

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ENTERING WOMEN
AT COLBY COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A rising interest in the process of higher education has become apparent in the past two decades. Diverse aspects of the educational setting have become the subject of public scrutiny, as well as the focus of scientific investigation. Social scientists, psychologists and educators have joined forces in an effort to enumerate factors in the college environment (Abe et al., 1965), to delineate factors associated with attrition (Congdon, 1964), and to identify successful students (Summerskill, 1962; Brown, 1962). The behavior of college students has been the subject of studies concerned with changing attitudes and values (Jacobs, 1957) and student culture (Bushnell, 1962).

Longitudinal studies have guided the thinking of psychologists and social scientists in the development of instruments for the purpose of assessing personality characteristics of college students (Webster, Freedman and Heist, 1962). Non-intellective factors have added a complex and yet revealing dimension to the comprehensive study of college students.

Descriptive studies of college students have become available to potential matriculants. These studies enumerate personal characteristics, interests, abilities and values of the student bodies of institutions as well as the time-honored information concerning curriculum, majors, courses and general academic requirements (Astin, 1964).

Numerous societal trends have contributed to the increased need for the establishment of junior colleges. The trend of youth to seek higher levels of education, as well as increased demands for specialized training preceding employment, have resulted in an over-crowding of existing colleges and universities. It has been predicted that by 1970, one-half of college matriculants will enter junior college (Gleazer, 1963). The vital role of the public community junior college is revealed by the statistic that in 1962, 85 percent of all junior college students were enrolled in an institution under this type of administrative control (Gleazer, 1963). Investigators in the area of higher education have begun to recognize the need for testing norms based on junior college populations (Selbel, 1966).

Because of the current interest in the description of college students using personality assessment and demographic data and the increasing importance of the junior college in the educational scene, it seemed important to collect data on characteristics of junior college women. The purpose of this study was to describe freshmen women at Colby Community Junior College by means of a combination of three research techniques: (1) tabulation of biographical data, (2) assessment of personality traits by means of a psychometric device, and (3) reporting of a few selected individual interviews as a means of integrating demographic and subjective data.

Because existing data concerning personality characteristics of junior college students were limited, and because it was believed that personality data from women at a four-year institution would give added meaning to the junior college data, personality characteristics of a

sample of freshmen women students from an established four-year university in Kansas were used for comparative purposes. A t-test was used to determine significant differences in personality characteristics of the two populations.

Personnel records, including American College Testing program reports provided demographic data for the study, which was useful in describing the population and in interpreting the results of the psychometric instrument, the Omnibus Personality Inventory. Individual interviews with junior college women who exhibited extreme tendencies on a selected scale of the personality inventory were used to add depth of understanding to the results of the psychometric device. Brief descriptions of four interviewees demonstrated possible ways of combining biographical and psychometric data with interviews.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies of college populations have had various goals, with the methodology discriminately adapted to meet the diverse goals. Non-intellective factors have come into focus as investigators have sought to discover relationships between numerous non-academic variables and a successful college performance. The varied inquiries have reflected the complexity and diversity of the institutions involved as well as the insight and perspective of the individual social scientist. Examination of literature describing the process of education revealed definitive patterns within the numerous approaches. For the purpose of general background, some of the varied approaches are briefly discussed in the first section. Specific considerations of personality studies, investigations at junior colleges and research on Kansas State University students are presented in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

Varied Approaches to the Study of Higher Education

Some investigators have attempted to discern student attributes that contribute to a successful college performance, or conversely have examined the characteristics that surround and intensify the much talked about dropout problem. Early assessment of student behavior was closely related to intelligence testing. McConnell and Heist (1962) describe research conducted by Cattell previous to 1900 that attempted to measure

differences in sensory perception, a factor which was presumed to be a correlate of intelligence.

In current literature, success in college is associated with non-intellective as well as with intellective factors (Brown, 1962). Summerskill (1962) stated that the largest number of college dropouts involve motivational forces in the student's life, such as goals, interests and satisfactions. The difficulty in supporting the foregoing statement was demonstrated by Iffert's (1957) research in which multiple causes for dropouts and lack of distinction between reasons and outcomes were seen to prevent any concise statement concerning the percentage of dropouts attributable to motivational factors.

It has been pointed out that investigators who attempt to relate success in college to motivational factors must realize that not all students enter college with the intention of obtaining a degree. Summerskill (1962) cited a 1951 study in which 62 percent of 611 withdrawals from one university expressed satisfaction with their short-lived careers. In studies of attrition, students who entered college with little intention of obtaining a degree need to be considered differently than those who enrolled with the intention of pursuing at least a baccalaureate degree.

Certain psychological characteristics have been observed in unsuccessful students. From a review of nine studies conducted between 1937 and 1957, Summerskill (1962) cited immaturity, rebellion and non-conformity, worry and anxiety, social inadequacy, nonadaptability, lack of independence and responsibility, neurosis, character disorder, and psychosis as characteristics that have been observed in unsuccessful

students. More rigorous testing of the relationships of these factors to attrition would be necessary before definite statements could be made of their effects.

Another approach to the study of attrition has been to relate attrition rate to certain factors in the student's previous background. Some researchers have speculated concerning the relationship of parental influence to motivational changes and successful college performance. Congdon (1964) found that technology students who showed the most impaired functioning in meeting curriculum demands were the ones who also showed the greatest need for warmth and affection from a mother figure. Thematic Apperception Tests and parental interviews were the means employed to gather data for this study.

Medinnus (1965) compared data from ten subtests of a parent-child relations questionnaire with measures of self-acceptance, adjustment, perceived acceptance by parents and identification with them to determine if there were any correlations. Data from forty-four freshmen at San Jose State College indicated that the adolescents high in self-acceptance and adjustment perceived their parents as loving and not as neglectful or rejecting. A closer relationship was found between the subjects self-regard and their mothers' child-rearing attitudes than between subjects' self-regard and fathers' child-rearing attitudes. Correlations between self-regard measures and evaluation of parents' child-rearing attitudes were higher for boys than for girls.

A still different approach to the study of success or failure at college has been to relate attrition factors to vocational interests. One study demonstrated that students with specific vocational choices

tended to be over-achievers at college (Alexander and Woodruff, 1940); another (Iffert, 1957) indicated that students with specific vocational choices were more likely to graduate from college than were students without specific vocational choices.

Stone and Ryan (1964) attempted to relate high school study habits to the attrition rate of freshmen at Kansas State University. Data gathered from a sample of 1500 freshman revealed that students who reported having studied more as high school seniors tended to enroll in their collegiate second year in greater proportions than those students who reported lesser amounts of study time during their senior high school year. This research would indicate that in terms of developmental tasks, students who learn self-discipline early in life tend to be more successful than those who have not learned good study habits.

Many questions remain unanswered at this time concerning underlying causes for attrition. Results of systematic research have not discovered specifically what motivational changes in college students lead to success in academic activity. Neither have existing studies provided explicit guidelines for colleges in working with individual differences in student motivation and interests.

It has been recognized that colleges and universities vary greatly with regard to such matters as historical concept of function, administrative policy, and number and kinds of students. A closer look at the students within the varied institutions has revealed an equally divergent display of effort and accomplishment expected by students of each other. Contemporary studies of student culture have

attempted to discern some of the ways in which the various levels of effort are set and maintained (Hughes, Becker, and Geer, 1962). As with any group, the diverse forms of student peers have been observed to exert a certain power over members. Included is the power to reward and to punish successes or failures of members. What constitutes success to the peer group may directly affect the general level of achievement accomplished by the students. On the basis of a student study at Antioch (Newcomb, 1967), it was concluded that courses and teachers are important but not sufficient inducers of change; peer influence is also essential.

Campus studies conducted at Vassar (Bushnell, 1962) provided evidence that peer group influence was a salient feature in student functioning during college. During the years of 1954-1958, a sample of the Vassar class of 1958 was intensively interviewed, tested and observed. The longitudinal design of the study facilitated the development of excellent rapport with the students which resulted in a probing in depth into the college experience. The sample for this study was composed of 421 enrollees in 1954, 58 percent of whom came from private schools, 36 percent from public schools, and 6 percent from mixed public-private high school backgrounds. Matriculants were highly selected, primarily for scholastic achievement, and also for their potential to contribute to campus life.

On the basis of extensive data gathered from these subjects, a number of observations were made concerning the prevailing attitudes of the student culture. Vassar students reportedly were aware of differing emphases or contrasting life-styles among campus subgroups, which they

thought of as existing on a continuum ranging from the highly social to the highly intellectual girl. The girl who most nearly approached the Vassar ideal received consistently high grades without devoting her entire time to this endeavor. The prevailing student preference was for a life-style which stressed moderation, friendliness, cooperation and a smoothly-moving collegiate experience. Bushnell (1962) estimated that Jacob's (1957) description of the contemporary college student as self-confident, self-satisfied and self-centered, for the most part was an appropriate description of the Vassar girl. The concept of self-centeredness was judged to be relative, since at Vassar it excluded serious, personal involvement or concern with national issues, but definitely included the immediate world of friends, relatives, hometown, and a future milieu of husband, children, and community ties.

Students tended to regard themselves rather than their professors as located in the mainstream of contemporary civilization. In this light, teachers were assigned marginal status and were viewed as a group whose members were to be respected for their intellectual prowess, but need not be permitted to intrude too far with their academic recruiting, which was seen as somewhat irrelevant to the larger scheme of things. Bushnell (1962) presented the concept of two cultures, student culture and academic culture represented by faculty and administration, existing on campus with potentials for conflict and congruence. Understanding of the functioning and interaction of these two cultures could hopefully facilitate analysis of contemporary processes and perhaps could aid in predicting and directing future trends in colleges and universities.

A study of peer influences at a medical school provided vivid illustration of the effects of student culture in The American College (Newcomb, 1962a). Observations reported in this study suggested ways in which student culture provided students with social support, as well as a basis for viewing their superiors and their institutions requirements in perspective. Admittedly, the student cohesiveness of purpose and direction at medical school provided a base for the development of an extreme form of student culture; but these extremes served to illustrate the formation and operation of peer influences.

Newcomb (1943) directed an extensive study of students over four college years at Bennington. The information gathered described characteristics making up a student culture that differentiated one college from most other college cultures. Data clearly demonstrated a close relationship between the prestige of students among fellow students and the attitudes held by students. Newcomb (1962, p. 487) summed up the importance of understanding and utilizing the dynamics of student culture with the following paragraph.

Student peer groups are here to stay, and so are colleges. I do not think that one is about to become a cancerous growth within the body of the other; I prefer a different figure. I do think that, increasingly (in this country, at any rate) the social-psychological motors of student life are racing, disconnected from the wheels of intellectual development, and that the means of exploiting the power delivered by those motors are at our command.

Studies such as those cited leave little doubt that what students learn in college is determined to a large extent by their fellow students or, more precisely, by the norms of behavior, attitudes and values that prevail in the peer groups to which they belong (Sanford, 1967). The established existence of student culture has presented

further questions for the scrutiny of researchers, such as the nature and characteristics of the student culture, how it is generated and maintained, and how knowledge of the student group standards and goals may be used to elevate levels of student academic accomplishment. It is feasible that the latter might present a more efficient method of elevating academic standards than the usual practice of raising entrance and graduation requirements.

Closely related to the studies of student culture are those that have examined the institutional environment and its concomitant effect on the attitudes and behavior of students. Information describing characteristics of colleges and how they differ has been viewed as requisite to understanding of the effect of the environment on student growth and the development of different college environments. In the fall of 1961, Astin surveyed 127,212 freshmen students in 248 colleges and universities. The resulting report (Astin, 1964) proffered relationships between a number of characteristics of the entering student bodies and environmental characteristics of the colleges. Factor analysis of fifty-two student "input" variables, in which the institution was used as the unit of sampling, revealed six major criteria of entering classes: intellectualism, estheticism, status, leadership, masculinity, and pragmatism. The above criteria were the basis for gathering data from the subjects in the sample. The data were then subjected to a variety of analyses to determine how student talent was distributed among various types of colleges. The subsequent brief volume Who Goes Where to College (Astin, 1965) provided concise and objective information about colleges and universities that previously was

not available in organized and collective form. This differed from prior publications in that it offered more comprehensive information than just step-by-step "how to choose your college" information frequently used in counseling college-bound students.

Peterson (1965) administered the College Student Questionnaires as a means of assessing the influence of the college environment on student attitudes. The above instrument consisted of two questionnaires, each containing 200 multiple-choice questions concerning biographical and attitudinal information. The first questionnaire is designed to be administered to entering students prior to the beginning of the academic year. The second questionnaire is to be administered near the end of the academic year.

A true-false inventory, the College Characteristics Index (CCI), has been developed (Stern, 1966) to measure thirty features of the "environmental press" of the college. Stern (1966) developed the "Activities Index" (AI) as a counterpart to the CCI, to measure the extent to which a student's needs are congruent or dissonant to the general climate of the college. In recent research at Syracuse University (Stern, 1966), an attempt was made to relate knowledge about the psychological characteristics of the college environment to student attributes and to criteria of institutional excellence.

Rowe (1964), from a study of institutional characteristics at three women's colleges, reported that a considerable amount of potentially valuable information could be obtained by using the AI and either the CCI or the College and University Environment Scale.

Other researchers (Abe et al., 1965) have administered the

American College Survey to 12,321 college freshmen in thirty-one institutions. This comprehensive assessment revealed auspicious differences among student bodies and among institutions in educational and vocational goals, in interests, in potentials for academic work or originality, in family background, and in attitudes and values.

Environmental studies can be of special value to college-bound students and their counselors, to administrators of colleges and universities, and to the social science researcher interested in scientific investigation into the dynamics of student and college interaction. Of discreet value to the college-bound student is the information concerning characteristics of his potential fellow students, an aspect of college which may very well make the greatest impact on his total experience. Administrators of higher learning can use data from systematic, objective investigations of the college environment both in designing educational practices to meet student needs and abilities, and in successfully revising recruitment practices to attract specific desired matriculants.

The dynamics of student and college interaction have comprised subject matter for a great deal of research. The immediately preceding examples have employed standardized measurement devices to assess the effects on students of various characteristics in the college environment. The investigator of the college milieu is further confronted with almost limitless diversities within and among student bodies. Early investigations of diversity among students were closely related to intellectual assessment (McCannell and Heist, 1962). Although the principal concern of this paper was non-academic factors, the historical impact of scholastic aptitude and its almost universal use as the prime

factor in college admittance policies demanded at least parsimonious account of its influence.

McConnell and Heist (1962) cited one of the early investigations of diversity among students and among institutions. In the study referred to above, variations in scholastic aptitude and achievement among forty-nine Pennsylvania colleges were examined. Pronounced differences were observed in the level of intellectual attainment as evidenced by average scores on achievement tests in the principal academic fields. Identifiable differences in mental ability were found among groups of students majoring in various subjects, as well as among the student bodies of the various institutions.

Perhaps of greatest significance to educators was the diversity of scholastic aptitude found to exist within colleges. McConnell and Heist (1962) cited research conducted with 200 institutions in 1952 which revealed that 85 percent of the schools were attempting to meet the needs of students whose test scores varied more than three standard deviations from the mean of entering students. From this data, it could be estimated that a great many faculty members were faced with classes whose variation in IQ was in excess of fifty points.

Knowledge about the student at the time of entry, beyond the widely used academic aptitude scores and records of high school achievement, has not been considered important in admittance policies of most institutions. Investigators (McConnell and Heist, 1962) found that the few institutions that routinely administered personality inventories to all matriculants did so for the purpose of using the data in personal counseling. Rarely were personality data used to

effectively adjust the program to the clientele, as a guideline for individualizing instruction, or as an aid in "fitting" the students to the existing educational program.

Freedman (1960) pointed out that even when intellectual level was held constant, students within a given institution and student bodies of various institutions tended to exhibit great differences. Observed differences were degree of readiness for new experience, interest in practical versus more liberally-oriented education, and desire for graduate or professional schooling. Studies such as the preceding have indicated a need to look at something more in students than just academic potential.

The foregoing discussion of investigations centering around the topics of attrition, student culture, and the diversity of students and environment is by no means considered to be a comprehensive coverage of the studies which have been conducted within institutions of higher learning. It was the intent of the writer to point to some of the varied approaches of research in higher education that have been reported in the literature. Other types of studies have been conducted, and numerous examples could be cited under each of the approaches where the writer has chosen to let one or two illustrations suffice.

Personality Studies of Students in Higher Education

Contemporary literature has burgeoned with reports of research involving non-intellective personality characteristics of college students. One approach has been to study the possible effects of the college experience on the personality characteristics of students.

To delineate this relationship, investigations (Jacobs, 1957, Newcomb, 1966 and Sanford, 1962b) have been conducted on changing personality characteristics during the college years. Early studies examined changes in specific attitudes and values. In general, the personality changes observed in studies in the 1930's may be described as moving in the direction of a liberal attitude on social issues and a tolerant attitude toward persons (Webster, Freedman, and Heist, 1966).

Jacob (1957) in Changing Values in College reviewed much of the research done in this area during the first half of this century. Jacob's work, although criticized for not adequately taking into account the great range of sophistication employed in the several studies, presented a comprehensive summary of research concerning attitudes and values held by college students. Jacob (1957) reported that students tended to take on the prevailing norms of their own institutions and that they became less dogmatic and less prejudiced. He did not observe a tendency to become "liberal," except in a superficial manner, and he underscored this by titling one section of his book "the myth of college liberalism." Jacob (1967) viewed the college as having a socializing, rather than a liberalizing impact on values, in that it tended to soften the individual's extremist views and to increase his tolerance potential. He saw upperclassmen as having worked out a greater internal consistency within their previously held value system.

In a more recent study, Stewart (1964) examined changes in personality test scores for eighty-nine freshmen entering the University of California in the fall of 1957. Three inventories were administered to the subjects over four college years; the Strong Vocational Interest

Blank (SVIB), the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) and the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (AVL). Multivariate analysis of the data from all three instruments indicated highly significant changes in means over the four years. A notable correlative finding was that the factor structure underlying each of the instruments remained quite stable over the four year span. This stability indicated that with similar subjects and project design, it is possible to study changes in personality test scores with relative assurance that the underlying meaning of the scales will remain intact.

In studies of value change, the question has arisen whether changes comparable to those observed during four years of college would not occur in non-college youth also, because of maturing and a broader range of experience. Newcomb (1966) cited research with a college freshmen class of 1958 in which similar value changes were observed in all subjects when personality scales were administered two years after application for admission to college. Some of the subjects had attended no college, whereas others attended two, three, or four semesters.

Stewart (1966) found that personality characteristics, including interests, were related to choice of occupationally-oriented curricula in junior college. Results of systematic analysis indicated that the career choices of trade-oriented students were related to certain psychological variables.

Another approach to the study of personality factors has been to attempt to discover relationships between specific personality characteristics and a successful college performance. Congdon (1964) investigated personality factors and the capacity to meet curriculum

demands of 178 technology freshmen at a state university. The subjects were divided into three groups: those who passed all prerequisites the first half of the year, those who encountered serious academic difficulty, and those who decided voluntarily and in the absence of disqualifying grades to abandon their choice of a technology major. The subjects were administered the Stern Activities Index as a means of assessing interpersonal patterns. Scores on nine variables were used to represent the student's similarity to his parents. Two scores were derived from a specially designed similarity scale, and seven scores were based on data from administration of the mother and father cards of the Thematic Apperception Test. Two incomplete story stems were used as measures of reality orientation or avoidance in the subjects' readiness to involve themselves in imposed tasks or problem situations. The findings of the study characterized the group of academic failures as having more intense needs in relation to parents, more avoidance of environmental demands, less involvement with their own age group, and greater frequency of emotional conflict.

In a study (Helson, 1965) involving senior women from Mills College and from the University of California, an attempt was made to relate creative personality traits in women to childhood interest clusters. In one sample, criteria of creativity were faculty nominations and measures derived from the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). Creativity criteria for the second sample were measures derived from the CPI and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The six clusters of childhood interests centered around pleasure from imaginary play and artistic

expression, tomboy activities, social interaction, feminine handicrafts, church activities, and the impersonal and abstract as opposed to the personal and concrete. Analysis of the scores indicated that the childhood interest cluster having the strongest association with indexes of creativity was the cluster of imaginary play and artistic expression. The tomboy cluster also showed consistent significant association with creativity, and the social interaction cluster was negatively associated with creativity.

Sanford (1962a, 1962b, 1967) contributed a great deal of valuable information and impetus to the consideration of personality factors in the study of college students. The aim of his most recent volume, Where Colleges Fail, was to help restore the student to his rightful place at the center of the college's activities. In this book he presented the case for individual development as the primary aim of education, an aim that he considered to be essentially a restatement in contemporary terms of the philosophy of humanistic education. He attempted to show some of the intricate interactions of the cognitive and the emotional in student development with the argument that both must be considered in any educational endeavor.

In his description of the students we teach today, Sanford (1967) reported more similarities than differences among generations of students. He perceived college students of all generations as having in common their developmental status and problems of identity and self-esteem. They seemed to demand independence on the one hand and to seek assurance on the other; they appear torn between loyalty to old values and attraction to new ones. They tend to be idealistic and easily

disillusioned. Another common bond observed was that most undergraduates were still free of the responsibilities and commitments of adulthood.

Sanford (1967) pictured contemporary undergraduates as having greater sophistication than those compared with even ten years ago. This he credited to improved high school education as well as greater mobility and experience available to today's youth. Students who have a wide range of experience, who may have studied or traveled abroad, have exhibited impatience with perfunctory teaching and textbook generalizations. They have insisted on knowing the sources of information and the methods of gathering data. Sanford asserted that since 1965, known by some as "the year of the student," educators have seemed increasingly willing to meet the triple challenge of preparing students as jobholders, as citizens, and as men. Educators who once thought an interest in student needs would transform the college into a kind of psychiatric community have recently shown a concern for students as individuals, considering their developmental status, their feelings, and their purposes.

One attitude towards personality studies of college populations was expressed by Selbel (1966, p. 33) when he stated that "the frequency of use of personality tests in the sample colleges is surprisingly high, (nearly one-third) since it is questionable whether this kind of instrument has any general utility in academic situations." Sanford's (1967) entire volume Where Colleges Fail could be an appropriate retort to such a bold statement. One paragraph from Sanford's (1967, p. xvii) introduction serves to illustrate the general approach that he used throughout the book.

If the development of the individual as a whole is the primary aim, then colleges should organize all their resources in efforts

to achieve it. Such planning of a total educational environment must be guided by a theory of personality--a theory in the terms of which it is possible to state specific goals for the individual, and describe the interrelations of his various psychological processes, and understand the ways in which he changes under the impact of environmental influences.

In a symposium at the University of Texas (Sanford, 1962b) it was stressed that the person functions as a unit, and that we cannot make any categorical separation of the "intellect" and the rest of the person. Changes in intellect, in knowledge, and in modes of thought, if truly of value, can be expected to bring about concurrent changes in the rest of the personality. Likewise, changes in the rest of the personality may leave an individual in a different state of receptivity to knowledge. It was suggested that explicit examination of matriculants, based as much as possible on psychological assessment of freshmen, would have great bearing on the behavior of teachers in the classroom, as well as on the larger considerations of curriculum, disciplinary rules, and the general organization of the academic institution. Furthermore, additional information about how the freshman perceives himself and about his attitudinal readiness to join the intellectual enterprise was viewed as placing college officials in a much better position to facilitate maximum development of the student throughout his college experience.

The Position of the Junior College in Higher Education

In the past decade tremendous growth of post-secondary education and training has occurred in the type of institution known as the "junior college." Most previous studies of college students and college environments have been confined to four-year institutions granting at least the

baccalaureate degree (Sanford, 1962a; Newcomb, 1945; Heath, 1964). The failure to include junior college populations in scientific investigations of higher education is unfortunate because of several trends in our society. With increasing numbers of youth seeking education above the high school level, and with employment practices that increasingly demand workers to have specialized training, existing four-year institutions have found their campuses vastly over-crowded. A common practice of some institutions has been to elevate standards for admissions in order to reduce the over supply of students. In this situation, Kauffman (1966) has defined the dilemma of today's youth to be, where he should attend college, as contrasted with the dilemma a few decades ago of whether or not to attend college at all. Edmund J. Gleaser (1965), Executive Director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, estimated that by 1970 approximately one-half of all beginning college students will start their college education in public junior colleges. Judging from existing circumstances, Kauffman (1966) projected that we could safely assume that by 1975 a majority of all first-year college students would be enrolled in junior colleges. With junior colleges rising to this preeminent position in the educational system, it is essential that their future growth be as rational as possible, and based on knowledge from objective and systematic studies.

Many problems have been presented to junior college administrators and personnel workers. Testing policies and evaluation devices for admission and for counseling need to be established. The transfer process poses additional problems for the university-bound student. Personnel workers need to become aware of which instruments are being used as

determining factors for transfer, and which instruments are appropriate as guidance devices in the junior college situation. A danger facing public junior colleges is that, in an attempt to satisfactorily meet community evaluation, they may find themselves primarily preparing students to score well on standardized tests which are used as the basis of transfer.

The importance of the transfer situation has been demonstrated by studies concentrating on the problem of "articulation." Medsker (1960) reported a study in 1953 in which grades of junior college transfer students were compared with students "native" to a four-year institution. Kansas State College was one of the five Kansas institutions that participated in this cross-country study and was the only one of the sixteen participating schools to attempt systematic matching of the transfer and native students. Investigation after the first semester of junior classification revealed that the transfer students surpassed the native students at Kansas State College in grades earned, in retention, and in the percentage receiving degrees at the end of the senior year. This was a small sample, and the results could not be considered as representative or conclusive. However, the findings from the sixteen participating institutions indicated that transfer students tended to earn grades comparable to those of native students.

The availability of terminal training provided by this type institution poses a curriculum decision for which students may seek guidance. Medsker (1960) reported that while two-thirds of junior college enrollees expressed the intention to transfer to a four-year institution, only about one-third actually did transfer. Lora Simon (1967),

Dean of Women at a community college, directed attention to the non-transfer student when she wrote of the "cooling-out" function of the junior college. Simon urged the use of guidance practices that would discover discrepancies in aspiration and achievement early in the student's career. It should be noted here, that Simon recognized a need for more than just scholastic assessment. This concept is also expressed by Medsker (1960) in his observation that more than just intellectual factors influence the attrition rate among junior college students.

One of the more recent studies (Selber, 1966) of junior colleges was conducted by the Educational Testing Service, during the academic years 1964-1965 and 1965-1966. Officials of sixty-three junior colleges in eighteen states were interviewed concerning testing practices and problems and the results were tabulated and reported in systematic form. The institutions were considered to be reasonably representative for the variables of control (public or independent), size, type of student (men, women, coed), geographic location, and type of college (residential or commuting). An over-representation of large, public institutions in the sample should not have adversely influenced the results, since much of the growth and development of junior colleges can be accounted for by increase in the public-commuter-type college. Gleazer (1965) reported that more than 400 of the 700 junior colleges operating in this country in 1962 were of the type referred to as the community junior college. These institutions enrolled approximately 700,000 students, or more than 85 percent of the junior college students in 1962.

In reporting problems in testing, 22 percent of the junior colleges expressed the desire or need for test norms based on junior college

students (Selbel, 1966). It would appear that the majority of junior colleges did not see this as a problem, and were satisfied to use norms established with four-year college students. A surprising finding was that only three of the colleges expressed a desire to know how other junior colleges were using tests. These colleges believed that knowing about testing practices which other colleges had found successful or unsuccessful might be helpful in establishing and improving their own testing programs. Selbel (1966) found that approximately one-third of the junior colleges in the survey sample administered a personality test, either to the entire group of entering freshman (13 percent) or to sub-groups (17 percent). Independent junior colleges appeared to make more use of personality tests than did public junior colleges. Most of the institutions, both public and independent, reported using the personality instruments for guidance and counseling purposes. A few institutions reported using personality measures for research purposes. This survey did not report frequency of usage for any specific tests.

Medsker (1960) reported in The Public Junior College that all but ten of 222 junior colleges throughout the United States participating in a nationwide study administered some type of scholastic aptitude test. Seventy-three percent of the institutions indicated use of achievement tests, more than 70 percent used some type of interest inventory, and only 30 percent reported the use of personality scales. Colleges which reported using special aptitude tests, interest inventories, and personality scales tended to administer these measures only to individual students about whom more information was deemed necessary for adequate counseling. Percentages in this study differed from Selbel's, in that

Selbel's percentages of institutions using tests did not include those schools that used the tests primarily on an individual basis.

Most of the available information concerning non-intellective characteristics of junior college students is based on opinion rather than on objective research. One notable exception is a study (Stewart, 1966) of characteristics of junior college students in occupationally-oriented curricula. Two instruments, the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) and the Interest Assessment Scales, were administered to subjects to determine whether junior college students enrolled in vocational courses could be differentiated on the basis of certain psychological variables. Although the profile of mean scores on the OPI significantly differentiated the vocational groups, the magnitudes of the differences were judged to be too small to be of practical use in counseling students with regard to occupational choice. The profiles of mean scores on the Interest Assessment Scales clearly differentiated the vocational groups included in the sample. Stewart (1966) concluded that the career choices of trade-oriented students in this study were related systematically to certain psychological variables. Objective research such as this may serve as a guideline and impetus for further investigation of psychological variables as they relate to other factors in student development.

Research on Students at Kansas State University

Over recent years, the counseling center at Kansas State University (KSU) has conducted numerous studies to determine student characteristics (Simmett and Stone, 1963; Danskin, Kennedy, and Stone, 1962; Stone, Kennedy, and Danskin, 1963). An outcome of this research was the Experiment Station Bulletin "Attitudes and Ambitions of College

Students" (Danskin, Foster, and Kennedy, 1965). In this report the authors systematically discussed the search for successful students and presented data from and interpretations of previous studies. In the final section they presented an operative translation of student characteristics in terms of teaching practices and curriculum planning. The information presented in the bulletin described above focused on a single subgroup in the College of Agriculture. The unifying theme of all the studies reported was an attempt to understand KSU students (Danskin, Foster, and Kennedy, 1965).

A study by Sinnott and Stone (1965) in which the evaluation and potency factors of the semantic differential had been used to test hypotheses about student characteristics, indicated that the "typical" KSU matriculant seemed to possess certain characteristics: (1) He placed great emphasis on the practical, on things he could tie to his future job and his everyday experiences. (2) He lacked confidence in himself, in the value of his own thoughts, ideas, and evaluations. (3) He possessed a high respect for authority and he viewed the procuring of information as a way of becoming an authority. The "typical" KSU student tended to see his parents and university officials in much the same light, as powerful figures who maintained a certain control over his life. The authors interpreted this to mean that in the classroom the student expected the teacher to "know" the answer and to tell him what was "right" and what was "wrong." This student was typically reluctant to risk new ideas, to express thoughts that might conflict with the instructor, or to venture into novel situations. This description of "typical" student characteristics and the subsequent trans-

lation into teaching terms is cited by Abe et al. (1965) as an auspicious beginning in perceptive translation of student information for the solution of intellectual and practical problems.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study was designed to describe freshmen women enrolled at Colby Community Junior College (CCJC) by means of data provided through personnel files, the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) and individual interviews. A sample of freshmen women from Kansas State University (KSU) was used to supply comparative data for personality characteristics.

Subjects

The intent of this study was to examine characteristics of immediate post-high school freshmen women at Colby Community Junior College, therefore selection criteria for the sample at that institution were women students twenty years of age or younger who matriculated in the fall of 1967 without previous college credit and enrolled in more than six hours for the ensuing semester.

Student personnel records revealed 133 underclass women. Thirty-nine of these women were classified as special students because they were enrolled only in art courses. Fourteen were enrolled only in business courses and one in a civilization course. Of the remaining ninety-four underclass women, seven were omitted from this study because they matriculated with more than fifteen hours of college credit. Eight immediate post-high school women enrolled in the junior college

in June of 1967. Of the remaining seventy-nine women, five were twenty-one years of age or older. On the basis of the preceding selection criteria, the target population of this study consisted of seventy-four entering women students. Six women who met the selection criteria were absent the day the Omnibus Personality Inventory was administered, with the result that sixty-eight subjects, or 92 percent of the CCJC target population, were included in the descriptive and comparative studies.

The subjects from KSU were part of an on-going student development study being conducted by the counseling center. Prior to 1967, seven groups comprised of sixty-four volunteers had participated in the two-year pilot phase of the project. Members who participated during the pilot phase were not randomly selected, but were selected because of interest and availability from the College of Home Economics, the College of Agriculture, a protestant religious group and a student governing body (Trotter, 1967). In the fall of 1967, five new groups of freshmen were chosen randomly from the colleges in the university, excluding the Colleges of Home Economics and Agriculture since groups already were available from those two colleges. The new groups, together with the established groups, were designed to be somewhat representative of KSU students, although they were not a completely randomized sample (Kennedy and Danakin, 1967). Fifteen freshmen women from the groups formed in the fall of 1967 comprised the sample of KSU women used in this study. It was believed that psychometric data from university freshmen would aid in the understanding and interpretation of personality data collected from junior college women.

Instruments

Student personnel records were examined for ages of students, previous hours of college credit, number of college hours in which currently enrolled and date of matriculation. The Prospective Student Profile, a report supplied to the junior college by the American College Testing program (ACT), was consulted for additional descriptive information. Size and type of high school, financial need and plans for employment, scores of academic potential, degree sought, major, vocational role and importance of educational goals comprised the information used from this report.

The investigator of personality characteristics cannot confine himself to a laboratory and ignore social pressures. The dilemma of the student of personality development is expressed in The American College (Webster, Freedman and Heist, 1962, p. 815): "Personality tests are subject to public scrutiny and to the inexpert criticisms of academicians and laymen alike, who rarely understand the underlying principles." In practice, test data have generally been found superior to interviews in predicting behavior. Even when it is realized that tests order subjects imperfectly, the data obtained from them are usually more economical, more objective, more reliable and more valid than data obtained by interviews. The use of objective measures of personality is further complicated because the interpretation of results poses complex problems of communication.

Personality measures differ from intellectual tests in a number of ways. A mental test usually orders persons according to the amount of a given characteristic that one possesses, as in the case of achieve-

ment or aptitude. A given personality instrument usually contains a number of separate scales, each of which orders the respondent on a different characteristic or trait.

The Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) was developed by the Center for the Study of Higher Education of the University of California (1962) for the assessment of certain personality characteristics of college students. The inventory is composed of self-referent items that are answered true or false by the subjects. Form D of the OPI was used in this study. It consists of 385 items, responses to which rank the subjects on twelve scales. Brief descriptions of these scales are presented in the Appendix.

Normative data for the OPI were established with scores from 2590 in-coming students at the University of California at Berkeley and at San Francisco State College. These students represented a wide range of socioeconomic background and a variety of vocational goals. The distribution of the mean ability scores of students in the normative sample was typical of students enrolled in higher education. The number of men and women in the normative sample was approximately equal (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962).

Two approaches were used by the designers of the inventory to estimate the reliability of the OPI scales. The Kruder-Richardson 21 (KR 21) values (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962) were used to estimate the internal consistency of the keys, and test-retest values were used to estimate the stability with which individuals maintained their relative positions when tested a second time. The KR 21 values are more meaningful because they were computed on the normative

sample. Test-retest estimates were based on scores from thirty-three women students attending a Colorado coeducational institution, with a four-week time interval between testings. KR 21 estimates were above 0.70 for all scales. Test-retest values were above 0.68 for all scales. The core of validation data for the OPI is provided by correlations with other measures. Computations of the intercorrelations were based on the scores of students in the normative sample. Correlations have been established for selected scales of the OPI with a number of other measures, including the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (AVL), the Kruder Preference Record, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Stern Activities Index Scores, the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). All comparisons show at least some scales that correlate significantly at the $p .05$ level or better (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962).

Interviews are considered by some investigators (Webster, Freedman and Heist, 1962) to be more appropriate than objective tests when there is uncertainty about the questions to be asked. Interviews have been used in studies of student culture and of changes in personality during college. In this study, interviews were perceived as an opportunity for exploring possible ways in which interviews might be combined with psychometrics and with demographic data in the study of personality development. The data supplied by single interviews with a few selected subjects were considered to be illustrative of some types of freshmen women students found on the CCJC campus and were not intended to be representative of the entire sample or of junior college women in general. The interviewee selection criterion of diverse

placement on a single OPI scale was chosen with the belief that many factors influence an individual's score on a personality scale. The interview technique was chosen to integrate biographical and psychometric data and to explore background and behavioral factors related to the personality traits of subjects as identified by the psychometric.

Individuals selected for interview scored extremely high or extremely low on the OPI scale of Complexity (Co). The Co key was chosen because it is designed to measure a general experimental orientation toward perceiving and organizing phenomena, rather than to reflect an interest in a limited range of ideas or objects as is true of the scales of Thinking Introversion (TI), Theoretical Orientation (TO), and Estheticism (ES). Authors of the inventory (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962) describe complexity as "a rather general measure which spans the intellectual (TI,TO,ES), the authoritarian (Autonomy,Au) and the emotional (Impulse Expression, IE) dimensions of the OPI." Intercorrelations of Co with the above named scales were useful in the interpretation of the rating of interview subjects on the Co scale. A further reason for choosing the Co scale was that scores of the CCJC women taking the inventory covered a wider range for this key than for most of the other keys.

Procedure

Student personnel records and Prospective Student Profile reports supplied to the community college by the ACI program were examined for the purpose of enumerating characteristics of the junior college population. This information was tabulated and percentages calculated for students within the various groupings .

The OPI Form D was administered to the sample of junior college women described earlier in this section, in the fall of 1967. Subjects at KSU also were given the OPI in the fall of 1967. The tests were scored by the National Computer Systems, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Computer analysis of the data was carried out at the Computer Center at Kansas State University. Means and standard deviations were computed for each of the scales of the OPI for both populations. The data were analyzed using the Student t to test for significant differences between the means of the two populations for each of the twelve scales.

The findings of the OPI were interpreted individually to four subjects following the scoring of the instrument. During the interview, additional data were collected concerning attitudes and behavior patterns for each individual. All subjects were assured at the onset of the interview that the interview was for interpretive and research purposes and that information would be handled objectively and confidentially. Subjects were encouraged to view their scores on the scales as indices of normal personality traits. The interviewer pointed out that high and low scores were not necessarily indicative of desirable or undesirable characteristics and further that specific scores were not as important as the general position of scores, because of inaccuracies of measurement and item interpretation. Each subject was informed of how her scores compared with the average of the freshmen from Colby Community Junior College who took the inventory and how her scores compared with the means of the normative sample. A card with brief scale descriptions presented to students assisted with the interpretation of test results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Comprehensive information about college students in recent studies has included high school background information, major fields of interest, educational goals, family background, and personality characteristics, as well as potentials for academic success. The purpose of this study was to describe Colby Community Junior College (CCJC) freshmen women using biographical data, a personality inventory and individual interviews with a few selected students. A sample of Kansas State University (KSU) freshmen women provided comparative data for the findings of the personality inventory. Mean scores of junior college and university women for each of the subscales of the inventory were compared using the Student *t* to determine if significant differences existed between the two populations. Biographical data are presented in the first section of this chapter. Data from the Omnibus Personality Inventory and from individual interviews are presented in the following sections in an effort to further enumerate personal characteristics of the subjects.

Biographical Data

Biographical data were obtained from personnel records and from the Prospective Student Profile Reports supplied to the community college by the American College Testing Program (ACT). In this section of

the paper, percentages calculated for Colby subjects have been compared with three ACT studies in an effort to facilitate the reader's understanding of the unique and distinctive features of the Colby sample. The first ACT report used was a survey of 12,432 freshmen in thirty-one institutions across the nation (Abe et al., 1965). Subjects for this study included freshmen from six junior colleges, seven four-year undergraduate institutions and eighteen universities. A 1965 report enumerated characteristics of the 581 accredited junior colleges in the United States in 1963 (Richards, Rand and Rand, 1965). A report of a survey of 102 two-year colleges was published in 1967 (Richards and Braskamp) describing the type of students who chose to attend junior colleges.

All subjects in the Colby sample attended public high schools. Ten women or 14.7 percent of the sixty-eight subjects graduated with high school classes of fewer than twenty-five students. Forty-seven percent of the subjects graduated with high school classes of twenty-five to ninety-nine students. The remaining 32.2 percent graduated with classes of 100 to 399 members.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY SIZE OF GRADUATING CLASS

| Students | Size of High School Graduating Class | | | | Total |
|------------|--------------------------------------|-------|---------|----------------------|-------|
| | Less than 25 | 25-99 | 100-399 | No Data Available | |
| Number | 10 | 32 | 22 | 4 | 68 |
| Percentage | 14.7 | 47.0 | 32.2 | 5.9 | 99.8 |

All subjects in the sample were between the ages of seventeen and twenty inclusive, as of September 1, 1967. Seventy-three percent were eighteen years of age. Only one of the students in the sample was married.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY AGE

| Students | Years of Age | | | | Total |
|------------|--------------|------|-----|-----|-------|
| | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | |
| Number | 13 | 50 | 4 | 1 | 68 |
| Percentage | 19.2 | 73.4 | 5.9 | 1.5 | 100.0 |

The 100 major areas under nine general fields, as listed in the ACT battery, were used in delineating subject matter majors of the subjects. More women in the sample indicated majors in the educational fields than in any other one field on the battery. Five women elected a major in elementary education, four in secondary education, three in special education, two in physical education and one each in counseling and in other specialties. A total of sixteen women, 23.5 percent, chose an education major. In a study of American college freshmen, 49 percent indicated majors in the field of education (Abe et al., 1965). The 23.5 percent of CCJC women choosing educational majors was an extremely high percentage when one takes into account that only 44.2 percent of the women indicated a bachelor's degree as their level of educational aspiration. Richards and Braskamp (1967) in their survey of junior college freshmen women reported approximately 25 percent choosing "social orientation" which was defined as those studying

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY MAJOR AND BY FIELD

| General Fields and Majors | Students Choosing Major | | Students in Field | |
|--|-------------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Educational Fields | | | 16 | 23.5 |
| Counseling, Guidance | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Elementary Education | 5 | 7.4 | | |
| Physical Education | 2 | 2.9 | | |
| Secondary Education | 4 | 5.9 | | |
| Special Education | 3 | 4.4 | | |
| Other Specialties | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Social Science and Religious Fields | | | 5 | 7.4 |
| Home Economics | 3 | 4.4 | | |
| Social Work | 2 | 2.9 | | |
| Business, Political and Persuasive Fields | | | 11 | 16.2 |
| Accounting | 4 | 5.9 | | |
| Business, Commerce (2 yrs) | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Data Processing | 2 | 2.9 | | |
| Secretarial Science | 4 | 5.9 | | |
| Scientific Fields | | | 2 | 2.9 |
| Chemistry | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Physiology | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Health Fields | | | 7 | 10.3 |
| Nursing | 7 | 10.3 | | |
| Arts and Humanities | | | 7 | 10.3 |
| Drama and Theater | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| English and English Literature | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Foreign Language and Literature | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Music | 2 | 2.9 | | |
| Speech | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Other Arts and Humanities | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Engineering | | | 1 | 1.5 |
| Civil | 1 | 1.5 | | |
| Undecided | | | 15 | 22.1 |
| No Data Available | | | 4 | 5.9 |
| Total | | | 68 | 100.0 |

education and nursing. Seven Colby subjects, 10.3 percent, listed nursing as their major. Combining the majors in education and in nursing for the Colby women accounts for nearly 34 percent of the subjects, indicating an extremely high interest in these areas when compared with junior college women across the nation.

Business, political and persuasive fields attracted eleven women, 16 percent, with four of these indicating accounting majors, four secretarial science, two data processing and one a business and commerce two-year program. It seemed surprising to find only one subject electing a two-year business program in view of the community college emphasis on a terminal two-year business program (Colby Community Junior College, 1967-68). Some explanation for the results is provided by the fact that fourteen women who were enrolled only in business courses were not included in this study because they did not meet the criterion of full-time student. It is conceivable that most of these women planned to complete the requirements of the two-year terminal program. In a 1964-1965 nationwide survey of college freshmen women, 7 percent indicated majors in the business areas (Abe et al., 1965). A study of junior college freshmen reported approximately 27 percent of the women electing business majors (Richards and Braskamp, 1967).

Seven subjects or 10.3 percent selected majors in the arts and humanities, with two of these in music and one each in drama, English and English literature, foreign language and literature, speech and other humanities. Approximately 8 percent of freshmen women across the United States were found to major in arts and humanities (Abe et al., 1965). Five or 7.4 percent of the Colby women indicated majors in the

social science and religious fields. Three of these elected a home economics major and two indicated a major in social work. Eight percent of freshmen women surveyed across the nation indicated majors in social science or psychology (Abe et al., 1965).

Two women or about 3 percent of the Colby subjects chose scientific majors, one each in chemistry and in physiology. Three percent of freshmen women throughout the nation elected scientific majors (Abe et al., 1965). One Colby subject chose an engineering major. Data were not available for four women, and fifteen indicated they were undecided on a major. Thus, nineteen women or 28 percent of the subjects had not selected a major field. Fourteen percent of the freshmen women throughout the country had not selected a major at the time they took the ACT battery in 1964-1965 (Abe et al., 1965).

In the ACT battery, students ranked the relative importance of four educational goals with scores from one to nine. Low scores indicated goals of little or no importance and high scores indicated essential goals (American College Testing Program, 1966). Colby women students tended to rank vocational goals as more important than academic goals. Social and nonconforming goals were ranked as having still less importance than academic goals. Designers of the ACT battery consider the student who ranks academic goals as being important, to be closely identified with intellectual concerns of the faculty. The students who rank social goals high are characterized by an interest in extra-curricular life. Valuing of non-conformist goals is epitomized by intense involvement with the adult world of art, literature and politics rather than with campus activities. The distinctive quality of students placing

high value on vocational goals is a focus on preparation for the world of work. Colby women showed a definite preference for vocational goals, thus indicating a concern for employment preparation as a result of their educational experience.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS RANKING IMPORTANCE
OF FOUR EDUCATIONAL GOALS^a

| Students | Educational Goals | | | |
|--|-------------------|------------|--------|---------------|
| | Academic | Vocational | Social | Nonconforming |
| Number ranking importance 1-5 | 15 | 6 | 24 | 23 |
| Percentage ranking importance 1-5 | 19.2 | 8.8 | 55.3 | 35.8 |
| Number ranking importance 6-9 | 37 | 43 | 23 | 25 |
| Percentage ranking importance 6-9 | 54.4 | 63.2 | 33.8 | 36.8 |
| Number for whom data not available | 18 | 19 | 21 | 20 |
| Percentage for whom data not available | 26.4 | 28.0 | 30.8 | 29.2 |
| Total | | | | |
| Number | 68 | 68 | 68 | 68 |
| Percentage | 100.0 | 100.0 | 99.9 | 99.8 |

^aScores range from 0 through 9, with higher scores indicating essential goals and lower scores indicating goals of little or no importance.

The ACT report provided an indication of the student's level of educational aspiration at the time she took the test battery. Thirty of the Colby women or 44.2 percent aspired to a bachelor's degree or its equivalent, which is surprisingly close to the 44 percent reported

by Abe *et al.* (1967) in a nationwide study of freshmen women. However, nearly 45 percent of the women across the nation indicated a desire for a degree above the bachelor's level, whereas only 14.7 percent of the Colby women expressed this goal. Fifteen Colby women or 22.1 percent aspired to a junior college degree, three desired a high school diploma and one a two-year vocational technical certificate.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY VARIOUS LEVELS OF ASPIRATION

| Level of Aspiration | Number | Percentage |
|--|--------|------------|
| High school diploma | 3 | 4.4 |
| Junior college degree | 15 | 22.1 |
| Bachelor's degree or equivalent | 30 | 44.1 |
| One or two years of graduate or professional study (MA, MBA, etc.) | 9 | 13.2 |
| Doctor of philosophy or of education (Ph.D. or Ed.D) | 1 | 1.5 |
| Other | 3 | 4.4 |
| Data not available | 7 | 10.3 |
| Total | 68 | 100.0 |

Each student indicated on the ACT battery the type of role she would expect to play in her chosen vocation. Seventeen, or 25 percent of the subjects in the Colby study, selected the role of teacher or therapist. This is congruent with the percentage indicating education as a major field of interest. Eleven of the subjects, or 16.2 percent, indicated practitioner, performer, or producer of services and products

as the role she expected to play. Twenty of the subjects indicated they did not know or were undecided concerning their vocational role. Two students chose the role of researcher or investigator, three the role of administrator or supervisor, and two the role of promoter or salesman of services or products.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY CHOICE OF VOCATIONAL ROLES

| Vocational Role | Number | Percentage |
|--|--------|------------|
| Researcher or investigator | 2 | 2.9 |
| Teacher or therapist | 17 | 25.0 |
| Administrator or supervisor | 3 | 4.4 |
| Promoter or salesman of services or products | 2 | 2.9 |
| Practitioner, performer, or producer of services or products | 11 | 16.2 |
| None of the preceding | 7 | 10.3 |
| Don't know or undecided | 20 | 29.2 |
| Data not available | 6 | 8.8 |
| Total | 68 | 99.7 |

Student financial need was defined as the expectation of applying for scholarships and/or loans during their college years (ACT, 1966). Twenty-five of the Colby women indicated a need for financial assistance during their first year and probably thereafter. Twenty-six women indicated they would probably not need financial help during college. Thirteen indicated a need, but probably not during the first year of college. Data were not available for four subjects.

TABLE 7
FINANCIAL NEED; EXPECTATION OF APPLYING FOR
SCHOLARSHIPS AND FOR LOANS

| Financial Need | Students | |
|---|----------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage |
| Yes, during the first year and thereafter | 25 | 36.8 |
| Yes, but probably not during the first year | 13 | 19.2 |
| Probably never | 26 | 38.1 |
| No data available | 4 | 5.9 |
| Total | 68 | 100.0 |

Students were also asked to indicate on the battery the expected number of hours of employment per week during the school term. Fourteen women, or 20.5 percent, indicated they did not plan to be employed. Fifteen of the students, or 22 percent, indicated they expected to work from one to nine hours per week, and thirty-one women, or 45.6 percent, expected to work ten to nineteen hours per week. Four women expected to work twenty or more hours per week.

TABLE 8
EXPECTED HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT PER WEEK DURING SCHOOL TERM

| Students | Hours | | | | | | no data | total |
|------------|-------|------|-------|-------|------------|-----|---------|-------|
| | 0 | 1-9 | 10-19 | 20-29 | 30 or more | | | |
| Number | 14 | 15 | 31 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 68 | |
| Percentage | 20.5 | 22.1 | 45.6 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 5.9 | 99.7 | |

In a study of accredited junior colleges reported in 1965, 52 percent of the women earned half or more of their expenses (Richards, Rand and Rand, 1965).

Included in the ACT battery are subtest scores for the four areas of English, mathematics, social science and natural science. Scores for the above subscales are averaged to obtain the composite score which is an overall measure of general academic aptitude. Standard scores range from one to thirty-six with a national average score of twenty for college-bound high school seniors (ACT, 1966). Junior college students have a national average of approximately 18.14 (Richards, Rand and Rand, 1965). Composite scores were available for sixty-five of the sixty-eight Colby subjects. These scores ranged from seven to twenty-eight, with a mean of approximately 18.3. The wide range of scores for CCJC women is congruent with the findings of a comprehensive study of junior college students (Richards and Braskamp, 1967) which revealed that students at two-year institutions vary more in academic talent than do students at four-year colleges.

The preceding biographical data from freshmen women at Colby Community Junior College delineates some distinctive features of the clientele. Almost half of the matriculants graduated from relatively small high schools with classes of twenty-five to ninety-nine students. Because of age criterion used in sample selection, women over twenty were not a part of this study. However, it was interesting to note that only five women over twenty met the criterion of full-time student. Another fifty-one women over twenty years of age were enrolled in the junior college at the time of the study in fewer than six hours. In

TABLE 9
 DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY STANDARD
 COMPOSITE SCORE ON ACT

| Standard Composite Score ^a | Number | Percentage |
|---------------------------------------|--------|------------|
| 07 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 10 | 3 | 4.4 |
| 12 | 2 | 2.9 |
| 13 | 3 | 4.4 |
| 14 | 6 | 8.8 |
| 15 | 5 | 7.4 |
| 16 | 2 | 2.9 |
| 17 | 6 | 8.8 |
| 18 | 8 | 11.7 |
| 19 | 5 | 7.4 |
| 20 | 3 | 4.4 |
| 21 | 4 | 5.9 |
| 22 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 23 | 6 | 8.8 |
| 24 | 3 | 4.4 |
| 25 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 26 | 4 | 5.9 |
| 27 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 28 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Scores not available | 3 | 4.4 |
| Total | 68 | 100.0 |

^aACT Standard Scores range from one to thirty-six, with national college-bound students averaging 20.

this particular junior college, the majority of older women who enrolled did so as part-time students in a narrow range of courses. It was probable that business courses were attractive because of their potential job training. It seemed possible that art courses were appealing because of a social factor within this particular community.

More subjects chose majors in the field of education than any other general field, which indicates a need for course offerings in this area at the junior college. The business areas provided the second most frequently chosen majors. Pre-nursing, a newly developed program at CCJC, attracted 10 percent of the subjects. This percentage appeared to endorse the appropriateness of a nursing program in the curriculum of Colby Community Junior College. At least 28 percent of the women in the sample were undecided on a major, indicating a need for personnel and guidance workers to assist these students in their search for a vocational choice.

Approximately half of the women expressed the desire to continue their education beyond junior college. Although not all of these could be expected to complete a bachelor's degree (Medsker, 1960), the percentage who will eventually transfer can be expected to be sufficiently high to underscore the importance of establishing articulation patterns with four-year institutions. The average composite score for the women in the sample was similar to the national average for junior college women. The wide range of scores accentuates the need for an effective guidance program to assist students in selecting educational programs congruent with their academic potential.

Approximately 40 percent of the women indicated need for finan-

cial assistance all through college. Approximately the same percentage did not anticipate a need for loans or scholarships during college. Almost half of the women planned to be employed ten to nineteen hours per week during the school term. Nearly three-fourths of the subjects indicated they planned to be employed at least part-time during the school term. This did not appear to be a conspicuously high percentage in view of the 50 percent of junior college freshmen women throughout the country who planned to finance half or more of the college expense.

Omnibus Personality Inventory Data

The Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) was administered to sixty-eight subjects at Colby Community Junior College (CCJC) and to fifteen subjects at Kansas State University (KSU), Manhattan. Selection criteria for the samples are described on pages 29 and 30. Mean scores and standard deviations were computed for each population. Data for the two populations were compared using the Student t test for significant difference. A two-tail test was used for interpreting the statistical significance of the computed t scores. Means of three OPI scales were significantly different at the $p < .10$ level, and another three scales differed significantly at the $p < .05$ level. The means for the scale of Religious Liberalism (RL) were significantly different when power was reduced to the $p < .10$ level.

KSU women scored significantly higher than CCJC women on the scales of Thinking Introversion (TI), Theoretical Orientation (TO), and Lack of Anxiety (LA) at the $p < .01$ level. At the $p < .05$ level KSU mean scores were significantly higher than CCJC scores for the scale of Autonomy (Au). Mean scores of the CCJC women were significantly

higher than the mean scores for the KSU women on the scales of Social Alienation (SF) and Social Introversion (SI) at the $p < .05$ level.

TABLE 10
OPI SCORES FOR CCJC AND KSU GROUPS^a

| Scale | Mean ^b | CCJC (N=68) Standard Deviation | Mean ^b | KSU (N=15) Standard Deviation | t^c |
|-------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|--------|
| TI | 26.2 (41) | 8.0 | 33.6 (48) | 9.0 | 3.1*** |
| TO | 12.3 (37) | 4.2 | 16.1 (45) | 4.4 | 3.1*** |
| Es | 11.8 (50) | 4.6 | 13.1 (53) | 3.2 | 1.0 |
| Co | 12.1 (51) | 4.5 | 11.5 (50) | 4.9 | 0.4 |
| Au | 17.0 (41) | 6.3 | 20.8 (46) | 6.0 | 2.1** |
| RL | 10.2 (43) | 3.5 | 12.4 (46) | 5.6 | 1.8* |
| IE | 36.3 (54) | 10.4 | 35.1 (53) | 8.9 | 0.3 |
| SF | 42.4 (58) | 12.3 | 34.0 (52) | 13.4 | 2.3** |
| SI | 22.3 (51) | 10.1 | 16.2 (45) | 7.6 | 2.2** |
| LA | 8.6 (43) | 4.3 | 12.0 (50) | 5.4 | 2.7*** |
| MF | 20.6 (42) | 4.8 | 21.1 (42) | 4.4 | 0.3 |
| RE | 10.3 (40) | 4.6 | 12.2 (45) | 4.7 | 1.4 |

^aIntercorrelations of means for the various scales were computed for each population and are available from the Kansas State University Student Counseling Center.

^bComputations were made with raw scores, and standard scores appear in parentheses.

* Significant at the $p < .01$ level, using a two-tail test.

** Significant at the $p < .05$ level, using a two-tail test.

*** Significant at the $p < .10$ level, using a two-tail test.

Women at the community college indicated significantly ($p < .05$) more tendencies toward Social Introversion (SI) than women at KSU. This may be attributable in part to the situation of junior college women continuing to live geographically close to their childhood home, and having a narrower range of experience. Further, it is probable that women with more extrovert tendencies would choose to attend a larger, four-year institution where there are more opportunities for different kinds of social interaction.

The SI and SF scales have an element of social alienation in common. In view of the tendency of CCJC women toward social introversion, it seemed logical to expect that they would also score significantly higher on the SF scale than the KSU women. Scores for the SF scale for the women at the community college indicated more social alienation and more signs of loneliness, rejection and isolation than indicated by the scores of the women at KSU. The considerably higher score for the Colby women on the SF scale may be related to their conspicuously lower score on the LA scale. Feelings of anxiety could be expected to accompany feelings of social alienation, thus explaining in part the tendency for CCJC women to have significantly ($p < .01$) more expressed feelings of anxiety when they also have significantly ($p < .05$) higher scores on the SF scale.

Both the Au and the RL scales reflect a degree of general liberalism. KSU women were significantly ($p < .05$) higher than CCJC women on the Au scale and were somewhat higher (significant at $p < .10$) on the scale of Religious Liberalism. Partial explanation for the difference in degree of liberalism might be that women who are nonauthoritarian and

sufficiently independent of authority tend to elect a larger institution where more varied opportunities exist for individual expression and experience.

KSU women scored significantly ($p < .05$) higher than Colby women on the scales of *TI* and *TO*. The tendency of the junior college women toward thinking extroversion indicated more concern for immediate and practical application of ideas. The tendency of KSU women toward thinking introversion indicated a liking for reflective thought and an interest in a variety of areas including art, literature and philosophy. The higher scores of the KSU women than Colby women on the scale of *TO* indicated a preference for scientific methods and activities and a more logical, rational and critical approach to problems than Colby women.

Proximity of the two institutions spatially and assumed similarities in the educational, cultural and family backgrounds of women at the two colleges could contribute to the similarities of the mean scores for the two samples on the scales of Impulse Expression (*IE*), Estheticism (*Es*), and Complexity (*Co*). Systematic examination of the above assumed factors and their relationship to personality traits could constitute an exciting research project that would meaningfully contribute to the knowledge of student development.

The CCJC mean scores delineated some general trends in personality characteristics in the Colby sample when compared with the normative sample (see page 32) which was designed to be representative of students across the country. The trends observed in the Colby group were considered applicable only to the sample in this study and should not be considered as representative of all junior college freshmen women.

The subjects in the CCJC sample expressed approximately the same interest in Esthetics as did the subjects in the normative sample. Further, the Colby women ranked nearly the same as students across the country on the scales of Complexity (Co) and Social Introversion (SI). The results of the SI scoring are not surprising, in that one would expect to find some balance of social introverts and social extroverts on any campus. The similarity of the mean complexity scores deserved special attention, considering the relationship of the Co scale to the scales of TO and TI on which Colby women differed from the normative sample by approximately a full standard deviation. The mean score of the Colby sample for the TI scale expressed a tendency toward thinking extroversion, indicating that Colby women tend to evaluate ideas in terms of immediate, practical application. This finding is congruent with tabulation of ACT data which indicated CCJC women placed high value on the vocational aspect of education (Table 4). In contrast, students throughout the country expressed more liking for reflective thought and more interest in a variety of areas such as literature, art and philosophy than Colby subjects. Lack of interest among Colby women in the above named areas may be in part attributable to lack of environmental stimuli.

The Colby group appeared considerably less Theoretically Oriented (TO) than did students across the country. This may be attributable in part to the selection of all women for the Colby sample, since the normative sample was based on scores for both men and women, and TO was found to be positively correlated with Masculinity. Even with the above correlation in mind, interest expressed by Colby women in scientific

activities seemed quite low.

The mean score of Colby women for Autonomy (Au) was at the forty-first percentile of the scores for the normative sample. This revealed that Colby women tended to be more judgmental and less realistic, in other words, more authoritarian in their thinking than students across the country. The Colby group did not exhibit as high a need for independence from authority or as much opposition to infringements on the rights of individuals as did students throughout the country. The low score of Colby women on the Au scale may be related to their expressed lack of Religious Liberalism. CCJU subjects expressed conspicuously more fundamentalistic religious beliefs than did college students in the normative sample. The Au and RL scores of the Colby group provoked questions concerning what environmental factors might have contributed to the development of these observed personality characteristics.

The standard score of Colby women on the Masculinity-Femininity (MF) scale was a surprising forty-two. In view of the all-women composition of the Colby sample, one would expect to find a mean score considerably lower than forty-two. Colby women had a mean standard score of forty on the response bias (RB) scale. This seemed low, in view of the instructions to answer the self-referent items honestly. The authors suggested that a low score on the RB key might be due to a desire to negatively influence the results of the test (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962). However, low scores could indicate candor on the part of the subjects, or could reveal a tendency to respond in the manner that they believe to be expected of college students

today. This assumed role while taking the inventory could have the effect of a lower score on the RB scale.

Colby women scored slightly higher than the mean of the normative subjects for the scale of Impulse Expression (IE). This could indicate more openness to expression and experience or it could reveal a compulsion towards overt expression. The low score (43) of Colby women on the Lack of Anxiety (LA) scale revealed that they admit more feelings and symptoms of anxiety than do college students across the country. Cognizance of the Colby scores on both the LA and the IE scales would lead to the projection that the higher score of Colby women for the IE scale was probably attributable to an inclination toward overt expression.

In short, the typical Colby freshmen woman appeared to be vocationally oriented and to value the immediate and practical application of ideas. She was more impulsive and more anxious, yet more controlled by religious fundamentalism and compliance with authority. Her thinking seemed to be dominated by generally accepted ideas.

Interview Data

Interviews were used in this study as an exploratory effort for combining various techniques to study student development. It was believed that discussion and interpretation of the OPI scores of selected individuals would foster understanding of the psychometric, as well as offer insight into the attitudes and behavior of a sampling of freshmen junior college women on the Colby campus. Individual interviews with four subjects are reported in an effort to further elucidate some of the personality traits identified by scales of the OPI.

A brief description of each of the four interviewees is offered on three bases: first, on the basis of OPI scores and intercorrelation of the scales; second, on the basis of biographical data; and third, on the basis of information collected during interview.

Each of the subjects interviewed was chosen because of her placement on the OPI scale of Complexity (Co). Designers of the OPI offered this explanation for the Co scale:

This measure reflects an experimental orientation rather than a fixed way of viewing and organizing phenomena. High scorers are tolerant of ambiguities and uncertainties, are fond of novel situations and ideas, and are frequently aware of subtle variations in the environment. Most persons very high on this dimension prefer to deal with complexity, as opposed to simplicity, and seem disposed to seek out and enjoy diversity and ambiguity (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962, p. 64).

As a measure of construct complexity, this key can be expected to reflect the varied perspectives from which a subject prefers to view concepts. Two of the interview subjects placed extremely high on the Co scale and two placed extremely low. Enumeration of other data available for each subject portrays a picture of the individual that has been used to present an interpretation of her placement on the Co key and various other scales of the OPI (Appendix, Table 11). A discussion of each of the interview subjects follows, under the assumed names of Pat, Pam, Jill and Joan.

Pat had a standard score of seventy-five on the OPI scale of Co. This was extremely high compared to the mean of fifty-one for the community college sample. Pat was seventeen years of age, a high school graduate from a town neighboring Colby. However, Pat indicated during interview that she had lived all over the United States, with particular reference to a brief residence in California. Pat graduated with a high

school class of approximately 100, although she indicated that she had attended much larger schools.

Pat had an ACT standard composite score of twenty-one, which placed her about average in view of the national average of twenty for college-bound high school seniors. Pat did not anticipate a need for a loan or scholarship during her college career, although she did plan to be employed ten to nineteen hours per week during the school year. Pat indicated a major in speech education and aspired to one or two years of graduate study beyond a bachelor's degree. In ranking the relative importance of various educational goals on a scale from one to nine, with a score of nine indicating greatest importance, Pat ranked vocational goals as highest, with a score of eight. She ranked social and nonconforming goals with a score of six each and academic goals with a score of five. Pat viewed herself as impulsive and this was confirmed by a standard score of seventy-four on the IE scale of the OPI. Pat made reference during the interview to her mother's disapproving attitude toward her impulsiveness. She also referred to her mother during the discussion of the Social Alienation scale for which she had about an average score, with the remark: "Mother will be relieved to know I'm not too socially alienated, doesn't that mean like the beatniks and hippies and those guys?"

In response to a score of sixty-eight on the Autonomy scale, Pat affirmed the accuracy of the measurement by asserting, with voice inflection and with gestures, that she was a strong believer in individual rights, and that she disapproved of infringements on the rights of individuals. Earlier in the interview, Pat related an experience she

had during high school which gives added insight for the above expressed strong feelings on individual rights. Pat related that, upon the recommendation of her high school counselor, she had been sent to a medical school for intensive personality testing. Pat did not recall any meaningful interpretation of the tests, other than being informed that she had rated abnormally. Pat expressed resentment toward the tests and the subsequent findings and dissatisfaction with the entire three-day experience. The description of high scorers on the Au scale offered by the authors of the inventory as ". . . sufficiently independent of authority, as traditionally imposed through social institutions, that they oppose infringements on the rights of individuals" seemed to accurately describe Pat's reaction in the above experience (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962, p. 5).

The interviewer did not observe signs or remarks of resentment towards the findings of the OPI. The subject's most common reaction to her scores was "I didn't rate very well." This reaction continued even after the interviewer reiterated that high and low scores are not necessarily indicative of desirable and undesirable traits.

The three scales on which Pat rated extremely high, Co, Au, and IE, may suggest a pattern in her personality. It would appear that a range of varied experiences in her background have rendered her more open to experience and more tolerant of ambiguities than many of her peers. However, certain of these varied experiences may have been sufficiently threatening to elevate her need for independence from authority.

In summary, it could be said that during interview Pat exhibited

somewhat uncontrollable impulse expression, a degree of compulsion towards freedom of expression and experience, and perhaps even a desire to be considered different and somewhat alienated from the mainstream of society. She seemed compelled to talk about herself and her experiences, with emphasis on unique, exciting, dramatic, and at times even personally disparaging experiences. Her over-expressiveness was demonstrated in normal conversation with dramatic gestures and emphatic expressions. She exhibited a strong need for independence from authority and freedom of personal expression.

Pam, the second interview subject, had a standard score of sixty-eight on the Co scale of the OPI, which was nearly two standard deviations above the mean of her peers. Pam was eighteen years of age, a recent graduate from a high school in a small neighboring town in Thomas County with a class of fewer than twenty-five students. Pam indicated at the time she took the ACT battery that she would probably not need financial assistance during college, and that she did not intend to be employed during the school term. Pam's ACT standard composite score was twenty-four, which indicated slightly above average potential for academic achievement. She indicated a bachelor's degree as the highest educational level to which she aspired when taking the ACT battery. Pam was enrolled in seventeen hours of college credit and did not perceive difficulty in any of her course work. She considered the requirements quite similar to those of high school.

In rating the relative importance of educational goals, Pam gave vocational goals a score of zero, indicating that vocational preparation was not of importance to her. This she confirmed in interview.

When asked if she envisioned a degree and /or career for herself, she replied, "Frankly, I couldn't care less about college, but I just think you need a degree today." When questioned as to why she believed a degree is necessary, she replied, "Just to get along." It appeared that she did not mean to imply vocational training or employment opportunities as the reasons for needing a college degree. She continued to explain that she did not really plan on a career for herself but it would depend on what she "ended up" doing, whether or not she would consider combining a career and marriage. She stated that she did not think she could stand an eight to five job and underscored this assertion with the explanation that she could hardly keep herself coming to class regularly. After reflection, Pam stated: "What I really want to be is a writer, an historical biographer, but I'm not sure I can. I want to be the best in whatever I do, and if I couldn't be a really good biographer then I wouldn't want to be one at all." Pam said that she had not considered a career in any other vocation involving writing.

In reaction to her score of fifty on the IE scale, Pam stated that she was not very dependable. She explained that what she meant to say was that she changes too often. She said she sometimes likes school and sometimes can hardly force herself to stay in school. She asserted that when she gets interested in a subject, she just wants to study that one thing. Pam's expressed changeableness seemed confirmed in the area of choosing a major. When a senior in high school she selected an engineering major on the ACT battery. One year later, this unusual major appeared to have faded out of view in favor of an interest in writing. Pam's interest in writing seemed to correspond favorably with

her placement on two of the OPI subscales. In an earlier study using the OPI and faculty ratings of graduate students, written expression correlated 0.56 with Thinking Introversion and 0.50 with Complexity (Center for the Study of Higher Education, 1962). Pam scored fifty-nine and sixty-eight respectively on these two scales (Appendix, Table 11).

Pam responded to her high ranking on the Co scale with the explanation that she liked debatable issues and noticed subtle differences. She reported she had "fought off" the whole class when she had strong feelings on certain issues. At first, Pam did not agree with her standard score of fifty-two on the Au scale, believing she should have rated higher. After reflection she stated that perhaps she is more of an independent thinker and not so much independent of authority. Notice that she referred to herself as a thinker, a reference which was confirmed by a high score on the TI key.

Pam commuted to junior college from her home about sixteen miles from Colby, but she made few references to home life during the interview. Her score on the Au scale did not seem to indicate any strong need for independence from authority. The situation of living at home, some distance spatially and psychologically from the mainstream of campus life, could suggest some explanation for her extremely high ranking on the scale of Social Introversion (SI). However, it was questionable whether Pam would have taken part in extraclass activities under different circumstances, since the only activity for which she expressed any interest was drama. She also expressed a liking for art class. These two interests supported her high score on the Estheticism

(Es) scale. *TI* and *Es* have a correlation of 0.65 for the normative sample, so it was not surprising for Pam to score extremely high on both scales.

In short, Pam did not express a need to be with others, either socially or vocationally. She seemed to fit the stereotype of a philosophical person, with extreme social introversion and extreme thinking introversion. She expressed the ability to completely absorb herself in a single endeavor, to the exclusion of all others. She might even be classified as a dreamer, fond of independent reflective thought.

The third interview subject is referred to as Jill. Jill had a standard score of thirty-six on the OPI scale of Complexity. This was approximately one and one-half standard deviations below the mean of the normative sample.

Jill had an ACT standard composite score of twenty-six, indicating an above average potential for academic achievement. She was graduated the spring previous to this study from a high school in a small neighboring town. She indicated that she would probably not need financial aid in the form of a loan or scholarship during college, but that she intended to work from ten to nineteen hours per week during the school term. Jill was enrolled in eighteen hours of college credit and did not perceive difficulty in any of her courses. Her vocational choice at the time she took the ACT battery was chemistry. She was undecided at that time what role she would prefer. During the interview, Jill indicated that she liked school and wanted to continue after junior college, but that she was undecided on a major. She did not seem familiar with vocational interest inventories and indicated a desire to take one in

the near future. On the ACT battery, Jill listed one or two years of graduate study beyond a bachelor's degree as the educational level to which she aspired.

In ranking the relative importance of various educational goals, Jill ranked vocational goals as most important with a score of nine. She ranked the other three goals as quite similar to each other in importance with scores of five each for social and nonconforming goals and a score of six for academic goals.

During interview, Jill asked perceptive questions about various keys of the OPI. Her concept of self seemed to closely correspond with the OPI scores on all scales except Theoretical Orientation (TO). She expressed the belief that her highest score on a test of academic potential was in science and that this would require theoretical thinking. She further supported her reaction to the score on the TO key with the statement that she liked chemistry and seemed to be doing well in it in school.

In response to her score of thirty on the Autonomy (Au) scale, Jill replied, "Authority, rules and regulations have never bothered me. Like I'm not one of those who always thinks parents and so forth are too strict." Jill did not consider herself to be much of a worrier. She said she did not think that she let things bother her when she knew she could not change them. The above comments were in reference to a score of forty-five on the Lack of Anxiety (LA) scale, which was approximately average for the sample of Colby students.

Jill did not consider herself impulsive, which seemed confirmed by a standard score of thirty-nine on the Impulse Expression (IE) scale.

She seemed somewhat discontent with her placement of seventy on the Social Introversion (SI) scale, although she considered it to be quite accurate. She stated that she liked to be with people, as she thought everyone did, but that she probably did not seek out social contacts the way some people did. She expressed the belief that she had changed some during her first semester at college and was moving towards extroversion. She explained this change in terms of a wider circle of friends at junior college in contrast to just a few close friends as in high school. She stated that "maybe this change is the way it is supposed to be."

In view of the relationship of the Complexity (Co) and the Theoretical Orientation (TO) scales, it seemed reasonable to focus on the theoretical scale in the case of Jill. Enumeration of the possible explanations for her low rating on the TO key has been used to suggest some of the forces which might have influenced her relatively low score on the Co scale.

Jill's lower than average score on TO, when other measures such as grades and aptitude tests rate her high in the area of science, may be partially attributable to her lack of experience in a somewhat sheltered and unchanging environment. Her low Co score, indicating a low tolerance for uncertainties and ambiguities, offered some support for a low score on the TO scale. Designers of the OPI described Co as a measure reflecting an experimental orientation toward perceiving and organizing phenomena. A correlation of 0.47 was found with the normative sample for the Co and TO scales. The magnitude of this correlation is increased by the absence of item overlap for the two scales.

It is possible that the absence of of experimental orientation in Jill's attitudes has depressed her TO score, even in the presence of scholastic aptitude. It is further conceivable that school marks in Jill's high school and junior college science courses may be based on criteria which do not recognize an experimental attitude. In view of Jill's high score for academic potential (26), it might be that she has been alert enough to follow instructions well, and her superior marks in science courses might be a reflection of this ability rather than an indication of scientific orientation.

Jill's low TO score might also have been related to her exceptionally low score on Autonomy (Au). Designers of the inventory found a correlation of 0.72 for the keys of TO and Au, which was unusually high considering the existence of only one overlapping item for the two scales. Jill's remarks during interview relating her unquestioning acceptance of parental and institutional authority did not seem to indicate a predisposition for change in this area. Jill's remarks concerning her SI score appeared to reveal a desire for change which could eventually lead to more openness to experience and more freedom in expression. It would appear that a corresponding change in Au would need to accompany an elevation of Jill's Co score.

In summary, Jill appeared during interview to be self-contained, as well as self-confident. She appeared to be a bright girl with a reservoir of untapped potential, partially due to previously inadequate environmental stimuli. She expressed a conscious effort to express herself more freely and to interact socially, which seemed to be a moving in the direction of social maturity and developmental status

described by Sanford (1967) as the desiderata of educated women.

Joan, the fourth interviewee, had a Complexity score of thirty-three, which was considerably lower than most of her peers. Joan was eighteen years of age and an immediate post high school matriculant from a neighboring town. Joan had an ACT standard composite score of ten, which was conspicuously lower than the national average of twenty.

Joan was undecided on a major at the time she took the ACT battery. She indicated an interest in physical education during interview but expressed a fear of failure in the required science courses. This fear appeared well-grounded, in view of her low score on academic potential. Joan listed a junior college degree as the level of her educational aspirations. However, during interview Joan did not express interest in any of the terminal vocational training programs offered at the community college. She was enrolled in fifteen hours of credit and expressed concern over her marks in some of these courses. She indicated that her plans for the future were uncertain, and that she intended to wait and see how things would turn out here before attempting to choose a major or a vocation.

Many of Joan's remarks during interview could be interpreted as indicative of feelings of inadequacy. In view of her extremely low score on the Co scale, she queried how she would be able to widen her interests, how she could get used to trying new things. In reference to her low score on Estheticism (Es) and Thinking Introversion (TI), she asked if she should try to broaden her field. In the above areas, as well as Social Introversion (SI), Joan seemed to view her scores as inadequate and disconcerting.

Joan seemed to want to discuss moral issues in regard to the scales of Religious Liberalism (RL) and Autonomy (Au). Her remarks indicated she was seriously questioning parental values and previously held moral standards but was unwilling to give them up at the present. She seemed on the one hand to seek reassurance that an unchanging attitude was "right" and on the other hand she seemed to want to be encouraged to change.

Joan's responses to the interpretation of the inventory scales were quite limited, a reaction which could have been due to lack of comprehension. She did not express disagreement with scores on any of the scales, nor did she express reasons for the agreement which she voiced. This lack of expression could have been attributable to lack of rapport during the interview. Consultation with two of Joan's instructors revealed that this lack of expression was more probably due to an inadequacy in the communication skills.

Joan's standard score on the Response Bias (RB) scale of the OPI was forty-eight, which should indicate valid scores on the other scales. However, the interviewer questioned the accuracy of measurement for Joan on the key of Lack of Anxiety (LA). Her score was almost two standard deviations above the mean for the junior college sample. The interviewer would tend to view Joan's remarks and reactions during interview as indicative of a great number of anxious feelings, rather than a lack of anxiety, as was indicated by the high score on the LA key. This observed discrepancy in overt expression of anxiety compared with OPI assessment of anxiety could have been due to Joan's conscious or unconscious reluctance to admit anxious feelings when taking the inventory.

In summary, it was obvious that Joan scored conspicuously below the average of her peers in academic potential. She seemed to be consciously aware of inadequacies in the academic community, yet she floundered and was unable to make a decision for vocational pursuit within the range of her potential. A reaction such as Joan's poses provocative questions for personnel and guidance workers. Have satisfactory opportunities been made available to the Joans? Why has society so failed to emphasize the desirable aspects of these opportunities that the Joans will not let themselves consider less prestigious vocations than those requiring a college education until after they have proven themselves failures in the academic scene? The type of situation described above is especially discouraging to educators directly involved in fostering personality development.

The brief pictures of the interview subjects presented above served to integrate the biographical and psychometric data with personality data and to illustrate some of the types of women found on the CCJC campus. Subjects for interview were not selected as representative of the population nor of junior college women in general. Interpretation of interview data was offered, not on the basis of prediction or diagnosis, but as thoughtful reflection and at times speculation concerning the influence of environmental factors on the personalities of the women interviewed. Data collected in these interviews are congruent with earlier personality studies (Sanford, 1963), in which subjects were found to score similarly on personality traits for widely differing reasons.

The use of subjective data collected during interviews provided

opportunities for direct involvement and depth of understanding on the part of the researcher that was not available by examination of demographic data. In literature on student personality development, there seemed to be a tendency to shun the subjective approach, or to use interviews alone rather than as a complement to psychometrics. The interviews used in this study were an attempt to surmount the above cited shortcomings and to explore possibilities for meaningful integration of biographical and psychometric data with interviews.

The interviewer was impressed by the students' responsiveness to the opportunity to talk about themselves in the interview. This seemed to be a meaningful, perhaps even developmental, experience for them. The foregoing observation seems to have implications for both guidance workers and classroom teacher.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe freshmen women at Colby Community Junior College. Sixty-eight women subjects were selected according to the following criteria: (1) immediate post high school women who matriculated in the fall of 1967 without previous college credit, and (2) those who were enrolled in more than six hours for the fall semester.

Information of three types was used to contribute to the description of CCJC freshmen women. Personnel records including the Prospective Student Profile report of the American College Testing program provided information concerning age, marital status, high school background, major vocational choice, educational level of aspiration, academic potential, educational goals, financial need and anticipated employment.

The second means used to describe the community college women was the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI). Mean scores and standard deviations were computed for the twelve scales of the inventory. A group of women from Kansas State University (KSU) was selected for comparative purposes. It was believed that comparative data from a four-year Kansas institution would give added meaning to the results of the OPI data from the community college women. The KSU freshmen women

comprising the comparative sample were part of an on-going student development study at the Student Counseling Center.

Mean scores for the above described groups were analyzed for significant differences by the t test. Because of the manner in which the sample was selected, results can be stated as applicable only for these samples and should not be considered descriptive of all junior college students as compared to all university students. Three scales were significantly different at the $p < .01$ level for the two groups: Thinking Introversiion (TI), Theoretical Orientation (TO), and Lack of Anxiety (LA). Three other scales were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level: Autonomy (Au), Social Alienation (SF), and Social Introversiion (SI). Freshmen women in the KSU sample were significantly more autonomous ($p < .05$), more thinking introverted ($p < .01$), and more theoretically oriented ($p < .01$) than freshmen women in the junior college setting. Colby women were significantly more anxious ($p < .01$), more socially introverted ($p < .05$), and more socially alienated ($p < .05$) than the freshmen women in the KSU sample.

The third type of data used to describe the women at CCJC was a brief resume of individual interviews with four members of the sample. The interview served as a means of integrating various techniques in the study of personality development and as a means of collecting information concerning attitudes and behavior of individual students. Diverse placement on the OPI scale of Complexity (Co) was the criterion for selection of interview subjects. The Co scale was chosen as the selection criterion because of the wide range of scores available and because of the general and comprehensive nature of its measurement. Interpreta-

tions and implications were offered in the reports of the four interviews. Results of the interviews reinforce findings of other idiographic studies, that individuals may score similarly on scales of a personality test for different reasons.

Implications

Specific results of this study are applicable only to the two samples under investigation. The aspect of the study that seemed somewhat general was that personality differences were found to exist between women students on two college campuses relatively close to each other spatially and culturally. It may be that differences such as those found in this research exist between and among student bodies of other campuses and the differences remain obscure without systematic investigation. Discovery of the above differences in characteristics of student bodies and subsequent specific translation into teaching terms and administrative suggestions could result in improvement of the institutions involved.

Statistically significant differences in means of the OPI scales for the two populations underscored the need for norms for objective assessment instruments based on junior college populations. The lack of published data available on the assessment of junior college students pointed to a need for objective publication and critical evaluation of studies conducted with junior college students.

The study described in this paper compared only the women on the community college campus and the women on the university campus. The differences found between the two groups of women indicate a need for further research to determine if differences exist between junior college men and university men and between junior college women and junior

college men.

Descriptive studies such as the one reported in this paper essentially precede predictive studies. In the future, investigators of junior college populations may choose to examine the relationship of personality factors to high school background, reasons for choice of institution, curriculum selection, and success or attrition at college.

High school guidance workers can benefit from knowledge of personality characteristics of students at various institutions as they counsel students concerning selection of college. Results of the type of study reported in this paper can facilitate curriculum building as college administrators seek curricula to meet the needs and interests of students, as well as curricula that nurture the goals of the institution. Objective reporting of general personality tendencies observable in the student population could guide instructors in organizing course work that is appealing to students as well as course work that nurtures desired curriculum objectives. The above use of data carries with it the challenge for guidance workers to translate characteristics of students in effective and practical teaching terms.

The brief personal information provided by interviews in this study could serve as motivation for further research investigating background information of subjects. The relationship of factors in family functioning and interaction to personality characteristics of college students is at this time obscure and could be a fruitful field of investigation for the inquisitive scholar.

APPENDIX

OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY (FORM D)--BRIEF SCALE DESCRIPTIONS

Thinking Introversion (TI): Persons scoring high on this measure exhibit a liking for reflective thought, particularly of an abstract nature. They express interests in areas such as literature, philosophy, and history. Their thinking tends to be less dominated by objective conditions and generally accepted ideas than that of low scorers. The latter extroverts tend to evaluate ideas on the basis of their practical immediate application.

Theoretical Orientation (TO): This scale assesses the degree of interest in using scientific methods in thinking, including interest in science as such and in scientific activities. High scorers are generally more logical, rational and critical in their approach to problems than those scoring at the average or below.

Estheticism (Es): High scorers endorse statements indicating diverse interests in artistic matters and activities. The content of the statements extends beyond painting, sculpture, and music and includes interests in literature and dramatics.

Complexity (Co): This measure reflects an experimental orientation rather than a fixed way of viewing and organizing phenomena. High scorers are tolerant of ambiguities and uncertainties, are fond of novel situations and ideas, and are frequently aware of subtle variations in the environment. Most persons very high on this dimension prefer to deal with complexity, as opposed to simplicity, and seem disposed to seek out and to enjoy diversity and ambiguity.

Autonomy (Au): The characteristic measured is composed of non-authoritarian thinking and a need for independence. High scores indicate those sufficiently independent of authority, as traditionally imposed through social institutions, that they oppose infringements on the rights of individuals. They tend to be nonjudgmental and realistic.

Religious Liberalism (RL): The high scorers are skeptical of religious beliefs and practices and tend to reject most of them, especially those that are orthodox or fundamentalistic. Persons scoring around the mean and lower are indicating various degrees of belief in general and their subscription to specific tenets and dogma.

Impulse Expression (IE): This scale assesses the degree to which one is generally ready to express impulses and to seek gratification either in conscious thought or overt action. The high scorers value sensations, have an active imagination, and their thinking is often dominated by feelings and fantasies.

Social Alienation (SF): High scorers (above 70) exhibit some attitudes and behavior that characterize socially alienated persons. Along with frequent feelings of isolation, loneliness, and rejection, they may

intentionally avoid most others and experience feelings of hostility and aggression.

Social Introversion (SI): High scorers withdraw from social contacts and responsibilities. They display little interest in people or in being with them. The social extroverts (low scorers), on the other hand, seek social contacts and gain satisfaction from them.

Lack of Anxiety (LA): Persons scoring high on this measure indicate that they have few feelings or symptoms of anxiety and do not admit to being unduly nervous or worried. Low scorers admit to a variety of these kinds of symptoms and complaints.

Masculinity-Femininity (MF): This scale reflects some of the differences in attitudes and interests between college men and women. High scorers (masculine) deny interest in esthetic matters and admit to few feelings of anxiety and personal inadequacy. They also tend to be less socially oriented than low scorers and more interested in scientific matters.

Response Bias (RB): High scorers respond to a majority of the statements in this scale in a way which is typical of experimental subjects who are asked to make a good impression. The responses of low scorers are similar to those of subjects instructed to make a poor impression. Scores between 40 and 60 denote valid scores on other scales.

TABLE 11
CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERVIEWEES

| | Pat | Pam | Jill | Joan |
|---|--------|---------|-----------|-----------|
| <u>OPI Standard Scores</u> | | | | |
| Thinking Introversion | 47 | 59 | 44 | 53 |
| Theoretical Orientation | 48 | 37 | 37 | 31 |
| Estheticism | 53 | 66 | 53 | 31 |
| Complexity | 75 | 68 | 36 | 33 |
| Autonomy | 68 | 52 | 30 | 52 |
| Religious Liberalism | 49 | 41 | 36 | 35 |
| Impulse Expression | 74 | 51 | 39 | 45 |
| Social Alienation | 46 | 60 | 60 | 39 |
| Social Introversion | 34 | 72 | 60 | 51 |
| Lack of Anxiety | 61 | 42 | 45 | 51 |
| Masculinity-Femininity | 50 | 38 | 45 | 51 |
| Response Bias | 45 | 48 | 40 | 48 |
| <u>ACT Data</u> | | | | |
| Age in Years | 17 | 18 | 18 | 18 |
| Standard Composite Score | 21 | 24 | 26 | 10 |
| High School Class Size | 25-99 | 25-99 | 25 | 25-99 |
| Financial Need (Loan or scholarship) | no | no | no | yes |
| Hours of Employment per Week | 10-19 | none | 10-19 | 10-19 |
| Major | speech | English | chem. | undecided |
| Vocational Role | educ. | - | undecided | undecided |
| Importance of Educa- tional Goals | | | | |
| Vocational | 8 | 0 | 9 | 7 |
| Academic | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Social | 6 | - | 5 | 2 |
| Nonconforming | 6 | - | 5 | 3 |
| Level of Aspiration | grad. | B.S. | grad. | juco |

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SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ENTERING WOMEN
AT COLBY COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

by

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In the past two decades, characteristics of college students have been the subject of much varied investigation. Studies of attitudes and values, peer group influence, developmental status, achievement motivation and the college environment have become a part of the available literature on the subject of student development. Descriptions of institutions of higher education have come to include enumeration of characteristics of the student body, as well as statements of academic opportunities.

Societal trends in employment practices and educational aspirations have resulted in an over-crowding of most four-year institutions. As a result, junior colleges have taken on increased importance in the American educational scene.

The purpose of this study was to describe characteristics of entering women students at Colby Community Junior College using biographical, psychometric and interview data. The sixty-eight women subjects for this study were enrolled as full-time community college students. Student personnel records, including the Prospective Student Profile report of the American College Testing program, were examined as sources for biographical data which were tabulated and systematically reported.

The psychometric instrument used was the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) developed by the Center for the Study of Higher Education at Berkley, California. Because meaningful comparative data for the OPI were limited, a sample of fifteen freshmen women enrolled at Kansas State University was used for comparative purposes. Scale scores of the Colby and the KSU groups were compared using a two-tail t test

for significant difference in the mean scores.

Results of the study can be considered as applicable only for the samples described in the study. Three OPI scales differed significantly for the two groups at the $p < .01$ level: Thinking Introversi^on, Theoretical Orientation, and Lack of Anxiety. Three additional scales were found to significantly differ for the two groups at the $p < .05$ level: Autonomy, Social Alienation, and Social Introversi^on. Colby women in the sample were found to be significantly more anxious ($p < .01$), more socially introverted ($p < .05$), and more socially alienated ($p < .05$) than women in the KSU sample. The women at KSU were significantly more autonomous ($p < .05$), more thinking introverted ($p < .01$), and more theoretically oriented ($p < .01$) than the junior college women.

Sample interviews were used in this study to explore possibilities for combining various techniques in the study of student development. Interviewees were selected on the basis of diverse placement on the OPI scale of Complexity. Interviews with four subjects were reported to demonstrate possible ways of integrating biographical, psychometric and interview data.

Implications for future research, including types of studies with junior college populations and investigations of personality characteristics were suggested. Possibilities were given for the direct use of a knowledge of the characteristics of junior college populations by college students, administrators of educational institutions and personnel and guidance workers.