Weights
for Each of the Analyses Performed²

Items	Regressions on first semester GPA				Regressions on three semester GPA		Discrimant analyses on enrollment status after 3 semesters	
	<u>1980 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>	
	Whites N=355	Blacks N=89	Whites N=1339	Blacks N=190	Whites N=1027	Blacks N=158	Whites N=1046	Blacks N=154
1) Three goals that you have for yourself right now. Rated for: a) Time to complete								
2) Uncertainty of graduation given that 50% do not.								
3) List three things that you are proud of having done. Rated for degree of difficulty.								
	.19	.28			.12	.19		-.43

Table 2 (Continued)

Items	Regressions on first semester GPA				Regressions on three semester GPA		Discrimant analyses on enrollment status after 3 semesters	
	<u>1980 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>		<u>1979 Sample</u>	
	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks
4) I am sometimes looked up to by others.			-.09					
5) If I run into problems concerning school, I have someone who would listen to me and help me.				.07				-.52
6) I expect to have a harder time than most students.			.12		.06			
7) Once I start something I finish it.			-.07					
8) When I believe strongly in something, I act on it.			.08	.10		.22		-.38
9) I am as skilled academically as the average applicant.				-.10				

Table 2 - continued.

Items	Regressions on first semester GPA				Regressions on three semester GPA		Discriminant analyses on enrollment status after 3 semesters	
	1980 Sample		1979 Sample		1979 Sample		1979 Sample	
	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks
10) I expect I will encounter racism at UMCP.								
11) People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was made up on the subject.								
12) I want a chance to prove myself academically.								
13) My high school grades don't really reflect what I can do.								
14) List of offices held and activities. Rated for:								
a) leadership								
b) academic relatedness								
c) community involvement								
Multiple R for analyses								
Multiple R for analyses with SAT included								

1 (p < .105)

2 Copies of complete instrument are available from William E. Sedlacek, University of Maryland, College Park 20742

RACISM

IN AMERICAN EDUCATION: A MODEL FOR CHANGE

SEDLACEK / BROOKS

This text outlines a six-stage program to help eliminate racism in education. The authors, one of whom is white and the other black, present majority and minority viewpoints to form a practical solution to racial issues. They apply the principles of their program, a behavioral model, to realistic situations—schools, colleges, universities—and implement them in the context of a workshop.

The six stages in this model are progressive. Stage 1 tells how cultural and racial differences should be approached and expressed, in and out of the classroom. Stage 2 explains how racism operates, defining individual and institutional racism. Stage 3 examines racial attitudes and how they influence behavior. Stage 4 looks at the sources of racial attitudes and stereotype development. Stage 5 provides directions for changing behavior and establishes goals. Stage 6 shows how to change behavior offering techniques to accomplish goals.

The authors discuss the relationship between racism and sexism and how the model can be used in eliminating sexism.

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- Stage II: How Racism Operates
- Stage III: Examining Racial Attitudes
- Stage IV: Sources of Racial Attitudes
- Stage V: Changing Behavior: What Can Be Done?
- Stage VI: Changing Behavior: How It Can Be Done

2 Cultural and Racial Differences

3 How Racism Operates

- A Brief History of American Racism

Is Racism Learned or "Inherited"?

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- Women and Sexism
- The End of Racism

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Bibliography

Name Index

Subject Index

"If widely read, understood and applied, could significantly reduce the racism that erodes the American educational system."

what reviewers are saying:

"The book is written in a straightforward, pragmatic manner, and is intended to be a manual and reference book for action strategies. It contains many examples and illustrations of action taken at all educational levels....If widely read, understood, and applied, could significantly reduce the racism that erodes the American educational system...(It) is recommended for graduate and upper-division undergraduate readership."—*Choice*

"...presents a provocative change model that should be read by all school administrators. Not only have the authors sketched the historical basis for and researched findings about racist attitudes, but they have developed a sound,

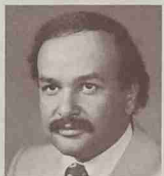
pragmatic approach to dealing with the problem."—*N A S S P Bulletin*

"I eagerly recommend this book to all faculty, staff and students concerned with providing the best possible education for students of any racial or ethnic background."—Dr. Philip W. Anderson, Director of Research, American Society of Allied Health Professions

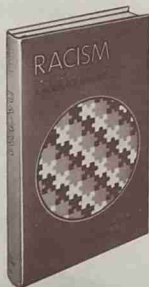
"Their material provides the soundest basis I have seen for moving individuals, through group theory and goal structure, toward a useful awareness of situations caused by feelings and actions derived from crippling prejudice."—*Phi Delta Kappa*



William E. Sedlacek is director of testing, research and data processing, and assistant director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland. He is also an associate professor in the College of Education and is a consultant on race relations for public schools, colleges, medical schools, and health care agencies.



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UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND 20742

SUPPLEMENTARY ADMISSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

The University of Maryland, College Park, is trying to improve its admission procedures by seeking additional information from some students. Please complete this questionnaire and return it to the Admissions Office. Thank you.

SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER: _____ BIRTH DATE: _____

NAME: _____ SEX: _____
(Last) (First) (M.I.)

ADDRESS: _____

CITY: _____ STATE: _____ ZIP: _____

FATHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

Please circle the number which indicates your race or ethnic group:

- 1 Black
- 2 Asian
- 3 Spanish surname
- 4 American Indian
- 5 All other
- 6 Decline to answer

Please circle your responses to the following items:

1. How much education do you expect to get in your lifetime?
 1. College, but less than a bachelor's degree
 2. BA or equivalent
 3. 1 or 2 years of graduate or professional study
 4. Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Education
 5. Doctor of Medicine
 6. Doctor of Dental Surgery
 7. Bachelor of Laws
 8. Bachelor of Divinity
 9. Other
2. About 50% of university students typically leave before receiving a degree. If this should happen to you, which of the following do you think would be the MOST LIKELY cause?
 1. Absolutely certain I will obtain a degree
 2. To accept a good job
 3. To enter military service
 4. It would cost more than my family and I could afford
 5. Marriage
 6. Disinterest in study
 7. Lack of academic ability
 8. Inefficient reading or other study skills
 9. Other
3. What do you feel is the MAIN reason there are few blacks at the University of Maryland at College Park?
 1. Blacks prefer to go to black colleges
 2. The University discourages them from coming because of its tough academic reputation
 3. The University's racist practices discourage them from coming
 4. The University's racist image discourages them
 5. Don't know
 6. Other
4. Please list three goals that you have for yourself right now:
 - 1)
 - 2)
 - 3)
5. Please list three things that you are proud of having done:
 - 1)
 - 2)
 - 3)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following items. Respond to the statements below with your feelings at present or with your expectations of how things will be here. Write in your answers on the space to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Use any number between 1 and 5 to indicate your feelings.

- ___ 6. The University should use its influence to improve social conditions in the State.
- ___ 7. It should not be very hard to get a B (3.0) average at UMCP.
- ___ 8. I get easily discouraged when I try to do something and it doesn't work.
- ___ 9. I am sometimes looked up to by others.
- ___ 10. If I run into problems concerning school, I have someone who would listen to me and help me.
- ___ 11. There is no use in doing things for people, you only find that you get it in the neck in the long run.
- ___ 12. In the group where I am comfortable, I am often looked to as leader.
- ___ 13. I expect to have a harder time than most students at UMCP.
- ___ 14. Once I start something, I finish it.
- ___ 15. When I believe strongly in something, I act on it.
- ___ 16. I am as skilled academically as the average applicant to UMCP.
- ___ 17. People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was already made up on the subject.
- ___ 18. My friends and relatives don't feel I should go to college.
- ___ 19. List offices held and/or groups belonged to in high school or in your community:

COUNSELING CENTER
UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND 20742

SCORING KEY* FOR SUPPLEMENTARY ADMISSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

William E. Sedlacek

QUESTIONNAIRE
ITEMS

- 1 Use to score for Self-Concept (Variable I)
Option 1 = 1; 2 = 2; 3 = 3; 4 through 8 = 4; Score 9 as
closest to 1, 2, 3, or 4 (by your judgment).
- 2 Use to score for Self-Concept (I) and Self-Appraisal (II)
Option 1 = 2; 2 through 9 = 1.
- 3 Use to score for Racism (III)
Options 1, 2, 5 or 6 = 1; 3 and 4 = 2.
- 4 Use to score for Long-Range Goals (IV) and Knowledge Acquired
in a Field (VIII)

A. Options for Long-Range Goals:

Scale Values:

Options:

- 3 = Consistent evidence of planning and future
orientation over a long time, e.g., "As a
freshman, I figured I had better study if I
wanted to get into law (or whatever)."
"Realized I had to learn X procedure on the
job before I could get promoted," etc.
- 2 = Some recognition of long-term goals, but no
long-term evidence, or mixed evidence.
- 1 = No evidence of long-term planning. Looks at
issues in immediate terms, unprepared for
future.

B. Options for Knowledge Acquired in a Field:

- 3 = Behavioral evidence of activity and interest
in field of interest for some time. Interest
may be through one's culture, bettering one's
culture through working in the field. Allow
for non-traditional views of field of interest.
- 2 = Some behavioral interests in the field, but
not strong or long-term.
- 1 = No evidence of interest in the field, or
perhaps avoidance of such issues.

QUESTIONNAIRE
ITEMS

5

Use to score for Leadership (VI), Community Service (VII), and Knowledge Acquired in a Field (VIII).

A. Options for Leadership:

<u>Scale Values</u>		<u>Options:</u>
3	=	<u>Behavioral evidence of influencing others</u> in the context of his/her cultural or socialized background (may not be traditional, i.e., gang leader, unusual hobby, or community work). Has shown evidence over a period of time.
2	=	<u>Some evidence of leadership position.</u> Not clear what his/her influence really was; may list offices held in student or other organizations.
1	=	<u>No evidence of influencing others</u> or holding office. May avoid or be uncomfortable in leadership role, e.g., "Let others do it - I'm too busy."

B. Options for Community Service:

3	=	<u>Behavioral evidence of activity and identification with community.</u> Long-term involvement and interest. <u>Community</u> must be allowed to be cultural/racial as well as geographic.
2	=	<u>Some involvement with community,</u> but may be just recent, or perhaps (more likely) in the past, with an uncertain present and future.
1	=	<u>No involvement with community.</u> Little or no evidence that he/she is aware of the concept or its importance. Alienated, separated from racial/cultural background.

To score for Knowledge Acquired in a Field, use options shown in item 4-B.

For items 6 through 18, positive (+) items are scored as is. Negative (-) items are reversed, so that 1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, and 5=1. A shortcut is to subtract all negative item responses from 6.

QUESTIONNAIRE
ITEMS

- | | | |
|----|---|--|
| 6 | - | (negative) Use to score for <u>Racism</u> (III) |
| 7 | - | Use to score for <u>Realistic Self-Appraisal</u> (II) |
| 8 | + | (positive) Use to score for <u>Long-Range Goals</u> (IV) |
| 9 | - | Use to score for <u>Leadership</u> (VI) |
| 10 | - | Use to score for <u>Availability of Strong Support</u> (V) |
| 11 | + | Use to score for <u>Community Service</u> (VII) |
| 12 | - | Use to score for <u>Leadership</u> (VI) |
| 13 | + | Use to score for <u>Racism</u> (III) |
| 14 | - | Use to score for <u>Long-Range Goals</u> (IV) |
| 15 | - | Use to score for <u>Positive Self-Concept</u> (I) |
| 16 | - | Use to score for <u>Realistic Self-Appraisal</u> (II) |
| 17 | + | Use to score for <u>Positive Self-Concept</u> (I) |
| 18 | + | Use to score for <u>Availability of Strong Support</u> (V) |
| 19 | | Use to score for <u>Leadership</u> (VI), <u>Community Service</u> (VII) and <u>Knowledge Acquired in a Field</u> (VIII). |

To score for Leadership, use options shown in item 5-A.

To score for Community Service, use options shown item 5-B.

To score for Knowledge Acquired in a Field, use options shown in item 4-B.

* The higher the score, the more positive on the variable.

THE USE OF NONTRADITIONAL PREDICTORS FOR ADMISSION TO
THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND, COLLEGE PARK

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One thing the Bakke decision of 1978 seems to do is give schools the option to use race in admissions decisions. There is clearly no mandate to do so; only the opportunity. What advice, then, can one give an admissions officer or committee? Should race be considered? And if so, how should it be used? In this article I will attempt to answer this question based on available research by considering the cases for and against using race in admissions and then reaching a conclusion.

The Case for Selecting Students Without Regard to Race

A number of studies have shown that one can employ traditional selection devices such as standardized test scores (e.g., ACT, SAT), high school grades, and high school rank without regard to the race of the students being selected (e.g., Baggaley, 1974; Humphreys, 1973; Schmidt, Berner and Hunter, 1973; Stanley, 1971; Temp, 1971; Thomas and Stanley, 1969).

Stanley (1971), in summarizing the research on predicting the success of "disadvantaged" students, concluded that admission to selective colleges and universities should be based substantially on test scores and high school grades, regardless of whether the applicant is from a minority racial, ethnic, or sociological group. Stanley felt pessimistic about the possibility of remediation for disadvantaged students, and stated, "An admissions officer ignores test scores at his institution's peril," (1971, p. 642).

Humphreys (1973) concluded that most studies that seemingly find differential validity for racial groups contain erroneous statistical logic. The faulty logic is of two types: (1) correlations or regressions for different racial groups should be compared to each other and not tested as significantly different from zero; (2) because the minority group samples are often much smaller than those of the majority group, we demand a larger coefficient to achieve significance for the minority group. This makes it appear that we

have significance for the majority students but not for the minority students.

Thus, a single prediction equation or cutoff score is most fair to all concerned and will select the best students for a given school. It is particularly important that higher education select the best possible students during the current times of tight budgets, declining enrollments, and a skeptical public. Bad decisions now could severely damage or wreck higher education completely.

The Case for Selecting Students by Race

There appear to be a growing number of studies which indicate we cannot use a single equation or selection system for all students (e.g., Baggaley, 1974; Borgen, 1972; Farver, Sedlacek and Brooks, 1975; Goldman, 1973; Horowitz, Sedlacek and Brooks, 1972; Perry, 1972; Pfeifer and Sedlacek, 1970, 1971, 1974; Sedlacek and Brooks, 1975; Temp, 1971). The support for this position centers around three clusters of results. First, there are studies which show no relationship, or perhaps a negative relationship between traditional predictors and college grades. Sedlacek and Brooks (1975) found that the SAT-Verbal scale had correlated significantly with freshman grades (.56) for black females and was uncorrelated for black males (-.03) in a special program at the University of Maryland, while the SAT-Math scale correlated .16 for black females and -.33 for black males. Thus the SAT-Math scale actually had negative validity for black males in that sample. Baggaley (1974) found essentially the same results with blacks at the University of Pennsylvania. The SAT-Verbal correlated .15 with grades for black females and -.04 for black males; while the SAT-Math correlated .38 for black females and -.36 for black males.

The second cluster of studies supporting differential race-sex subgroup prediction involves studies which show that if traditional predictors are to

be used, there must be separate equations or cutoffs for each subgroup to achieve optimum validity. Horowitz et al. (1972), Perry (1972), Pfeifer and Sedlacek (1971), and Temp (1971) all clearly show this. Goldman (1973) presented evidence that even when a general regression equation overpredicts how well minorities will do, it is still unfair to them. He argues that since we have less ability to accurately predict minority student grades (higher standard error of estimate), if we combine race-sex groups and develop a single regression equation we will achieve an equation favoring the more predictable majority applicants. Even if we obtain an overestimate of minority student grades, it will not be offset by the use of a relatively inaccurate equation. Interestingly, white females tend to be the most predictable race-sex subgroup and any general equation would favor them. That we don't have a great many more white females in higher education is evidence that admissions officers have not been reluctant to balance classes with white males. Black males tend to be the least predictable race-sex subgroup and any general equation would discriminate most against them.

Studies by Farver et al. (1975) and Horowitz et al. (1972) further support the proposition of differential regression equations for race-sex subgroups. They found that if grades beyond the freshman year are predicted, different equations results. Not only are the regression equations different over the years, but blacks become relatively more predictable than whites after the freshman year. Thus, race-sex subgroup equations predicting beyond the freshman year appear particularly appropriate. Studies by Berdie and Prestwood (1975) and Kallingal (1971) further support this conclusion.

The third major cluster of studies supporting the consideration of race-sex subgroups in admissions deals with non-cognitive predictors of minority student success. A key argument in minority admissions which I have not seen

adequately raised previously runs like this: One reason why we must consider race or ethnic group in admission is to achieve equality. It is often argued that you don't, or can't, achieve equality by considering differences. I say that the kind of equality we are after in admissions is equality of information, not equality of process. We want the best information we can get on every applicant. It can be argued that our current system of gathering applicant data favors white, middle class applicants. How? Let's start with the application form itself. Studies have shown that the typical minority applicant is not as sure just what is being asked, and is less likely to know just how to "play the game" and supply the information the school really wants (Sedlacek, Merritt and Brooks, 1975). Minority persons also are less likely to have family, friends or peers who have dealt with the admissions process who can advise them.

Minority students may be reluctant or tentative in completing the application form, and universities that have done the best job of increasing black enrollment over a five-year period have tended to streamline or reduce the number and types of forms required in their admissions procedures (Sedlacek, Merritt and Brooks, 1975). Thus the application form is designed to elicit information fairly efficiently on applicants with traditional, white, middle-class experiences in the society. It can be documented that the experiences and life styles of typical minority applicants are different (Sedlacek and Brooks, 1976; Borgen, 1970), and that we would gather data differently if we were to design a form specifically to admit minorities. For instance, a minority applicant who has shown leadership in a community project rather than the biology club might not be as likely to write it on the application because of the way the question is worded and his/her lack of information on what is

appropriate to write in.

Aside from the application form, we must consider that the typical tests employed in education are not as useful in predicting or diagnosing minority student potential performance as they are in predicting middle class, white student performance, as was discussed above.

How did this happen? The best explanation appears to me to be that the reinforcement system developed in the society for minority people is more capricious than it is on the average for whites. That is, there is not as tight a link between performance and outcome for minorities as there is for whites (Sedlacek and Brooks, 1976). There are a number of studies that show that minorities do not tend to have the same control over their lives as do whites (Gurin et al., 1969; Epps, 1969). More whites realize that if they do X, they will get Y, and so forth. For example, whites are more likely to feel "If I study hard, I will get good grades and go on to the next step." This is not nearly as clear for minorities. Several studies show that teachers tend to have lower expectations for minority student performance (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Rubovits and Maehr, 1973). This is more likely to result in higher or lower grades than would be expected, either of which are bad for minorities trying to develop a link or relationship between what they do and what happens to them. This kind of grade discrepancy has been found in a number of studies (Cleary, 1968; Thomas and Stanley, 1969; Pfeifer and Sedlacek, 1971), and helps to explain why grades don't predict minority student performance better. It is particularly difficult to diagnose or predict minority male performance. Some sociological literature supports the argument that the majority culture tends to control minority culture primarily through controlling males (Verma and Bagley, 1975).

Since this link of behavior and reinforcement is better and stronger for white applicants, we don't have to work too hard to obtain additional applicant information on whites. If a white in a white oriented system, using white culturally based predictors, gets high grades, we know something about the motivation of that student. If he/she were president of a fraternity/sorority, we know that shows leadership. But for minority applicants, we are not as sure about their cultures, what it is like to be in them, and how one shows accomplishment in those cultures. Astin (1975), in a national study of dropouts, found that blacks who were able to demonstrate knowledge gained in non-traditional ways through credit-by-examination were less likely to drop out than blacks who did not take credit-by-examination. The increase in student retention associated with showing knowledge in this nontraditional way was more than twice as great for blacks as for whites.

Sedlacek and Webster (1978) found that schools that tended to consider race related variables tended to have better retention of minority students. They also found that private universities tended to have better retention records than public universities.

A number of studies have shown that background, interest, attitudinal and motivational variables are related to minority student success, but are not necessarily useful in predicting the academic success of white students (e.g., DiCesare, Sedlacek & Brooks, 1972; Gurin et al., 1969; Horowitz et al., 1972; Lowman and Spuck, 1975; Perry, 1972; Pfeifer and Sedlacek, 1970, 1974; and Sedlacek and Brooks, 1975).

Sedlacek and Brooks (1976), in reviewing the noncognitive predictor studies for minorities, concluded that there were seven key noncognitive variables:

1. Positive self-concept. Confidence, strong "self" feeling, strength of character, determination, independence. A strong self-concept seems important

for minorities at all educational levels where it has been investigated. The minority student who feels confident of "making it" through school is more likely to survive and graduate. Although minority students have had to battle incredible obstacles and setbacks even to reach the point of applying to a college or professional school, they need even greater determination to continue. Determination is needed precisely because they come from a different cultural background than most of the students and faculty members they will encounter in school.

In addition to the usual school pressures, the minority students typically must handle cultural biases and learn to bridge his or her past culture and the prevailing one. DiCesare, Sedlacek & Brooks (1972) found that blacks who stayed in college and adjusted to these obstacles were usually absolutely certain they would obtain their degree, in contrast to those who left school. Epps (1969) found that a strong self-concept was directly related to black high school students' success. Sedlacek and Brooks (in press) also found this to be true of minority students in special programs at the university level.

Pfeifer and Sedlacek (1970, 1974) noted that this determination may take a form whereby successful minority students appear considerably different from their white counterparts. They found that blacks who get high grades tend to have very atypical personality profiles vis-a-vis whites who get high grades and according to norms based on white students. Thus on some measures the opposite use of the same predictor will select the best black and white students.

The successful minority student, however, is more likely to be inclined toward, and experienced in, "going against the grain," as well as being atypical. Conversely, blacks who look like typically successful white students on these personality measures will not do well academically. Thus there is good evidence that important cultural differences operate between blacks and whites in the

manner in which the self-concept is operationalized.

2. Understands and deals with racism. A realist, based on personal experiences of racism. Committed to fighting to improve the existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, nor hateful of society, nor a "cop-out." Able to handle a racist system. Asserts that the school has a role or duty to fight racism. Racism can take many forms. For example, an admissions committee that has good intentions but uses inappropriate predictors to select minority students is committing an unconscious act of racism. This is racism because it results in negative outcomes for minority students who are incorrectly selected and it is institutional racism because it is the result of collective action.

Research has consistently shown that minority students who understand racism and are prepared to deal with it perform better academically and are more likely to adjust to a predominantly white school. De Cesare, Sedlacek and Brooks (1972) found that black university students who understood and expected racism were more likely to remain in school than those who were not prepared to deal with it.

In related research by Gurin, Gurin, Lao & Beattie (1969) and by Sedlacek and Brooks (in press), it was found that blacks who believed they could achieve by their own effort (internal control) performed better in school than blacks who felt they were up against the system and couldn't do anything to help themselves. However, blacks who understood that the institutions of society control them in many ways but that it is possible to alter those institutions, performed particularly well.

These studies were based on secondary and college-level black students.

3. Realistic self-appraisal. Recognizes and accepts any academic or background deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need

to broaden one's individuality. Realism in self-appraisal by minorities does not connote cultural or racial deficiency or inferiority. However, institutional racism results in inferior education and academic background deficiencies among many minorities. The minority applicant who recognizes this and is prepared to act upon it individually, or with the school's help, will make a better student. Again, the studies on internal-external control support this point (Gurin et al., 1969; Sedlacek and Brooks, 1976).

Additionally, DiCesare et al. (1972) found that blacks who have a more realistic view of themselves and society are more likely to remain in school.

4. Prefers long-range goals to short-term or immediate needs. Understands and is willing to accept a deferred gratification. Since role models are unavailable and the reinforcement system has been relatively random for them, many minorities have difficulty understanding the relationship between current work and the ultimate practice of their professions. The earlier discussion about the "culture shock" faced by minority students supports the usefulness of this predictor.

In other words, since black students tend to face a greater culture shock than white students in adjusting to a white-oriented campus culture, we are not as sure about how blacks will perform at first as we are about whites. However, by the time of their sophomore year, blacks are about as predictable as whites.

The minority student who is not ready to accept delayed reinforcement, when combined with the other adjustments discussed here, will be in a great deal of trouble in college.

5. Availability of a strong support person. Has a person of strong influence who provides advice. In times of crisis the successful minority student tends to have a strong individual in his or her background to turn to. This individual may be in the immediate family, but is often a relative or a community worker. Many minority students do not have the "props" or support

to fall back upon that whites typically have. For instance, a black student who is about to enter college may not have members in his or her immediate family or neighborhood friends who have been to college or understand the ins and outs of the system, which most educated whites take for granted. As noted earlier, whites, individually and collectively through institutions, do not usually have high expectations of minorities and therefore are not geared to pushing a minority student to seek education.

Because of random reinforcement or the relationship between individual effort and positive outcome, it may take relatively little to make a minority student drop out or fail at school. If a white student drops out, there are generally many forces in white society to bring him or her back into the educational system. But the minority student may drop out and never be heard from again.

The minority student who has at least one strong support person in his or her background is more likely to get through the many and very difficult adjustments required of most minorities in a predominantly white school.

6. Successful leadership experience. Has shown ability to organize and influence others within his or her cultural-racial context. The key here is non-traditional evidence of leadership among minority students. Application forms and interviews are typically slanted in directions unlikely to yield much about the background of a minority student. The typical white applicant knows how to "play the game," and will have "taken up," and then be sure to list, a wide variety of offices held in traditional campus organizations. Many minority students will not have had the time or the inclination for such activities.

The most promising students, however, may have shown their leadership in less typical ways, such as working in their communities, or through their church, or even as a street-gang leader in high school. It is important to pursue the culturally relevant activities of the applicants rather than to treat them as if they come

from a white middle-class environment. If the applicant succeeded in his or her culture and is now ready to "take on" college, this is evidence that the student has the potential to succeed.

7. Demonstrated community service. Has shown evidence of contributing to his or her community. This predictor is closely related to the leadership experiences discussed above, since many of the successful leadership activities of minorities may be performed in their own communities. However, community service goes beyond this in providing evidence of interest in and understanding of one's background and willingness to help and serve one's people. If minority students reject their background, it is likely they will have trouble in personal areas, such as self-concept, understanding racism, and realistic self-appraisal.

The standard application blank and admission interview typically do not explore different cultural backgrounds and tend to miss a great deal of data that are useful in selecting minority students. A school that is interested in optimizing its minority student selection procedures must have knowledge of the cultural background of a minority student and the implications of urban-rural differences, and must recognize that many minority applicants are not sure about what information might be of interest to the school.

Many problems of an ethical, sociological and methodological nature must be considered in using such data. For instance, is it fair or reasonable to admit only the "superblack," who has all the qualities cited above?

My feeling is that we must examine the question more thoroughly. In the long run, we must eliminate the sources of institutional racism which have created our current situation. Traditional predictors such as grades and standardized tests simply reflect the racism in our society. Until racism is eliminated, these predictors will continue to be biased against cultural and racial minorities.

Research on the difficulties of operationally defining bias has recently opened a whole new area for measurement and statistics specialists. A given test

or predictor may be biased or unbiased, depending on the definition one employs (Cole, 1973; Hanson, Belcher, Sedlacek & Thrush, 1973; Linn, 1973). However, in the short run, admissions committees must work with what they have. Minorities must be admitted in the fairest way possible. Unfortunately, unless a minority student has many of the aforementioned characteristics, he or she will experience great difficulty in most schools. This is bad for both the individual student and the school.

In an as yet unpublished study, 34 new freshmen entrants to the University of Maryland, College Park, in fall, 1972, who did not meet minimum admissions requirements were admitted based on the previously described non-cognitive variables. The multiple correlation predicting their freshman year grades based solely on the noncognitive variables and high school grades, excluding SAT, was .73. These same predictors generated a multiple correlation of only .66 for a sample of 35 who met regular admission standards; .48 for a sample of 53 I.E.D. students, and .36 for 35 new 1972 entrants drawn by lottery.

Despite the small samples, one interpretation which can be cautiously presented is that if the noncognitive predictors are used in selection, one can make reasonable predictions of academic success for those students. It also appears that the relationship to grades is higher if the students are selected on the variables rather than by selection on traditional criteria, by chance, or by less specific criteria.

The use of the above noncognitive variables has been recommended by the Association of American Medical Colleges as a way to achieve equality and be prepared for possible lawsuits (D'Costa et al., 1974; Prieto et al., 1978; Association of American Medical Colleges, 1976, 1977). The basis of most reverse discrimination lawsuits has been a white applicant accusing a school of preferential admission based on race or ethnic group. If a school were to employ a systematic minority admissions procedure based on empirical studies which showed the procedure to be valid, it would be in a good position to avoid lawsuits.

It should be noted that I am not suggesting that the seven noncognitive variables are not important for white applicants. I am suggesting that the way we go about gathering our admissions information favors white applicants, and we tend to get noncognitive information routinely for them. In admissions and retention, our immediate goal is equality of information to use in making decisions and planning programs. If we must work harder or use different methods to secure information from some applications, so be it; our long term goal is retaining and graduating competent persons.

Conclusions

It appears to me that the weight of the evidence favors a strong consideration of race-sex subgroups in admissions procedures. While the evidence is not always exact in terms of how to weight the variables, particularly the non-cognitive predictors, there is much support for the aforementioned conclusion. Because of our inability to weight the predictors, it is all the more important that local research be conducted at each school. The studies noted above can serve as guidelines, but the specifics should be developed by the admitting institution.

There are a great many issues relating to minority admissions which will not be discussed here. Those interested are referred to Sedlacek (1974a, b; 1977 a, b) and Hixson & Epps (1975), for further information. There is one issue, however, which is especially important when attempting to summarize and evaluate the research in this area. We must remember that the very nature of our information gathering and research methods, and our tendency to be conservative in interpreting results, work against the minority applicant. Our application forms, interviews, letters of recommendation, tests, and the educational system itself were designed for majority people. By having relatively

few applicants providing scanty information from atypical backgrounds it is easy to fall back upon the old standards in admission research and explain results in terms of "flukes" or methodological problems. It is a time when we must drop a notch or two in our model of inductive science and be willing to piece together some more fragile and misunderstood bits of information. If we do not, we could be risking the future of entire races of people. Recent evidence indicates that the numbers and percentages of minorities in higher education are dropping (Sedlacek and Pelham, 1976). Whether this trend continues will depend largely upon the action of admission officers and any conclusions we can reach from our research.

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November 16, 1982

TO: John B. Slaughter, Chancellor

FROM: *Bill Sedlacek* Bill Sedlacek, Assistant Director, Counseling Center

SUBJECT: University Admissions Policy

Let me add my welcome to College Park to the many I am sure you have already received. I am concerned about the recent developments regarding the University's proposed admission policies, particularly in relation to the SAT and minority students. I have been studying this issue here at College Park for many years and I feel that my work and that of my colleagues supports several conclusions:

1. The SAT does not work as well in predicting minority student retention as it does for white students.
2. Other variables (which I am labeling noncognitive) have been developed which predict minority student retention better than the SAT.

The enclosed study by Tracey and Sedlacek supports these points. I am also enclosing a more comprehensive article on my view of admissions and a vita to give you an idea of my background and credentials to reach such conclusions. I have been unsure of what to do to further call attention to my work to assist in the formulation of the new admissions policy. I know that Dr. Toll and others are at least broadly familiar with it. I also realize that policy does not necessarily spring directly from research results. However, my view, which I have not seen clearly presented so far, is as follows:

1. The proposed new policy will likely result in a reduction in the broad multicultural/multiracial mix on the campus. I feel this has been one of our unique strengths here at the University of Maryland, College Park; one that has improved greatly in recent years. Send your child to UMCP if you want everything an education should be, including academic and social learning, and just plain how to make it in the larger society. I feel the new policy will increase the disparity between races and cultures on campus and give us a more and more homogeneous white student population that is admitted by "regular" methods, and a black and other minority student population that becomes smaller and smaller in absolute and relative terms, and is admitted by "special" methods. I feel blacks will be negatively stereotyped by this, both in their own feelings and in perceptions by whites. UMCP has made great strides in reducing this kind of stereotyping in recent years, partly because most of our black students have come in through regular admissions procedures.

Dr. John Slaughter, Chancellor

Nov. 16, 1982

2.

2. I feel we need to use a combination of the SAT and noncognitive variables for all students as part of regular admissions. I feel it is inappropriate to use the information that best works for blacks in special or individual admissions only. Please note that I am not suggesting lowering standards or not seeking the best students. I am suggesting that the most appropriate indicators of who will do best be used.

I felt that since you are the UMCP Chancellor and had expressed some interest in these issues before coming here, that I should present my arguments to you before I go to others such as the Board of Regents, the press, etc., with them. Even though I may just create some noise or irritation, I feel that there should be some record that if the University moves in the direction planned it may be to the detriment of minority students directly and white students and all of us at UMCP indirectly, since our greatest asset, our operational diversity, will be seriously compromised.

I will call your secretary in the next few days to arrange to meet with you to discuss my concerns and plans if you are interested.

WES:lw

CC: William L. Thomas, Jr.
Thomas M. Magoon

Conducting Student Retention Research

By Terence J. Tracey and William E. Sedlacek

A glance through any current journal in the area of student affairs will reveal a number of studies on student retention (Lea, Sedlacek and Stewart, 1979). Retention has become one of the most important issues that administrators must face, now and in the coming decade. The results and conclusions of sound research should form the basis for any action taken on this topic.

Types of Retention Research

Typically, research done on retention issues falls into one of three categories. These approaches appear separate and independent because each tends to use a different set of variables when looking at a problem. The first approach, "predicting" who will succeed in college, typically correlates traditional variables (high school rank, SAT scores, etc.) with freshman grades. No account is taken of other dimensions that may affect grades or how the grades may change over the course of one's academic career. The second approach, "understanding" the characteristics associated with success, seeks to determine how those who succeed differ from those who do not. Typically, studies done in this area involve the examination of differences on personality dimensions between those who stay enrolled and graduate and those who do not. This approach often neglects the relationship of the traditional cognitive variables (SAT scores, high school grades, etc.) to eventual graduation. Also, studying retention in this way implies that the only criterion of value is graduation, not grade point average. Each criterion appears important in determining what one's retention goals should be. The third type of retention research, "studying" how students can be aided, usually involves a program evaluation, and it focuses on whether or not a specific program helped in aiding retention by either promoting continued enrollment or increased GPA. Often the specific characteristics (personality and/or attitudinal variables) of those helped and those not helped by the program are ignored.

Retention programs need to be broad in focus in order to be effective, while the research is typically limited in scope and neglects important dimensions. More effort should be directed at the integration of the above three, often noninclusive research approaches.

A Comprehensive Research Model

One means of obtaining a more comprehensive picture of retention is to include as many dimensions as possible
NASPA Forum

in research designs. There appear to be two dominant dimensions of variables studied: the specific criteria of collegiate success (GPA, enrollment status or graduation status) and the predictors related to the criterion used. The predictor variables usually are either the traditional cognitive predictors (h.s. GPA, SAT scores) or the more recently developed noncognitive variables (personality and attitudinal dimensions).

Our research model attempts to obtain a clearer picture of retention by incorporating as many of the different types of predictors as possible. Of particular importance is the combination of the traditional cognitive predictors with the less traditional noncognitive predictors in some analyses. Rarely are these two data types mixed in studies, since the traditional cognitive variables often account for most of the variance. This occurrence appears to be a statistical artifact due to the more sound psychometric properties of the cognitive measures. This often occurs because developmental research on the noncognitive variables is not done. Thus cognitive and noncognitive areas must be studied separately, and only when we have relatively reliable and valid measures in each area should we combine them in a research study. So the research model that we are suggesting utilizes as many criteria of college success as possible with respect to the different predictor types, separately and in combination, to gain information about the relationships among the variables.

Current Research

As an example of the use of such a model, we are currently engaged in an ongoing research project which examines the differences among races with regard to retention. Specifically, Sedlacek and Brooks (1976) proposed that for minorities, especially blacks, other variables than the traditional cognitive ones would be more related to retention. To examine this, several different criteria are being used in analyses: grade point average, registration status, eventual graduation status, and a four-part nominal variable, enrollment status. Using this variable is a way of determining the overlap between GPA and registration status. In any given semester, a student is: 1) enrolled and in good academic standing; 2) not enrolled but in good academic standing; 3) enrolled and on academic probation; or 4) academically dismissed. The two predictor types are analyzed separately and in combination with each of the above retention criteria. The traditional cognitive predictors being used are SAT

scores. The specific noncognitive predictors of interest are the seven variables hypothesized by Sedlacek (1977) to be related to retention, especially for minority students. These noncognitive variables are as follows: positive self-concept, realistic self-appraisal, understanding and dealing well with racism, preferring long-range goals to short-range goals, availability of a strong support person, leadership experience and demonstrated community service.

A questionnaire was designed to assess each of these dimensions and was administered to incoming freshmen during summer orientation. The relationships of these seven noncognitive dimensions—alone and in combination with SAT scores—to each of the four different definitions of retention was examined.

At this time, enrollment and registration patterns have not become apparent, so only the analyses using GPA as the criterion of success have been performed. For the first semester GPA, there appears to be a strong relationship between the seven noncognitive predictors and retention, especially for minority students. When SAT scores were used with the noncognitive measures, many of the previously significant noncognitive items were no longer significant, especially in the white sample. This trend occurred less in the minority analyses.

So it appears that for whites, these noncognitive predictors are tapping dimensions that overlap or are related to the traditional SAT scores, but this is not true for blacks. For blacks, traits separate from what is measured by SAT scores appear to be related to GPA for the first semester. Thus, by using the model proposed here, we have obtained a more comprehensive view of the variables related to retention. These results are preliminary and are presented only as an example of the research model. More time is needed to further substantiate these findings and to determine others.

Recommendations

Those doing research in retention and those designing programs based on research results should be aware of the problems and limitations in retention research. Attempts should be made to make retention research as inclusive as possible to better represent the complexity of this important issue. The model presented is one possible way of moving in this direction.

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H Daniel Lea, William E. Sedlacek and Sylvia S. Stewart

Problems in Retention Research in Higher Education

**Numerous studies describe
dropping-out behavior,
but few explain it.**

Persistence in college is an old issue with a new focus. In the past, the term most often used was "attrition," and the focus was upon *students* dropping out, implying deficiencies in the selection process. More recently, "retention" has been used to describe the problem, and implicit is a change in focus from the student to the institution. The issue is, given the students we have, what can be modified in the educational process so that these students will be retained? In a span of two decades, higher education has moved from an emphasis upon education for the selected who can meet institutionally imposed standards, to the necessity for many institutions to adapt their practices to the educational needs of a greater diversity of students. The emphasis not only will be upon education for all, but more importantly, upon education for *each* (Cross, 1976).

In the past, when there was an oversupply of students, retention was mainly an ethical issue involving questions concerning equal opportunity and access to higher education, loss of talent, and student waste of time and effort. Now that the pool of college-age students has diminished, retention has become a practical issue involving the survival of many institutions of higher education; where, if a student drops out of college, he/she may not be replaced as in the past (Shulman, 1976). Along with a limited number of students there is a shortage of resources, which makes cost a primary determinant of educational policy. Overall, retention may be more cost effective than recruitment (Astin, 1975). The loss of students always has been a loss to the higher education system, but in the past, with a relatively large number of potential students available, the impact was qualitative rather than quantitative. Qualitative changes are usually subtle and more easily overlooked, and although attrition meant the loss of potential talents of students, the existence of the institution was not threatened. More recently, student attrition has been perceived in quantitative terms in relation to supply/demand factors. Ironically, as students become more of a *means* to insure survival of institutions, they may become an end within themselves. Institutions of higher education likely will have to respond better to student needs in order to maintain enrollments. Although the

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major motivation of retention efforts may have quantitative goals to increase student enrollments, the most important changes may be qualitative in terms of improving educational services. It is quite possible that many institutions will not survive these demanding times. Hopefully, the higher education system not only will survive, but will become better in meeting the student's educational needs.

Although the importance and urgency of the issue has changed, the rate of student attrition seems to have remained at about 50 to 60% over four-year spans for the past fifty years (Summerskill, 1962; Astin, 1972). However, institutional variations may range from 15% to 80% (Summerskill, 1962). These figures may be substantially reduced by taking into account that many students finish their degrees *after* the four-year period following matriculation. For example, in a longitudinal study of 1961 entering freshmen, only 23.2% had *not* received degrees by 1971 (El-Khawas & Bisconti, 1974). Needless to say, methodological problems abound in attrition/retention research, often resulting in conflicting conclusions across studies. It is difficult to assess the extent or the nature of the phenomenon. To overcome these problems will require commitment, time and resources to gain data which will allow retention policy decisions to be made on an educational rather than a political basis. This article will explore some of these methodological problems encountered in retention research.

IDENTIFICATION OF PROBLEM

Retention research has been described as large in volume, poor in design, and limited in scope (Astin, 1975). Early writings were generally demographic studies, while later work centered on examination of characteristics of students related to attrition; more recently, interest has been in the interaction of these student characteristics in an environmental context (Smith, 1976). The methodological problems in retention research can be grouped in six general areas. Cohen, Nestel and Kamas (1976) have pointed to: (1) the scarcity of sequential, longitudinal studies, (2) the problem of defining "drop-out", (3) deficiencies in data bases from which studies originate, and (4) failure to control the influence of confounding variables. Additional problems have been (1) generalizability of results (Astin, 1975; Celio and Sedlacek, in press), and (2) the lack of a theoretical base from which to explain results (Tinto, 1975; Terenzini and Pascarella, 1977).

DEFINITION OF "DROP-OUT"

Probably the chief problem across studies has been the difficulty in the defining "drop-out." How an investigator defines this term will, to a large extent, determine the outcome of the study. Many institutions identify drop-outs as students who are no longer enrolled at the institution four years after matriculation, and who did not graduate. Such "head-count" data add little to explain the phenomenon of non-persistence. Students who leave college before graduating are not a homogenous group. For example, the voluntary withdrawal may differ markedly from the academic or disciplinary dismissal in terms of personal characteristics, experiences in college, and motivation. Some drop-outs may not be permanent, but more appropriately might be called "stop-outs," and technically, an individual does not become a drop-out if there is a possibility that he/she may return to complete a degree. Often transfers are grouped into the drop-out category. Institutional attrition is not the same as attrition from the system of higher education. For instance,

Carrington and Sedlacek (1975) surveyed 437 "no-shows" at the University of Maryland, College Park, who were accepted but did not matriculate, and found that 82% were attending other colleges or universities. Additionally, at the same institution, approximately one-third of the undergraduate student body originally transferred in from another institution. Finally, the act of dropping out may be a positive, proactive decision for the student. Does higher education wish to eradicate positive developmental decisions by its students? Transferring and stopping-out are not necessarily negative behaviors. The definition of drop-out involves both complicated administrative and value decisions. Most retention studies have focused on local institutional retention. In terms of data collection, such an approach is more administratively feasible than projects focusing on attrition from higher education in general. The danger in this type of approach is that by doing so, possibly conscious or unconscious value priorities are communicated which are not appropriate to the primary functions of higher education. In short, is the focus of educators upon students or institutions? Have economic and political pressures caused us to confuse subconsciously the means and ends of higher education?

DATA BASES

Any conclusions are only as good as the data from which they are derived. The available data for retention/attrition studies have been far from adequate. Attrition/retention as a priority issue in higher education is of recent origin. In the past, the emphasis was upon selection of the most promising students from a large applicant pool. The data collected were related to admissions. Although such entering data are useful for retention studies, they are insufficient for a thorough study of retention. Entry data typically have been focused too narrowly on academic variables and, of special importance to retention, tell nothing about the student's experience at the university *after* entry. It is the latter data deficiency which has resulted in numerous retention studies focusing on student characteristics, but far fewer studies examining the interaction of the student and the college environment.

It should be noted also that entry data are much easier to collect than follow-up data, when the investigator does not have the convenience of a "captive" sample. Finally, much of the data which have been collected concerning reasons for dropping out have been self-report data, which tend to be highly unreliable. Not only are students often resistant to this type of self-disclosure, given its very sensitive and personal nature, but also the subtle and varied reasons for dropping out behavior are not always discernable to the student.

Astin (1975) has made several useful recommendations for improving retention data. He has suggested that data related to student persistence should include *entry* data, data about the student's experiences *while enrolled*, and follow-up data after dropping out. The data should cover a wide range of the student's attributes and experiences. Self-report data about reasons for dropping out are best used as classification variables to examine predictors of non-persistence. Finally, he suggests follow-up on reasons for leaving college to increase the reliability of self-report data.

LONGITUDINAL RESEARCH

Dropping out of college is a process rather than an event, and should be examined as such (Kohen et al. 1976). Despite this fact, there is a dearth of longitudinal research of retention/attrition. Much of the research has been limited to freshman

year attrition. With an increasing popularity of life-long learning, non-traditional alternatives to education, and "stopping-out" before degree completion, longitudinal methods become more and more appropriate to studying the diversity of the dimensions of persistence in college. Longitudinal methods may also be more appropriate for studying student sub-groups, especially the culturally different. For example, the period of adjustment to college may be different for culturally different students, thus making the traditional predictors such as freshman year data less appropriate for predicting future outcomes for this group (Farver, Sedlacek & Brooks, 1975). Unfortunately, longitudinal studies require great amounts of time, resources, and commitment, both from the researchers and the sponsoring institutions. Resources in higher education are limited, and immediate prospects for expansion appear bleak. Retention research is thus dependent to a large extent upon the administrative determination of the priority of the retention issue in relation to other issues requiring allocations of limited resources.

CONTROL AND GENERALIZABILITY OF RESULTS

Problems of control and generalizability are also common to retention research. These problems emanate, not so much from the deficiencies of the research design as from the complexity of the issues in retention. Dropping out of college is caused by many complex interactions and inter-relationships resulting in the same overt behavior — the student leaving college. It is difficult to isolate the independent effects of the numerous variables which contribute to the decision to leave college, and researchers thus far have not helped the situation by continuing to use univariate rather than multivariate statistical techniques in examining retention data. Conflicting results have also been generated by the national or local focus of a study. National studies tend to "wash out" important institutional and/or group differences, while local studies are limited in generalizability. The evidence thus far seems to indicate that different institutions and different groups interact in a wide variety of ways. A program of research incorporating a variety of investigative approaches would seem the most appropriate strategy, considering the complexity of the phenomena leading to persistence in college.

THEORETICAL BASE

Finally, few retention studies have evolved from a theoretical base although there are several notable exceptions (Kamens, 1971; Rootman, 1972; Spady, 1970; Tinto, 1975). One result has been that there are numerous studies which describe dropping-out behavior, but few which explain it. Perhaps the lack of success of many programs designed as interventions to decrease student attrition can be attributed to a tendency to build programs based upon an awareness of problems rather than an understanding of them. More experimental studies of persistence are clearly needed. A theory of student persistence could give a coordinated direction and structure to these efforts.

RETENTION MODELS

The literature concerning student persistence in higher education is voluminous. Reported outcomes are often contradictory and ambiguous. In order to bring together the overall trends in research, it is useful to have a structure in which to organize the numerous studies concerning this subject. Shulman (1976) has suggested that all the major national studies of retention can be classified as either

quantitative or qualitative. Astin's *Preventing Students From Dropping Out* (1975) is representative of the former; whereas Cope and Hannah's *Revolving College Doors* (1975) is a major work of the latter category. Such an approach is useful, but also needed is a structure which would be helpful both in organizing and interpreting the literature. One of the best of this type of review is the theoretical synthesis of the literature by Tinto (1975).

The Tinto model conceptualizes dropping-out of college as a process rather than an event. The model is restricted to an examination of institutional attrition as opposed to attrition from the higher education system. Persistence is a function of goal and/or institutional commitment resulting from an integrative interaction process between the individual and the institutional environment. The individual enters the college environment with a certain degree of both goal commitment and institutional commitment, reflecting expectations and motivations molded by family and school background and individual attributes. Thus the degree of these dual commitments influences, but does not completely determine, both the likelihood and form of student persistence. After entry the student confronts the task of becoming integrated into the academic and social systems of the college environment. The degree of success of academic and/or social integration will alter goal and/or institutional commitments which are manifested as persistence or lack of persistence at the institution. It should be noted that external factors not directly related to the model, such as family tragedies and financial emergencies, can alter components of the model. Also, individual perceptions of the process vary, adding a subjective element to the model which may lead to unexpected outcomes unless taken into account.

The model needs to be validated by extensive research. It has potential as a rich source of hypotheses relating to the study of retention, as well as an organizational structure assessing the presently available research literature.

For example, one especially notable contribution in Tinto's review of the retention literature is an emphasis upon the differences of variables relating to voluntary withdrawal as opposed to academic dismissal. Voluntary withdrawals appear different in some unexpected ways. This group tends to have higher grades, intellectual development, and socio-economic status than those dismissed for academic reasons and those who persist. The tendency to withdraw seems related to a lack of congruency of the individual with the social and intellectual climate of the institution.

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

The future trends of higher education seem to indicate an ever increasing diversity in terms of the characteristics of students. As students become more diverse, the study of retention becomes more complex and potential contributing variables become more numerous. For example, as the number of adult students increase and as tuition costs rise, more and more campuses may become commuter campuses. Little research has examined the relationship between the place of residence variable and persistence in college. Astin (1975) found that living on campus increased students' chances of persisting in college. This option is available to an increasingly smaller proportion of college students, and it seems this trend will not be reversed in the near future. The task thus becomes identification of elements of the on-campus residence experience which are beneficial to retention, and how these benefits can be made available to commuting students. Foster, Sedlacek and Hardwick (1978), for instance, have identified differences among independent

commuters, dependent commuters, and resident students which should be studied further in terms of retention.

MINORITY STUDENT RETENTION

Another neglected area of retention research has been minority student retention. Astin (1975) has indicated that race as a predictor of attrition is strongest for blacks in predominantly white institutions. Results of eight annual surveys of minority admissions and retention at predominantly white universities (Sedlacek and Webster, 1978) have indicated that private institutions have fared far better than public institutions in both admission and retention of minority students. While public schools have enrolled an average of 4-5% black freshmen, only 2.5% of their returning students in 1976 were black; while private schools were enrolling 6-7% black freshmen and returning 6.4% blacks. It also seems that more blacks transfer to private schools (4%) than to public schools (2.4%). Tinto (1975) has indicated that the literature indicates race is a predictor of attrition independent of ability and socio-economic status, but little has been done to explain why. Sedlacek and Brooks (1976) have indicated that the traditional admissions predictors are inappropriate for culturally different students. Consequently, many minority students who could succeed in college are never admitted. They have suggested using seven key non-cognitive predictors in minority admissions: (1) positive self concept, (2) understands and deals with racism, (3) realistic self-appraisal, (4) preference for long range goals to short-term or immediate needs, (5) availability of a strong support person, (6) successful leadership experience, and (7) demonstrated community service. Unfortunately, the trend seems to be that fewer schools are using different admission criteria for minorities as minority admissions become less of a "hot" political issue (Sedlacek and Webster, 1978).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Persistence in college is an old issue with a new focus. In a space of two decades, higher education has moved from an emphasis upon education for those students selected from a large pool of applicants who could meet institutionally imposed standards to the necessity for the institution to adapt its practices to the educational needs of diverse, but much less numerous, groups of students. The emphasis has consequently changed from a focus upon "attrition" to an emphasis on "retention."

This study examines the themes of retention literature within the context of a theoretical framework and seeks to identify research problems which may be encountered by investigators seeking to examine the phenomenon of persistence in higher education.

Aside from national and local studies, regional studies or cooperative studies among schools sharing applicant pools should be conducted. Also, more studies should be conducted from a theoretical rather than an empirical standpoint. While we do need better measurement of variables and prediction of retention, some studies should focus on why the predictors interrelate as they do.

We also need programmatic research, not just one shot attempts at understanding or explanation. Use of the inductive method, whereby we build upon earlier work ultimately to achieve a higher order conceptualization of retention, is particularly important.

Further work needs to be done on student subgroup differences in attrition. Variables related to student residence, racial group, and sex should all be considered in research and programming for student retention.

Finally, we need to keep in mind the translation of the research results into practical terms which can be understood and utilized by admissions staff, educators, counselors, personnel workers and administrators. The more we can reduce a credibility or knowledge gap, the more all those concerned with higher education will benefit.

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Admission and Retention of Minority Students in Large Universities

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A national survey indicates Black freshman enrollment has increased from 3 percent in 1969 to 5 percent in 1976, down from 6 percent in 1973. Non-Black minority enrollment remains at less than 2 percent for any group. Private schools have more special programs and retain a larger percentage of minority students.

The American College Personnel Association, through its Commission on Assessment for Student Development, has sponsored and partially funded a series of seven consecutive studies on minority admissions to large universities. The staff of the Cultural Study Center and the Counseling Center of the University of Maryland, College Park, have conducted and reported these studies. The unique feature of these studies is that they have focused on admissions criteria as well as the number of entering minority freshmen. In this way, policy and outcomes can be related. Perhaps the biggest problem in education is that there is often great publicity devoted to an educational issue only to have it fade or diminish before we bother to determine what, if anything, happened or changed.

Began in 1969, this series of admissions studies has spanned a time of changing perceptions of minority student admissions. Early in the series, recruiting and selecting minority, particularly Black, students were the big issues. Publicity, demonstrations, turmoil, special programs, and money abounded. After an initial big splash, many schools felt their admissions task was largely over and they turned to other issues and concerns. The studies showed that as the enrollments of all students dropped or remained stable, money-tightened, and governmental pressure subsided, there was a re-trenchment of programs and a reduction in concern for minority admissions. Much recent at-

tention in minority admissions has gone to concerns over reverse discrimination, lawsuits, and student retention. Beyond simply providing the basic data, the yearly surveys have emphasized many of these issues.

Past studies (Sedlacek & Brooks 1970; Sedlacek, Brooks & Horowitz 1972; Sedlacek, Brooks & Mindus 1973; Sedlacek, Lewis & Brooks 1974; Sedlacek, Merritt & Brooks 1975; Sedlacek & Pelham 1976a, b) have shown a number of trends. New Black freshman enrollment rose slowly but steadily from 3 percent in 1969 to 6 percent in 1973, but then dropped to 5 percent in 1974 and 1975. The Middle States and Western area schools made the greatest gains from 1969 to 1975—6 to 13 percent for the Middle States and 5 to 9 percent for the Western—but also made the largest drop in 1974 and 1975 (Middle States to 9%; Western to 5%). The Southern region has made the most steady gains in Black freshman enrollment and was second only to the Middle States in 1975 in percentage of Black freshman enrollment, with 6 percent. Geographical areas are based on regional accrediting associations reported in *Higher Education: Educational Directory of 1974-75* (U.S. Office of Education 1975).

Private schools have generally enrolled a greater percentage of Black students over the years. The schools most successful in enrolling Blacks have tended to emphasize academic programs (special or general), while the least successful schools have tended to emphasize money. Schools that were able to streamline red tape and admit Black students on the spot were also more successful in enrolling Blacks.

In 1975, non-Black minority enrollments of new freshmen were: Hispanic-Americans, 1.3 percent; other minorities, 1.3 percent; Asian-Americans, .8 percent, and American Indians, .3 percent. Western schools had the highest

percentages of non-Black minorities (6% Asian-Americans; 5% Hispanic-Americans). Although 24 percent of the schools reported some impact of tighter budgets on minority admissions programs in 1975, 40 percent reported some impact in 1974.

There are a number of trends suggesting the strong possibility that we may have reached a plateau or could have a decrease in minority admissions in future years. The number of special programs is down, as is the number of schools employing different admissions criteria for minority students. The use of recommendations has not changed and despite considerable evidence of problems in selecting Black students by traditional admissions criteria (Pfeifer & Sedlacek 1974; Sedlacek 1974; Sedlacek & Brooks 1976), most schools continue to employ grades and standardized tests.

The present study was designed to re-survey the large, predominantly white universities in the United States in order to continue to monitor the trends and questions noted above. Particular emphasis was placed on the admissions of non-Black minorities and retention of minority students.

METHOD AND RESULTS

The admissions offices of 110 large, primarily white universities were sent a questionnaire concerning their minority admissions policies. Schools in the major athletic conferences and large independent institutions were included in the sample. If an individual state (including the District of Columbia) was not represented in the sampling method used, the largest school in the state was included.

The questionnaires were mailed out in

November 1976; telephone follow-up procedures resulted in a total return of 103 questionnaires (94%). Of the 103 schools reporting, 85 (83%) were public and 18 (17%) were private. The questions below are directly from the survey.

1. What is your approximate undergraduate enrollment? About how many new freshmen matriculated this fall? About how many new undergraduate transfer students matriculated this fall?

Table 1 shows the range of enrollment, total enrollment, and freshman and transfer student enrollment by six geographical regions for schools in the sample. The median total enrollment was 13,936; median freshman enrollment was 2,561; median transfer enrollment was 1,196. Enrollments for 1976 were close to those of 1975, with median total enrollment somewhat larger and median freshman enrollment somewhat smaller.

2. What is the approximate percentage of students enrolled for each racial/ethnic group?

Table 2 shows the median percentage of Black freshman enrollment by region. The overall percentage of Black freshmen remained at 5 percent, where it has been since 1974 (5% enrollment was first achieved in 1972). The Middle States region showed a large drop and is now at 6 percent, which is what it was in 1969. The Western region increased to 7 percent, up from 5 percent in 1975, although the small number of schools in this region makes yearly fluctuation more expected. The North Central region dropped from 5 percent to 3 percent, what it was in 1969. The fact that the overall percentage remained at 5 percent while most regions actually reported lower percentages is due to rounding. The overall median was 4.67

TABLE 1
Range and Frequency of Enrollments for 103 Schools by Geographical Location

Schools by Region	N	Range of Total Enrollment	Median Total Enrollment	Median Freshman Enrollment	Median Transfer Student Enrollment
North Central	34	3,378-54,000	17,007	3,090	1,385
Southern	27	2,600-45,000	14,750	2,520	1,201
Middle States	19	2,000-42,741	9,692	1,787	850
Northwest	12	2,343-26,560	8,314	2,182	1,013
New England	6	7,500-18,300	8,610	2,108	502
Western	5	6,400-20,487	16,000	3,000	2,143
Totals	103	2,000-54,000	13,936	2,561	1,191

TABLE 2
Median Percentage of Black Freshman Enrollment by Region 1969-1976

Region	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
North Central	3	3	3	5	5	4	5	3
Southern	2	3	3	4	5	5	6	5
Middle States	6	8	8	13	13	9	9	6
Northwest	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1
New England	1	2	2.5	2	3	2	2	2
Western	5	8	6	4	9	4	5	7
Median	3	4	4	5	6	5	5	5

TABLE 3
Median Percentage of Non-Black Minority Freshman Enrollment by Region 1975-1976

Region	Hispanic-American		American Indian		Asian-American		Other Minority	
	1975	1976	1975	1976	1975	1976	1975	1976
North Central	1.2	1.0	.5	.3	.9	.7	1.0	1.4
Southern	.7	.4	.1	.1	.5	.2	.5	1.3
Middle States	1.8	1.7	.1	.4	.7	1.1	3.0	8.0
Northwest	1.8	.4	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.3	2.0	1.3
New England	.3	.5			.5	1		
Western	5.0	6.9	.2	.3	6.0	14.0		3.6
Median	1.3	1.0	.3	.2	.8	.6	1.3	1.7

percent. Regional fluctuations are less stable than the overall percentages.

In data not tabled, private schools (6%) indicated a higher median percentage of new Black freshman enrollment than did public schools (4%) in 1976. This difference has been: 1975—private 7 percent, public 4 percent; 1974—private 5 percent, public 4.5 percent; 1973—private 6 percent, public 7 percent; 1972—private 6 percent, public 5 percent; 1971 and 1970—private 6 percent, public 4 percent. Data were not reported for 1969. Private schools have enrolled a greater percentage of new Black freshmen than have public schools over the years of this survey.

Table 3 shows the median percentage of non-Black minority freshman enrollment by region for 1975 and 1976. The Western region remains the region enrolling the most non-Black minority freshmen, particularly Asian-Americans and Hispanic-Americans. The Middle States region enrolls the most other minorities. Overall, non-Black enrollments are similar for 1975 and 1976. Percentages are reported to one decimal place, but readers are cautioned against overinterpreting percentage differences based on small numbers.

Percentages of non-Black minority freshman enrollment for public and private schools in

1976 were: Hispanic-Americans—public .9 percent, private 1.7 percent; American Indians—public .2 percent, private .04 percent; Asian-Americans—public .5 percent, private 1.9 percent; other minority—public 1.5 percent, private 2.5 percent. Private schools tended to enroll a greater percentage of non-Black minority freshmen than did public schools.

Table 4 shows the median percentage of returning and transfer students for all minority student groups by type of institution. The purpose of requesting these data was to achieve an overview of the minority admissions and retention process. The categories are mutually exclusive.

Forty-one (40%) schools provided data on minority transfer students and 56 (54%) schools provided data on minority returning students. Overall percentages of returning and transfer students were very close to one another and closely paralleled the freshman percentages for each group, with the exception of Blacks. Blacks were 2.4 percent of the transfer students and 3.1 percent of the returning students, compared to 5 percent of the new freshmen.

Table 4 also shows that private schools have consistently enrolled a higher percentage of minority transfer and returning students for all minority groups except American Indian, where

TABLE 4
Median Percentage of Transfer and Returning Minority Students by Type of Institution 1976

Students	N	Hispanic-American	American Indian	Asian-American	Black American	Other Minority
Transfer						
Total	41	.8	.2	.6	2.4	1.8
Public	34	.5	.2	.5	2.4	1.7
Private	7	2.0	.2	1.3	4.0	3.0
Returning						
Total	56	.7	.2	.5	3.1	1.8
Public	45	.5	.2	.4	2.5	1.7
Private	11	1.4	.2	2.1	6.3	4.0

they were equal to the public schools. Because of the relatively smaller number of private schools reporting, the sample may be biased, although about the same relative percentage of public and private schools responded as were in the total sample.

3. Briefly describe your regular admissions criteria for new freshmen.

High school rank (60%), high school grade point average (62%), and standardized tests (SAT, 62% and ACT, 52%) remained the most common admissions criteria employed by schools. Other regular admissions criteria were CEEB achievement tests (10%), extracurricular activities (5%), interviews (2%), and predicted grade point average (2%). Eight percent had open admissions in 1976 (defined as requiring only a high school diploma or its equivalent for entry), which compares to 13 percent in 1975, 8 percent in 1974, 16 percent in 1973 and 1972, 12 percent in 1971 and 1970, and 10 percent in 1969.

The mean number of admissions criteria employed by all schools was 2.77 in 1976, 2.48 in 1975, 2.29 in 1974, 2.90 in 1973, 2.77 in 1972, 3.17 in 1971, 3.32 in 1970, and 2.05 in 1969. After a drop in 1974, schools have employed increasingly more criteria in 1975 and 1976. The use of recommendations dropped to 14 percent in 1976, which continued the trend toward less use of recommendations in recent years: 19 percent in 1975 and 1974, 28 percent in 1973, 29 percent in 1972, 33 percent in 1971, 34 percent in 1970, and 13 percent in 1969.

4. Do you have special programs in which minorities, or mostly minorities are enrolled? If yes, briefly describe the criteria for admission to the program(s).

Thirty-eight percent of the schools had special programs in which mostly Blacks were enrolled, compared to 55 percent in 1975, 62 percent in 1974, 50 percent in 1973, 54 percent in 1972, 60 percent in 1971, 52 percent in 1970, and 48 percent in 1969. For special programs, relatively more weight was given to high school grade point average and rank and recommendations and less weight to standardized tests. While this follows the general pattern of past years, the use of recommendations among schools with special programs remained low: 10 percent in 1976, 8 percent in 1975, 7 percent in 1974, 24 percent in 1973, 43 percent in 1972, 23 percent in 1971, 38 percent in 1970, and 43 percent in 1969.

There continued to be little emphasis on high school grade average, SAT, and ACT in admitting Blacks to special programs in 1976. High school grade average was used by 12 percent of the schools with special programs in 1976, compared to 7 percent in 1975, 9 percent in 1974, 20 percent in 1973, 36 percent in 1972, 26 percent in 1971, 46 percent in 1970, and 55 percent in 1969. SAT was used by 7 percent in 1976 and 1975, 3 percent in 1974, 13 percent in 1973, 26 percent in 1972, 18 percent in 1971, 39 percent in 1970, and 57 percent in 1969. ACT was used by 7 percent in 1976, 3 percent in 1975, 4 percent in 1974, 9 percent in 1973, 12 percent in 1972, 9 percent in 1971, 5 percent in 1970, and 10 percent in 1969. Four percent of all schools reported having special programs in which primarily non-Black minorities were enrolled, making a total of 42 percent of the schools with some special programs in which mostly minority students were enrolled.

5. Aside from special programs, are Blacks admitted under the same criteria as are all regu-

lar new freshmen? If no, briefly describe how the criteria differ.

Thirteen percent of the 103 schools used different regular admissions criteria for Blacks in 1976, compared to 9 percent in 1975, 13 percent in 1974, 14 percent in 1973, 26 percent in 1972, 20 percent in 1971, 36 percent in 1970, and 45 percent in 1969. "Different criteria of admission" was generally interpreted by admissions officers as referring to different applications or cut-off points of the same variables used in regular admissions. Private schools tended to use different admissions criteria more than public schools did in 1976 (20% vs. 11%) and in previous years (20% vs. 7% in 1975; 35% vs. 8% in 1974; 17% vs. 11% in 1973; 50% vs. 20% in 1972; 52% vs. 20% in 1971; and 75% vs. 26% in 1970—the higher percentage being private in all cases).

Thirty-nine percent of the public schools and 55 percent of the private schools had special programs for Blacks in 1976. Both public and private schools had 55 percent in 1975; public 65 percent, private 50 percent in 1974; public 50 percent, private 50 percent in 1973; public 53 percent, private 55 percent in 1972; public 58 percent, private 67 percent in 1971; and public 54 percent, private 45 percent in 1970.

DISCUSSION

Black freshman enrollment in large universities was 3 percent in fall 1969 and only 5 percent in fall 1976, the level reached in 1972. The largest percentage of Black freshman enrollment was 6 percent in fall 1973. The enrollment of non-Black minority freshmen was about the same in fall 1976 as it was in fall 1975 and ranged from .2 percent American Indians to 1.7 percent minorities other than Hispanic or Asian-American.

The American Council on Education (ACE) (Astin, King & Richardson 1976) estimated a 6.9 percent Black freshman enrollment for 1976, which is up from 5.4 percent in 1975 and 3.4 percent in 1974. It should be noted that the ACE data represent Black freshmen in all universities and are based on a weighted sampling procedure rather than a census of nearly the entire population of large universities as was used in this study. Thus differences between the ACE data and those presented here could be due to many variables, but if there has been an in-

crease in Black freshmen, it does not appear to be in the large universities.

The ACE figures on non-Black minorities are .7 percent Hispanic-Americans and American Indians, 1.4 percent Asian-Americans, and 1.2 percent other minorities. The largest discrepancy between data in the current study and ACE data are more American Indians and Asian-Americans reported in the ACE study. The higher Asian-American estimate in the ACE study was also present in 1975 and, again, may be due to differences in the populations studied.

A number of variables seem to indicate a stability or possible downturn in the numbers of minority freshmen entering large universities; most trends are holding steady. The use of recommendations for general admission is down, the number of special programs for minorities is down sharply in public schools but steady in private schools, the average number of admissions criteria employed by both public and private schools is up, and the number of schools employing different admissions criteria for minorities has dropped in 1975 and 1976—all of these factors show trends back to 1969 levels. The very large decrease in Black freshman enrollment in the Middle States region since 1973 (13% to 6%) could be important since that region has been the trendsetter in the past.

The decrease in special programs can be linked to tighter state and federal budgets, which were also cited by schools as problems in 1974 and 1975 (Sedlacek & Pelham 1976a, b). As noted earlier, however, schools emphasizing money in recruiting Black students have done the poorest in increasing minority enrollment, while those emphasizing programs and streamlined admissions procedures have done the best (Sedlacek, Merritt & Brooks 1975).

It appears that private schools have not only performed better than public schools in enrolling minority students, but they have done a better job of retaining them (see Table 4). For instance, while public schools have been enrolling an average of 4 or 5 percent new Black freshmen in recent years, only 2.5 percent of their returning 1976 students are Black. Private schools, however, have been enrolling an average of 6 or 7 percent new Black freshmen and have a 6.3 percent return rate for Blacks. Private schools report an average of 4 percent Black transfer students, compared to 2.4 percent for public schools. This same general pat-

tern follows for non-Black minorities, although only two years of freshman data are available (see Table 3).

The concern over minority student retention has increased in recent years and there is growing evidence that nonacademic and noncognitive variables may play a more critical role in retention than grades and test scores do. For instance, Astin (1975) found that Black students were more likely to leave school for financial reasons or marriage when compared to white students. He also found that Blacks who were able to demonstrate knowledge gained in non-traditional ways through credit-by-examination were less likely to drop out than Blacks who did not take credit-by-examination. The increase in student retention associated with being able to demonstrate knowledge in nontraditional ways was more than twice as great for Blacks as for whites.

Sedlacek and Brooks (1976), in reviewing studies of nontraditional or noncognitive predictors useful in predicting minority student success or diagnosing potential problem areas, concluded that there were seven key noncognitive variables:

1. Positive self-concept: Confidence, strong self feeling, strength of character, determination, independence.

2. Understands and deals with racism: Realist, based on personal experience of racism. Committed to fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, nor hateful of society, nor a copout. Able to handle racist system: Asserts that the school has a role in fighting racism.

3. Realistic self-appraisal: Recognizes and accepts any academic or background deficiencies and works hard at self-development.

4. Prefers long-range goals to short-term or immediate needs: Understands and is willing to accept deferred gratification.

5. Availability of a strong support person: Has a person of strong influence available to provide advice.

6. Successful leadership experience: Has shown the ability to organize and influence others within one's cultural and racial contexts.

7. Demonstrated community service: Has shown evidence of contributing to his or her community.

All of the above variables can be practically assessed by counselors or through interviews, counseling sessions, standardized measures,

questionnaires, or application forms. The process of gathering such information should be compatible with existing programs without involving significant costs.

Many administrators and educators are concerned with the implications of any minority admissions policies for possible reverse discrimination lawsuits. The use of the seven noncognitive variables has been recommended by the Association of American Medical Colleges as a way to achieve equality and be prepared for possible lawsuits (Association of American Medical Colleges 1976; D'Costa et al. 1974). The basis of most reverse discrimination lawsuits has been the accusation by a white applicant of preferential admission based on race or ethnic group. If a school were to employ a systematic minority admissions procedure based on empirical studies that showed the procedure to be valid, it would be in a good position to avoid lawsuits.

We suggest that the seven noncognitive variables are also important for white applicants but the way we go about gathering our admissions information favors white applicants since we tend to get noncognitive information for them routinely. Tests and application forms tend to tap the life-styles and culture of middle-class whites more than any other group. For instance, a minority applicant who has shown leadership in a community project rather than the biology club might not be as likely to write it on the application because of the way the question is worded and his or her lack of information on what is appropriate to include.

In admissions and retention, our short-term goal is equality of information for use in making decisions and planning programs. That is, we want the most useful information we can obtain for each student. If we must work harder, or use different methods to secure information from some applicants, so be it. Ultimately, the consideration of good information on all applicants should result in an unbiased selection of students and an increase in minority students.

CONCLUSIONS

An eight-year monitoring of trends and issues in minority freshman admissions to large universities seems to indicate that we have reached a plateau or are on the brink of a decrease in the numbers of minority freshmen. Private schools

appear to be doing a better job of retaining minority students than public schools do. This may be due in part to the fact that the number of special programs has remained fairly constant in private schools but has declined sharply in public schools. It is recommended that schools make more use of nontraditional or noncognitive variables in admitting minority students: Enough evidence currently exists for the use of some nontraditional measures by all schools. It appears that continued research, both local and national, on this topic would be useful. In particular, a study of the reasons for the relative success of private schools is appropriate.

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Fields of Professional Interest:

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Situational Attitude Scale (SAS) with Glenwood C. Brooks, Jr. The SAS is a
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Editorships:

Editor, Counseling and Personnel Services Journal, University of Maryland, College
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Editorial Boards: College Student Journal, 1972-75

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Honors and Awards:

Research Fellowship - Greater Kansas City Mental Health Foundation, 1962-63.
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Expert Testimony in legal cases:

Evans vs. Sheraton Park Hotel, et al., U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia, Civil Action No. 1216-71, 1972.
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Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Baltimore Regional Office vs. IBM Corporation, U.S. District Court for the District of Maryland, Civil Action No. R-80-1408, 1983.

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American Personnel and Guidance Association representative to the College Entrance Examination Board, 1972-77.

Abstractor, Journal of Negro Education, in Psychological Abstracts, 1971-75.

Standardized Testing Committee, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976-77.

Reviewer of books and materials, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1977-80.

Member of Advisory Committee to Howard University College of Medicine concerning prediction of student success, 1978-79.

Program Evaluator for U.S. Public Health Services, 1976.

Chairman, Task Force on Minority Admissions, United States Coast Guard Academy, 1979-80.

Panelist, application review, U.S. Department of Education, 1979-81.

Member of the National Advisory Board, Health Resources Administration, on a study of training staff and improving patient care in Hospices across the United States, 1979-81.

Member of Task Force to Evaluate the Minority Affairs Program at the School of Public Health at Harvard University, 1982.

PROFESSIONAL CONSULTING

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Experience

Graduate Assistant - Iowa State University, 1960-61.

Assisted in the teaching of industrial and general psychology courses, including constructing and scoring examinations.

Director of Summer Employment - Placement Center, Kansas State University, 1961-62.

Responsible for summer employment program including interviewing students, contacting organizations and evaluating opportunities. Conducted some placement surveys.

Research Fellow - Greater Kansas City Mental Health Foundation, 1962-63.

Engaged in personnel research in public and private industry, including the design of several studies. Administered various psychological instruments and interviewed employees.

Research Assistant - Placement Center, Kansas State University, 1963-64.

Responsible for intra-university communication on placement activities. Conducted several placement surveys.

Instructor - Evening College, Kansas State University, 1964.

Taught undergraduate courses in personnel psychology.

Research Psychologist - Association of American Medical Colleges, 1964-66.

Engaged in research relating to medical education involving selection and evaluation of students and physicians and evaluation of various aspects of medical education. Had both major and advisory responsibilities for varied research projects.

Visiting Lecturer - National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, 1966-67.

Taught graduate courses in group dynamics, statistics and individual differences.

Associate Professor (part-time), Roosevelt University, Chicago, Illinois, 1966-67.

Taught graduate and undergraduate courses in statistics, learning and experimental psychology.

Assistant Director for Basic Research (Acting), Division of Education, Association of American Medical Colleges, 1966-67.

Responsibility for administering the Office of Basic Research. Designed and conducted studies relating to medical education. Administered dissemination of research to schools and researchers.

Research Advisor, Cultural Study Center, University of Maryland, 1969-1976.

Advise and help design studies relating to the interaction among student cultural subgroups. Research is done from the point of view of people within a given culture. The object of the research is organizational change.

Assistant Professor - Department of Measurement & Statistics, College of Education, University of Maryland, 1967-1971.

Teach courses in measurement, statistics and research.

Associate Professor - Department of Measurement and Statistics, College of Education, University of Maryland, 1971 -

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Responsibility for University testing programs and the research program on student life. Design and conduct studies on the University as a social system. Coordinate data processing for all Student Affairs offices. Supervise and coordinate the activities of professional staff and graduate students.

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PROPOSED SCHEDULE FOR DR. WILLIAM SEDLACEK'S VISIT
FEBRUARY 16 & 17

THURSDAY

- 10:00 a.m. Arrive at RDU Airport
- 11:00-12:00 Meet with the following persons to discuss the analysis of the Entering Minority Student Survey:
- 12:00-1:30 p.m. LUNCH
- 1:30-3:00 NCHEMS Committee Meeting - Minority Recruitment Factors that relate to Minority Retention
- 3:15-4:30 Meet with Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads from ALS, ENG, PAMS; Admissions Representative, and Student Affairs. Topic: Retention of Minorities and how Academic Advising can assist in retention efforts.

FRIDAY

- Academic Skills*
8:30-10:00 Retention of Minorities - Special Programs to assist ;in retention of minorities
- 10:30-12:00 Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from TX, FR, DESIGN, ED, Admissions, & Student Affairs
- 12:00-2:00 LUNCH
- 2:00-4:00 Meet with group to discuss how to translate the research findings on the use of non-cognitive predictions of academic success into admissions policy and practice. Participants: H. Fuller, T. Conway, M. Downs, L. Clark, N. Winstead, A. Keller, T. Stafford, B. Rogers

Schedule for Dr. William Sedlacek's Visit

February 16 and 17

University Student Center
Brown Room

Thursday, February 16

- 10:00 a.m. Arrive at RDU Airport
- 11:00 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Analysis of Entering Minority Student Survey
Meet to discuss the analysis of the survey with the following: H. Fuller, C. Davis-Palcic, B. Rogers, D. Hughes, T. Stafford, L. Clark, M. Downs
- 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. Lunch provided by University Dining
- 1:30 - 3:00 p.m. TOPIC: Factors Relating to Minority Selection and Retention
NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Committee
- 3:15 - 4:45 p.m. TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Engineering, Agriculture and Life Sciences and Physical and Mathematical Sciences; Student Affairs representatives; Admissions staff

Friday, February 17

- 8:30 - 10:00 a.m. TOPIC: Special Programs and the Retention of Minorities
Staff from Academic Skills Program and Mentor Program
- 10:30 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Humanities and Social Sciences, Forest Resources, Design, Education, Textiles; Student Affairs and Admissions Staff
- 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. Lunch provided by University Dining
- 1:30 - 2:30 p.m. TOPIC: Counseling Programs and Their Role in Minority Retention
L. Salter, Director of Counseling Center and staff
- 3:00 - 4:30 p.m. Informal discussion: How to translate research findings on the use of non-cognitive predictors of academic success into selection practice and other issues.
N. Winstead, Provost; T. Stafford, Interim Vice-Chancellor of Student Affairs; M. Downs, Associate Provost; L. Clark, Associate Provost and Affirmative Action Officer; A. Keller, Director of Admissions; H. Fuller, Director of Academic Skills Program; B. Rogers, Assistant Institutional Research Officer
- 6:00 p.m. Flight leaving RDU Airport

Poe Hall
Rm. 205

Alvin Hunter
2776



North Carolina State University

202 Peele Hall
Box 5505, Raleigh 27650

Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776

February 7, 1984

MEMORANDUM

TO: J. Brown, A. Mann, B. Allen, T. Conway, L. Jones, B. Solomon,
M. Gransee, M. Jernigan, L. Stiff, B. Savage, C. Mills, H. Fuller,
L. Clark, E. Thompson

FROM: Brenda Rogers *BHR*

SUBJECT: Dr. William Sedlacek's Visit

Dr. William Sedlacek, Director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland, will be visiting our campus on February 16 and 17. A series of presentations, co-sponsored by the Provost's Office and the NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Project, is planned.

You are invited to a session on "Special Programs and the Retention of Minorities" for the Academic Skills and Mentor Programs. The session is scheduled for Friday, February 17, from 8:30 - 10:00 a.m. in the Brown Room of the University Student Center.

Dr. Sedlacek will be presenting to the University community a program on "The Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising" at two times: 3:15 - 4:45 p.m. on Thursday, February 16; and 10:30 - 12:00 Noon on Friday, February 17. Both sessions will be held in the Brown Room of the University Center. I hope that you will also be able to attend one of these presentations.

BR/kw





North Carolina State University

202 Peele Hall
Box 5505, Raleigh 27650

Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776

February 7, 1984

MEMORANDUM

TO: NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Committee
FROM: Brenda H. Rogers *BHR*
SUBJECT: Dr. Sedlacek's Visit

As we discussed at the meeting on February 3, Dr. William Sedlacek, Director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland, will be visiting our campus on February 16 and 17. A series of activities, co-sponsored by the Provost's Office and the NCHEMS/Kellogg Project, is planned.

Dr. Sedlacek will meet with our committee to discuss "Factors Relating to Minority Selection and Retention" on Thursday, February 16 from 1:30 - 3:00 p.m. in the Brown Room of the University Student Center.

University Dining will be catering lunch at 12:00 noon. If you would like to join Dr. Sedlacek for lunch prior to the meeting, please call me at Ext. 2776 to make reservations by February 10. If I am not in, leave a message for me or Alvin Sumter, the office assistant for the project.

I hope that you will attend one of the sessions on "The Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising," scheduled at two times: 3:15 - 4:45 p.m. on Thursday, February 16; and 10:30 - 12:00 noon on Friday, February 17. Both sessions will be held in the Brown Room of the University Student Center.

BR/kw



~~Richard Allison - 3386~~

~~Donald Carroll - 2959 WC~~

~~D. Keith Cassell - 2643~~

~~James Clark - 3870~~

~~Dr. John Franke 3200-~~

~~Dr. Wilma Hammett 2770~~

~~Ms. Londa Kish, Char 3276 WC~~

~~Gary Mock - 2551~~

~~Raymond Save 2302 WC~~

~~Fred Smetana 365 WC~~
Will be in class Thurs
out of town on Friday

~~Clayton Stalaker 2479 WC~~

~~George Wahl 2941~~

~~Dr. Sawhney - 2491~~

To

Time Date 2/16

While You Were



M ^{Dr.} Today ~~Gay~~ Sawhney

of Tomorrow Sandra Kirsh

Phone No. Academic Policy

Comm. of Fac. Servs

Telephoned Please call back

Called to see you Will call again

Left the following message:—

Rose Centry

personal invitation

Clark

from

Operator



North Carolina State University

202 Peele Hall
Box 5505, Raleigh 27650

Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776

February 3, 1984



Dr. William Sedlacek
Counseling Center
Office of Vice Chancellor for Student
Affairs
University of Maryland
Shoemaker Hall
College Park, Maryland 20742

Dear Dr. Sedlacek:

As director of the NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Project at North Carolina State University, I am assisting Larry Clark in coordinating your visit on February 16 and 17. The project will be co-sponsoring your visit with the Provost's Office.

As I said on the telephone, the focus of the project has been the recruitment and retention of minorities. We would like for you to focus on the issues of minority selection and retention. Attached is a copy of the report Black Students at North Carolina State University: A History and Profile. The report raised fourteen issues. We would like for you to address these four issues:

- (1) There is a need to look for additional factors to be used in the admissions process for black undergraduate admissions exceptions.
- (2) There is a need for the enhancement of the academic advising and counseling of black students.
- (3) There is a need to reduce the increasing attrition rate among black freshmen.
- (4) There is a need to ensure that black freshmen with academic deficiencies take advantage of the academic support services available to them.

We are inviting selected target groups on campus for your presentations. There is an attempt to involve faculty in a discussion of the minority issues.

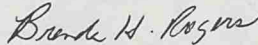
continued...

Dr. Sedlacek
February 3, 1984
Page 2

A schedule of your activities is included.

Please call either me or Larry Clark if you have questions about your visit. I look forward to meeting you.

Sincerely,



Brenda H. Rogers
Assistant Institutional Research Officer

BHR/kbw

Enclosures

CC: Larry Clark
Murray Downs

P.S. Please send me a copy of your resume for introductory remarks.

Schedule for Dr. William Sedlacek's Visit

February 16 and 17

University Student Center
Brown Room

Thursday, February 16

- 10:00 a.m. Arrive at RDU Airport
- 11:00 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Analysis of Entering Minority Student Survey
Meet to discuss the analysis of the survey with the following: H. Fuller, C. Davis-Palcic, B. Rogers, D. Hughes, T. Stafford, L. Clark, M. Downs
- 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. Lunch provided by University Dining
- 1:30 - 3:00 p.m. TOPIC: Factors Relating to Minority Selection and Retention
NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Committee
- 3:15 - 4:45 p.m. TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Engineering, Agriculture and Life Sciences and Physical and Mathematical Sciences; Student Affairs representatives; Admissions staff

Friday, February 17

- 8:30 - 10:00 a.m. TOPIC: Special Programs and the Retention of Minorities
Staff from Academic Skills Program and Mentor Program
- 10:30 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Humanities and Social Sciences, Forest Resources, Design, Education, Textiles; Student Affairs and Admissions Staff
- 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. Lunch provided by University Dining
- 1:30 - 2:30 p.m. TOPIC: Counseling Programs and Their Role in Minority Retention
L. Salter, Director of Counseling Center and staff
- 3:00 - 4:30 p.m. Informal discussion: How to translate research findings on the use of non-cognitive predictors of academic success into selection practice and other issues.
N. Winstead, Provost; T. Stafford, Interim Vice-Chancellor of Student Affairs; M. Downs, Associate Provost; L. Clark, Associate Provost and Affirmative Action Officer; A. Keller, Director of Admissions; H. Fuller, Director of Academic Skills Program; B. Rogers, Assistant Institutional Research Officer
- 6:00 p.m. Flight leaving RDU Airport



North Carolina State University

P. O. Box 5067, Raleigh, N. C. 27650

Office of the Provost
and Vice-Chancellor

February 10, 1984

MEMORANDUM TO: Minority Coordinators
Associate Deans
Department Heads
Faculty

FROM: Dr. Larry Clark *Larry*
Associate Provost

SUBJECT: Dr. William Sedlacek's Presentation

Dr. William Sedlacek, Director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland, will be visiting on campus on February 16 and 17 to discuss minority retention. He will address the topic "Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising" at two different times. The sessions are open to all faculty and staff. I hope that the Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads will be able to attend the session designed specifically for their respective schools. However, if there are scheduling conflicts, please attend the alternate session.

The presentations will be held in the Brown Room of the University Student Center. The schedule is as follows:

Thursday, February 16

3:15 - 4:45 p.m. - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads from the Schools of Agriculture and Life Sciences, Engineering, and Physical and Mathematical Sciences.

Friday, February 17

10:30 - 12:00 Noon - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Design, Education, Forest Resources, Textiles, Humanities and Social Sciences and Veterinary Medicine.

LC/ci



North Carolina State University

P. O. Box 5067, Raleigh, N. C. 27650

*Copy to Chancellor
Poultton
2/9/84*

Office of the Provost
and Vice-Chancellor

February 9, 1984

MEMORANDUM

TO: Minority Coordinators
Associate Deans
Department Heads
Faculty

FROM: Dr. Larry Clark *Larry*
Associate Provost

SUBJECT: Dr. William Sedlacek's Presentation

Dr. William Sedlacek, Director of the Counseling Center at the University of Maryland, will be visiting on campus on February 16 and 17 to discuss minority retention. He will address the topic "Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising" at two different times. The sessions are open to all faculty and staff. I hope that the Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads will be able to attend the session designed specifically for their respective schools. However, if there are scheduling conflicts, please attend the alternate session.

The presentations will be held in the Brown Room of the University Student Center. The schedule is as follows:

Thursday, February 16

3:15 - 4:45 p.m. - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans, and Department Heads from the Schools of Agriculture and Life Sciences, Engineering, and Physical and Mathematical Sciences.

Friday, February 17

10:30 - 12:00 Noon - Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Design, Education, Forest Resources, and Textiles.

LC:dm



North Carolina State University

202 Peele Hall
Box 5505, Raleigh 27650

Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776



February 6, 1984

MEMORANDUM

TO: Absent NCHEMS/Kellogg Committee Members
FROM: Dr. Brenda H. Rogers *BHR*
SUBJECT: Data Exchange

Enclosed are four pieces of information that were distributed at the February 3rd meeting.

1. Comparative Data on Black Students in Higher Education
2. Undergraduate Academic Warnings and Suspensions, End of Fall 1983 Semester
3. Retention Data
4. Schedule for Dr. William Sedlacek's visit

If you have any questions regarding this information please contact me.

BHR:dmm

Enclosures

Schedule for Dr. William Sedlacek's Visit

February 16 and 17

University Student Center
Brown Room

Thursday, February 16

- 10:00 a.m. Arrive at RDU Airport
- 11:00 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Analysis of Entering Minority Student Survey
Meet to discuss the analysis of the survey with the following: H. Fuller, C. Davis-Palcic, B. Rogers, D. Hughes, T. Stafford, L. Clark, M. Downs
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- 1:30 - 3:00 p.m. TOPIC: Factors Relating to Minority Selection and Retention
NCHEMS/Kellogg Student Outcomes Committee
- 3:15 - 4:45 p.m. TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Engineering, Agriculture and Life Sciences and Physical and Mathematical Sciences; Student Affairs representatives; Admissions staff

Friday, February 17

- 8:30 - 10:00 a.m. TOPIC: Special Programs and the Retention of Minorities
Staff from Academic Skills Program and Mentor Program
- 10:30 - 12:00 Noon TOPIC: Retention of Minority Students and Academic Advising
Minority Coordinators, Associate Deans and Department Heads from the Schools of Humanities and Social Sciences, Forest Resources, Design, Education, Textiles; Student Affairs and Admissions Staff
- 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. Lunch provided by University Dining
- 1:30 - 2:30 p.m. TOPIC: Counseling Programs and Their Role in Minority Retention
L. Salter, Director of Counseling Center and staff
- 3:00 - 4:30 p.m. Informal discussion: How to translate research findings on the use of non-cognitive predictors of academic success into selection practice and other issues.
N. Winstead, Provost; T. Stafford, Interim Vice-Chancellor of Student Affairs; M. Downs, Associate Provost; L. Clark, Associate Provost and Affirmative Action Officer; A. Keller, Director of Admissions; H. Fuller, Director of Academic Skills Program; B. Rogers, Assistant Institutional Research Officer
- 6:00 p.m. Flight leaving RDU Airport



North Carolina State University

202 Peele Hall
Box 5505, Raleigh 27650

Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776

MEMORANDUM

TO: NCHEMS/Kellogg Committee Members
FROM: Dr. Brenda Rogers *BR*
SUBJECT: Retention Data
DATE: February 3, 1984

Attached are three pages from this year's retention report which will be distributed on campus soon. The report Black Students at North Carolina State University drew some conclusions based on the 1982 retention data. These conclusions are examined with respect to the new data.

The report concluded that "the number of black freshmen who do not return to NCSU after their freshman year is increasing slightly." From the first table, we find that the percentage of the 1982 black cohort who continued at NCSU after their first year is higher this year than last year - 84% for the 1982 cohort as contrasted to 80% for the 1981 cohort and 82% for the 1980 cohort. However, the continuation rate for the 1982 black cohort is 2 percentage points lower than for whites. This lower continuation rate for blacks is attributable to the higher suspension rate. Six percent (6%) of blacks in the 1982 freshman cohort were suspended as contrasted to 3% of whites.

On the second table are data on master's students. In the report, we concluded that "a majority of the black master's degree students who withdraw from NCSU do so the first year of enrollment." Of the 1982 master's cohort, 27% of blacks withdrew as contrasted with 20% of whites. The data tend to support the conclusion in the report. Three percent (3%) of black master's students in the 1982 cohort were suspended as contrasted to none of the white students. The first year withdrawal rate for blacks is higher for the 1982 master's cohort than the 1981 cohort (27% vs. 5%). The suspension rate for blacks in the 1982 master's cohort is somewhat lower than the 1981 cohort (3% vs. 5%).

The final table presents data for doctoral students. The conclusion in the report was that "the first year withdrawal rates for black doctoral students has been declining in recent years." The data for the 1982 cohort do not support this conclusion. Twenty-one percent (21%) of the 1982 black doctoral students withdrew

continued...

whereas 17% of the 1981 black doctoral students withdrew. The suspension rate for black doctoral students was 7% as contrasted to zero for whites.

The number of blacks in the master's and doctoral cohorts is small, so percentages may be somewhat misleading. However, some of the earlier trends have reversed this year. The higher continuation rates of the 1982 black freshman cohort is a positive outcome.

BR/kw

Attachments

CC: Minority Coordinators
Dr. Clauston Jenkins
Dr. Richard Howard

TABLE IV. 1
STATUS AT BEGINNING OF EACH YEAR SINCE ENTRY, FRESHMEN BY RACE

Cohort	Beginning of																				
	Year 2			Year 3			Year 4			Year 5			Year 6			Year 7					
	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot			
1977	Continuing	79%	77%	79%	70%	71%	70%	69%	65%	68%	35%	41%	35%	10%	16%	16%	5%	6%	5%		
	Suspended	9	13	9	10	16	10	9	14	9	9	14	10	10	16	10	10	16	10		
	Withdrew	12	11	12	20	13	19	23	20	23	26	26	26	28	33	28	29	33	29		
	Graduated	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	18	29	52	36	51	57	46	56		
	(N)	(2367)(159)(2605)																			
1978	Continuing	82%	82%	82%	71%	70%	71%	66%	66%	65%	37%	41%	37%	11%	18%	12%					
	Suspended	5	10	6	5	13	6	6	16	7	7	18	8	7	19	8					
	Withdrew	13	7	12	23	17	23	28	18	27	29	23	29	32	29	32					
	Graduated	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	18	26	49	34	48					
	(N)	(2507)(229)(2851)																			
1979	Continuing	83%	86%	43%	72%	72%	72%	66%	65%	66%	38%	42%	38%								
	Suspended	3	5	3	5	10	6	6	13	7	6	15	7								
	Withdrew	14	8	14	23	17	23	27	22	27	30	29	30								
	Graduated	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	14	24								
	(N)	(2686)(221)(3029)																			
1980	Continuing	84%	82%	84%	73%	75%	73%	68%	70%	68%											
	Suspended	3	6	3	5	10	6	6	13	7											
	Withdrew	13	12	13	22	15	21	25	16	25											
	Graduated	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0											
	(N)	(2908)(268)(3254)																			
1981	Continuing	84%	80%	84%	74%	69%	73%														
	Suspended	3	7	4	5	11	6														
	Withdrew	12	13	13	21	20	21														
	Graduated	0	0	0	0	0	0														
	(N)	(2546)(326)(2935)																			
1982	Continuing	86%	84%	86%																	
	Suspended	3	6	3																	
	Withdrew	11	10	11																	
	Graduated	0	0	0																	
	(N)	(2611)(321)(3026)																			

TABLE IV. 7
STATUS AT BEGINNING OF EACH YEAR SINCE ENTRY, MASTER'S STUDENTS BY RACE

Cohort	Beginning of																		
	Year 2			Year 3			Year 4			Year 5			Year 6			Year 7			
	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	Wht	Blk	Tot	
1977	Continuing	74%	67%	74%	36%	40%	37%	13%	20%	13%	5%	20%	5%	2%	0%	2%	1%	0%	1%
	Suspended	0	0	0	2	13	3	2	13	2	2	13	3	2	20	3	2	20	3
	Withdrawn	24	33	23	39	33	36	39	47	38	39	47	37	38	53	36	34	47	33
	Graduated	2	0	2	23	13	24	46	20	47	54	20	55	57	27	59	62	33	63
	(N)	(374)(15)(464)																	
1978	Continuing	82%	80%	81%	41%	55%	40%	18%	25%	15%	7%	0%	5%	4%	0%	3%			
	Suspended	0	5	1	1	10	2	1	15	2	1	15	2	1	15	2			
	Withdrawn	16	15	16	33	25	32	34	25	32	33	25	31	32	20	30			
	Graduated	2	0	2	24	10	26	47	35	51	59	60	61	63	65	64			
	(N)	(323) (20)(459)																	
1979	Continuing	76%	75%	75%	46%	55%	43%	17%	35%	16%	6%	10%	6%						
	Suspended	0	10	1	1	25	3	1	20	3	1	20	3						
	Withdrawn	21	10	22	32	5	31	37	5	36	35	15	33						
	Graduated	2	5	2	21	15	23	44	40	45	57	55	58						
	(N)	(385) (20)(515)																	
1980	Continuing	79%	65%	79%	40%	38%	38%	15%	15%	14%									
	Suspended	1	0	1	2	4	3	3	4	4									
	Withdrawn	18	35	18	36	38	36	36	46	35									
	Graduated	1	0	1	22	19	23	45	35	47									
	(N)	(384) (26)(488)																	
1981	Continuing	78%	89%	79%	44%	39%	41%												
	Suspended	0	5	1	1	5	2												
	Withdrawn	21	5	19	34	28	32												
	Graduated	1	0	1	20	28	25												
	(N)	(416) (18)(520)																	
1982	Continuing	78%	70%	78%															
	Suspended	0	3	1															
	Withdrawn	20	27	21															
	Graduated	1	0	1															
	(N)	(390) (33)(545)																	

UNDERGRADUATE ACADEMIC WARNINGS AND SUSPENSION

END OF FALL 1983 SEMESTER

North Carolina State University



BRENDA H. ROGERS

OFFICE OF INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

FEBRUARY 2, 1984

UNDERGRADUATE ACADEMIC WARNINGS AND SUSPENSION REPORT

This report presents the frequency and percent of undergraduates who were suspended and who received academic warnings at the end of the Fall Semester 1983. The suspensions and academic warnings are categorized by class (freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior) and school. Students in the Agricultural Institute and those classified as Lifelong Education students are included. Separate data for black and white students are provided.

The last page examines the status at the end of Fall 1983 of black undergraduate students who received academic warnings Spring Semester 1983.

If you have questions about the tables, please call the Office of Institutional Research.

UNDERGRADUATE ACADEMIC WARNINGS AND SUSPENSION
END OF FALL 1983 SEMESTER

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*			
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	
AGRICULTURE & LIFE SCIENCES																
Academic Warning	<1%	-%	<1%	3%	7%	3%	4%	-%	4%	2%	10%	2%	2%	3%	2%	
N	1	0	1	21	3	24	19	0	19	8	1	9	49	4	53	
Academic Warning I	23%	27%	24%	12%	20%	13%	1%	-%	1%	-%	-%	-%	10%	18%	11%	
N	159	15	185	78	9	91	5	0	5	0	0	0	242	24	281	
Academic Warning II	12%	25%	12%	6%	13%	7%	3%	9%	3%	<1%	-%	<1%	6%	17%	2%	
N	82	14	96	42	6	48	12	2	14	1	0	1	137	22	159	
Suspended	2%	5%	2%	3%	7%	3%	1%	9%	2%	<1%	10%	1%	2%	7%	2%	
N	11	3	15	17	3	25	7	2	10	2	1	3	38	9	54	
TOTAL ENROLLED	692	55	773	650	45	716	477	23	510	508	10	534	2340	133	2550	
DESIGN																
Academic Warning	-%	-%	-%	1%	-%	1%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	<1%	-%	<1%	
N	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	
Academic Warning I	7%	44%	10%	1%	50%	3%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	2%	35%	3%	
N	7	4	11	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	6	14	
Academic Warning II	3%	11%	5%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	1%	6%	1%	
N	3	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	5	
Suspended	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	
N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
TOTAL ENROLLED	96	9	109	97	4	106	83	3	87	103	1	111	390	17	424	

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*		
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total
EDUCATION															
Academic Warning N	-%	-%	<1%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	1%	17%	1%	<1%	4%	<1%
	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	2
Academic Warning I N	27%	27%	27%	7%	-%	7%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	9%	18%	9%
	35	15	185	7	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	42	5	48
Academic Warning II N	11%	25%	12%	1%	-%	1%	6%	-%	5%	-%	-%	-%	4%	7%	4%
	14	14	96	1	0	1	5	0	5	0	0	0	21	2	23
Suspended N	27%	5%	2%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	<1%	4%	1%
	2	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
TOTAL ENROLLED	128	55	773	101	4	106	86	4	91	158	6	168	482	28	520
ENGINEERING															
Academic Warning N	<1%	-%	<1%	2%	3%	2%	3%	12%	4%	4%	8%	4%	3%	6%	3%
	3	0	3	27	4	31	38	12	51	59	8	72	127	24	157
Academic Warning I N	11%	22%	13%	5%	20%	7%	1%	-%	1%	<1%	-%	<1%	4%	11%	4%
	100	25	129	58	24	85	10	0	11	1	0	1	169	49	226
Academic Warning II N	6%	12%	7%	3%	3%	3%	2%	3%	2%	<1%	-%	<1%	2%	5%	3%
	53	14	69	31	4	40	22	3	25	4	0	5	110	21	139
Suspended N	2%	3%	2%	2%	6%	2%	2%	2%	2%	1%	-%	1%	2%	3%	2%
	21	3	24	22	7	32	19	2	21	9	0	10	71	12	87
TOTAL ENROLLED	887	114	1023	1123	121	1308	1181	100	1340	1436	97	1612	4620	432	5289

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*			
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	
FOREST RESOURCES																
Academic Warning N	-%	-%	-%	4%	29%	5%	1%	14%	2%	1%	29%	2%	1%	16%	2%	
	0	0	0	5	2	7	2	1	3	1	2	3	8	5	13	
Academic Warning I N	25%	30%	25%	12%	14%	13%	3%	-%	3%	-%	-%	-%	11%	13%	11%	
	40	3	43	17	1	19	4	0	4	0	0	0	61	4	66	
Academic Warning II N	13%	-%	13%	11%	14%	12%	2%	-%	2%	-%	-%	-%	7%	3%	7%	
	21	0	22	15	1	18	3	0	3	0	0	0	39	1	43	
Suspended N	1%	40%	3%	3%	-%	3%	4%	14%	4%	-%	14%	1%	2%	19%	3%	
	1	4	5	4	0	4	5	1	6	0	1	1	10	6	16	
TOTAL ENROLLED	157	10	172	140	7	152	134	7	144	146	7	157	579	31	627	
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES																
Academic Warning N	<1%	1%	1%	3%	7%	4%	3%	6%	3%	3%	8%	3%	3%	5%	3%	
	3	1	4	26	9	38	25	6	33	26	7	33	80	23	108	
Academic Warning I N	21%	18%	21%	8%	10%	8%	2%	1%	1%	-%	-%	-%	7%	8%	7%	
	147	23	176	62	13	75	13	1	14	0	0	0	223	37	266	
Academic Warning II N	9%	23%	11%	4%	5%	4%	2%	3%	2%	<1%	1%	1%	4%	9%	4%	
	65	30	96	34	6	41	19	3	22	4	1	5	122	40	164	
Suspended N	3%	8%	4%	3%	9%	3%	3%	2%	2%	1%	2%	1%	2%	6%	3%	
	20	11	31	21	11	33	21	2	23	8	2	10	70	26	97	
TOTAL ENROLLED	702	130	848	798	129	949	830	103	956	850	91	963	3191	453	3716	

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*			
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	
PHYSICAL & MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES																
Academic Warning	<1%	-%	<1%	2%	10%	3%	5%	5%	5%	3%	-%	3%	2%	3%	2%	
N	1	0	1	8	4	12	18	1	19	9	0	10	36	5	42	
Academic Warning I	13%	31%	17%	8%	12%	8%	-%	-%	<1%	<1%	-%	<1%	6%	20%	8%	
N	55	32	95	30	5	36	0	0	1	1	0	1	86	37	133	
Academic Warning II	10%	18%	11%	6%	12%	7%	2%	-%	2%	-%	-%	-%	2%	13%	5%	
N	40	19	60	24	5	29	7	0	7	0	0	0	71	24	96	
Suspended	2%	1%	2%	3%	5%	4%	3%	9%	3%	1%	-%	1%	5%	3%	2%	
N	7	1	9	13	2	16	11	2	13	2	0	2	33	5	40	
TOTAL ENROLLED	420	103	552	385	40	440	341	21	377	345	20	382	1499	184	1760	
TEXTILES																
Academic Warning	-%	-%	-%	5%	12%	6%	4%	7%	5%	4%	6%	5%	2%	5%	3%	
N	0	0	0	8	3	12	4	1	6	5	1	7	17	5	25	
Academic Warning I	22%	26%	22%	8%	23%	11%	1%	-%	1%	-%	-%	-%	12%	16%	12%	
N	72	9	81	14	6	22	1	0	1	0	0	0	87	15	104	
Academic Warning II	14%	31%	15%	3%	4%	3%	1%	-%	1%	-%	-%	-%	7%	13%	8%	
N	44	11	56	5	1	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	50	12	63	
Suspended	4%	17%	5%	2%	15%	4%	-%	-%	-%	1%	-%	1%	2%	11%	3%	
N	12	6	18	4	4	9	0	0	0	1	0	1	17	10	28	
TOTAL ENROLLED	324	35	367	105	26	200	108	15	126	114	17	139	711	93	833	

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*		
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total
AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE															
Academic Warning N	3%	-%	3%	4%	-%	4%							3%	-%	3%
	5	0	5	6	0	6							11	0	11
Academic Warning I N	35%	58%	37%	4%	-%	4%							20%	41%	22%
	59	7	67	6	0	6							65	7	73
Academic Warning II N	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%	-%							-%	-%	-%
	0	0	0	0	0	0							0	0	0
Suspended N	6%	17%	7%	6%	-%	6%							6%	12%	6%
	10	2	12	9	0	9							19	2	21
TOTAL ENROLLED	170	12	183	148	5	155							318	17	338

LIFELONG LEARNERS ¹

Academic Warning N													47%	3%	4%
													59	3	64
Academic Warning I N													5%	6%	5%
													64	5	77
Academic Warning II N													15%	33%	16%
													205	29	240
Suspended N													1%	-%	1%
													8	0	8
TOTAL ENROLLED													1329	88	1487

NOTE 1: Lifelong learners include only students who have not completed a baccalaureate degree.

School	FRESHMAN			SOPHOMORE			JUNIOR			SENIOR			TOTAL*		
	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total	White	Black	Total
TOTAL															
Academic Warning N	<1% 13	<1% 1	<1% 14	3% 102	7% 25	3% 131	3% 106	8% 21	4% 131	3% 109	8% 20	3% 137	3% 389	5% 70	3% 477
Academic Warning I N	19% 674	25% 123	20% 828	8% 273	16% 60	8% 344	1% 33	<1% 1	1% 36	<1% 2	-% 0	<1% 2	7% 1047	13% 189	7% 1288
Academic Warning II N	9% 322	19% 91	10% 420	4% 152	6% 23	4% 183	2% 69	3% 8	2% 77	<1% 9	<1% 1	<1% 11	5% 758	10% 152	5% 932
Suspended N	2% 85	6% 31	3% 118	2% 90	7% 27	3% 120	2% 63	3% 9	2% 73	1% 22	2% 4	1% 27	2% 268	5% 71	2% 354
TOTAL ENROLLED	3567	482	4174	3607	381	4132	3240	276	3620	3670	249	4076	15459	1476	17554

* Includes unclassified students

NOTE: Students under the new academic suspension policy (effective Fall 1982) are included in the categories Academic Warning I, Academic Warning II, and Suspended. Students under the old academic suspension policy are included in the categories Academic Warning and Suspended.

The following table provides data to answer this question:

Of black undergraduates who were suspended at the end of Fall 1983, how many and what percent had received Academic Warning, Academic Warning I, or Academic Warning II at the end of Spring Semester 1983?

The table below includes only black undergraduate students enrolled in the eight schools. Lifelong Education and Agricultural Institute students are omitted from the analysis.

A greater percentage (39.1%) of black students on Academic Warning II were suspended than those in Academic Warning under the old policy (30.8%) and those on Academic Warning I (7.2%). Historical data of these rates will assist in the prediction of the number of students who will be suspended at the end of the semester.

If these rates are applied to the number of blacks on academic warnings Spring 1984, 95 are projected to be suspended upon the completion of the semester.

FALL 1983 BLACK SUSPENSIONS BY ACADEMIC WARNING
STATUS AT END OF SPRING 1983

SCHOOL	ACADEMIC WARNING		ACADEMIC WARNING I		ACADEMIC WARNING II	
	N	% ¹	N	% ¹	N	% ¹
ALS	3	50.0	0	0	2	18.2
DESIGN	0	0	0	0	0	0
ED	1	33.3	0	0	0	0
ENG	6	25.0	1	4.4	3	30.0
FR	2	33.3	2	66.7	2	66.7
HASS	7	26.9	1	5.3	13	43.3
PAMS	3	50.0	1	9.1	1	16.7
TX	2	28.6	1	12.5	6	66.7
TOTAL	24	30.8	6	7.2	27	39.1

¹ Percent of blacks suspended who had received Academic Warning.



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Office of Institutional Research
(919) 737-2776

MEMORANDUM

TO: NCHEMS/Kellogg Committee

FROM: Dr. Brenda Rogers *BR*

SUBJECT: Comparative Data on Black Students in Higher Education

DATE: January 31, 1984

The attached pages provide some comparative data of black enrollment and black degree recipients by academic disciplines. For the complete report from which pages 13 through 28 were copied, call Ms. Susan T. Hill at (202) 254-6503 and ask for the report, Participation of Black Students in Higher Education: A Statistical Profile from 1970 - 71 to 1980 - 81, published by the National Center for Education Statistics.

The last page gives the percentage of enrollment for 1981 and 1982 at fourteen selected universities. In 1982 NCSU ranked second in the percentage of undergraduate black students and fifth in the percentage of black graduate students.

BR/kw

Attachments

Table 4.-- Black representation in non-traditionally black institutions (non-TBI's) by level, inside and outside the States where TBI's are located: Even years, 1970 to 1980

Black full-time students* in non-TBI's				
Level and year	In TBI States		Outside TBI States	
	Number	Blacks as a percent of all students	Number	Blacks as a percent of all students
<u>Undergraduate</u>				
1970	79,950	4.3	117,380	4.1
1972	128,020	6.0	188,070	5.8
1974	157,880	7.5	212,970	6.3
1976	216,380	9.5	239,280	7.0
1978	214,800	9.4	240,540	7.2
1980	233,990	9.6	246,600	6.9
<u>Graduate</u>				
1970	-	-	-	-
1972	7,070	4.6	10,370	4.1
1974	7,070	4.9	10,540	4.2
1976	8,690	5.4	9,990	3.8
1978	8,340	5.3	9,300	3.6
1980	7,880	4.8	9,470	3.5
<u>First-professional</u>				
Medical				
1970	310	1.9	850	3.4
1972	-	-	-	-
1974	980	4.5	1,380	5.1
1976	1,180	4.5	1,590	5.2
1978	1,250	4.1	1,470	4.3
1980	1,480	4.6	1,580	4.3
Dental				
1970	30	**	130	1.5
1972	-	-	-	-
1974	170	2.1	260	2.9
1976	210	2.2	250	2.5
1978	250	2.5	260	2.4
1980	280	2.6	250	2.2
Law				
1970	550	2.2	1,280	3.5
1972	-	-	-	-
1974	1,230	3.5	1,880	4.3
1976	1,580	4.0	2,090	3.7
1978	1,610	4.1	2,010	3.4
1980	1,730	4.2	1,950	3.3

* Excludes unclassified students.

** Less than 0.05 percent.

- Data not collected on the survey form in this year.

Note: Percents were calculated with actual numbers, not rounded numbers.

Changes in Degree Awards, by Discipline Division

Bachelor's degrees

Between 1976 and 1981, blacks increased their proportional representation among bachelor's degree recipients in 11 of the 24 discipline divisions. In order, by the percent of blacks among all recipients, these disciplines were:

Selected discipline divisions	Blacks as a percent of all bachelor's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Public affairs and services	10.0	13.4
Psychology	6.5	8.1
Communications	6.0	7.7
Interdisciplinary studies	5.6	6.6
Health professions	5.1	5.7
Biological sciences	4.3	5.3
Fine and applied arts	4.1	4.6
Physical sciences	3.0	3.8
Engineering	3.0	3.3
Architecture and environmental design ...	2.8	3.2
Agriculture and natural resources	1.4	1.7

In the following six disciplines, black representation among bachelor's degree recipients declined:

Selected discipline divisions	Blacks as a percent of all bachelor's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Education	9.2	8.8
Social sciences	8.7	8.1
Library science	9.3	8.0
Computer and information sciences	5.8	5.2
Foreign languages	3.5	2.8
Area studies	3.5	2.6

In the rest of the disciplines, the percent black of all degree recipients remained about the same. In one of these disciplines, business and management, blacks remained at 6.7 percent of the bachelor's degree recipients even though the number of black recipients increased from 9,490 to 13,400 from 1976 to 1981.

(See appendix for actual numbers for all disciplines.) In 1981, business and management became the most popular discipline among all black bachelor's degree recipients in the U.S., ranking above education and the social sciences.

Most popular discipline divisions	Percent of all black bachelor's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Business and management	16	22
Education	24	16
Social sciences	19	13

In 1981, for the first time, the ranking of the three most chosen disciplines for bachelor's degrees was the same for blacks as for non-blacks.

Master's degrees

Between 1976 and 1981, the representation of blacks among all master's degree recipients declined in all but seven discipline divisions. In psychology, blacks remained at 6.5 percent of all recipients; in the following six disciplines, the percent of black recipients increased.

Selected discipline divisions	Blacks as a percent of all master's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Communications	5.5	6.0
Health professions	5.0	5.4
Interdisciplinary studies	3.0	5.1
Home economics	4.9	5.1
Business and management	3.7	4.1
Engineering	1.5	1.6

For the extent of decline in the proportions of black master's degree recipients in the other disciplines, see the appendix.

Business/management and public affairs/services increased their ranking among all black master's degree recipients between 1976 and 1981. Education declined significantly, yet still represented half of all master's degrees awarded to blacks in 1981.

Most popular discipline divisions	Percent of all black master's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Education	61	50
Business and management	8	14
Public affairs and services	8	11

Doctor's degrees

Black doctoral recipients increased their representation in all but five disciplines between 1976 and 1981. The disciplines that experienced declines in the proportion of black recipients were:

Selected discipline divisions	Blacks as a percent of all doctor's degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Education	8.6	7.8
Area studies	5.1	3.8
Fine and applied arts	3.3	2.6
Agriculture and natural resources	2.0	1.4
Physical sciences	1.2	1.0

Education discipline at all levels

Between 1976 and 1981, the education discipline experienced declines, both in terms of the number of black degree recipients and the percentage representation of blacks, at all levels--bachelor's, master's, and doctor's. From 1976 to 1979, the decline among black graduates was similar to that experienced in the education discipline in general; from 1979 to 1981, however, the decline among blacks was greater and their proportional representation among education degree recipients decreased.

First-professional degrees

Between 1976 and 1981, black representation increased in five first-professional disciplines and decreased in the other five. Those disciplines with increases in the percent of recipients who were black were:

Selected discipline divisions	Blacks as a percent of all first-professional degree recipients	
	1976	1981
Theological profession	3.9	4.4
Dentistry	3.3	3.6
Podiatry	0.7	3.4
Pharmacy	1.4	3.0
Veterinary medicine	1.2	1.9

Between 1976 and 1981, the number of degrees awarded by the TBI's to black students decreased at the bachelor's level (from 22,200 to 19,400) and at the master's level (from 4,560 to 3,170). The number of black recipients increased slightly at the doctor's level (50 to 70) and the first-professional level (from 540 to 620). But, even with the decline at the bachelor's level, the TBI's still awarded over half of the bachelor's degrees earned by blacks in the TBI States in 1981.¹⁵ Although the number of black master's degree recipients in TBI's has declined in the last 5 years, the TBI's still graduated a third of the black master's degree recipients in the TBI States in 1981. At the first-professional level, TBI's awarded 38 percent of all degrees awarded to blacks in these States (chart 6).

The increases in the number and percent of black degree recipients from 1976 to 1981 occurred primarily in the non-TBI's in the TBI States. These institutions awarded almost 4,000 more black bachelor's degree recipients and 200 more black first-professionals in 1981 than in 1976 (table 7). However, at the master's and doctor's levels, there were slight increases from 1976 to 1979 and then slight declines to 1981 in both the number and percent of black recipients in these States.

Table 7.-- Blacks as a percent of all degree recipients, by level, in the non-TBI's inside and outside the TBI States: 1976, 1979, and 1981

Degree level	Black degree recipients in non-TBI's			
	Inside TBI States		Outside TBI States	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Bachelor's				
1976	14,820	4.0	22,070	4.2
1979	17,030	4.6	22,530	4.3
1981	18,740	5.0	22,520	4.2
Master's				
1976	7,010	6.0	8,770	4.7
1979	7,280	6.3	8,160	4.6
1981	6,590	5.8	7,380	4.2
Doctor's				
1976	520	4.2	640	3.0
1979	600	4.8	620	3.1
1981	540	4.5	650	3.1
First-professional				
1976	810	3.0	1,340	3.9
1979	980	3.4	1,260	3.2
1981	1,020	3.4	1,290	3.2

Note: Percents were calculated with actual numbers, not rounded numbers.

¹⁵In 1981, the 83 TBI's that granted bachelor's degrees produced more black baccalaureates than the 673 non-TBI's in the TBI States in many disciplines, including: engineering, mathematics, computer science, business and management, physical sciences and biological sciences.

Table 8.-- Blacks as a percent of degree recipients in non-TBI's in the United States, by degree level and classification of institutions: 1981

Classification* of non-TBI's	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctor's
Total	4.5	4.8	3.7
Public	4.4	4.8	3.5
Doctoral	3.6	4.0	3.5
Comprehensive	5.1	5.9	3.5
General baccalaureate	5.5	3.3	-
Specialized	5.6	4.2	1.1
Private	4.8	4.9	4.0
Doctoral	4.6	4.1	3.9
Comprehensive	5.2	6.0	3.9
General baccalaureate	4.6	6.6	-
Specialized	5.2	4.2	4.8

- Not applicable.

* Classifications of institutions were made by computing 1980-81 earned degrees data according to specified statistical criteria and a computational algorithm. Note that an institution may be classified differently than its highest degree offered. The following is a general description of classification categories.

4-year:

- Doctoral - institutions characterized by a significant level of doctoral education as measured by number of doctorate recipients and diversity in doctoral program offerings.
- Comprehensive - institutions with a diverse post-baccalaureate program, but which do not engage in significant doctoral-level education.
- General baccalaureate - institutions characterized by their primary emphasis on general undergraduate, baccalaureate education.
- Specialized - baccalaureate or post-baccalaureate institutions characterized by a programmatic emphasis in one area, such as business, theology, medicine, education, etc..

2-year: Institutions that confer at least 75 percent of their degrees for work below the baccalaureate level.

For more information on this institutional classification taxonomy, see: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "NCES Changes Classification of Higher Education Institutions," Announcement 81-404, April 1981.

Table A.-- Bachelor's degree awards to blacks, by discipline division: 1976, 1979, and 1981*

Discipline division	1976		1979		1981	
	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total
Total	59,122	6.4	60,130	6.6	60,533	6.5
Agriculture and natural resources	267	1.4	346	1.5	380	1.7
Architecture and environmental design	258	2.8	316	3.4	300	3.2
Area studies	106	3.5	84	3.3	67	2.6
Biological sciences	2,326	4.3	2,487	5.1	2,266	5.2
Business and management ...	9,489	6.7✓	11,430	6.6	13,388	6.7
Communications	1,275	6.0✓	1,998	7.6	2,405	7.7 ✓
Computer and information sciences	323	5.8	505	5.8	784	5.2
Education	14,209	9.2✓	11,509	9.1	9,494	8.8 ✓
Engineering	1,370	3.0	1,756	2.9	2,432	3.3
Fine and applied arts	1,724	4.1	1,880	4.6	1,835	4.6
Foreign languages	531	3.5	349	3.0	293	2.8
Health professions	2,741	5.1	3,380	5.4	3,603	5.7
Home economics	1,069	6.2	1,195	6.5	1,125	6.1
Law	27	5.2	53	7.9	22	2.8
Letters	2,458	4.8	2,192	5.2	1,980	4.9
Library science	75	9.3	49	8.8	30	8.0
Mathematics	799	5.1	652	5.6	582	5.3
Military sciences	4	2.2	2	1.4	4	2.7
Physical sciences	647	3.0	691	3.0	886	3.8
Psychology	3,219	6.5	3,214	7.6	3,303	8.1 ✓
Public affairs and services	3,306	10.0✓	4,495	11.8	4,869	13.4 ✓
Social sciences	10,978	8.7 ✓	9,038	8.4	8,108	8.1 ✓
Theology	148	2.8	156	2.6	166	2.9
Interdisciplinary studies .	1,773	5.6	2,353	7.3	2,211	6.6

* Refers to academic years 1975-76, 1978-79, and 1980-81.

Note: Data for U.S. Service Schools are excluded.

Table B.-- Master's degree awards to blacks, by discipline division: 1976, 1979, and 1981*

Discipline division	1976		1979		1981	
	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total
Total	20,345	6.6	19,393	6.5	17,133	5.8
Agriculture and natural resources	77	2.3	79	2.0	73	1.8
Architecture and environmental design	195	6.1	115	3.7	122	3.9
Area studies	26	2.9	15	2.0	14	1.9
Biological sciences	215	3.3	217	3.2	171	2.9
Business and management ...	1,549	3.7	2,129	4.3	2,359	4.1
Communications	170	5.5	149	5.2	187	6.0
Computer and information sciences	60	2.4	65	2.2	70	1.7
Education	12,434	9.7	10,825	9.7	8,645	8.8
Engineering	233	1.5	241	1.6	260	1.6
Fine and applied arts	277	3.2	254	3.0	267	3.1
Foreign languages	119	3.4	45	1.9	33	1.6
Health professions	622	5.0	801	5.2	889	5.4
Home economics	104	4.9	121	4.8	132	5.1
Law	37	2.6	27	1.6	38	2.1
Letters	455	4.1	327	3.7	250	3.0
Library science	426	5.4	305	5.2	216	4.4
Mathematics	130	3.4	71	2.3	67	2.6
Military sciences	0	0	0	0	0	0
Physical sciences	137	2.5	86	1.6	107	2.0
Psychology	416	5.3	476	6.0	424	5.3
Public affairs and services	1,615	9.5	2,039	10.2	1,893	9.4
Social sciences	883	5.6	748	5.8	615	5.2
Theology	55	1.9	72	2.1	71	1.9
Interdisciplinary studies .	110	3.0	186	4.1	230	5.1

* Refers to academic years 1975-76, 1978-79, and 1980-81.

Table C.-- Doctor's degree awards to blacks, by discipline division: 1976, 1979, and 1981*

Discipline division	1976		1979		1981	
	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total	Blacks	Percent of total
Total	1,213	3.6	1,267	3.9	1,265	3.9
Agriculture and natural resources	18	2.0	14	1.5	15	1.4
Architecture and environmental design	5	6.1	5	5.2	6	6.5
Area studies	9	5.1	12	9.0	6	3.8
Biological sciences	52	1.5	47	1.3	64	1.7
Business and management ...	17	1.8	18	2.1	32	3.8
Communications	8	3.8	10	5.2	10	5.5
Computer and information sciences	0	0	4	1.7	1	.4
Education	669	8.6	625	8.1	614	7.8
Engineering	19	.7	24	1.0	24	.9
Fine and applied arts	21	3.3	12	1.7	17	2.6
Foreign languages	8	.9	10	1.6	9	1.5
Health professions	16	2.8	20	2.8	26	3.1
Home economics	5	2.8	9	4.1	9	3.6
Law	0	0	2	4.3	1	1.7
Letters	63	2.6	71	3.7	56	3.1
Library science	4	5.6	2	2.9	9	12.7
Mathematics	9	1.1	13	1.8	9	1.2
Military sciences	0	0	0	0	0	0
Physical sciences	41	1.2	48	1.5	32	1.0
Psychology	66	2.6	111	4.2	116	3.9
Public affairs and services	29	9.1	31	8.4	52	12.0
Social sciences	117	2.8	132	3.9	100	3.9
Theology	26	2.9	32	2.7	45	3.8
Interdisciplinary studies .	11	4.2	15	2.1	12	4.3

* Refers to academic years 1975-76, 1978-79, and 1980-81.

BLACK ENROLLMENT AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES

	% Black Enrollment			
	Undergraduate		Graduate	
	1981	1982	1981	1982
University of Arkansas	5.5%	5.6%	3.2%	3.1%
Clemson University	2.5	3.4	4.2	4.1
University of Delaware	2.8	2.9	2.2	2.6
University of Florida	5	5	4	4
Georgia Inst. of Tech.	5.9	6.3	3.9	5.5
University of Kentucky	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.3
Louisiana State Univ.	6	7	5	7
University of Maryland	7.8	7.7	6.7	6.2
Mississippi State	11	11	7	7
<u>North Carolina State</u>	<u>7.2</u>	<u>7.9</u>	<u>4.2</u>	<u>5.0</u>
University of Tennessee	5.2	4.7	3.8	3.7
Texas A & M	na	1.2	na	1.5
Virginia Polytechnic	3.5	4.0	3.0	2.4
West Virginia Univ.	2	3	2	2



North Carolina State University

P. O. Box 5067, Raleigh, N. C. 27650

Office of the Provost
and Vice-Chancellor

January 12, 1984

Dr. William Sedlacek
Counseling Center
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland 20740

Dear Dr. Sedlacek:

This is to confirm your consulting activities with regard to the Selection and Retention of Black Students at Predominantly White Institutions on February 16-17, 1984 with us.

It is our understanding that your fee will be \$350.00 per day plus travel, lodging and meal expenditures. We look forward to having you and we are planning the specific program activities and will share this with you when finalized. Would you kindly share with us your reservation and arrival, as well as your Social Security Number and a copy of your resume? We hope that you will arrive early evening of the 16th to have a possible evening lecture.

Looking forward to seeing you again, I am

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Larry".

Lawrence M. Clark
Associate Provost

LMC/ci