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ABSTRACT

The Risk and Promise Profile is a 78-item, self-report, paper and pencil questionnaire that college personnel can use to outline for each student a profile of personal and social influences (e.g., motivations and deterrents) that are related to student success. This study assessed the predictive validity of the profile by examining the relationships among social, personal, and demographic measures and their ability to predict academic success in a sample of 542 older college students at six educational institutions (four two-year and two four-year colleges). As well as demographic items, the scale measures 11 personal and social variables such as: attitudes toward education; college climate; help-seeking behavior; motivation; and self-efficacy. Hierarchical multiple regression and analysis of variance indicated that the profile explains significant portions of the variance associated with academic success. The results also suggest that different sets of variables are related to the success of Caucasian students and African-American students. Further, the study suggests that race per se should not be used to identify students "at risk." Instead, combinations of personal and social measures are more appropriate predictors of academic performance. Overall, the measure demonstrated reasonable internal validity and explained about 20 percent of the variance associated with success. (Contains 46 references.) (DB)

Running head: VALIDATION STUDY

THE RISK AND PROMISE PROFILE©:

A VALIDATION STUDY *

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Dolores Vura
Editor
Air Forum Publications

The Risk and Promise Profile©:

A validation study

Abstract

The Risk and Promise Profile©[1] (Sheckley, Cubeta, & Travers, 1998) is a 78 item, self-report, paper and pencil questionnaire that college personnel can use to outline for each student a profile of personal and social influences (e.g., motivations, deterrents) that are related to student success. This study assessed the predictive validity of the profile by examining the relationships among social, personal, and demographic measures and their ability to predict academic success in a sample of 542 two-year and four-year older college students at six educational institutions. Hierarchical multiple regression and ANOVA suggest that the profile explains significant portions of the variance associated with academic success. The results also suggest that different sets of variables are related to the success of Caucasian students and African-American students. Further, the study suggests that race *per se* should not be used to identify students "at risk." Instead, combinations of personal and social measures are more appropriate predictors of academic performance.

The Risk and Promise Profile: A Validation Study

Demographic changes in the U.S. population are presenting new challenges to institutions of higher education. The average age is increasing steadily – from 30 years in 1984, to 36 years in 1997, to a projected 40 years in 2025 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). The population is also becoming more diverse. Between 1990 and 1998 the number of Hispanics increased 27%, the number of African-Americans 11%, and the number of Caucasians[2] only 6% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1997a).

These changes are reflected in postsecondary enrollments. From 1980 to 1990, the number of students over the age of 25 increased by 35% while the percentage of those under 25 grew by only 3% (NCES, 1997c). Over 40% of students enrolled in 1995 were over 25 years of age (NCES, 1997b). In like fashion, enrollments are becoming more diverse with the percentage of students listed as "minorities" increasing from 16% in 1976 to 25% in 1995 (NCES, 1997e). Fall 1995 figures were representative of the diversity of the U.S. population with enrollments consisting, for instance, of 10% African-American and 7% Hispanic students (NCES, 1997b).

Educational attainment has not kept pace with demographic changes, however. For example, as of 1997, African-Americans represented 13% and Hispanics 11% of the U. S. population yet they earned, respectively, only 7% and 5% of Bachelors Degrees awarded (NCES, 1997a). As of 1996, for citizens over 25 years of age, only 9% of Hispanics and 14% of African-Americans completed four years of college, compared to 26% of Caucasians (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1997b). Among individuals who were enrolled as high school sophomores in 1980, 28% of Caucasians earned a Bachelors Degree by 1992 compared with only 12% of African-Americans and 10% of Hispanics (NCES, 1997d). Even though from 1981 to 1993, the percentage of African-Americans earning a Bachelors Degree increased by 18% and the percentage for

Hispanics by 84%, Caucasian students were more than twice as likely to have earned a Bachelors Degree in this same time frame (NCES, 1997e).[3]

Faced with increasing age, ethnic, and racial diversity among students, postsecondary institutions are searching for additional ways to identify and address areas that may impede students' success (areas of risk) while also assessing and building on areas that could enhance their success (areas of promise). In their meta-analysis, Kennedy and Sheckley (1999) reported that success in college (as measured by persistence) is strongly related to personal factors (e.g., intentions, goal commitment) and environmental factors (e.g., college climate, support of family and friends) and not pre-college measures of potential. Yet many colleges use such pre-college measures (e.g., SAT scores, high school class rank) to assess risk and/or promise for this growing edge of an older, more diverse student population – even though these measures explain only small amounts of the variance associated with success in college and may not be appropriate for adults 20 years removed from high school. For these reasons, new models for identifying risk and promise are needed to meet the educational challenges of the next century (Hernandez, 1989; Sheckley & Keeton, 1995).

Theoretical Background

To help colleges increase the success rates of students who represent the growing edge of an older, more diverse student population, this research study explored, among a sample of older students from diverse populations, the degree to which the Risk and Promise Profile© (Sheckley et al., 1998) could predict academic success. Following the work of Sheckley (1995), the Profile, a 78 item, self-report, paper and pencil questionnaire, was designed to assess issues that influence the success of adults in college. The measures included in the Profile have, in past research, explained 10% or more of the variance associated with academic success.

As indicated in Figure 1, the measures of academic success used as dependent variables in this validation study were: (1) grade-point average (GPA), (2) number of semesters completed, and (3) ratio of credits earned to credits attempted. In this study the Risk and Promise Profile© was used to collect data on two sets of independent measures (see Table 1, page 8 for definitions). The first consisted of seven scale scores related to the individual learner:[4] attitudes about college (Cross, 1981; Kraus, 1995), prior educational experience (Keeton & Associates, 1976), help-seeking behavior (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991, Long, 1994), motivation (Howard, 1989), academic self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1993; Owen & Froman, 1988), impact of attending college (Basile & Henry, 1994, Schlossberg, Lynch, & Chickering., 1989), and locus of control (Rotter, 1966, 1975).

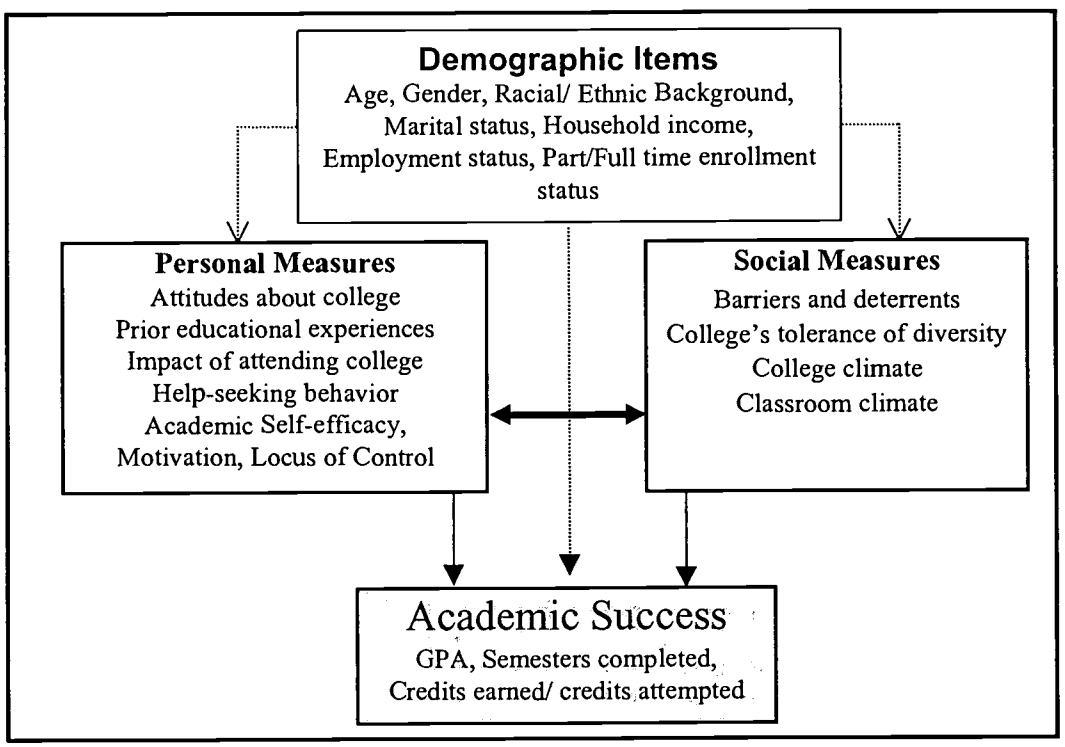


Figure 1. Outline of measures related to academic success (Sheckley, 1995).

The second set of measures consisted of four scale scores related to the learner's social environment: barriers and deterrents to participation (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985), perceived tolerance of diversity (Banks, 1994), college climate and classroom climate (Astin, 1993;

Pascarella & Terenzini, 1990). The third set of measures consisted of demographic descriptors that were used to set parameters for the generalizability of the results and to explore within group variance. These measures included: age, gender, racial/ethnic membership, marital status, employment status, household annual income before taxes, and part-time/full-time student status.

To assess the validity of the Risk and Promise Profile©, two research questions were framed:

1. To what extent is academic success (i.e., grade-point average, number of semesters completed, and ratio of credits earned to credits attempted) predicted by the social and personal measures included in the Risk and Promise Profile©?
2. To what extent do these predictions differ with respect to age, race, and ethnicity (i.e., Caucasian, African-American)?

Methods

Sample

Questionnaires were mailed to a randomly selected sample of students who attended one of 4 two-year and 2 four-year colleges located on the East Coast of the United States. Each institution was participating in a research project that explored ways to increase the success in college of adult students from diverse populations. The project, supported in part by the Pew Charitable Trusts and a second foundation, was coordinated by the University of Maryland University College (UMUC). Because these institutions served an older, diverse student population, students in the sample tended to be older (M = 35 years), female (67%), employed outside of school (86%), attending part-time (73%), either married (43%) or single/ divorced (50%) with a median household income between $40,000 and $59,000.

Because prior experience with this population indicated that, historically, about 10% of the sample would return questionnaires, 5,000 questionnaires were mailed to students. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a 10% return rate (500 returns) would be sufficient to provide, at a 95% level, confidence that the returns would be free of sampling error and would represent the characteristics of the entire population of 55,000 students from which the sample was drawn. The

5,000 questionnaires were stratified among the six institutions so that the larger institutions mailed out proportionally more questionnaires than did the smaller institutions. Each college used an institutional mailing list to select randomly the students who received a questionnaire.

Both the actual student population of the six colleges and the final sample who returned questionnaires (n = 542) consisted of approximately 66% Caucasian students, 21% African-American students, 6% Hispanic students, and 7% students from other racial/ethnic backgrounds. The sample's close demographic similarity (in terms of race, gender, age, income, and marital status) to the population of the participating colleges suggests a good fit between the sample and the target population. With this large sample size (n = 542), the probability of committing a Type II error for variables exhibiting a medium or large effect size is low ($p < .05$) (Cohen, 1992).

Data Collection

Independent Measures. Each scale in the Risk and Promise Profile© was developed from past research on the construct being measured. Since the pilot study (n=174 randomly chosen students) indicated that a number of the scales (e.g., transition to college readiness, stress, sources of support) did not predict academic success the Profile was refined to 11 scales. Table 1 lists, for each scale, name, measure of internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha), and a brief definition.

As outlined in Table 1 (next page), the survey instrument included 10 scales. Cronbach's Alpha ranged from .62 to .89. This measure for 8 of the scales fell within the .70 and .90 range recommended for surveys of this type (Gable & Wolf, 1993). The 2 scales that were outside the range pose a threat because their results can be misinterpreted as suggesting that a relationship does not exist when, in fact, one does (i.e., Type II error). With the large sample size (n = 542), however, the probability of committing a Type II error for variables exhibiting a medium or large effect size is low ($p < .05$) (Cohen, 1992).

Table 1: Personal and Social Variables included in the Risk & Promise Profile© (with Cronbach's Alpha)

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Brief Definition
Attitudes Toward Education	.64	Attitudes about college (e.g., importance of getting a college education, being a college student is fun, etc.)
Barriers and Deterrents	.62	Barriers and deterrents that students experience (e.g., course schedule, child care, transportation, etc.)
Classroom Climate	.78	The degree to which students experience a positive classroom climate (e.g., mutual respect between faculty and students, etc)
College Climate	.89	The degree to which students experience a positive college climate (e.g., friendly, trusting, respectful, etc.)
Experiences prior to College	.89	Attitudes about learning experiences prior to coming to college (e.g., feelings toward school, prior grades, prior teachers, etc.)
Help-seeking Behavior	.73	The degree to which students seek help (e.g., seeking help from the instructor, asking more questions, etc.)
Impact of Attending College	Not a scale score	A discrepancy score based on differences between students' rank order of their ideal versus their actual social roles
Locus of Control	.71	The degree to which students feel control over their own academic success.
Motivation	.81	How students work in classes, the degree to which they set goals the amount of study time, the amount of effort, etc.
Self-Efficacy	.87	The degree to which students believe in their academic abilities (e.g., classroom participation, high grades, etc.)
Tolerance of Diversity	.83	The degree to which students perceive the college to be tolerant of diversity (e.g., respecting different cultures, etc.)

Dependent Measures. With each student's written permission, data on the three separate dependent variables (i.e., GPA, semesters completed, and credit ratio) were obtained from the educational records at each institution.

Data Analysis.

Personal, social, and demographic items that were significantly correlated with the measures of success (i.e., $r > .15$, $p < .05$) were entered into a regression equation in descending order of magnitude, according to the theoretical premise that the social variables would be most important followed by personal, then demographic items. To answer Research Question 1, this procedure was performed on the entire sample. To answer Research Question 2, this process was used for the respective Caucasian and African-American subsamples.

Results

On a four point scale, the mean grade-point average (GPA) for the entire sample was 3.13 (SD = .85). Caucasians (3.27, SD = .83) recorded a higher GPA than African-Americans (2.80, SD = .78) ($t = 7.1$, $p < .05$, effect size = .58 SD). Age was moderately correlated ($r = .26$) with GPA. A t-test analysis indicated that there were no significant differences between African-Americans and Caucasians with respect to credit ratio or number of semesters completed. The three measures of academic success (GPA, credit ratio, semesters completed) were not significantly correlated thereby supporting the decision to treat them as independent and distinct measures in the analyses.

Research Question 1

As outlined in Table 2, the items included in the Profile explained 21% of the variance associated with GPA, 14% of the variance associated with credit ratio and 8% of the variance associated with semesters completed. Table 2 also indicates that different predictive patterns existed for each independent measure of academic success.

Table 2:Significant predictors of academic success from regression analysis of entire sample.

Grade-point Average (n=488)*		Credit Ratio (n=382)*		Semesters Completed (n=336)*	
Variable	Explained variance	Variable	Explained variance	Variable	Explained variance
Self-efficacy	13%	Help-seeking	11%	Age	8%
Internal locus of control	3%	Motivation	3%		
Motivation	2%				
Income	3%				
Total variance	21%	Total variance	14%	Total variance	8%

*Note: Numbers vary because measures not available on all students in the sample

Grade-point Average. Overall, the regression model explained 21% of the variance associated with GPA. Academic self-efficacy was the single most powerful predictor, accounting for approximately 13% of the variance ($p < .01$) in students' grades for the total sample. These results are consistent with previous studies linking self-efficacy to academic performance. For

example, in a meta-analysis of self-efficacy research, Multon, Brown, and Lent. (1991) found that approximately 14% of the variance in students' academic performance was explained by self-efficacy beliefs. The finding that internal locus of control (3% of the variance, $p < .01$) and motivation (2% of the variance, $p < .01$) predicted GPA was also consistent with results of other studies (e.g., Rubio & Lubin, 1986). The limited power of demographic variables to explain measures of academic success (e.g., income, 3% of variance) is also consistent with past research (e.g., Kennedy & Sheckley, 1999).

Credit Ratio. For the entire sample, the regression model explained 14% of the variance associated with the ratio of credits attempted to credits completed. Again in line with past research (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991), help-seeking (e.g., attending tutorial sessions) was a strong predictor, explaining 11% of the variance. As with the prediction of GPA, motivation explained only 3% of the variance associated with the credit ratio.

Semesters Completed. For the entire sample, only age explained a significant portion of the variance (8%). This result is not surprising for this sample since most (73%) were part-time students. At a rate of 1-2 courses per semester some students could require up to 16 semesters to complete a four-year degree. Since most students in this sample tended to enroll in their first course in their mid 20s, older students would likely have completed more semesters than younger students.

Research Question 2.

The regression analyses for Caucasians and African-Americans listed in Table 3 outline a unique pattern of predictors for each group. Because of the small sample size (n = 32), Hispanics could not be included in the regression analyses. For African-Americans (n=104), academic self-efficacy explained 12% of the variance associated with GPA, while this same variable explained only 8% of the variance in GPA for Caucasians (n=334). For credit ratio, help-seeking explained a large portion of the variance (29%) for African-Americans but only a very small

percentage of the variance (3%) for Caucasians. For semesters completed, age explained 11% of the variance for Caucasians and deterrents and barriers explained 8% of the variance for African-Americans.

Table 3: Significant predictors of academic success from regression analysis for Caucasian and African-American students.

Grade-point Average

Caucasian (n=334)		African-American (n=104)	
Variable	Explained variance	Variable	Explained variance
Self-efficacy	8%	Self-efficacy	12%
Internal locus of control	3%		
Motivation	2%		
Income	4%		
Total variance	17%	Total variance	12%

Credit Ratio

Caucasian (n=252)		African-American (n=92)	
Variable	Explained variance	Variable	Explained variance
Motivation	8%	Help-seeking**	29%
Help-seeking	3%		
Total variance	11%	Total variance	29%

Semesters Completed

Caucasian (n=245)		African-American (n=54)	
Variable	Explained variance	Variable	Explained variance
Age	11%	Deterrents and barriers	8%
Total variance	11%	Total variance	8%

These results suggest that student services personnel and faculty could increase measures of academic success for older, more diverse students by targeting interventions on increasing academic self-efficacy, motivation, help-seeking behaviors, locus of control and on removing deterrents to participation. Even so, the results again leave unexplained over 75% of the variance associated with academic success. In an attempt to clarify more fully the relationship between group differences and academic success, a series of post-hoc analyses, beginning with discriminant function analyses (DFA), were conducted. These analyses, exploratory in nature, used only GPA as the measure of academic success because, as stated previously, the GPA for

Caucasian students (3.27) was significantly higher than that of African-American students (2.80) ($t=7.1$, $p < .05$). There were no significant differences between groups on either credit ratio or semesters completed.

Research Question 2: Post-hoc Analysis 1. Discriminant function analysis (DFA) was used as a follow-up because it can sort out areas of overlapping variance and thereby identify how well the measures in a predictive model could actually differentiate GPA of Caucasians and African-Americans in the sample. Initially the variable racial category was used as the grouping variable in the DFA because: (a) the prior analyses showed different patterns of GPA predictors for African-American and Caucasian students and (b) the GPA differences between African-American ($m = 2.80$) and Caucasian ($m = 3.27$) was significant ($t = 7.1$, $p < .05$, effect size = .58 SD).

The DFA explained slightly more of the variance associated with GPA (33%) than the regression analyses presented in Table 3 (17%). The variables that differentiated African-American and Caucasian students, with Caucasian students reporting higher scores, were GPA (effect size = .58 SD), perceived tolerance of diversity (effect size = .68 SD), internal locus of control (effect size = .35 SD), and positive experiences (effect size = .32 SD). The DFA also indicated that the predictive model required further clarification, since it provided a more accurate prediction rate for Caucasians (92%) than for African-Americans (53%).

Research Question 2: Post-hoc Analysis 2. Because only 53% of African-Americans were correctly placed by the first post-hoc analysis, a second DFA was conducted to identify the variables that differentiated students who were correctly listed as African-American and those who were not. The results of this second analysis explained 67% of the variance, with an overall prediction model of 97% accuracy – a major improvement over the first DFA analysis with this sample. The results clearly indicated that (a) there were two distinct groups of African-American students and (b) the groups were best differentiated on the basis of GPA (effect size = 1.23 SD).

Further examination indicated that the low-GPA group of African-American students reported more negative events (effect size = .26 SD), and a less positive attitude (effect size = .23 SD) than the group of African- American students who had higher GPAs. In contrast, the group of African-American students with higher GPAs perceived that their institutions were more tolerant of diversity (effect size = 1.07 SD), reported a higher internal locus of control (effect size = .60 SD), and had more prior experiences with education that were positive (effect size = .11 SD) than the group with lower GPAs. These results provided the rationale for the next analysis, an assessment based on high versus low GPA.

Research Question 2: Post-hoc Analysis 3. To conduct this third DFA, the sample was separated into three groups: highly successful students (GPA 3.5 and greater), moderately successful students (3.5 < GPA < 2.5), and less successful students (GPA 2.5 and below). To maximize the differentiation between groups and eliminate error variance associated with categorizations near the mean (e.g., defining a student with a 2.6 GPA as "successful" and a student with a 2.4 GPA as "less successful"), only the highly successful (n = 190) and less successful groups (n = 90) were included in the DFA. The resulting (trimmed) model explained 54% of the variance, a notable improvement over the 33% explained by the analysis based on racial categories alone. Overall, the model predicted group membership with a 90% rate of accuracy with a higher prediction rate (97%) for successful students than for the less successful students (72%). According to the analysis, students who were highly successful, in comparison to their less successful counterparts, had higher motivation (effect size = .86 SD), greater internal locus of control (effect size = .84 SD), and a perception that the college had a higher tolerance of diversity (effect size = .63 SD).

The students with higher GPAs, unlike those with lower-GPAs, also tended to be slightly older (effect size = .59 SD), have fewer children at home (effect size = .20 SD), be married

(effect size = .75 SD), attend school part-time (effect size = .20 SD), and have transferred from another school (effect size = .37 SD).

Research Question 2: Post-hoc Analysis 4. Although prior analyses indicated that neither marital status nor gender had a significant relationship to GPA, noteworthy patterns emerged when a 2X2 ANOVA was used to analyze the main effects and the interactions between these two variables for each group. For example, GPAs were identical for both African-American students who were married (m= 2.78) and those were single (m = 2.76). Such was not the case among Caucasians where both married male and female students averaged almost a half-letter grade higher (m =3.44) than their single counterparts (m=2.97) (effect size=.56 SD).

When gender was added to the analysis for the African-American sample, another pattern emerged. As in the Caucasian sample, married African-American females had *higher* GPAs (m = 2.91) than single African-American females (m = 2.67) (effect size = .32 SD). In contrast, married African-American males (m = 2.43) had *lower* GPAs than their single counterparts (m = 3.02) (effect size = .77 SD).

Summary. Three conclusions can be drawn from the analysis of Research Question 2. First, a complex set of relationships exists among the personal and social measures associated with GPA and, to a lesser extent, credit ratio and semesters completed. Second, the variables included in the Profile can explain significant amounts of the variance associated with GPA. Third, racial and ethnic categories in and of themselves do not provide the most useful basis for targeting interventions designed to increase GPA. Overall, these conclusions indicate that researchers will continue to struggle with the question: What factors predict academic success? As discussed in the following section, framing simple answers to this question may not be possible.

Discussion

Overall the results indicate that the Risk and Promise Profile© demonstrated reasonable internal validity, explained about 20% of the variance associated with measures of success, and

explained 33% of the variance associated with the categorization of individuals with high versus low GPA.The results also indicate that the Profile was useful in identifying within group variance in that it was able to achieve a 97% accuracy in classification regarding high versus low GPA and to explain 67% of the variance associated with the differences in GPA among African-American students.

The Profile identified personal measures that were related to academic success. In contrast to their less successful peers, successful students tended to be older and to report having prior experiences in educational settings that were positive. The successful students also reported higher levels of academic self-efficacy as learners, an internal locus of control as students, and motivation to succeed. Since research (Bandura, 1993; Multon et al., 1991) indicates that individuals with this set of characteristics will set high goals for themselves and work long and hard to achieve those goals, these findings suggest that high GPA may, in part, result from hard work and dedication on the part of the students who are successful. Because these variables are also linked to the research on self-regulation, the Risk and Promise Profile© was refined to include a scale to measure self-regulation (Travers, 1998).

The results also indicate that the more successful students, unlike their less successful cohorts, perceive the environment at their college to be more tolerant of diversity. Researchers (e.g., Banks, 1994) report that when individuals appraise their environment as being discrepant with or intolerant of their personal and cultural values, these individuals may not strive to achieve success in such environments. For this reason, individuals who perceive the college environment as not tolerant of diversity may not find support for learning goals they value and, therefore, may not commit themselves to achieving success in such an environment. For this reason, efforts on the part of colleges to improve the tolerance of diversity throughout the academy, especially within its classrooms, have promise for increasing the academic success of students.

The results from the Profile also indicate that the relationships between the scale scores and measures of success are dynamic. Take, for example, the question: Are married students more successful than single students? In this sample, females of both races, as well as Caucasian males who are married, earned higher GPAs than their single counterparts. In contrast, African-American males in this sample who are married earned lower GPAs than their single cohorts, a result that requires more research to explain.

Similarly the question, is age related to GPA, does not have a simple answer. The results indicate that academic success is related to age ($r = .26$) with older students tending to be more successful (effect size = .59 SD) than their younger cohorts. A more fine-grained analysis, however, indicates that this relationship holds only for individuals above the mean GPA. For individuals with GPA above the mean, the correlation between age and GPA ($r=.23$) is more robust than that for students below the mean GPA ($r = .07$). As noted by several researchers (Chi, Glaser, & Farr, 1988; King & Kitchener, 1994; Legrow, 1998; Sheckley & Keeton, 1998; Zeitz, 1997), individuals with highly organized knowledge (memory) stores can integrate new experiences into this knowledge base in a way that enriches thinking, problem solving, and reasoning skills. Since academic success begets further success (Cross, 1981) perhaps individuals with high GPAs have a knowledge base that is better organized than those with lower GPAs. As the learners with higher GPAs age and gain more experience, this experience is perhaps integrated within their existing knowledge base in a way that enhances their reasoning skills and enables them to achieve higher grades.

Because of such complexities in the relationships among variables, the scoring of the questionnaire was refined into a profile format in order to highlight patterns of factors, some that might indicate promise (e.g., high motivation) and others that suggest potential risk (e.g., deterrents) (See page 18). This profile format can illustrate the dynamic interactions of factors associated with success better than would a single set of numbers.

Additionally, the analyses indicated that because of the large within group variance, racial categories are limited as indicators of academic risk and promise. Instead, the analyses indicated that a key set of personal measures (e.g., motivation) and social measures (e.g., perceptions that a college embraces diversity) best differentiates students who are more successful academically from those who are less successful.

The results suggest that colleges could use the Risk and Promise Profile© as an easily administered tool to identify for older, diverse students, areas that would contribute to their success (e.g., motivation, internal locus of control) or areas that could put them at risk (e.g., past educational experiences that were negative). Since the Profile can be completed in about 10-15 minutes, it could be used during advising sessions with students or as part of a registration packet. The results could help student services personnel and faculty focus a college's support services and resources most effectively.

The authors, in collaboration with the Institute for Research on Adults in Higher Education at the University of Maryland University College, are planning more research with the Profile. Individuals who are interested in partnering on such efforts can do so by contacting the Institute directly (see endnote #1 for information).

Endnotes

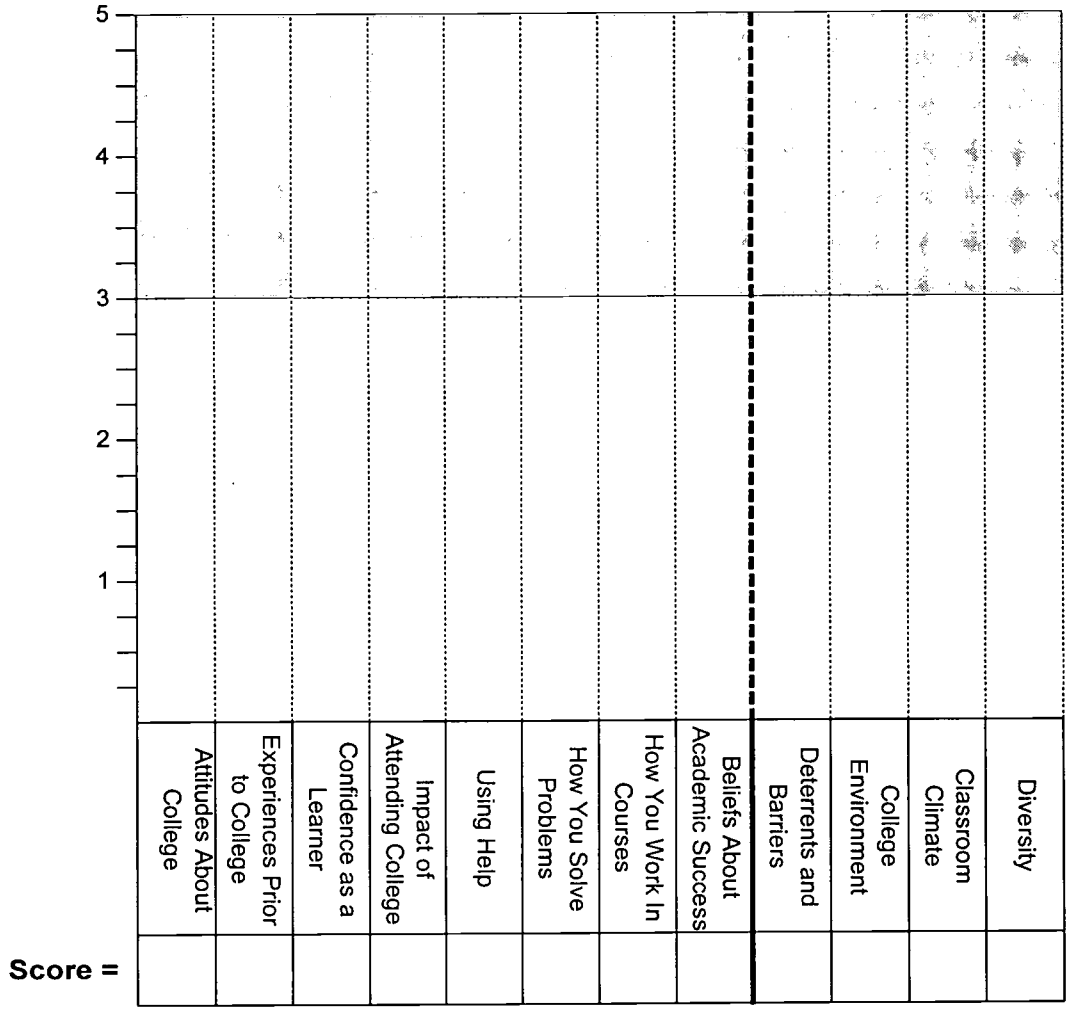
1 The Risk and Promise Profile © can be ordered from the Institute for Research on Adults in Higher Education, University of Maryland, University College, Room 1247 SFSC, University Blvd, College Park, MD, 20742. Phone: 301-985-7031.

2 In this paper, the term "Caucasian" will refer to non-Hispanic Caucasian.

3 No comparable data was found by age categories on changing trends in education.

4 Listed in parentheses are the sources used to conceptualize and design each measure.

At-Risk Profile© Chart



Student _____ Date_____

Recommendations _____

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