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Student Employment: Linking College and the Workplace

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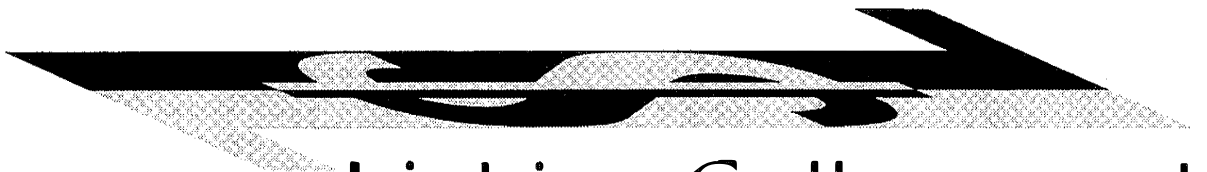
THE FRESHMAN YEAR EXPERIENCE®

NATIONAL STUDENT EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION

Rick Kincaid

Editor-In-Chief

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Dear Reader:

The focus of National Student Employment Association (formerly the National Association of Student Employment Administrators, or NASEA) publications has always been on students in transition. From the freshman moving from high school to higher education, to the senior attempting the transition to professional employment and financial independence, we always have explored how students can better accomplish these linking experiences.

Student employment is a hybrid, serving as a bridge between work and school, and ultimately, a link between school and full-time work. Student employment links elements of financial aid, career development, academic learning, experiential education, and personal development.

Student employment, in all of these ways, is a bridge, moving the student from point A to point B. Because of this variety, any publication on student employment must necessarily speak to diverse themes. We have organized this publication in four sections: an introduction followed by three themed sections.

The introduction, "Working Through College" by Rick Kincaid, provides an overview of the field and describes who works, why they work, and what benefits accrue.

Section 1 explores the first theme—The Impact of Employment upon Students. The first article, "Encouraging Student Development Through Student Employment," by Arthur Chickering, Inez Frank, and Vicki Robinson, shows how the various programs offered in student employment relate to student development theory. As the authors put it, "A close examination of developmental needs can help create employment programs that respond to students' individual differences."

Darrell Anthony Luzzo discusses "Career Decision-Making Benefits of College Student Employment" and emphasizes the link between student employment and effective career choices. He asserts that the "reality check" students experience in part-time employment helps them in their career decision-making process at a later date.

The next article, "The Student Employment Professional—An Emerging Partner in Student Success" by Lee Noel, argues that "student employment, if organized and administered properly, can be a very powerful retention strategy, a means of ensuring student success and persistence on campus."

The question of cost is posed in "Financing a College Education: Are Students Too Dependent on Borrowing?" by Sherri S. Williams and Frank Newman. The authors believe "Work needs to be seen as part of the total educational process—as a way to round out the student's personal, educational and career development. . .and lower the huge debts that college students must now shoulder to earn a college degree."

The second theme, Research on Student Employment, is developed in Section 2. The first article "National Student Employment Survey: A Review of Why Students Choose to Work and Students' Overall Perceptions of the Academic Year Work Experience" describes the results of a survey of 13,000 students at 19 campuses. The students' conclusions are that student employment offers educational and social, as well as financial, value.

Gordon Van de Water addresses "The Effect of Part-Time Work on Academic Performance and Progress." Do working students perform as well academically as their non-working counterparts? Does part-time work impact student persistence? Is there a relationship between hours worked and academic performance? Does location or career-relatedness make a difference to academic performance or persistence?

Sal D. Rinella and Robert J. Kopecky describe "A Proven Approach to Reducing Student Employee Turnover," and the "Academic Benefits of On-Campus Employment to First-Year Developmental Education Students" are explored by Carolyn Wilkie and Marquita Jones.

Robert Foreman of United Parcel Service (UPS) has surveyed employers and has published "UPS Study Relates Student Employment to Job Hunting Success After Graduation." He concludes that "human resources professionals believe that part-time work experience enhances a graduate's potential worth to employers—giving him or her an edge in obtaining career oriented employment. They also believe that candidates with work experience produce better results than do their counterparts with no work experience."

On a related topic, Donald Casella and Catherine Brougham call student employment "The New Entry Level for Career Jobs: Student Working Pays Off." Their research indicates a fundamental shift in how college graduates make the transition to entry level professional jobs. Rather than senior year recruiting and interviewing, an increasing number of organizations are hiring through the undergraduate years. In fact, "the most important factor, by far, in finding meaningful employment after graduation is work experience gained while in college."

Our third and final theme is Making Student Employment Experiences More Productive. Tom Little and Nancy Chinn contribute a series of articles entitled "The Context of Student Employment." These articles address effective supervision of student employees, specifically motivation of students, students and vocational development, and ways in which students are different from other employees.

Marilyn Moats Kennedy explains in "What Campus Employers Teach Students About Office Politics" that "campus employment provides a wonderful laboratory for students to acquire political skills they'll use forever." Rick Kincaid advises students on "Using Your Student Employment Experience in the Job Search."

The final article to the NSEA monograph is contributed by an anonymous supervisor who writes, "One of the benefits of working on a college campus is the relationships that we establish with the students. . . we know students through student employment. Student employment is our bridge to those we serve, a bridge that brings me help, friendship, ideas, and motivation."

John Gardner, Executive Director of the National Resource Center for The Freshman Year Experience and Students in Transition provides some concluding thoughts for the monograph.

Students face two crucial transitions in higher education. The first, a successful freshman year and integration into the academy, is facilitated by student employment. The second, the senior year transition from the academy to a career, is also facilitated by undergraduate employment. If you are interested in these crucial transitions that can shape students' lives, we refer you to the Publication Catalogue of the National Resource Center for The Freshman Year Experience and Students in Transition. If you want to learn more about work and the college student, we invite you to join the National Student Employment Association.

<div align="right">Rick Kincaid</div>

Foreword

John N. Gardner

It is a pleasure to provide a foreword for this monograph which represents one of our most recent partnerships with a national professional higher education organization, the National Student Employment Association (formerly the National Association of Student Employment Administrators, or NASEA). I had the opportunity of discovering the important work of this Association through the introduction of one of my colleagues here at the University of South Carolina at Columbia, Ms. Sallie Glover, Director of Financial Aid for the University's Regional Campuses. Ms. Glover was President of NASEA several years ago and invited me to meet with her Board colleagues while they were on campus to learn first-hand of the important work they are doing to increase the probability of success for America's first-year college and university students. My initial interaction with NASEA professionals persuaded me that these individuals were involved in a critical enterprise.

Anyone interested in the success of the first-year students knows how important the issue of financing college has become. No matter how intelligent, goal-directed, self-disciplined, motivated, and satisfied first-year college students may be in their initial college experience, if they can't finance that experience without undue disruption of their academic performance, they cannot be successful. Many misconceptions about the relationship between student employment and student success abound. One of my hopes for this project is that some of those misconceptions will be eliminated. I happen to believe that part-time employment during college, especially employment on campus, is a good thing, and I would recommend it for virtually all students. I especially believe that the whole subject of student employment during the undergraduate years is one that needs more attention, concern, and the support of a wide audience of educators.

It is in this spirit then that we entered into this partnership with NSEA. This follows other successful partnership ventures which have shown us the importance of working with a national association of specialized higher education professionals—groups like the Association of College and University Housing Officers, International; the National Orientation Directors Association; the National Academic Advising Association; and the National Association of Deans and Directors of University Colleges.

I commend this monograph to you for your reading and appropriate action to further enhance the students' opportunities on your campus for positive employment experiences.

Working Through College

Rick Kincaid

"I worked my way through college." Zechariah Brigden was the first person able to say this. He said it in 1657 (according to Trivial Pursuit), and since then the employment experience has enriched the lives of millions of college students.

Student employment (with over 11 million students working, 81% of all students enrolled each year) (Knapp, 1993) is, after class attendance, the most universal experience of American college students. More students work than participate in sports or clubs, live in a residence hall, or own a car. And, the pervasiveness of the student employment experience makes American higher education different from higher education in almost every other country in the world.

What do we know about it? Not as much as we should. Finding and holding a job is a largely individual process. It may be on or off campus. Students may continue in a job held prior to enrolling, find a job on their own after enrolling, or be assisted in finding work by the university. They may combine either part-time or full-time enrollment with part-time or full-time employment. Most jobs are not directly and formally tied to the academic experience. The employment of students is not the province of any government agency, and, on the campus,

the duty may be shared by several offices. Thus, it has not been studied to the extent of many other common student experiences, and information is from various sources and not always up-to-date.

But what research has been done over the past generation leads to some intriguing conclusions. Student employment usually benefits the student. It has obvious financial benefits, does not harm grades, can improve retention, and appears to boost career achievement after graduation. Before exploring these issues, however, we need to examine the demographics of our working students.

Who Works?

A significant majority of college students work, and the percentage has been increasing for 30 years for all types of students. The most consistent source of information has been the Bureau of Labor Statistics (O'Brien, 1993), which currently estimates over 63% of students are working (at the moment in time the statistics are collected). Over the course of a year, 81% of undergraduates work at least part of the time (Knapp, 1993).

The increased likelihood of employment has taken place for all categories of students.

Although older students, married students, and part-time students have fueled much of the growth in college enrollments the past three decades, and all of these groups are more likely to work than traditional students, employment has surged for all categories of students.

Among traditional students (full-time, undergraduate, dependent students aged 16-24), the percentage of those working has increased from 35% in 1972 to 46.5% in 1988 (Hexter, 1990). For part-time students, 84% are employed (Mortenson, 1995). And an astounding one in fifteen students is employed full-time and attending school full-time.

Although all types of students at all types of universities are more likely to be employed, employment is more likely:

- at public universities
- for women
- for older students
- for independent students
- for middle class students
- for part-time students
- at two-year colleges
- for upperclassmen
- for volunteers in the community.

Working students are less likely to receive financial aid (Hexter, 1990). As might be expected, half of students work in administrative/clerical positions, food service, and retailing, with the rest scattered through the remainder of the economy (Chavez & Mulugetta, 1994).

Why Do They Work? What Do They Gain? Financial Benefits and Financial Necessity

The first and most obvious benefit is financial: *Students earn money while in school.* They need it. "Cost of education" and "extra expenses" were the top two reasons for working given by 13,000 students surveyed by the National Student Employment Association (NSEA, formerly the National Association of Student Employment Administrators, or NASEA) and Cornell University in 1992 (Chavez & Mulugetta, 1994).

In 1965, students contributed 11% of college costs. This nearly doubled by 1985. The proportion of "self-help" financial assistance (work-study or loans) rose from 31% of available aid in 1972-73 to 51% in 1991-92 (Knapp, 1993). Most of the increase in "self-help" is attributable to increased borrowing.

While median family incomes grew 73% in the 1980s, college costs increased 109% at public universities, and 146% at private ones. The rise in college costs also has outpaced price increases in new cars, food, new homes, and medical care.

The 1995 class of American college freshmen expressed greater concern about affording college than any freshman class of the last 30 years (*Postsecondary Opportunity*, 1996). They have good reason.

Traditional students have median annual earnings of $3,000. Non-traditional students have median annual earnings of $10,000 (Knapp, 1993). However, in most cases, this is not enough to finance a college education. The newsletter *Postsecondary Opportunity* calculated how many hours per week a student would have to work to cover expenses at an average public and average private university. Our typical student, working at a minimum wage job, would be required to work 44 hours per week to pay for a public university, or 91 hours per week to enroll in a private university (Mortenson, 1995).

The days of working one's way through school are done, yet the need to work has never been greater. But finances, although the primary reason for working, are far from the only reason motivating students. The NASEA/Cornell survey (Chavez & Mulugetta, 1994) asked students why they work. After paying college bills and earning money for expenses, the top reasons cited were the following:

- Career exploration
- Enjoyable/fulfilling
- Career contacts
- Enriches academics
- Social interaction
- Learn time management.

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Career Outcomes

The NASEA/Cornell survey (Chavez & Mulugetta, 1994) indicated working students believe they are enhancing their career prospects by working. However, the question on this survey was given to students still in school, before they could truly see the results. Other research shows that indeed working may help a student's postgraduate career, in both the short-term and the long-term.

Phillip Gleason found that students who worked consistently in college were more successful (in terms of earnings and employment rates) in their first year or two after graduation (Gleason, 1993). Pascarella and Terenzini's review of research in *How College Affects Students* "suggests that working during college, particularly in a job related to one's major or initial career aspirations, has a positive net impact on career choice, career attainment, and level of professional responsibility attained early in one's career" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

Employers agree. A survey of 1200 human resources professionals conducted by Robert Foreman of United Parcel Service (UPS) (Foreman, 1993) showed a strong bias for student employment experience in hiring for entry-level positions. There was strong agreement with the statements that part-time work is as important as grades, and that former student employees exhibit the following behaviors:

- produce better work
- accept supervision better
- are better time managers
- have better team skills
- make a more rapid transition
- have more realistic expectations.

Many graduates are able to parlay that initial boost provided by student employment to more success throughout their careers. Over the longer term, the *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* (Shelley, 1994) gives a qualified endorsement to obtaining a college degree. "Recent Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) projections indicated that about three-fourths of the college graduates who enter the labor force between 1992 and 2005 can expect to find college-level jobs." But they caution, "wide variations are expected in the types of jobs graduates get and the income they earn, even for jobs defined as college-level." One-quarter of college graduates are likely to obtain jobs not requiring college-level education. Thus, student employment experience can enhance entry-level marketability, increasing the odds for longer-term success. Shelley (1994) writes:

> On average, graduates earn more and are less likely to be unemployed than nongraduates. In 1992, median earnings for college graduates were $37,000 per year, compared with $21,000 for high school graduates. The average unemployment rate for college graduates was 3% that year, compared with 8% for high school graduates. Yet even for the 1984-1992 period, BLS data indicate that a college degree does not guarantee success in the job market.

To increase the chances of success, many students are turning to student employment: experience plus a degree. In fact, Donald Casella and Catherine Brougham's (1993) survey of recent graduates at San Francisco State University reveals that job/intern/volunteer experience as an undergraduate is the runaway number one factor in finding postgraduate employment, cited by 56% of respondents. And it was perceived as more important than high GPA, major, job search skills, personality, and knowing someone.

This concept that student employment experience is a springboard to professional employment is further gaining currency among employers. They are increasingly investing in employment, cooperative education, and internship programs as recruiting tools.

Academics

Despite a perception among many parents, students, and faculty that working may harm academic achievement, there is little evidence to support this. On the surface, it makes sense. Anything a student does outside of class is competing with study time for that student's attention.

But the evidence is that study time is the last activity to be reduced when a student finds a job. A survey at five universities looked at how employed and non-employed students spent their time away from classes and jobs. There was little difference in time spent reading for pleasure, volunteering, and attending parties or cultural events. In fact, the only activity with a significant difference was watching TV: Non-employed students watched more television (McCartan, 1988).

Many other studies show little difference in academic achievement between employed and non-employed students. Van de Water, in research conducted in Washington State, found that "there is no relationship between working and grade point average" (Van de Water, 1989). The NSEA/Cornell survey (Chavez & Mulugetta, 1994) of 13,000 students revealed "the GPA of both (working and non-working) student populations appears to be relatively similar." Other studies show either no relationship, or a slight grade advantage, as long as a student is working a moderate number of hours per week.

Retention

Employment has long been associated with retention, but most of this perception has been based on examining traditional students. Depending on whom you look at, and how you look at them, employment can either help or hinder student retention. The key question to ask initially: Is the individual primarily a student or primarily a worker? To judge where an individual is on this student-worker continuum: Are they enrolled full-time or part-time? Are they working full-time or part-time? How much is the job related to their career goals and to academic studies? Or, do they see any connection or benefit with what they are learning in the classroom with what they are doing at the job?

If a student views himself or herself primarily as a student who works, is attending full-time and working part-time, and sees a relationship between classroom learning and job success, employment is positively associated with retention.

If the student perceives himself or herself as primarily an employee taking classes (particularly if enrollment is part-time and work is full-time), then employment is negatively associated with continued enrollment.

Since most student employees are attending full-time and working part-time, and see their primary responsibility as attending college, student employment does appear to enhance retention for traditional students. This interpretation also lends itself to more intrusive approaches on the part of colleges to structure student employment programs as retention tools. This is particularly applicable to on-campus employment.

Astin's "Involvement Theory" posits that "students who are more actively involved in aspects of their college experience achieve higher grades, are more satisfied, and have higher persistence rates than students who are less actively involved" (Wilkie & Jones, 1994). Student involvement with the university is associated with retention. Almost any involvement (campus residence, clubs, sports, interaction with faculty and staff, etc.) seems to help. Of course, employment is involvement, encouraging integration with the university.

One survey asked students what they would do when faced with financial difficulties. They responded that they would first cut expenses and then find a job. Leaving school was the least likely response (Churaman,.1992). Thus, employment is seen by students as increasing the possibility of retention.

Some studies do suggest that employment, while improving retention, can delay graduation. If a student reduces course load to work, the obvious outcome is enrollment for additional semesters. Churaman's (1992) survey does indicate students may reduce credits to cope with financial difficulties, but this is the second least likely strategy. Only withdrawing completely had lower responses.

Intangibles (or a Challenge to Researchers)

Although there is no research to support these opinions, the author has observed the following:

Self-reliance

Student Employment is close to the Office of Financial Aid. Every day students complete extensive paperwork and throw themselves at the mercy of needs analysis to solve their financial difficulties. They are passive and hopeful that something might be done for them.

In contrast, Student Employment sees students who are looking to their own skills and initiative to solve their financial difficulties. As cited above, students report "working or looking for another job" as the second most attractive strategy in dealing with financial trouble (Churaman, 1992).

An Appreciation of Democracy

Frank Newman, President of the Education Commission of the States, advanced this hypothesis when he served as Keynote Speaker at the 1986 NASEA conference. He spoke of the way most countries educate their elite. Students are tested and tracked from young ages, and those fortunate enough to be selected for university usually have their way paid. Being a student is their only job. These students graduate and move on to the professions, government and business, becoming the leaders of their countries.

Our college graduates, even at elite universities, follow similar paths but with a crucial difference. It is very likely that our students also may have had experience making pizzas, waiting on customers, or working in a factory. Even our best students experience the kind of work that most of our citizens do. They work alongside people with less education and fewer prospects. They get to know those individuals and their lives in a way that students in other countries never do. And this knowledge, of what it's like to make a living "by the sweat of one's brow," makes them better leaders for a democratic, inclusive society.

Conclusion

To conclude, Bill Ramsay, Past President of the National Association of Student Employment Administrators, in his inaugural address, spoke of what student employment meant to him. The first point is my own.

1. Student employment is more than a means of financing an education. It contributes to a sense of self-responsibility and can allow individual students to assume adult responsibility with a "clean slate," free of debt, and freely able to pursue their dreams.

2. Student employment is more than career development. We all know and appreciate the career benefits of work experience for students. The values of a work record in placement is well recognized, but student employment is more than an effective tool of career development and expression.

3. Student employment is more than an educational laboratory. Students learn tremendous amounts in experiential settings and test their academic lessons in the work world laboratory.

4. Student employment is more than personal growth. The development of skills, the self knowledge, the maturity gained from work experience should be highly valued, but student employment is more than personal development.

5. Student employment is more than good citizenship. Taking one's place in society as a contributor, as well as a consumer, fosters a sense of community and of responsibility. It breeds good citizenship in a democracy, but it is more than a way to foster social responsibility and community service.

Student employment can be all of these and more. Our commitment in higher education and in public policy must be to encourage the value of work.

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Section 1

The Impact of Employment upon Students

Encouraging Student Development Through Student Employment

Arthur W. Chickering, Inez Frank, and Vicki Robinson

Learning without thought is labor lost;
thought without learning is perilous.
   Confucius

Learning is not attained by chance, it must be
sought for with ardor and attended to with
diligence.
   Abigail Adams in a letter to John Quincy
   Adams, May 8, 1780

This article examines the relationship between student employment and student development. Exploring the stages of ego development as defined by Loevinger et al., (cited in Weathersby, 1981), helps illuminate the educational motives that emerge from conscious student preoccupations at each stage. This analysis suggests a conceptual framework concerning relationships among learning styles, employment settings, and student/employer roles that are most stage-appropriate. In this context, as in others, a critical mix of support and challenge (Sanford, 1962) is necessary for planned growth and personal development.

In addition, the issues and implications for student employment administrators, work supervisors, and college liaisons are addressed, and recommendations are offered for assessing students and selecting placements. Job requirements to yield the greatest growth in student development are described. A close examination of developmental needs can help create employment programs that respond to students' individual differences.

Introduction and Definitions

Research supports the view that most students enter college with superficial "pseudo-plans" for careers heavily influenced by family expectations and that these "plans" are quickly dashed (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981). The rich opportunities for experiential learning at our educational institutions then become the crucibles in which vocational development occurs. Changes in values, social perspective, intellectual interests, and long-range goals, occurring normally in college students, seem to result in marked progress in career identification and planning. The key vocational developmental task for students is the reconciling of self-perceptions with perceptions of work and workers (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981).

Experiential learning is defined as learning that takes place when changes in beliefs, feelings, knowledge, or skills result from participation in a life event (Chickering, 1976). Duley and Gordon (cited in Duley, 1981) identify a typology of field experience programs sponsored by educational institutions. An excerpt of this typology follows:

Work Experience (Cooperative Education)

The National Commission for Cooperative Education has provided the following definition for cooperative education:

> that education plan which integrates classroom experience and practical work experience in industrial, business, government, or service-type work situations in the community. The work experience constitutes a regular and essential element in the educative process, and some minimum amount of work experience and minimum standard of successful performance on the job are included in the requirements of the institution for a degree. (The National Commission for Cooperative Education, 1971, p. 3)

Professional Training

A student serves in assigned responsibilities under the supervision of a professional in the field of education, medicine, law, social work, nursing, or ministry, putting the theory learned into practice, gaining skills in the profession, and being evaluated by his or her supervisor.

Service-Learning Internship

Sigmond (1972) offers the following definition of service-learning:

> Service-learning has been defined as the integration of the accomplishment of a task which meets human need with conscious educational growth. A service-learning internship is designed to provide students responsibility to meet a public need and a significant learning experience within a public or private institution for a specified period of time, usually ten to fifteen weeks. (p. 2)

Field Research/Participation in the Arts

A student undertakes an independent or group research project in the field under the supervision of a faculty member, applying the concepts and methods of an academic discipline such as geology, archaeology, geography, or sociology. Participating in either the performing or graphic arts under the guidance of a qualified profes-sional is similar for a student in the arts to field research for students in the sciences.

Personal Growth and Development

A student undertakes a program in an off-campus setting that is designed to further his or her personal growth and development, such as the wilderness survival programs of the Outward Bound Schools, an apprenticeship to an artist or a craftsman, residence in a house of a religious order for the development of his or her spiritual life, or participation in an established group psychological or human relations program.

Cross-Cultural Experiences

A student involves himself or herself in another culture or subculture of his or her own society in a deep and significant way, either as a temporary member of a family, a worker in that society, or a volunteer in a social agency, with the intention, as a participant observer, of learning as much as possible about that culture and his or her own.

The goal of these out-of-classroom and typically off-campus learning activities is to help students achieve the following: (a) to convert theory into practice or develop the skills needed; (b) to apply, synthesize, and assess information; (c) to acquire knowledge; (d) to possess and develop specific skills; (e) to make progress in values clarification, self-awareness, self-confidence, and independence; (f) to learn how to learn independently; (g) to explore careers skillfully; and (h) to become active and responsible citizens.

A range of learning styles can be viewed across these different programs, influenced by student motivation arising out of each developmental stage. Work affects people's values, self-concept, orientation to social reality, and intellectual functioning. Job satisfaction is only one of the psychological consequences of work. The lessons of work are generalized to other non-occupational realms (Kohn, 1980). The dynamic relationship between work and psychological functioning is inherently reciprocal. It is a self-perpetuating and reinforcing process, throughout adult life, whereby the work conditions

encountered both mold personality and in turn are shaped by behavior. Laramee (cited in Roark, 1983) states that for work experience to influence personal growth, the work environment must provide for certain conditions. These are opportunities for (a) inquiry, dialogue, personal respect, and interest; (b) accepting progressive levels of responsibility; (c) assuming responsibility for their own welfare and that of others; and (d) coping with stress and increasing job complexity. The last is defined as the degree to which the work requires thought and independent judgement.

Let us now examine the four major types of student employment programs in light of ego development. It is important to remember that each program is uniquely useful and designed to meet the particular needs of any student:

1. *College Work-Study* (CWS)—(Title V of the Higher Education Act)—is awarded to students who have demonstrated financial need and meet eligibility requirements. Its purpose is to provide students with an opportunity to work at part-time jobs to help meet educational costs rather than incur heavy financial indebtedness. Students usually work in paid, on-campus jobs or at nearby non-profit agencies. (For more information on each program see Lutz, 1985.) Salaries are partially subsidized by the federal government while the remainder is paid by the employer. Jobs range from basic services to more advanced positions.

2. *Job Location and Development* (JLD)—is a program created to encourage the expansion of off-campus employment opportunities for students regardless of financial need. The service is free to both students and employers. Job complexity covers the full range of possibilities. Funding for the service is partially derived from the College Work-Study Program.

3. *Cooperative Education* (Title VIII of the Higher Education Act)—is an academic program which offers paid, professional, and progressively responsible, off-campus, salaried work experience for students wishing to confirm or to explore career choices in a

pragmatic way. Learning objectives are frequently delineated. Progress indicators and evaluation are typically negotiated among the student, employer, and liaison at the outset and are held throughout. Students can choose from a variety of work schedules including full-time and part-time. Credit may or may not accrue depending upon institutional mandate. This program is used as a major recruiting tool by both private sector companies and federal agencies.

4. *Internships*—are designed to give students a chance to work in pre-professional positions while still in school. Most interns work off-campus, usually for short time spans, such as a semester, a summer, or during holiday intercessions. Students under this program develop skills related to academic goals. The academic department and employer develop the internship which is almost always credit-bearing.

Stages of Ego Development

Let us now move into a brief examination of Loevinger's developmental stage theory, with emphasis on student motivation as a catalyst for involvement and progress through the life cycle. Within higher education, Loevinger's stages of ego development provide a particularly useful framework for considering the potential impact on student development of student employment. The term ego development refers to a sequence of interrelated patterns of cognitive, interpersonal, and ethical development that form unified, successive, and hierarchical world views (Weathersby, 1981). An individual's ego stage becomes a framework for experiencing, so that learning is selectively assimilated into one's own cognitive, interpersonal, and motivational patterns. Each stage has its own logic and builds on the elements of the preceding stage, forming a sequential pattern of development along a continuum. According to Weathersby (1981), the stages of ego development reflect distinct views of the meaning and value of education plus characteristic styles of coping with life-long learning. Having a knowledge of ego development provides educators with a "map for growth" (Weathersby, 1981, p. 65) which

enables them to read and respond to the needs of their students effectively.

To summarize the hierarchical stages, the salient elements are:

1. *Self-Protective*—students think in stereotypes, are concerned with manipulating people and situations, externalize blame to other people/circumstances, respond to external authority

2. *Conformist*—students are concerned with social acceptability and maintaining appearances, conform to societal norms and respond to external rules, focus on general group characteristics versus individual differences

3. *Conscientious*—students are concerned with achieving competence and developing skills in personal problem-solving, show increased ability to meet societal responsibilities, possess more differentiated self-understanding

4. *Autonomous*—students demonstrate a deeper understanding of self and the world as a whole, appreciate life's complexities and paradoxes, are concerned with self-fulfillment

According to research by Loevinger and others (cited in Weathersby, 1981), the Conformist stage characterizes the developmental level of most traditional-age college students during their first two years of college. Typically, these individuals make the transition through the Self-Aware level of the Conformist stage though generally not beyond the Conscientious stage, resulting in a heightened awareness of their own inner feelings and perception of multiple possibilities in various situations.

The challenge to administrators, counselors, and faculty is to be aware of and responsive to the relationship between students' issues and needs vis-à-vis different types of work experiences and the stages of ego development. At each stage, students have different capabilities for developing educational goals, using the structure of a particular program, and forming relationships with faculty and peers. Recognizing this fact, student employment practitioners can play a significant role in defining ego-stage appropriate work situations which correspond to the student's current stage of development and provide structured opportunities to make a transition to the next stage.

Hypothetical Relationships Between Ego Development Stages and Student Work Experiences

To identify the myriad components of a particular type of work experience is a complex task. In Table 1, we have constructed a hypothetical framework consisting of four major elements which are correlated with each stage of ego development. Table 1 aims to show how motives for working, the employer's role, student's job responsibilities, and the type of work setting can be linked to the various developmental stages.

While the majority of students enter college at the Conformist stage, those individuals at the Self-Protective stage may need the particular attention of student personnel practitioners in handling their adjustment to a college environment. According to Table 1, these students will probably be receptive to and benefit from work situations in which the employer is an authority figure who teaches specific tasks, prescribes clear parameters for the job, and provides correction-oriented supervision. The student will frequently see work as a necessity providing financial remuneration and little else in terms of emotional satisfaction. A job is something to be acquired as easily and quickly as possible. Challenges, career assets, and learning paths are all incidental to the primary motive—to get money to satisfy immediate needs. This student has neither the desire nor the energy to pursue a position that requires an extensive application and interview process. Regular hours, acceptable wages, clearly stated tasks that are well-defined and prioritized, an authority-figure supervisor available for questions and to correct mistakes—these are the requirements for the student in a self-protective mode. Meaning accrues on the job, strengths and weaknesses are unearthed, preferences emerge, increasing job complexity is tolerated and even at times welcomed. However, this is a growth process that

Table 1
Developmental Differences and Work Setting Dynamics

Ego Development	Motive for Work	Type of Work Setting	Job Characteristics	Employer (Supervisor Role)
Self-protective	To earn money to satisfy immediate needs. "How much does it pay?"	Part-time, including: food service, clerical, seasonal/summer retail, manual labor, other service occupations.	To learn specific tasks, understand the immediate work environment, learn to be a "worker."	To teach tasks, to prescribe parameters, to supervise through correcting performance.
Conformist	To prove competency to others, enhance credentials, increase marketability— "How will it look on my resume?"	Part-time career related, co-op, internships including: • Business • Government • Laboratories • Social Service organizations	To enhance repertoire of skills, realize place within the organization.	To shape student as worker through screening and communicating expectations and goals. Provide feedback through formal evaluation process.
Conscientious	To increase competency and meet social obligations. Desire to apply theoretical knowledge to "real world" experiences. Build a positive reputation. "What can I contribute?"	• Internships • Co-op • Part-time career-related	To develop an understanding of the organization's needs and to become a significant contributor.	To coach and challenge the student in order to fine-tune worker capabilities. Wean student from dependency on supervisor. Encourage co-workers as resources.
Autonomous	To learn more about oneself, to integrate personal knowledge in a uniquely meaningful way, to engage in the discovery process for its own ends. "What can I learn?"	• Fellowships • Independent Study	To initiate the learning process, to absorb and synthesize information and utilize for one's own edification.	To foster autonomy and provide the resources to be used by the student. To stimulate professionalism and insight.

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takes time to unfold. Because the primary motive for working at this stage is gratification of immediate needs (e. g., earning spending money), various part-time and college work-study settings are probably optimal.

Consider the experience of this 19 year-old student with an undeclared major:

> I knew I needed to work part-time during the school year to help pay for expenses and give me some extra spending money. So I talked to some of my friends, looked in the paper, and went to the student employment office at my university. There were lots of part-time jobs listed. I decided to take a sales position at a large department store in the mall near my home. I work one weekend day and one night a week. They completely trained me, and now I'm on the floor working the register, preparing merchandise, and helping customers with problems. It fits my needs perfectly at this time.

As students make the transition to the Conformist stage, there is a distinct shift in motivation for seeking employment. Concerned with proving their competency to others, students will probably prosper in work situations that meet their need to enhance their credentials and increase their marketability. In addition to a growing repertoire of skills, students at the Conformist stage will develop a sense of loyalty and organizational perspective. The employer's participation in this process becomes essential as expectations and goals are communicated and feedback is given to the student.

Consider the experience of a management major (age 21) who is employed as a customer service representative by a large utility company through their co-op program. The company offers a well-structured training program and carefully selects co-op supervisors who can communicate clear expectations, be available as resources, and provide valuable feedback on the student's performance. As a result, the student feels that:

> I have learned a great deal about electricity and how it works. I have more confidence in working with customers. I've improved

in my time management. It's important to do a job right even if it may take extra time. I've gained insight into my job by watching and listening to fellow employees and by asking questions and researching different manuals provided by the organization. My supervisor has worked with co-op students before and understands my position well.

The student's comments reflect his concern with enhancing and proving his competency while gaining substantive knowledge about the actual working of the organization. Simultaneously, shaping the student as a worker within a particular occupation and a given organization is central to the employer's role. As a result, part-time career-related jobs, initial cooperative education experiences, and internships can be instrumental in fostering student development at the Conformist stage.

At the Conscientious stage the student's motive for work is to achieve competence and to meet social responsibilities. There is a desire to add depth and dimension to academic studies, to learn in multiple settings, and to apply knowledge gleaned in the classroom. There is a greater impetus to test and explore career choices and to become more seasoned and graceful in assuming a variety of roles and responsibilities. A sense of urgency is seen by the practitioner. These students want to get on with the business of refining their knowledge and the skills they possess. They have a wish to be tested and validated. Propelled by their growing self-confidence and eagerness for adventures on the job, they seek experiences that will guide them into the future one where they are further accomplished and significant contributors. This stage is characterized by the acquisition of knowledge for the purpose of doing work and performing social functions more competently.

Consider the experience of an electrical engineering major employed as a technical trainee in a federal government agency. He states:

> Through the job I have gained general knowledge on radar systems, the components to being a good analyst, and communication skills that are vital to one's career.

My experience has exceeded my expectations. I am very pleased with the amount of responsibility and work that was given to me. My immediate supervisor, being a previous co-op student himself, understood my position and was very helpful and open when I had questions or needed advice.

The student comments enthusiastically on the excellence of his experience in terms of acquiring skill and expertise. He credits his employment with enhancing his academic experience by "providing me professional skills and qualities that are otherwise unobtainable in the classroom."

The employer's role at the Conscientious stage is to coach and challenge the student worker—to model and applaud successful behavior. At this stage, the employer can be viewed as fine-tuning worker capabilities, helping the student to become aware of approximations of achievement. At the same time, the employer becomes less primary, helping the student perceive colleagues as significantly helpful resources, thereby fostering greater autonomy.

The student's responsibilities are to gain a greater awareness of organizational needs and to contribute to the accomplishment of these implicit and explicit goals. These responsibilities are achieved through more extensive functioning within the organization. Targeted settings would ideally be internships, co-op, and part-time career related. The qualitative differences among companies and organizations are the key features in selecting appropriate placements. The student's sensibility is evolving, and the level of study and training ideally should just exceed his or her grasp.

Within the Autonomous stage, the student's motive is to deepen an understanding of the self, to uncover mysteries in his or her own psyche, to go back and learn what has always been fascinating or hard to grasp. Here the process of discovery may be its own goal. The employer acts as a facilitator to help the student confront paradoxes, and to appreciate meaningful differences and nuances. The employer fosters professionalism and insight. For the student, self-initiation of learning is primary.

An example of this kind of motivation and learning is exemplified in the words of a 23 year-old co-op student who described the importance of his work/learning experience as follows:

> The amount of learning that's taken place and the knowledge I've acquired have been incredible. I have been encouraged by my supervisor to make decisions which have fostered my independence, and this has been a prime motivator for me. But the biggest challenge I was seeking was simply being able to learn from my supervisor, my coworkers, from the environment. And the most meaningful insights I've had reflect what I've learned about myself and how I've grown as a person.

Standing on the brink of the Autonomous stage, this mature young man described the value of his co-op experience in terms of its impact on many facets of his life and his deep appreciation of learning for the sake of learning. At the Autonomous stage, one moves beyond the "expert" status by seeking new experiences, hoping to reach new levels and to develop new paradigms. Optimal settings for this ego stage include independent study courses and fellowships.

Issues and Implications

Now let's turn to issues that confront all student employment professionals—assessing students and evaluating the learning from each role perspective. Posing central questions lets us construct models that address the dynamics and rewards of varied employment programs. The importance of attempting to match the student's developmental stage with an appropriate work placement cannot be overemphasized.

The student's level of developmental readiness, the degree of responsibility associated with the job, the amount and kind of support offered by the supervisor, and the structure inherent in the position will be deciding factors that lead to recruitment and selection for different types of employment and learning. As student employment professionals we are in a unique position to render a match between the employer and job

seeker. Through awareness of the student's growth stage and the employer's stated needs, an appropriate context can be recommended, one that will promote learning and preparation for future growth.

The three-part questionnaire in the Appendix to this chapter should yield information valuable to all parties but is especially meaningful for the student employment professional who will try to effect the most desirable match between the student's ego stage and employment. This is not a comprehensive list of all pertinent questions. The individuals one works with will dictate other possible areas for exploration. As each student is different, so each setting has its own attributes and requirements. Therefore, there is a need to know what the agency or company does, its size, mission, product or service, the nature of the supervision, and location. A complete and thorough position description covering salient responsibilities, functions, knowledge required, and task complexities is essential for review by both the employment practitioner and the inquiring student. The size of the institution and amount of financial resources committed to its student employment programs will also partially dictate the attention given to students seeking part-time, part-time career-related, summer, co-op and/or internship possibilities. The school that offers a full range of employment alternatives is cognizant, in a proactive way, of the significant individual differences of its students and their resultant need for differing resources. Finally, after thorough discussion with the student and the employer, the administrator must synthesize this information.

As liaisons between the student and employer, it is the responsibility of student employment administrators and faculty to create matches which offer support and challenge to students. Our task is to foster the personal and professional growth of these individuals. Using the construct of ego development as a map for charting the various developmental steps can increase our appreciation of differences among students. As a result, we are more likely to communicate effectively and offer appropriate responses which promote the student's growth (Weathersby, 1981).

The concept of effective communication incorporates a number of key elements including that of "clear expectations." To make decisions about employment programs that best meet their needs, both students and employers need to clearly understand the parameters of the different programs available to them. Providing written guidelines and, when appropriate, work agreements, which outline the commitment of the employer, student, and institution, can effectively present the liaison's expectations. However, offering objective programmatic requirements is not enough. There must be opportunities for student employment liaisons to develop a dialogue with students which helps both parties to share important information about expectations, needs, and opportunities.

Challenge and Support

At George Mason University, we have discovered that the cornerstone of successful student employment programs is frequent personal communication with students. Through screening and information sessions, program orientations, individual student/coordinator appointments, and prework seminars, we not only facilitate students' awareness of various employment options but offer them support and challenge in their vocational decision making. In addition, our Cooperative Education Program coordinators conduct on-site visits with students and supervisors each work period. During these visits the coordinator assesses the quality and appropriateness of the work/learning experience, encourages shared feedback between the student and supervisor, facilitates problem resolution when necessary, and fosters a close working relationship between the employer and the university. During the visit, students are challenged to discuss the substance and quality of the work experience as well as the nature of their own professional growth.

With credit-bearing co-op programs and internships, faculty help students define their goals for a work/learning opportunity through the shared experience of developing a learning contract. They frequently conduct site visits and play an instrumental role in students' professional development through classes that specifically support and supplement an

internship or practicum experience. Being cognizant of the different stage of ego development and the attendant student-teacher relationships (Chickering, 1976) enhances the ability of faculty liaisons to help students identify their own motives and educational and vocational needs.

Evaluation

To evaluate work and learning experiences, four questions need to be addressed: (a) Who is being evaluated? (b) Who is performing the evaluation? (c) How is this information shared? (d) How is this information used? For the first two queries, it is tempting to reply simply that the student is being evaluated by the employer. However, student employment programs provide a uniquely dynamic triad between the employer, the student, and the institution. Each constituency has its expectations and makes a contribution to the relative success of the work experience with one of many goals being the educational and vocational development of the student. It is, therefore, essential that all three groups be involved in the evaluation and feedback loop.

Through the use of written evaluations, on-site visits, and post-work seminars, students are able to recommend alterations to their work situations. Students should also be solicited for feedback about programmatic changes. Having various forums for giving feedback, students tend to develop commitment to the employer and to the program. They also take responsibility for initiating change within these organizations since they are empowered with a sense of control over their environment(s). In addition, it is preferable for students to receive feedback from their supervisors more than once during the work period. A typical feedback format could include (a) an oral assessment of the student's performance immediately following the initial two to three weeks of work; (b) a written evaluation (format provided by the institution, the employer, or both) after completion of the first half of the work assignment; and (c) an exit interview in which both the supervisor and student share their evaluations of the work experience and discuss desired changes in the student's position, if appropriate. Direct, open,

two-way communication tends to engender commitment, participation, and greater self-awareness for everyone involved.

In the same vein, on-site visits and employer appraisals provide the institution with highly useful information about the student's academic readiness. Information shared with the employment program administrator can also enhance policies and procedures. Employer-faculty roundtable discussions and advisory boards also promote a valuable exchange of information. Specifically, an advisory board provides an excellent forum for identifying and addressing issues related to the effective operation of a particular employment program. Comprised ideally of six to twelve individuals, the board should include faculty, administrators, student representatives, and employers who are actively involved with the institution. Some typical goals and responsibilities of the board members might include the following:

♦ Providing advice/support and making recommendations about the operations and needs of the employment program

♦ Discussing student employment issues which are germane to the program

♦ Serving as advocates within the community-at-large to actively promote the program thereby enhancing its visibility and subsequent use by students and employers.

Roundtable discussions among faculty, employers, and students also offer all constituencies an opportunity to address such topics as:

♦ The compatibility between a given curriculum and the skills/knowledge actually required to perform certain jobs

♦ How the institution is preparing students for the world-of-work through student development experiences as well as course offerings

♦ The students' feedback on learning within the classroom and the work place.

While institutions and employing organizations necessarily have to operate within certain privacy constraints, information provided through mutual evaluation can still be used to improve and strengthen existing programs and work experiences.

To optimize the value of employer and faculty feedback to the student, it is useful to consider Chickering's model of stage-appropriate method of evaluation (1976) in which the judgements move from external to internal. To summarize:

1. *Self-protective stage*—evaluation by supervisor and faculty member alone

2. *Conformist*—evaluation by supervisor; can include input from peers or other "significant" workers as student moves through stage

3. *Conscientious*—evaluation by the system at-large as in standardized appraisal formats

4. *Autonomous*—evaluation by all sources with an emphasis on student self-evaluation.

By recognizing developmental differences in students' motives for working, supervisors and faculty can offer feedback in a manner that corresponds to the students' needs and orientations. It is important to consider students' objectivity for seeking employment in terms of such issues as their concern for maximum personal growth or personal comfort, their risk-taking ability, and the energy they are willing to commit to an employment experience. By understanding the student's position on these issues at the outset, faculty and supervisors can determine the appropriate process and content for meaningful feedback. For instance, the weight given to self versus employer evaluation will differ significantly depending on the student's stage of ego development. An individual at the Conformist stage will provide evaluation of his/her performance which tends to reflect consistency with organizational norms while self-evaluation at the Autonomous stage will be characterized by introspection.

Finding ways of getting employers to invest in a student development feedback model represents an important challenge to student employment administrators. We believe that it is essential to educate employers about the benefits of stage appropriate evaluation. These benefits include enhanced work performance by the student, effective communication between student and supervisor, greater motivation and organizational loyalty, and student progress on moving to the next level of ego development. Work agreements, learning contracts, employer briefing sessions, evaluation forms, and site visits serve as tools to be used with employers in this important educational process.

Conclusion

How a college responds to differences in motivation and approaches to learning deriving from variations in ego development will significantly influence the educational and developmental outcome for each learner/worker. Weathersby (1981) states that any experience that brings awareness to one's real preferences, abiding interests and strengths helps to establish sound ego identity. Truly, this seems to be the mission, albeit many times unstated, of teaching institutions. We believe that knowledge of developmental issues can help educators to react and respond to their students effectively. Recognition of significant individual differences is a first important step.

We advocate learning through job tasks that are congruent with the developmental readiness of each student. Toward this end we need a more conscious use of educational work settings. A broadly conceived range of a variety of employment options should be available to the professional who works closely with students seeking new experiences and new roles. By recognizing the developmental differences in students' motives and orientations we can develop systematic evaluation practices, and provide guidance to employers to do the same, that best serve learners at their respective levels of development.

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Appendix:

Frank/Robinson Employment Readiness Survey

Questions for the Student

1. What is your year in school?

2. Have you declared a major and if so, what is it?

3. What is your level of coursework, especially within your major? Which courses do you enjoy most? Why?

4. What is your degree of financial need? Are you presently receiving an aid package?

5. Are you a commuter or resident on-campus?

6. Do you have a car or access to reliable public transportation?

7. What extracurricular activities and interests are you pursuing?

8. What are your present career goals? (NOTE: How articulate is the student in describing these?)

9. How motivated are you? For example, why do you want a co-op job?

10. What is your present level of commitment/stamina/persistence vis a vis doing job research, negotiating the application process, interviewing, and general follow-through?

11. Who referred you?

    a) a friend/colleague
    b) parent or other family member
    c) professor
    d) an educational program administrator

12. What are the most important characteristics of your ideal job?

13. How will this job influence your future career plans?

14. What would the ideal supervisor be like? How would he/she respond to you?

15. How simple or complex do you want the tasks to be?

16. To what extent do you want to have ownership for all or part of any project?

17. What is the greatest benefit you see in acquiring this position?

Questions for the Employer

1. Should the student have a declared major?

2. How advanced in coursework should the student be?

3. What specialized training should already be completed?

4. What training is available by your staff?

5. What professional development activities will be offered?

6. What formal feedback channels exist?

7. How is the student's job performance evaluated in-house?

8. What possibilities exist for promotions over time?

9. What is the range of responsibilities you will expect of the student employee?

10. What is the probability of the student working autonomously?

11. Do you expect the student to be a "self-starter" requiring little in the way of formal supervision? Please explain.

12. Does the work environment consist of exact procedures that must be learned and followed precisely? Please explain.

13. How do you define initiative for this position? What constitutes "above and beyond" performance?

14. In your role as supervisor, do you see yourself as: (check all that apply)

    a) a person who sets tasks and affixes deadlines
    b) a teacher/trainer
    c) one who delegates
    d) one resource among many
    e) a mentor/guide/coach?
    f) other

15. What are the process and outcome goals for this position? What objectives must be met to view the match as successful?

16. How do you reward accomplishments?

Questions for the Administrator

1. How much structure does the student need?

2. How much of a time commitment is required by the program and/or employer?

3. How much energy is required to train the student?

4. What is the objective degree of job difficulty or complexity? What is the subjective degree of job difficulty given student's level of skill functioning and motivation?

5. What level of functioning is required at the start?

6. Does progress need to be closely monitored? If yes, how will this occur?

7. What family encouragement exists for undertaking the work opportunity?

8. What is the student's present ego stage?

9. What would constitute a "good" or appropriate match between this particular student and this specific employer? What is an optimal connection? What is a loose fit?

CHAPTER 2

Career Decision-Making Benefits of College Student Employment

Darrell Anthony Luzzo

In addition to the consistently cited academic benefits associated with college student employment (Augenblick, Van de Water, & Associates, 1987; Hammes & Haller, 1983; Healy, O'Shea, & Crook, 1985; Ma, 1984; Stern & Nakata, 1991), recent empirical investigations have provided clear evidence of an important link between student employment and indices of effective career decision making. Researchers interested in determining the relationship between college student employment and the career decision-making process have examined the impact of full- and part-time employment on several career development variables, including job satisfaction, career maturity, and career locus of control.

The late Donald Super, whose theory of career and life development is one of the most widely researched theories in the field, emphasized the importance of student employment and related activities in the career decision-making process. Super (1957) believed that exploratory experiences are critical facets of effective career decision making that ultimately lead to the development of important career decision-making skills. Super recommended that jobs obtained during the exploration stage of career development provide opportunities for students to experience a variety of work settings and job tasks. He conceptualized student employment as providing young adults with the chance to "reality test" a

variety of work environments (Kane, Healy, & Henson, 1992).

As Luzzo and Ward (1995) recently explained, "Earning while learning provides the student with both financial assistance to help meet college expenses and practical experience which may lead to enhanced opportunities for employment after college graduation" (p. 307). Recent research has helped clarify some of the specific benefits of college student employment in the career decision-making domain. Findings from such studies consistently indicate that the degree to which employment experiences tend to enhance the career decision-making process for college students may depend, at least in part, on how similar or *congruent* a part- or full-time job is with an individual's career interests and aspirations (Kane et al., 1992; Luzzo, 1995; Luzzo, McWhirter, & Hutcheson, 1996; Luzzo & Ward, 1995).

The concept of career-related *congruence* stems from John Holland's (1985) theory of careers. According to Holland, *congruence* refers to the match between an individual's vocational personality (i.e., likes and dislikes, career aspirations) and a particular work environment. Individuals in a congruent state are those who seek and secure occupations that are directly related to their personality type, whereas individuals in

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an incongruent state are those whose occupations are unrelated to their vocational personalities. Holland believes that occupational satisfaction, stability, and achievement depend on the degree to which a particular work environment is congruent with a person's vocational type.

Recent investigations designed to evaluate the role of college student employment in the career decision-making process have primarily examined the relationship between college student employment and job satisfaction, career maturity, and career locus of control. Results of these studies have provided substantial evidence that certain types of employment experiences—especially those that are congruent with career interests and aspirations—appear to provide college students with several vocational advantages.

Job Satisfaction

In their comprehensive investigation of the relationship between college student employment and job satisfaction, Kane et al. (1992) distributed a survey to more than 5000 undergraduates attending a large, urban university in the West. Students were asked a series of questions such as: "How satisfied are you with your current job? Is your current job related to your long-range career goals? Have you experienced difficulty in finding employment?" Of the 1,438 students who responded to the survey, 61% reported that they were employed at the time they completed the survey. Of those students currently employed, only 15% indicated that they held jobs closely related to their college majors, and only 16% indicated that they held jobs closely related to their career aspirations.

As expected, results revealed that the respondents who held jobs that were congruent with their career interests were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than students who worked in positions that were unrelated to their interests. Descriptive analyses also showed that students employed in engineering, health care, teaching, laboratory, and computer-related occupations were significantly more likely to have jobs congruent with their career aspirations than were students employed in bookkeeping, clerical, delivery, and food service occupations. As

such, students employed in the former fields were also significantly more likely to report high levels of job satisfaction.

Another interesting finding reported by Kane et al. (1992) was the presence of a significant relationship between year in college and level of job congruency. Seniors and juniors were more likely than first- and second-year students to be employed in jobs congruent with their career interests. Students at all levels expressed dissatisfaction with the lack of job opportunities in fields directly associated with career aspirations. Sixty-four percent of all respondents reported that a major obstacle to securing employment during college was the fact that there were few jobs available that they preferred.

Career Maturity

Career maturity is one of the most widely researched aspects of the career development of college students (Savickas, 1984). It encompasses the readiness of a student to make age-appropriate career decisions and cope with a variety of career decision-making tasks and activities (King, 1990). Although there are several different ways of conceptualizing career maturity, the most substantial attention in the career development literature has been given to John Crites's (1971) model.

According to Crites (1971), career maturity consists of both affective and cognitive components. The affective domain of career maturity is best characterized as a person's attitudes toward making career decisions. Career-related attitudes are expectations that influence the interpretation of career experiences and play an important role in the accomplishment of career decision-making tasks (Healy et al., 1985). The cognitive domain of career maturity is represented by career choice competencies, such as an individual's knowledge of career decision-making principles and her or his ability to exhibit effective problem-solving strategies when solving career-related dilemmas. Research with college student populations has consistently supported the idea that career maturity consists of both affective and cognitive components (Healy, 1991; Jepsen & Prediger, 1981).

The importance of career maturity among college students has been underscored by numerous investigations within the past 15 years consistently linking career maturity with various characteristics associated with effective career decision making. Significant, positive relationships have been observed between career maturity and academic achievement (Healy et al., 1985), self-esteem (Khan & Alvi, 1983), and career self-efficacy (Luzzo, 1993).

In a recent study designed to evaluate the relationship between college student employment and career maturity, Luzzo (1995) asked 134 undergraduates at a large Midwestern community college to indicate their current occupation and their career aspiration and to respond to a series of demographic questions. Participants also completed two different measures of career maturity, the Attitude Scale of the Career Maturity Inventory (Crites, 1978) and the Decision Making Scale of the Career Development Inventory (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981). The degree of congruence (i.e., relationship) between each student's current occupation and career aspiration was determined by calculating a congruence index that has been utilized in several investigations with college students (Iachan, 1984). Higher congruence scores indicated a stronger relationship between an individual's current occupation and her or his career interests and aspirations.

Results of the investigation indicated a significant, positive relationship between occupation-aspiration congruence and both the affective and cognitive measures of career maturity. In other words, students whose employment during college was related to their career aspirations were more likely to possess mature attitudes toward the career decision-making process and to display a general knowledge of career decision-making principles and problem-solving strategies than their peers whose employment was unrelated to their aspirations.

Career Locus of Control

Relationships between college student employment and measures of sociocognitive functioning have also been recently evaluated by vocational psychologists (Luzzo et al., 1996; Luzzo & Ward, 1995). These studies have primarily focused on the relationship between student employment and career locus of control, a construct based on Julian Rotter's (1966) locus of control concept.

As conceptualized by Rotter (1966), locus of control describes the extent to which individuals consider themselves to be in control of the sources of reinforcement in their lives. Those with an internal locus of control are likely to take both an active role in the direction of their lives and personal responsibility for their actions. In terms of career decision making, students with an internal career locus of control are more likely to be involved actively in career development activities and more likely to take responsibility for making career decisions and gathering information necessary to make such decisions (Taylor, 1982). An internal career locus of control has been linked to greater involvement in career exploration activities (Blustein, 1989), higher levels of career decisiveness (Taylor & Popma, 1990), and higher levels of career maturity (Luzzo, 1995). Students with an external career locus of control, on the other hand, tend to believe that career development is primarily influenced by uncontrollable factors (i.e., chance or fate). Such students are unlikely to engage in appropriate information-gathering and career-exploration activities (Luzzo et al., 1996).

It has been hypothesized that college students who are employed in occupations congruent with their career interests and aspirations are more likely to possess an internal career locus of control than students who are employed in occupations that are unrelated to their career interests and aspirations. This is primarily expected because students who take the time and expend the amount of effort necessary to obtain employment experiences congruent with their career interests and aspirations are exhibiting the type of behavior indicative of persons who believe that their efforts are meaningful and effective. Such individuals are likely to possess an internal career locus of control, signifying the belief that effort and persistence contribute to career success.

This hypothesis was recently evaluated (Luzzo & Ward, 1995) by asking students attending a

small liberal arts university in the Midwest to complete an established measure of career locus of control (Trice, Haire, & Elliott, 1989) and indicate their current occupation and career aspiration. As expected, results revealed a significant relationship between aspiration-occupation congruence and career locus of control. The more congruent a student's career aspiration and part- or full-time occupation, the more internal her or his career locus of control was likely to be. In other words, students who were working in occupations that were directly related to their career aspirations (e.g., students who aspired to be medical doctors working in hospitals or medical clinics) were more likely to believe that career decision making is a controllable process for which they are personally responsible compared to students who were working in occupations unrelated to their aspirations.

Luzzo et al. (1996) recently extended this line of research by analyzing differences in career locus of control between three types of undergraduates attending a regional university in the South: (a) students who were unemployed, (b) students who were employed in congruent situations (i.e., working in jobs that were related to their career interests), and (c) students who were employed in incongruent situations (i.e., employed in occupations that were not related to their career interests). Results of the study indicated more of an internal career locus of control among working students than among unemployed students. Furthermore, as in previous research, the career locus of control of participants was most internal among those whose occupations were congruent with their career interests.

Summary of Research Findings and Implications for Student Employment Administrators

The results of research evaluating the benefits of college student employment clearly demonstrate the importance of student employment experiences in the career decision-making process. Investigations conducted within the past few years with students from different regions of the country attending a variety of colleges and universities have consistently revealed that students who are able to obtain jobs that are related to their career interests and aspirations are more likely to experience certain vocational advantages than their peers who are not working in congruent occupations. As revealed in this chapter, these vocational advantages include higher levels of job satisfaction and career maturity and a stronger belief in the notion that career decision making is within an individual's control (i.e., an internal career locus of control).

Although employment opportunities that are congruent with the career aspirations of most college students may be challenging to identify and secure, student employment administrators and their colleagues need to make a concerted effort to explore creative and effective methods of integrating work experiences into the career planning process. Employment opportunities that are congruent with college students' career interests and aspirations will undoubtedly provide students with valuable opportunities for career exploration. As research has consistently shown, congruent work experiences may play an integral role in helping students develop more mature attitudes toward career development and obtain the decision-making skills that are required for satisfying career choices.

Super's (1957) statement made 40 years ago is as relevant today as it was then: Part- and full-time jobs provide valuable opportunities for students to experience a variety of work settings and job tasks, allowing them to "reality test" potentially long-term work environments. In addition to the financial benefits of employment during college, occupational experiences often play an important role in the career decision-making process. It is no surprise, then, that researchers and practitioners alike have emphasized the importance of college student employment in the broader context of career development (Healy et al., 1985; Kane et al., 1992; Luzzo, 1995).

Results of recent research in this domain emphasize the need for business and industry to provide a wide variety of work experiences for college students, enabling them to obtain part- and full-time work that is more congruent with their career interests and aspirations. Results also

underscore the importance of cooperative learning arrangements and internship programs that provide students with the opportunity to try out various career options during their college years. Pascarella and Staver (1985) have gone so far as to suggest that national employment agencies and associations become involved with the development of quality employment opportunities for college students, recognizing that such programs may significantly benefit students' career development.

A Call for Additional Research

As vocational psychologists and student affairs professionals have repeatedly suggested (Goldstein & High, 1992; Greenhaus, Hawkins, & Brenner, 1983; Healy & Mourton, 1987; Kane et al., 1982), substantially more attention needs to be directed toward college student employment and an evaluation of its career decision-making benefits. There is no question that additional research in this area is warranted and, in fact, critical to our understanding and awareness of the role that college student employment plays in the broader context of career development. Future research should explore other potential career decision-making benefits of college student employment (e.g., career commitment, career indecision) among diverse student populations as we continue to determine effective methods for integrating employment experiences into the career development process.

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Chapter 3

The Student Employment Professional—An Emerging Partner in Student Success

Lee Noel

Not too long ago it was common for advisors to counsel students against working on campus during their freshman year. The prevailing opinion was that freshmen needed time to become accustomed to the responsibilities of classes and college life, and to learn to manage their time effectively before taking on the responsibilities of a part-time job. Becoming a student employee too soon, the thinking went, would be overwhelming. It would jeopardize students academically and set them up to fail—and ultimately to leave the college or university.

Recent research is showing us that this is not the case at all. We are discovering that, far from contributing to attrition, allowing freshmen to work on campus *yields bigger retention rates*. In other words, student employment, if organized and administered properly, can be a very powerful retention strategy, a means of ensuring student success and persistence on campus.

Before examining why this is the case, it is important for us to look at the factors which are generally linked with retention. The classic study by Beal and Noel entitled *What Works in Student Retention* (1980) surveyed individuals considered to be most knowledgeable about student retention at 947 two-year and four-year institutions. Respondents were asked to rank the importance to retention of numerous posi-

tive characteristics, using a scale from 1-5 (with 5 being high). The top four factors which emerged from this study were the following:

- ◆ caring attitude of faculty and staff (4.29)

- ◆ high quality teaching (3.90)

- ◆ adequate financial aid (3.69)

- ◆ student involvement in campus (3.30).

It probably goes without saying that most colleges and universities would recognize the strong influence they have on the first three of these areas. The institutions are responsible for the hiring and training of staff, for example; they can choose to emphasize and reward excellent teaching (or not do so); and they can decide to allocate a greater or smaller percentage of the budget to financial aid, and redefine how to distribute it. All of these fall within the traditional responsibilities of colleges and universities, and few people would argue that the institution can have a pronounced influence on retention in these respects.

The institution's role may not initially be as evident in regard to the fourth item—student involvement on campus. Involvement is a critical component of the student's success in and

satisfaction with the collegiate experience, and these in turn contribute to retention.

But gaining broad-based involvement is difficult. Time and time again, the same students participate and get involved and become part of the fabric of campus life while the vast majority of students are at best marginally involved with the institution. It is precisely this non-involvement that is related to attrition.

Administrators nationwide express great frustration over the fact that the very students who complain of "nothing to do" or of feeling distant from the campus experience never take advantage of the rich and diverse menu of out-of-class opportunities available on campus.

Traditionally, the institution has played a fairly passive role—that is, left it up to the individual student to take the initiative to get involved. But in fact the college or university can play an essential role in helping students become involved and engaged in campus life—and it is in the institution's best interest to do so. Theoretical research, bolstered by campus-based experience, provides strong evidence for the case that institutions must take the lead in structuring opportunities for students to become involved with the institution.

Two of the most powerful trends today in retention efforts, in fact, are directly connected to this issue of student involvement. The first of these is the freshman success course which extends orientation throughout the student's first term. These courses help students negotiate the new terrain of academic life and provide them with guidance and support to get them connected to the new environment.

The second powerful trend, and the primary focus of our discussion, is student employment. In searching for a ready and effective vehicle to increase the frequency and intensity of student involvement, campus administrators in ever-increasing numbers are turning toward student employment as an answer.

The benefits of student employment on campus are many. With campus jobs, students automatically become involved with the campus.

Student employees don't have to seek out activities or affinity groups. Their student employment provides them with an easy way of belonging, a natural "tie in" to at least one office on the campus. This contributes to a sense of being on the inside, having insights about and access to people that others don't have. Students often feel as though they have somewhat preferred or "VIP" status as a result of their on-campus employment.

Students who provide critical services and assistance within individual offices can readily see the magnitude of the contribution they are making to the institution. The feeling of being a contributor further heightens their sense of identification with and involvement in the institution, resulting in increased commitment to the college or university.

Campus work supervisors are ideally positioned to be highly effective "retention agents" for the students who work with them. In fact, students often say it is their work supervisor who knows them best—better than any teacher or advisor on campus. The best-of-the-best supervisors become proxy "moms and dads" to dozens of students (and over the years, to hundreds and even thousands of them). For many students this relationship prominently figures in their decision to return to campus each fall.

Recent research supports these numerous benefits of campus employment. Stern and Nakata (1991) discovered the following: working does not lower grades; grades improve when the job is related to a student's academic program; the more hours the student works in a campus job the more likely the student is to persist and participate in graduate study; and former student workers earn more than their counterparts the first five years after graduation. Stem and Nakata also discovered, incidentally, that the number of hours students spent in off-campus jobs was negatively associated with persistence.

Dennis (1988) found that student employment programs not only offer the advantage of productive work for students; they also increase a student's chance of completing college. Dennis surveyed 100 financial aid administrators from colleges and universities across the country

representing 172,055 first-year students (and total enrollment of 833,790 students). The findings of this study indicated that working during the freshman year does indeed have a "positive impact on first-year students because it provides students with an inside view of the school." Dennis concluded that "working involves students with the activities of the university and provides social contact. Employment also teaches students how to better manage their time and can, at some schools, provide career-related job experiences" (p. 38).

Often, students who have substantial academic skill-building needs are precluded from having campus jobs. This may be changing, and evidence such as that from the Learning Center at Indiana University of Pennsylvania may prompt further change. The Center allowed freshmen with academic deficiencies and other educational and personal support needs to become part of the College Work Study (CWS) program—with very positive results. For example, 74% of the student responses indicated that "the job was assisting them in learning skills that would be helpful in future employment." Also, 83% of the students stated that the job did not interfere with their study time. And 96% of the campus employers felt the program was highly successful (Ender, p. 177).

In short, studies confirm that on-campus employment (and it is important to stress on-campus here) can be a highly successful learning and social experience for students, as well as a powerful retention tool for the institution—providing it is a successful experience. Certainly this takes some concerted anticipation and planning as well as effort and monitoring on the part of administrators at the institution. Carefully managed student employment, especially at the freshman level, can be similar in impact to the kind of involvement that extending orientation through freshman success courses provides.

This is where student employment professionals have a critical role to play. *First, they are in the position to ensure that students benefit fully from the work experience.* Working directly with prospective student employees, student employment professionals match students and jobs on the basis of the students' interests and skills. They

can also underscore the connection between campus work and students' career development, helping students see that the skills, responsibilities, and work attitudes which they both bring to and develop during their campus work have a distinct bearing upon their work after graduation. During and even after the completion of a campus assignment, students can be helped by student employment professionals to translate their successful campus experience into terms that will have meaning beyond the campus.

Second, through their role as coordinator of student work on campus, student employment professionals are in a position to ensure that students participate in a high-quality work experience. To ensure that the student work experience is beneficial to all parties involved, the coordinator must assume an active role with potential supervisors. This means the following:

1. Helping them "ready" their respective offices and the people working there for student employees

2. Developing office-specific training which includes sensitizing new student employees to particular issues (e.g. confidentiality of information)

3. Underscoring with supervisors that students are capable of meeting and even exceeding performance expectations, when expectations are properly set.

Third, student employment professionals are in a position to see that the institution receives real value for the resources it invests in student employment. Because so many student jobs on campus place them in a direct, front-line position (whether in person or over the phone), these jobs provide multiple occasions to represent the institution to key internal and external publics—campus administrators, prospective students and their parents, other current students, or even potential donors. This means that such interactions, while usually short, are powerful opportunities for the institution to sustain and reinforce its image.

Such interactions also contribute to the general climate of the institution and should be in

keeping with institutional goals. The student employment professionals who are able to connect their student work program with such goals (e.g., retention, productivity, sensitivity to diverse populations, quality service, quality performance) have taken an important step in creating a positive situation for current students, prospective students, and the institution as a whole.

If quality service to all constituents is a priority, for example, it will be an expectation for all campus employees—including student employees—that they learn to "go the extra mile." This then becomes part of the normal routine rather than the exception. The attitudes student employees ideally bring to their campus work— responsiveness, approachability, and understanding—put them first in line to influence other students and thus act as retention agents in their own right.

Responsibility for pre-employment training for students is often dispersed or non-existent on campuses today. Yet this is a critical task which ideally could be coordinated by the student employment administrator. Training is the ideal vehicle to communicate to students key understandings about the importance of their work, and alert them to the fact that no matter how small or insignificant their task may seem, campus jobs are real jobs. As such, campus jobs contribute to the larger goals of the institution as a whole.

The use of student employees in key front-line jobs around campus may actually increase as budgetary cutbacks snowball on hundreds of campuses across the nation. Today, many institutions report that necessary daily tasks once completed by full-time staff members are now becoming the responsibility of part-time student employees. While they have always been important to the work of a college or university, student employees are thus an especially vital resource today.

When it comes to retaining students, intrusive, proactive strategies must be used at all institutional levels to reach new students before they experience feelings of failure, or disappointment. Professionals in the areas of student employment and financial aid are in a position to

reach many students potentially at risk of dropping out. Student employment on campus may be a nearly ideal strategy for helping these students become a part of the fabric of the institution, with the resulting growth in confidence, competence, and commitment to the institution which that encourages. As institutions realize the benefits of student employment, many are putting increasing numbers of students to work—including those students most at risk.

Student employment is more than financial aid—it provides students with the social benefits, with the opportunity for involvement, and with the inherent pressure to better manage their time. In the long run it provides students not only with experience, but also with increased confidence in their ability to tackle significant tasks and relate well to many different types of people in the world of work after graduation. While providing such benefits for students, student employment simultaneously provides the institution with a high quality, responsible, and energetic part-time work force— with all the benefits which that implies.

Improving retention requires an institution-wide focus, and the student employment professional, along with the financial aid professional, are emerging partners in ensuring student success and persistence on campus. In the long run, student on-campus employment can dramatically bolster the total learning experience for students and yield greater revenue potential for the institution. At the center of all of this is the student employment professional, serving a pivotal and invaluable role both in the lives of the students and in the success of the institution.

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Chapter 4

Financing A College Education: Are Students Too Dependent On Borrowing?

Sheri S. Williams and Frank Newman

America's college students and their parents have drifted into borrowing as a way to finance the high costs of a college or university education. Although as many as 60 to 70% of students may be employed at some point in their college career, the hard reality is that student employment is no longer the core means of financing an education. A typical case in point is Brandeis University where students are switching to increased indebtedness as much as they can in order to pay their bills at registration (L. Watson, personal communication, 1990).

Student aid as a whole has seen a clear shift toward loans. Originally, loans were seen as a small part of financial aid. Loans filled in the gaps when other forms—primarily work, savings, and grants—didn't cover everything. Yet in the last decade alone, the percent of aid in the form of loans has risen from 40 to 49% (Hansen, 1990). There are several reasons for this dramatic change. One is that we are in a period of time in which college students are seeing sharply rising costs. Tuition and other basic student charges have increased well in excess of inflation. Inflation in the costs of books, equipment, federal regulations, new construction, lowered teaching loads, more administrative functions, and growth in faculty salaries have all contributed to the rise.

At the same time, federal assistance to students is declining. Grant aid fell from 56 to 48% of all available aid during the 1980s (Hansen, 1990). It is not surprising then, in this atmosphere of rising costs and declining aid, that students and their parents are finding themselves under added pressure to borrow a bigger and bigger share of the overall costs of college. While there are some distinct advantages to student loans, there is no question that loans are a burden which students will have with them when they graduate.

Decreasing the Debt

We need to find more effective ways to help students and their families avoid the consequences of double-digit debt upon graduation. The problem lies in two tasks. One is shifting the nation's policy focus from loans to grants. If we believe that Americans in all walks of life should be saving more, then we should rethink our system of student aid. Starting students out in their post-college life with large loans—as a matter of government policy—hardly encourages the concept of savings. Also, loans don't generate the values which we want students to develop. Students learn that college is to be viewed as a way to a high income, not to a satisfying career or a life of service. An overreliance on student loans

serves neither our college students nor the public well.

The second task is to increase the earning potential of college students, particularly in the service sector where wages are routinely low. Some progress is being made. For instance, the Department of Education now provides for partial forgiveness of student loans for those students who serve as paid employees of a tax-exempt service organization (D. Bumpers, personal correspondence, June 15, 1990). Yet even this strategy has its drawbacks. Remember that the federal government currently subsidizes loans while encouraging work at the minimum wage. Clearly, much more needs to be done by all sectors of society—public, private, and non-profit alike. It is easy to say there is a need for meaningful work and service, but the question is how do we go about creating more opportunities to meet the need? It is here that we should focus the conversation.

Raising the Value of Work

There will always be a handful of entrepreneurial students who understand the value of working while learning. However, student employment is not as widely valued as it should be by parents or even by the students themselves. (In contrast, business leaders, in a recent survey, saw work experience as more valuable than high grades.) Work is commonly viewed as an alternative for those who are ineligible for traditional sources of grants and aid, or as a way to rescue students who are on the brink of dropping out. Thus work has become a supplement to, rather than an integral part of, the college experience.

Such attitudes toward work are hard to explain in a nation that has traditionally embraced the work ethic. Yet there seems to be an assumption today that work will divert students from the real task of learning. This fear is ungrounded. Part-time work does not interfere with academic work. In fact, there is sufficient evidence that students who work are more likely to persist academically than non-workers (Van de Water & Augenblick, 1987).

Work needs to be seen as part of the total educational process—as a way to round out the student's personal, educational, and career development. With better access to information about how to succeed in college while working, students will be more likely to match their personal learning needs with the needs of the workplace. (Strategies for student employment are collected in Hawes, 1985.)

Changing Expectations

Before any change in attitude toward work can occur, educators themselves must stop underestimating the ability of the student to carry out challenging work and study assignments. College professors across the country expect far too little from the undergraduate student. On campus, where the norm is the lecture, professors tend to view the student as incapable of reflection and initiative. When this happens, the student's worth and potential are diminished.

Educators are not alone in their doubts about the capacity of college students to manage work and study. Business also needs to expand its expectations of the college student. While some businesses are beginning to recognize the benefits of hiring college students, few know how to take advantage of this ready source of workers. At the Education Commission of the States, we are pushing to hire more interns who are pursuing advanced degrees. The result has been a steady infusion of bright people from diverse backgrounds who bring new perspectives to the organization. For business, students can be a smart source of potential employment. (See, for example, student employment statistics in *Business Week*, 1988.)

Adding a Reflective Component

There is one more issue that needs to be raised. We need to enhance the student's work experience by adding a learning component to the job. When work is coupled with a reflective component, the benefits of student employment are greatly enhanced.

Notable examples of successful work and learning experiences need to be publicized more

broadly—such as the experiential program at Goddard College in Plainfield, Vermont, which brings students under the influence of mentors who would otherwise be unknown to the student. Other prime examples include the federal college work-study programs at institutions like Hahnemann University in Pennsylvania and Monterey Peninsula College in California. In addition to these initiatives, we also need to recognize efforts like the program in Greeley, Colorado, where a hospital is offering to pay nursing students' college tuition in return for a commitment to work at the hospital.

Such programs provide students with benefits that extend beyond the temporal goal of building a portfolio. (For a profile of employed students, see McCartan, 1988.) When students are employed in meaningful work, they learn important workplace skills and attitudes like teamwork, responsibility, leadership, and good citizenship—skills that are too infrequently rewarded in the college classroom.

Opportunities for employment in the public and private sectors are so much in need by today's college students. We need to do all we can to raise student employability and lower the huge debts that college students must now shoulder to earn a college degree.

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Section 2

Research on Student Employment

Chapter 5
National Student Employment Survey: Why Students Choose to Work and their Perceptions of the Academic Year Work Experience

Yuko Mulugetta and Dennis Chavez

In the spring of 1992, in conjunction with 19 other institutions and with the support of the National Association of Student Employment Administrators (NASEA) Sponsored Research Grant Program, we administered a student employment questionnaire to over 13,000 students across the country. The objective of the research project was to duplicate Cornell University's study, which obtained information about students' perceptions of their academic year work experience and characteristics of their work, and to highlight some of the reasons why students choose to work. The following is a brief summary of the methodology used in administering the survey and the findings of this project. Since the scope of this project did not include a cause and effect analysis of the students' responses, our findings highlight areas which showed significant differences in the frequency of the students' responses.

School Selection and Development of Final Instrument

In order to collect data which would be representative of institutions across the country, NASEA's regional representatives were contacted and asked to help us identify potential school participants. Our objective was to solicit participation from public and private schools, to obtain regional representation from rural and urban set-

tings, and a variety of school types. Approximately 50 schools were identified via our communication with NASEA representatives; 21 agreed to participate (see Table 1 on page 49).

Participating schools were expected to commit a significant portion of their time and resources to the administration of the survey. Specifically, all schools were required to administer their own surveys, including utilizing their own funds to cover postage and staffing costs. Although we were able to offer assistance to two schools from NASEA's research grant, three schools were lost because of their inability to administer the survey. Unfortunately, one of these schools was the only community college that initially agreed to participate. Since the instrument used in this study was the questionnaire developed for Cornell University, contact people from each participating school were asked to review the questionnaire to insure that the questions were relevant to respondents from different employment situations.

Administration of Instrument

Procedures were mailed to all participating institutions detailing the steps and the timeframe to be used in drawing the student sample, administering the questionnaire, completing the follow-up and collecting the data.

In summary, each school was given a sample size which was calculated after the enrollment figure of eligible students was supplied from each school. Once sample sizes were calculated (see Figure 1 on page 49) schools were instructed to select their student samples and administer the questionnaire randomly. Corresponding numbers of questionnaires and other materials were supplied to the participating schools. Schools were also instructed to code each student's questionnaire in order to track completed questionnaires, follow up for non-respondents, and enable each school to collect additional student information as needed.

Finally, in order to obtain a higher student response, we made it known to the students surveyed that a random drawing would be held from the completed questionnaires, and three $100 NASEA prizes would be awarded from the completed questionnaires returned. Overall, our return rate was 34% (see Table 2 on page 50). Three winning prizes were awarded during the summer 1992 to the students enrolled at the University of Southern Mississippi, Syracuse University, and Berry College.

Overview of Results

Reasons Students Choose Not To Work

The main reasons students choose not to work appear to be a need to devote more time to studies and conflict between class time and work schedules. Respondents from metropolitan campuses seem to be more affected by class schedule conflicts (60.2% vs. 50.1%) (see Table 3 on page 50).

Students not eligible for Federal Work Study (FWS) more often chose not to work because they had sufficient savings from summer employment. Similarly, non-employed Caucasian respondents more often chose sufficient summer earnings as a reason for not working. Preference toward short-term work and "no need to work to support education" were noted more often by Asian respondents. Little variation was noted among freshmen and upperclass students and respondents from public or private schools,

although class schedule conflict was more often noted by upperclassmen (see Table 4 on page 51).

As indicated earlier, the need for more study time appears to be a major reason for students' choosing not to work, however comparing the distribution of the non-working students' GPAs with the working students' responses, the GPA distribution of both of these student populations appear to be relatively similar (see Figure 2 and 3 on pages 51 and 52). Additionally, it is worth mentioning that 46% of the non-working freshmen responded that work negatively affected academic performance, while only 27% of the working freshmen noted work as having a negative influence on academics.

As expected, loans tend to be the most common option used by non-working FWS-eligible students to replace their earnings from employment. Additionally, 52% of students responded that parents were willing to make up the students' loss of earnings. Students enrolled in private schools more often indicated that their parents would help them make up the loss of earnings (see Table 5 on page 52).

Reasons Why Students Work

Besides the initial motivator of money, the other most common reason for students to work while in college is personal fulfillment. How a student feels about work is most likely a perception that is developed long before the student enters college. Besides personal fulfillment, gaining job experience and establishing referral contacts were often noted by working respondents. Both FWS and non-work study (NWS) populations responded similarly, except that job experience was mentioned most often by the FWS-eligible respondents as a reason for working. In contrast, respondents not eligible for FWS noted more often that working takes their mind off school work, and that employment establishes contacts/referrals (see Table 6 on page 52). Respondents from private colleges and universities noted more often that working to earn extra money is a main motivating factor, in comparison to their public school counterparts. Respondents from non-metro campuses noted more

often social interaction as a main reason for working (see Table 7 on page 53).

Working for extra money and establishing referral contacts were also more prevalent among Caucasian respondents. Asian respondents expressed work experience and academic enrichment as their main reasons for working while in college. Although as earlier, Asian respondents most often chose the need for more study time as a reason for not working (see Table 4). Is the non-working students' misperception that work offers little educational value, keeping them from taking advantage of the educational value of work?

Demographics of the working student

♦ Forty-nine percent of all students working worked off-campus, compared to only 20% of the FWS eligible students. Roughly 43% of all off-campus student employees worked in either food service or retail jobs, compared to only 14% of those students working on campus. Forty-eight percent of all on-campus workers were employed to support academic and/or administrative services as shown in Figure 4 on page 53.

♦ Fifty-two percent of FWS-eligible respondents working on campus, worked in jobs that supported academic or administrative services, which compares to only 26% of the FWS respondents working off-campus. Thirty-eight percent of the FWS-eligible respondents employed off-campus worked in either food service or retail, as opposed to only 12% of FWS-eligible students working on campus (see Figure 5 on page 53).

♦ Libraries appear to be a major employer of FWS-eligible students. Although only 8% of all college work-study-eligible students worked in library jobs, 63% of all library jobs were held by FWS-eligible students. Only 20% and 15% of the food service and retail jobs were held by FWS-eligible students (see Figure 5).

♦ Respondents from public schools seemed to work more often in food service and retail

jobs than their private school counterparts. The low percentage of FWS-eligible students at public schools and the higher availability of food service and retail jobs to non-FWS-eligible students may be influencing the high percentages calculated at public schools (see Figure 6 on page 54). Seventy-one percent of non-FWS-eligible public school respondents worked off-campus, compared to 42% of students from private schools. Respondents enrolled in private schools worked more often in administrative type jobs.

♦ Little difference was noted in average GPA of freshmen and upperclassmen, at 2.9 vs. 3.0 respectively.

♦ Asian and Caucasian respondents showed an average GPA of 3.0, while other groups showed an average GPA of 2.7.

♦ FWS-eligible students worked approximately 13 hours per week, compared to 17 hours for non-FWS-eligible students (see Figure 7 on page 54).

♦ Freshmen worked an average of 13 hours per week, compared to 16 hours for upperclassmen.

♦ A relatively large difference was noted in the number of hours worked between private and public school students, at 13 hours per week compared to 17 hours per week respectively.

♦ Average number of hours worked shows Asian students working 13 hours per week, and all other groups averaging around 15-16 hours per week.

♦ Eighty percent of all FWS-eligible students worked on campus, compared to 38% of non-FWS-eligible students.

♦ Sixty-one percent of freshmen worked on campus, compared to 38% of upperclassmen.

♦ Sixty-five percent of students enrolled in private schools worked on campus, compared to 33% of students enrolled in public

schools. 49% of students enrolled in private school indicated FWS eligibility, compared to only 19% of those enrolled in public schools.

♦ Forty-seven percent of working respondents enrolled at metropolitan campuses worked on-campus, compared to 41% of the respondents enrolled at non-metropolitan campuses.

♦ Average wage rate for FWS-eligible students was $5.17/hr., compared to $5.91 for non-FWS-eligible students.

♦ A pay rate for freshmen was $5.20, compared to $5.76 for upperclassmen.

♦ Students enrolled in private school earned an average wage of $5.50, compared to $5.79 for students enrolled in public schools.

♦ Students enrolled at metro campuses earned on average $6.20, compared to $5.16 for those enrolled at non-metropolitan campuses.

♦ Average rate of pay among ethnic categories showed variations among the identified groups. Asian and Hispanic students showed the highest wage at $6.57. Other groups showed an average wage of $5.87, $5.55 and $5.33 for African-American, Caucasian and Native-American respondents respectively.

♦ Average indebtedness for working students enrolled in private schools was noted at $5,211, compared to $2,600 for those in public schools.

♦ GPAs for both FWS and Non-FWS respondents were the same, at 3.0.

♦ Average loan amount for FWS-eligible students was $5,906.

♦ Average indebtedness was $4,861 for respondents enrolled in metropolitan campuses, compared to $2,532 for those enrolled in non-metropolitan campuses.

♦ Average indebtedness for African-American students was $5,493; for Hispanics it was $4,139, and all other showed approximately $3,300.

Reasons for Changing Jobs

45% of working students who changed jobs cited location as the reason for changing. Additionally, changing jobs due to better schedule was also noted. These responses seem consistent, since one of the main reasons for not working was noted to be conflicts in scheduling.

Students' Perceptions of the Value of Work

Most respondents, whether working or not, perceived academic year work experiences as contributing positively to their educational experience and development of career plans and as providing added advantages in the job market. This positive perception among working students is substantially higher by as much as 12%, as compared to students not working (see Table 8 on page 55).

Similar differences were noted in comparing working and non-working students with regard to the impact of academic year work experiences on both academics and social life. Interestingly, students eligible for FWS showed less concern about the impact of work on academics and social life compared to students not eligible for FWS (see Table 9 on page 55).

We segregated the students sampled by class, and compared working and non-working freshmen. Forty-six percent of the non-working freshmen agreed that academic year work experiences negatively influenced academic and social life. Only 28% of the working freshmen agreed with this statement. As noted earlier, 72% of the non-working freshmen indicated that they were not working because of needing more study time. This finding was also observed while looking at upperclassmen (see Table 10 on page 55).

Looking at respondents by ethnicity, we noticed that Native Americans who were working had significantly greater concerns about work hurting their academic and social lives. However, the small number of respondents (*n* = 26) for this ethnic group may be significantly affecting the percentage calculated (see Table 11 on page 55).

Examining the students' perceptions by job type, we noted that there may be a correlation between the students' perception of work and the type or location of their jobs. Students most often agreeing with the statement that work negatively affects their academic or social lives were employed in jobs that are most often found off-campus (i.e., food service, retail, labor/farm and human services). Whether the students' perceptions were affected by the type of work or location, was not explored further. (However, as we noted earlier, 45% of the students who changed jobs indicated changing due to location). A possible reason for the negative perception of students working in these types of jobs may be that these job types might require students to work evenings and weekends, when most social functions and study periods occur. Additionally, a vast majority of food service, retail, labor/farm or human services positions are often found off-campus, which may give respondents stronger feelings of isolation from campus life activities (see Table 12 on page 56). Overall, the type of job does not seem to alter the student's perception of its value to the educational experience, advantages in the job market or the development of career plans; only their feeling about the impact of work on grades and social life appear to be affected.

Conclusion

Three years ago we conducted a study at Cornell University that verified most of what we perceived to be true about the student perception of work and the reasons why students chose to work or not. Three years later, after reviewing the findings of this national study, we have concluded that similar observations can be made nationwide.

Nevertheless, this study reiterates that the students' need to fund their own educational expenses is their main motivation for working. However, students appear to derive other more long lasting benefits and satisfaction from work, which ultimately can affect their educational experience.

Unfortunately, many institutions often promote student employment primarily as a financing

alternative and do not emphasize the other educational and social factors that are denied through work. As a result, it is no surprise to see the high percentage of parents willing to help make up the loss of earnings because their sons/daughters choose not to work. Parents often tend to feel that if they can fulfill the financial benefits of working for the student, then a work experience is unnecessary. However, the findings of this study point out that by not working, the student may not be benefiting from a potentially positive educational experience. Also in looking at the GPA distribution for both the working and non-working groups, there appears to be little reason for us to believe that there is a direct correlation between not working and increased study time, which would potentially result in better grades. Other signs that working may contribute toward a more positive experience may be found in the responses of our Asian respondents. These respondents showed the highest percentage of students not working due to the need for "more time to study." However, this group also showed the highest percentage of students indicating that work added to their educational experience.

Additionally, this study has raised questions about the impact of off-campus work opportunities on students' overall social and educational experiences. Clearly, most students view their work experience as contributing to their overall educational experience; nevertheless, there were noticeable negative responses among those working in jobs typically found off-campus. Employment opportunities that have strong positive association with overall campus life is a highly regarded value by our student employees.

Finally, the observations made in this study question the references made in the FWS report issued by the Government Accounting Office. The GAO work study report made reference to the fact that colleges and University's are the only benefactors of the FWS program and the students are receiving very little benefit from the on-campus work experiences. However, the information collected in this study clearly pointed out that the work experiences we are facilitating play a major role in our students'

overall educational experience. According to the working students responses there appears to be very little difference in how students perceived the value of their work experience across job types. Unfortunately in our attempt to simplify and categorize our job classification structure, we have labeled many of the student positions that support day-to-day operations or student services as "Administrative/Clerical." This label is typically perceived as the jobs that offer little meaningful work experience for students or are seen as "menial" jobs, and it appears that from this association the GAO report concluded that institutions are not fulfilling the intent of the FWS program. However, many of the students working in these so-called menial administrative type positions, often have the opportunity to acquire many transferable skills and to establish personal contacts which can enhance their overall educational experience and facilitate the students retention.

Understandably, we must continue to pursue, evaluate, and enhance all of our student work experiences to insure that the experience is of value to our students. However we must also recognize the various roles that student employment offers to our students and the overall function within the educational mission. Our student employment programs should not be based solely on the strict careerist premise, but employment programs must also recognize financial, educational, and social values that student employment offers and that our students seek.

Again, we wish to express our appreciation to the schools which helped us to complete this project; it was their assistance that contributed to its success. We hope their experience has encouraged them to continue their efforts and further evaluate their students' school year work experiences.

Table 1
Institutional Participation By:

Region		Campus Environment	School Type
NEASEA	8	Metro 10	Public 10
MASEA	4	Non-metro 8	Private 8
SASEA	3		
WASEA	3		

Participating Schools

Arizona State University	SUNY College at Brockport
Berry College	SUNY College at Cortland
Boston University	Syracuse University
Brandeis University	Univ. of California at Berkeley
Carnegie Mellon University	Univ. of Southern Mississippi
Marquette University	Univ. of Wisconsin Oshkosh
Montana State University	Univ. of Wisconsin at Stevens Point
Rochester Institute of Technology	Univ. of Wisconsin Whitewater
Rutgers State University	West Georgia College

Figure 1
Students Sampled by Region

SASEA 16%

WASEA 17%

NEASEA 44%

MASEA 23%
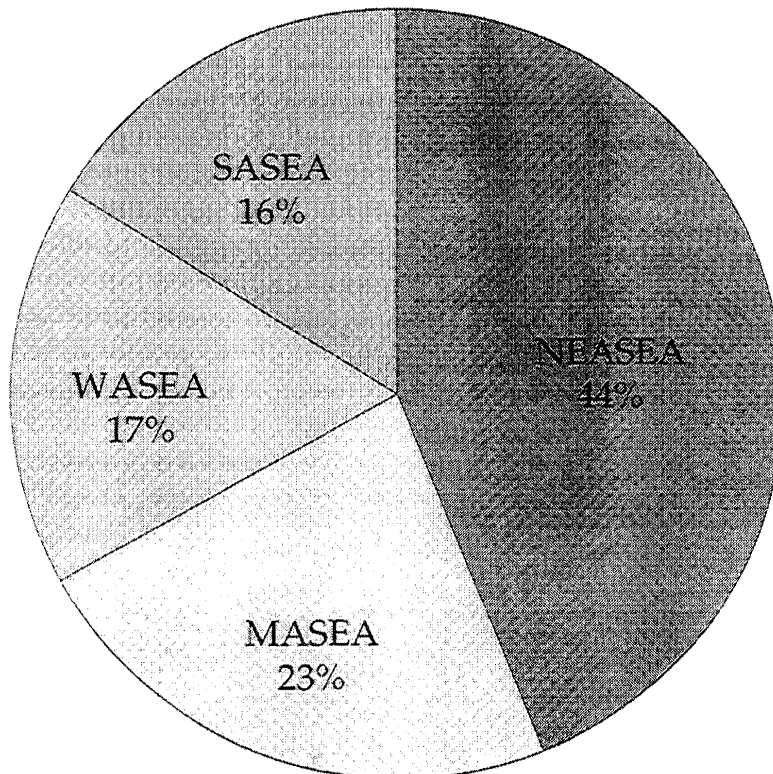
Table 2
Demographics of Student Respondents

	Working	Not Working
NEASEA	1009	801
MASEA	608	437
SASEA	437	218
WASEA	521	476
Metro	1257	992
Non-Metro	1318	940
Public	1499	1323
Private	1076	609
Freshmen	423	484
Sophomores	544	396
Juniors	740	482
Seniors	862	559
Not Specified	6	17
Asian	153	206
Black	90	76
Caucasian	2132	1470
Hispanic	97	69
Nat. Amer.	26	29
Other	27	31
Not Specified	50	51
CWS	796	235
NWS	1745	1664
Not Specified	34	33
Total	2575 (51%)	1937 (43%)

Table 3
Percentage of Respondents Who Cited Each Reason

Reason	Metro	Non-metro
Can't find job	20	18
Prefer loans	7	9
No need to support	38	22
Sufficient summer earnings	23	29
Ineligible for CWS	36	44
Wages too low	27	28
Class conflicts	60	50
Study time	77	69
Short term week	37	36
Social time	37	32
Team time	10	12
Extra curricular	31	25
Other	17	18

Table 4
Percentage of Respondents Who Cited Each Reason

	CWS	NWS	Private	Public	Fresh	Upper	Asian	Other	Caucasian
Can't find job	24	18	19	19	19	19	28	22	18
Prefer loans	11	7	6	8	6	8	8	6	7
No need to support	6	34	37	28	25	32	41	27	30
Sufficient summer earnings	15	27	27	25	27	26	18	13	29
Ineligible for CWS	8	45	37	41	35	41	44	38	40
Wages too low	32	27	27	28	23	29	38	28	26
Class conflicts	59	55	55	56	48	58	71	56	53
Study time	76	73	76	72	72	74	85	68	73
Short term week	34	37	36	32	37	37	52	43	34
Social time	29	36	39	33	38	34	39	29	35
Team time	14	10	12	10	15	9	8	9	12
Extra curricular	27	29	32	26	28	28	29	23	29
Other	19	17	15	19	16	18	14	20	18

Figure 2
Distribution of GPAs for Non-Working Students
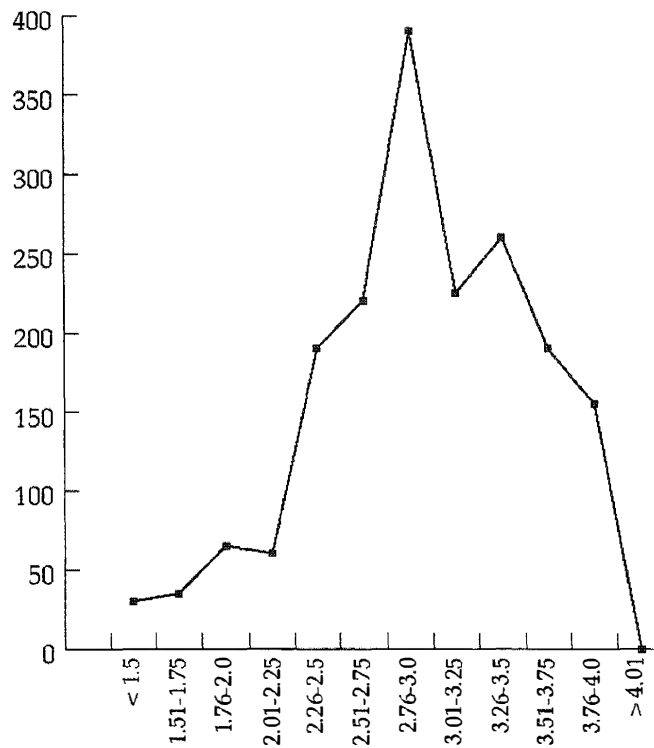
Figure 3
Distribution of GPAs for Working Students
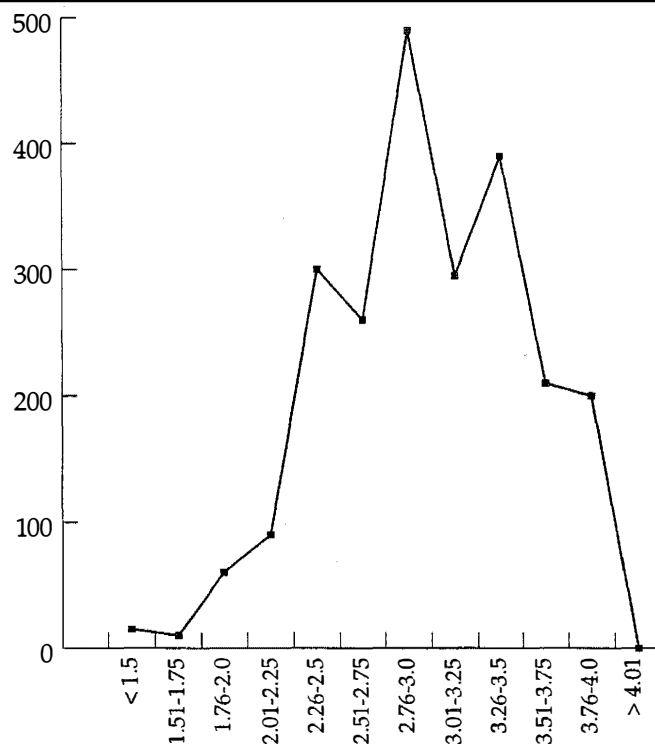
Table 5
Percentage Who Cited Method of Replacing Earnings

	CWS	NWS	Fresh	Upper	Private	Public
Parents	52	69	71	76	75	64
Sum/sem earnings	41	36	41	47	42	47
Assets/savings	33	36	36	33	33	34
Loans	57	22	23	28	25	27
Budg adj.	21	23	23	23	20	24

Table 6
Percentage of Respondents Who Cited Each Reason

	CWS	NWS	Fresh	Upper
Cost of Education	80	67	647	71
Extra Expenses	83	81	85	81
Job Experience	48	34	44	51
Social Interaction	34	30	32	35
Academic Enrichment	32	31	25	32
Budget Time	32	22	34	31
Mind off School	20	43	25	20
Contacts/References	42	58	41	43
Personal Fulfillment	57	63	51	59
Other	7	11	44	62

Table 7
Percentage of Respondents Who Cited Each Reason

	Private	Public	Metro	Non-Metro
Cost of Education	66	74	69	72
Extra Expenses	87	78	82	82
Job Experience	50	49	47	52
Social Interaction	33	35	29	39
Academic Enrichment	31	30	27	34
Budget Time	31	31	28	34
Mind off School	23	20	18	23
Contacts/References	42	43	39	46
Personal Fulfillment	58	57	53	61
Other	7	11	60	59

Figure 4
Percentage of All Respondents Working
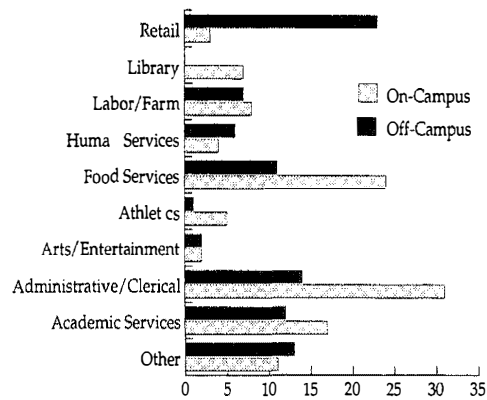
Figure 5
Percentage of Working Respondents

53
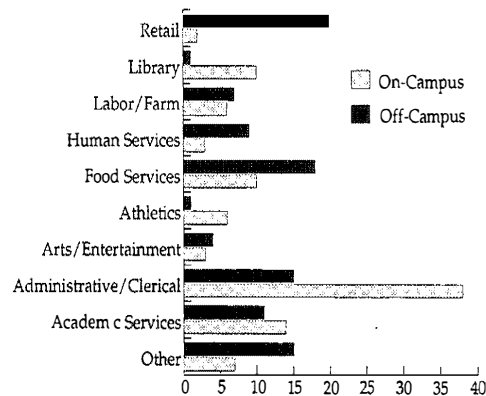
Figure 6
Percentage of FWS Working Respondents
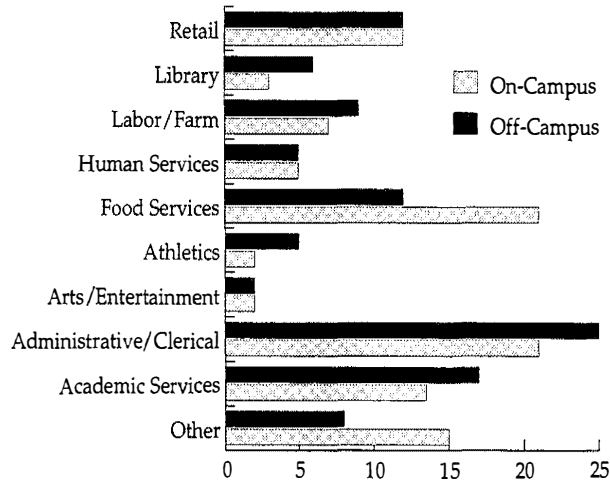
Figure 7
Distribution of Hours Worked for All Students

54
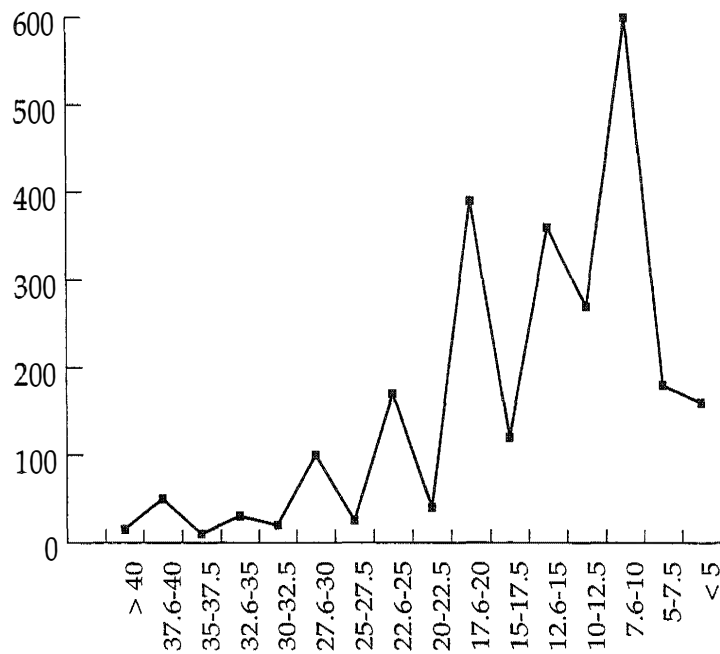
Table 8
Percentage of Respondents Who Strongly Agree with Each Statement

	Working	Non-Working
Adds to educational experience	76	59
Job market advantage	84	72
Negative effects on academics	35	49
Negative effects on social life	38	48
Develop career plans	77	69

Table 9
Percentage of Respondents Who Strongly Agree with Each Statement

	Working		Non-working	
	CSW	NWS	CWS	NWS
Adds to educational experience	78	75	61	59
Job market advantage	81	85	64	73
Negative effects on academics	29	39	53	49
Negative effects on social life	27	43	43	49
Develop career plans	72	79	65	69

Table 10
Percentage of Respondents Who Strongly Agree with Each Statement

	Working		Non-working	
	Fresh	Upperclass	Fresh	Upperclass
Adds to educational experience	74	76	59	59
Job market advantage	81	84	72	72
Negative effects on academics	27	37	46	50
Negative effects on social life	30	40	46	49
Develop career plans	3	77	69	68

Table 11
Percentage of Respondents Who Strongly Agree with Each Statement

	Working			Non-working		
	Asian	White	Other Minority	Asian	White	Other Minority
Adds to educational experience	84	76	73	65	57	71
Job market advantage	84	84	78	76	70	80
Negative effects on academics	41	35	37	55	49	40
Negative effects on social life	36	39	35	50	50	37
Develop career plans	82	77	72	75	68	77

Table 12
Percentage of Students Who Strongly Agree with Each Statement:

	Develop Career Plans	Adds to Marketing Advantage	Adds to Educational Experiences	Negative Effects on Social Life	Negative Effects on Academic Performance
Academic Services	85	89	79	39	36
Administrative/Clerical	77	88	78	31	31
Arts/Entertainment	76	83	71	41	39
Athletic	70	78	74	19	24
Food Services	73	78	77	46	37
Human Services	87	90	77	39	35
Labor/Farm	70	75	69	46	42
Library	66	76	80	21	21
Other	76	85	79	39	39
Retail	77	84	69	41	41

Chapter 6

The Effect of Part-Time Work on Academic Performance and Progress: An Examination of the Washington State Work-Study Program

Gordon Van de Water

Introduction

Educators, parents, students, and policy makers are becoming increasingly concerned about how families will meet the climbing costs of college. College cost increases in recent years, averaging nearly 10% per year and nearly double the rate of inflation, threaten to restrict educational opportunity. Grant and loan programs are not keeping pace with cost increases, thus putting added pressures on families and students to provide a greater share of overall costs. In this climate, working while studying is becoming more commonplace and enjoys widespread support from policy makers.

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of working on the academic performance and persistence of a sample of full-time undergraduate students enrolled in Washington's public and private colleges and universities during the period from Fall 1983 through Spring 1985. The study focuses on the following questions:

1. Do students who are employed part-time perform as well academically as those who are not employed?

2. Is there a relationship between number of hours worked and academic performance?

3. What impact does working part-time have on student persistence?

4. Does location of work (on-campus versus off-campus) make a difference in academic performance or persistence?

5. Does working in a career-related field make a difference in academic performance or persistence?

The Washington Work-Study Program is the largest state sponsored work-study program in the nation and the second oldest (behind Colorado). It was founded in 1974 . . . "to provide financial assistance to needy students attending eligible postsecondary institutions in the state of Washington by stimulating and promoting their employment, thereby enabling them to pursue courses of study at such institutions. An additional purpose of this program shall be to provide such needy students, wherever possible, with employment related to their academic interests" (Chapter 28B.12, Laws of Washington).

Students are eligible to participate in the program if they are Washington residents who demonstrate financial need, are enrolled at least half-time in an eligible institution, are deemed capable of maintaining good academic standing, and are not pursuing a degree in theology.

Summary of Related Research

Literature on the impact of work on student performance and retention is relatively scarce. The available literature tends to support the conclusion that part-time employment does not have an adverse impact on a student's grade point average, even if the student is on academic probation (Augsberger, 1974; Hammes & Haller, 1983; Henry, 1967; Hood & Maplethorpe, 1980). Too much work, however, does seem to have an adverse impact on student performance (Teitelbaum, 1983; Astin, 1975). As Martin (1985) concludes, "On-campus employment during a student's freshman year in particular seems to enhance the student's chances of completing school." Additional studies show that student employment does not have a negative impact on a student's grade point average, providing it does not exceed 20 hours per week.

Other studies focusing on retention or persistence generally conclude that some work increases the chances of a student persisting through a degree (Voorhees, 1985; Terkla, 1985; Murdock, 1987). One study states that "available research supports that the retention and success of students are linked to meaningful involvements while in school. Work experience ranks as one of the most common and productive involvements for all college students" (Bazin & Brooks, 1974).

The Study Design

The study design includes three parts: a sample of institutional student records for students on State Work-Study, College Work-Study, and non-working financial aid recipients; a survey of campus administrators; and a survey of the students selected into the sample.

Student Record Data

Obtaining student records involved drawing a stratified random sample of financial aid recipients from the sample of colleges and universities in Washington State. The twelve institutions included in the study were:

University of Washington
Washington State University

Eastern Washington University
Western Washington University
Lower Columbia Community College
North Seattle Community College
Spokane Community College
Spokane Falls Community College
Pacific Lutheran University
Seattle University
University of Puget Sound
Whitworth College

Drawing the Sample

The population to be sampled was all Fall 1983 full-time undergraduate financial aid recipients at the 12 participating institutions. The original data set, before editing, contained the following number of cases for each group:

Students receiving a State Work-Study award:	1,001
Students receiving a College/ Institutional Work-Study award:	1,342
Students receiving financial aid but not working:	1,265
Total	3,608

Data Preparation

The data set was edited to remove reporting and keypunch errors and to insure that values were in appropriate ranges. This effort resulted in 424 cases (12%) being eliminated from the file. The analysis tape subsequently contained 3,184 cases suitable for analysis.

Results of the Study

The issues of interest to this study relate to working. However, we discovered that many students who receive an annual work-study award do not actually work in every academic term during the year of the award; therefore, we re-sorted the cases into three groups based on whether or not each student actually worked during each term. Students are classified as work-study students only for those academic terms in which they actually worked. Using this

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procedure, the observations were re-sorted according to the following rules:

Group One: State Work-Study Only. Students who worked only under the State Work-Study program were assigned to Group One only for those academic terms in which they actually worked.

Group Two: College Work-Study or Institutional Work-Study. Students who worked in either College Work-Study or were employed by the institution (through the financial aid office) were assigned to Group Two only for those academic terms in which they actually worked.

Group Three: Non-workers. Students who did not work during a given academic term, even though they may have received a work-study award, were assigned to Group Three for that term. Similarly, students who received financial aid (either grant or loan) but did not work under any work-study program were assigned to Group Three for every term.

In this way, a student's assignment to a group varies with each academic term depending on whether or not the student worked during that term. All other characteristics of the student, (e.g., grade point average, credit hours attempted, credit hours earned, and demographic characteristics), also moved with the student, changing by term where appropriate. For each semester student, there are a maximum of four separate data records representing the four semesters covered in the study. For each quarter student there are a maximum of six separate data records representing the six quarters covered in the study.

Numerous students will have less than the maximum possible number of data observations because they graduated, transferred, or dropped out during the period under study. In addition, because we focused on full-time students, students who entered the sample as full-time students but later dropped to part-time status were enrolled part-time. This decision was made after the regression results for all students (including part-time enrollees) showed that part-time students made no statistically significant differences in the regression results.

Because students who received a work-study award frequently did not work in each of the academic terms during the year of the award, the distribution of cases by group changed significantly. Using the approach described above, the 3,184 cases on the analysis tape represented 11,671 valid data observations that were distributed into the three groups as follows in Table 1:

Results of the study are presented in three parts: an overview of the data; an analysis of regression results; and an analysis of relationships among key variables identified in the regression analysis.

Table 1
Distribution of Observations

Group	No. of Observations	Percent
1: Worked in State Work-Study	2,154	18.5%
2: Worked in CWS or IWS	2,892	24.8%
3: Non-workers	6,625	56.7%
Total	11,671	100.0%

Overview of the Data

As a first step, we examined how closely the study sample resembles the total population of financial aid recipients in the state. In general, students in the sample population are younger, report slightly higher parental income, are proportionately distributed by sex, and are more likely to be dependent students than the statewide population of financial aid recipients.

As a second step, we examined the demographic and financial aid characteristics of the three groups to be analyzed. Table 2 compares the three groups on basic demographic and financial aid characteristics. Students in State Work-Study tend to be slightly older, are more likely to be independent of parental support, earn more per hour while working, have higher need, receive more in grant aid, and receive less in loan aid. Percentages in the table are based on data observations, rather than individual cases. The major impact of this

Table 2
Comparison of Financial Aid Recipients in the Study by Group, 1983-84

	Group One (CWS/IWS)	Group Two (Non-workers)	Group Three (SWS)
Average Age	23.0	21.9	22.7
Sex			
Male	43.1%	43.2%	49.7%
Female	56.9%	56.8%	50.3%
Race			
White	78.5%	83.3%	75.8%
Other	21.5%	16.7%	24.2%
High School GPA[1]	3.28	3.27	3.28
Dependency Status			
Dependent	48.4%	62.1%	54.0%
Independent	51.6%	37.9%	46.0%
Marital Status			
Married	7.8%	6.4%	8.0%
Single	92.2%	93.6%	92.0%
Parental Income	20,794	21,456	21,087
Year in School			
Freshman	16.3%	21.4%	16.5%
Sophomore	30.0%	33.3%	24.9%
Junior	25.4%	20.8%	24.1%
Senior	28.6%	24.5%	32.3%
Average Hours Worked Per Week	11.7	11.3	-0-
Wage ($/hr)*	$4.77	$3.89	$-0-
Need	$5,767	$5,497	$1,590
Grant*	$1,841	$1,805	$1,590
Loan	$950	$813	$1,194
College Work-Study Award	$715	$1079	$741
% Observations w/ non-zero amt.	17.7%	73.2%	12.7%
Institutional Work-Study Award	$308	$660	$703
% Observations w/ non-zero amt.	7.0%	24.1%	7.3%
State Work-Study Award	$1,426	$1,059	$ 901
% Observations w/ non-zero amt.	9.2%	19.6%	14.8%

[1]Covers students enrolled in four year colleges only; two year college students' records do not contain information on high school grade point average.
*Award is the average for those receiving any non-zero amount.

method is that some students in one group will show work-study awards in programs outside that group because the data observations cover each academic term over a two-year period. For example, a Group One student (State Work-Study) may show a College Work-Study award. This occurs when a student switches from one program to the other between the two academic years under review.

For State Work-Study and College Work-Study/Institutional Work-Study, the distribution of observations by average hours worked per week and wages is shown in Table 3. Two-thirds of all work-study students work between 10 and 20 hours per week. Students in College/Institutional Work-Study are more apt to work less than 10 hours than students in State Work-Study (34.3% versus 27.2%). State Work-Study students have higher hourly wages than College/Institutional Work-Study Students. While most students in both programs earn between $3.50 and $5.00 per hour, one-third of State Work- Study students earn more than $5.00 per hour while 27.5% of College/Institutional Work- Study students earn less than $3.50 per hour.

We used multiple regression analysis to incorporate as many variables as possible into the analysis model in order to observe the impact of work when controlling for all other variables. Three separate regression analyses were made using each of the three different academic variables as the dependent variables in the regression equations: grade point average, credit hours attempted, and the ratio of credit hours earned to credit hours attempted.

The results show the following:

- Among the variables in the study, average hours worked per week, while statistically significant, produced only a slight positive impact; as average hours worked per week increases, grade point average increases marginally (up to 20 hours/week)

- There is no relationship between number of credit hours attempted and number of hours worked per week

- There is a slight negative relationship between the ratio of credit hours earned to credit hours attempted and the number of hours worked per week.

We conclude that work has almost no impact on the academic performance and very little impact on the academic progress of full-time undergraduate students in Washington's colleges and universities. Neither the number of hours worked nor the rate of pay has a strong impact on a student's grade point average, number of credit hours attempted, or the ratio of credits earned to credits attempted. The impact that is present is positive for grade point average. The regressions show that the working student, on average, will take slightly longer to complete college than the non-worker; however, the additional time required will be about one-third of an academic term.

Having reached this conclusion, we felt it was important to examine several of the independent variables in relationship to average hours worked per week. We prepared a series of cross-tabulation tables that allowed us to observe trends for each of the academic variables (grade point average, credit hours attempted, and the ratio of credit hours earned to credit hours attempted) when related to number of hours worked by program and the independent variables: year in school, high school grade point average, race, age, gender, marital status, dependency status, hourly wage.

Summary of Cross-tabulation Analysis

The major findings are:

- Upperclass students have higher grade point averages.

- State Work-Study students generally have higher grade point averages than College Work-Study students or non-workers.

- Students who perform well in high school also perform well in college.

- Grades improve as students work more hours per week (up to 20).

Table 3
Average Hours Worked Per Week and Hourly Wages, by Program

	Average Hours Worked Per Week			
Group	1-9	10-14	15-20	21-40
State Work-Study	27.2%	50.0%	20.8%	1.9%
College/Institutional Work-Study	34.3%	41.7%	21.8%	2.2%
Work-Study Total	31.3%	45.2%	21.4%	2.1%

	Wages Per Hour		
	< $3.50	$3.50-5.00	>$5.00
State Work-Study	8.4%	58.0%	33.6%
College/Institutional Work-Study	27.5%	64.1%	8.5%
Work-Study Total	19.4%	61.5%	19.1%

	Student Concern About Paying for College		
	None	Some	Major
State Work-Study	6.8%	57.3%	35.9%
College/Institutional Work-Study	7.9%	51.5%	53.7%
Work-Study Total	35.9%	40.6%	35.4%

- ◆ Older students perform better than younger students.

- ◆ Independent students perform better than dependent students.

- ◆ Students with high financial need do better when working in the State Work-Study Program.

- ◆ Students who work have a higher course completion rate than non-workers.

In general, the cross-tabulations for credit hours attempted and the ratio of credit hours earned to credit hours attempted show a high degree of consistency across sex, age, need, and financial status (dependent versus independent).

Results Of The Survey Of
Washington Campus Administrators

The survey of campus administrators asked for experiential judgments about the effect of working on academic performance and summarized below.

Academic Performance

Survey responses show that, in the opinion of campus administrators, students who work part-time perform better academically than students who do not work. Respondents believe there is a correlation between the number of hours worked and academic performance, though opinion is somewhat split as to whether the correlation is positive or negative. There is slight indication, however, that students who work 15-20 hours per week tend to perform better academically than students who work under 10 hours. The location of the work, on-campus or off-campus, is not generally thought to affect academic performance; though, among those who believe it does, students who work on campus perform better. Students who work in an academic or career area of interest perform at least as well as, if not better than, their counterparts in unrelated jobs. Single students without dependents who have average or high prior GPAs were identified as performing bet-

ter academically if they work than students who lack these characteristics. Other factors identified by survey respondents as being positively related to academic performance include good time management, motivation, healthy self-esteem, and a good support system. Freshman students who are single with dependents and who have low prior GPAs were identified as performing better academically if they do not work. Other factors associated with poor academic performance include unrealistic goals, lack of commitment or motivation, self-doubt, and family problems. Age, sex, race and financial status (dependent or independent) were not believed to be related to academic performance.

Persistence

Survey results show that part-time work has a positive effect on student persistence. Working students have a higher degree completion rate than non-working students particularly if the job is in an academic or career area of interest. There is a trend in the last ten years for all students, working or non-working, to take longer to complete their undergraduate degrees, and part-time work is at least a somewhat significant factor in this trend. Opinion is split as to whether the location of the work, on-campus or off-campus, makes a difference with regard to retention. Among those who believe it does, however, students who work on-campus are more likely to remain enrolled than students working off-campus. Sophomore students with average or high prior GPAs who are over 23 years of age and single without dependents or married were identified as performing better academically if they work than students who lack these characteristics. Other factors identified by the survey as being positively related to retention include motivation, healthy self-esteem, a good support system, and positive campus involvement. Freshman students under 23 years of age with low prior GPAs who are single with dependents were identified as performing better academically if they do not work. Other factors associated with poor academic performance include a poor support system, inability to balance demands, and lack of commitment or motivation. Sex, race, and financial status appear to be unrelated to retention.

Student Survey Results

Twenty-nine percent of the students in the survey responded to a mailed questionnaire that sought additional information about outside work and student perceptions of the impact of working on academic performance and persistence. Less than 20% of those responding provided any information on outside work. This low response rate to this question dictated that we not include outside work in any of the regression analyses. We did, however, examine the responses to questions on student perceptions.

The respondent group is biased toward White females who are single, dependent, and come from families with higher incomes than students in the overall sample. This group has lower financial need, received less in grants and worked about the same number of hours per week. Responses of this group to the perception questions are shown below.

Table 3 also shows the response to the question, "Were you concerned about your ability to finance your college education (after you knew how much financial aid you would receive)?" In general, responses for each of the three groups were very similar with over half in each group having some concern and more than one-third being very concerned.

Table 4 shows responses to several questions. The first was "Did working part-time have any effect on your academic performance while in college?" Only students who worked responded to this question. The responses are very similar by group, indicating no significant differences between students' experiences in State Work-Study or College/Institutional Work Study on this dimension. Over 40% of both groups felt that working did not affect their academic performance, while over 10% felt that working had a positive influence on their academic performance. The remaining respondents, just under one-half, felt that working was detrimental to their academic performance.

The next question for working students was, "Did working part-time have any effect on your decision to continue in college?" Respondents

were invited to check as many responses as appropriate; therefore, percentages do not add to 100. Responses are summarized in Table 5. Almost one-quarter of the respondents said that working had no impact on their decision to continue in college. Roughly two-thirds acknowledged that working was helpful in paying college bills. By a margin of almost 2-to-1, College/Institutional Work-Study students said that working made them feel more a part of the college. Students in State Work-Study, on the other hand, were more apt to feel that their work experience, coupled with their degree, would enable them to get a better job. Only a few students reported that their part-time work led to a full-time job before they completed a degree.

The next question was, "Did working part-time force you to slow down your progress toward a degree?" Two-thirds of the respondents in both groups said no. Of the one-third who said yes, the average additional number of terms needed to achieve a degree was 2.2 for State Work-Study students and 2.9 for College/Institutional Work-Study Students.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to examine five questions about the impact of working on academic performance and retention. Our conclusions are given below.

Question 1. Do students who are employed part-time perform as well academically as those who are not employed?

Overall, the answer is yes. The regression analysis shows that work (as measured in number of hours worked per week and wages paid) is not a factor in predicting a student's college grade point average. That is, there is no relationship between working and grade point average. Of all the variables we included in the regression equation, high school grade point average is the best predictor of college grade point average. The number of hours worked was a significant variable in predicting grade point average, and its effect was positive. However, in practical terms the number of hours worked had very little impact on grade point average. The analysis of the cross-tabulations shows that the longer a student

is in school, the higher the grade point average, regardless of the work experience. For workers, grade point average generally increases with number of hours worked per week (up to 20), except for students over 29 years of age in the State Work-Study program.

Administrators feel that students who work do better academically than students who do not work. Analysis of the cross-tabulation data supports this belief for students in the State Work-Study Program but does not support it for students in College/Institutional Work-Study. Over one-half of the administrators also feel that working in a career-related field resulted in working students taking one third of one term longer than non-workers to complete a degree program.

Administrators report an overall trend for students of all types to take longer to complete a degree and that working students are more likely to remain in college through the completion of a degree. They cited several other factors as contributing to both academic performance and persistence—good time management, motivation, level of self-esteem, a good support system.

Again, student perceptions are split. Two thirds feel working enabled them to meet their college expenses, thus allowing them to remain enrolled. One fifth report that working had no effect on their decision to stay in college.

Question 2. Does location of work (on-campus versus off-campus) make a difference in academic performance or persistence?

We did not have a direct measure of this variable. The original assumption was that working in the State Work-Study program was a proxy for working off-campus. The data reported for this variable in student records was incomplete. The cross-tabulations show that students in State Work-Study tend to have higher college grade point averages than non-workers or students in College/Institutional Work-Study. If the original assumption is correct, then working off campus in the State Work-Study program is correlated with increased grade point average.

Administrators do not believe work location makes any difference in academic performance or persistence. Our findings support this belief if the assumption that State Work-Study serves as a proxy for career-related work is accurate.

Students are split in their perceptions of the effect of working on their academic performance. Forty-three percent reported that working part-time did not affect their academic performance; 11% reported that working part-time improved their academic performance; and 46% reported that working hurt their academic performance. We did not find data in the study to support the feelings of this latter group.

Table 4
Student Perceptions of the Effect of Working on Academic Performance

	Group One (SWS)	Group Two (CWS/IWS)
Working part-time did not affect my academic performance	42.9%	41.9%
Working part-time improved my academic performance	11.0%	11.8%
Working part-time hurt my academic performance	46.1%	46.4%

Table 5
The Effect of Working on Students; Decisions to Continue in College

	Group One (SWS)	Group Two (CWS/IWS)
Working had no effect on my decision to stay in college	23.3%	21.4%
Working enabled me to pay my college bills	62.3%	70.8%
Working made me feel more a part of the college	10.1%	18.8%
Working, combined with my degree, would enable me to get a better job	41.7%	32.2%
Working led to a permanent full-time job so I dropped out of school without completiing my degree	1.8%	1.6%

Question 3. Is there a relationship between the number of hours worked and academic performance?

The multiple regression results show that there is a positive, yet weak, relationship between number of hours worked and academic performance. Analysis of the cross-tabulations shows that freshmen, sophomores, and seniors who work 10-20 hours per week do slightly better academically than non-workers or workers who work either few hours (less than 10 hours per week) or many hours (more than 20 hours per week).

Two-thirds of the administrators feel that there is a relationship between working and academic performance. A majority of these believe that the more a student works (up to some reasonable limit), the higher the grade point average is likely to be, which is supported by our analysis.

Question 4. What impact does working part-time have on student persistence?

The multiple regression results indicate that there is no relationship between the number of credit hours attempted and working. There is, however, a slightly negative relationship between the ratio of credit hours earned to credit hours attempted and working.

Question 5. Does working in a career-related field make a difference in academic performance or persistence?

State Work-Study regulations stipulate that where possible, employment is to be related to the academic major or career area of interest. Since there is no corresponding rule governing the College/Institutional Work-Study programs, we used this rule as a proxy for the career-related work variable. The cross-tabulations show that students in the State Work-Study program have a higher grade point average than their colleagues in College/Institutional Work-Study at all levels of work and in all class years.

The analysis leads to the overall conclusion that there is no relationship between work and academic performance and only a slight negative relationship between work and progress toward a degree.

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CHAPTER 7

A Proven Approach to Reducing Employee Turnover

Sal D. Rinella and Robert J. Kopecky

Occasionally it is useful to look at current events in terms of what they may look like to individuals who have been on, let's say, a space mission for some time and have been given a stack of current periodicals to read and be brought up to date. Certainly, with regard to the service industries, they would see that the problems created by a diminishing work force and employee turnover have reached crisis proportions. The literature related to the service industries is filled with discussion about the shrinking labor pool over the next decade and the observation that some types of businesses now have to hire two to three times the number of workers each year just to maintain a crew size adequate to operate. Articles with titles like, "Labor Turnover: How to Stop the Revolving Door," and "The Labor Crisis: Looking for Solutions" dot the written landscape. For confirmation, our fictitious travelers would only have to walk through any commercial area and observe the "Help Wanted" signs at one business after another. Doing so, they would wonder if something dire hadn't occurred to the young people who had historically filled those jobs. To those individuals the question posed in the title of the October 1987 article by Kathleen Janis Vavoso in *Bottom Line*, "Where Have All The Employees Gone . . .," would have real, rather than rhetorical, significance.

In fact, the demographics indicate that something "dire" has happened to the workers historically filling the service jobs—they've grown up, are now Yuppies, and have decided not to be as prolific as their forebears. Demographers reported that on July 21, 1988, for the first time since the 1950s Americans between 35 and 59 now outnumber young adults aged 18 to 34.

Also observed would be a presidential campaign with positions and statements on a variety of current issues. However, more so than in recent elections, each candidate is advocating the role that education can play in addressing the needs of our society. Regardless of party or candidate position on the political spectrum, value of education is a common theme.

Finally, our travelers would read of a higher education establishment openly self-conscious about its shortcomings in recruiting and retaining minority students. Though to an objective observer it may appear as a new concern, it is not—it is a long-standing one which crescendoed once before in the late 1960s and early 1970s. For a moment let's focus on the labor shortage and turnover in the service industries and return later in the discussion to the value of

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education and the recruitment of minority students into higher education.

The interested and informed reader will not need a lengthy presentation on the current status of the availability and retention of workers in the service industries. The following summary of facts is a backdrop for further discussion.

Summary of Facts

1. The number of 16- to 24-year olds will drop by about 3.8 million by 1995. This will result in fewer young workers who traditionally fill service positions.

2. The restaurant industry alone has a shortage of 200,000 workers in 1988, and it projects a shortage of 1.1 million by 1995.

3. By 1995 there will be about 3 million more teens and pre-teens, and about 3.4 million more over-65-year-olds, many on a fixed income. Thus there will be significantly more customers who are heavy users of fast food restaurants at the same time as the labor pool will have diminished significantly.

4. It is predicted that the number of high school dropouts will increase beyond the current level of one million per year. Thus, in an era of expanding employment opportunities and fewer workers, there will be greater youth unemployment and a growing unskilled labor pool from which the service industries can draw.

5. The annual turnover rate for employees in all industries is about 6.7% per month, or 80% per year. For fast food, a major segment of the service industry, the annual turnover rate runs 200% to 300%. And half of it occurs in the first 30 days.

6. The cost of employee turnover in the United States is more than $11 billion annually. Taking into account all factors—training, insurance, and productivity loss—it is estimated that across all industries it costs employers an average of $5,000 to $10,000 per turnover for entry-level or hourly employees. In the restaurant industry many

figures are cited; most are around $1,500 per turnover.

Each of these factors contributes to a problem that, unless checked, will remain like a virus in our national business system for at least the next few decades. Further, it is not something that affects just the service industries. The service industries have historically been the training ground for workers in our economy—a stepping stone into the employment mainstream. In fact, it is estimated that by 1990, one out of every five Americans will have once been employed by McDonald's which comprises under 20% of the fast food market. In turn, fast food is but a portion of the service industry. Therefore, what happens to the service industries will ultimately have a direct effect on the health of our entire economic system. Actually, it will probably have a greater impact in the future than in the past since we are evolving to a service economy from our historical manufacturing roots.

Reasons for Turnover

Many reasons are cited as the cause of the turnover problems in the service industries. Some indicate that it relates to the image of the jobs since, by and large, many service jobs are viewed negatively. In a May 1988 article in *Nation's Restaurant News*, Marvin Saul, owner of Junior's, a delicatessen in Los Angeles, stated that food service "is perceived to be an alternative for people who couldn't find a job anywhere else." Another reason cited relates to management's attitude toward service workers. Because of the nature of the positions, it is easy for the service workers to view themselves as an undervalued set of hands in a large organization. Many leaders in the service industries profess that the key to dealing with turnover is focusing on meeting the needs of the employees. In the same issue of *Nation's Restaurant News*, John Martin, President of Taco Bell, professed that restaurants need to do "the same kind of research with our employees and franchises that we do with our customers."

The observation that the service industries should place more emphasis on the needs of the workers seems conspicuous in that it is treated as so significant when it has been a staple of

management practices in other American industries for many years. In fact, it had its start in the late 1920s when Elton Mayo did his classic study at a Western Electric Plant. In this study in Hawthorne, Illinois, known as the Hawthorne Experiment, Mayo predicted that improving physical working conditions—lighting, work breaks, hours, and economic incentives—would result in an increase in productivity. Frustratingly, Mayo found that productivity went up in every group he worked with—those with the positive incentives and the control groups where the incentives were not introduced. He concluded that productivity increased not because of the experimental changes in the physical job characteristics, but simply because management had solicited employee involvement in the study, which made the employees feel more valued by the company. Mayo's research helped spawn the so-called Human Behavior school of management, which places emphasis on the needs of workers, and consultation with them. This school seems to represent the management style today. It is often referred to as the "Japanese style" of management, participatory management, or by other names.

As in any other industry, sensitivity and communication with the worker will have a positive impact on the work place in the service industries. However, in the service industries, experience suggests that it isn't that simple, and that managers cannot rely exclusively on the application of the best elements of these modern management techniques to solve the turnover problem. After all, the working conditions are generally clean; clothing is often provided; the hours are flexible; the nature of the work is such that it seldom is boring or without human contact; and, while compensation is not high, relatively speaking, it is consistent with what has historically been paid for initial-work-experience positions for the younger labor market. So similar to the frustrations experienced by Mayo in the early stages of his Hawthorne Experiment, there seems to be some unique underlying factor with the service workers that is affecting turnover.

Research on Turnover

So why is turnover so high in the service industries? In a 1986 study of 2,000 full-and part-

time employees published in *Personnel*, Ellen Jackofsky, James Saiter, and Lawrence Peters found a difference between the reasons that full-timers and part-timers leave their jobs. Since part-timers make up a large portion of the employees in the service industry, the study's results are worthy of special attention. In sum, the study revealed that full-time employees leave their jobs for reasons that tended to be directly related to their jobs—poor working conditions, poor pay, conflict with employer, etc. But part-time employees leave for reasons that are not job related at all; for example, an inability to fit the work into other parts of their lives. Fully one-quarter of the part-time employees in the study indicated that starting or returning to school had a strong influence on their decision to leave their jobs. Thus, the authors concluded that improvements to purely job-related factors may not have an influence on retaining part-time employees. Instead, they suggest a greater sensitivity to the external concerns of the part-time employee. And, since schooling affects the turnover rate of part-timers, management should consider financially supplementing part-time workers' educational expenses. Dealing with turnover in the younger labor force is perhaps most succinctly examined by Allan Halcrow in a 1986 article in *The Personnel Journal* titled "Recruitment by any other Name Is Turnover." Halcrow reported on special efforts to decrease turnover in workers aged 16 to 21. His premise was that this labor force is unique: It views itself as seasonal and, further, is often working to earn money for one goal—education or a car, for example. Halcrow designed incentive programs for workers at Marriott's Great American Amusement Park and Vail-Brown Creek Ski Resort and concludes that if turnover is a problem, "the key is to give employees a reason to keep their jobs. And the best way to do that is the increase perception of the job's value."

So, it would seem that the primary rewards of the job for the younger workers are outside of the job. That is, the job is merely a means to an end. When one considers the developmental phase of life that this work force is in the motivating factors are not surprising. Further, we know that the current generation of younger

workers tends to be more motivated by personal need and material rewards than others. Sociologists call them the "Computer Babies" (in contrast to the earlier War Babies). They are characterized as valuing autonomy and flexibility, and their motivation for working is to have the resources necessary to use leisure time more satisfactorily. Thus the major challenge for management today is how to create a work experience that is in concert, if not directly linked, with the motivating factors of the younger worker. Since obtaining an education is a natural important goal for 18- to 24-year-olds, linking work with education may be the key to stemming the tide of turnover in the service industry.

Educational Incentives

Educational incentives in the work place are not new. In many manufacturing, industrial, and high tech firms, company payment for courses completed satisfactorily has been in place for many years. However, it is a relatively new development in the service industries. A review of the industry reveals that some major food service firms have begun to offer such programs. Au Bon Pain, a New England-based fast food chain, rewards any employee who works at least 750 hours with a choice of either a $1,000 scholarship or a $500 bonus. According to company officials, many of the workers who participate would not have stayed if it were not for the incentive. Chick-fil-A, a 350-unit fast food chain, offers a scholarship to crew members with at least two years tenure. Since 1973 the company has awarded $4 million in scholarships to more than 4,000 crew members. The company reports that about 20% of its store operators and a third of the home office staff are former scholarship recipients. Cumberland Farms, an East Coast convenience store chain with about 1,200 stores reimburses full-time workers for college courses and offers part-timers a scholarship program.

Among the service industry giants, Burger King introduced to all of its 5,000 outlets a Crew Educational Assistance Program that enables employees to accrue up to $2,000 worth of tuition credits in two years, starting after three months of steady work with the company. In its introductory brochure, Burger King stated, "Besides contributing to the crew member's educational welfare, this additional benefit is expected to give restaurants a competitive edge in hiring and employee retention. With current crew member turnover at 2.5 months at company restaurants, we spend too much time recruiting, too much time training new employees, and ultimately restaurant production suffers." The program is financed by each outlet and works like the armed forces G.I. Bill. Employees retain the earned educational assistance funds on account and can exercise a claim for it at any time in the future. The program has been received well by the employees, though there has been some concern by the outlets because it presents an expanding, open-ended commitment for them.

A similar, though much more straightforward, educational incentive program was started in 1987 by Herb Schervish, owner and operator of two large-volume Burger King stores in the Detroit metropolitan area in partnership with Henry Ford Community College in Dearborn, Michigan. The program was started because one of Schervish's stores, located in the Renaissance Center, a major hotel, office, and retail center in the heart of downtown Detroit, was experiencing a high turnover problem. Mr. Schervish states, "I wanted to develop a program that would reduce turnover and provide immediate gratification to workers, rather than having incentives and then making them wait. I've always been a supporter of education, and I wanted to do more than providing a paycheck and pushing the employees to work." He began a program of simply paying for educational expenses for employees who work at one of his stores; the salary scale remained the same, and workers taking advantage of the program received the same hourly wage as those who did not. He paid for tuition and books for one course if an employee worked 10 to 15 hours per week, for two courses and books if an employee worked 16 to 25 hours, and for three courses plus books if he or she worked for 26 to 40 hours a week. No prerequisite work experience was required with the company. The only requirement was that the employee meet with a counselor at the college to receive advice on what course(s) to enroll in. Workers at the Renaissance Center store attended classes at Wayne County Community College also in downtown Detroit.

The simplicity of the program's not having a prerequisite term of employment for eligibility and having the expense to the store be current rather than cumulative for future use presents some significant advantages to the employee and the store. There would seem to be additional plusses in having workers obliged to take advantage of the program immediately: For the worker there is a positive incentive to "take the plunge" and begin post-secondary education immediately rather than give in to possible fears and the urge to put it off until later. For the store, there is the advantage of attracting a more ambitious hard working employee one who is willing to take on the challenge of pursuing academic work. Also, remaining with the job is likely to be a high priority if the benefit is one which has to be used or lost. Further, recalling the results of the work of Jackofsky, Saiter, and Peter on the reasons part-time 16- to 24-year-olds leave their jobs one would expect a more loyal work force since the work experience is identified directly with an overriding priority, something that many young people are working for—to pay for an education.

Do educational assistance programs have positive effects on the employee and employer? While on the face of it the above advantages to the employer would seem reasonable, they are merely a set of hypotheses and worthy of study. For it is also possible that employees will turn over in numbers greater than normal because they find themselves overcommitted and unable to handle work and school simultaneously, or that productivity and morale will suffer because the worker's energy is being dissipated on taking classes as well as working. To address these questions an exploratory study was done on the effect the educational incentive program financed by Herb Schervish from September 1987 through April 1988 had on turnover and productivity. Preliminary work was also done on measuring the effect of such a program on employee morale.

Exploratory Study Results

Turnover

The turnover rate at the Renaissance Center store during the 12 months prior to the intro-duction of the educational incentive program was a bit over 179%. This rate was calculated by dividing the average actual crew size on the first day of each month (in this case, 51.33) into the total number of employees working over the 12 month period (92). This produces a simple statistic on the number of times the store turned over an entire new work force in order to maintain a start-of-month crew size sufficient to operate. While this rate is less than the 200% to 300% industry average for fast food operations, it is still sufficiently high that Herb Schervish felt it was disrupting the operation of the store. Further, applying the statistic that it costs roughly $1,500 per turnover, the 41 employees who left over the twelve-month period cost the company about $62,000.

Table 1 in the Appendix to this chapter shows the impact of the educational incentive program at the Renaissance Center store, the turnover rate of employees who took advantage of the program was compared to that of those who were eligible but did not participate. Also analyzed were turnover figures for the high school students employed at the store. The results reveal that the turnover rate for employees taking advantage of the educational incentive program was 38.7%. In contrast, the turnover rate for eligible employees who did not enroll in courses was 160%; turnover among the high school students was 117.6%. These findings support the hypothesis that workers enrolling in an employer-paid tuition incentive program turn over at a rate far less than their non-participating counterparts, and even less that of their fellow workers attending high school. Annualizing the rate of turnover for participants, the rate would be roughly 58%—less than the annual 80% turnover rate for all industries. In contrast, the annualized turnover rates for those workers who were eligible, but who did not participate, would be about 240%—between the 200% to 300% rate endemic in the fast food industry.

Productivity

In order to determine the impact of the educational incentive program on productivity, a comparison was made of sales per employee hour and customers per employee hour for September 1987 through April 1988, with figures

from the same period of time of the prior year (Table 2). The statistics reveal that productivity went up slightly—about 3%. The comparisons are valid since the price of the product remained relatively constant from one year to the next.

Thus, it does not appear that the productivity of workers partaking of the educational incentive program diminished as a result of their commitment to education. In fact, productivity went up. Further, the retention of workers had the positive residual effect of creating a more stable, better managed store. From September 1987 through April 1988, when the educational incentive program was in place, the store was able to maintain a crew size comfortably above the minimum size necessary to operate effectively. In the same period of the prior year, the store was consistently running behind the required crew size. According to Rod Roell, director of operations for the experimental store, "When the store is able to retain an optimal crew size, everything runs better. The managers are able to coordinate the store much better. The hours of the best contributors can be increased and the quality of product and service go up. In a store running constantly behind the optimal crew size, many times managers have to fill in for absent workers making the overall coordination of the crew weaker, and thus quality control is hurt."

One measure of overall store quality is a Quality-Service-Cleanliness evaluation conducted on a regular basis by the Burger King Franchise District manager. The QSC report as it is called evaluates such factors as how well the store is preparing food (e.g., temperature, neatness), the physical appearance of the workers, the speed of service to the customer, and the cleanliness of the store. Store ratings on the QSC evaluation during the period affected by the educational assistance program at the Renaissance Center rose between 7% and 10% as compared to the same period the prior year. This is supported by Mr. Roell's day-to-day observations. He states, "Workers enrolled in school show more personal satisfaction and pride in the job and are noticeably better in dealing with the customers."

Morale

A 50-item Employee Perception Survey was developed and administered at the conclusion of the semester to participants and non-participants in the educational incentive program. The employees reacted to each statement along a four-point scale, with four being the highest morale score on each item. Interestingly, the results show no differences between the overall mean score of participants and non-participants. Both groups scored quite high, with an overall mean score of about three. However, more study is necessary because we know that the responses to a morale survey will differ depending on the precise time it is administered. Further, a survey given just once to a high-turnover group will measure a number of new employees in a job "honeymoon period" when morale is still high. In fact, some observers in the restaurant industry have the opinion that high turnover is not all bad since it does, even if just temporarily, produce a group of workers who have relatively high morale. In contrast, the participants in Herb Schervish's educational incentive program were given the morale survey at the very end of the second semester after they had worked and attended classes for several months. One could argue that it is to the program's credit that their morale remained high over such a long period of time.

By doing a statistical analysis of the responses to the 50-question survey, five different subscales, each measuring a different aspect of morale, were developed: perception of the company's sensitivity to worker feelings and needs, how much the workers like the job, the sense of responsibility that workers feel toward the job, how much the job is perceived to be contributing to worker growth, and the workers' sense of optimism about the future. More research will be done on morale, using the refined survey, with particular emphasis on the effect on length of employment on morale.

Conclusion

The total investment by Mr. Schervish in the experimental program in 1987-88 was about $10,000. Taking into account the cost of turnover at the Renaissance Center store, he feels that an

educational incentive program provides an immediate payback for the store and employees.

Beyond the positive effect educational incentive programs can have on retaining production workers in the service industries, it can also have a positive impact on the two other current problems witnessed by our fictitious travelers from the opening of this article. The first is the need to provide educational opportunities to the disadvantaged an ideal held by both elected public servants and the higher education community. Since young workers in the service industries are often from disadvantaged backgrounds and aspire toward further education but do not have the incentive or resources to do so, educational assistance programs represent a powerful partnership between business and education that can enhance the future of many young people. Second, many institutions of higher education, which stand ready to provide educational opportunities but cannot seem to attract and retain disadvantaged students, will be placed in a position of fulfilling their mission to their service areas and society in general.

In short, educational incentive programs produce a winning situation for all concerned—for the services industry as a whole, the individual store operators who are trying to retain a productive work force, young people who are attempting to obtain post-secondary education, the higher education community, and ultimately, our society.

Sal D. Rinella

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Appendix

Table 1

A Comparison of the Monthly Turnover Rates of Employees Who Are Eligible/Participating, Eligible/Not Participating and Who Are Ineligible (in High School) for the Program to Reduce Turnover Rate at the Renaissance Center Store September, 1987 through April, 1988.

	Eligible Employees						Ineligible Employees		
	Participating			Not Participating			(High School Students)		
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
	Crew size	Turnover	Rate (B/A)	Crew Size	Turnover	Rate (E/D)	Crew Size	Turnover	Rate (H/G)
Sept.	24	1	4.2%	11	6	54.5%	22	3	13.6%
Oct.	23	0	0.0%	8	0	0.0%	24	4	16.6%
Nov.	23	1	4.3%	11	0	0.0%	21	2	9.5%
Dec.	22	2	9.1%	15	1	6.6%	23	7	30.4%
Jan.	23	0	0.0%	12	3	25.0%	17	0	0.0%
Feb.	26	2	7.6%	8	3	37.5%	20	4	20.0%
March	24	3	12.5%	6	2	33.3%	17	1	5.9%
April	21	0	0.0%	4	0	0.0%	26	4	15.4%
Totals:	186	9		75	15		170	25	

Calculation of Overall Turnover Rate

	Eligible Participating	Eligible Not-Participating	Ineligible Not-Participing
(1) Total of Actual Monthly Crew Sizes	186	75	170
(2) Number of Months	8	8	8
(3) Average Crew Size Per Month	23.25	9.38	21.25
(4) Total Number of Resignations/Terminations	9	15	25
Overall Turnover Rate (4-3)	38.7%	160%	117.6%

Table 2
A Comparison of Sales and Numbers of Customers per Employee Hour for the Renaissance Center Store September through April 1986-87 and 1987-88.

| | 1986-87 | | 1987-88 | | 1988-89 | |
| | A | B | C | D | E^1 | F^2 |
	Sales/hr	Customers/hr	Sales/hr	Customers/hr	Sales/hr	Customers/hr
Sept.	21.98	8.68	22.71	9.17	+.73	+.41
Oct.	22.14	9.29	24.14	9.64	2.00	+.35
Nov.	24.12	10.18	23.12	9.07	-.91	-1.11
Dec.	22.26	9.15	22.28	9.17	+.02	+.02
Jan.	22.77	9.36	24.80	9.86	+1.31	+.50
Feb.	24.36	10.35	23.53	10.09	-.83	1.26
March	24.80	10.10	25.77	10.72	+.97	+.62
April	22.51	8.69	24.42	10.39	+1.91	+1.70
Monthly Average	23.12	9.48	23.77	9.76	+.65 (+2.8%)	+.29 (+3.1%)

[1]Column C minus Column A
[2]Column D minus Column B

Academic Benefits of On-Campus Employment to First-Year Developmental Education Students

Carolyn Wilkie and Marquita Jones

In an era of declining enrollments in postsecondary education, colleges and universities have intensified their efforts to retain students. Many strategies have produced at least some success. These include the emphasis on integrated academic and counseling intervention programs that gained support in the 1970s and the freshman year experience programs that proliferated throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s.

One key to many of the recent movements in higher education is that they are designed to increase students' involvement in their own academic experiences. Tinto (1975), Astin (1977, 1984), the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in Higher Education (1984), and Fleming (1985) cite involvement as a key factor in student success, satisfaction, and retention.

Astin (1984) describes student involvement as "the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (p. 36). He states that a highly involved student (e.g., one who studies for a considerable amount of time, spends a considerable amount of time on campus, is an active participant in campus organizations, interacts frequently with faculty and other students) is more likely to be successful academically, satisfied with the college experience, and to persist in school. The opposite is characteristic of uninvolved students.

One type of involvement is working on campus. In research involving over 41,000 students nationwide, Astin (1975) has verified that there are differences in persistence between students who engage in part-time employment and students who do not work. He concludes that "part-time work *facilitates* student persistence" (p. 79). Additionally, he reports a 10-15% decrease in the dropout probability for students who engage in part-time employment. On-campus work is preferable to off-campus work in terms of student retention; however, the type and campus location of the employment per se are not related to retention (Astin, 1975).

Astin's (1982) work concerning minority students indicates that the number of hours worked per week significantly affects student persistence, and that students who work more than 20 hours per week have significantly lower persistence rates. Furthermore, enrolling minority students who anticipate that they will have to work at an outside job are significantly less likely to persist than those who do not believe that they will have to work at outside jobs. In agreement with Astin's point, Wenc (1983) posits that the higher persistence rates among students who are employed part-time in campus jobs result from students being and feeling more highly integrated into the institutions' structures.

Other studies have also investigated the effects of on-campus employment on academic achievement. A few of these, representing earlier research, found that there is no difference in the academic performance levels of students who work on campus and those who do not. These include studies by Trueblood (1957), Kaiser and Bergen (1968) (which focus only on first-semester GPAs), Barnes and Keene (1974), and Legrand, Piercy, and Panos (1970). In the last study, the researchers conclude that students who are employed part-time on campus are not adversely affected academically by the time spent working, and that any disadvantages are offset by positive factors such as the responsible behaviors they develop.

More recently, researchers have concluded that working part-time on campus correlates positively with academic performance. Brooks (1980) found higher academic achievement by students who work part-time under the College Work-Study Program versus students who do not, although there are no significant differences in the persistence rates of these two groups. A study conducted by Giles-Gee (1989), which includes attention to the nonacademic variables that affect the academic progress and retention of black students, shows a significant and positive correlation between on-campus employment and semester GPA. Voorhees (1985) reports significantly higher retention rates and academic achievement levels for first-year students who are awarded College Work-Study. Over one quarter of this sample consists of minority students.

Only one study indicating that on-campus employment was associated with lower academic achievement could be identified. This study of 700 students, conducted at the University of Maryland (Maryland Longitudinal Study Steering Committee, 1988), shows that students who are employed part-time on campus earn *lower* grade point averages in their first year than did other first-year students who are not employed. In the same study, however, it was reported that students who work part-time on campus are retained at slightly higher rates than students who are not employed or who are employed off campus. Black freshmen who are *not* employed also have higher grade point averages and higher persistence rates than black freshmen who hold part-time on-campus employment.

Astin's research shows that campus employment is positively related to retention when it involves a moderate number of hours. The other literature focuses on the relationship between on-campus employment and academic achievement. With only one exception, on-campus employment is *not* found to hinder academic achievement. More positively, in some studies, it is associated with higher academic performance.

The academic characteristics of the students in the literature cited above have not been described, and one should not assume that the results apply to developmental education college students. Several academic characteristics that could connect employment during college to academic achievement and retention distinguish developmental education students from other college students. In contrast to traditional college students, "new students" (Cross, 1974, 1976) in developmental education classes typically demonstrate lower academic performance in high school and lower academic performance in college, lower college placement test scores, higher college attrition rates, less well-developed critical thinking and learning skills, and, being first-generation college students, they have less well-developed concepts of the collegiate experience.

Method

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to investigate whether Astin's theory of the efficacy of involvement applies to a population of developmental education students. In this study, "involvement" is operationalized through on-campus employment and measured by both academic achievement and persistence.

Sample: All students ($N = 1012$) who were admitted to Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP) through the special admissions "Learning Center/Act 101 Program" from 1987 - 1989 comprise the population for this study. Students were placed into this program upon admission to the institution because their high school profiles and SAT scores, substantially

lower than those of mainstream IUP students, demonstrate the need for remedial and/or developmental education assistance and intensive educational advising. The mean total SAT of the students in the three-year period of this study was 737, and the modal high school percentile rank was in the third fifth. By gender and ethnic group, there were 594 (59%) females and 418 (41%) males; 504 (50%) were white, 465 (46%) were black, and 39 (4%) were students of other races. All were first-year students, and 99% were younger than 21 years of age.

First-Year Learning Center (LC)/Act 101 Program students were selected as the target group for this study for two reasons: a) they are the developmental education admissions group at IUP; and, b) most (93%) of the students who worked on campus from this group were doing so under the auspices of the newly-developed "Learning Center Federal Work-Study (College Work- Study) Program." As described previously by Ender, Joseph, Novels, Moss, and Wray (1989), this program was an effort to assist students in becoming more involved with and more psychologically integrated into the university. Another goal was to provide students with work experiences and work habits that could be valuable in securing future employment.

Hypotheses and Procedure:

Three hypotheses were studied:

1) There will be significant differences in the cumulative first-year academic performance of students in each of three employment status groups: Group 1 (students with *no* on-campus employment); Group 2 (students with fewer than 200 hours of on-campus employment); and, Group 3 (students with 200+ hours of on-campus employment). The highest performance will be achieved by the students with the greatest degree of involvement — Group 3.

2) There will be significant differences in the rates of retention to the second year among the three groups of students identified in Hypothesis #1. These differences will favor the students with 200+ hours of employment.

3) Students working under the Learning Center Federal Work-Study Program will report a high level of satisfaction with their employment in terms of the following: a) satisfaction with work assignments and the level of direction given for the completion of tasks, b) the development of skills perceived to be useful for future employment, c) the development of time-management skills perceived to be useful for academic life in general, and d) the development of positive relationships with their peer workers and supervisors.

Students participated in a meeting during their required pre-college summer program in which the benefits and processes of working on campus were explained. Students who were eligible to receive College Work-Study (CWS) funding during the academic year were encouraged to participate in this work opportunity. To better insure that working would not interfere with their potential study time, the CWS award was limited to $800, which equated to eight (8) hours per week. A petition process was developed to award eligible students additional funding, if requested.

Through the special Learning Center Federal Work-Study Program, departments and offices hired the Learning Center freshmen who were eligible for College Work-Study funding and who were interested in being employed. The student's award was transferred to the employing department's budget. Over the three-year period addressed in this study, 64% of the students eligible to work under this program did so. At the end of each fall semester, the students who were employed through this program completed program evaluations in which they indicated their level of satisfaction with various aspects of the program, using a Likert-type response set. Employment supervisors also completed program evaluations at the end of the academic year.

Students who were not eligible to receive funding through College Work-Study, or who were eligible until they received alternate forms of financial aid, were able to secure employment on campus through funding sources such as grants and university employment funds. It

was recommended to these students that they limit their employment to 8-10 hours per week.

Results and Discussion

Academic Achievement: The 121 (12%) students whose data were incomplete in terms of cumulative grade point average (CGPA) and/or predicted grade point average (PGPA) were excluded from analysis. This group was comprised of students who did not complete one or both semesters of their first year, and returning adult students for whom SAT and high school rank data are unavailable. Chi-square tests demonstrate that the students who were included in the analysis did *not* differ significantly on race and sex variables from the students who were excluded from the analysis because of missing data ($p = .45013$). Data from the remaining 891 students are included for analysis. This includes 448 students (223 males, 225 females) in Group 1 (no on-campus employment); 251 students (92 males, 159 females) in Group 2 (1 - 199 hours of on-campus employment); and 192 students (55 males, 137 females) in Group 3 (200+ hours of on-campus employment). For the majority of students (at least 67%), the group to which they were assigned in the analysis was self-selected. This percentage represents both the students who worked and those who were eligible for the College Work-Study Program but who elected to not work on campus. It should be noted that students who are not eligible for College Work-Study funding are still able to secure employment on campus; however, the opportunities are more limited. Chi-square analyses indicate that these groups differ significantly on gender ($p = .0000$), with Group 3 having a higher percentage of females than expected; on race ($p = .0000$), with Group 1 having a higher percentage of white students than expected; and on PGPA ($p = .0000$), wherein Group 3 has a higher predicted average than either of the other groups. As is pointed out later, however, this variable was controlled for in the statistical analysis that was performed. The disproportionately higher number of females in Group 3 is likely to have positively influenced both the achievement and the retention outcomes, since the females in the Learning Center/ Act 101 program traditionally have higher CGPAs and higher retention rates than the males

in the program. We would anticipate that the disproportionate number of white students in Group 1 would have no real effect on the outcomes, however, since both white females and white males were included in this group. The reason is that traditionally, higher CGPAs are attained by white and black females, and lower CGPAs are attained by white and black males.

The first-year mean cumulative grade point averages (CGPA) earned by these three groups were compared using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The predicted grade point averages (PGPAs) were used as the co-variate. (During the time that the students in this study applied to the university, the formula placed approximately 1/3 weight on the combined SAT scores and 2/3 weight on the high school rank.)

As Tables 1 and 2 show, the students with the highest rates of on-campus employment (200+ hours), Group 3, have a significantly higher mean CGPA than the students in Groups 1 and 2. The mean CGPA for Group 3 is 2.28. A Tukey post-hoc test indicates that the mean CGPAs of Groups 1 (1.86) and 2 (1.80) do not differ significantly from each other, but that they are both significantly lower than the mean CGPA achieved by Group 3 ($p = .0000$). Although the PGPAs for these three groups are significantly different ($p = .0000$), with Group 3 having the highest PGPA, these differences are controlled through the ANCOVA procedure, for which the PGPA is the co-variate. Through this statistical procedure, an adjusted sum of squares is used to calculate the significance of the differences between the CGPA means.

There is no significant two-way interaction between employment status and gender ($p = .519$), or between employment status and race ($p = .634$). The mean CGPAs achieved by each gender/race group are presented in Table 3. Within each gender/race group, the mean CGPAs achieved by Group 3 students are significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the CGPAs achieved by students with fewer or no on-campus employment hours.

Retention: Table 4 shows that a Pearson chi-square analysis was completed to determine

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Table 1
Cumulative Academic Achievement by Employment Status Group

Employment Status Group	N	CGPA	Probability
1 (No employment)	448	1.86	Grps. 1 & 2 $p > .05$
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	251	1.80	Grps. 2 & 3 $p < .05$
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	192	2.28	Grps. 1 & 3 $p < .05$

Table 2
ANCOVA Results with CGPA as Dependent Variable

	Adjusted sums of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Co-variate (PGPA)	64.116	1	64116	146.755	0.000
Main Effects	57.351	5	11.470	26.254	0.000
Hours	13.211	2	6.605	15.119	0.000
Race	34.896	2	17.448	39.937	0.000
Gender	4.343	1	4.343	9.941	0.002
2-Way Interactions	5.892	8	.737	1.686	0.098
Hours by Race	1.120	4	.280	.641	.634
Hours by Gender	.590	2	.295	.675	.509
Race by Gender	4.317	2	.159	4.941	.007
3-Way Interactions Hours by Race by Gender	1.570	4	.393	.898	.464
Explained	128.929	18	7.163	16.395	.000

Table 3
CGPAs by Employment Group, Race, and Gender

Employment Group	BF**	BM**	WF**	WM**
1 (No campus employment)	1.60	1.68	2.21	1.81
2 (Minimal; <200 hrs)	1.71	1.42	2.25	1.89
3 (Involved; 200+ hrs)	1.99*	1.89*	2.57*	2.22*

* Significantly higher than Groups 1 & 2 ($p< .05$)
** BF = Black Female, BM = Black Male, WF = White Female, WM =White Male

Table 4
Differences in Retention Rates by Employment Status*

Employment Group	Retention*	
	% Returned	% Did Not Return
1 (No campus employment)	75.4	24.6
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	73.6	26.4
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	90.9	9.1

Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .00000
*"Retention" = persistence to the second year

differences in the one-year retention rates of students in each of the three groups. The retention for Group 3, which has the highest amount of on-campus employment, is significantly higher than the retention rates of the other two groups (91%, Group 3; 75%, Group 1; 74%, Group 2). The retention rates for Groups 1 and 2 do not differ significantly from one another.

Table 5 shows the retention rates of each gender by employment categories. As with the overall retention reported above, the retention rate of males in Group 3 (95%) is significantly higher than the retention rates of males in Groups 1 (77%) and 2 (80%). The same finding is true of females, although the pattern of retention rates is slightly different. As with the males, the

Table 5
Differences in Retention Rates by Employment Status and Gender

Employment Group/Gender	Retention	
	% Returned	% Did Not Return
Males (*n*=370)		
1(No campus employment)	77	23
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	80	20
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	95	5
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0085		
Females (*n*=521)		
1 (No campus employment)	74	26
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	70	30
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	89	11
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0001		

females in Group 3 have a significantly higher retention rate (89%) than females in the other two groups, but the retention rate for Group 1 females (74%) is slightly higher than the retention rate for Group 2 females (70%).

Table 6 shows the retention rates for each ethnic group by employment category. The highest retention rates are again evidenced by students with the highest employment involvement (Group 3). Within the black student group, the differences are only slightly significant ($p = .0682$), although they are considerable (Group 3 = 82%; Group 2 = 71%; Group 1 = 68%). The differences are statistically significant within the white student group ($p = .0001$), where the students with the highest workload, Group 3, have a retention rate of 97%. The retention rates of the other two employment groups of white students are 82% (Group 1) and 79% (Group 2).

Finally, we investigated whether there were differences in retention by employment status and race/gender. These results, reported in Table 7, show that white females demonstrate the greatest difference in retention by employment status. Consistent with our overall findings, the white females with the greatest degree of employment involvement have significantly higher retention rates than the other groups of white females (96%, Group 3; 83%, Group 1; 73%, Group 2; $p = .0009$). The differences in retention rates by employment status are also significant for white males (100%, Group 3; 87%, Group 2; 82%, Group 3; $p = .0271$).

Although the pattern of students with the highest on-campus employment evidencing higher retention rates holds for black males and black females, the differences are not as striking. For black females, the differences in retention rates between the employment groups were significant only at the .10 level (80%, Group 3; 69%, Group 2; 64%, Group 1). For black males, the differences in retention rate by employment status are not statistically significant (86%, Group 3; 75%, Group 2; 73%, Group 1; $p = .3898$). Thus, for white males and females, the assumption that higher retention is associated with the higher number of employment hours is confirmed. This

Table 6
Differences in Retention Rates by Employment Status and Race

	Retention	
Employment Group/Race	% Returned	% Did Not Return
Black Students		
1 (No campus employment)	68	32
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	71	29
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	82	18
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0682		
White Students		
1 (No campus employment)	82	18
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours)	79	21
3 (Involved; 200+ hours)	97	3
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0002		

Table 7
Differences in Retention Rates by Employment Status and Race/Gender

	Retention	
Employment Group	% Returned	% Did Not Return
1 (No campus employment; BM**)	72	28
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours; BM)	75	25
3 (Involved; 200+ hours; BM)	86	14
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .3898		
1 (No campus employment; BF**)	64	36
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours; BF)	69	31
3 (Involved; 200+ hours; BF)	80	20
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .1020		
1 (No campus employment; WM**)	82	18
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours; WM)	87	13
3 (Involved; 200+ hours; WM)	100	0
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0271		
1 (No campus employment; WF**)	83	17
2 (Minimal; < 200 hours; WF)	73	27
3 (Involved; 200+ hours; WF)	96	4
Pearson Chi-Square Significance = .0001		

*N*s = 159 (Black Males); 253 (Black Females); 198 (White Males); 249 (White Females)
** BF = Black Female, BM = Black Male, WF = White Female, WM = White Male

pattern also holds true for black students, although the differences are not statistically significant when black males and black females are studied separately. The differences in this subanalysis may be attributable to the smaller numbers of students in each cell.

Student Satisfaction: Sixty percent (60%) of the students who participated in the Learning Center Federal Work-Study Program completed program evaluations. Overall, the students indicated a high degree of satisfaction with various aspects of the program, as shown in Table 8. Ninety-six percent (96%) of the students indicated that they were satisfied with their work assignments, and 97% responded that they felt the work assignment was appropriate for their level of preparation for the task. Students also reported that they were very satisfied (72%) with the directions given for the work they were to perform.

Table 8
Student Evaluations of Selected Aspects of the Learning Center Federal Work-Study Program

	Responses (%)		
Item	Very Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Generally and Moderately Dissatisfied (combined)
Satisfaction with Work Assignment	60%	36%	4%
Satisfaction with Directions Given to Perform Work	72%	24%	3%
Appropriateness of Work to Level of My Preparation	67%	30%	3%
Satisfaction with Number of Employment Hours per Week	41%	40%	20%
	Yes (Great)	Yes (Minor)	Not at All
Did your job interfere with your study time?	4%	16%	81%
	Yes	No	Uncertain
Are you learning new job skills that will help you in future employment?	75%	25%	0%
Are you developing positive relationships with professionals and co-workers?	53%	27%	20%

When students were asked if they felt working on campus interfered with their study time, 81% said that it did not interfere at all, 15% felt that it interfered to a minor degree, and 3% indicated that working was a major interference. Some students reported some dissatisfaction (20%) with the quantity of work hours to which they were limited; however, the majority (80%) of the students reported satisfaction with the number of hours they were eligible to work.

The majority (75%) of the students also reported learning new skills that would be useful to them in future employment. In addition to reporting a high level of satisfaction with various aspects of their work, many students' evaluations and comments suggest that they are developing important interpersonal and professional relationships with their employment supervisors and co-workers (53%). A very high percentage (94%) of the students believe that the program should continue to be offered.

Conclusions

The literature indicates that part-time employment is generally a significant variable in the persistence of students in general. We

undertook our research to see if these findings also applied to developmental education students— and, clearly, participating in limited on-campus employment was *not* detrimental to them. In contrast, the major finding of the present research is that working *part-time on campus* for an average of eight hours per week *throughout the freshman year* is associated with significantly higher academic achievement and significantly higher retention rates for traditional-age developmental education students than *either* a lower frequency of employment *or* no on-campus employment. We interpret this as supporting Astin's theory of the critical role that involvement plays in student success and persistence.

It is important to consider that the vast majority (93%) of the students on whom the present study is based participated in a work experience that was highly structured—a characteristic commonly believed to be critical for developmental education students. The project staff communicated the goals and procedures of the program with students and employment supervisors before students made the commitment to participate; they attempted to match work assignments with students' interests, majors, and skills; they monitored students' satisfaction and provided mediation, when necessary; and they provided workshops to assist students to develop job-related skills and knowledge, such as interviewing, work ethics, and demeanor.

As reported in an earlier section, 64% of the students eligible for the special work program participated in it. The 36% who elected not to work on campus may have done so for a variety of reasons, and it is also important to consider the role that motivation and other factors may have played in producing the differential effects reported in this study. Frequently, we heard from these students that they were advised not to work by their high school guidance counselors and/or by their parents because working might interfere with study time. (Both the statistical analysis and students' evaluations suggest, however, that this is a false assumption.) Second, many local students often chose to retain their jobs in the

community rather than taking a new job on campus, which often had a lower pay rate. Third, some students simply did not want to work, and others feared potential failure in the work arena. These last two reasons may actually have been attributes that also characterized these students' approaches to their academic work and their decisions to remain in college.

Last, it is important to consider the role that support from others in the work site may have played in contributing to the higher averages and higher retention rates among the students who were most highly involved with on-campus employment. Students often entered into supportive relationships with other students with whom they worked. This may have been a positive factor in students' adjustment and in their "learning the system." The relationships with their supervisors may have served a similar purpose, as well as being a positive factor in their satisfaction with the university, and thus, in their decisions to return for a second year.

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UPS Study Relates Student Employment to Job Hunting Success After Graduation

Robert Foreman

Of the 314 million Americans aged 16 to 24 years in 1990, 15.2 million were enrolled in either college or high school. Logic would seem to indicate that their reason for being in school is to attain an education—specifically an education that would, upon graduation, assist in their pursuit of employment. In support of this assumption, UCLA Professor Alexander Astin has surveyed incoming freshmen since 1967, and has consistently found that the number one reason students attend college is to get a better job.

But what factors make some graduates more attractive than others in the eyes of potential employers? Certainly a specialized degree in a field that is in demand makes the job-hunting task less difficult. But what other attributes can the graduate-applicant bring to the table in his or her search for employment?

Two of these attributes immediately come to mind. The first is grade point average (GPA). This measure of performance has traditionally been perceived by students, and their parents, as a benchmark for interviewers in predicting the future success of a potential employee.

However, its importance among employers may be overstated when compared to the second obvious attribute—previous work experience. Has the applicant accepted the responsibility of employment while attending school? How has he or she performed in these prior work assignments?

Of these two predictors of success, GPA and work experience, which carries the most weight with employers? To answer that question, the corporate Human Resources department of United Parcel Service surveyed a variety of companies through out the nation to examine the impact that part-time student employment has on full-time employment opportunities after graduation. Of the 2,000 surveys distributed to human resources professionals from a wide variety of fields, 1,201 were completed and returned.

To Hire or Not To Hire?

Survey participants were asked to respond to the following question: How much consideration does an employer place upon part-time work experience when hiring a college graduate for his or her first full-time professional or managerial position?

Of the survey participants, 77% stated that they often consider or strongly consider previous

part-time employment when hiring for the above positions. The response strongly indicates that part-time work adds to the employment profile of a college graduate, and often is a determining factor for the Human Resources professional making the selection.

In the following section, participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements put forth. Almost 89% disagreed or strongly disagreed with grade point average being the single most important criterion for selection of a college graduate, and almost 86% agreed or strongly agreed that *part-time work experience can be considered as important as grade point average.* These results clearly support the premise that work experience combined with above average grades is more attractive to potential employers than excellent grades alone.

An overwhelming 94% of the survey respondents indicate that, given two applicants with equal academic qualifications, they would select the candidate with part-time work experience over one without work experience.

Experience the Best Teacher?

In addition to determining if human resources professionals valued part-time work experience, the survey attempted to identify why they might place a value on that experience. To that end, survey participants were asked to agree or disagree with a number of statements regarding work performance.

Among particpants, 62% believed that *graduates with part-time work experience produced higher quality work than those with no work experience* in their first professional position. More than two-thirds of the survey respondents--68%—believe that graduates with part-time work experience accept supervision and direction more willingly than those without prior work experience, and 66% believe that graduates with work experience demonstrate better time management skills.

Almost 65% of the survey participants agreed or strongly agreed that graduates with previous work experience are better able to interact with coworkers on team projects than are graduates with no work experience.

Two additional questions were asked to gather opinions on the value of work experience in enhancing a graduate's ability to make a quick transition from college to the full-time work environment.

Over 91% of the human resources managers responding agreed or strongly agreed that work experience enabled the graduates to make a more rapid transition, and 89% agreed or strongly agreed that graduates with part-time work experience have more realistic expectations of their employers than do those without work experience.

Logic Prevails

From the survey results, it is apparent that human resources professionals believe that *part-time work experience enhances a graduate's potential work to employers—giving him or her an edge in obtaining career oriented employment. They also believe that candidates with work experience produce better results, more quickly, than do their counterparts with no work experience. Other studies also indicate that students who worked part-time while attending school receive higher earnings--particularly in the first five years after graduation.*

So, in the opinions of the 1,201 survey respondents, regarding the question of whether work experience is an advantage for graduates seeking full-time jobs, it seems that logic prevails. Potential employers believe that work during college provides significant benefits to students who are willing to undertake the experience.

About the Survey

In 1991, Bob Foreman of the corporate Human Resources Department of United Parcel Service conducted a nationwide survey of 2,000 Human Resources managers, who were selected randomly from the 1990 Directory of Human Resources Professionals. Of the 2,000 surveys originally distributed, 1,201 were completed and returned, 728 elicited no response, and 71 were returned as undeliverable. The result was a 62% return of the surveys actually recieved by the human resources managers.

The respondents were asked to identify the classification that best described their business, and

to note the total number of employees at their company.

The manufacturing industry represented the largest single group of respondents, at 40% of the total. But a wide variety of other fields, including food services, computer services, utilites, wholesale trade, retail sales, banking and financial services, transportation, insurance, and educational services reflected 60% of the survey's input.

The survey responses also reflected variety in terms of size of company. The most responses, 23%, were received from companies with 1,000 to 10,000 employees, and approximately 8.5% came from human resources professionals representing companies with 10,000 or more employees. Companies of less than 1,000 employees accounted for 68.5% of the responses.

This diversity among the companies responding to the survey would indicate that, although more extensive and sophisticated study may be required to draw definitive conclusions, there exists a broad-based group of hiring professionals that places a high value on the student who works while attending college.

Robert Foreman

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The New Entry Level for Career Jobs: Student Working Pays Off

Donald A. Casella and Catherine E. Brougham

Once upon a time, the accepted entry level for the professional American workforce was after graduation from college. Corporate America would visit our campuses and try to ferret out the best and the brightest from among our seniors, soon to "enter the real world" for the first time. No longer! Those companies who still come to campus for recruiting seniors are finding that the "pick of the crop" are often not even in the recruiting pool. Also, those students waiting until the semester of their graduation are often behind the curve, even if their grades are exceptional and they have been model students. What has happened?

These phenomena are but two sides of the same coin: work experience, internships, cooperative education, and volunteering before graduation have become the new entry level for professional level work after graduation. Smart students and smart recruiters have known this for a while and are quietly using these paths to more effective recruiting.

In a recent survey at San Francisco State University (Table 1), the evidence of this new trend in recruiting is significant. When May graduates were asked in October, "What is the most important factor in your finding work?" a whopping 56% declared, "My work experience, internship, or volunteering!"

Table 1
Factors Most Important in Finding Work: Surveys of
SFSU Graduates

Factor	1986 %	1993 %
High GPA	2.7	4.4
Choice of major	16.7	13.0
Work experience/ internship/volunteer	38.4	56.0
Effective job search campaign	3.9	7.1
Extracurricular activities	4.3	2.2
Personality skills	14.1	19.9
Knowing someone influential	9.6	15.1
Other	10.3	6.9

Source. *Where Have They Gone?* San Francisco State University Career Center, 1986, 1994.

Over the last few years, this has been a growing trend. In 1980, the percentage of graduates marking "experience" as the most important factor was 35% and has been steadily climbing every year the survey has been taken, reaching now to 56%. In contrast, "Choice of Major" has been in a reverse trend, declining over the years

as an important factor in finding work. In 1980, the percentage was 30% and has declined to the present 13%.

Students Are Workers

The majority of students do work, and the percentage of working students continues to grow. On most campuses, 70% or more of the students are employed by their senior year of college (Conrad & Hedin 1981; McCartan, 1988). The increase in working students is caused by many factors, such as a higher percentage of older students and students who are supporting children, as well as higher tuition costs and living expenses. How this work effects both academic performance and a student's future career is determined by both the quantity and the quality of the work.

Of the students who do work, nearly two-thirds work part-time. There is evidence that, while working full-time can cause academic versus job conflict, part-time work actually has a positive effect on both grade point average and student persistence. One study, conducted for the Washington Higher Education Coordinating Board indicated that students working 15 to 20 hours per week tended to perform better academically than either students who worked 0 to 10 hours a week, or students who worked more than 20 hours (McCartan, 1988).

No Substitute For Experience

Any work experience has the potential to generate benefits for the student. Even when the work is not related to a student's field of study, an employed student is building networks, calling forth greater organization and responsibility, increasing awareness of work skills, strengths, and values, and is all the while gaining self-confidence. The employment most valuable, however, is that which gives students the opportunity to work in a targeted field.

Internships and cooperative education positions provide employment that seems to fit the optimum profile for academic performance and career success. Internships and co-ops are nearly always 10 to 20 hour positions and are integrally linked to academic study and career choice. Other paid employment and volunteer positions may also fit this profile of "part-time professional positions." It is the part-time professional position which offers the greatest benefits to the working student, both before and after graduation.

In either case, the odds are better for successful career employment among these working, networking, skill-developing students than for their counterparts who wait until the end of their college experience to step into the "real" world.

Students Learn Everywhere

While still in school, part-time working experiences enliven classroom material and integrate theory with practical experience. When what is being taught can actually be applied, the learning becomes more relevant for the student, creating greater motivation for study (Veenendall, 1983; Davis, 1987). This may be one of the factors which influence the fact that student retention is enhanced by participation in internship or co-op experiences (Kerka, 1989).

These work experiences also help a student to test career *interests*. Students clarify and better understand both career and personal goals through actual experience in an internship setting (Davis, 1987). Studies have shown that internships often change student preferences regarding their choice of the ideal job, while increasing careers in their field of study after graduation. Exposure to the work place inculcates students with a sense of reality regarding their career choices, and new employees who have interned have the advantage of realistic expectations and more appropriate career goals and strategies (Pedro, 1984; Gardner & Lambert, 1993).

Another benefit and prime motivation for interns is the acquisition of specific job skills. On-the-job training is a central component of internships, and students can use hands-on practice of specialized skills. Training programs and acquired skills often can be translated into powerful resume material, and provide graduating interns with a clear, competitive edge over other graduates.

Work experience before graduation provides more than practical job training and skills. It also contributes to an individual's *personal development* in a number of ways. Part-time

positions, internships in particular, provide opportunities to take on professional level responsibilities despite limited experience. Such opportunities develop self-reliance, self-confidence and responsibility (Kerka, 1989).

Roark, in her 1983 paper concerning students who work on campus, discusses how employed students gain confidence themselves as workers. Through work experiences, students develop greater understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses, values and goals. Student employment "promotes developmental growth in college students in ways that are not available through academic and social experience alone. Values, skills, emotional maturity, personal identity and integrity are fostered through employment experiences" (Roark, 1983).

Student/Workers Or Worker/Students?

All of these benefits discussed make the student with work experience before graduation much more valuable in the job market. Bentia Myers, an accountant for the IRS, speaking of this advantage commented, "An employer can always tell the difference when interviewing a student who has been out there in an internship. There is increased maturity and knowledge of the field and experience gained which makes a big difference" (*S.F.S.U. Career Guide*, 1993).

Powerful resumes and confident interviewing, clear goals, and acquired experience and skills all lead to better job prospects for the working student after graduation, but such work leads to jobs in an even more direct way. Serving in these positions helps to develop a personal network for jobs, complete with professional contacts (Davis, 1987; Seibert & Sypher, 1989). Working, while one is a student, begins the process of networking early. Students are continually in contact with potential employers (Kerka, 1989). In a survey of Montclair State College interns, participating students reported they are "overwhelmed by the number of professional contacts they make" while serving in internship positions (Veenendall, 1983).

In addition, part-time positions can turn into full-time positions after graduation. When an intern remains with the employer of their student placement, graduates report a greater sense of power on the job and greater commitment and socialization to the employing organization (Brown, 1984). Data show that the cooperative education experience, especially, facilitates the transition from student to employee, and thus leads not only to jobs, but greater job satisfaction. Annual follow-ups of co-op graduates of La Guardia Community College (800-900 per year) indicate that 40-50% take jobs with their co-op employer, and their starting salaries are consistently higher than those of other two-year college graduates (Weintraub, 1980-1984).

Volunteering Counts

Volunteer positions can also offer students part-time professional work when paid internship or co-op positions are not available. Other than financial compensation, a volunteer position can offer all of the advantages of a paid position. There are also beneficial aspects specific to volunteering. Volunteer positions are often available in fields and agencies which are not profit-oriented. They may expose a student to social problems and provide an opportunity to contribute to the solutions of those problems.

However, even if volunteer positions are not served in areas or agencies existing to deal with social problems, the volunteer experience tends to make students more socially responsible citizens and fosters an appreciation of participating in their society (Swift, 1991). While the duties performed and job done will be as valuable on a resume as paid experience, volunteering tends to demonstrate greater motivation and commitment to the field to a potential employer.

Volunteer positions are a good alternative if a student is only able to contribute a few hours a week, needs more flexible "as available" scheduling, or has no prior work experience in a field which is competitive even for interns. Volunteering is also the easiest way to create a student position where none exist, and the valuable training can be viewed as a form of payment for service.

Cries Against Student Employment

Despite its advantages, student employment does not receive support from all quarters.

Many faculty lament the number of work hours students put in as detrimental to academic work, particularly in limiting study hours. As a result of heavier work schedules, students' time is less flexible for library use, field trips and study group participation (McCartan, 1988). Many also speculate that employment limits students' participation in valuable extracurricular activities as well.

In surveys conducted at five universities, Scott Schnackenberg found little difference in the way working versus non-working students spend their time. The only significant variance was in hours spent watching television: 51% of non-workers watched three or more hours a day compared to 34% of those who worked (McCartan, 1988).

There is evidence in studies on student attrition that one factor causing some students to quit college is conflict between work and school responsibilities. This is especially true for first-generation students—that is, students whose parents did not attend college. When faced with conflicts between work and school responsibilities, these students may see a job, not the college experience, as the key to their success.

This conflict is eased or virtually eliminated when employment is through a co-op placement or paid internship, which is part-time, integrated into a students' academic work, and arranged with employers who are seeking and therefore cooperating with students who are carrying a class load. With work a necessity for many students and a student body that is increasingly working off campus, universities need to respond with opportunities for work which will enhance student retention.

College/University Benefits

If a university recognizes and encourages student employment as career entry level, there can be a significant ripple effect. Such support can have a positive effect on curriculum development, the quality of student life, and even the finances and resources of the university.

Faculty and administrators are in better touch with the needs of the working world and the efficacy of academic programs to the workplace (Siebert & Sypher, 1989). This impacts the curriculum, testing and upgrading it to keep in step with the world outside the campus. Kerka (1989) refers to this advantage as "workplace-tested curriculum."

Improvements in programs and employment opportunities for the student body attract attention to universities and specific departments. They provide a highly effective mode of career education and a greater awareness of the employment opportunities in specific majors (Siebert & Sypher, 1989).

These improvements and greater recognition of a university's programs can translate into increased enrollment. Increased enrollment, in turn, can mean more selective admissions as well (Roarke, 1983). Additionally, internship and cooperative education programs have been found to increase both student retention and graduate placements (Kerka, 1989). More job placements relating to their major secured by graduates also adds to the reputation and desirability of a university as a whole.

Involvement of students in the working world can make good financial sense too. The liaisons formed with the business community develop potential funding sources. Also, use of business and industrial sites for learning means less need to maintain expensive state-of-the-art facilities to provide hands-on training. Therefore, better use can be made of limited school resources and facilities (Kerka, 1989).

Why Employers Are Switching

Recruiting by way of student workers has been advantageous to employing businesses and agencies, whether the student jobs be co-ops, internships, summer jobs, part-time jobs, or projects. Student worker programs provide motivated workers, now and in the future, at relatively low cost. Indeed, some students even work on a volunteer basis, especially in competitive fields. Hiring student workers has given employers better access to women and ethnically underrepresented workers. Additionally, the career hiring of former student workers has lowered both recruitment and training costs (Kerka, 1989).

As a result of using student workers, employers have had first access to career-minded workers who are better trained, known, and trusted by the company. They have more realistic expectations than other fresh graduates. Student workers who are hired by their placement employers show better socialization and greater commitment to the employing organization (Brown, 1984). Companies also enjoy greater employee retention and higher productivity from hired student workers (Kerka, 1989).

An interesting benefit was discussed in an interview with Charles Kunkel, Senior Manager of Research and Development for Union Pacific Railroad. Mr. Kunkel's department uses several co-op placements from different universities. He reports that not only are co-op workers consistently motivated and productive, but the periodic influx of enthusiastic, competitive "fresh blood" has a positive effect on the motivation and productivity of older employees as well as exposing them to new ideas and information from the academic world (Brougham, 1994).

How Should Universities Respond?

Many college educators, although aware of the fact that the majority of their students hold outside jobs, do not respond to the situation in any way other than to long for the days when academia was central to a student's life and outside work was an obstacle.

There is ample evidence showing how work experience can not only coexist, but actually enrich academic learning. Since students who want or need to work will continue to do so, the best strategy would be to focus on improving the quality of that work and its relevance to educational, personal, and career goals.

At the high end, cooperative education programs have proven themselves time and again to be invaluable to facilitating school and work integration. Universities which have such programs in place offer a real advantage to their students, and should continually seek ways to continue and expand the scope of existing programs. Cooperative education takes advantage of the old adage "if you can't beat 'em, join 'em" by outright sanctioning of outside work and

making it a learning experience and a part of a student's academic life. Many institutions, however, are unable to afford cooperative education programs even if they have enjoyed initial government seed funding. Substantial resources would seem to be needed to staff these programs, and faculty must support the programs and see their value. Otherwise they will never be able to integrate work experience into the curriculum (McCartan, 1988). When resources are not available for a thriving cooperative education program, institutions must be creative and find other ways to respond to the reality of working students.

One creative strategy is to find ways to improve the quality of college-sponsored work, such as work-study. Work-study was originally designed to be a career development program with financial aid as the secondary purpose. Examples of programs which do offer higher quality work-study are cited in McCartan's article "Students Who Work."

Whither The Career Center

A more practical and far-reaching strategy would focus on the vast pool of opportunities provided by existing off-campus work already being performed by students. Practice of career strategies such as networking, skill identification, resume building, communicating, value clarification and confidence building, any student worker in any work experience can use the work as a step toward a career job before graduation takes place.

Some college career centers are getting behind this student-worker-as-entry-level approach. They are shifting some resources from traditional senior recruiting programs and spending some time coordinating with faculty in programs which foster student success in integrating learning and earning. Together, faculty and Career Center staff are focusing on and developing opportunities for higher quality part-time positions. They seek employers who offer such part-time meaningful job opportunities. They woo them, praise them and bring them to the forefront of the University's consciousness. McCarten (1988) quotes the writing of Frank van Aalst who observed that "Adding a learning

component to . . . existing jobs is easier than designing an equal number of new, experiential-educational positions."

Even with no special programs or resources, faculty can play a role in making a students' academic experiences relevant to their working life. As McCartan (1988) points out, "At the very least, faculty could begin a course by collecting information on students' outside jobs (along with the usual questions about major, year in school, and reason for taking the course). This information can be used informally in a number of ways: to weave examples from students' jobs into lectures; to help students select relevant topics for research papers; to call on students to share how their work is related to the topic being discussed."

Summary: Work Works!

The most important factor, by far, in finding meaningful employment after graduation is work experience gained while still in college. It facilitates finding employment in two general ways. First, it makes students more valuable as workers by developing their skills as well as their knowledge of themselves and their chosen career. Secondly, it provides networking opportunities and allows the students to begin in positions that often develop into full-time, paid positions after graduation.

Simply, students will find ways to work while in college. Because this work plays such a central role in their future career success, it would be not only futile, but misguided, to discourage student employment. However, in examining the advantages and disadvantages of working during college, a profile emerges of the optimum work experience. The profile is a part-time professional position, of 10-20 hours per week, which, in some way, relates to an individual student's educational and career goals. Internships and cooperative education positions which are integrated into the curriculum represent the best opportunities for appropriate part-time professional positions.

Work experience which fits this profile is not only beneficial to students. There are significant benefits to both universities and the business community in supporting programs which create or support student workers. When universities approach the student/worker realistically, they will find opportunities to enrich rather than detract from learning. New solutions must be found to fully integrate "worker/student/s" into both the learning place and the earning place.

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Section 3

Making Student Employment Experiences More Productive

CHAPTER 11

The Context of Student Employment

Tom Little and Nancy Chinn

On-campus student employment is a highly visible, if little observed, phenomenon. Institutions seem to employ students in ever increasing numbers in all activities from providing assistance in classroom instruction and research laboratories to selling popcorn at intercollegiate athletic events. The actual number of student employees and their earnings are estimates, at best. One estimate is 1,200,000 students and earnings in excess of two billion dollars.

Student employment has a long and proud tradition. It is as old as American higher education. American biography is replete with stories of benevolent presidents of colonial colleges providing employment to needy youth to finance their education. Personal benevolence became institutionalized with Harvard, the first college, also being the first to have a formal student employment program to provide financial aid to students. With the land grant movement, student employment joined the curriculum, assisting students in acquiring practical skills and inculcating moral values, especially an appreciation of the "dignity of labor." The archives of many land grant institutions of the late 1800s include photographs and accounts of students employed in large numbers in farming, dairying, and building construction. These enterprises were important to developing and fiscally strapped institutions. They also helped institu-

tions counter the fears of farm parents that higher education would lead their sons and daughters from agrarian and practical values. It was a hopeless cause. The children of farmers went from colleges and technical institutes to the emerging cities to fashion an urban, industrialized society. The universities, as they emerged in this century, were significant in this development, providing mass education, community service, and basic research functions.

In the last five years, there has been increased dissatisfaction by all parties with student employment programs. Graduate students have successfully organized at a number of universities to bargain collectively on wages and working conditions. A high turnover in employment of all students suggests low overall student job satisfaction. At professional meetings of administrators of programs, there are horror stories about the behavior of both student employees and the persons who direct their work. At many institutions a work-study job is understood by both students and regular employees as a position that provides paid study time.

Student employment programs today operate in a context of conditions and values which can negatively affect their quality. Any attempt to improve the quality of these programs must be cognizant of these realities. Not only are they

powerful impediments to quality, but some, in being less than obvious, are often overlooked. A change in a simple operational procedure can be rejected because it conflicts with traditional values in higher education or the general culture.

There is an inherent conflict in the twin objectives of providing productive manpower for the institution and financial aid to students. This conflict of two centuries has been heightened by demographic changes in student population in the last decade as institutions attempt to serve persons previously excluded from higher education. With the increase in the number of older students, adults with good work experience and skills are asked to work on campus for wages which are much less than they earned in regular employment. To the contrary, more and more students who, from race or class discrimination, are ill prepared for productive work, must work to finance their education, with the institution they attend being in the position of employer of last resort.

This situation of a relatively smaller pool of willing and capable students is made more critical for institutions-as-employers by the changes in higher education itself. The 1970s was the decade for accountability in higher education. This movement continues and grows as external agencies ask for accountability of public funds and concurrence with regulations to effect desired societal objectives as diverse as equal employment opportunity and humane treatment of laboratory animals. Yet, in this situation where more work is required of institutions, fewer resources are available. Not only are funds not provided for regulatory compliance, but cuts are being required in both funds and the number of regular employees to support normal operations. In short, higher education is in the unenviable position of declining resources with expanding responsibilities.

Moreover, there are changes in the general economy which place colleges and universities at a competitive disadvantage as they try to employ students in overcoming this dilemma. In the general economy, the greatest growth is in the service industries, particularly in direct service occupations where skill requirements are typically minimal. Fast food franchise operations and retail sales do provide strong competition to higher education institutions as employers of students. The wages provided are certainly no less, and often more, and the working hours are much more flexible than those available in the daytime, weekday schedules of colleges and universities.

The competition for student workers is particularly acute in urban areas. It is in urban areas where the growth of direct service industries is greatest. It is also at urban institutions where there is the most growth in higher education. At urban institutions, students typically live off campus, are often part-time students, and in many cases 50% are employed off campus in the general economy. The orientation of these urban students is not to the institution but to the community, and it is, both in expectation and reality, the place of employment. With these constraints, institutions seeking student workers are hardly competitive with the local economy.

Institutions seem unwilling to improve their competitive position, particularly in the critical area of student wages. Students generally are paid less than regular institutional employees. One basis of this practice is the tradition, from the founding of the university, of the mendicant student. Supposedly, material well-being and creature comforts distract students from the pursuit of knowledge. The paternalism which is part of the ethos of American higher education hardly counters the mendicant tradition. The college will provide for essential needs, but nothing more. The difficulty is that needs as defined by government regulations and institutional policy are considerably less than those defined by popular culture.

The popular culture of mass media and mass consumption includes in its definition of acceptable life styles such items as stereos, phonograph records, automobiles, and designer jeans. These are hardly available to students from on-campus employment where earnings, in effect, are limited by a more Spartan, statutory definition of financial need. This conflict between cultural and statutory definitions of need constitute a powerful motivation for students to seek

employment off campus where earnings are not arbitrarily limited.

Another tradition with negative implications for student employment is a bias in higher education against concern for efficiency. The outcomes of higher education are considered by those within academe to be of such a kind and magnitude that concern for efficiency is blasphemous in the cathedral of learning. With this bias, institutional personnel, particularly those directly involved in the instructional process, act quite differently from persons in the general economy of goods and services in the management of work activity. In student employment, the lack of concern for efficiency means that work tasks for students are often poorly defined, with even less concern for active supervision and performance evaluation.

This bias against efficiency is compounded when student manpower is cheap manpower for the institution. As noted above, students are generally paid less than regular employees. Even these wages are often subsidized. For example, students employed with Federal College Work-Study funds, currently in excess of $500,000,000 annually, cost the institution only 20 cents on the dollar. With this favorable cost-sharing, a lack of concern for efficiency is compounded. If a student is half or a fourth as productive as regular employees, it is thought that the institution is still at an advantage for the funds it expends for student wages.

A final condition to be remembered when considering the state of student employment programs is the cultural perception of the student. By definition, to be a student is to be immature. Formal education, in providing work-related skills and knowledge, is the means to the competence of adults, with the associate or baccalaureate degree the certificate of competence. Student employment programs are victims of this cultural perception, the assumption being that students, not having completed a degree, are qualified for only menial tasks. In reality, most students can be competent at a technician level with a minimum of training. However, as employment is often limited to menial tasks, students do poor work even in these tasks from the boredom of under-employment. The cultural perception of the student as an incompetent worker becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.

This short explication of the conditions and values which provide a context for student employment can be prescriptive. To know the roots of a problem is to suggest solutions. The other section of the manual suggests new approaches which can provide a student-employment program more satisfying to the student as an employee, more productive to the institution as an employer, and more consistent with the mission of an institution to enhance the education and development of students through extracurricular as well as formal instructional activities.

Students Are Different

Students are diverse, and caution must be exercised when they are characterized as a unique, homogeneous population. Yet, in significant ways, students do differ from regular employees. Some differences have a basis in their youth and limited work experience, and other differences are from their mixed roles of student and part-time worker. These differences provide both challenges and opportunities to students, their work supervisors, and program administrators. These differences, if appreciated, can provide for common expectations, greater productivity, fewer administrative and personnel difficulties, and more satisfaction for students from their employment.

Students, as younger workers, can differ from older workers in perception of time. Young people think in the short time frame of days and weeks. For many, the weekend is the distant horizon. Older adults, from greater experience, think in a time frame of months and years. These different perceptions cause differences in expectations from work activity.

Young workers think much can be accomplished in a short time period. When this does not prove true, they can become inattentive or discouraged, lose motivation, or look for short-cuts to reduce the time required for a task. Conversely, older workers can underestimate what is possible in a short time. This predisposition is

even more pronounced in the case of routine tasks.

From repetition, any job becomes routine, acquiring extraneous elements. Parkinson's Law comes into play. Work expands to fill the time allotted. Operating from this framework, work supervisors, in scheduling student work, can give the students so little to do that they are seriously under-employed.

Another difference between young and adult workers is concern for impact. Older workers tend to think of work as an extended sequence of related activities designed to accomplish a task eventually. No one activity is considered of particular consequence. Change, if it occurs, is an evolutionary process. Younger workers can have a different orientation—one captured in the phrase, the "idealism of youth." They believe they can make a difference, that real change is possible with each action being significant in itself. This idealism presents a challenge to supervisors in structuring work assignments. Work assignments must have significant objectives, and the contribution of individual tasks in meeting objectives should be obvious. These requirements preclude tasks which are obviously "make work." They make clear the necessity of supervisors indicating to students what is being accomplished and its importance. For example, if students are to do circulation counts for the university library, it is important to their satisfaction and motivation to know that library circulation figures are the primary index for measuring effectiveness and documenting needed fiscal resources.

Another characteristic of young workers is their inquisitiveness. They want to know "what," "why," and "how." This characteristic should be cherished and supported by colleges and universities from their responsibility for the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge. To anticipate, welcome, and respond to the questions of student workers are appropriate supervisory responsibilities. The more knowledgeable the student of the work activity and the context in which it is performed, the more competent the performance and the greater the satisfaction.

There is another outcome which may be of greater long-term significance for the institution. Colleges and universities have become very complex systems. Students see but a small part of the enterprise (classroom instruction) and are unaware of other activities and the support systems necessary for all activities. From the perspective of many students, the institution is a large bureaucracy of wasted resources in which individual students are unimportant. This is hardly a desirable perception to be held by alumni and taxpayers. Accordingly, responding to students' questions can be considered by supervisors as an investment in the future of the institution.

Other differences between student workers and regular employees have bases in the temporary, part-time, and short-term nature of student employment. These three conditions have serious implications for structuring and managing student employment. An obvious implication is that a student employed for only ten to fifteen hours per week for nine months, usually less, needs a carefully defined position whose task can be learned in a short training period. If a position is not well defined, the employment period will be over before a student experientially knows what to do and how.

There is an inverse relationship between the complexity of a job and the requirement of timely definition. There is a direct relationship between the complexity of a job and the challenge it provides. Typically, supervisors facing this dilemma decide on jobs requiring relatively simple tasks which can be quickly learned. However, students desire work which challenges their skills and abilities. An alternative to simplicity, and the resulting boredom and limited job satisfaction, is job rotation. In job rotation, a common device for job enrichment in industry, an employee performs a number of distinctly different tasks in the same general work environment. In this arrangement, there is continuity of work environment, personalities, work rules, both formal and informal, but variety in the work itself. For example, a student employee in the library can have four or five different jobs, but still have the same work rules and many of the same interpersonal relationships.

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The temporary nature of student employment has implications for student motivation and personnel management. For regular employees, their employment is one step in a career of different work experiences, each providing increasingly greater responsibilities, challenges, and recognition. With this future orientation, the limitations of a current position can be overlooked in the promise of a brighter future. Moreover, for regular employees, since work is a primary life activity, security in employment is an important consideration. Others depend on their livelihood. Conditions of employment which are less than desirable are accepted for the security the employment provides.

Students employed on a temporary basis have a different perspective. On-campus employment is not seen as a step in a career path. Their careers will likely be pursued outside the institution. Lost earnings from on-campus employment can be replaced by parents, educational loans, or off-campus employment. The possibilities of the student economy are much greater than students care to describe. In short, job security or job advancement are much less a concern for students than for regular employees. Supervisors cannot depend on termination as a sanction to prompt motivation. A different set of positive motivators is required for better performance. (See the section, "Motivation of Student Employees," for suggestions on positive means of motivation.)

A final difference between students and regular employees is the relative importance of employment for each. For the regular employee, employment is a primary activity. Other interests and activities are understood in our culture as being less important or to be pursued after work responsibilities have been met. For student workers, their role as a worker is perceived as secondary to their role as a student. When work responsibilities conflict with student responsibilities, it is the work responsibilities which must be accommodated. This perception by the student is understandable. College going is an expensive proposition. The financial sacrifices of parents and the money borrowed against future earnings exact great pressure for performance. The competition among students for recognition in what

is increasingly seen as a world of limited possibilities is a reality, prompting a new seriousness for the student tasks.

The supervisor must be sensitive to the potential of role conflict in student workers and the differences of role perception between student and regular workers. At those times, such as examination periods, when the role conflict may be most acute, supervisors should accommodate changes in work schedules and reduce production. Moreover, the supervisor must be an interpreter. Regular employees should be made aware of the needs of the students so that they are not seen as slackers or irresponsible. Student employees should be challenged to manage both work and study responsibilities. Life is not so much a choice of either-or but of creatively structuring role conflicts, with maturation including an increased ability to make accommodations between conflicting claims of high priority.

Differences between students and regular workers are significant. They call for understanding, empathy, and creativity in all aspects of work program administration, including work assignment, scheduling, training, and supervision. Without attention to differences, the work place can become a theatre for generational conflict and, possibly, class conflict. With attention, the work activity can be a drama, communicating to all parties the richness of cultural pluralism in differences of values and roles.

Motivation Of Student Employees

Workers, both students and regular employees, differ in attitude and approach to their work. Without being workaholics or work addicts, many workers realize a significant degree of personal satisfaction from work. They accomplish their work tasks and assignments with self-direction and efficiency. Other employees, perhaps in the same office, are genuinely frustrated. The work period drags because of the boredom they associate with monotonous tasks. They receive virtually no real feeling of satisfaction or personal accomplishment in what they do.

Positive motivation for employees—and how to improve it—are important priorities for any

supervisor. In theory, motivation has to do with the needs and drives of an individual—those forward-moving, propelling energies which keep that person moving efficiently toward a desired goal. In the work context, motivation has to do with getting the job done with the most efficient outlay of materials, personnel, time, and financial resources, while at the same time providing satisfaction to the worker.

In student employment programs, are there ways of building and nurturing positive motivation in student employees? Some constraints are obvious. It is the reality of these constraints which makes supervisors' efforts to improve motivation even more imperative. For example, one constraint is the federal minimum wage pay of many on-campus jobs. Pay increases or bonuses are hardly feasible for greater motivation. At some institutions, student employment is so related to financial aid that student wages are applied directly to tuition and other expenses. The student is paid without receiving a paycheck and having discretion in the use of earnings.

Some constraints are in the nature of the job itself. Whether in the library, cafeteria, print shop, bookstore, or departmental offices, many on-campus jobs do not provide a challenge to student abilities and interests. Filing, typing, mimeographing, collating, and stapling are necessary but hardly inspirational activities. Even if all positions provided a personal challenge, motivation is not assured. For younger students particularly, personal interest—a key element in motivation—may be so ill-defined from limited experience that it is difficult to arrange an appropriate job match. Given all these constraints, some supervisors may wonder what realistically can be done to enhance motivation.

An obvious, but often forgotten, reality of the workplace is that the supervisor is the primary motivator. It is a given of the supervisor-worker relationship that the supervisor is the role model for other workers. The personal motivation of the supervisor is transparent to every employee under his or her charge. No motivational strategy or technique will approach the supervisor's own investment of self and energy in motivating others. This is particularly true in student employment where, in many cases, supervisors also have the deference accorded to adults by youth.

Beyond the role model of the supervisor, strategies for motivation follow from the needs of student employees. A most common description of needs to be satisfied from work is that of Maslow. He suggests a hierarchy of needs, including provision of physical needs (food, clothing, shelter), economic security, safety, acceptance within a group, intellectual curiosity, personal achievement, recognition, prestige, and fulfillment of life's goals.

Provision of physical needs, economic security, and safety have limited motivating power for student employees. The income from student employment is usually insufficient in itself to provide for physical needs. If lost, it can be made up from other sources, e.g., off-campus employment, bank loans, reducing expenditures. Economic security is hardly applicable as student employment is not seen as a long-term activity. Safety concerns do not apply to most on-campus jobs.

Although environmental conditions in most on-campus positions do not compromise safety, they are often overlooked as a source of student motivation. Adequate light, ventilation, minimal noise levels, desk space, and a place for personal possessions are taken for granted for regular employees. Too often, they are seen as luxuries for student employees, apparently on the basis that students are second class workers. Students are given work stations in corners or separate from other workers. They are assigned tasks not required of regular employees because work environments are noisier, colder, hotter, dirtier, and more humid.

There is also a tendency for students to be provided less in work tools and equipment than regular employees. Students in building maintenance are given hand tools; regular employees are provided power tools. Student employees walk and regular employees ride. Student typists work from card tables; regular employees have typing desks. Examples of discrimination

in the name of economy are endless at many institutions. The economics realized from inadequate equipment for student employees is quickly cancelled out in the loss of student motivation for productive work.

Group acceptance, intellectual curiosity, personal achievement, and recognition are student needs which, when met, can provide motivation. Group acceptance involves recognition of the student as an individual. As an individual, the student has interests, values, behavior, goals, friends, relationships, a past, present, and future. Motivation of the student requires cognizance of these realities both by the supervisor and by other workers. The supervisor has a responsibility in seeing the student worker as a unique person and introducing this unique person to his or her peers.

Personal achievement and recognition of that achievement are very much dependent on a placement process for employing students in positions which complement their work-related interests and skills. Decades of occupational research have shown this complement to be the most powerful influence on worker motivation. Because of the importance of the placement process, a section of this guide is concerned with this topic. It is mentioned here as a reminder that strategies for motivation which do not include a conceptually solid, rational placement process have, at best, but limited potential for effectiveness.

Intellectual curiosity, personal achievement, and recognition relate to the student as worker and the work setting. They are possible in on-campus employment because higher education institutions are complex organizations. Even the smallest college is involved in myriad tasks including marketing, budgeting, health care, planning, counseling, public relations, policy analysis, and security. Students employed in these areas who are given tasks appropriate to their abilities and knowledge have intellectual stimulation in the work activity itself. For jobs which have limited potential for intellectual stimulation, the work setting is the laboratory for learning. For example, typing book orders for the college library is not in itself stimulating for

most students. However, book orders are an expression of the universe of knowledge and society's values at a particular point in time. As a topic attains importance, professors order books on that topic. The supervisor responsible for library acquisitions who informs students of this relationship can provide intellectual stimulation in a most mundane work activity.

For a supervisor to provide for the exercise of intellectual curiosity in making connections between the student's work and the products of the work is the mark of a professional. It is the role of the teacher to a student, the master to the apprentice. It requires ongoing attention and the "second mile" over what might be considered the usual tasks of supervision.

Like the other motivational strategies noted above, the exercise of intellectual curiosity is grounded in positive valuing of the individual and not in extrinsic rewards such as wages or power. This is an important consideration in higher education work programs. Motivational strategies should promote self-directedness, intrinsic motivation instead of extrinsic motivation. Students should be paid a fair wage. However, a motivational strategy which communicates that work is valuable primarily in monetary compensation shortchanges the importance of creativity in the individual and its exercise as a key measure of personal fulfillment.

The Art Of Supervision

The greatest jugglers in the world are neither circus clowns nor court jesters. Their unique balancing act is deadly serious. They are supervisors. Keeping production on schedule within cost limits while maintaining employee harmony has to be the world's master balancing act. Life for this person is complicated, especially if he or she supervises students. Why is this so? Many supervisors of students have never had specific training in the art of supervision. This is understandable. A professor of chemistry or literature has probably not had a course in personnel management or group

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dynamics. Others may have been promoted to the role with only the model of their own immediate supervisors for guidance. These persons are not unintelligent or unskilled in dealing with people. Far from it! Most have had years of valuable, people-related experience, but few have integrated their experience with the multifaceted role of supervision.

Another factor is that, for many student supervisors, supervision is a secondary or even tertiary responsibility. The first concern of the print shop manager is to meet production. A professor may supervise students in an academic practicum, but the student typing and mimeographing a reading list in the departmental office will probably not receive similar intentional and purposeful supervision.

Perceptions of students as part-time employees may also influence the quality of supervision. Another section of this guide is concerned with characteristics of student workers but a few popular stereotypes can be noted here.

Students are perceived as enthusiastic and idealistic. They rush into a myriad of activities and responsibilities, believing they can manage them all. Often they believe they can change methods of work operations—or even whole institutions—with "one brilliant suggestion." Other students are procrastinators who pace themselves in only two ways—lethargy and hyperactivity. Some are so undecided and unmotivated about being in college that getting out of bed each morning is a major achievement. As part-time employees, they may be perceived, and accurately so, as having a lesser commitment to their work than to their classes. With all of these behaviors, supervisors may wonder from the very beginning whether it is worth the effort to include and treat student workers as regular employees.

Complicating supervision is the popular negative image of supervisors. From the employee's point of view, the supervisor is seen primarily as a disciplinarian or parent-like authority figure concerned only with production. Practically any supervisor can recall working under a person who did not treat workers with respect, had little rap-

port with the staff, seemed heavy-handed in decision making, and did little to boost office morale. Cartoonists caricature these realities with images of the slave driver with whip in hand, the executioner cloaked in a black hood wielding a double-edged ax, the angry old man glaring out from a dark cave, the supervisor peering through a gigantic magnifying glass over employees' shoulders. Sensitive to these images, a concerned student supervisor can inadvertently ignore some necessary aspects of the role in attempting to act in a more positive manner.

Just what is supervision? What does it mean to be a leader of people working toward a goal? Are there ways of leading that are more effective than others? Are there roles to be assumed as well as particular responsibilities, responsibilities sufficiently general to fit a variety of situations but specific enough to deal with part-time student employees?

Formal definitions of supervision are a place to begin, but they tease more than they clarify. In a definition by the Department of Labor, supervising is "Determining or interpreting work procedures for a group of workers, assigning specific duties to them, maintaining harmonious relations among them, and promoting efficiently. A variety of responsibilities is involved in this function." Just what is meant by a "variety of responsibilities"? Nothing is more frustrating for a newly-appointed supervisor, or any new worker, than to be told, "Your job includes a variety of responsibilities. But don't worry; you'll pick them up as you go along."

Personnel management and human relations are only one of many areas of responsibility. Even in this one area, the number of tasks is overwhelming. Following is a representative list from a corporation personnel office; the same tasks are required of on-campus job supervisors:

- ◆ Request additional employees as needed

- ◆ Make final employee-selection decision

- ◆ Orient new employees to their environment, the requirements of the organization, and their rights and privileges

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- Train employees

- Provide face-to-face leadership

- Appraise performance

- Coach and correct

- Counsel employees

- Recommend pay increases, promotion, transfers, layoffs, and discharges

- Enforce rules and maintain discipline

- Settle complaints and grievances

- Interpret and communicate management policies and directions to subordinates

- Interpret and communicate employee suggestions and criticism to higher management

- Motivate subordinates: provide rewards for good performance and behavior

- Eliminate hazards and insure safe working practices

- Develop own skills and abilities through self-development activities and participation in company training programs

- Cooperate and coordinate with personnel department in administering the company personnel program within own program

It is not possible in this short section to suggest strategies for effective performance in all these tasks. What is possible and may be helpful is to present different models of supervisory roles in personnel and human relations, models chosen to bring the range of functions into clearer focus. Popular and, hopefully, positive images will be suggested as characterizations for role development. None are independent or exclusive; there is interchange and interdependence among

them all. They are offered as a mosaic or composite profile of "The Complete Supervisor," one striving for balance in both production and human relations skills. Consider these images: Teacher, Coach, Counselor, and Judge.

The goals of every Teacher include widening the student's awareness and perception through the introduction of new knowledge, and encouraging creativity and self-improvement by the student's appropriation of knowledge. These goals are pursued in a range of academic courses from introductory and survey to post-graduate and specialized. A supervisor using the teacher role model can see responsibilities similarly. Student employees need "New Worker Orientation 101." Students need to know what is expected of them. These expectations should be stated in precise terms, much like an outline of course requirements. Descriptions of the work tasks, work schedule, production deadlines, proper dress, evaluation procedures, policies, payroll details, supervisory structure are all necessary items. Equally important are introductions to co-workers, opportunities for "hands-on" trials with equipment, and a chance for students to ask any questions related to settling in as a new employee.

Beyond the introductory courses in the college curriculum are those to develop particular skills such as counseling, accounting, and graphic designing. At the work site, students' more advanced skills are important for increased productivity. A most important skill, regardless of the work site, is time management. Many new workers have difficulty deciding which tasks are most important to tackle first or which ones will consume the most time. Simple suggestions such as handling each piece of office correspondence only once, arranging work tasks in A-B-C priority, and assigning time requirements and time limits to an activity help develop a skill useful for a lifetime.

The highest level of teacher-student transaction is for the student to be a self-directed learner with the teacher serving in a mentor role. In a campus work setting, the supervisor can promote a similar objective. Any work position has elements of flexibility. The supervisor should

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allow students to pursue particular interests and develop skills by structuring work assignments for these developmental outcomes. For example, students in the financial aid office who start out providing basic clerical services can be given responsibility for a research or data collection project in which general clerical skills can be enhanced.

The Coach has another set of associations surrounding the role. The Coach is often perceived as motivator, morale booster, builder of team spirit, encourager. He or she is involved with the life of his team in diagramming strategy on the dressing room blackboard, giving pep talks during half-time, cheering players while the game is in progress, reviewing films of the last game in preparing for the next. There is another side in being the Coach—demanding performance. The name of the game is winning. Practices are tough. Players must run the plays correctly; they must be challenged to get that "second wind" needed for success. Team hot shots are usually shot down as the Coach explains that "we win as a team or not at all."

The role model of Coach in many ways most nearly approximates the ideal balance between concern for work production and concern for employee harmony. Like the Coach, the supervisor is also a motivator and morale booster. Posted production deadlines and work schedules are not the only ways for supervisors to assist students in making adjustments to their work pace and efficiency. More effective motivational techniques used by the competent supervisor will vary according to differences in personalities of both supervisor and student, and work environments, inventories, praise, recognition, and opportunities for friendship are a few strategies worth considering.

Another characteristic of a competent Coach is the ability to start the right player in the right position. This requires an understanding of each team member's abilities as well as how different abilities fit into a total team effort. The Coach sees the big picture while keeping in view the separate colors on the canvas. For the supervisor, this means interpreting to each employee precisely where he or she fits into the organization.

Even the most menial tasks can lose much of their tedium if a worker sees how this small activity is required for the total product.

The third model for a supervisor, in addition to Teacher and Coach, is the Counselor. The Counselor is a listener, one who can respond with positive warmth and regard to another. The listening is not passive but marked by a high degree of involvement in reflecting feelings, checking perceptions, clarifying confusing issues, summarizing content, confronting, clarifying values, sharing information, and suggesting alternatives. The Counselor is, in short, a valued and trusted friend. Approachability, a sense of humor, warmth, and openness are perceptions to be nurtured in being effective in the Counselor role.

Some supervisors are cautious of the Counselor role. A recurring old wives' tale in management suggests that the best way for a supervisor to get along with employees is to "maintain distance to maintain respect." Leadership studies have shown that employee respect for supervisory authority can be built as effectively on a positive basis. Sophisticated skill or clinical training in counseling is not the issue. Personalism, humanism, trust, and concern can be a part of every supervisor's style. Employees respect a supervisor who listens. Not everyone will come running to unload grievances or problems on the supervisor; an open-door policy and practice simply create a climate where concerns can be defused before crises develop from inattention.

Teacher, Coach, Counselor are positive images. A final image, the Judge, is not as popular. Perhaps the most difficult role of all, this one is often avoided for its potential negative association in the eyes of employees. Again, free association with this role in a larger society can be helpful. A good Judge has a reputation for fairness. He listens to both sides, rulings are based on pre-established laws and conditions, and verdicts can be appealed. The concern is justice. Discipline is proportionate to the offense, the long-term goal being rehabilitation.

What are the implications of the image of the Judge for the student work supervisor?

Evaluation of both a worker's productivity and work attitudes is a necessary and regular responsibility of the supervisor. To maintain objectivity and fairness the supervisor should not delegate evaluation. Secondly, employees need to know in advance the basic criteria by which work performance will be judged. These criteria should be used impartially. Below are suggested criteria; each should be used with a rating scale to show different degrees of performance:

1. Ability to learn and perform work responsibilities

2. Quality of work

3. Amount of work accomplished

4. Cooperation with other workers and supervisor

5. Time lost from illness, absenteeism, tardiness

6. Individual strengths and weaknesses

Where evaluation requires discipline or reprimand, such actions should be proportionate to the situation and administered in a private conference. There is more on this supervisory responsibility in the section of this guide on intervention. If the roles of Teacher, Coach, and Counselor are present in the supervisor's interaction with student workers, the rapport of student and supervisor will be sufficient to maintain employee trust and respect even in the most confrontive situations.

Intervention In Personnel Management

John is late for work again, the third time this week. The computer center is already behind schedule in preparing mailing labels, which is John's assignment. During the last four weeks, Jennifer had carelessly broken three expensive pieces of laboratory equipment. Debbie is staring at her typewriter again today. She has two days of work backed up in addition to a departmental reading list due tomorrow. She seems distracted and listless.

Each of these situations is a cause of tension which, left unresolved, will adversely affect both employees and production. These tensions need to be met head-on, confronted, challenged, and responded to in a purposeful manner. Intervention is the traditional term in personnel management for addressing these situations to reduce this tension. More accurately, this might be called remedial intervention. Of equal importance are actions which, in getting to the root causes of tensions, can eliminate or reduce the incidence of crisis situations, i.e., preventive intervention.

Preventive intervention or preventive maintenance in supervision has the goal of creating a positive environment of trust and respect among persons working together. Every work community is unique. Persons with different personalities, temperaments, ages, interests, and abilities rub shoulders each day like an extended family. Effective relationships within that work family are critical to productive work. Eight conditions necessary for an effective work group can be considered as goals of all employees, with the supervisor having primary responsibility. An effective group (a) knows why it exists, (b) has created an atmosphere in which its work can be done, (c) has developed guidelines for making decisions, (d) has established conditions under which each member can make his unique contributions, (e) has achieved communication among its members, (f) has informed members how to give and receive help, (g) has taught members how to cope with conflict, and (h) has learned to diagnose its processes and improve its functioning.

One supervisory strategy for preventive intervention is a self-assessment of the full range of activities and responsibilities. The total range might include interviewing potential employees, defining tasks, training, delegation and follow-up, employee development, discipline and reprimand, implementing new policies and procedures, performance appraisal, advising, promoting, transferring, terminating. Each activity has the potential to produce stress for some one employee. But people are unique; what produces stress in one stimulates challenge in another. This complicates the supervisor's lot. Supervisors must balance their supervisory tasks

against knowledge of how different employees respond to stressful situations. A supervisor who knows that a particular student responds poorly to stress may reprimand that student in a different way than another student who has strong coping skills.

Job entry for new or inexperienced workers is stressful. Any employee, but especially a student working for the first time, has a number of concerns. Preventive intervention ideally begins on or before that first work day. Anticipating job-entry anxiety, a competent supervisor will explain face-to-face (a) the work of the department; (b) the student's specific duties; (c) the work schedule—starting time, breaks, closing time; (d) the supervisory structure, including introducing the student to a designated supervisor; (e) the procedures for operation and care of equipment; (f) work performance assessment procedures; (g) payroll procedures; and (h) other policies related to employee rights and responsibilities, e.g., grievance procedures. The student should have ample time to ask questions as well as an opportunity to meet other employees. When available, students should be provided a written copy of all policies and procedures.

A second source of tension for new student employees is a strong desire to make a good impression or noticeable impact upon the organization, i.e., the "New Worker Syndrome." It is particularly acute for younger employees—the idealism of youth being a common characteristic. Students with the syndrome show alternate periods of frantic activity followed by a period of listlessness. The problem is that from lack of experience, new workers do not know what can be achieved and what can be expected in a given work period. In preventive intervention, the supervisor can give a careful explanation of the regular production schedule as well as what is considered a "day's work" in that location. The supervisor can also ask more experienced workers to share estimates of time required for particular tasks. For example, knowing how long it takes to shelve a full cart of library books can help a new student employees pace themselves in this activity. These strategies not only reduce anxiety and frustration, they enhance productivity. The tortoise

and hare fable that "jackrabbit starts do not win races" is certainly applicable to management of student employees.

Preventive intervention extends well beyond the first few days for new employees. Time management is an ongoing strategy for preventive intervention. Where production tasks are simple and sequential in nature, time management may not be a major source of tension, but for workers confronted with a complex assortment of related activities, some assistance by supervisors in setting priorities is in order. The more complex the job, the more important is the skill. Take, for example, the production of brochures in the campus print shop. Production can involve art work, material composition, editing, layout, photo-engraving, printing, collating, and binding. When a student is assigned more than one of these tasks, he/she needs to know the order of priorities for a particular day.

To appreciate that preventive intervention is an ongoing responsibility of supervisors is to realize that a most important function is the establishment of procedures for communication between all employees and the supervisor. Some offices choose staff conferences. Others simply agree to spend time together weekly after a coffee break. Whether formal or informal, the objective is candid, two-way communication. This is much more than a one-way monologue by a supervisor to subordinates. Employee feedback is necessary to head off rumors and identify sources of discontent.

Preventive intervention requires one-to-one communication between student and supervisor. These sessions should be routinely and regularly scheduled. If not, the tendency of both student and supervisor is to avoid meeting if either is dissatisfied. In avoiding a possible conflict situation, intervention is delayed, frustrations and disappointment build to crisis proportions. A situation which could be easily mediated with simple information festers to a conflict-ridden situation with deep emotions of both student and supervisor.

Preventive intervention involves all personnel functions of the supervisor. The purpose of this

section is not an exhaustive treatment but to emphasize the importance of preventive intervention. Preventive intervention is similar to preventive automobile maintenance. Checking a 50-dollar tire weekly for correct air pressure costs nothing and takes little time. That single activity, however, extends tire life dramatically while saving gasoline costs as well.

Remedial intervention is necessary to confront typical problems such as tardiness, absenteeism, habitual loafing, repeated carelessness, reactions to a change in policy or procedures, interoffice grumbling, and lower echelon power struggles. The list seems endless. The first step, before considering any action strategy, is for the supervisor to look for root causes of the problem. Disruptive work behavior is often only the tip of a much larger iceberg. Each month of a developing semester seems to bring a predictable onslaught of student worries. Tardiness and loafing may be caused by any number of factors—lack of sleep, worry about grades, peer relationships, or parental pressure to succeed.

Students deal every day with a number of large and small responsibilities. In most instances, their normal personal resources (logic, realistic perception, decision-making skills, physical health, interpersonal skills) enable responsibilities to be met without undue stress. Where a responsibility becomes a problem is in the substitution of inadequate coping mechanisms for normal personal resources. A deadline may cause a procrastinating person to panic rather than use logic and information. Alcohol and other substances may replace food and sleep. With these misplaced coping mechanisms, an acceptable responsibility becomes a nightmare. Tension and panic mount as everything seems to cave in on the individual.

Understanding the roots of a problem provides a basis for developing an appropriate response to the crisis. A first step in crisis intervention is simply the commitment by the supervisor to immediate, here-and-now, intervention of some form. Making time for a student employee with troubles may mean disregarding the work schedule of the day. The next step is for the supervisor to take responsibility for directing the

identification of the problem. The student may feel so overwhelmed, frustrated, angry, and confused that he cannot coherently discuss all aspects of the problem. With courtesy, tact, and understanding, the supervisor should initiate and guide the discussion.

The next suggested strategy is to set a limited, short-term goal once the problem has been identified. A short-range goal provides a platform upon which students can formulate a solution based on their normal personal resources. The student who is near panic with a term paper due can be encouraged to take several possible actions—talk to the professor, take a temporary leave from work, rearrange a work schedule to provide more library research time, get more sleep. A final step is to build the student's self-reliance and self-image. The situation may seem overwhelming, at least in the mind of the student. For the supervisor, it is important to communicate confidence in the ability of the student to work things out. The nurture of self-reliance and self-image is critical to any restoration of personal day-to-day equilibrium.

Discipline and reprimand are often unavoidable in the case of absenteeism, loafing, power struggles, or outright defiance. When discipline becomes necessary, a fair and well publicized policy of progressive penalties for work infractions should be implemented. A list of progressive penalties might include the following:

1. Simple oral warning

2. Oral warning noted in student's employment record

3. Written warning noted in employment record

4. Suspension from job, from one day to two weeks

5. Termination

The object of any discipline is to correct behavior in short order and restore the employee to productive employment. Discipline should be

firm; it must not be delivered with hostility or anger. The student may express anger, frustration, and disappointment; the supervisor should keep a cool head. Paramount in importance is privacy. Nothing is more degrading or humiliating to a worker than to be disciplined in front of his peers. A public reprimand can only destroy the carefully cultivated and desirable rapport between employee and supervisor.

Remedial intervention is not pleasant and is probably the least liked responsibility of any supervisor. Attention to an ongoing program of preventive intervention can substantially reduce the need for remedial intervention. Both remedial and preventive intervention are means to personal growth and development. As such they are certainly appropriate for student workers and supervisors in educational institutions.

Student Employment And Vocational Development

There is great agreement among students that going to college is the means of getting a good job. Currently, enhanced employment opportunity is the primary motivation reported by 85% of entering students for attending college. What is poorly understood, not only by students but also by college personnel, is the nature of vocational selection and preparation in the education-to-work transition.

The general perception is that students enter college with a specific occupational choice, select and pursue a course of study required for that occupation, graduate, and secure and continue employment in that occupation. The process is seen as static and mechanistic, with classroom study being the essential activity.

Research on the actual vocational selection and preparation process of college students provides a very different picture. Three differences with the general perception are so striking that what emerges is a picture of the college years as a time of personal crisis and revolution in student vocational development.

A first difference from actual research findings is that most students enter college with pat, superfi-

cial "pseudo-plans," more influenced by the expectations of parents and peers than by careful personal assessment. Secondly, students move away from these pre-entry vocational choices to an extended period of indecisiveness and genuine exploration. For example, studies indicate only three very broad college curricular areas (pre-medicine, pre-law, biological sciences) in which as many as half of the entering students persist through graduation.

Finally, research shows that it is the totality of the college experience and environment, not just academic study and the classroom, which influences vocational decision making and preparation. Particular activities and environments will differ by institution and, to some degree, for each individual student. Together, activities and environments for successful vocational development of late adolescents and young adults must do the following:

◆ Enhance self-awareness and self-esteem;

◆ Provide information about personal strengths and weaknesses;

◆ Offer opportunities to experience a variety of significant relationships with people in a wide range of role situations.

Student vocational development is receiving increased attention and more resources from colleges and universities. Placement offices are adding information and guidance services for informed decision making. In the rush to new programs, existing programs and activities with vocational development potential can be easily overlooked. The student employment programs at most institutions are a case in point. Studies by the National Advisory Council for Career Education conclude that work experience itself, as compared with information and counseling services, is the most effective means for promoting student vocational development at the post-secondary level. The challenge is to better realize the potential for vocational development of existing on-campus student employment programs.

The potential of student employment in vocational development is clear from the component

tasks of the developmental process. Briefly, vocational development includes awareness, skill development, reality testing, and experience translation.

Awareness includes both knowledge of the work tasks of an occupation, the environment where practiced, and the personal characteristics required of workers for effectiveness and satisfaction in the work. The sheer variety of on-campus occupations, both of student and regular employees, constitutes an occupational education laboratory. Relative to student positions, a study at five Virginia institutions indicated as many as 200 distinct on-campus jobs. Including all employees provides a microcosm of the general work force with persons employed in hundreds of institutional tasks. A major university has the complexity of a city, and even small colleges are involved in numerous, non-instructional tasks, e.g., marketing, planning, security, housing, financial management.

An accurate picture of an occupation requires differentiation of tasks, environments, and characteristics required of workers. For good understanding, differentiation is required of a single position and between positions; i.e., good understanding comes from careful analysis of individual positions and comparison between different positions.

There are many ways to promote vocational awareness in the administration of student employment programs, including the following:

- Job descriptions using a classification system based on differentiating definitions, e.g., the Department of Labor's Work Trait Groups; John Holland's scheme of Realistic, Intellectual, Social, Conventional, Enterprising, and Artistic categories;

- A guide to student employment which lists positions by occupational families using the categories of a differentiating scheme;

- Oral and media introductions to large work-site activities such as the library and student union which show the variety of positions at one site;

- A placement process which considers the complementary nature of position and student characteristics;

- An institutional policy of providing students a variety of work experiences;

- A student work evaluation grounded in performance in distinguishing characteristics, e.g., skill level in data functions;

- A compensation schedule based on a hierarchy of skill levels; i.e., students are more likely to appreciate differences between positions if compensation has a basis in the job itself instead of in some extrinsic factor such as academic classification;

Skill development is the growth dimension of vocational development. Knowledge of what an occupation requires is insufficient unless one has mastery of the skills required in that occupation. In thinking about skills, it is useful to consider the typology which defines skills as either adaptive, functional, or content in nature.

Adaptive skills are so taken for granted that not to have them is to be considered deviant. Their importance is recognized only in their absence. They comprise what is defined as acceptable social and personal behavior. They include managing oneself in relationship to authority, dress, time, property, and one's own impulses. These skills are typically learned early in life, primarily through the acceptance of parental authority and trying out different behavior among one's peers.

Functional skills are those abilities required for living in an urbanized, technological, and mass society. They are not specific to one work task but are general skills needed in many occupations and in non-work activities. They describe active relationships with data, people and things. Functional skills are so essential to any work task that we forget their number, variety,

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and importance. A very short list makes obvious their significance; viz,

Data	People	Things
Retaining	Counseling	Setting up
Recording	Guiding	Operating
Evaluating	Directing	Driving
Integrating	Reconciling	Manipulating
Formulating	Arbitrating	Constructing
Defining	Recommending	Assembling
Categorizing	Teaching	Connecting
Interpreting	Testing	Handling
Describing	Demonstrating	Measuring
Investigating	Assigning	Weighing

Student employment has great potential for skill acquisition. Some students, particularly younger students with limited work experience, lack adaptive skills, e.g., time management and relating to authority. On-campus employment can provide for development of adaptive skills in a supportive and non-threatening atmosphere. Behavior which would be the basis for termination in off-campus employment can be tolerated in an on-campus position in the understanding that student development is the educational mission of the institution. The mode is active toleration, acceptance with counseling to prompt improved work behavior.

The primary focus on skill development in on-campus employment should be on functional skills: Classroom study will provide for development of content skills. Student employment programs can promote functional skill development by providing a sequence of work experiences requiring increasingly greater functional competence.

Reality testing is the crucible in vocational development whereby knowledge and experience become internalized for informed decision making. It may be defined as a student's participation in work activity, coupled with reflection on the meaning of that experience.

Reflection on actual work experience helps the student determine his or her "likes" or "dislikes" about the work position. "Like" or "dislike" becomes clearer when experience gets a variety of perspectives. First, what is the actual nature of the work? Is it fairly routine and prescribed, or does it involve variety? Can it be done with limited mental involvement, or is it intellectually challenging, requiring creativity and providing opportunity for self-expression? What is the nature of the environment? What is attractive or unlikable about the noise level, ventilation, light, location? What is the supervision structure? Is the supervisor at the next desk, in the next room, in another building? What is the style of supervision? What decisions can be made by employees? Is there team structure, or do employees work independently?

What are the hours of regular employees? Are they rigid or flexible? What training and skill levels are required for full-time employment? How much are they paid? Does the work provide opportunity for recognition, acknowledgment of achievement, a chance for advancement? Does this work directly benefit others? Is this important in what I do?

Reflection, a necessary condition for reality testing in vocational development, is not easy to promote in student employment. Our culture stresses action, not reflection. Moreover, in separating education and work in our lives, reflection is usually seen as the domain of formal education. The inherent potential of learning from structured reflection on work activities will seem to be a strange notion to many adults, particularly students.

Reflection can be promoted in student employment at several points. Placement is an obvious activity for promoting reflection. If student interest inventories are used in placement, the finding of the inventory should be shared with the student. Counseling for placement provides a great opportunity for students to inventory work values derived from previous work and vocational activities. During the work experience itself many supervisors, as a matter of course, adopt a healthy mentor role, providing scheduled and casual time for student reflection on what is being learned experientially. More supervisors would structure the same opportunities if they were so encouraged.

The final element in vocational development through student employment is translating on-campus work experiences into the language of the external job market. Graduates with thousands of hours of on-campus employment too often lament to potential employers that they "have no experience," or they will list only off-campus employment.

Every activity which uses a skill or ability to achieve a goal should be considered as a genuine work experience, fit for any resume. A student in on-campus employment may have researched library material on mental health agencies, analyzed water samples in a research laboratory, supervised other students in the dining hall, maintained inventories in the bookstore, or operated an intramural program.

In reporting on-campus work experiences, particular attention should be on the responsibilities involved, the skills developed, and the degree of difficulty. Job titles are insufficient as they often have no parallel in the general economy of goods and services. The emphasis should be on identification of specific work functions which are understandable to any potential employer.

A work function means a concise description of a work activity which indicates the degree of difficulty of that task. A statement of work function includes an action verb, an object, and the purpose of that action, either stated or understood, e.g., construct sets for theatrical productions. Each function is in relationship to information, people, or equipment. The complexity is obvious in comparison. For example, copying statistics in a column is not as difficult as analyzing those same statistics in a report. The job descriptions in the Appendix are in terms of functional activities, with each job including a number of such actions. Below are some examples of functional skills, with each verb describing both the activity and the level of difficulty:

Inventory office equipment and materials
Operate telephone switchboard equipment
Reproduce written materials on copy machines
Interview persons for information

Organize playground activities for children
Analyze water and milk samples
Construct television program props

Documenting the functional abilities of students can be accomplished in several ways. Students should be provided copies of job descriptions written in functional terminology. Students can share these with potential employers in job interviews. Students, working with the career planning and placement office, can use these job descriptions as reference information in preparing a functional skills resume of all their work experiences. (The functional resume is becoming the preferred resume format for younger workers.) Finally, the student employment office, when asked by potential employers for references, should respond in functional terminology. This is much more informative than the summary judgment that the student was a "good" or "unproductive" worker.

CHAPTER *12*

What Campus Employers Teach Students About Office Politics

Marilyn Moats Kennedy

Office politics is to the '90s what sex was to the Victorians: interesting, sometimes fun, but no one with the least claim to a proper upbringing would dream of speaking about it in public.

Consider commencement exercises. Several times a year graduation speakers, with full administrative honors, mislead the young about what it takes to succeed outside the university. They wax eloquently about vision, hard work, commitment, etc., but never mention that office politics exists and no one succeeds who can't analyze and work the system. "Cream rises to the top," the august one says, never mentioning that so does grease. Wouldn't it be great to hear a graduation speaker say, "When I came to Worldwide Widgets I had a series of boring jobs, but I learned who to impress and who not to cross. I learned to negotiate and barter, to treat the front line troops with respect. I learned what causes to fight for and when to walk away. That's how I got to be CEO." In your dreams! Instead, universities perpetuate ignorance about practical politics by using office politics as a synonym for all evils. "That's just politics" is a common phrase sending the clear signal that politics should be avoided.

That's not realistic. Professors and staff know perfectly well that there is a great deal of politics on campus, but since most understand the pro-

cess imperfectly, they may not talk about it. It doesn't matter. Students are acute observers, and campus employment provides a wonderful laboratory for students to acquire political skills they'll use forever. Even without instruction and explanation—watching how things really get done is an antidote to the hard work myths. Here are some of the key things students learn.

Office politics is everywhere.

There is no politics-free environment. Students assume that universities are free of back stabbing and back biting. Professors get tenure on merit. They also imagine the lives of professors they admire resemble that of St. Francis of Assisi more than Darth Vader, but that's another story. Campus employment disabuses them of such notions and provides the first look at how far individuals will go to gain power and how hard they'll work to retain it.

Politics is about the acquisition, use, and sometimes the misuse, of power.

Power means getting and keeping control of situations and people, and nobody still breathing lacks an interest—or can afford to. Despite all protestations to the contrary, who has command of power matters. Students absorb this as they watch professors, administrators, and staff scrap

over issues that logic would dictate hardly matter except as control issues. Determining who has power and who doesn't is a student's first chance to learn something about practical politics.

The grapevine is the most important source of accurate information.

It's the collected wisdom of people who know how the system works and what it will and won't tolerate. My experience has been that about three years of post-college experience are necessary to validate and firmly implant this lesson. Students realize almost immediately that secretaries, mail room people, librarians, assistant everybodies, and building and grounds employees work to know what is going on, and they find it out first. Support people understand that information is vital to success on the job and a source of power. What confuses students—and some of the staff—is the constant derision of the grapevine as "gossip" even as they observe people acting on the information they received.

Career counselors have a duty never to demean the importance of staying plugged in to the grapevine. Why let someone jeopardize a first professional job because he/she didn't learn the importance of cultivating information sources on campus? Not that every student will get it when you explain, but offering the explanation is important.

Rank is not as important as influence.

There are two kinds of power: formal power which consists of the organization chart, meetings, rules, regulations, and policies, and informal power which consists of relationships and the grapevine. Students know something about the differences. For example, it's a rare, and remarkably dim, student who doesn't know that the dean's secretary, not the dean, is most important in getting into closed classes, obtaining a rule variation, even in advising on the best time and approach to get the dean to grant a special request. She may have no rank, but she has enormous influence. That's an important principle in the real world where secretaries often have as much, if not more, power than their

counterparts did on campus and must be worked with and through.

How many new corporate recruits have come to grief because they treated the secretary as an underling rather than an equal? Students who haven't worked with support staff often pay more attention to where individuals sit on the organization chart than to the power they wield—a dangerous, career-bashing practice.

People skills are vital.

Getting along with people is mandatory, not optional, regardless of brilliance. It's harder for science and technology students to learn this because in the classroom they see professors who are actively unpleasant receive lucrative grants and promotions. What they can't see— which working in a lab or office provides—is that merit and brilliance aren't the only considerations.

Students understand that less-than-competent professors exist and a certain number of bad classes are inescapable and must be endured. They blame it on the tenure system. In a campus job they learn to work with people who are poorly educated, below-average performers but must be treated with deference. It's hypocritical, but it is necessary. Some don't learn this lesson, and they're back at the campus employment office looking for a different job. Some even realize (or are told by a sympathetic adult) that they will meet clones of these sub-standard performers in the most admired corporations, not-for-profits and entrepreneurial businesses. They're unavoidable.

Doing grunt work cheerfully is more important than displaying brilliance.

People who believe that any kind of honest work is beneath them will stumble from one career cul de sac to another in the real world. We all agree that stapling, stuffing, collating, and gofering are as necessary to getting the result as leading, thinking, and strategizing. What we don't agree on is how much "attitude" one can have about such tasks. In a campus job the only acceptable answer is, "None."

The supervisor who insists on quality work delivered with a smile is teaching an invaluable lesson. There are too many "twentysomethings" who have been fired from a first job because they didn't understand that attitude can dictate outcome.

Only results count.

How often do students hear that a classroom assignment was a "good try"? Without a campus job how would they know that in the workplace trying doesn't count? In "The Return of the Jedi" which was the third part of the "Star Wars" trilogy, Luke Skywalker searches for Yoda who will tell him the meaning of life. What does Yoda say? "Try not! Do or do not! There is no try!" Students probably saw the movie and heard Yoda say those words, although Yoda whispered because he was gasping his last. They didn't make the connection with the workplace. Credit for trying is strictly a classroom policy.

The first time a work assignment isn't finished on time or properly done a student will get a blast of Yoda's philosophy. The idea of no excuses and no extensions is the greatest gift a supervisor can give a neophyte—and many do.

Employment counselors help students learn about politics when they acknowledge the importance of power, the grapevine, and building good relationships—not just doing good work. This is not always a popular stance, but it is an vital part of the institution's overall educational mission. No student is prepared for post-graduation employment who hasn't learned these lessons, some of them the hard way.

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Marilyn Moats Kennedy

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Using Your Student Employment Experience in the Job Search

Rick Kincaid

Recent graduates report back to us that the most frustrating obstacle they face in finding an entry-level job is their lack of experience. Employers consistently prefer to hire the experienced performer. It's less risky. Experienced performers have a track record, a professional reputation. They are a proven commodity. Thus, employers, given a choice, will almost always hire someone with experience.

It's frustrating because it's the old chicken-egg cliche. "I can't get a job without experience, and I can't get experience without a job."

But what many new graduates don't realize is that they have experience, but it's experience for which they haven't given themselves proper credit. Let me explain.

Students usually have worked in a variety of jobs, in high school and college. But the jobs may have been menial, not related to career goals, and the student assumes these jobs have no value, that an employer would not consider them important. Wrong. Employers judge candidates on two levels. The two levels are the lower level (those qualities desirable in all employees), and the upper level (those qualities specific to a career field). In the back of every employer's mind is the "ideal" candidate. The ideal candidate varies by the career field and, to some extent, by the

individual employer's idiosyncrasies, but always there are those two levels.

The uppermost level consists of characteristics specific to a career field. Accountants are detail-oriented number crunchers. Salespeople are talkative extroverts with an aggressive self-confidence. Pick a field and paint the stereotype. The employer will judge all candidates against their individualized ideal stereotype. Of course, it's always best to have the higher level career-related experience.

But the lower or foundation level is important too. All employers want an employee who is honest, bright, prompt, dependable, hard-working, eager to learn, and easy to be with. And these qualities can be demonstrated on any job, even the ones that did not seem important.

I frequently help students with resumes. All too often the student lists education, classes taken and little else. They assume (wrongfully) that since they haven't had a co-op, internship, or other career experience, they have no experience to list on the resume. They assume that the employer will not be impressed with their jobs as a cook or pool installer, so it's dropped.

But what do employers see (and assume)? They see a resume that appears the student has never

worked; a person in their early twenties who has never held a job. So the employer jumps to conclusions. "Never worked. . . .Lazy? Rich kid who has had everything handed to them? Health problems? Drug or alcohol issues?" The employer doesn't know. And there are plenty of other candidates who don't raise these questions. "Let's interview one of them."

So, at the very least, these jobs should be mentioned. If they're nothing special, just include a section such as: *Other jobs held include: Waitress, Cook, Lifeguard, Grocery Clerk.* It takes little space and eliminates the questions.

But let's look a little deeper. Could you possibly take one of these jobs and use it to illustrate either a basic lower level quality or a higher level, career-specific quality? Some examples will illustrate.

One student was a waitress. Her resume said: *Waitress—seated restaurant patrons and delivered menus, took food orders, served food, settled bill and cleared table.* I knew that. I've eaten in restaurants. Everything she described was implicit in the job title. Her description added nothing and gave me no clues about her. After a little discussion we came up with this description: *Waitress—managed tip pool for 8 servers, totalled and equally distributed all tips received at the end of each shift.*

An employer reading this might say, "Her co-workers trusted her with all of the tips. She's honest, trustworthy." A better impression than that first description? Of course. The point is that what you choose to describe and how you describe it will lead the reader to certain conclusions about your personality and abilities. Write with an eye to what conclusions you're creating. Student employment jobs can be used (if written properly) to illustrate any number of lower level qualities. Don't neglect them.

But let's not stop here. Student employment jobs might also be useful in demonstrating some higher level, career-related qualities. Here's another before and after example, this time from a student who wanted to be an accountant.

Before: *Warehouse Worker—loaded trucks with furniture for delivery to homes.* On the surface it

would appear that this job has nothing to do with being an accountant. Let's look at a revised description.

After: *Warehouse Worker—reviewed furniture orders. Loaded proper order onto correct delivery truck, responsible or accurate delivery of over $70,000 worth of merchandise daily.*

I'd say that second person is accurate and detail-oriented, valuable qualities in an accountant. The job in the before and after is the same; only the description changed. The latter emphasizes parallels, duties that demonstrate a transferable skill.

We still recommend that you attempt to get as much career-related experience as possible. However, those jobs are fewer and harder to get. The student employment jobs may not be your life's work, but do not discount their value. If you present them from the proper perspective, there may be considerable value in them.

Rick Kincaid

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Meditations on Student Employment

Contributed by an Anonymous Supervisor

One of the benefits of working on a college campus is the relationships that we establish with the students. I've advised as they changed majors, career goals, and romantic entanglements. I have listened as they wrestled with weighty problems, loosened the reins of family, and struggled to establish their place on the campus in preparation for the struggle to establish their place in the world. I've praised, cajoled, threatened, and flattered in attempts to improve study habits or work performance. I've attended their weddings, shared the defeats and victories of their postgraduate careers, consoled and encouraged as they took on the yoke of a lifetime of adult responsibility. I have received the joyous call announcing the birth of a child. I have made friendships. And as I age, they are friendships across a generation, friendships made possible by my work.

What these friends have in common is that I knew them all first as student employees. My campus, like so many others, is a large place. I meet lots of people and cannot count the number I greet and nod to in passing. The students I know, the ones with whom I have shared hopes and worries, aspirations and frustrations, are those I work with. I see them several times a week. They are my window on all students, and on how students see the university. They help me do my job better, both by the work they perform and by the suggestions and improvements they make.

The majority of us who work at colleges are not faculty; we are support staff. We do not know students through our teaching. Our interactions may be one-time appointments or brief transactions. But we know students through student employment. Student employment is our bridge to those we serve, a bridge that brings me help, friendship, ideas, and motivation.

Conclusion

John N. Gardner

This monograph is the result of a joint partnership effort between the National Resource Center for The Freshman Year Experience and Students in Transition and the National Student Employment Association. That partnership, in part, is a result of one of the most important discoveries of my career as a college educator, namely, that the in-college work experience is far more important than I might have initially recognized much earlier in my professional career or in my own college career. This monograph also is evidence of the valuable contributions being made to the sponsorship of student employment by the National Student Employment Association and to the level of professionalism NSEA has lent to this important means of supporting college student success. This monograph includes a number of testimonials which strongly support the value of having students engage in reasonable and meaningful employment during the undergraduate college experience. I wish to offer in this conclusion some final perspectives on this important subject, and especially to present recommendations to educators for the kinds of work experiences I believe each of our students deserves.

We are all prisoners, of course, of our own experiences and the paradigms in place during our own undergraduate years. In my case, that was the period between 1961-1965 when the vast majority of American undergraduate students went to college full-time, lived on campus, and did not work during the traditional academic year. As a matter of fact, during that era, we believed that part-time employment during college was something to be avoided, a dysfunctional interruption of the real college experience comprised solely of curricular and co-curricular activities. Personally during my college experience at Marietta College, I held a part-time job shelving books in the college library for only about ten days during my junior year. I quickly realized that this was not for me. I worked in the summers as a member of the United Steel Workers of America union at a factory that made beer cans. It was true torture for a college student, millions and millions of empty beer cans with not a drop to drink! It has taken me many years since that pre-1965 character building experience to recognize that for college students the college student work experience, especially when it's part-time and on campus, has many positive benefits for all the reasons argued so cogently in this publication.

The more I have examined the phenomenon of work during the college years, the more I have

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become persuaded that the on-campus or off-campus work experience, as long as it is related or connected to the college in some fashion, is a way of achieving the benefits of involvement that have been found to be supportive of academic success and retention. Quite simply, employment during the college years is a way of increasing the amount of time, energy, and commitment to the total college experience which bodes so well for an enhanced probability of retention and graduation.

As we have admitted American college students in unprecedented numbers since 1965, we have also seen a period of unprecedented student bashing as a way of blaming American college students for unacceptably high levels of failure and/or other inappropriate behaviors. I believe that many of us are guilty of failing to recognize and commend the enormous numbers of our students who have worked, and worked hard, with distinction, before coming to college as well as during college, certainly in far greater numbers than those of us who went to college prior to 1965. It has been my experience that the vast majority of my students have been working hard, both in their part-time employment before college and during college, and in their formal academic studies. Their hard work in employment settings has involved the practice of many skills which are useful for life after college: goal setting, time management, learning to work with computers, practicing communication skills, demonstrating responsibility and initiative, achieving greater degrees of autonomy and independence, learning to work and live with those who are different, etc. I admire the students of today for their work ethic and their desire to be less dependent on their families through the work process.

I believe that those of us who have responsibility for providing employment for students during college, either directly in the units over which we exercise supervision or through referrals to agencies and organizations with which we have contact, also have responsibility for insuring that these work settings have the potential for providing a meaningful and positive student employment learning experience. To that end, I want to present the following observations and recommendations:

1. We must recognize that student employees are, first and foremost, college students. Their academic work must take priority. Therefore, the demands we make of them should not interfere with but should be supportive of their academic goals.

2. Therefore, when possible, we need to provide flexible work schedules or at least the understanding that when crunch time comes at exams, for example, we recognize that their highest priority must be studying for those exams and not working in our offices.

3. We need to take the position that college student employment is a laboratory, a learning setting, a powerful and vital co-curricular classroom with the potential opportunity for powerful learning outcomes.

4. We should recognize that higher educators who supervise students are acting in the role of teachers and models for professional development and behavior.

5. In light of this role of educational supervisor as teacher, it is imperative that we explain to students the rationale for their duties and the importance of their role in the functions of the unit or department.

6. We need to create for our students meaningful work, rather than making them "gophers." By meaningful work, I mean some kind of work that will lead to positive learning outcomes.

7. We need to give students credit for the work they have performed (not taking that credit ourselves) and, whenever possible, include their names on written work that they have helped produce.

8. We need to be as inclusive as possible of students in as many functions of the organization as possible, for example, allowing

them to attend staff meetings so that they can see how the unit makes decisions, handles group processes, sets goals, resolves conflicts, solves problems—for better or for worse!

9. We need to demonstrate an interest in more than just their work behavior, duties, and functions. Instead, we need to inquire respectively, non-invasively, as to their academic success and personal adjustment to the campus and thus treat them as the whole persons we know them to be.

10. I believe that one of the worst things that we can do to our students is to underutilize them or engage them in work that is not meaningful. We need to remember at all times that they are in a formative period of their lives when they are learning their attitudes towards the concept of work and especially professional work. We need to remember that for many of these students, the college work experience is the first time in their lives they have proximity to working professionals. Thus, they are learning their attitudes not only towards work per se, but also towards professional work ethics, standards, and responsibilities.

11. We need to make sure they are carefully trained for the duties they perform, that they are evaluated for this performance, and rewarded commensurately. To the extent possible, the performance assessment needs to be a mirror and an analog of the process we use for the full-time employees of our units.

12. We need to convey to them proper terms of respect and address. We need to provide for them name signs for their work stations, list their names in our directories and in our publications where appropriate.

13. One of the most important ways we can support our students is to serve as references for graduate school and employment opportunities. We may assume that they would automatically call upon us to perform this important function. But I believe we need to make our willingness to do so explicit. When we are called upon to serve as references, we need to perform this task as thoroughly and as conscientiously as possible. This is one of the single most important forms of support we can provide for our students in this increasingly competitive and tight job market faced by our student employees.

14. Everything I know about the work world and life after college suggests that learning to work in teams is one of the most essential skills our students will be required to possess and to demonstrate in "the real world." Therefore, students need the opportunity to practice teamwork in employment settings.

15. We need to practice the kind of inclusiveness in our own hiring patterns necessary to provide equal opportunity for all of America's college students. To the extent we can make our own work environments during college a pluralistic, multi-cultural environment, our students will be more able to function in such an environment with success after college.

My thoughts about the kinds of work experience and environments that are needed by students during college have been influenced by a book "in progress," as of this writing with Jossey-Bass Publishers. This work, edited by myself and Gretchen Van der Veer, is on "The Senior Year Experience." Several chapters in this book consider whether or not college seniors are prepared for work, how they view their levels of preparation after leaving college and entering the work force, and of equal importance, how employers of college graduates view graduates' readiness to work. I am particularly indebted to two colleagues whom I have discovered in the course of this project, Philip D. Gardner of Michigan State University and Elwood (Ed) Holton of Louisiana State University. Philip Gardner argues quite cogently that the mix of qualities and dynamics most sought from college graduates by employers are the following:

.... reading comprehension, writing ability (increasingly technical), numerative literacy (mathematics), science (especially applied physics), computer literacy, and domain skills specific to a student's academic major. Balancing these skills are reasoning competencies which focus on problem-solving and critical thinking, and most importantly, learning to learn, interpersonal communication and team work skills; and personal skills, including time management, goal setting, commitment to quality, entrepre-neurialism which encompasses creativity and risk taking, flexible attitude, and openness to new ideas and processes. (Gardner, in press)

Unfortunately, Gardner (in press) reports that many employers find that college graduates arrive at their organizations unprepared in these areas: "teamwork, effective written and oral expression, interpersonal communication, flexibility, an understanding of quality, and producing innovative (entrepreneurial practices)." Gardner reports that "employers acknowledged that these competencies were a consequence of the changing demands in the work place and realized that these competencies were more behavioral than knowledge based." I would argue then that one of the most important obligations we have to students whom we employ in our own college work settings is the opportunity to develop and practice as many of the aforementioned skills as possible.

While we should provide an environment that is sponsoring, educating, nurturing, accepting, and recognizing of the primacy of their academic commitments, we nevertheless are doing students a disservice if the work environment we create is totally unlike the work world that will await them in their life after college.

In his chapter "Preparing Students for Life Beyond the Classroom: The Role of Higher Education" Ed Holton argues the existence of what he describes as "the paradox of academic preparation." He writes as follows:

> New graduates then face a dramatic culture shift when they move from college to the professional world. The work world is so fundamentally different from the world of education that it requires an almost total transformation on the part of the new graduate. And organizations want employees "who fit". . . their culture and are quick to look for confirmation that a new employee will "fit."
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> The paradox is that while the knowledge acquired in college is critical to graduates' success, the process of succeeding in school is very different than the process of succeeding at work. Many of the skills students develop to be successful in education processes, and the behaviors for which they are rewarded, are not the ones they will need to be successful at work! Worse yet, the culture of education is so different that if seniors continue to have the same expectations of their employers that they did of their college and professors, they will be greatly disappointed with their job and make costly career mistakes. Despite their best attempts to make adjustments, they cannot adjust for educational conditioning because they are not conscious of it.
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> If seniors do not have any interventions and do what comes naturally, they will unknowingly continue to expect the work place to be like college. Many of the behaviors that managers label as "immature," "naive," or not "fitting-in" and which keep newcomers from being successful, are simply behaviors that education has not only tolerated, but rewarded and encouraged. In many cases, new graduates are simply doing in the work place what they have been conditioned to do for 17 years! And they do it simply because they are not being taught any differently, not because they are naive or unwilling to adapt. To compound the paradox, the graduates employers seek the most are the most successful ones who have learned the education system the best. Not surprisingly, they can have the most difficulty unlearning the more familiar educational process. (Holton, in press).

Holton illustrates these critical dimensions of the academic paradox:

College	First Year of Work
Frequent, quick and concrete feedback (grades, etc.)	Infrequent and less precise feedback
Highly structured curriculum and programs with lots of direction and tasks	Highly unstructured environment with few directions
Personally supportive environment	Less personal support
Few significant changes	Frequent and unexpected changes
Flexible schedule	Structured schedule
Frequent breaks and time off	Limited time off
Personal control over time, classes, interests	Responding to other's directions and interests
Intellectual challenge	Organizational and people challenges
Choose your performance level ("A", "B", etc.)	"A" level work required all the time
Focus on your development and growth	Focus on getting results for the organization
Create and explore knowledge	Get results with your knowledge
Individual effort	Team effort
"Right" answers	Few "right" answers

Clearly all of us want our graduates to achieve professional success. But as Holton (in press) argues, we have a responsibility to realize "many helpful practices embedded in the academic culture have the unintended affect of hindering graduates in the workplace." He argues, and I would concur, that educators "must strike a better balance between the supportive processes that aid learning and the less supportive, more ambiguous" elements and processes of our culture which do not contribute to a positive adaptation to the real world after college.

In conclusion, we (the staff of the National Resource Center for The Freshman Year Experience and Students in Transition) believe that the undergraduate student work experience has become a vital component of the college student experience. And we hope this monograph will serve as a call for continuing research, debate, and discussion on the ways to more effectively connect work and the undergraduate student experience.

With the current economic reality and with increasing levels of educational debt, students are becoming more, not less, dependent on work. I believe our challenge is to acknowledge this reality and to exercise more influence and control over the work choices college students make. In balance, I see student employment as a positive dimension of the college experience and one that is adaptive to the realities of life after college. It is our hope that this monograph will help higher educators become even more intentional about providing students the kinds of meaningful work and learning environments that will ease their transition into life after college.

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John N. Gardner

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About The National Student Employment Association

The National Student Employment Association (formerly The National Association of Student Employment Administrators, or NASEA) represents professionals involved with programs for working college students. NSEA promotes student employment through research, professional development, and exchange of information.

Members of NSEA come from public and private two- and four-year institutions, as well as from businesses and agencies, including, but not limited to, professionals in such fields as Financial Aid, Co-operative Education, Federal Work Study, and Experiential Education.

As the only comprehensive student employment association, NSEA is an ideal organization to help those looking for professional development in the area of student employment. NSEA is a prime source for current federal student employment regulations and expert advice in Federal Work Study programs. In the annual conferences and workshops hosted by NSEA, members have training opportunities and the chance to tap into a nationwide network of valuable student employment resources.

NSEA publishes an annual journal and quarterly newsletters. Members also receive a membership directory and periodic bulletins and updates.

NSEA encourages the exchange of information, enabling student employment administrators and employers to communicate via a Student Employment Electronic Conference Network, and providing access to federal updates.

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