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ABSTRACT

Changes in schools resulting from the large social changes following World War II provide many new challenges for the educational administrator. This document reports on several independently conducted studies and research discussions in the areas of curriculum, student characteristics, and risk management in order to better understand these changes and their effects. The seven reports cover both public school districts and colleges. The first report by Jim Tjaden, concerns higher education curriculum and travel education programs; it provides a national overview of institutional practices. Outcome Based Education in a suburban public school district is the topic of the second report, by Judy Krings. The third report, by Martha Willie, is on accountability in higher education student affairs. The fourth report, by Kunlun Chang, describes the international student program at a midwestern university and the administrative procedures relevant to leadership and management of these areas. The fifth report, by Adiele Nwachukwu, is on the need for day care services for college students who are also parents. The relationship between standardized test scores and course grades for African American college freshmen is the topic of the sixth report, by Joan Gilson. The final report, by Karen Komoroski covers the area of risk management in higher education professional programs, specifically clinical grade appeals and student grievance procedures. Each report provides a definition of its topic, history, a description of the results of the study, and an explanation of relevance to school management and students. Four appendices include surveys, graphs, and tables. (Author/LL)

Issues in Education:
Curriculum, Students,
Risk Management

Selected Issues in Education:
Curriculum, Students, and Risk Management

Educational Administration

Practicum

University of Missouri-Kansas City

Submitted by:

Kunlun Chang, Joan Gilson,

Karen Komoroski, Judy Krings,

Adiele Nwachukwu, Jim Tjaden,

and Martha Wille

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Abstract

Changes in schools resulting from the large social changes following World War II provide many new challenges for the educational administrator. In this report we have looked at school functioning in terms of curriculum, student characteristics, and risk management in order to better understand these changes and their effects. The seven reports cover both public school districts and colleges. The first report is on higher education curriculum, travel education programs. The report provides a national overview of institutional practices. Outcome-Based Education in a suburban public school district is the topic of the second report. The third report is on accountability in higher education student affairs.

The fourth study describes the international student program at a midwestern university and the administrative procedures relevant to leadership and management of these areas. The fifth report is on the need for day care services for college students who are also parents. The relationship between standardized test scores and course grades for African American college freshman is the topic of the sixth report. The final report covers the area of Risk Management in higher education professional programs, specifically clinical grade appeals and student grievance procedures.

Each report provides a definition of its topic, history, a description of the results of the study, and an explanation of the relevance to school management and students.

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Selected Issues in Education:

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Introduction

History

During the time following World War II education administrators dealt with very different problems than those they will deal with in the twenty-first century. In the period from 1945 through the 1970's all schools experienced a period of unprecedented growth. The student population tripled during the 1960's in higher education, especially, and community colleges came into their own. During this time, revisions in organizational structure, curriculum innovation, and larger academic units were all subsidized by increased enrollments and the resulting influx of tuition, tax dollars, and federal monies. The major concern of administrators during this period was how to provide quality education to this booming population (Delworth & Hanson, 1989).

Accountability

As the student population began to diminish in the 1970's, however, school administrators in grade schools, high schools, colleges, and universities were faced with a new economic reality. Cost containment strategies were developed, and administrators were often forced to extensively justify requests for teachers or new facilities. In community colleges, for instance, administrators had to rationalize open admissions standards and the existence of low-enrollment programs (Cohen & Brawer, 1989).

The pressure to prove effectiveness and efficiency resulting from the pressure of demographic changes has led to many attempts by schools to quantify educational outcomes that are in fact often unmeasurable and intangible. External agencies, specifically the legislative, judicial, and executive agencies of state and federal governments demand measures of both academic and administrative accountability from all schools, kindergarten through university (Gladieux & Lewis, 1981, 1987).

As a result, ways to make American schools more accountable have been the subject of much research, discussion, and dissent on the part of both educators and the public. Politicians use schools as a ready target on which to blame the social and economic ills of a nation in transition from a manufacturing-based economy to an information-based economy. Consultants offer quick and easy solutions touted to improve school functioning. Educators continue to wrestle with definitions and means of improved school functioning through such programs as Site-Based Management, Total Quality Management, newer, research-based assessment programs, more effective staff development, outcomes-based education, and a myriad of other approaches (Levine & Cooper, 1991). Despite a variety of cures for what ails schools, all agree, however, that effectively functioning schools are central to a functioning economy and culture.

What Makes a Successful School?

Researchers have looked at school functioning in terms of curriculum, student characteristics, and risk management.

Some curriculum specialists lay the burden for school effectiveness on curriculum, asserting that school curricula must do more than maintain the social status quo, that effective curricula must begin to enable all students, especially minorities and the poor, to become economically and socially mobile (Fine, 1987)

Other specialists, researchers in the area of Students, remind us, however, of the limitations of curriculum discussions. They argue instead that student characteristics are the most significant determinant of student success. Factors completely independent of school organizational and curricular functioning, factors such as student commitment, resources, and personal development, have the most to do with student retention and graduation rates according to these researchers (Astin, 1968; Chickering, 1969; Tinto, 1987).

The effective functioning of a school or college in terms of its benefit to both students and the community is the focus of those researchers in Risk Management who look at the legal aspects of grading practices and other elements of student evaluation. As a result of the Civil Rights Movement, many American public schools and colleges have become embroiled in lawsuits by students seeking recompense for practices they view as unfair or detrimental to their futures (Edwards & Nordwin, 1979).

Our project for our practicum in Educational Administration consists of a report of several independently conducted studies and discussions of research in the areas of Curriculum, Students, and Risk Management. The studies are both qualitative and quantitative, using a variety of methodologies including interviews, surveys, and analyses of existing data.

Approaches to Research

Qualitative and quantitative inquiry are based upon two different assumptions (Borg & Gall, 1989). Quantitative research is based on the belief that the researcher can isolate absolute, tangible parts of an issue and reconstruct them into a whole to make predictions. The investigator uses statistics to organize, analyze, and interpret the data collected without contaminating it with personal values and biases. The study verifies whether or not a hypothesis is supported.

Quantitative research, on the other hand, is based on the belief that multiple realities exist and should be studied in a naturalistic setting in order to avoid artificial responses from the subjects (Borg & Gall, 1989). Qualitative inquiries measure the outcomes of a process holistically without the discrete approach characteristic of quantitative research. Qualitative researchers view themselves as primary instruments for collecting data, relying upon feelings, impressions, and judgements to interpret data. They reach conclusions without the parameters of statistics, and they are cautious about generalizing to other situations. Their purpose is to discover, not verify information.

The research designs used by many investigators, including those whose work appears in this report, do not neatly fit either model to the exclusion of the other. Both quantitative and qualitative research have philosophical foundations, characteristics, and techniques that make them ideally suited for the exploration of some questions more than others (Borg & Gall, 1989). The use of a mixed model design can build upon the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research by providing more in-depth information.

The Reports

Curriculum

Jim Tjaden and Judy Krings reported on Curriculum. In the area of higher education curriculum, Mr. Tjaden studied student internships in travel education programs in community colleges and vocational schools. He designed and distributed a survey to other travel industry educators which provide an overview of institutional practices all over the United States.

Ms. Krings is working on curriculum evaluation in elementary and secondary language arts, specifically, outcomes-based education. She reported on an on-going program of curriculum evaluation begun last semester. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the language arts criterion-referenced test developed by elementary and middle school teachers before the high school test is constructed.

The Student

The research reports of Martha Wille, Kunlun Chang, Adiele Nwachukwu, and Joan Gilson are about issues affecting College Students. Ms. Wille researched the areas of Student Affairs with special emphasis on accountability. Mr. Chang looked at International students at UMKC and the administrative procedures relevant to leadership and management of these areas. Mr. Nwachukwu reported on the need for day care services to accommodate community college and university students who are also parents. Ms. Gilson examined the relationship between standardized test scores and course grades for African American freshman college students.

Risk Management

The area of Risk Management in a higher education professional programs was researched by Karen Komoroski. Ms. Komoroski reported on issues connected with clinical grade appeals and student grievance procedures.

Although each study and report in this paper has been independently conceived, the direction and progress of all work described here has been informed by the group's discussion of two central questions: First, how the topic of study or report affects school management and second, what effects the issues raised by the study or report have on students.

Each study and report provides a working definition of its topic, an overview of the relevant history of previous work in that particular area, a brief discussion of related trends, a description of the results of the study, or an explanation of the report, and an explanation of the connections between the study or report and school management, and effects on students. Through our study of specific programs and problems and how these elements are worked out in the daily context of school administration, we have gained more understanding of the factors that enable some educational programs to function more effectively than others.

CURRICULUM

The Role of Internships In Travel Education Curriculum

Jim Tjaden

The tourism industry has experienced rapid growth in the last 15 years and currently is the second fastest growing industry in the United States. Its $313 billion in sales make it the third largest industry in the country. Colleges have only recently started to train students in this rapidly changing, fast growing industry. There is still much discussion on curriculum content and development, and the relationship of tourism to other disciplines, like business, and the value and uses of internships as opposed to classroom theory courses.

Definition of Tourism Education

Tourism education covers a wide range of topics, work skills and career paths. Students graduating from tourism programs usually find work with airlines, hotels, travel agencies, tour operators, cruise lines or as corporate travel planners.

Tourism programs have traditionally concentrated on computer training along with classroom instruction concentrating on work skills. The Maple Woods Community College program consists of five courses representing 16 credit hour toward a two-year Associates Degree in Business Management.

These courses are:

- Introduction to the Tourism Industry
- Destination Geography
- Sales and Reservations
- Travel Agency Operations
- Computer Reservations Systems

After completing the five-course core courses, Maple Woods students must complete three semesters (9 credits) of Management Internship defined in the college catalog as "on-the-job training in a field directly related to the management program". This definition allows broad opportunities for practical implementation but provides little insight into the purpose and uses of internship programs. To learn how internships are applied nationally and internationally, a study of internships was conducted involving the members of the Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (STTE). STTE is a professional organization of over 280 tourism educators from four countries. Members include educators from high schools, proprietary schools, community colleges and four-year private colleges and state universities.

<u>Survey</u>

To determine how internships are used within tourism training, a survey was mailed to the 233 members of STTE listed in the 1991 Membership Directory (see Survey, Appendix I). Seventy-four surveys were returned for a return rate of 31%. Surveys were returned from 29 states, Puerto Rico, Canada and the Bahamas. Beside a wide geographical distribution, the returned surveys also came from a variety of institutions:

26.4% came from community colleges
19.4% came from proprietary schools
18.1% came from public four-year universities
12.5% came from private four-year colleges
12.5% came from private two-year colleges
11.1% came from high schools (See Graph 1, Ap. II).

The results of the survey were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS) window software.

Although returns came from a wide geographic area and many different types of institutions, respondents were surprisingly consistent. It was determined that 90.3% of the respondents currently had internship programs and most were established for six or more years (see Graph 2, Appendix II).

56.9% of the programs were established for six or more years.
18.1% of the programs were established for 3 to 5 years.
12.5% of the programs were established for two years.
2.8% of the programs were established for one year.
9.7% of the schools surveyed had not established a program (See Graph 3, Appendix II).

The following results were determined:

I. Admissions Requirements

56.9% of the schools required the student to complete a set number of hours.
38.9% required a specific course prior to taking the internship.
51.4% also required the permission of the instructor (See Graphs 4,5,6, Appendix II).

It is evident that admission into internship programs are controlled by the programs and that students are not allowed to participate until they have fulfilled a basic preliminary course of instruction.

II. Reasons for Offering Internship Programs

When asked why an internship was necessary, 72.2% gave "as an added learning experience" as the primary reason and 70.8% gave "as an employment opportunity" as the secondary reason (See Graphs 7 & 8, Appendix II).

Other options were not significantly used. It is evident that tourism educators see internships as a way of reinforcing job skills and exposing the student to the work place. Internships are also seen as a way to provide the student with work experience.

III. Basis of Programs

62.5% base their internships solely on employment.
25.0% require a mixture of research and employment-based programs (See Graph 9, Appendix II).

internships. Many schools now feel that students should be paid for internships. One major argument for payment was based on the assumption of liability, in case of injury to the student, by the employer. Most colleges also require the students to find their own jobs rather than providing work opportunities.

Internship Textbooks

There appear to be only two textbooks available for the internship courses. Both are widely marketed to tourism teachers through mailings and professional trade fairs.

Guiding Your Internship: A Hospitality/Tourism Manual by Mary Walk and Nancy Pike. 1989. Prentice-Hall: Englewood Cliff, New Jersey.

Probably the most industry-directed of the available internship textbooks, this text is targeted for students entering the tourism industry. Emphasis in the first chapter is on a short list of different positions within each branch of the industry followed by competency lists.

The student is encouraged to make a career choice and then to begin searching for a job. Several chapters are spent discussing the job search, resumes, the interview, etc. This focus seems to be at odds with the purpose of an internship. Spending the first several weeks (or longer) looking for work does not seem to leave much time in a 16-week semester to do much else.

The main body of the book is directed toward "research" on various types of careers and what is involved in each. Separate chapters provide "guidelines" or lists of questions on how business is conducted in the travel, hotel and food service industries.

The book ends by, again, discussing the resume and job search. The purpose of the book then is to guide an internship specifically designed to teach job acquisition skills rather than competency-based work skills. For internships with this purpose (learning about the industry and developing a job search), this would be a useful book. However, for internships with a different direction (competency-based job skills, serious research) or for internships lasting more than a few weeks, it's difficult to see how this book could be used.

Learning From Working: A Guide for Cooperative Education/Internship Students, Joseph Barbeau and William Stull, South-Western Publishing; Cincinnati, Ohio.

Designed for a general audience, this text does not have the industry-specific orientation of *Guiding Your Internship*. Instead, it focuses on general skills needed to find and get a job.

Again, a significant portion of the text is involved in the techniques of job search, resume writing, interviewing, etc.

The bulk of the internship information is generic, requiring the student to determine job skills, write a job description and develop a plan for learning job competencies. The students are then led through a series of exercises on how to evaluate their own progress.

It is difficult to see how this book could be used in a one-semester course. Too much time is devoted to activities unrelated to job skills.

Conclusion

Internships have become an important part of many Travel and Tourism curriculums. Many schools use internships as an additional learning experience to transmit job skills and to provide work experience. The internships are designed to follow formal courses and are based on reinforcing previous classroom learning.

Curriculum Evaluation: Outcome-Based Education In a Public School Language Arts Program

Judy Krings

National reports frequently express alarm over declining scores on student achievement tests, and they further lament the high cost of an illiterate work force. Consequently, reform movements are gaining momentum both to improve student achievement and to provide an accountability system to all stakeholders: the community, parents, educators, and students. Outcome-Based Education is one of the responses to this growing dissatisfaction with education today.

Definition of Outcome-Based Education

Outcome-Based Education, or OBE, is a systematic approach to controlling the conditions for success so that all students learn and succeed. It means focusing all of a school's instruction around clearly defined outcomes of which students must demonstrate proficiency when they leave the school system. Outcomes, instruction, and evaluation are aligned. Therefore, OBE is not really a program, but, rather, a way of designing, developing, delivering, and evaluating instruction. It may or may not involve strategies such as cooperative learning, critical thinking, mastery learning, effective schools research, and learning styles.

OBE is based on the philosophy that all students can learn and succeed, that success breeds success, and that schools control the conditions of success. Educators ask the question: "What should students know, be able to do, feel or believe when they exit the school system?" They design the curriculum from the top down, beginning with a vision statement of what the ideal student should look like. Then they design the curriculum from graduation down to kindergarten with all grade levels focusing sequentially on the ultimate goal, the exit outcome. Although OBE designs the curriculum top-down, teachers deliver instruction bottom-up, from a lesson plan to a unit to a course to a program, and finally, to the exit outcome. Effectiveness of the curriculum may be evaluated at the end of any of these instructional levels.

OBE advocates have begun reprimanding school districts for revising curriculum from the course objectives rather than from a vision statement of an exit outcome. Such a practice really results in curriculum-based outcomes rather than outcome-based curriculum. The key practices for OBE must move sequentially as follows: 1) define the outcome, 2) design the curriculum, 3) deliver the instruction, 4) document results, and 5) determine advancement.

Differences in OBE approaches arise from different perspectives regarding the substance, processes, and settings of the outcomes. The substance of the outcomes can range from specific content details to broad, complex interrelationships. The processes may involve simple t more complex, higher-order applications. The settings can be defined according to where the learning will ng to the real life setting where the learning will plied. Further differences occur when the scope of the from a lesson to a whole course or to the entire K-12 trend in recent years is to take the more pproach when dealing with substance, processes, pe of outcomes.

me-Based Education

sed Education has evolved from ideas with deep roots in ion history. in 1950 Ralph Tyler identified fundamental ers to use when developing curriculum and planning is course syllabus, Basic Principles of Curriculum and ler believed that objectives must be well written to ional goals: They must identify both the kind of developed in the student and the context in which this occur.

njamin Bloom enhanced Tyler's work with a framework i.e. his taxonomies of objectives for the cognitive and s. At the same time, Robert Mager supported the his behaviorist orientation with a method for teachers to ng objectives (Preparing Instructional Objectives, 1962). loom began discussing "learning for mastery" concepts, ed the issues at the unit level in Outcome-Based

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of exit outcomes. Legislatures and school boards take control of determining the exit outcomes, but the schools determine the ways to achieve those outcomes and are held accountable for producing results. Consequently, Effective Schools Instruction, Site-Based Management, Outcome-Based Education, Quality Performance Accreditation, School-Business Partnerships, and Total Quality Management can all become a part of Outcome-Based Education.

The mastery learning movement begun by Bloom and his taxonomies became an integral part of OBE as a vehicle for its implementation. OBE suggests that criterion-referenced assessment be used to determine placement, to document learning, to monitor/adjust instruction, and to evaluate objectives defined by programs.

Unlike norm-referenced tests whose interpretation is determined by an outside test coordinator, criterion-referenced tests are placed in the hands of the classroom teacher who monitors and alters instruction. The following study describes one school district's attempt to evaluate Outcome-Based Education through the development of criterion-referenced tests.

BLUE VALLEY LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM STUDY

The Blue Valley School District is located within 87 square miles in southeastern Johnson County in Kansas. There are 12 elementary schools, 5 middle schools, and 2 high schools with a total enrollment of 11,039. The average class size is 21 and more than 85% of the graduates attend college.

The population of students has been identified as 95% White, 2.3% Asian-American, 1.5% Black, .7% Hispanic, and .5% Native American.

Twelve percent of the population is enrolled in programs for Special Services and less than 1% are on free or reduced lunch.

Although the population remains fairly homogeneous, the district is constantly changing with regard to size, funding, and restructuring plans. A new high school and a new elementary school will open in the fall when drastic cuts in spending are projected because of a new state school finance bill. The district's superintendent of 19 years will be leaving this year after targeting major reforms for implementation: Effective Schools Instruction, Site-Based Management, Outcome-Based Education, Quality Performance Accreditation, School-Business Partnerships, and Total Quality Management.

The purpose for developing district criterion-referenced tests was curriculum alignment, although OBE was not adopted until much later. Committees of K-8 language arts teachers first met to determine the critical objectives for each of the skill strands in their curriculum: receptive skills, expressive skills, and information processing skills. Critical objectives were defined as the knowledge, skills, and behaviors essential for success in the next grade level.

Once the critical objectives were validated by all K-8 language arts teachers, committees met to develop criterion-referenced tests based on those grade level objectives. Teachers decided that a variety of formats was needed to assess the language arts program. Reading comprehension could be quickly assessed through a multiple-choice test, whereas writing skills were best assessed by scoring a writing sample. Some objectives contained behaviors that could not be tested with a paper and pencil test and so, an observational checklist was developed.

A student self-assessment was constructed to measure the same behaviors that the teacher rated on the observational checklist. A cross check between teacher observations and student self-assessment provided a way to evaluate whether teachers and students agreed on the same behavioral competencies. Portfolios were an easy way to c... the variety of testing formats and to add any supplemental testing or reading records needed for at-risk students.

In the school year 1991-92, a Blue Valley Outcomes Committee (composed of teachers, administrators, and the community) articulated six exit outcomes: "A Blue Valley graduate will demonstrate excellence as 1) an effective communicator, 2) a well-rounded individual, 3) a complex thinker/problem solver, 4) a responsible global citizen, 5) an information and technology processor, and 6) an effective collaborator." Narrative descriptions were written to define each of these traits in more detail.

According to the literature, reading comprehension often appears to be more related to traits such as motivation, intelligence, and attitude than it does to mastery of the behavioral objectives behind test items. Multiple-choice tests generally have limited use in measuring critical thinking skills and outcomes.

To explore the possibility of a hierarchy of thinking skills, a factor analysis was conducted on the test results drawn from a systematic sampling of 200 students who took the eighth grade CRT the first year. The factor matrix indicated that a majority of the test items were at higher levels of thinking according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The split-half reliability coefficients (.6671 and .7886) indicated a high degree of internal consistency.

Two years of testing data have now been collected. All data was reported as grade level averages, grade level ranges, and district averages for each objective. Comparison reports were given between the 1990-91 school year and the 1991-92 school year for each objective by grade level by school. Principals saw only their own building's scores; teachers saw only their own grade level reports, unless they specifically requested individual class scores. No teacher or principal was given comparisons between buildings and no teacher was given comparisons between classes. The intent was for teachers and principals to focus on improvement rather than competition.

CONCLUSIONS OF THE LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM STUDY

No significant differences were noted in mean scores between the two years tested in any of the grade levels. Improvements in scores for some objectives were offset by decreased scores for other objectives. The mean and median remained consistent across grade levels for both years, although the district mean dropped as assessment of more complex thinking skills increased. Even though the range of high-low scores for each grade level remained stable between the two years, six of the fifteen buildings and four grade levels showed overall improvement. Of the 83 skill objectives traced across grade levels, 31 mean scores showed some skill improvement, 26 mean scores remained the same, and 26 mean scores suggested that skill levels dropped. (See Appendix II.)

The individual pupil profile reports indicated that many Blue Valley students do respond correctly to items that teachers believed were too difficult or "developmentally inappropriate." Upon closer inspection of test items, the CRT appears to measure more than basic competency of grade level objectives. The fine lines between distractor items seem to be causing higher processing levels.

A comparison report was made with the 1992 Kansas Reading Assessment which also attempted to assess higher level thinking skills. The format of the state test, however, was very different from the district CRT. The Kansas test constructed multiple-choice items with several correct answers. The number of correct response options varied from four to eight items. Students were given credit for marking correct responses and for leaving incorrect options blank.

The Kansas Reading Assessment and the K-8 CRT were both given to grades 3 and 7 in April 1992. The mean percent correct for grade 3 was 77% on both tests, although the range of building mean scores was much wider on the district test (70%-82% versus 75%-79%). The mean percent correct for grade 7 was a little higher on the state assessment (82%) than on the district CRT (74%). One possible explanation for this discrepancy could be that the CRT assessed use of flashback, foreshadowing, parts of speech, and reference skills; whereas the state assessment did not. When flashback, foreshadowing, parts of speech, and reference skills are pulled out of the CRT, the seventh grade mean score becomes 86% and aligns the CRT more closely to the state assessment.

The building reports created many inservice opportunities. Principals looked at the data with a variety of purposes. Some wanted to prove that specific programs they had funded caused scores to go higher. Others wanted to confirm effective teaching strategies or specific building philosophies, such as whole language. The principal had questions about the instructional skills of a teacher. A few principals requested the classroom comparison reports.

The reading specialists in the elementary schools and the counselors in the middle schools asked specific questions about curriculum alignment when the scores were reported to them. Misconceptions about the differences between norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests were corrected. Issues behind percentiles and percentages were discussed. The more information given, the less threatening the scores seemed to be. In no instance were teachers or principals told what to do with the data.

Blue Valley teachers did not realize, when they validated their grade level objectives, that those objectives would be aligned with district assessment. Teachers have always been resistant to outside criteria for evaluating classroom instruction. The policy of allowing teachers to make decisions from data directly linked to district objectives is new to everyone.

Although the data collected thus far does not indicate any conclusive results, it has caused principals and teachers to focus on the instruction of higher order thinking skills. Both teachers and administrators are debating whether or not the purpose of CRTs is to assess objectives at a minimum competency level. Ultimately, the state adopted Quality Performance Accreditation will mandate the assessment of critical thinking skills.

Teachers have asked for an item analysis of specific items. They have pointed out gaps in the basal curriculum, which does not perfectly match the objectives assessed. They have asked questions about the appropriateness of some of the vocabulary used in the assessment. In general, teachers have responded to the data by asking for more information.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM STUDY

Outcome-Based Education calls for the instruction and the assessment of critical thinking skills. Students in the twenty-first century must be able to search for information, interpret it, and relate it to other knowledge. Just receiving information is no longer an appropriate educational goal.

Because of the typically narrow focus in response items, multiple-choice tests have limited use in evaluating thinking skills. Nevertheless, two years of data collected from the Language Arts CRT does suggest that some higher level thinking skills are being reliably assessed across grade levels.

The Blue Valley CRT needs to be given another year before any emerging trends can be discovered. Item correlations need to be made and data disaggregated according to sex, age, building, and teacher. A detailed analysis of building scores, rather than composite grade level averages, might identify exemplary programs that could serve as models to others.

Much more still needs to be done with regard to teacher training in curriculum alignment, assessment procedures, and data collection. Waiting until the end of the year for a district CRT is too late to link instruction with assessment. Teachers make decisions about instruction every day and need to be actively engaged in classroom research.

OBE is causing the introduction of many new strategies and programs which promise to achieve the desired outcomes. The Blue Valley School District has articulated exit outcomes and now must collect better data on student knowledge, skills, and behaviors in order to evaluate new programs and strategies that are being used in schools using site-based management. Thus far, the K-8 Language Arts Program is the only content area being assessed. Other subject areas need to be assessed as well as the high school language arts curriculum.

In conclusion, evaluation of complex thinking skills cannot rely upon any single measure, taken at one point in time. An ideal evaluation will systematically link assessment to purposeful instruction and will include a variety of data about the progress of students. Easily administered multiple-choice tests with high reliability coefficients will be interpreted along with less reliable, more time-consuming performance assessments, like the writing sample and teacher observations of student behaviors. Single response formats will be compared to open-ended items. Criterion-referenced tests, which do not show growth between years, will be compared to norm-referenced tests, which have scaled scores. The Blue Valley Language Arts CRT is an assessment tool that reliably measures its domain at higher order thinking levels, but it is only one piece of the puzzle in assessing student communication skills.

STUDENTS

Accountability in Student Services: An Overview of Institutions of Higher Education In the Kansas City Area

Martha Wille

Quality in higher education has come under increasing scrutiny since the early 1980's. The demand for accountability and evaluation is now a reality for student affairs professionals. The growing cost of education, enrollment decline, and decreasing financial resources have pressured institutions to account for what is being done, why it is being done, and how well services are provided. The demands for accountability are coming from a variety of sources: Government officials, boards of trustees, staff, students, faculty, and the public (Patrick & Spencer, 1988).

Many institutions are developing procedures to account for their programs and money being spent. Institutions are finding that these procedures assist in collecting information for decision-making and improving programs (Gordon & Wiest, 1988). The purpose of this paper is to look at the history of accountability in Student Affairs and see how area institutions presently view it. This article surveyed eight institutions in the metropolitan Kansas City area to find out what type of accountability, if any, was in place in their institutions. And, if no process was in place, how programs were evaluated and accounted for.

Historical Perspectives

It is important to understand why accountability in higher education has received so much attention in the last few years. The

20th century has seen many role changes for student affairs. Historical factors as well as economical factors have influenced accountability procedures in student affairs.

Prior to the 1960's, institutions operated under the legal theory of "in loco parentis" which dictated that institutions serve in place of the parent, supervising student's conduct and their general welfare while in school. During the early 1900's institutions were becoming predominately residential. During this period, institutions had complete legal authority over and responsibility for their students. Under the theory of "in loco parentis", colleges provided very strict control over student behavior but did little in a positive manner to provide support and growth outside the classroom (Gregory, 1986).

The 1920's saw student affairs providing positive services to students. Institutions started recognizing student affairs as an important part of the college student's experience. Services such as counseling, placement, student activities, financial aid, and housing became an integral part of the institution. Student affairs still served as the local parent, strict disciplinarian, and watchful supervisor of morals (Gregory, 1986).

The 1950's saw many changes for higher education. There was a great influx of veterans from World War II and the Korean War. Many institutions were unprepared to handle the students and their needs. Also, this was the beginning of the new non-traditional student; female, older, and minorities. In many ways these "new" students set the tone of the new collegiate atmosphere (Wood, 1991).

During the 1960's, the legal concept of "in loco parentis" began to erode with a growing number of court cases that provided many new rights for students and many new responsibilities for institutions. (Gregory 1986) Much of this occurred during the protests of the 1960's and early 70's. Students were protesting against authority. Students indicated that restrictions placed on them were not needed and not wanted as before (D. Deitz, personal communication, October 20, 1992).

Many student affairs professionals welcomed this change. Student affairs staff believed that there had been an unwanted burden of control over students. Many student affairs staff breathed a sigh of relief under these new regulations. The court decisions were accompanied by a reduction in the age of majority, a national increase in student numbers, a broader and more diverse student population in terms of ages and backgrounds, as well as a number of other factors. The new student population also advocated for the new role of student affairs staff. No longer were Student affairs was to provide a positive output of effort to aid students in their intellectual and psychosocial development outside the classroom (Gregory, 1986).

The new influx of non-traditional students not only changed the environment of the campus, but expanded the enrollment and growth of the campus which resulted in increased planning and evaluations. But the planning and evaluations were based on a growth mentality and how additional resources were going to be assigned. Accountability to students needs, outcomes, quality, and effectiveness were seldom used consistently as criteria to determine the best use of resources (Ludeman, 1989). Short-range planning, based on management by objective became popular. The mid 1970's began to see evaluation and planning take form as a meaningful tool in preparing for long-range planning (Ludeman, 1989).

The 1980's and early 90's have seen institutions face economically tough-times. Government, students, public, and staff are asking for student affairs departments to show were the money is being spent and how it is effecting the student. Many institutions have used accountability procedures to show the public how their dollar is being used. These institutions are also using the evaluations as a means of improving the services and foreseeing any changes (D. Deitz, personal communication, October 20, 1992).

The 90's are also seeing a redefinition of "in loco parentis" to that of "in loco familia". Many students are indicating that rather than parental controls the feeling of family values and support are needed from the students private lives. Many institutions are indicating that there is a need to once again widen the institution's role in students life. As one administrator indicated "the pendulum has moved back." This change in institutions is comparable in many ways to that of society changes (Wood, 1991).

Institutions can not be expected to be held accountable for the changes affecting the whole of society.

Purpose of Study

Many leaders in student affairs are indicating that accountability and evaluation are necessary for student affairs to meet the challenges of the 90's. But how many institutions actually have such a procedure in place, and if there is none, how are decisions made regarding departmental accountability? This project surveyed eight area colleges and universities to see how many institutions to see how many institutions had formal accountability procedures in place, and if not, how decisions and evaluations regarding department issues were made. The survey was also sent to varying levels of student affairs staff at a public research university. This was done to determine how varying levels of an institution view the accountability and decision-making process.

Methodology

A survey was sent out to eight institutions in the Kansas City area (See Appendix I, Surveys). Three community colleges, three private universities, one four-year public college, and one public research university. Surveys were sent to the administration and directors of student affairs departments. Additional surveys were also sent to the non-exempt student affairs staff at the public university. This was to address the question of how different levels in staff view their role in accountability.

109 surveys were sent to designated institutions. There was an overall return rate of 34% (31). The public university was sent 63 surveys and 15 (23%) were returned.

Results

There was a 34% return rate on surveys sent out. Out of those who answered, 16% were Dean or CSAO level; 16% Directors; 42% were coordinators; and 3% were research associates. The surveys asked if the institution had an evaluation process for the student affairs department. Out of the 31 surveys, 20 (65%) indicated that they had some type of evaluation. Eighty percent of the Deans or CSAO indicated that their institution had an evaluation, whereas only 42% of the middle to lower management staff indicated that there was no evaluation process.

In comparing types of institutions, more community colleges indicated that their institution had an evaluation with 100%. Only 27% of those answering from a public university indicated that there was a formal evaluation process. Fifty percent of the respondents from the private institutions indicated that there was an evaluation process. The respondents indicated that most decisions were made through informal and formal means. Many indicated that there were some discussions, but in many cases the directors and/or deans would decide an issue.

Discussion

This survey would seem to indicate that student affairs departments in the area do not have formal evaluation and accountability procedures. This would tend to go against what the student affairs leaders indicate is happening. Research would seem to indicate that community colleges are the most responsive to accountability and evaluation procedures in their departments, whereas, the public-university is the least. This could be due in part to community colleges being responsive to their consumer and being student oriented. The public university, on the other hand, is more research oriented and does not put as much time and effort into student affairs.

Another interesting note is that high level management indicated that there is an evaluation process, but that middle and lower management indicated that there was not. This could be either because upper management is giving the "politically correct" answer, or perhaps the process is not filtered down to other student affairs staff members.

It is also interesting to note that there was a low level of return from the public university. It could be hypothesized that either there was apathy or because people indicated that they were afraid to answer the survey for fear of repercussions.

Adequacy of Selected Services to International Students at The University of Missouri-Kansas City

Kunlun Chang

Introduction

Definition and Trends

Throughout the years the United States has emerged as a host nation attracting international students. This responsibility has resulted in the expansion of international and intercultural dimensions of American higher education (Selvadurai, 1991). According to Zikopoulos (1987-88), 356,200 international students are enrolled at present in American colleges and universities. Recently this trend has further increased, especially in community and technical colleges because of increased American involvement in the global economy and political affairs (King, 1990).

The experiences of international students are very different from those of their native counterparts in the United States (Selvadurai, 1991). International students differ greatly as individuals but have common needs (Lee et al., 1981; Selvadurai,1984; Garcia, 1986; Tillman, 1990). The major academic problems of international students are related to proficiency in English language, academic advisement, course work, examinations, grading format, and faculty-student rapport (Lee et al., 1981; Graig, 1981; Tillman 1990). Economic problems, acculturation, and personal counseling loom high among personal problems encountered by international students (Lee et al., 1981; Mukolu, 1984). Most international students place academic achievement as their priority. Attaining this goal will be greatly facilitated if their personal sojourn is complemented by positive social interaction and a congenial atmosphere (Kaikai, 1989; Tillman 1990).

A literature review on satisfying the needs of international students on U.S. college campuses reveals inadequacies in services and support systems for these students (Hagey & Hagey, 1974; Zaritsky, 1990; Tillman, 1990). The development of effective services and support systems for international students is tied to administrative sensitivity, strong commitment, and internationalization in the curriculum. A sensitivity toward the needs of international students by college administrators will enhance the involvement of this group of students meaningfully in the American culture.

The purpose of this study is to understand: (1) whether UMKC has provided adequate services for international students; (2) what administrative procedures and policies are to be followed in regard to leadership and management of these services; and (3) how administrative procedures and policies affect management and in return international students.

Methodology

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions and hypotheses were mainly based on Salvadurai's 1991 study. The research questions addressed in the study were:

1. Does UMKC provide adequate services to satisfy academic needs of international students in regard to proficiency in English language, academic advisement, instructional practices, and grading practices?

2. Does UMKC provide adequate services to satisfy personal needs of international students in regard to finances, cultural adjustment, and personal problems?

3. Are there any differences between international students in their perceptions of adequate services based on several factors (see Table 1 in Appendix IV)?

4. If any, how do international students differ and why do they differ?

Twenty-eight null hypotheses based on items formulated and tested in the study. The null hypotheses addressed were that there were no differences between or among groups of international students at UMKC in regard to each academic and personal service item.

Instrument and Subjects

A twenty-eight-item questionnaire with 12 academic needs and 16 personal needs were selected as the survey instrument based on Selvadurai's (1991) study (See Appendix I, Surveys). Demographic information via personal data were incorporated as an addendum to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was validated for content, format, and style by the judgement of the personnel and staff at the Applied Language Institute of UMKC. The reliability of the instrument for academic needs and personal needs was .87 and .91, respectively. The subject's surveyed were UMKC international students enrolled at the Applied Language Institute for the Fall, 1992.

Data Collection

A computer printout of names of international students for the Fall, 1992 was obtained from the Applied Language Institute, and a list of class schedules was also obtained. The questionnaires were distributed and completed in the classrooms with the assistance of classroom instructors. Students were not asked to provide their names. To avoid repeated questionnaires by the same students, students' names were called in classrooms with the help by their instructors. The response rate in the study was 84 percent. The valid response rate without any missing item was 57 percent.

Treatment and Analysis of Data

Responses to each item related to research questions 1 and 2 were tallied based on a four-point Likert scale. A score scale of excellent = 4, good = 3, fair = 2, and unsatisfactory = 1 was used. Frequencies of ratings and mean scores of responses regarding services, conditions, and opportunities in satisfying the academic and personal needs of international students were calculated and tabulated separately. A mean score of less than 2.5 on a scale of 4 to 1, (based on Selvadurai's study, 1991), was considered to indicate a need for improvement of services, conditions, and opportunities for international students.

The null hypotheses were tested by using chi squares at .05 alpha for groups in each of the demographic variable and the responses were tallied to each question. The number of respondents in each group was recorded and the chi square for groups per question was calculated. The process was repeated for each variable. The calculated chi square value was compared to the critical chi square value at .05 alpha for groups in each variable per question to ascertain significance or nonsignificance. Acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses pertaining to academic needs and personal needs in each variable were tabulated separately.

The rejected null hypotheses in each variable pertaining to research questions 1 and 2 were further analyzed using the method of analysis of variance and T-test which provided variances and contributions in responses of adequacy and inadequacy of services of each group respectively. From the composition of the particular group in the population, it was determined which group or groups in the variable contributed to the significant difference in the respondents' perceptions between or among groups.

The methods of analysis of variance and T-test were also applied to determine whether there was a significant difference between or among groups of UMKC international students in their perceptions of services in regard to academic needs as a whole and personal needs as a whole.

Results

Distributions of respondents by variables, groups, and numbers are presented in Table 2 in Appendix B. Graphs of distributions and percentages of respondents by variables and groups are also presented in Appendix IV.

Frequencies of ratings and mean scores of respondents' perception of the adequacy of services in satisfying selected academic needs of UMKC international students are presented in Table 3 in Appendix IV.

Frequencies of ratings and mean scores of respondents' perception of the adequacy of services in satisfying selected personal needs of UMKC international students are presented in Table 4 in Appendix IV.

Table 5 in Appendix IV indicates a summary of acceptance or rejection of null hypotheses pertaining to adequacy of services in satisfying the academic needs of international students at UMKC.

Table 6 in Appendix IV shows a summary of acceptance or rejection of null hypotheses pertaining to adequacy of services in satisfying the personal needs of international students at UMKC.

The further analyses of those rejected items in regard to academic needs and personal needs by variables and groups are presented in Table 7 to Table 26 in Appendix IV. Those tables indicate the significant differences and variances between or among groups at different alpha levels regarding some academic needs and personal needs by using the methods of T-test and analysis of variance.

Tables 27 to Tables 30 in Appendix IV, respectively, indicate the significant differences and variances between or among groups regarding academic needs as a whole and personal needs as a whole by some variables.

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The findings of the study indicated that in the areas of academic services, availability of English tutoring services, assistance of academic advisers, assistance for improvement in English, rapport with faculty, availability of academic tutoring services, and understanding of English deficiencies attained minimum satisfactory levels. International students were more satisfied with availability of English tutoring services (mean=2.74) than other academic services. All other academic services showed inadequacies. The least unsatisfactory services was the opportunity for discussion of class work with native students and peers (mean=2.11). This is perhaps due to the English deficiencies of the international students or the fact that classroom settings may not provide the sufficient opportunities for them.

In every personal need category student expectations were not even to minimum levels, except the category of activities to learn culture and customs (mean=2.59) and cross-cultural activity opportunities (mean=2.19). The least unsatisfactory perceptions of foreign students regarding to personal services were summer job and work permit assistance (mean=2.05) and counseling in immigration and tax laws (mean=2.05).

Groups in the variables age, gender, and national origin pertaining to academic as well as personal services had the least rejection of null hypotheses. Hence, it could be concluded that there were no significant differences in the respondents' opinions between or among the groups in the variables regarding the adequacies of services to international students.

In the area of services, the highest rejection of null hypotheses by using analysis of chi square was seen among the groups in the variables native language, time living in the U.S., and major pertaining to academic services as well as personal services. Hence, there was a significant difference in the respondents' opinions among groups in these variables regarding adequacies of academic and personal services.

However, further analysis of variance pertaining to academic services as a whole indicated only the group in the variable time living in the U.S. showed a significant difference between the groups 1-2 years and 3 years and more (see Table 28 in Appendix IV). Analysis of data using the T-test regarding academic services as a whole indicated a significant difference between the groups in the variable academic level. Undergraduate students were more satisfied with the present academic services than the graduate students (see Table 27 in Appendix IV).

Although the variable gender showed only one rejection of the null hypotheses regarding academic services, it did indicate a significant difference between male and female pertaining to the present grading policies. Men was more satisfied than women with the grading policies (see Table 7 in Appendix IV).

The six rejected null hypotheses for personal services in the variable native language were information on personal expenses, information on cost of housing, counseling in immigration and tax laws, personal counseling in health care, and personal counseling in housing. By further analysis of variance for personal services, the variable time living in the U.S. had a significant difference between the Group III (those living in the U.S. 3 years and more) and Group II (those living in the U.S. 1-2 years) in regard to the category pre-enrollment information on tuition. Group III indicated adequacy of service while Group II showed inadequacy of service in this category.

With reference to academic and personal services, the highest rejection of null hypotheses was seen in the variable proficiency of English in reading. For academic services, three rejected null hypotheses indicating a significant difference among the groups were understanding of English deficiencies, grading policies, and availability of English tutoring. Group II (those good in reading) indicated adequacy of services while Groups III and IV (those fair or poor in reading) indicated inadequacy of services. For personal services, six rejected null hypotheses were found in the respondents' opinions among groups in the category of reading. Analysis of variance for personal services as a whole also indicated a significant difference among the groups in the variable proficiency in English reading (see Table 29 in Appendix IV).

As for the variable type of financial support regarding personal services as a whole, analysis of variance indicated a significant difference among the groups with Groups I and V (those sponsored by home government and UMKC) indicating adequacy of services and Groups II, III, and IV (those sponsored by parents, themselves, or both) indicating inadequacy of services (see Table 30 in Appendix V).

In summary, the findings from the above indicated an inadequacy of both academic and personal services in the opinions of the respondents. Academic services in general in the respondents' perceptions are better than personal services. The findings also indicated that there was not much significant difference between or among groups in the variables surveyed. Some significant differences between or among groups in some academic and personal services categories by variables indicated that improvement of both services are needed in regard to different groups of the international students at UMKC.

Because the subjects surveyed in this study were UMKC international students who enrolled in the Fall, 1992 at the Applied Language Institute and most of them (68%, see Appendix IV, Graphs, Length in the U.S.) lived in the U.S. less than one year, the findings of this study may not applied to the whole international student body at UMKC. However, this study may be considered as a pilot study for the future studies. In order to understand the services UMKC provided for the international students, a large scale survey among the international students at UMKC is recommended.

Child Care Centers in Higher Education

Adiele Nwachukwu

This practicum focuses on the importance of child care centers for children of students, faculty members, and the surrounding community. The University of Missouri-Kansas City and Penn Valley Community College day care centers are used in this practicum as good examples of the importance of day care centers in higher education. Lack of day care centers is a great hindrance to millions of young mothers in the United States today, unlike most of the developing countries or agricultural societies of the world. Many of these developing countries, such as Nigeria, have the extended family system. Therefore, child care is not a problem for them because a child belongs to the entire extended family, not the parents. In this type of system, any family member will be willing to keep the children without any charge.

Child care is a very recent issue in the United States. Few higher education institutions operate day care centers for their students. Before, women usually stayed at home and took care of their babies while the husband worked outside the home to take care of the entire family. In today's society, child care needs have changed because of various reasons, ranging from economic reasons to the women's liberation movement in the early 1970's. Adult mothers comprise the greatest number of students in both four-year colleges and community colleges because most of them had babies while they were still teenagers and many of them are single, either because of divorce or personal preference. But today, things are changing. For example, anyone visiting the UMKC day care center will know what I am talking about. The center is called the UMKC Child Enrichment Center and is located at 32 East 16th Street, Kansas City, Missouri (just south of the Hilton Plaza Inn). This center is designed to provide a safe, healthy, and active environment for the school-age child six to twelve years old. The program is operated for the benefit of students, faculty, and staff of UMKC, Menorah Medical Center, Cleveland Chiropractic College, and the surrounding community. Penn Valley Community College also operates day care centers for their students and faculty members, although the UMKC day care center, according to the director, Lee Porter, operates as a non-profit organization, unlike Penn Valley Day Care Center.

Definitions: Day Care and Early Childhood Services

The literature concerning day care reveals a lack of conceptual clarity. Certain differences exist between day care and early childhood services. Katz (1980) outlines the distinction between mothering and teaching to explain that parenting and teaching require different but complementary roles: A distinction that has become confused in the recent emphasis on the importance of a stimulating environment for very young children (Ditchburn, 1987).

An exploration of the distinction between day care and early childhood services may help us understand the roles necessary to support the development of young children (Ditchburn, 1987). Purpose is defined on a continuum from the provision of care with an emphasis on service to working parents, to the provision of educational services with an emphasis on service to children. The fact that day care is sponsored by both private enterprise and government agencies further complicates the issue of the purpose of day care.

The Public Health Act (1981) outlines in great detail the requirements with regard to safety and health through regulations specifying square meterage, temperature, cleanliness, ventilation, and plumbing (Ditchburn, 1987). In contrast, statements about programming are brief and unspecific. Programming should be consistent with childrens' stages of development. Also, the day care center schedule should retain flexibility and provide for rest, toilet, and nourishment, indoor and outdoor activities, and vigorous and quiet activities. Thus, it is obvious that day care services tend to be fragmented through differing purposes and sponsorship without the support of a statement of purpose. Day care provides for children from infancy to school age, while early childhood services programs are supported by a comprehensive statement of program philosophy and goals. Early childhood services programs are coordinated systems of local, regional, and provincial programs concerned with the developmental and special needs of young children and their families, with particular emphasis on the preschool year circumstances.

Expectations and Accountability

General expectations for day care programs center on the provision of a warm, nurturing, healthy, and safe environment. However, in the early childhood program accountability for the educational component is evident. Such accountability is emphasized when ECS (early childhood service) programs are operated by school jurisdictions (Haskins & Alessi, 1989). Thus, it is clear that there are significant differences between services offered by day care and those offered by ECS. According to the director of Penn Valley Community College Day Care Center, Linda Bell, that program is a combination of day care and early childhood services. The number of single women returning to college and the work place has increased since the 1970's. Most of these women have children and are the heads of their households with low annual incomes. Today, there are various reasons we have an increase in the number of women returning to college. The divorce rate is high when compared with any other developed nation. The inflation rate is high compared to the 1960's. And again, most Americans think as individuals rather than as a group, unlike the citizens of many developing countries. These factors have contributed to the destruction of the extended family women must support themselves, and they

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importance of child care today and the difficulty in generating reasonable income to support the family (Moynihan, 1989).

The most important factor in a child's healthy development is the existence of a nurturing, positive family environment. Particularly hard hit are the newly formed young families with children who are unable to keep up with today's inflation rates.

Equally disturbing is the increasing number of births to unmarried higher education students, who are also teenage mothers with low annual incomes. The total number of births to some groups of teenagers has declined since the 1970's, to be sure, but we still have a high teenage birth rate in the United States. The percentage of all teen births to unmarried teens rocketed from 13.9 in the 1950's to 30.0 in the 1970's, to 58.7 in 1985. Both these young mothers and their children face high risks of failure in school and high risks of poverty in life (Moynihan, 1989).

Generally, experience shows that providing child care does make it possible for more mothers, especially those attending community colleges, to work and support their families. A good example is Penn Valley Community College students and staff members. Another good example is the UMKC Child Enrichment Center. It is possible for these students, staff, faculty members, and the Menorah Medical Center staff to take their children to the Enrichment Center while they are at work or in class.

Child care centers help parents in higher education to stay on the job without the loss of hours of work while attending classes. Also, these facilities protect parents and children from uncertain, even dangerous, or undependable child care arrangements.

Child care centers permit one or two adult college students living together in a family to work additional hours, thus increasing their family income. Even today, most of the directors of community college and university day care centers have masters degrees in early childhood education, and their staff consists of people with bachelors degrees in the same area. These professionals could make a difference in the training of the children in their care, especially children from limited educational backgrounds.

Also, some community colleges such as Penn Valley use their child care centers as a laboratory school for students in nursing and early childhood classes. This contact is advantageous for children are not able to interact often with their own parents because of the parents' work and school schedules. The qualified staffs of the day care centers could made a difference when school success depends on a foundation of psychological development and social skills as well as on intellectual factors. Younger children who lack access to quality child care may arrive at school poorly prepared. Moreover, the educational benefits for children who attend preschool compared with those who do not are many.

Children who have attended preschool make better grades, fewer failing marks, are retained less often in both grade school and high school, and have fewer absences in elementary school than children who do not attend preschool (Camboil, 1987). These children have less need of special education services and fewer placements in special education classes. They have improved literacy and curiosity, with a greater likelihood of completing high school and continuing education beyond high school. These children are usually early or on time to the classes in high school.

Most of the adult females returning to school who have children but lacked child care centers are more likely to be absent from classes than those mothers with access to such services. The same applies to faculty and staff (Campbell, 1987).

When mothers know their children are in good health and under good care, they will be likelier to concentrate on their classes and jobs. One of the advantages of the community college's child care center is that the children receive good, nutritional food because of the USDA support. It is not only community colleges that have this advantage. The University of Missouri-Kansas City Child Enrichment Center also benefits from the USDA. The food from the USDA will help parents without knowledge of nutrition to see that their children receive the best nutritional food.

In the 1950's poverty was essentially a problem of the aged, but today many more Americans are at the poverty level, and poorest among them are children. Now, about 24% of the children live with only one parent, two and one-third times the proportion in the 1960's (Edelman, 1989).

Large numbers of these children are likely to require some form of public assistance. Child care in our colleges and universities could serve this purpose by lowering the amount that students pay as parents.

How Much Child Care and for Whom?

There is abundant evidence that lack of reliable, affordable child care is a major obstacle to parents' finding work, remaining in school, remaining employed, and increasing family income by working additional hours (Edelman, 1989). More than a third of the women interviewed by a study reported in The American Journal of Sociology stated that they would like to work additional hours, but are prevented from doing so by lack of available child care. Research by University of Miami economists on the links between child care and economic self-sufficiency among low-income families living in public housing revealed that a 50 percent increase in the size of an on-site child care center would result in a 13.5 percent rise in hours worked by residents and a 19.5 percent increase in their earnings.

While availability and dependability of child care services influence families ability to use and benefit from them, an equally critical factor inn access is cost. "Child care costs, the newest major expense for families, now consume nearly 10 percent of the average family's income and 20 percent of the income for poor families," noted Representative George Miller (D-California) in Congressional hearings (Edelman, 1989). This increase in the proportion of income needed for child care is occurring at a time when the average for young families with children has declined, and other costs, such as housing, are increasing.

Because of the cost factor, the families whose youngsters most need child care are the least able to afford it. In 1985, fewer than one-third of four-year-olds and 17 percent of three-year-olds in families with incomes below $10,000 a year were enrolled in preschool programs (Edelman, 1989).

If poor families do figure out a way to pay for child care from their low or sporadic incomes, all too often the care they can afford may be in an unsafe or inadequately staffed facility, such as a neighbor's home. Few can afford the costs of developmentally enriching child care programs that would increase the chances of poor and at-risk children to overcome the health, environmental, and other disadvantages accompanying poverty. Currently, the highly successful, federally supported Head Start Program serves less than 20 percent of eligible children (Edelman, 1989). For example, parents pay about $60 weekly tuition to send one child to Penn Valley Community Day Care program while UMKC charges $64 for a child. A young UMKC mother with three children must pay about $192 a week.

In conclusion, child care centers should not be treated as personal problems by the rest of society (Rust & Williams, 1989). All institutions of higher education should follow the examples of UMKC and Penn Valley Community College. These institutions try to provide affordable day care for students, faculty, staff, and community.

Full-time students should be allowed to keep their children in the center without payment since they do not have any other sources of income. Faculty and staff of the college and university should be allowed an income tax deduction for day care tuition expenses. We should understand that the children of today are the adults of tomorrow.

We should let society help those men and women who want to help themselves in order to better their lives and the future of their children. I personally think that government would save billions of dollars by providing day care centers for the children of young teenage mothers while they are at school or at the workplace instead of paying billions of dollars in welfare benefits annually.

Standardized Test Scores and College Performance For African American Students: A Correlational Study at an Urban, Land Grant University

Joan Gilson

Standardized Tests: Definitions and Background

The use of standardized tests in college admissions and placement has been the subject of a number of articles in recent years. After reviewing the work of Klitgaard (1985) and Owen (1985), David White (1985) asserted that standardized tests would be used less frequently in the future because of serious difficulties with this form of student assessment. Slack and Porter (1980) wrote of their doubts about the ability of standardized tests to measure academic potential, Crouse (1985) and Crouse and Trusheim (1989) both argued that standardized tests do not accurately predict student performance and that the exclusive reliance on standardized tests reduces the number of African Americans admitted to colleges.

White (1985) and Goldman and Hewitt (1976) discuss the relationship of African American academic performance to standardized test scores, noting that for these students grades are not accuratelv predicted by the test scores so often used in college admissions.

This study looks at the relationship between minority students' admission criteria standardized test scores and subsequent academic grades at an urban, land grant, public university in the midwest.

The study included two groups of Freshmen English students: One located on campus and traditionally administered, the other located in fifteen high schools in the contiguous quarter of the state.

The High School/College Credit Program

The high school program, the University of Missouri-Kansas City College Credit program, has been in place since 1979. The program was instituted in response to a community request for a college credit program, and includes schools in the inner city of Kansas City, the suburbs, and in widely scattered rural communities. The program is administered through the college of Arts and S^iences, a special admissions and enrollment procedure having been created for this purpose. Faculty reluctance to participate was overcome through an intensive campaign of persuasion by the dean of the college and the director of the program. Both faculty and administration at UMKC also became convinced some time ago that if UMKC did not offer a quality program, high schools eager for college credit offerings would apply to community colleges or other sources of credit that might be less academically rigorous. As a result, the decision to participate was made by six departments in the College of Arts and Sciences: English, Mathematics, History, Speech, Foreign Languages, and Science (Vivion, 1991).

The program is notable for tight academic controls and its close coordination with the on-campus program. Like the campus program, teachers hold the Masters degree in the subject area. Curriculum, texts, and final exams are written by the department from which credit is granted. Classes are visited yearly by academic coordinators from the departments involved, and teachers come in to campus at least twice a year for staff development (Vivion, 1991).

Originally, minority enrollment was nearly non-existent in all courses offered by the program because of the suburban location of participating schools. In recent years, however, because of demographic changes in those districts and because of the addition of four schools in the Kansas City, Missouri, school district, minority enrollment, particularly African American, has increased.

It was the purpose of this study to examine the academic performance of minority students in this course and in the identical course offered on the Volker UMKC campus. The relationship between the variables of African American student grades in both the high school and campus courses and the standardized test scores of those students were investigated.

One major hypothesis was developed for this study: No significant relationship exists between standardized test scores used at UMKC for admittance criteria and subsequent course grades in a required, core course, Freshman Composition.

Method

Materials

Two independent variables, Enhanced ACT score and academic course grade in freshman composition, English 110, were analyzed by means of SSPS.

Subjects

Subjects for this study consisted of 84 African American students completing the high school English 110 course and the same course on campus during the years 1990-1992.

Results

Data

The two variables were analyzed with the SPSS statistical program. Frequencies, mean Act scores, mean course grades, and Pearson correlation of Act scores and course grades were computed.

Academic Grade

The most frequently occurring academic grade in Freshman Composition for UMKC's freshman African American students in this study was 2, or "C", for 29 people.

The mean academic grade for these students was 2.63, or "C," standard deviation .991

Standardized Test Score

The most frequently occurring Enhanced Act Score for these students was 19 (for 11 students).

The mean Enhanced Act score for these same students was 19.512 with a standard deviation of 3.688.

Relationship Between ACT Score and Course Grade

The Pearson correlation between the Enhanced Act scores and the subsequent course grades of African American Students in Freshman Composition at UMKC from 1990 to 1992 was computed at .4115. A two-tailed test indicated an .01 level of significance for these results. No predictable relationship exists between standardized test scores and subsequent course grades of African American students in this course.

Discussion

The hypothesis of this study was supported. For African American students, standardized test scores do not correlate with academic performance in a required course. The results of this study offer further troubling questions about the usefulness of these test scores to screen students and restrict admissions at this university or any public institution of higher education, for that matter.

Shortly before this project began, the board of curators for the university under study announced that admittance criteria were to be revised and that standardized test scores were to be raised in order, ostensibly, to raise academic standards. Little discussion of this announcement has occurred within the university, which is affiliated with the state land-grant college system, and no one has raised the question of the effects of such a move on African American enrollment or of the significance of highly selective admissions procedures in light of the University's land grant, public character and charge to serve the community and the state. In addition, no calculations have been made as to how many students would be barred from admittance and the total amount of tuition dollars lost by the move.

Conclusion

Although this study replicates a number of previous projects, the results might prove useful for encouraging in-house discussions of the Board of Curators' move to raise test scores in terms of our faculty and administrator's beliefs about the University's goals. Currently, the key to upward mobility in middle class American culture is a college education. It might be highly productive for those of us involved at UMKC to discuss the following questions: If we use questionable means to limit the mobility of a group historically marginalized in America, African Americans, are we preventing the University from fulfilling this role for the people of Kansas City and of Missouri? Is there another local institution better suited for that role? If this is not a fair representation of our role, what is?

In a time of economic uncertainty, this sort of discussion could provide all of us, faculty and administrators, with a more certain sense of our goals and a deeper understanding of our task.

RISK MANAGEMENT

Risk Management: A Study of Grade Appeals For Clinic Performance in a Professional Program

Karen Komoroski

Introduction

One of the most startling and worrisome changes that has overtaken higher education in the past few years in the discovery that colleges and universities are not immune from legal damage suits. Court dockets are filled with claims involving negligence, breach of contract, discrimination, and other violations of civil liberties. Colleges and universities, along with their administrative staffs and faculty, are finding themselves as defendants in these cases with increased frequency. The list of hazards confronting university administrators is long one. In 1974, the Insurance and Risk Management Committee of the National Association of College and University Business Officers established a comprehensive classification of higher education liability perils. This committee divided these potential sources of liability into three main categories: Criminal acts, tort and equity acts, and contractual acts. Examples of criminal acts include embezzlement by employees, environmental pollution, and manslaughter by campus security officers. Tort or equity acts include automobile and property liability, liquor law liability, negligence on the part of administrative directors and officers, discrimination liability and clinical practicum liability. Contractual risks often involve franchise operations, college catalogs, the granting of grades and degrees and employment and tenure issues.

The concept of risk management, though vitally important to the maintenance of any health organization, was largely ignored in higher education until the mid 1970's. It was at this time that the concept of risk management first appeared in the higher education literature (Buchanan, 1984). Most of the literature deals with insurance, but risk management should be thought of in its broader context: The process by which risk is identified, investigated, treated, controlled, and funded (Welzenbach, 1982).

In the context of higher education, risk management serves to stabilize the financial consequences of risks in the most efficient manner possible that is consistent with the objectives of the institution and the pressures imposed by the human, social political, legal and economic environments in which it functions (Aiken, Adams & Hall, 1976). Inherent in the purpose is an obligation to preserve the institutions assets at the lowest possible cost to the institution by identifying liability, analyzing the liability in terms of frequency and severity, applying effective controls to reduce the liability and finally, providing sufficient post-loss funds when necessary (Kloman, 1975). Litigation often results in significant dollar and staffing losses. The utility of risk management is, therefore, critical to developing a decision-making process designed to prevent these types of losses.

Review of the Literature

The courts have long recognized that the relationship between a student and a college is contractual in nature. In one of the first cases where this argument was recognized, the court held that admissions brochures of a medical college set forth the terms of a contract between the student and the institution (People ex rel. Cecil v. Bellevue Hospital Medical College, 1891). In the last decade, the number of court cases involving institutions of higher education and alleged contractual obligations to students has dramatically increased. Since the courts are increasingly using contract law as a basis for the settlement of claims, prudent administrators must increase their knowledge in this area (Shur, 1988).

Virtually every oral and written contract between the student and the institution becomes part of the mutually binding contractual obligation. The findings in a number of court cases have supported the concept that students no longer need to be passive consumers who pay their tuition and fees, yet have no legal standing in the courts to ensure that the university will meet legitimate contractual obligations.

Although the existence of the contractual relationship is now freely acknowledged, the nature of that relationship may be difficult to define. A contract, in its most basic form, is set forth in all the written and oral representations made between the parties during the application for admission and thereafter. These items clearly include the admissions application form, admissions brochures, the institutions' catalogue, course descriptions, and promises or representations made by college or university officials.

In the absence of any "contract provision" in the catalogue (that is, student conduct codes or academic dismissal procedures), the courts require different procedures for dealing with conduct related to academic dismissal. These standards can vary even more between public and private institutions. Where a public institution alleges a disciplinary infraction, the student is entitled to at least a modicum of "due process" according to the U.S. Supreme Court in Goss v. Lopez (1975). However, no such procedures are required where academic failure is the cause for dismissal from the university. Notwithstanding these distinctions, most institutions have opted to promulgate detailed disciplinary or conduct codes as well as procedures by and through which a student can question, at least to the level of department head or dean, an adverse academic judgement. These policies become part of the contract between the students and the institution, and any deviation from the written procedure can be dealt with as a breach of that contract. However, if proper procedures are followed, the courts will rarely interfere with the academic judgement of the faculty, absent a showing of "arbitrary and capricious" behavior (Kaplin, 1990).

Challenges to an institution's right to make academic decisions usually include constitutional claims, contractual claims, or both. Courts recognize that similar standards of judicial review apply, regardless of the formal nature of the claim. A federal distract court in Texas stated: "A student with a grievance may not.....transform a court into a sort of educational ombudsman whose function is to review the everyday actions of local school officials. It is difficult to imagine an area of academia more suitable for judicial abstention" (Keys v. Sawyer, 1973).

When dealing with professors or with areas of study that are highly technical or that require great expertise, the courts have recognized that even more weight should be given to the judgement of trained professionals. To illustrate, a student of history who is found by the faculty to be incapable of developing empathetic relationships with fellow students or faculty might arguably be allowed to graduate with a degree in history, it being presumed that character or personality problems would not in any way affect the person's competency as a historian, nor would a young historian be in a position where, by sole reason of training and academic degree, she could affect others. In contrast, a similar type of student in medicine or a medically related field, such as mental health counseling, by reason of training and a degree from an institution of higher education, can wreak havoc with the mental or physical well-being of others.

One of the first cases to recognize the necessity of strict standards was Connelly v. University of Vermont and State Agricultural College (1965). In this case the court asked two questions. The first question involved the student's qualifications and his ability to meet academic standards. The court concluded that this was not a matter for judicial review. The second question centered on the motivation of the school authorities for the student's dismissal. Had they acted in an arbitrary or capricious manner? The court held that "a student dismissal motivated by bad faith, arbitrariness, or capriciousness may be actionable."

A decision by the Washington Supreme Court amply defined "arbitrary and capricious action" in a case involving the University of Washington's medical school. "Arbitrary and capricious action of administrative bodies means willful and unreasoning action without consideration and in disregard of facts or circumstances. Where there is room for two opinions, action is not arbitrary or capricious when exercising honesty and upon due consideration, even though it may be believed that an erroneous conclusion has been reached (McDonald v. Hogness, 1979). In Gaspar v. Bruton (1975), the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit recognized: The court may grant relief as a practical matter only in those cases where the student presents positive evidence of ill will or bad motive." A federal district court judge in Iowa succinctly underscored this concept when he declared: "The absence of such evidence coupled with the authorities' discretion to determine scholastic grades requires the decision in favor of the defendants" (Greenhill v. Baily, 1975).

In a landmark 1978 decision, Board of Curators of the University of Missouri v. Horowitz, the U.S. Supreme Court commented in great detail on the different standards to be used in disciplinary and academic cases. Charlotte Horowitz had challenged her dismissal from medical school on every imaginable ground, including her human and constitutional rights and breach of what she claimed were certain standards that the school used in making academic and disciplinary decisions. The court did not uphold her claim. This case continues to be considered a landmark case in confirming the courts' unwillingness to decide cases involving academic issues in higher education.

It is possible that in the not-to-distant future a careful college and judicial distinction will have to be constructed for distinguishing "academic dismissal" or "dismissal for academic failure" from "clinical performance failure, "academic performance failure" or "oral comprehension failure." Presently they are all lumped together under the classification "academic dismissal." Through a critical eye an observer would readily concede that the latter bracket of expulsions was arrived at through non-objective or non-writing courses. Furthermore, the distance between dismissal resulting from a course failure because of a "professor's opinion" where there was no written examination and a course failure where there is a written examination could be worlds apart (Pogue, 1978).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine action brought by students against institutions for the purpose of appealing clinical grades and to determine risk management strategies utilized by these institutions to prevent such actions.

Methodology

Qualitative methodology was utilized to determine the scope of the aforementioned issues. Qualitative research is essentially an investigative process. One makes gradual sense of a social phenomenon, and does it in large part by contrasting, comparing, replicating, cataloguing, and classifying the object of ones study (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Since so little investigation has been done in the area of risk management and prevention of clinical grade appeals, the investigator felt that this type of approach would be appropriate for this study.

A structured interview was developed by the primary investigator that examined the experiences and administrative policies and procedures that guide the actions of faculty in presenting and defending clinical grades. Due to time constraints a convenience sample of administrators from four schools of nursing was chosen to respond to the survey. The sample included the nursing division chairperson from one public community college, the deans at two private four year colleges and the Dean of Student Affairs in the college of nursing at a Major public university. Each of these institutions resided within the geographic boundaries of a large midwestern city. The investigator felt that this sample would provide representation from the various types of nursing education programs offered in this community.

After developing the interview schedule (Appendix I), the investigator piloted the tool by using it to interview one nursing faculty member and one nursing administrator. Though one of these individuals felt that questions 3 & 4 were redundant, it was decided to leave them both in as they might solicit differing types of responses.

The interviews were conducted by the investigator on site at the schools of nursing over a one month period of time. Responses to the various interview questions were collated and analyzed according to the various themes that arose. The raw interview data and resultant themes were examined by another nursing faculty member to increase reliability of the investigators conclusions.

Conclusions

All of the participants in the study reported to have been personally involved with clinical grade appeals. One particular administrator stated that she was involved in three clinical grade appeals in one semester for one course. Each of the administrators had been in their current position for minimum of two years though two stated that they also had experience with this issue as faculty members prior to being an administrator.

Each of the institutions had written policies and procedures outlined for students who wish to appeal clinical grades. Each of these procedures were similar in that the appeals process began with the clinical instructor who awarded the failing grade, moved up through the administration of the nursing division and ultimately was reviewed by the administration of the college or university. While the actual logistics of this appeals process differed from institution to institution, it was clear that each of these schools awarded nursing students some degree of "due process" when dealing with clinical grade appeals. One respondent observed that in her particular institution, institutional administrators outside of the school of nursing had always supported the Nursing divisions' decisions on academic matters. Regardless of the outcome of a clinical grade appeal, all schools surveyed allowed students to complete a failed clinical course at least once. All schools also had a limit on the number of courses that a student could fail and repeat within the nursing major, most often two.

Each of the administrators gave essentially the same responses to the interview questions on institutional defenses and preventative strategies as was predicted by one of the individuals with which the interview schedule was piloted. The most consistent response to these questions was that complete and continuing documentation was an essential element in preventing clinical grade appeals as well as acting as the best defense of the grade. Two participants in the survey also stated that formal notification of the student's inadequacies and individual conferences suggesting ways to improve clinical performance were a deterrent to grade appeals. It was suggested that these conferences were also to be documented and signed by both the instructor and the student.

The variables that were felt to be predictive of a student appealing a clinical grade were as follows: personality conflict with the instructor, previous history of failing clinical courses, and the reputation of the student as "a trouble maker."

One survey participant also stated that a student would be more apt to appeal a clinical grade if he or she felt he or she had been treated differently than another student in the same situation or perceived that he or she had been treated unfairly. These responses were quite varied and consequently prevented the assumption of any underlying themes.

Discussion

While all of the respondents in this study cited adequate documentation of student performance as critical to the prevention of and in the defense of clinical grade appeals. it appears from the review of the literature and supportive court cases that this particular practice is not warranted. The courts in each of the states and the Supreme Court of the United States have continually reaffirmed the principle of judicial noninterference in all matters of academic judgement, not just those involving clinical performance (Young & Gehring, 1986). College administrators working outside of professional disciplines also tend to informally adhere to a doctrine of noninterference, trusting to the judgement of the individual faculty members involved in the appeal. This investigator suggests that this continuing theme of the importance of documentation is a result of two factors: The historical legal importance of the documentation of patient care in nursing and the feeling that documentation could be useful as evidence to convince other colleagues or institutional administrators of the justification for the awarding of the clinical grade.

Another result of the study was the discovery that all of the schools of nursing in the sample had written policies and procedures in place for student grade appeals. While the courts have continually reaffirmed the students' rights to "due process" in matters of disciplinary action, they have not required that this same doctrine be adhered to in academic matters. In questioning the judgement of professors and officials in academic matters, the burden of proof is always upon the student to show arbitrary or capricious action (Young & Gehring, 1986). The provision of due process in academic matters in and of itself is probably a preventative strategy employed by institutions of higher education to ensure that the student perceives he or she is being given the opportunity to plead his or her case and is being treated fairly. If the provision of institutional due process does not satisfy the student and he or she continues to feel that he or she has been "arbitrarily and capriciously acted upon", then and only then can he or she justifiably bring court action against the institution.

Each of the institutions examined appeared to practice conservative risk management strategies to avoid legal entanglement over clinical grade appeals. That may have indeed been unnecessary. Since the lowering of the legal age of adulthood to eighteen and the gradual disappearance of the "in loco parentis" doctrine, colleges and universities have found themselves more often in the courtroom as the legal adversaries of students. Students today have a more sophisticated knowledge of their legal rights and are more anxious to challenge, within the confines of the judicial system, what are perceived to be injustices. Recognizing the litigious social climate in which colleges and universities reside, one can certainly understand the conservative approach to risk management that these institutions have taken. It is often a formidable challenge to simultaneously provide a high quality education to students while protecting the interest of the institution. More and more institutions will question how to manage the best balance between these two concerns in the future.

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Appendix I

Surveys

Tjaden	The Role of Internships in Travel Education Curriculum
Wille	Accountability in Student Services
Chang	Adequacy of Selected Services to International Students at UMKC
Komoroski	Risk Management: A Study of Grade Appeals for Clinic Performance in a Professional Program

SURVEY QUESTIONS FOR INTERNSHIP PRESENTATION

I. *General Information*

1. *Which statement best describes your tourism-related program and type of institution?*

   a. ______ Private institution granting a certificate in travel and tourism.

   ______ Private institution granting a two-year associate degree.

   ______ Private institution granting a baccalaureate with or without a masters program.

   ______ Public institution granting two-year associate degree.

   ______ Public institution granting a baccalaureate with or without a masters program.

   ______ Other (please describe)

   ____

   ____

   b. *Please place a checkmark before the term that best indicates your faculty level.*

   ______ Full-time lecturer/instructor

   ______ Part-time lecturer/instructor

   ______ Assistant professor

   ______ Associate professor

   ______ Full professor

   ______ Other (please describe)

   ____

   ____

2. *Do you have an internship program now?*

   ______ yes ______ no

3. *How many students are in the internship program each semester?*

______ less than 10 ______ 11-20 ______ 21-30 ______ over 30

4. *Is internship work required for graduation?*

______ yes ______ no

5. *Rank, in order of importance, number one (1) being the highest, these statements on the purpose of internships.*

______ As additional learning experience for students.

______ To help students with employment opportunities.

______ As an aid in recruiting.

______ To bridge into other formal degree programs.

6. *How many years have you had an internship program?*

______ 1 ______ 2 ______ 3-5 ______ 6 or more

7. *How many times may a student enroll?*

______ 1 ______ 2 ______ 3 ______ more than 3

II. *Structuring the Internship Program*

8. *How many college credits can be earned for each internship class?*

______ 1 ______ 2 ______ 3 ______ 4 ______ 5 and over

9. *What is the total length of your internship program?*

______ 1 semester ______ 2 semesters ______ 3 semesters ______ more than 3

10. *How many weeks constitute a semester?*

______ 16 weeks ______ less than 16 weeks ______ more than 16 weeks

11. *How much time is spent in the classroom?*

______ 10 hours per semester ______ 11-20 hours per semester

______ 21-30 hours per semester ______ 30 hours and more per semester

12. *How much time is spent outside the classroom?*

______ 0 ______ 1-10 hours ______ 11-20 hours ______ 21-30 hours ______ 30 or more

13. *What are your requirements for admitting students to an internship program?*

______ prerequisite course ______ permission of instructor

______ completion of predetermined number of credit hours

14. *Is your program primarily:*

______ employment-based ______ research-based ______ both

15. *What are the evaluation criteria in the internship program? (check all applicable)*

______ supervisory evaluation (on-the-job) ______ paper ______ test ______ project

Accountability in Student Affairs

Department: ____________________
Position title: ____________________
Institution: ____________________

Additional paper may be used.

1. Describe the current decision making-process in Student Affairs. ____________________

2. Describe the process used to assess the decision-making or accountability process within the Division of Student Affairs.

____

3. Does your department currently have an qualitative analysis or evaluation/assessment process?
(If NO skip to #9)

yes __________ no __________

4. If yes, in which areas?

Fiscal __________
Administrative __________
Departmental __________
Programmatic __________

5. If yes, briefly explain the analysis procedure.

____

6. What consumer group is targeted with this analysis? (check all that apply)

Faculty __________
Staff __________
Students __________
Alumni __________
Administration __________

7. Who in your department is involved with this accountability process? (check all that apply)

Administrators __________
Assistant Director __________
Graduate intern __________
Other staff __________
Director __________
Coordinator __________
Support staff __________
Workstudy __________

8. Describe how the data is utilized in the decision-making process in your department?

____
____
____
____

9. If your department does not have a procedure, do you feel that an evaluation/assessment would be beneficial?

yes__________ no__________

10. If not, why?
time______________
would not be beneficial______
not enough staff______
currently developing a process______
not required by administration______
other (please explain)______________
____

11. If no formal evaluation process is in use, describe how decisions are made in regards to your department?

____
____
____
____

12. Which programs are evaluated on a yearly basis?

____
____
____

13. Do you participate, and to what degree in the evaluation process?____
____
____
____

14. How long have you been at this institution? (circle one)
0-2 years
3-5 years
7-10 years
10-15 years
15-above years

15. Describe how the decision-making process has changed during your tenure at this institution? ______________
____
____
____

Please return to Martha Wille Student Life Office
by Novemeber 16, 1992

Kunlun Chang

Questionnaire

International Students

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate the adequacy of selected academic and personal services to international students at UMKC. Please fill in the blanks and circle the numbers that indicate your choices.

Basic Information

1. Your age:_____________
2. Gender: male________ female_______
3. Academic level: graduate_______ undergraduate__________
4. Your major: ________________________
5. Time living in the U.S.: ___________ _____________

6. Level of proficiency in the English language:

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
a. Reading	1	2	3	4
b. Vocabulary	1	2	3	4
c. Writing	1	2	3	4
d. Grammar	1	2	3	4
e. Speaking	1	2	3	4
f. Listening				

7. National origin:
   1 European
   2 Latin American/Caribbean
   3 Middle Eastern/Asian
   4 Oriental
   5 Other
8. Native Language
   1 English
   2 Spanish or French
   3 Hindi or Arabic
   4 Chinese
   5 Other
9. Type of Financial Support
   1 Sponsored by home government
   2 Sponsored by parents
   3 Personal Savings
   4 Sponsored by parents and personal savings
   5 Sponsored by UMKC GTA______ GRA______ work study_____

Selected issues

Academic Needs

Please circle the number of your choice.

4 excellent
3 good
2 fair
1 unsatisfactory

	E	G	F	U
1. Assistance for improvement in English	1	2	3	4
2. Services of ESL program	1	2	3	4
3. Understanding of English deficiencies	1	2	3	4
4. Cooperation of native students for	1	2	3	4
improvement of spoken English	1	2	3	4
5. Counseling in curriculum programming	1	2	3	4
6. Orientation to academic setting	1	2	3	4
7. Assistance of academic advisers	1	2	3	4
8. Types of exams for students with foreign educational background	1	2	3	4
9. Grading policies for international students	1	2	3	4
10. Availability of tutoring services	1	2	3	4
11. Opportunities for discussion of class work with native students and peers	1	2	3	4
12. Rapport with faculty	1	2	3	4

Personal Needs

Please circle the number of your choice.

4 excellent
3 good
2 fair
1 unsatisfactory

	E	G	F	U
1. Assistance in obtaining financial aid	4	3	2	1
2. Summer job and work permit assistance	4	3	2	1
3. Policies and procedures for tuition	4	3	2	1
4. Policies for student activity fee	4	3	2	1
5. Preenrollment information on tuition	4	3	2	1
6. Information on personal expenses	4	3	2	1
7. Information on cost of housing	4	3	2	1
8. Information on healthcare	4	3	2	1
9. Activities to learn culture and customs	4	3	2	1
10. Assistance in community involvement	4	3	2	1
11. Cross-cultural activity opportunities	4	3	2	1
12. Counseling in immigration and tax laws	4	3	2	1
13. Personal counseling in healthcare	4	3	2	1
14. Personal counseling in housing	4	3	2	1
15. Personal counseling in childcare	4	3	2	1
16. Expertise of personal counselors	4	3	2	1

Risk Management: Grade Appeals
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Name: ____________________________

Institution: ____________________

Type of Nursing Program _______

1. Have you personally been involved in any clinical grade appeals?

2. What are your institution's policies/procedures for dealing with student clinical grade appeals?

3. What do you feel would be your institution's best defense in a clinical grade appeal case?

4. What preventative strategies would you suggest to reduce the legal risks associated with awarding failing clinical grades?

5. What variables do you feel predict a student's appeal of a clinical grade?

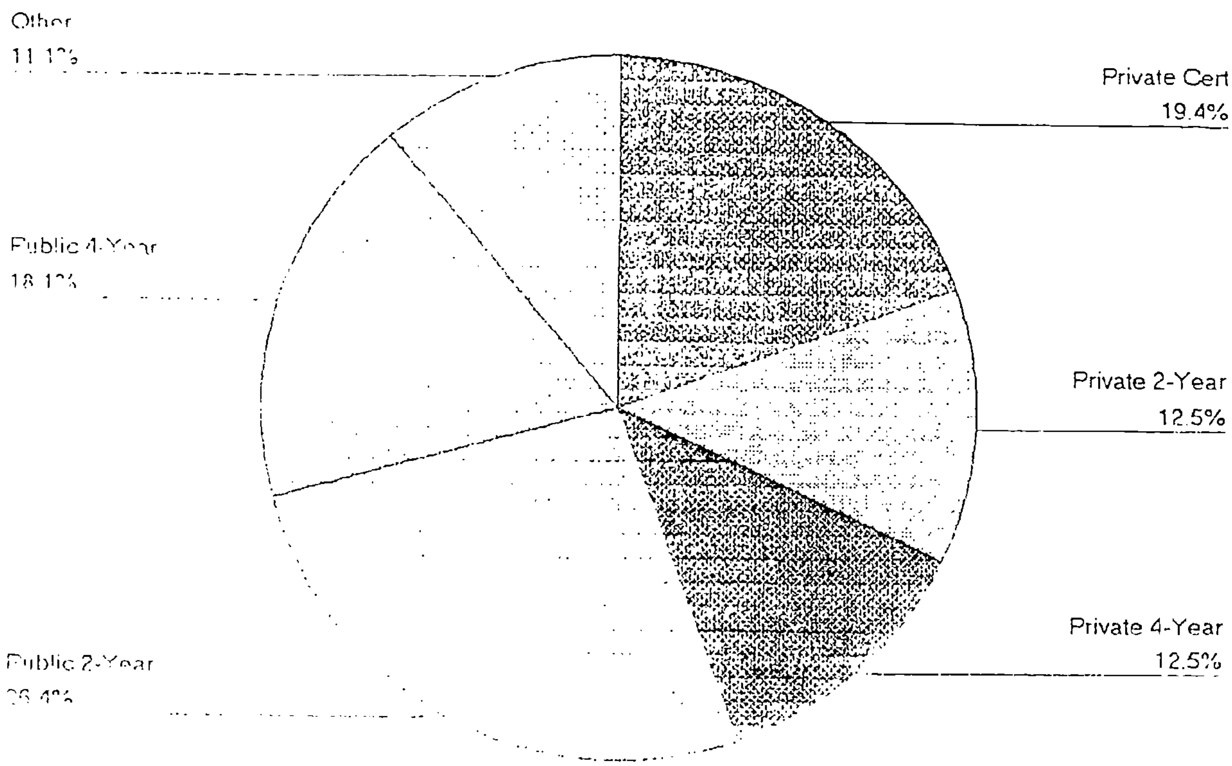
6. Are students who fail a clinical course allowed to repeat that course? If so, how many times can they repeat a failed course and how many failed courses can they repeat?

Appendix II

Graphs

Internships in Travel Education Curriculum

TYPE OF INSTITUTIONS

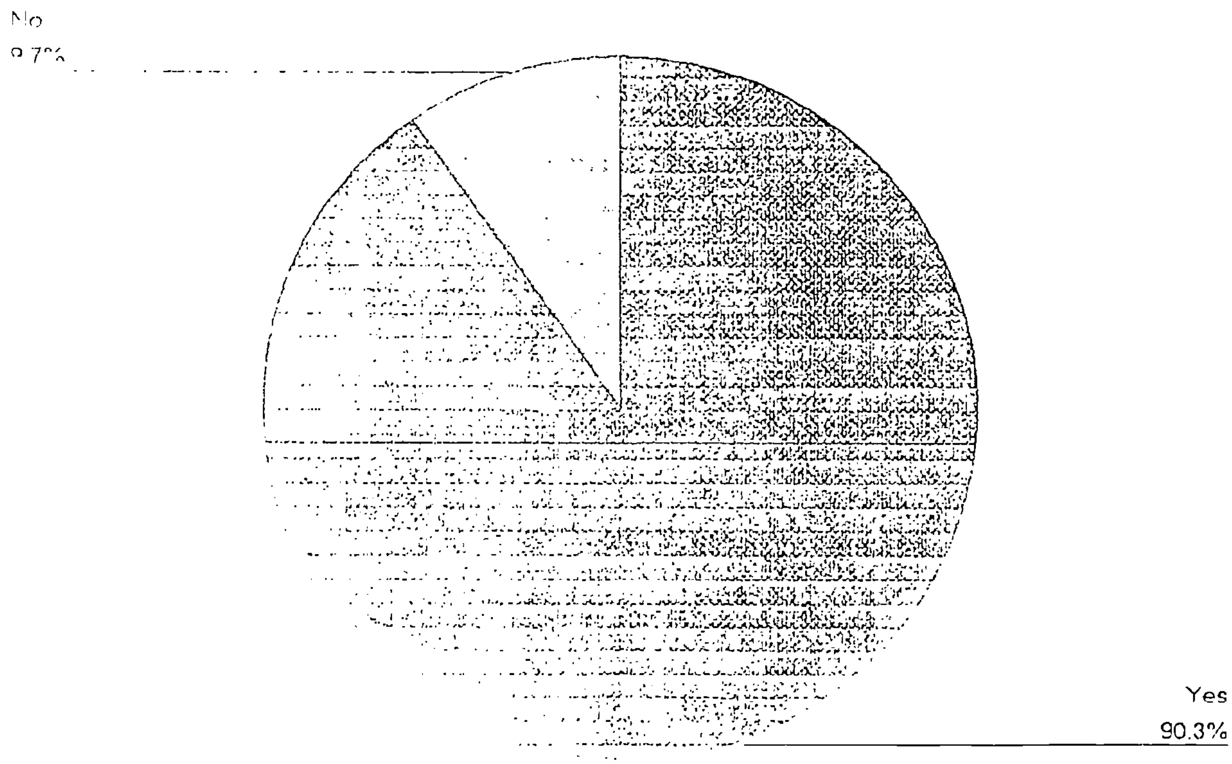


Tjaden

Internships in Travel Education

Graph 1

PERCENTAGE OF INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS



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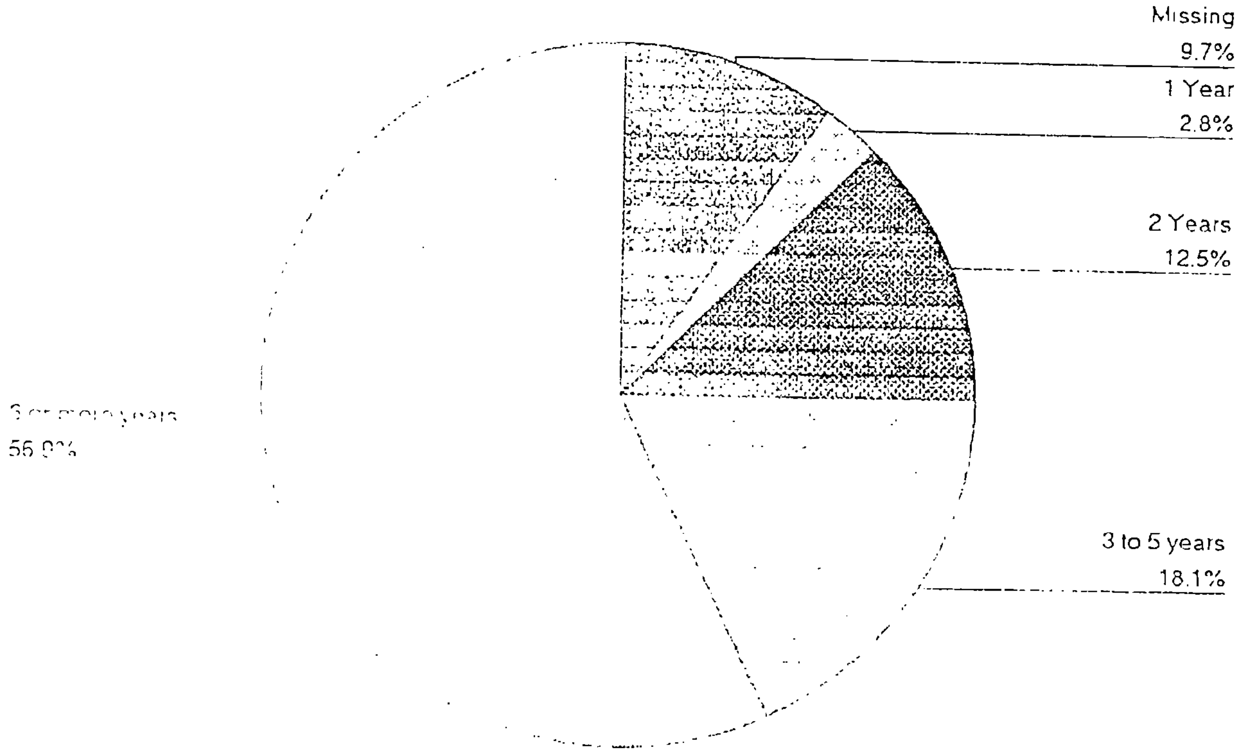
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 2

NUMBER OF YEARS IN OPERATION



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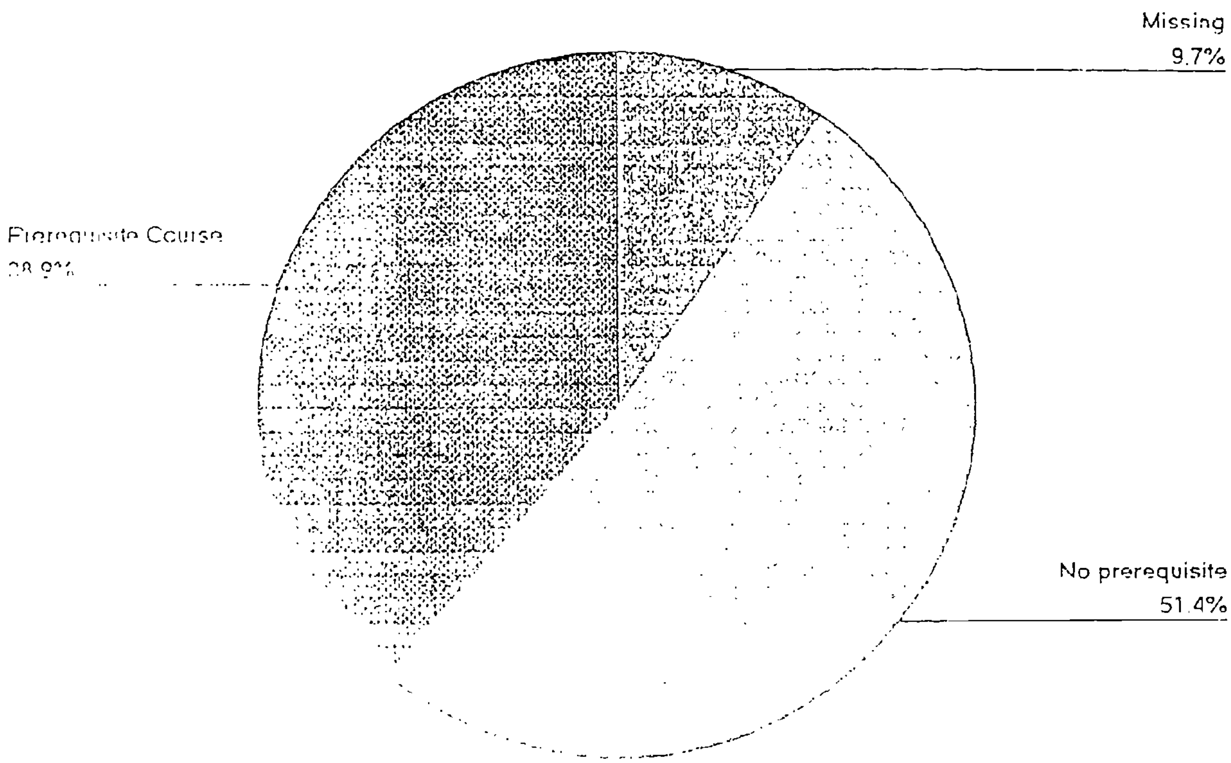
Internships in Travel Education

Graph 3

ADMITTING REQUIREMENTS

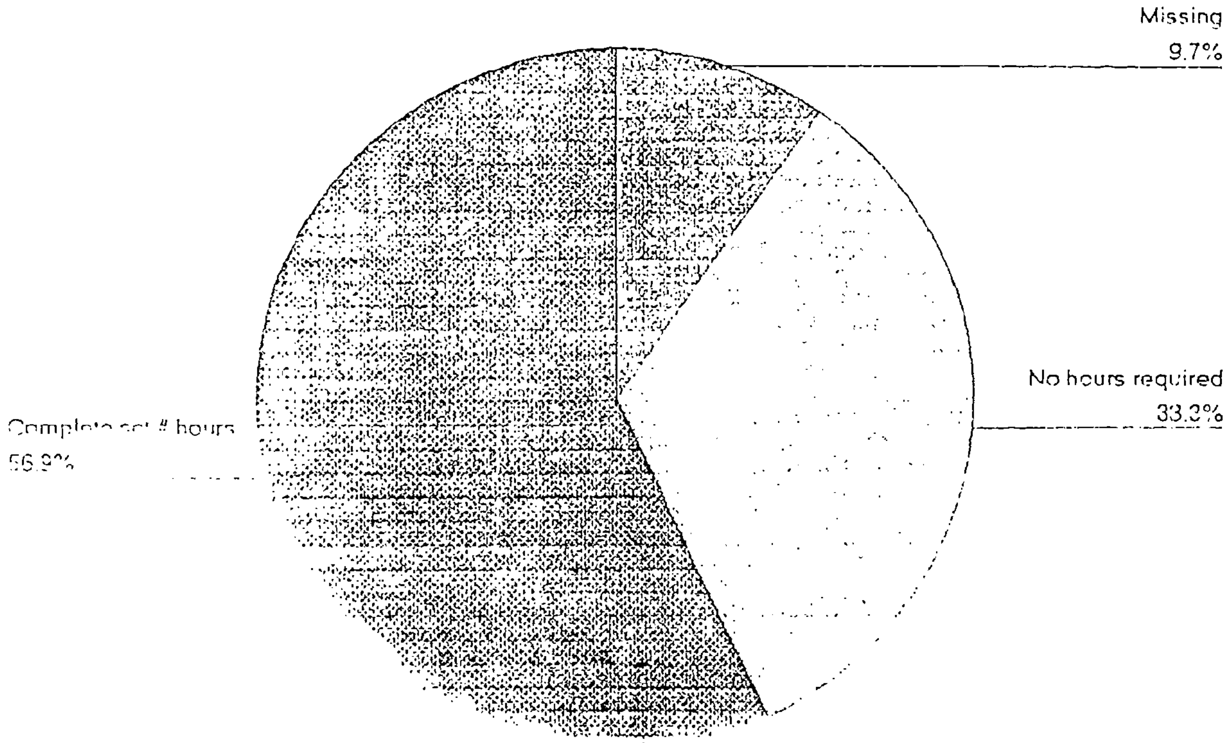


Tjaden

Internships in Travel Education

Graph 4

ADMITTING REQUIRMENTS



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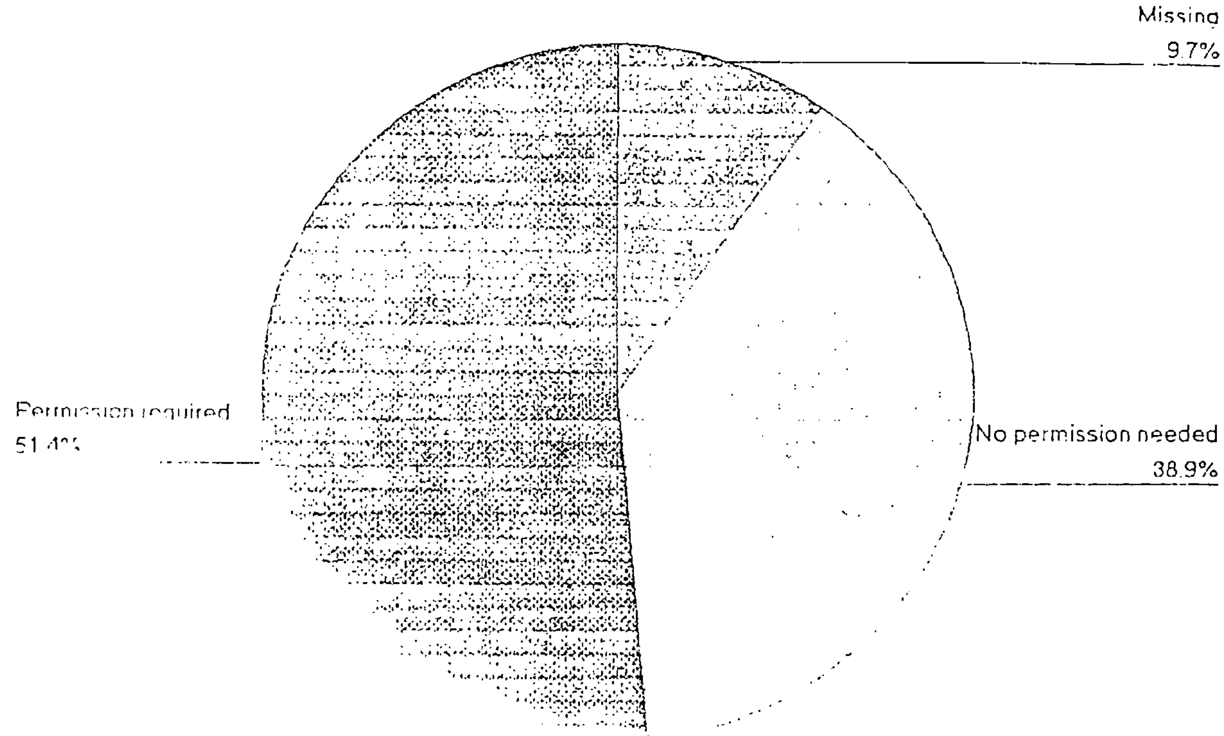
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 5

ADMITTING REQUIREMENTS



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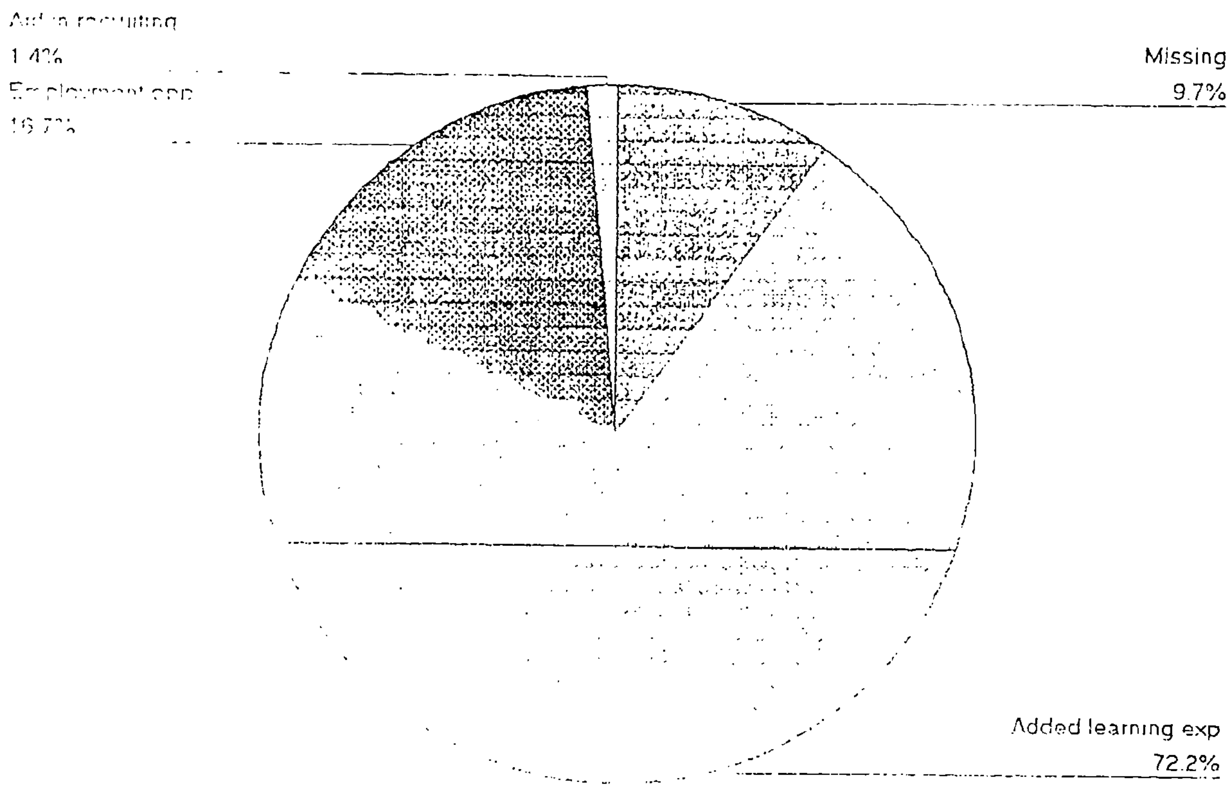
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 6

PRIMARY REASON FOR INTERNSHIP PROGRAM



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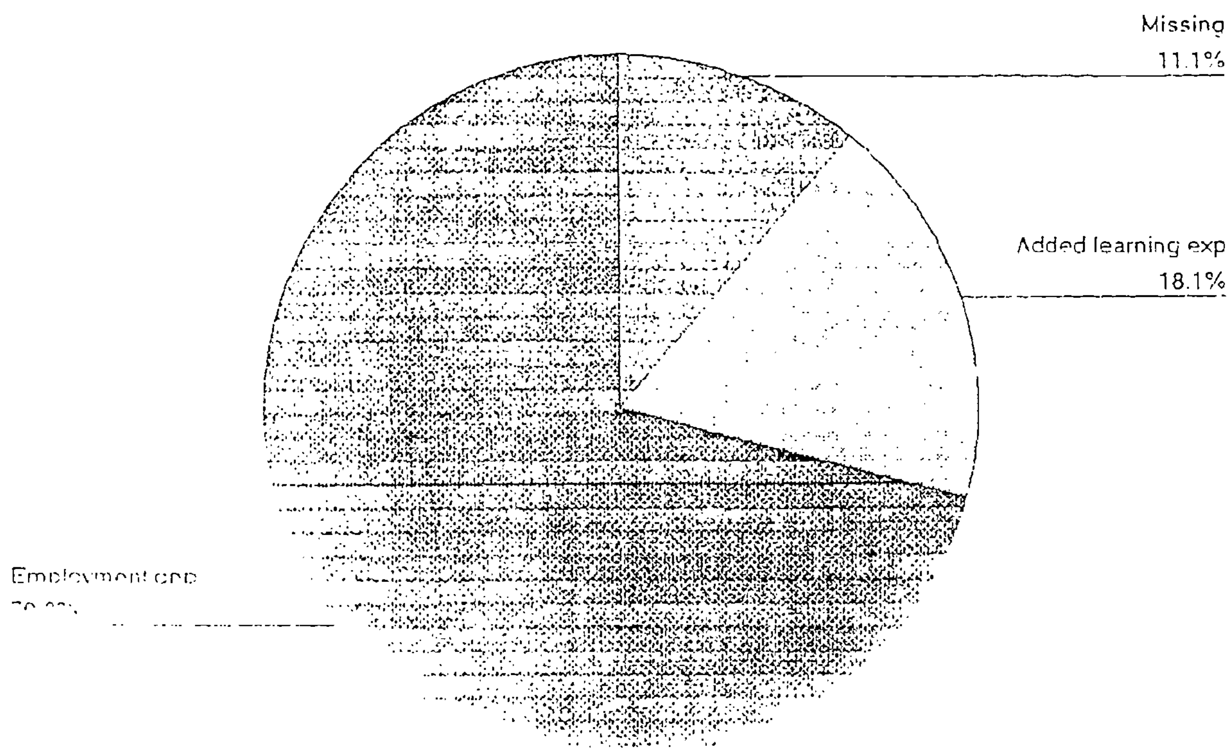
Internships in Travel Education

Graph 7

SECONDARY REASON FOR INTERNSHIP PROGRAM



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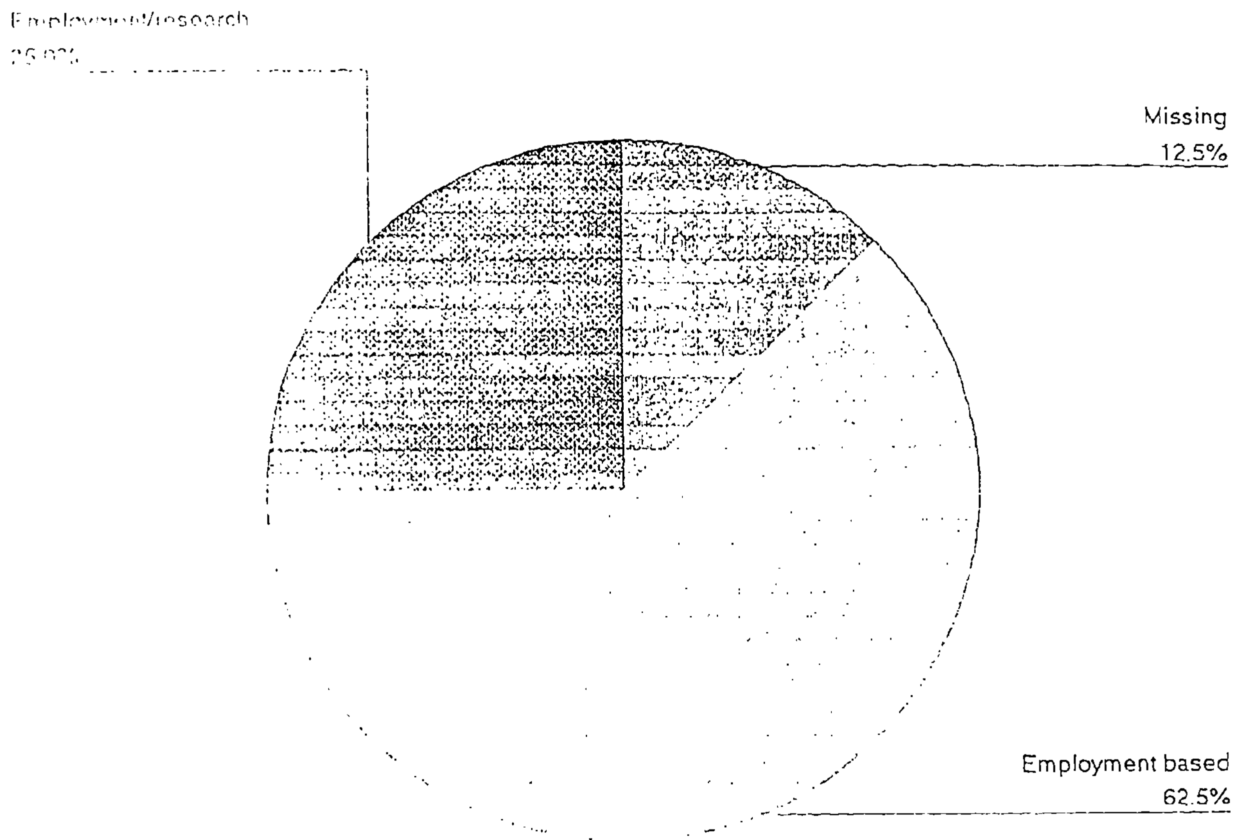
Internships in Travel Education

Graph 8

BASES OF PROGRAMS



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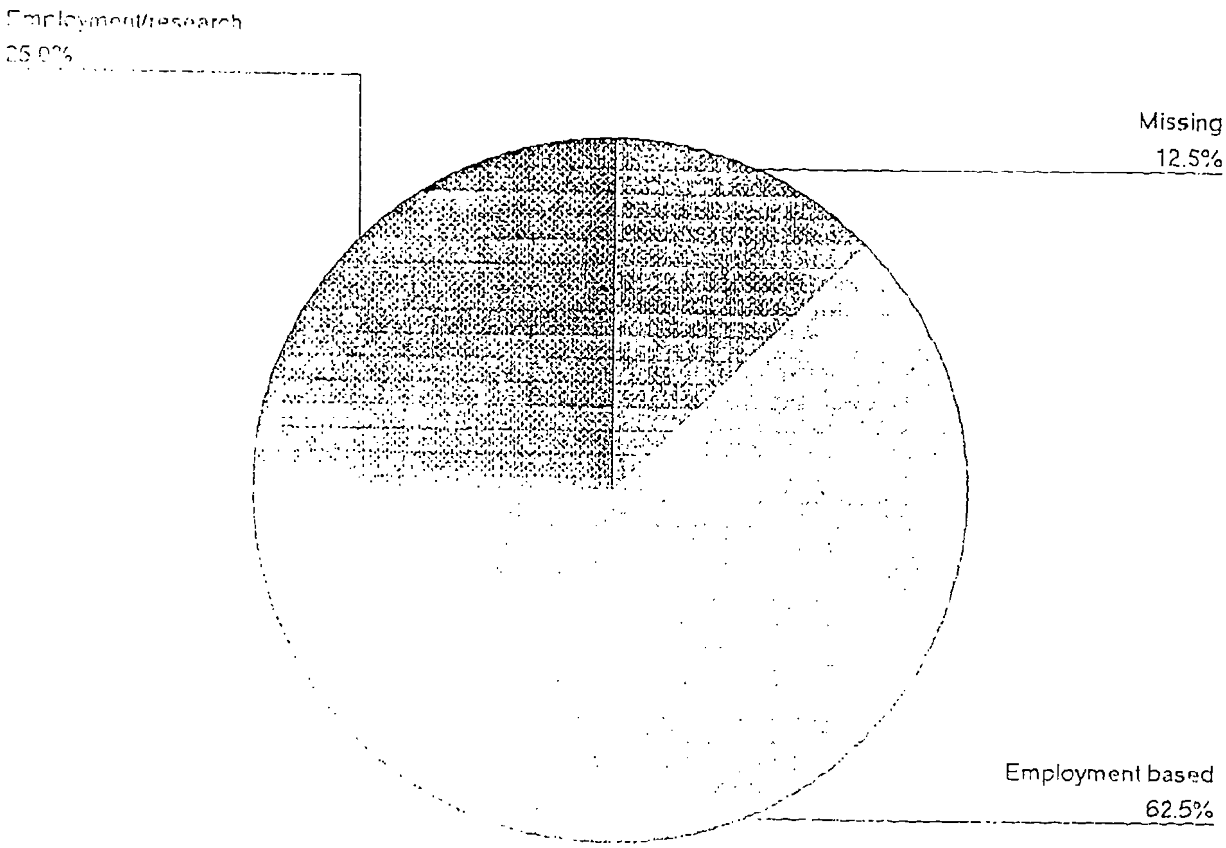
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 9

BASES OF PROGRAMS



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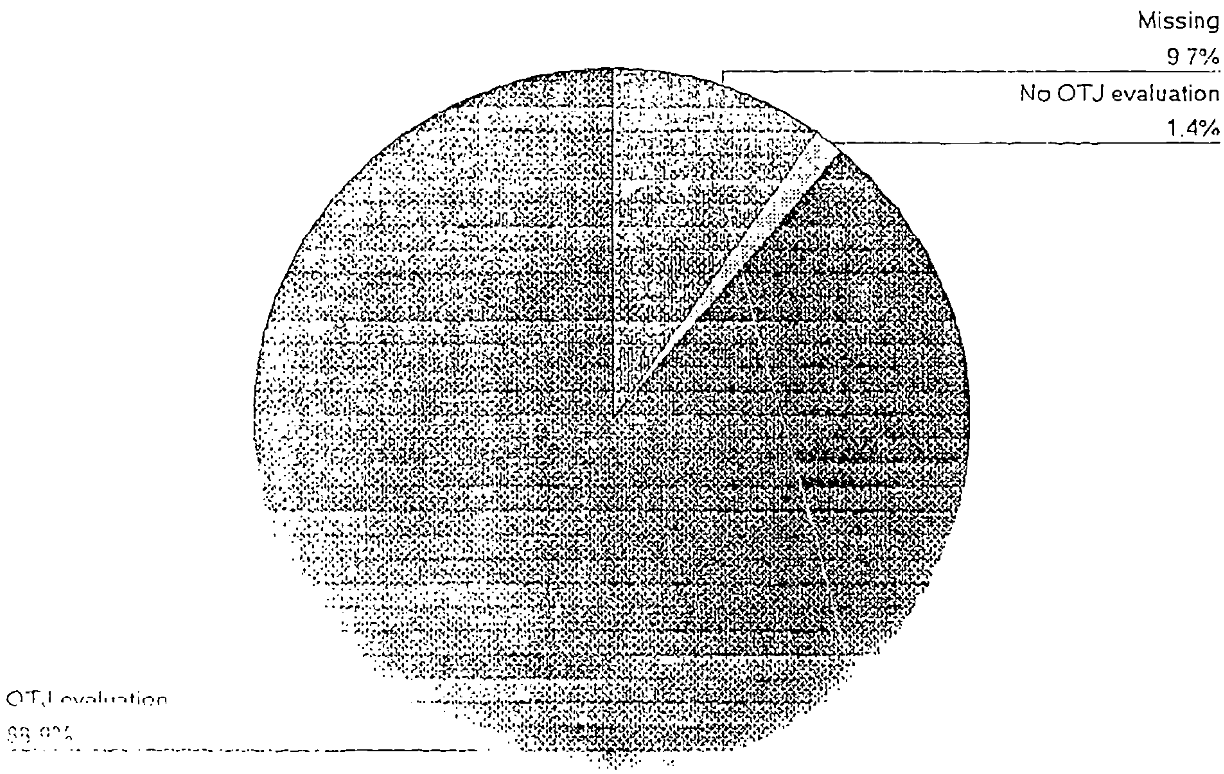
Internships in Travel Education

Graph 10

EVALUATION CRITERIA: OTJ



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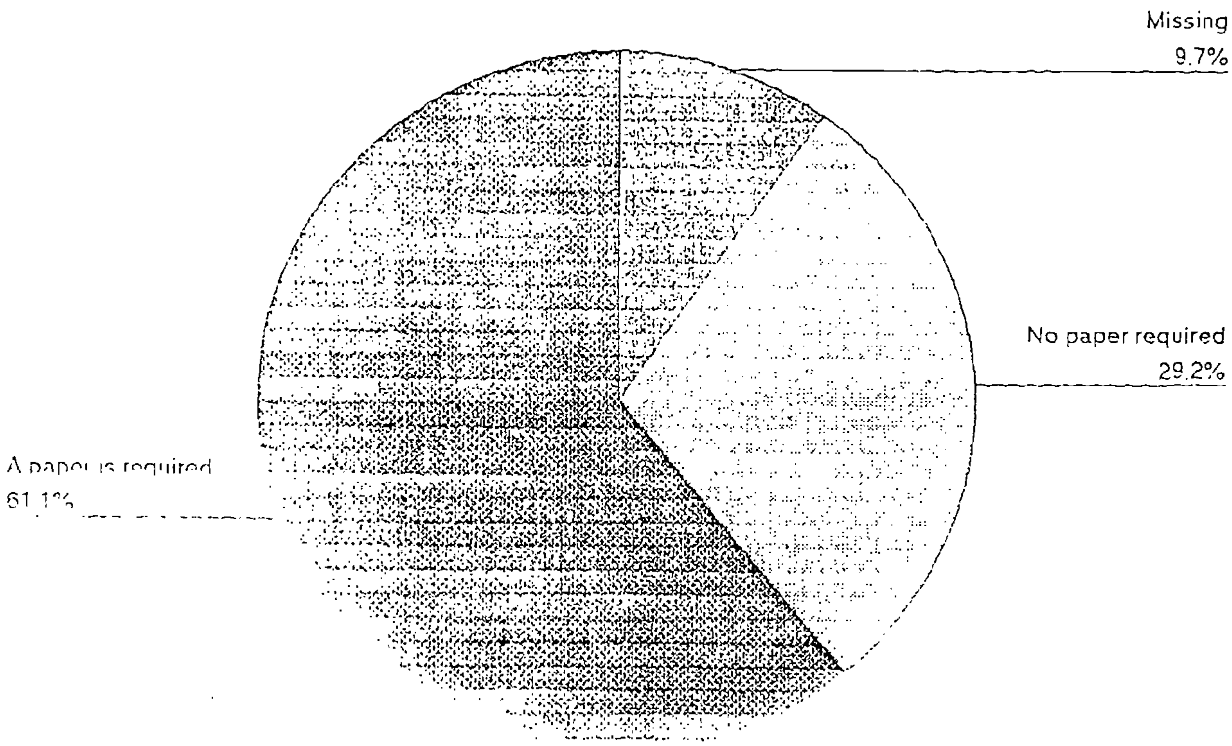
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 11

EVALUATION CRITERIA: PAPER



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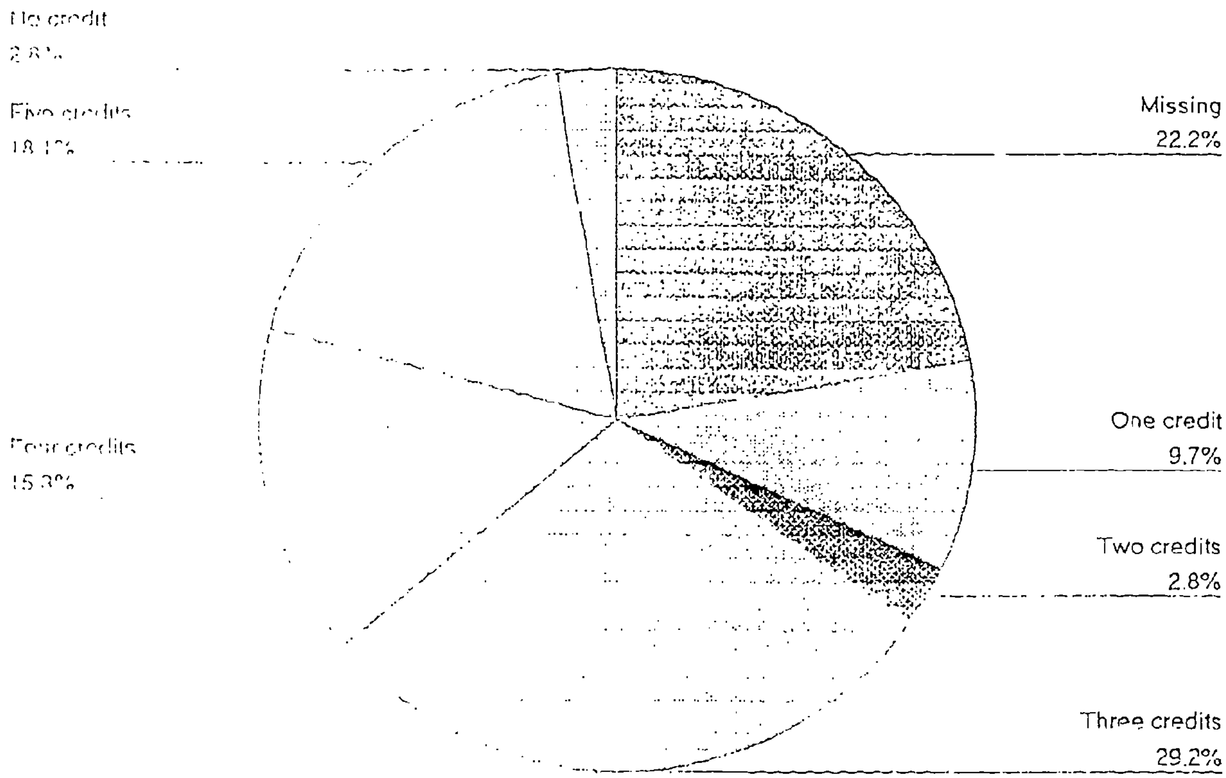
Internships in Travel Education

Graph 12

COLLEGE CREDITS EARNED



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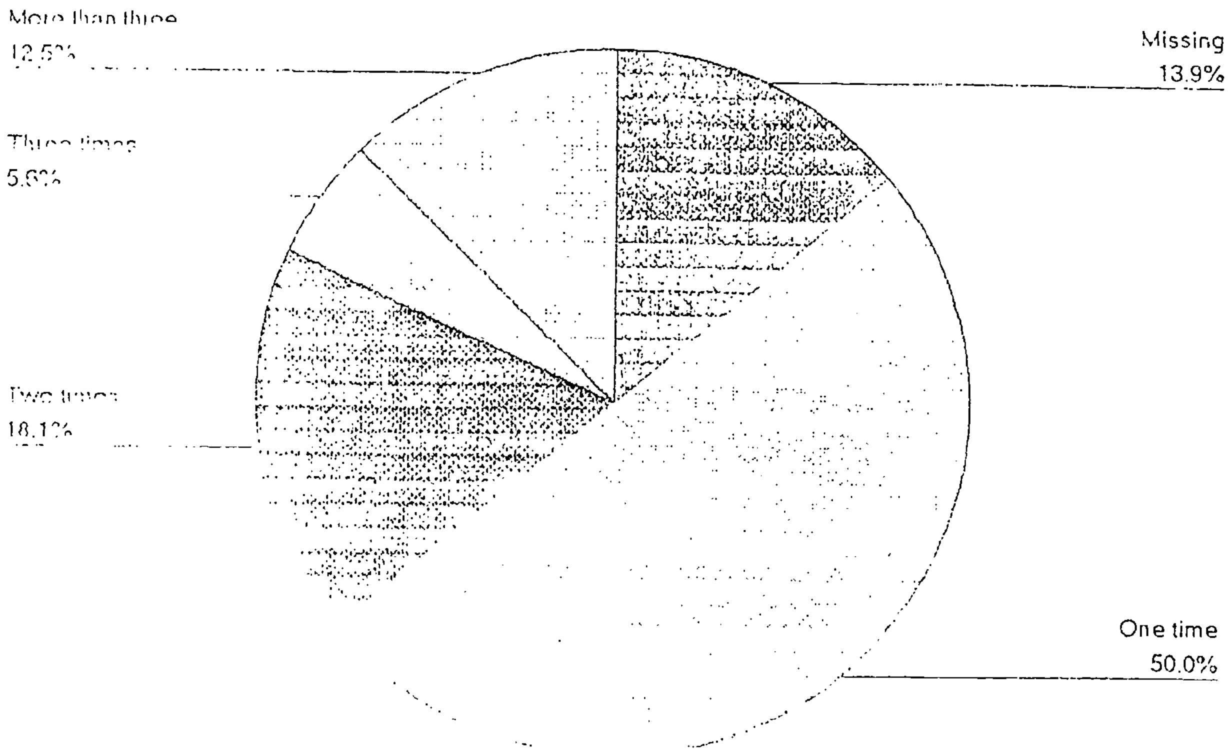
Internships in Travel
Education

Graph 13

NUMBER OF TIMES ALLOWED TO ENROLL



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Internships in Travel Education

Graph 14

Appendix III

Outcome-Based Education

Data

B ue Valley CRT Skills Trace

BLUE VALLEY CRT SKILLS TRACE

Skill	Grade	Mean Score 1990/1991
Prediction	K	85/84**
	1	64/66*
	2	85/82**
	3	89/89
	4	91/93*
Main Idea	1	71/71
Main Idea/Supporting Details	2	77/77
	3	79/78**
	4	55/55
	5	73/71**
	6	80/82*
	7	90/89**
	8	87/87
Sequence	K	91/90**
	1	68/68
	2	66/68*
	3	71/71
	4	46/46
	5	67/68*
	6	77/78*
	7	80/77
	8	65/64**
Drawing Conclusions	1	69/68**
	2	69/69
	3	81/82*
	4	84/84
	5	87/85**
	6	89/92*
Forms of Fiction & Nonfiction	2	59/59
	3	77/82*
	4	68/71*
	5	66/61**
	6	77/79*
	7	85/85
	8	89/89
Cause/Effect	3	86/86
	4	65/64**
	5	76/75**
	6	82/82
Compare/Contrast	4	69/68**
	5	77/72**
	6	90/89**
	7	95/95

*Improved Score
**Lowered Score

Skill	Grade	Mean Score 1990/1991
Story Elements	K	88/87**
	1	79/79
	2	82/81**
	3	80/80
	4	52/51**
	5	77/75**
	6	82/84*
	7	80/79**
	8	81/83*
Author's Purpose	2	73/75*
	3	78/77**
	5	82/82
Author's Purpose/Bias	6	72/76*
	7	65/66*
	8	80/83*
Word Endings Prefixes/Suffixes	1	86/86
	2	82/82
	3	61/57**
	4	86/87*
	5	94/91**
Parts of Speech	2	77/78*
	3	72/72
	4	79/82*
	5	56/56
	6	68/74*
	7	62/66*
	8	76/78*
Book Parts	2	73/75*
	3	80/82*
	4	72/74*
	5	69/65**
	6	85/87*
	7	75/76*
	8	87/87
Reference Materials	3	61/59**
	4	72/75*
	5	49/49
	6	71/76*
	7	62/63*
	8	61/59**

*Improved Score
**Lowered Score

APPENDIX IV
UMKC INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

TABLE 1 TO TABLE 30

GRAPHS

Table 1

Variables for Analysis

1. Age	Group I	under 21 years
	Group II	21-25 years
	Group III	26-30 years
	Group IV	31 and over
2. Gender	Group I	male
	Group II	female
3. Academic Level	Group I	graduate
	Group II	undergraduate
4. Major	Group I	Arts & Sciences /Conservatory
	Group II	Business
	Group III	Education
	Group IV	Dentistry /Medicine /Pharmacy
	Group V	Engineering
	Group VI	Computer
5. Time Living in the U.S.	Group I	less than 1 year
	Group II	1-2 years
	Group III	3 years & more
6. Level of English Prof.		
Reading	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor
Vocabulary	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor
Writing	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor
Grammar	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor
Speaking	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor

Table 1--Continued

Listening	Group I	excellent
	Group II	good
	Group III	fair
	Group IV	poor
7. National Origin	Group I	European
	Group II	Latin American Caribbean
	Group III	Middle Eastern Asian
	Group IV	Oriental
	Group V	Other
8. Native Language	Group I	English
	Group II	Spanish/French
	Group III	Hindi/Arabic
	Group IV	Chinese
	Group V	Other
9. Type of Financial Support	Group I	Home government
	Group II	parents
	Group III	personal savings
	Group IV	Parents & selves
	Group V	UMKC (GTA, GRA)

Table [illegible]

Distribution of Respondents by Variable Group & Number

Variable	Group	No. of Respondents	Total
Age	I	20	
	II	50	
	III	24	
	IV	5	
			99
Sex	I	55	
	II	46	
			101
Academic Level	I	37	
	II	64	
			101
Major	I	13	
	II	32	
	III	[illegible]	
	IV	16	
	V	16	
	VI	16	
			95
Time Living in the U.S.	I	68	
	II	16	
	III	16	
			100
Level of English Prof. Reading	I	9	
	II	54	
	III	33	
	IV	3	
			99
Vocabulary	I	3	
	II	17	
	III	[illegible]	
	IV	[illegible]	
			[illegible]
Writing	I	[illegible]	
	II	[illegible]	
	III	46	
	IV	6	
			100

Table [illegible]--Continued

[illegible]	Group	No. of Respondents	Total
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	II	[illegible]	
	III	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
			[illegible]
Speaking	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
			[illegible]
Listening	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	II	[illegible]	
	III	[illegible]	
	IV	[illegible]	
			100
[illegible] Origin	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	III	[illegible]	
	IV	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
			[illegible]
[illegible] Language	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	V	[illegible]	
			[illegible]
[illegible] Support	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	III	[illegible]	
	IV	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	
			[illegible]

Table [illegible]

Frequency of Ratings & Mean Scores of Respondents' Opinions about Academic Needs

Items	Frequency of Rating E	G	F	U	Mean Scores
Assistance for improvement in English	[illegible]	[illegible]	26	[illegible]	[illegible]
Services of ESL program	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Understanding of English deficiencies	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Cooperation of native students for improvement of spoken English	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Counseling in curriculum programming	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Orientation to academic setting	[illegible]	6	41	[illegible]	[illegible]
Assistance of academic advisers	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Grading policies for international students	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Availability of English tutoring services	13	46	26	[illegible]	[illegible]
Availability of academic tutoring services	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Opportunity for [illegible] classwork with native students [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] with faculty	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

[illegible] Scale: Excellent [illegible] Good [illegible] = [illegible] Fair [illegible] = [illegible] Unsatisfactory [illegible]

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Frequency of Ratings [illegible] Mean Scores of Respondents' Opinions [illegible] Personal Needs

Items	Frequency of Rating				Mean Scores
	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	
Assistance to obtain financial aid	5	25	29	16	2.13
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] for student [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Pre-enrollment information on tuition	5	[illegible]	19	[illegible]	[illegible]
Information [illegible]	1	14	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	2.09
Information on healthcare	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Activities to learn culture [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]
Assistance in community [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] cross-cultural [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Counseling in immigration [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Personal counseling in healthcare	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] counseling [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Personal counseling in childcare	[illegible]	23	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] personal counseling	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

[illegible]

Table 5

Summary of Acceptance or Rejection of Null Hypotheses Pertaining to Adequacy of Services in Satisfying the Academic Needs of Foreign Students at UMKC

	Null Hypotheses Tested											
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Age	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Gender	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Academic Level	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
GPA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Time in U.S.	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
English Proficiency												
Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Vocabulary	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Writing	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
Grammar	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Speaking	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Listening	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
National Origin	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Native Language	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y
Financial Support	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Level of Significance: .05
N: Significant (null hypotheses rejected)
Y: Nonsignificant (null hypotheses accepted)

Table 6

Summary of Acceptance or Rejection of Null Hypotheses
Pertaining to Adequency of Services in
Satisfying the Personal Needs of Foreign Students at UMKC

	Null Hypotheses Tested															
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Age	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Gender	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Academic Level	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Major	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y
Time in U.S.	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y
English Proficiency																
Reading	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Grammar	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Speaking	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Listening	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
National Origin	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Native Language	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	Y
Financial Support	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Level of Significance: .05
N: Significant (null hypotheses rejected)
Y: Insignificant (null hypotheses accepted)

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Table 7

T_TEST FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM8 BY GENDER

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Grading Policies				
Male	52	2.5769	.776	.108
Female	41	2.1707	.834	.130

t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
2.40	82.94	.018*

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level (two-tail).

Table 8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM8 BY MAJOR

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	11.828	5	2.366	4.080	.002**
(MAJOR)	11.828	5	2.366	4.080	.002**
Explained	11.828	5	2.366	4.080	.002**
Residual	50.451	87	.580		
Total	62.279	92	.677		

Grand Mean = 2.40

		Unadjusted		Adjusted	
MAJOR	N	Dev'n	Eta	Dev'n	Beta
Arts & Sciences & Conservatory	16	-.02		-.02	
Business	31	-.43		-.43	
Education	5	.00		.00	
Dentistry/Medicine/Pharmacy	19	.10		.10	
Engineering	15	.54		[illegible]	
Computer	10	.40		.40	
			.44		.44

Multiple R Squared	.190
Multiple R	.435

Note: ** Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 9

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM11 BY MAJOR

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.970	5	1.594	2.326	.050*
(MAJOR)	7.970	5	1.594	2.326	.050*
Explained	7.970	5	1.594	2.326	.050*
Residual	58.943	36	.685		
Total	66.913	91	.735		

Grand Mean = 2.11

MAJOR	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
Arts & Sciences & Conservatory	16	-.17		-.17	
Business	31	-.30		-.30	
Education	5	.29		.29	
Dentistry/Medicine /Pharmacy	15	[illegible]		[illegible]	
Engineering	15	.42		.42	
Computer	10	.39		.39	
			.25		.25
Multiple R Squared					.119
Multiple R					.345

Note: Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM12 BY MAJOR

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	11.306	5	2.261	[illegible].076	.000**
(MAJOR)	11.306	5	[illegible]	6.076	.000**
Explained	11.306	5	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]**
Residual	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		
Total	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		

Grand Mean = [illegible]

MAJOR	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Beta
Arts & Sciences / Conservatory	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]	
Business	[illegible]	-.40		-.40	
Education	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]	
Dentistry/Medicine /Pharmacy	[illegible]	.42		[illegible]	
Engineering	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]	
Computer	[illegible]	.24		[illegible]	
			[illegible]		[illegible]

Multiple R Squared	[illegible]
Multiple R	[illegible]

** Significant at [illegible] level.

Table 11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM8 BY TIME

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	6.744	1	6.744	11.550	.002*
TIME	6.744	1	6.744	11.550	.002*
Explained	6.744	1	6.744	11.550	.002*
Residual	[illegible]	[illegible]	.584		
Total	23.477	[illegible]	.783		

Grand Mean = 2.45

TIME	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Beta
1-2 YEARS	16	-.45		-.45	
3 YEARS & MORE	15	.48		.48	
			.53		.53

Multiple R Squared	.285
Multiple R	.534

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM5 BY TIME

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	2.450	1	2.450	5.951	.021*
(TIME)	2.450	1	2.450	5.951	.021*
Explained	2.450	1	2.450	5.951	.021*
Residual	11.938	29	.412		
Total	14.387	30	.480		

Grand Mean = 2.29

		Unadjusted		Adjusted	
TIME	N	Dev'n	Eta	Dev'n	Beta
1-2 YEARS	15	-.29		-.29	
3 YEARS & MORE	16	.27		.27	
			.41		.41

Multiple R Squared	.170
Multiple R	.413

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 13

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM3 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	6.633	3	2.211	5.268	.002*
(READING)	6.633	3	2.211	5.268	.002*
Explained	6.633	3	2.211	5.268	.002*
Residual	[illegible]	93	.420		
Total	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		

Grand Mean = 2.42

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	-1.09		-1.09	
FAIR	32	-.20		-.20	
GOOD	53	.18		.18	
EXCELLENT	9	.02		.02	
			.38		.38

Multiple R Squared	[illegible]
Multiple R	.381

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 14

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM8 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.404	3	2.468	3.943	.011*
(READING)	7.404	3	2.468	3.943	.011*
Explained	7.404	3	2.468	3.943	.011*
Residual	56.954	91	.626		
Total	64.358	94	.685		

Grand Mean = 2.38

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Beta
POOR	3	-.38		-.38	
FAIR	33	-.32		-.32	
GOOD	50	.26		.26	
EXCELLENT	9	-.16		-.16	
			.34		.34

Multiple R Squared	.115
Multiple R	.339

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 15

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM9 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.208	3	2.403	5.017	.003*
(READING)	7.208	3	2.403	5.017	.003*
Explained	7.208	3	2.403	5.017	.003*
Residual	43.101	90	.479		
Total	50.309	93	.541		

Grand Mean = 2.78

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Beta
POOR	3	-.44		-.44	
FAIR	33	-.32		-.32	
GOOD	51	.16		.16	
EXCELLENT	7	.51		.51	
			.38		.38

Multiple R Squared	.143
Multiple R	.379

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 16

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM4 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	8.769	3	2.923	4.832	.004*
(READING)	8.769	3	2.923	4.832	.004*
Explained	8.769	3	2.923	4.832	.004*
Residual	49.603	82	.605		
Total	58.372	85	.687		

Grand Mean = 2.26

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	.74		.74	
FAIR	31	-.38		-.38	
GOOD	47	.15		.15	
EXCELLENT	5	.54		.54	
			.39		.39

Multiple R Squared	.150
Multiple R	.388

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 17

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM9 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	6.843	3	2.281	3.503	.019*
(READING)	6.843	3	2.281	3.503	.019*
Explained	6.843	3	2.281	3.503	.019*
Residual	57.953	89	.651		
Total	64.796	92	.704		

Grand Mean = 2.57

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	.10		.10	
FAIR	32	-.23		-.23	
GOOD	51	.02		.02	
EXCELLENT	7	.86		.86	
			.32		.32

Multiple R Squared	.106
Multiple R	.325

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM13 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	8.706	3	2.902	4.270	.007*
(READING)	8.706	3	2.902	4.270	.007*
Explained	8.706	3	2.902	4.270	.007*
Residual	58.449	86	.680		
Total	67.155	89	.755		

Grand Mean = 2.18

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	1.49		1.49	
FAIR	32	-.24		-.24	
GOOD	48	.05		.05	
EXCELLENT	7	.11		.11	
			.36		.36

Multiple R Squared	.130
Multiple R	.360

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM14 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.977	3	2.659	3.417	.021*
READ	7.977	3	2.659	3.417	.021*
Explained	7.977	3	2.659	3.417	.021*
Residual	66.923	86	.778		
Total	74.900	89	.842		

Grand Mean = 2.30

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	1.37		1.37	
FAIR	32	-.24		-.24	
GOOD	48	.03		.03	
EXCELLENT	7	.27		.27	
			.33		.33

Multiple R Squared	.107
Multiple R	.326

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 20

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM15 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	8.789	3	2.930	4.805	.004*
(READING)	8.789	3	2.930	4.805	.004*
Explained	8.789	3	2.930	4.805	.004*
Residual	48.771	80	.610		
Total	57.560	83	.693		

Grand Mean = 2.13

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	1.54		1.54	
FAIR	31	-.16		-.16	
GOOD	44	-.04		-.04	
EXCELLENT	6	.37		.37	
			.39		.39

Multiple R Squared	.153
Multiple R	.391

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table [illegible]1

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM16 BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	5.704	3	1.901	3.690	.015*
(READING)	5.704	3	1.901	3.690	.015*
Explained	5.704	3	1.901	3.690	.015*
Residual	43.302	85	.515		
Total	[illegible]	88	[illegible]		

Grand Mean = 2.22

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Beta
POOR	3	.79		.78	
FAIR	32	-.26		-.26	
GOOD	47	.05		.05	
EXCELLENT	7	.49		.49	
			.34		.34

Multiple R Squared	.115
Multiple R	.339

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 22

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEMS BY WRITING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	8.041	3	2.680	6.637	.000**
(WRITING)	8.041	3	2.680	6.637	.000**
Explained	8.041	3	2.680	6.637	.000**
Residual	37.959	94	.404		
Total	46.000	97	.474		

Grand Mean = 2.43

WRITING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	6	-.76		-.76	
FAIR	45	-.16		-.16	
GOOD	44	.28		.28	
EXCELLENT	3	-.10		-.10	
			.42		.42

Multiple R Squared	.175
Multiple R	.418

Note: ** Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 23

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM3 BY SPEAKING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.735	3	2.578	6.321	.001**
(SPEAKING)	7.735	3	2.578	6.321	.001**
Explained	7.735	3	2.578	6.321	.001**
Residual	37.935	93	.408		
Total	45.670	96	.476		

Grand Mean = 2.42

SPEAKING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	7	-.71		-.71	
FAIR	46	-.14		-.14	
GOOD	36	.22		.22	
EXCELLENT	8	.45		.45	
			.41		.41

Multiple R Squared	.169
Multiple R	.412

Note: ** Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 24

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM3 BY LISTENING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	5.420	3	1.807	4.185	.008*
(LISTENING)	5.420	3	1.807	4.185	.008*
Explained	5.420	3	1.807	4.185	.008*
Residual	40.580	94	.432		
Total	46.000	97	.474		

Grand Mean = 2.43

LISTENING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	6	-.43		-.43	
FAIR	38	-.17		-.17	
GOOD	35	.03		.03	
EXCELLENT	19	.41		.41	
			.34		.34

Multiple R Squared	.118
Multiple R	.343

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 25

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS ITEM12 BY SUPPORT

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	7.900	4	1.975	4.897	.001**
(SUPPORT)	7.900	4	1.975	4.897	.001**
Explained	7.900	4	1.975	4.897	.001**
Residual	33.875	84	.403		
Total	41.775	88	.475		

Grand Mean = 2.43

SUPPORT	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
HOME GOVT.	29	.26		.26	
PARENTS	38	-.16		-.16	
SELVES	9	-.43		-.43	
PARENTS & SELVES	8	-.18		-.18	
UMKC (GTA, GRA)	5	.77		.77	
			.43		.43

Multiple R Squared	.189
Multiple R	.435

Note: ** Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 26

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS ITEM1 BY SUPPORT

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	17.265	4	4.316	6.138	.000**
(SUPPORT)	17.265	4	4.316	6.138	.000**
Explained	17.265	4	4.316	6.138	.000**
Residual	58.360	83	.703		
Total	75.625	87	.869		

Grand Mean = 2.13

SUPPORT	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
HOME GOVT.	28	.52		.52	
PARENTS	37	-.21		-.21	
SELVES	10	-.63		-.63	
PARENTS & SELVES	8	-.50		-.50	
UMKC (GTA, GRA)	5	.67		.67	
			.48		.48

Multiple R Squared	.228
Multiple R	.478

Note: ** Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 27

T_TEST FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS AS A WHOLE BY ACADEMIC LEVEL

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Academic needs				
Graduate	35	25.6571	7.436	1.257
Undergraduate	60	28.7333	6.202	.801

t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
-2.06	61.37	.043*

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level (two-tail).

Table 28

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACADEMIC NEEDS AS A WHOLE BY TIME

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	231.125	1	31.125	7.646	.010*
(TIME)	231.125	1	231.125	7.646	.010*
Explained	231.125	1	231.125	7.646	.010*
Residual	906.875	30	30.229		
Total	1138.000	31	36.710		

Grand Mean = 28.25

TIME	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
1-2 YEARS	16	-2.69		-2.69	
3 YEARS & MORE	16	2.69		2.69	
			.45		.45

Multiple R Squared	.203
Multiple R	.451

Note: * Significant at 0.01 level.

Table 29

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS AS A WHOLE BY READING

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	909.221	3	303.074	3.112	.030*
(READING)	909.221	3	303.074	3.112	.030*
Explained	909.221	3	303.074	3.112	.030*
Residual	8764.237	90	97.380		
Total	9673.457	93	104.016		

Grand Mean = 34.48

READING	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
POOR	3	15.19		15.19	
FAIR	32	-2.17		-2.17	
GOOD	52	.04		.04	
EXCELLENT	7	3.09		3.09	
			.31		.31

Multiple R Squared	.094
Multiple R	.307

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 30

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL NEEDS AS A WHOLE BY SUPPORT

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	1025.044	4	256.261	2.585	.042*
(SUPPORT)	1025.044	4	256.261	2.585	.042*
Explained	1025.044	4	256.261	2.585	.042*
Residual	8822.371	89	99.128		
Total	9847.415	93	105.886		

Grand Mean = 34.65

SUPPORT	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted Dev'n	Adjusted Beta
HOME GOVT.	30	4.02		4.02	
PARENTS	39	-.85		-.85	
SELVES	11	-4.29		-4.29	
PARENTS & SELVES	9	-5.65		-5.65	
UMKC (GTA, GRA)	5	2.15		2.15	
			.32		.32

Multiple R Squared	.104
Multiple R	.323

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level.

UMKC INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

AGE

PERCENT of AGE

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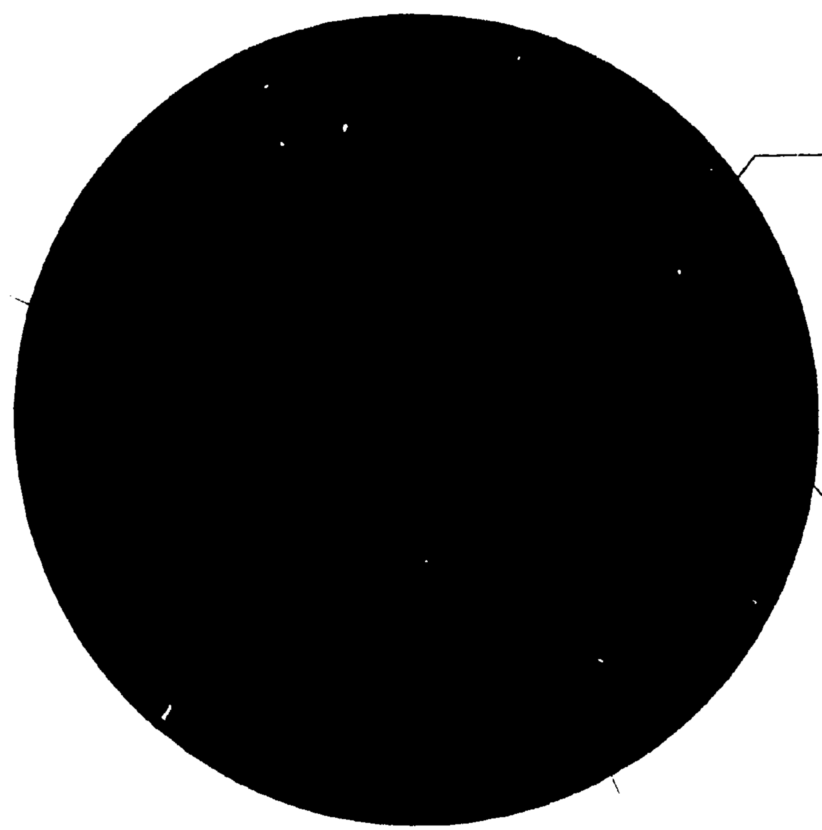

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GENDER

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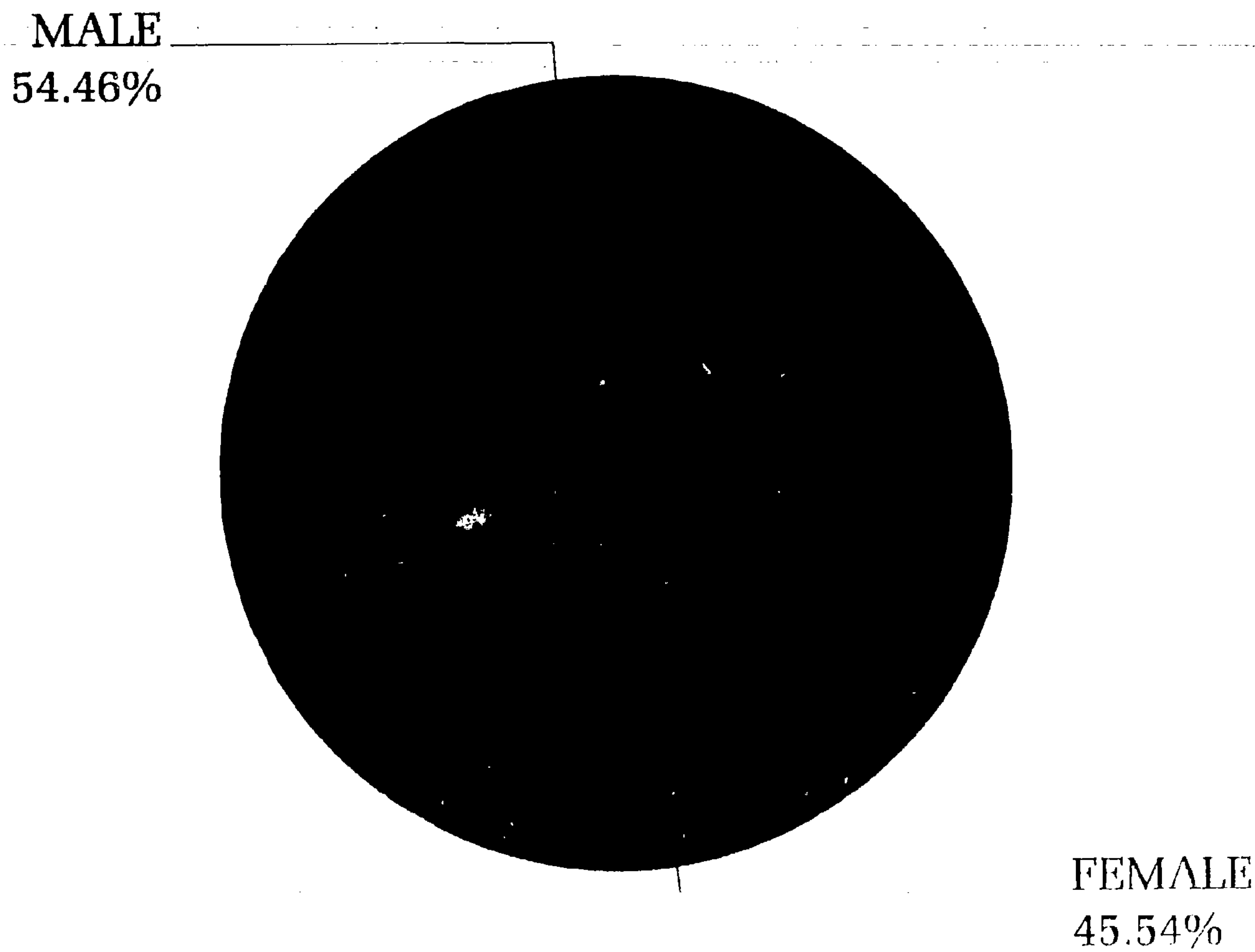

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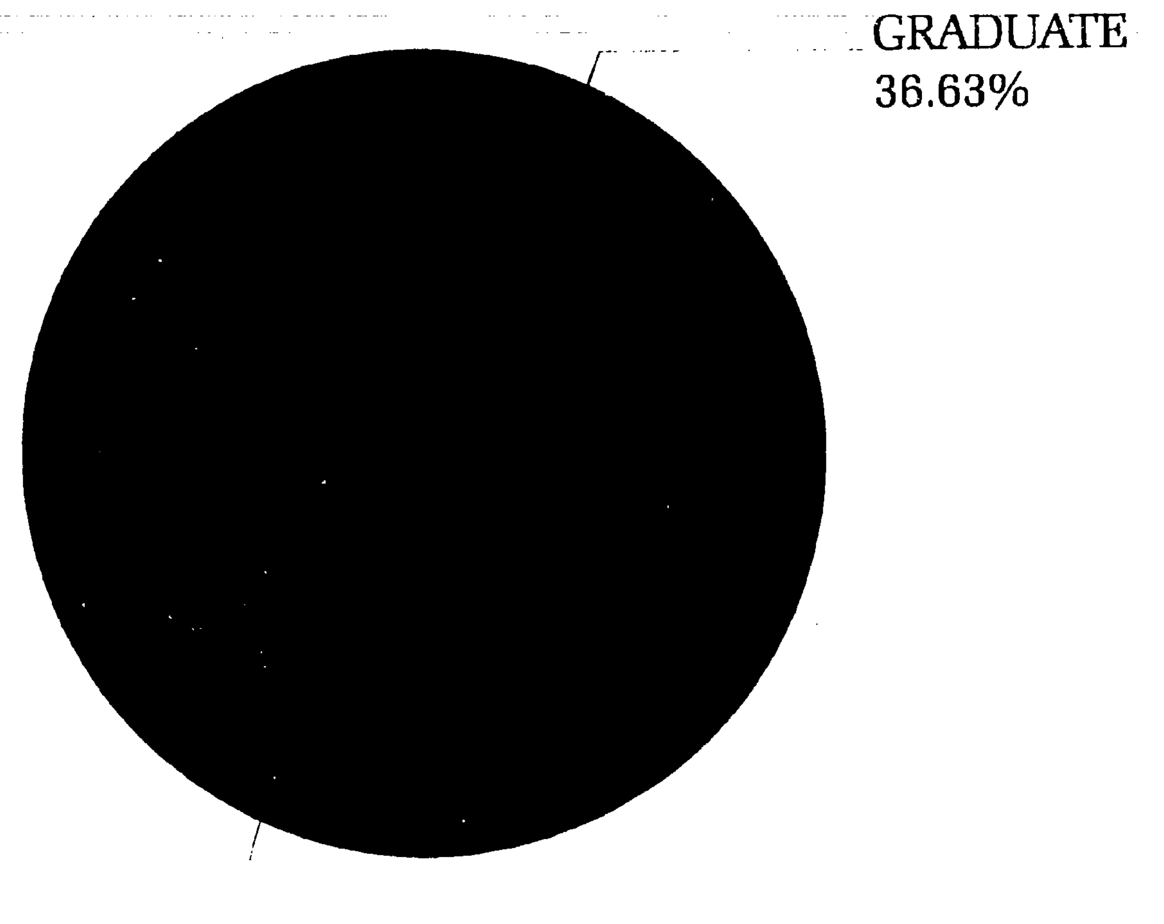
ACADEMIC LEVEL

PERCENT of LEVEL



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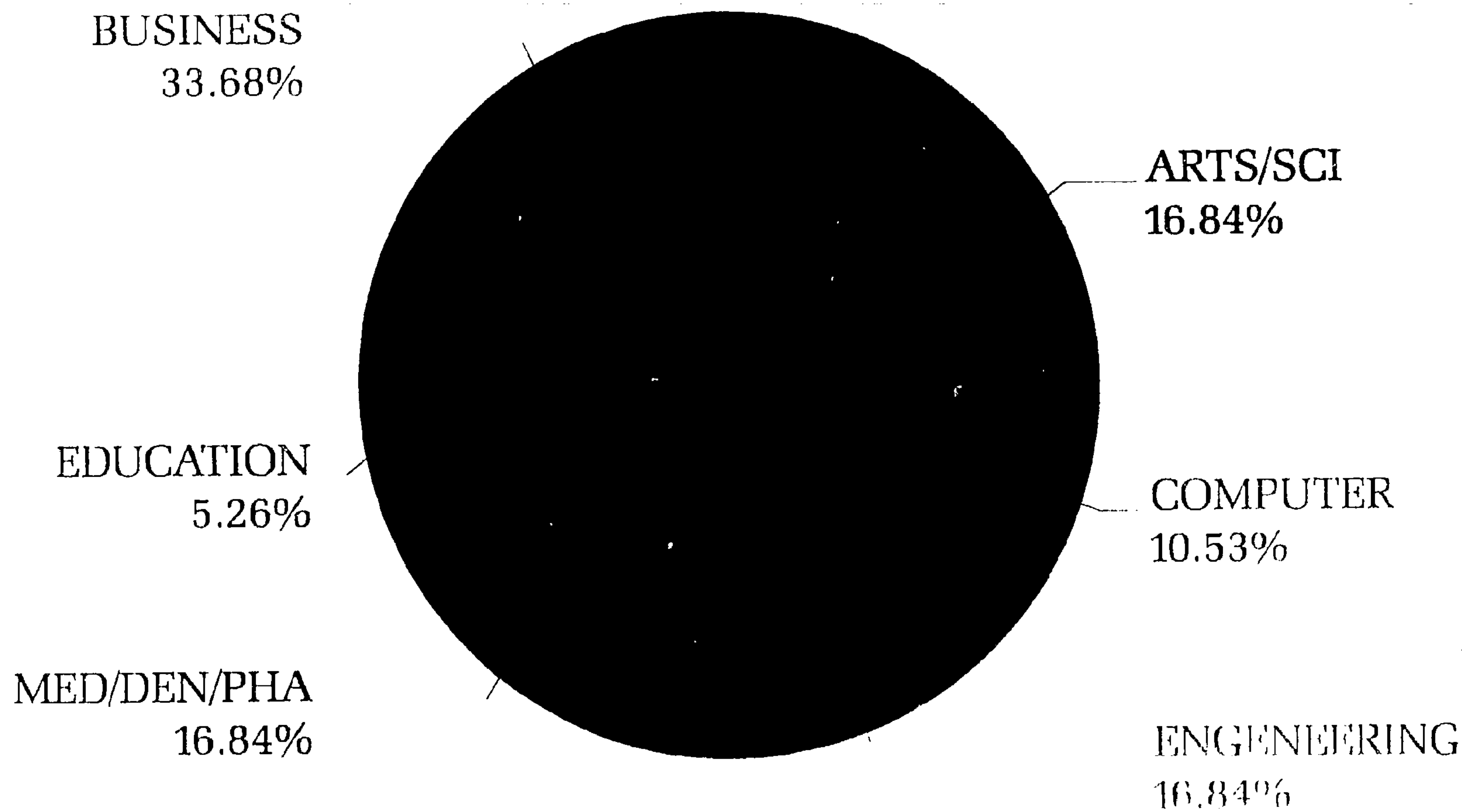
MAJOR

PERCENT of MAJOR



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LENGTH IN THE US

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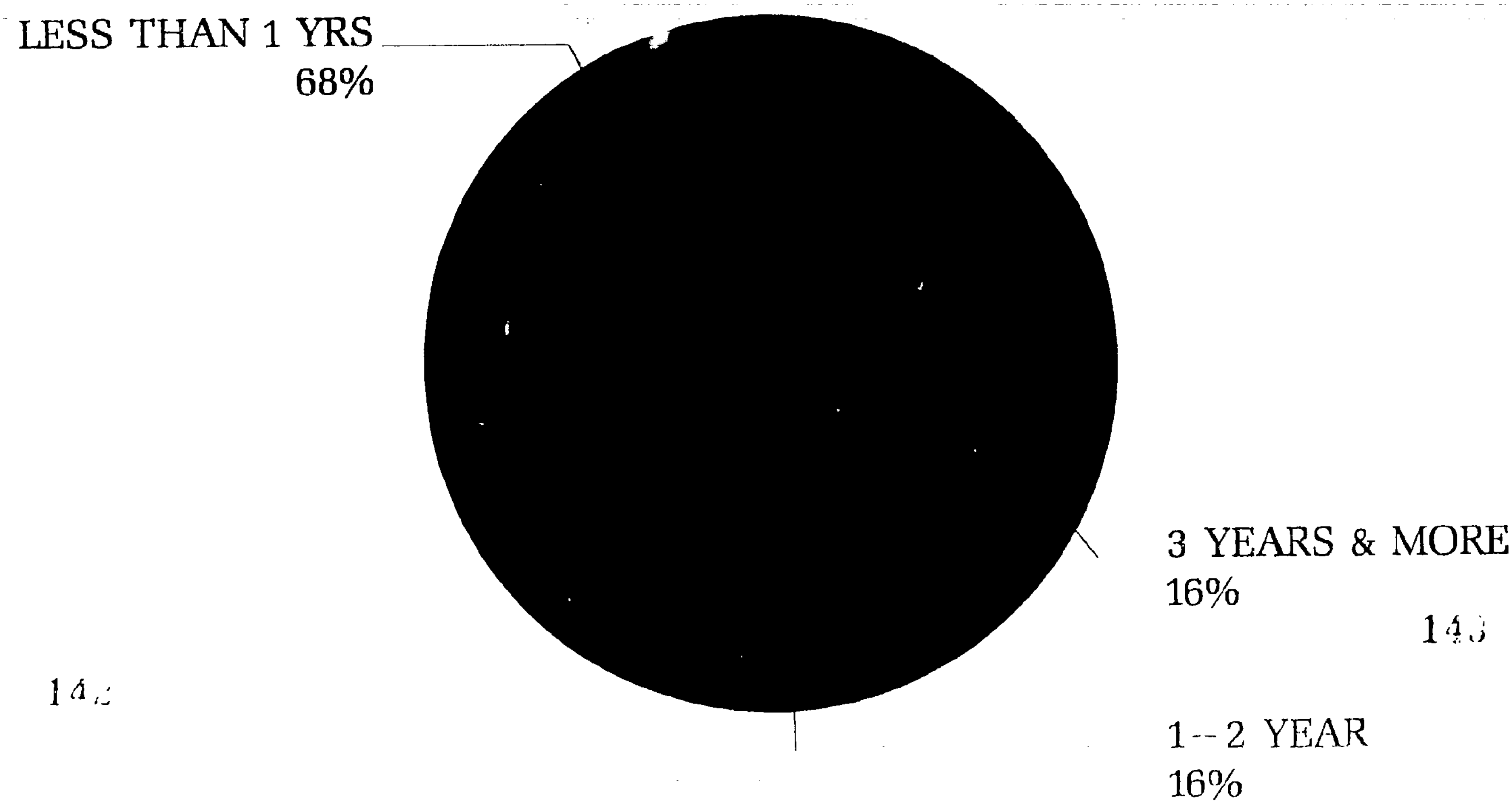

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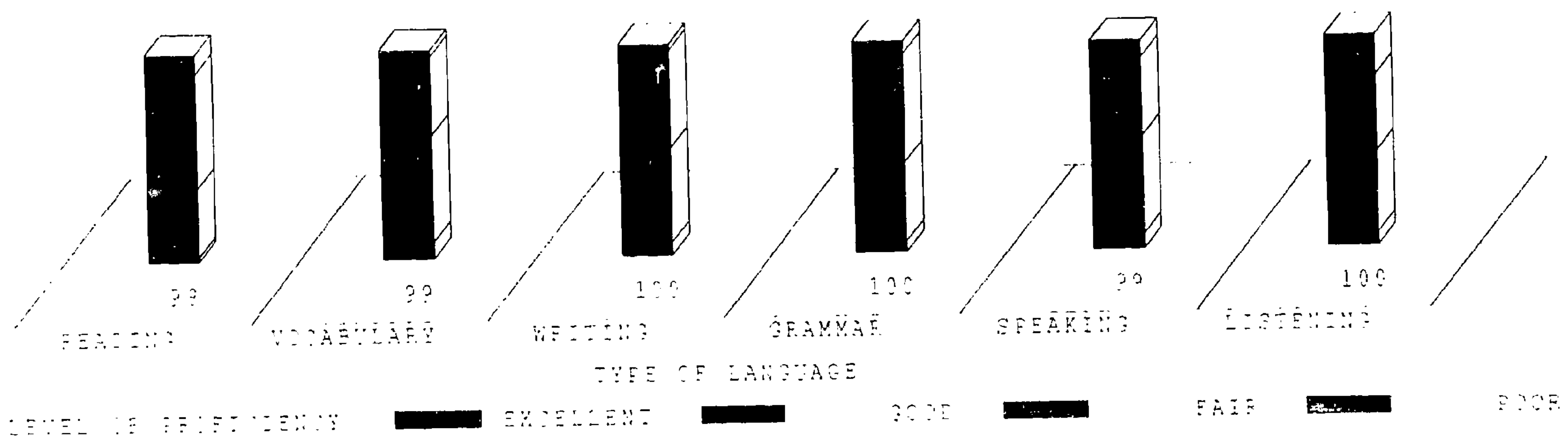
ENGLISH PROFICIENCY



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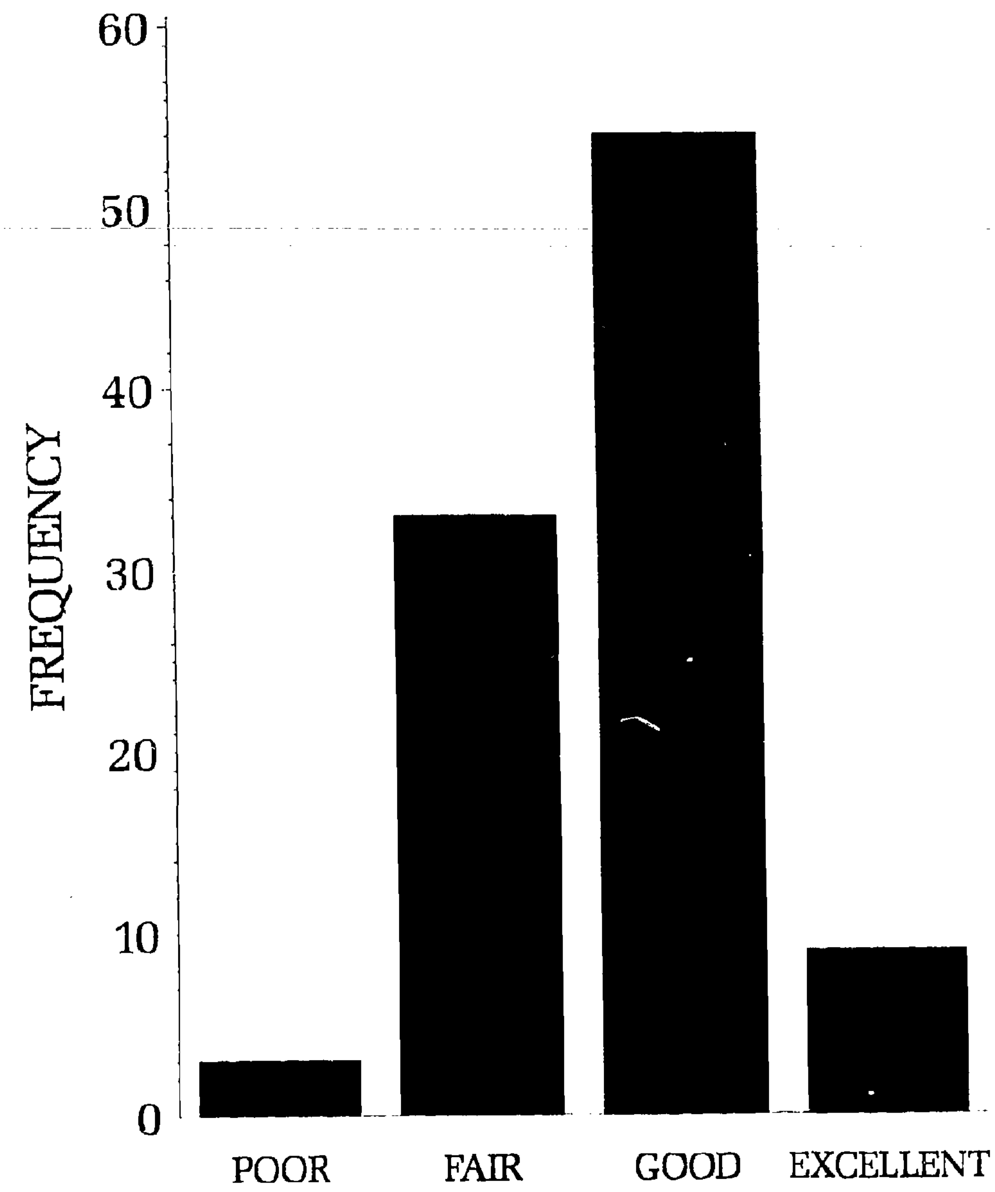

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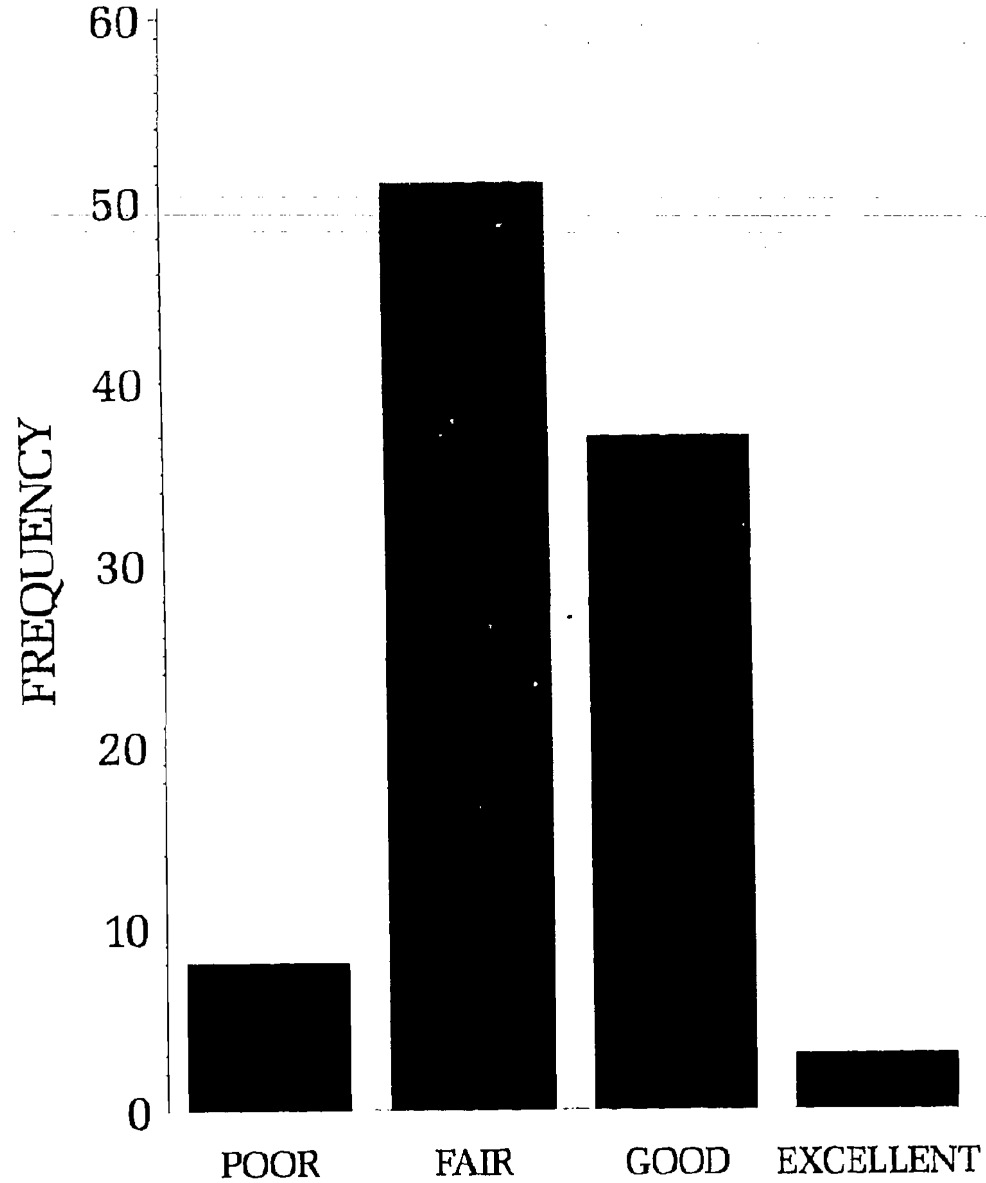

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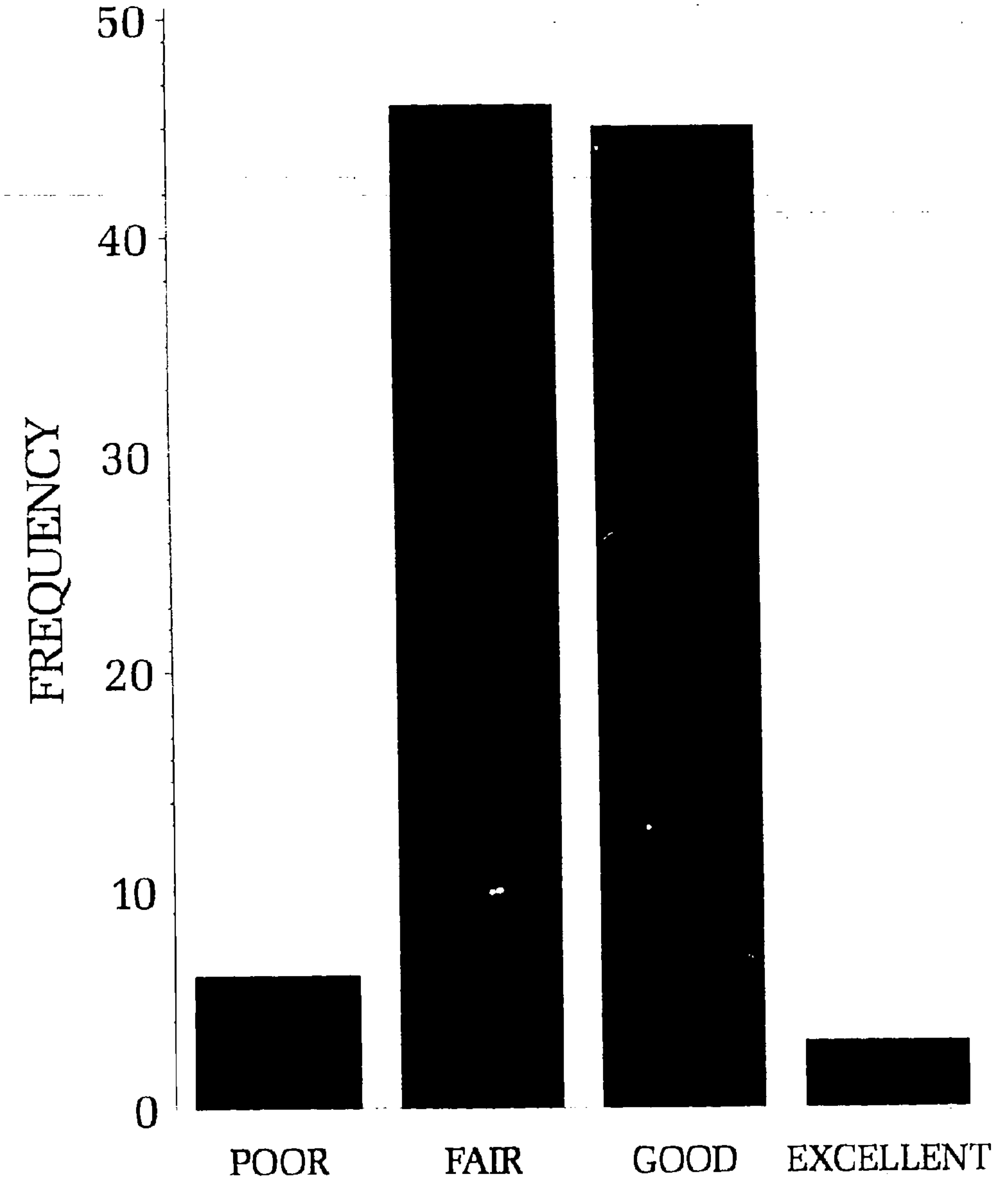

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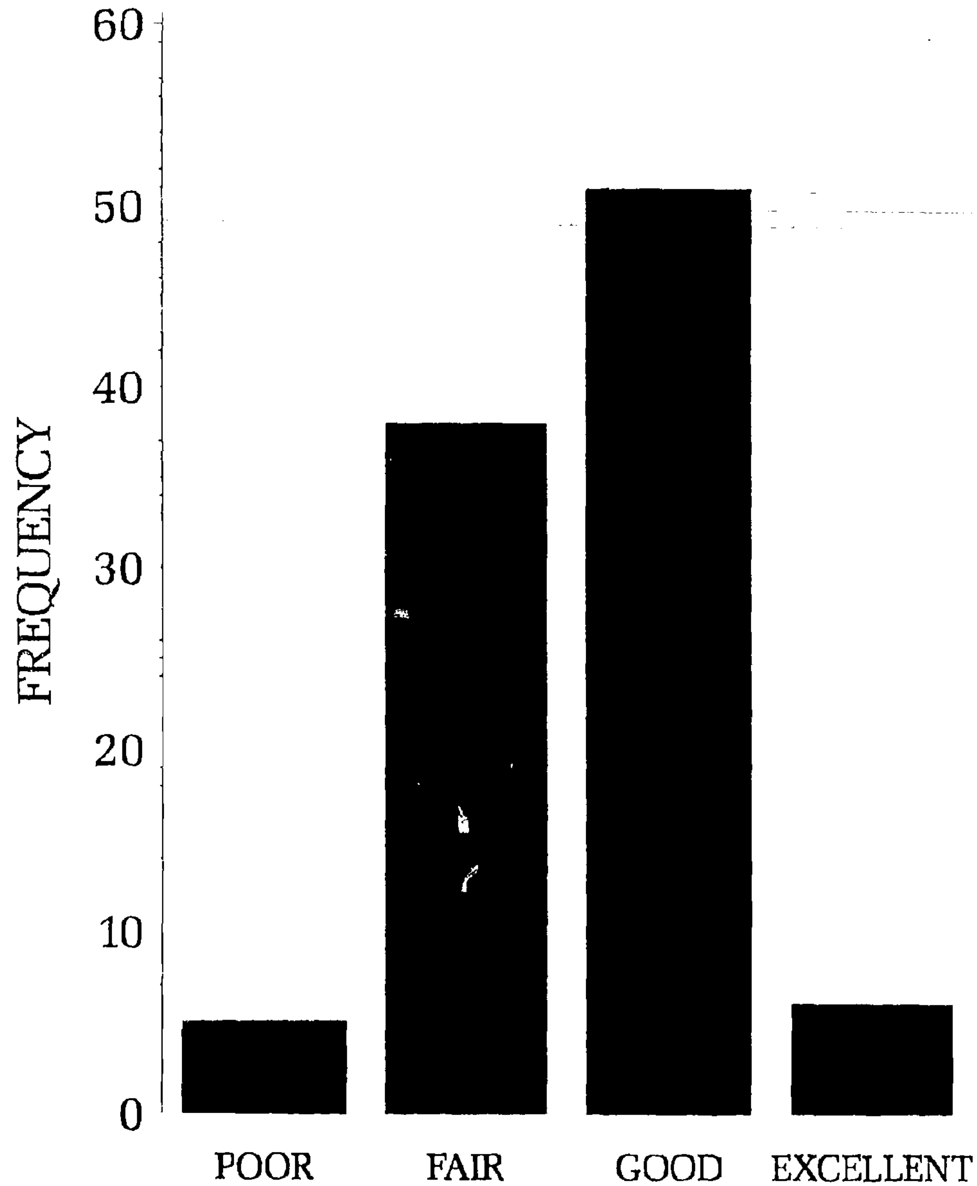

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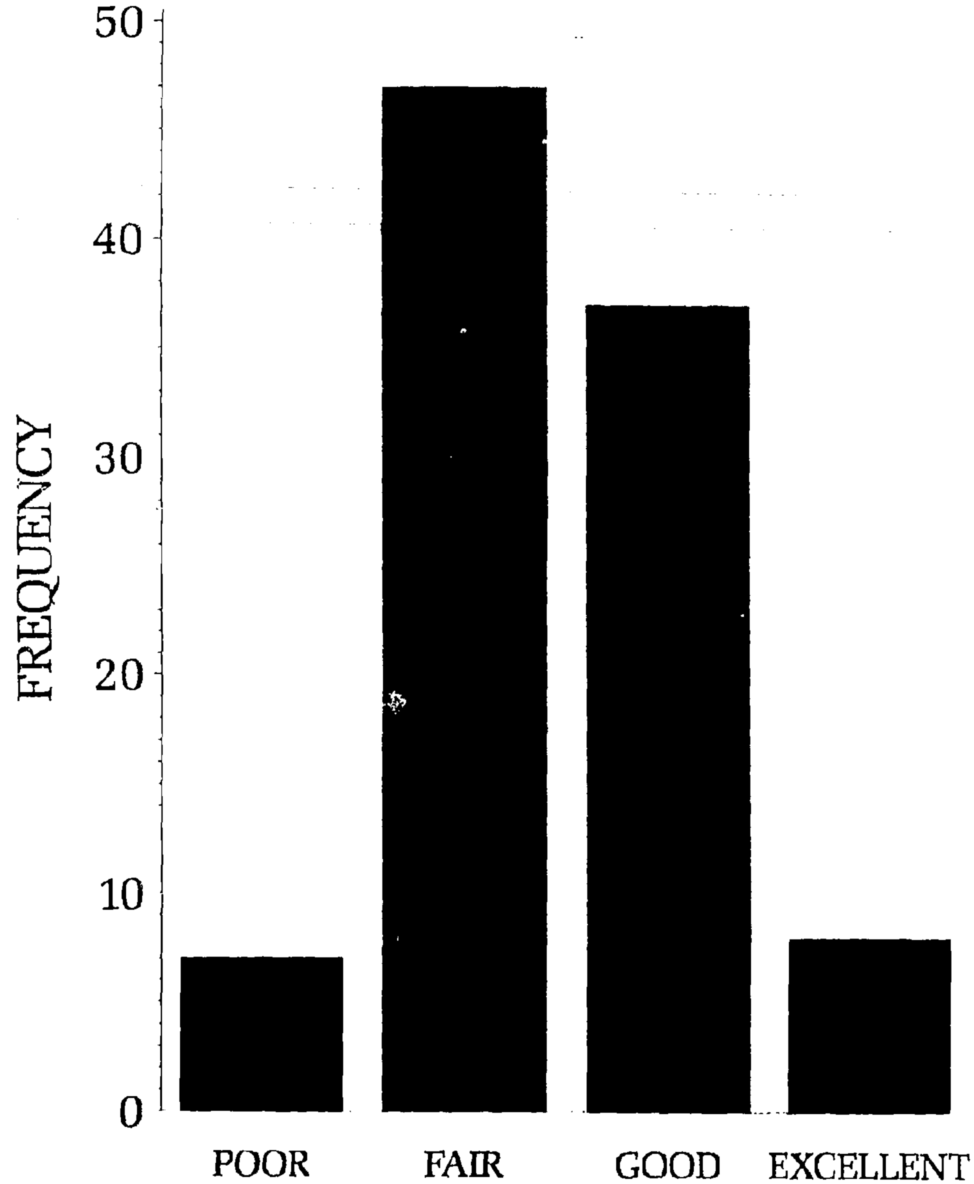

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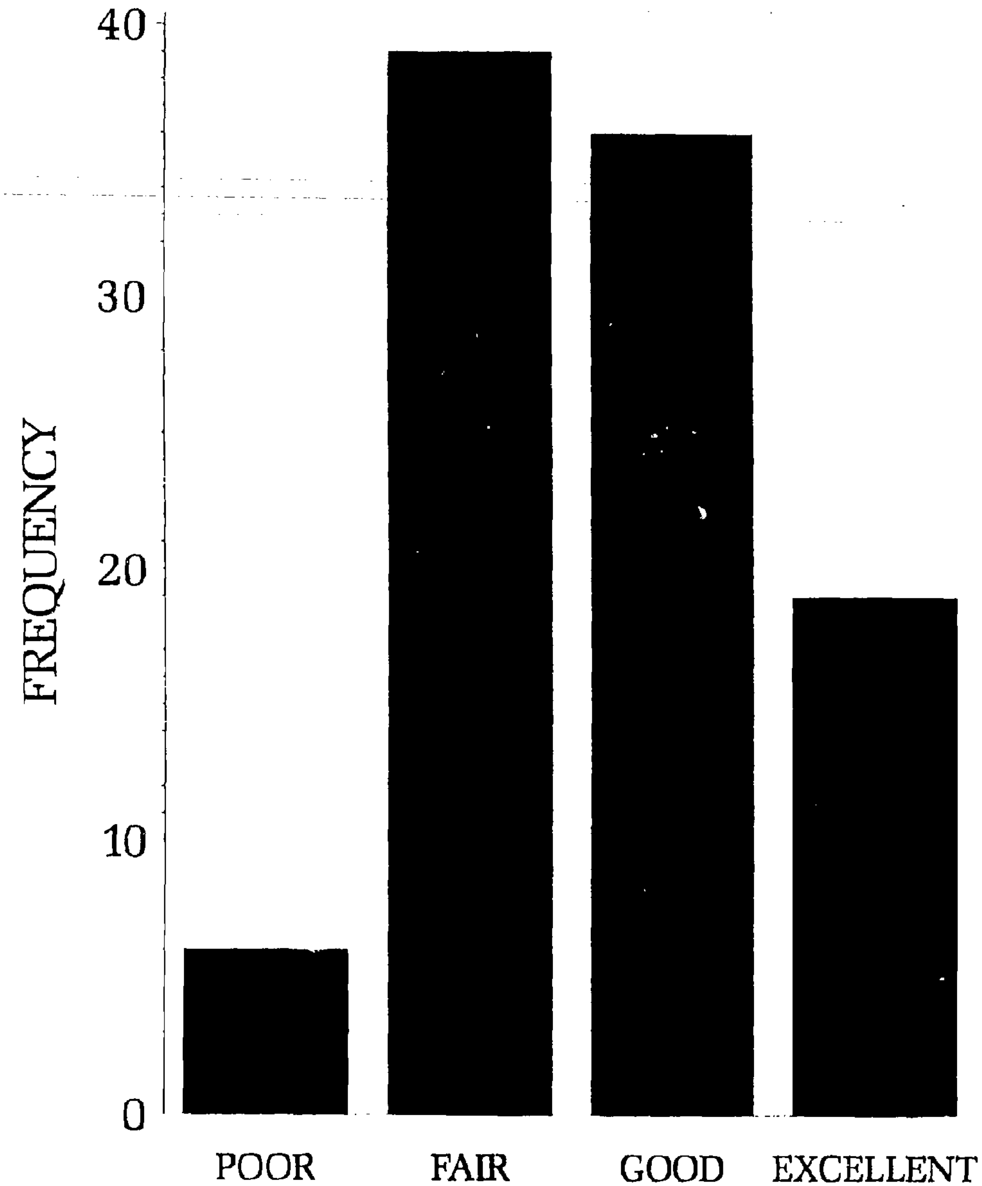
ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LISTENING



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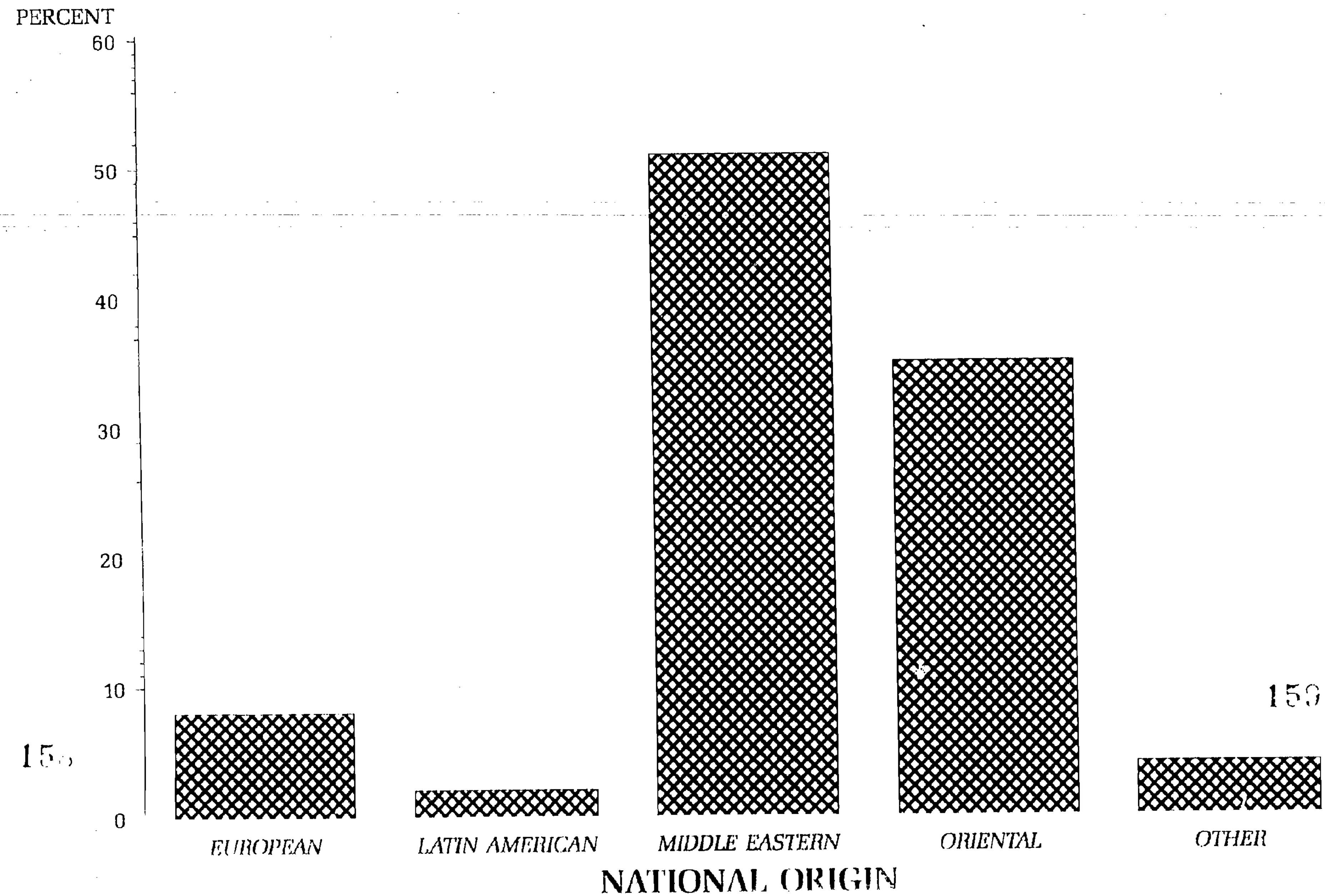
PERCENTAGE



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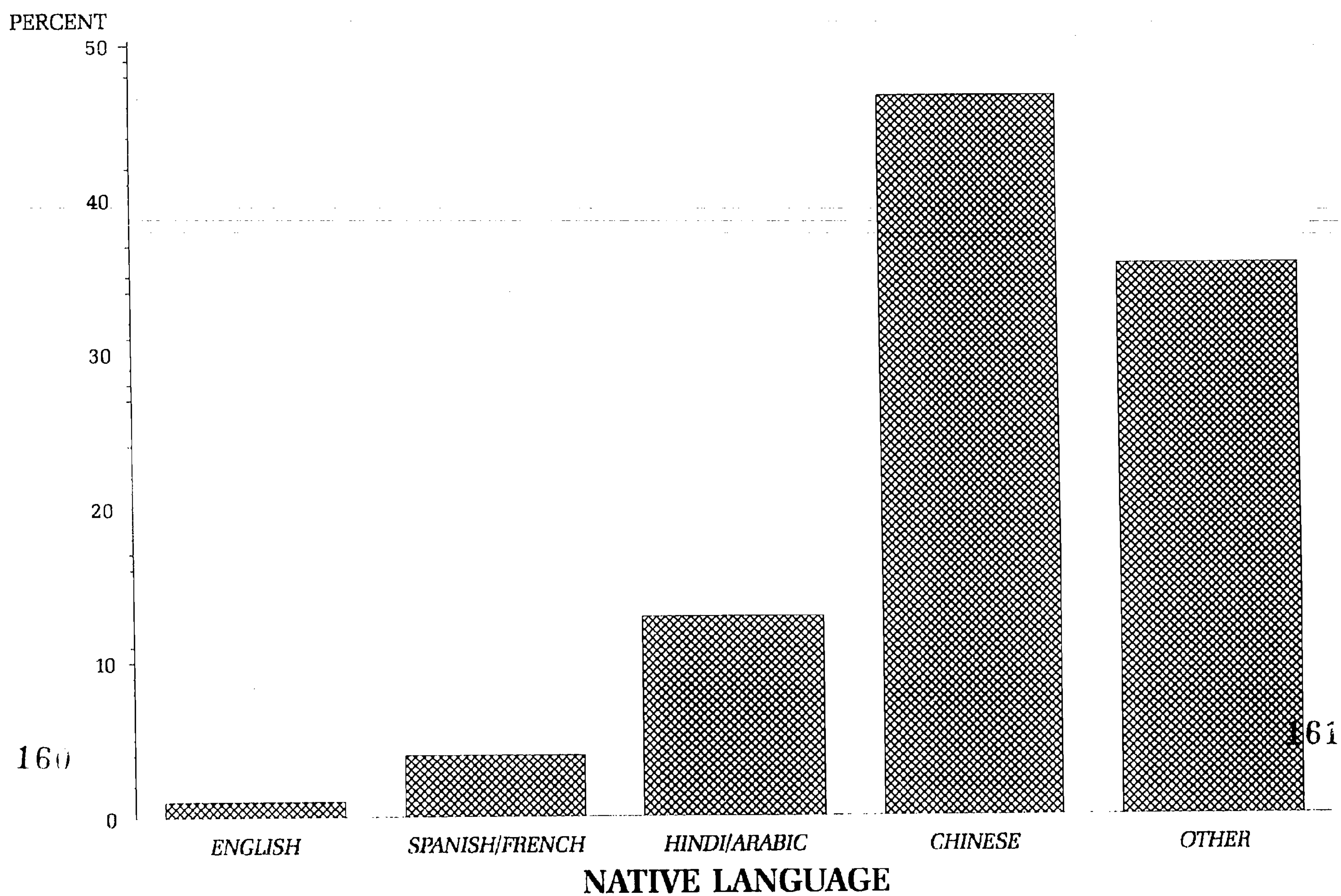
PERCENTAGE



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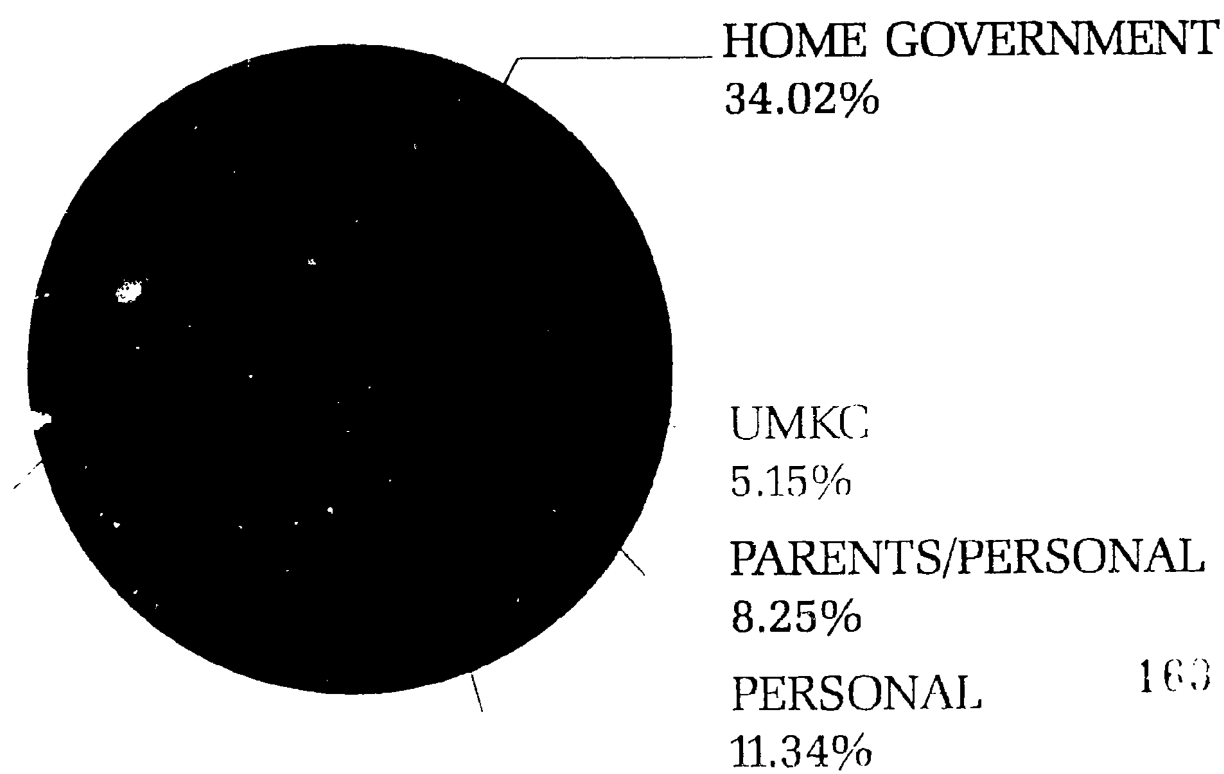
FINANCIAL SUPPORT

PERCENT of SUPPORT



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PERCENTAGE