

**THE EMPORIA STATE**  
*Research Studies*

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STATE PUBLICATION OF THE KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, EMPORIA



**The Historical Development of Student  
Personnel Records in Colleges  
and Universities**

**By Willard O. Stibal**

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VOLUME 8

December 1959

NUMBER 2

THE EMPORIA STATE RESEARCH STUDIES are published in September, December, March and June of each year by the Graduate Division of the Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas. Entered as second-class matter September 16, 1952, at the post office at Emporia, Kansas, under the act of August 24, 1912.

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This publication is a continuation of *Studies in Education*  
published by the Graduate Division from 1930 to 1945.

Papers published in this periodical are written by faculty members of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia and by either undergraduate or graduate students whose studies are conducted in residence under the supervision of a faculty member of the college.

432047

DATA PROCESSING

FEB 23 1983

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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This writer wishes to extend special appreciation to Dean R. E. Summers of the University of Minnesota for his interest and help in the development of this topic. Also, True E. Pettingill, Recorder, University of Minnesota and H. Dixon Smith, Registrar, Kansas State Teachers College have provided services essential to the completion of the study. The help of numerous college professors, office clerks, and other friends is acknowledged.

## The Historical Development of Student Personnel Records in Colleges and Universities

by Willard O. Stibal\*

Student personnel records in colleges and universities have been closely related to the function of student personnel work. Although colleges have used student records since the seventeenth century, Lloyd-Jones<sup>1</sup> believes that the origins of some organized student personnel work may be traced to about the middle 1800's. Cowley,<sup>2</sup> however, points out that personnel work with students had been done for hundreds of years and ". . . had been the most notable element in higher education up to the time of the Civil War." Thus, student personnel records preceded the establishment of college offices of student personnel, but the function of personnel work itself existed prior to the time of the first college record.

No comprehensive history of student personnel records in colleges has been written, because, for one reason, no satisfactory history of higher education has been written.<sup>3</sup> Secondly, most examinations of college records are usually concerned solely with one of the two somewhat arbitrary classifications of records: those records that are for the student, and those records that exist for the administration and operation of the institution.<sup>4</sup>

Early college records concerning annual enrollments, ages of students, and other descriptive statistical information were poorly kept. Many records were destroyed by the fires which frequently ravaged the colleges.<sup>5</sup> Sometimes the records were lost or left behind when the colleges moved into new buildings. In general, there is a paucity of early historical source material on student records.

*Early elementary school records for purposes of systematic pupil accounting.* In the colonial period, the two sources of college student supply were the classes of private tutors and the Latin Grammar Schools. Some colleges maintained a college preparatory school. With the sole aim of these lower schools the preparation of students for colleges, the relatively homogeneous student body, and the narrow curriculum, there was no requirement for closer articulation between the lower school and the college. Student personnel records were not believed necessary for the coordination of the schools.<sup>6</sup>

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1. Esther Lloyd-Jones, "The Beginnings of Our Profession," in E. C. Williamson, ed., *Trends in Student Personnel Work* (Minneapolis, 1949), pp. 260-261.

2. W. H. Cowley, "Some History and a Venture in Prophecy," in Williamson, ed., *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, pp. 12-27.

3. Edgar W. Knight, "History of Education," in Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (Rev. Ed., New York, 1950), pp. 552-554.

4. Esther M. Lloyd-Jones and Margaret R. Smith, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education* (New York, 1938), p. 247.

5. H. C. Good, "Colleges and Universities—1. Historical Development in the United States," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 224.

6. E. C. Broome, *An Historical and Critical Discussion of College Admission Requirements* (Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology and Education, Nos. 3-4, Columbia University, 1903), *passim*.

The first student records in colleges and universities did not come as a contribution of the record practices in institutions of a lower educational level. As time passed, however, forces interacted between the different levels of educational institutions to the extent of altering records at all levels.

The New England colonial schools are recognized as ineffective under today's standards, but within these institutions rested the seeds for an eventual improvement in public education following the early national period. The Massachusetts public elementary schools of the period between 1775 and 1825 showed little or no improvement and actually degenerated in quality of instruction. The incompetent teachers were merely former pupils of the ineffective common schools. Public apathy towards education was the condition of the times. Local self-government and opposition to state control of education was carried to absurdity, and the wisdom of education for the masses was another source of debate among community leaders.

The first official state action to improve schools occurred in 1827. The towns of Massachusetts were required to forward annual statistical reports concerning their schools to the Secretary of the Commonwealth. In 1834 a State School Fund was established and its income was distributed among the towns on the basis of data provided by the annual school reports of the towns.

The training in the first public normal school, established at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839 did not put an emphasis upon individual differences of students and records of these differences. Instead, the curriculum put a major emphasis only upon acquiring subject-matter and teaching the subject-matter. The instructional methods devoted considerable time to methods of exercising the mental and moral faculties.<sup>7</sup>

Mental discipline was a major determinant in the instruction and curricular programs of all the schools until at least the turn of the twentieth century. Did this affect all student records and student personnel procedures? Perhaps because mental discipline was held in such high esteem, the teaching method was accorded powers that would obviate a need for better student records or for organized student personnel work.

Records of elementary pupils were undoubtedly kept prior to the time of Horace Mann, secretary of the State Board of Education in Massachusetts. Upon the recommendation of Horace Mann, the legislature in 1839 passed an act requiring the keeping of a form for pupil accounting by all school districts.<sup>8</sup> Mann continued to revise the forms of the first simple register until 1845, and then devised a permanent school register in book form to be used by the school. The purposes and functions of the permanent school register were stated by Mann in terms that would be more inclusive than a mere accounting of students. Guidance was an objective.

The passage of the first compulsory attendance law in 1852 by the Massachusetts Legislature was effected largely through the efforts of Horace Mann and this gave added importance to systematic accounting of

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7. *The First State Normal School in America—The Journals of Cyrus Pierce and Mary Swift with an Introduction by Arthur O. Norton* (Cambridge, 1926), Introduction, pp. xxxv-xxxvii.

8. Arch O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Chicago, 1929), p. 187.

pupils. At about the same time, Henry Barnard in Connecticut and Samuel Lewis in Ohio gave serious attention to records. Largely due to the influence of Barnard, the student accounting register became mandatory in Connecticut. Eventually, school registers were required in the majority of states, but, in general, they were simple and "almost devoid of personal data."<sup>9</sup>

The main considerations in student records below the college level were student accounting and later included academic marking. These procedures were true to a large extent until the 1928 American Council on Education Cumulative Record was published.<sup>10</sup>

#### HOW RECORDS DEVELOPED FROM ENTRANCE DATA TO ACADEMIC DATA DURING COLLEGE, TO OTHER PERSONNEL DATA, AND ON TO RECORDS AS A PART OF THE PERSONNEL PROGRAM

*Admission data as the first student records.* The admission laws of Harvard in 1642 required a translation of the works of Tully or other Latin authors and a demonstrated knowledge of the grammatical construction of Greek.<sup>11</sup> The admission rules suggest that it was a verbal translation, but it is believed that a written transcription of Latin was used as a test for admission as early as 1665, if not earlier.<sup>12</sup> In a broad concept of personnel records, it is likely that these early translations were the first student personnel records to be kept by colleges. In addition, a careful investigation was made of the applicant's character.<sup>13</sup>

Harvard College did not change its objectives, curriculum, or its stated admissions policy to any extent until nearly the middle of the eighteenth century. The personal examination of the college applicant, according to local standards, was the pattern for admissions in all colleges until well into the nineteenth century.<sup>14</sup> However, the increased Latin and Greek requirements for admission by the colleges was the beginning of subject prescription as a substitute for personal examination.

At this early period the small number of college students made it administratively feasible to examine each student. Elaborate records and reports were not needed. For example, just before the Revolutionary War, the freshman classes at Columbia averaged ten students, and the graduating seniors averaged six students.<sup>15</sup> At the University of Pennsylvania in 1797, there were three students in the senior class, nine in the junior, and none in the third class.<sup>16</sup>

A comparison of Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Brown, and Williams about 1800 showed that three subjects (Latin, Greek and arithmetic) were required for admission.<sup>17</sup> Written tests were probably the only

9. *Manual for the American Council on Education, Cumulative Record Folders for Schools and Colleges*, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., May 1947, p. 2.

10. *Ibid.*, p. 3.

11. Broome, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

12. W. L. Sprouse and F. W. Bradshaw, "Admission and Registration," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 18-19.

13. *Ibid.*, pp. 262-266.

14. Broome, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

15. *Ibid.*, p. 224.

16. Edward P. Cheyney, *History of the University of Pennsylvania* (Philadelphia, 1940), p. 185.

17. Broome, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

functional personnel records at this time. Vocational preparation for the ministry, a uniform curriculum, lack of more advanced psychological measurement, a simple society, lack of financial resources, and a relatively small and homogeneous student college population were some of the factors influencing the utilization of college admission records that were few and poor in terms of today's values and standards.

Influences requiring extension of the purposes of American colleges and universities beyond the earlier preparation for the clergy are familiar. Such factors as political independence, democracy, nationalism, scientific developments, the industrial revolution, westward expansion, and the splintering of American Protestantism into sects eventually affected admission practices as well as the curricula.<sup>18</sup>

Between 1800 and 1870, the college admissions requirements began to change. Old requirements were kept and new ones added.<sup>19</sup> At that time, original problems in geometry and experimental work in science were aspects of the admission requirements to Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, Stanford and other schools.<sup>20</sup> The trend was away from a rigid prescription of a body of subject matter information.

Johnston<sup>21</sup> reports that eight new subjects were required during this time. These new subject area requirements were partly developed in the preparatory schools and academies and partly developed in the colleges, only to be pushed down to the preparatory schools later. Individual colleges began setting up rules to admit students by certificate.

The admission standards for the classical college courses were so rigid that a large portion of the college "student potential" could not qualify for entrance to college. The academies developed as a more practical type of schooling and began to compete with the colleges for students.<sup>22</sup> As an attempt to eliminate this condition, colleges began to offer "parallel semi-classical courses," and, in time, the colleges authorized degrees for the people completing the new courses.<sup>23</sup> The liberalization of curricula and the elective system meant different kinds of student training. Academic records of the students became more important for indicating the type of curricula that each student undertook.

During the early years of Kansas State Normal School, the varied character of the courses resulted in a wide variance of entrance requirements. Few towns in Kansas had secondary schools. According to President Hoss in 1872 there were ". . . two evils with which the school had to contend; namely, low grade of scholarship of the applicants for entrance and shortness of the stay in the institution."<sup>24</sup>

In 1865-66, the second year of the operation of Kansas State Normal School, the age requirement was 17 for men and 16 for women, but the

18. Margaret Clapp, ed., *The Modern University* (Ithaca, 1950), p. 63.

19. Broome, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

20. *Ibid.*, pp. 68-69.

21. J. B. Johnston, "Selection of Students," in Raymond A. Kent, ed., *Higher Education in America* (Boston, 1930), pp. 409-440.

22. Benjamin Fine, *Admissions to American Colleges* (New York, 1946), pp. 16-17.

23. Broome, *op. cit.*, pp. 68-69.

24. V. Scott McCormick, *The Development and Growth of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, 1865-1925*, An Investigation for a course in Educational Research conducted under the guidance of W. H. Carothers, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, January 23, 1925, pp. 69-70.



Principal was permitted to use his discretion in enrolling younger students. Also, a certificate “. . . from some responsible person of the good moral and intellectual character of the applicant was necessary for many years.”<sup>25</sup>

The continued acute need for trained teachers influenced the admissions and the curricular offerings in the teacher training institutions. The teaching of elementary school subject-matter (*e.g.*, grammar, spelling, drawing, arithmetic, and history) and the teaching of methods were emphasized. The Kansas State Normal School of 1865, which was representative of this type of institution, offered courses somewhat comparable in difficulty to secondary school offerings of today. However, the school was considered as different from both secondary schools and colleges. One first program was of 22 weeks duration. After completion of this program, the student would receive a teaching certificate. At the completion of the full three-year course, the student was entitled to receive a diploma, and this diploma, in turn, was his certificate to teach in the common schools of Kansas.<sup>26</sup>

From the first, teacher preparation required emphasis upon personal qualities of the students, rather than merely the act of the student passing a formal curriculum. A recognition of the purpose to be served by the Normal School meant that personality characteristics of students were of prime significance. Modern theories of personnel work today are concerned with people as human beings and with the purposes of institutional services.

When college enrollment greatly increased, it became difficult for each college to examine every applicant.<sup>27</sup> From 1870 to about 1895, the admission practice trends of various institutions of higher education were away from a personal examination of the applicant.<sup>28</sup> The “more selective” colleges began an inspection and accreditation of secondary schools as the basis of admission. This development tended to promote closer articulation between high schools and colleges, but provided less attention to other differences between individual students.

The establishment of many public state colleges and universities during the latter half of the nineteenth century did much to reduce the rigid prescription of preparatory courses for college admission. The College of Agriculture at Ohio State University was opened in 1873 and required for admission “. . . a good common-school education, including the elements of algebra.”<sup>29</sup> Cope further reports that of the students reporting for admission in 1873, 25 were admitted and 20 were rejected on examinations in the stated preliminary requirements.

The criteria of admission at the University of Minnesota also was relatively liberal. On the academic record of one student admitted to the College of Science, Literature, and Arts of the University in 1905 was printed the following entrance requirement:

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25. *Ibid.*, p. 70.

26. Everett Fish and Kathryn Kayser, *An Outline of the History of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, 1865-1934* (Master's Thesis, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, 1934), I, 19-22.

27. A. L. Jones, “A Selective System of Admission to Colleges,” *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, 1930, 6: 33-48.

28. Sprouse and Bradshaw, *op. cit.*, p. 262.

29. Alexis Cope, *History of The Ohio State University* (Columbus, 1920) I, 444-445.

Every person admitted to this college shall be examined in reading, writing, spelling and composing the English language, and no person shall ever receive any diploma or other certificate of merit or proficiency until he shall have passed such examination and obtained specified credit.

The same record has spaces for entrance conditions and preparation in Latin, German, French, and Greek. Apparently, deficiencies in any entrance requirement could be removed by taking certain courses or tests at the university.

The point system of admissions was first utilized among the larger institutions of higher education at Leland Stanford University in 1891. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the new trend was a personal examination of the individual, but it was largely in terms of prescribed secondary courses. College catalogs of the time reveal the prescriptive nature of subjects required for college entrance and the arbitrary designation of numerical credit points to each subject. In order to expedite the admission procedure, the College Entrance Examination was created to issue certificates of college admission to high school graduates.<sup>30</sup> Kelley reports that by 1909 the Carnegie unit was defined and was accepted by many colleges for use in the admission of students on the basis of secondary school work.<sup>31</sup>

The academic records of 1905 of the Kansas State Normal School reveal that some students were high school students and others were of "graduation" (college) or advanced work status. The authorities in the school differentiated the classifications by permitting no advanced credit until 15 units of work were completed. High school (entrance) credit was marked with the appropriate units, whereas advanced college work was indicated with hour designations. Twenty weeks of course work was either one secondary unit or two college hours. Some students registered for classes at both levels.

The rather arbitrary and prescriptive concept relating to admission criteria and records was inherent in all educational science before 1900.<sup>32</sup> Educational thought was dialectic and was borrowed from the basic sciences of the time. A functional empirical science of education was practically non-existent before 1900. The later development of tools of measurement and research methods influenced the use of data and records for admission purposes.

Since the Carnegie unit was defined, no other entrance criterion was used so universally for college admission as the transcript of secondary school units.<sup>33</sup> The best report up to this time on records and reports relating to high school-college articulation was made by the committee of the National Education Association.<sup>34</sup> One of the few generalizations from the

30. Broome, *op. cit.*, pp. 69-72.

31. F. J. Kelley and Others, *Collegiate Accreditation by Agencies Within the States* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 3, 1940), pp. 1-25.

32. B. Othonel Smith, "Science of Education," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1145-1148.

33. W. W. Hinckley, *Handbook of College Entrance Requirements* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 13, 1941), p. 2.

34. National Education Association, "From High School to College," *Research Bulletin*, 1938, 16: 63-122.

study that can be made is the records and reports that colleges and secondary schools exchange vary a great deal among the different educational establishments.

Currently, there is no typical admission practice in American colleges and universities. For example, at the University of Minnesota, each college within the university has its own admission requirements. In general, 15 Carnegie units of high school work are a standard requirement for college entrance and a minimum of two years of foreign language are required by most universities. Ninety per cent of the colleges and universities admit students either by certificate, by graduation from an accredited high school, by examination, or by some combination of these methods. The current trend is towards a greater evaluation of personal characteristics and aptitudes. Fine<sup>35</sup> has given the following pattern as a composite method of selecting students:

1. Graduation from an accredited high school;
2. Rank in high school graduating class;
3. Recommendations of principal or teachers;
4. Scholastic aptitude or other intelligence tests;
5. Personal interview;
6. Character references;
7. Extra-curricular activities;
8. Health record.

The liberalization of admission requirements has been evident by a gradual breakdown of the rigid entrance patterns and a greater emphasis on the ability of the student to do college work. A greater variety of data included on records and reports gives a broader base for admission of students.

Ruth Stout<sup>36</sup> pointed out the desirability for positively-oriented selective admission and retention programs in teacher education. Student records would be central in such selective-retention practices. Also, she deplored the lag of practice behind belief in selection for teacher preparation.

Colleges preparing only teachers usually admit students to teacher education programs at the time of admission to the colleges. Also, elementary education majors in most teacher education institutions usually declare their intention of following the elementary program during their initial admission application or, at least, during the first one or two years of college. However, the selection of people pursuing secondary teaching majors in institutions offering training other than teacher training follows a different procedure. In such institutions, admission to teacher education with secondary majors usually occurs after the sophomore year in college.<sup>37</sup> This delay in the declaration of intention to follow a teacher education objective complicates the essential record-keeping process and the needed research procedures.

*Academic record.* The innovation of a varied and more complex curricula tended to promote the use of records relating to the academic

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35. Fine, *Admission to American Colleges*, p. 217.

36. Ruth Stout, "Selective Admissions and Retention Practices in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, September, 1957, 8: 299-317.

37. From a survey of colleges as conducted by Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia.

achievements of students. It seems likely that college academic achievement records of some sort followed records of admission, but this investigator found no stated evidence to that effect in the literature on records.

Academic records, as we know them today, did not exist in the earliest colleges. The "best and sometimes the only memoranda" of the early Harvard students that are available are in the current six College Steward's Account-Books.<sup>38</sup> The names of those who were and were not graduated are indicated. The nature of the "quarter-bills" and their payment constitute much of the record. Also included are residency of students at the college and the period of time required for degrees. It appears that these student records largely relate to financial matters.

The early Kansas State Normal School held an "examiner's day" at the end of the year. It consisted of an oral examination of the students as well as the graduates. Also, at this school, Principal (President) Kellogg made an official report in the *Emporia News* of each graduate and of the student's professional assets.

The first mention of a systematic recording of pupils' marks at Kansas State Normal School is made in the 1873 catalog. Achievement, expressed as a percentage grade, was determined upon the basis of recitation and examination.<sup>39</sup>

The first permanent centralized academic records at Kansas State Teachers College were established in 1874—nine years after the college (Kansas State Normal School) was established. Even these first permanent records probably were transcribed in 1879 from some other kind of earlier notations, such as the class registration books. The first student names, covering this period from 1874 to 1879, were listed in alphabetical order on the left side with the subject included at the top of each page in a large book file 17 inches by 14 inches in size. Most of the academic grades were indicated by a percentage mark (including drawing and writing), but some percentage marks were also interpreted in terms of letter grades A, B, C, and D. This kind of academic record book was a standard commercial production and undoubtedly was used by other colleges and universities.

Later, in 1902, a new type of standard book-form record was instituted at Kansas State Normal School. This provided a record space for only four people on a page but included the recording of more complete permanent data. This data included the kind of admission, date of admission, student age, student home post office, times tardy from class including "excused" and "unexcused" notations, percentage grade, and the person entering the data.

Because Kansas State Normal School started with only one teacher (Principal Kellogg) and its faculty size remained small for a number of years, the problem of grade recording was simplified. The finding of no early permanent centralized academic records is probably due to the use of the instructor's class registration book and, later, the departmental regis-

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38. J. S. Sibley, *Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts* (Cambridge, 1873), I, 547-599.

39. Fish and Kayser, *op. cit.*, I, 176, and for information immediately following in text, *et. seq., passim.*

tration book as academic records. With a simple single curriculum these class registration books could be used as a record of achievement. The departmental registration books continued to be used for the reporting of class grades to the registrar's office through the 1940's. Their importance as a source of student grades may be inferred from the practice of careful filing of the books.

Each student name, as filed in the first permanent academic record at the Kansas State Normal School, was also entered on a different small card. These cards, filed alphabetically, served as a locator card for names in the large book-form academic records. The locator cards provided such information as the name of each student, his matriculation date, and an indication of the appropriate book (academic record file) containing his record. This same procedure is one of the better methods used today to locate specific academic records.

One of the simplest of the old record forms at the University of Minnesota is the academic record of students in the College of Law. Starting with the beginning class of 1902, the name of each student is listed alphabetically in a 16 by 17 inch book. The student names are listed down the left hand side of one page, a name to each line, and the subjects, as required in the single law curriculum of the times, are listed across the top of that page and are continued across the top of the opposite face of the next page. The subject grades after each name are indicated in ink by numbers ranging from one to four. Usually no data other than the name and grade are given on this permanent record form of the students.

The writer's inspection of several other academic records at the University of Minnesota, some extending back to 1905, showed great variability in record forms among the colleges of the institution. Some subject areas were printed on six-by-thirteen paper sheets, and other subjects, not printed on the forms but taken by students, were written on the record in different colored inks. Generally, credits were not listed for the subjects on the earliest records, but the marking symbols were entered. Apparently the number of credits for each course was understood. The subjects were listed in chronological order, and the graduating degrees and dates of degree were given. No test results were entered on these early forms but the records of some colleges provided for "Entrance English," requiring the "pass" or "fail" notation. A form initiated in 1907 provided space for the length of time that students had taken Algebra, Geometry, Latin, German, French, Greek, and Scandanavian, in preparatory schools. A file number was assigned to students at least as early as 1905. Disciplinary action against students was given on some permanent records. On others, the name of the student's graduating high school was entered. Some of the college academic record forms used later, as in the 1920's, were of a more simple form; some of these record forms were just plain-lined colored paper without any printing of subjects, dates, etc.

One reason for the great variability in record forms was due to the condition whereby each college kept its own records, generally in a book form, with one page for each person's record. As time passed, the different colleges within the university assigned the function of keeping the academic records to the Office of Admissions and Records. Today, all the per-

manent records, including the older ones that the individual colleges formerly maintained, are kept there.

An investigation of the historical literature on academic records reveals little past concern for the subject as worthy of research. Yet Carlson's<sup>40</sup> 1942 study of college transfer records of 241 institutions of higher education showed great variability among academic records kept by colleges. Singewald's<sup>41</sup> investigation the same year of 85 Pacific Coast colleges also disclosed great variability and deficiencies in the form of academic student records. Every college keeps academic records of some kind, but many of these records are inadequate for giving an accurate and permanent account of student scholastic achievement.

Currently, there is some effort to improve academic records by improving college systems of grading students. A second concern that affects records is a method whereby the students may be spared the ignominy of failure and eventual college elimination. Leffler<sup>42</sup> has described one such technique involving the dropping of a failing course at the mid-semester point without a failure being recorded on the academic record. On the other hand, a large potential student body in the United States and scientific competition from the Soviets may eliminate this latter possible trend.

*Records of college testing programs.* The first college testing program of any type occurred in the psychological laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania where James M. Cattell, in 1889-90, tried out a series of ten mental tests and measurements.<sup>43</sup> These mental tests were on discrete and/or non-intellectual functions such as reaction time, eyesight, memory, imagery, rate of perception, perception of pitch, sensation areas, etc.<sup>44</sup> The physical tests were concerned with such measurements as the length and breadth of the head, weight, and height. Later, Cattell transferred to Columbia, where he and Farrand published the first report of the results of physical and mental tests of college freshmen. These test records were not used for admission purposes, but they did set a precedent for testing programs that were to follow.

Wisser<sup>45</sup> in 1901, reported that Columbia maintained records of stature, weight and other physical measurements, together with other such data as parentage, personal habits, and academic grades. More elaborate records developed with the increase of measurement.

Cook<sup>46</sup> has described the scientific movement in education including the antecedents of educational measurement, and the development of bureaus of cooperative research and testing programs. Probably the most

40. Roy M. Carlson, "College Student Records in Relation to Transfer," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, 1942, 17: 526-531.

41. G. L. Singewald, "Analysis of the Permanent Record Forms Used by Eighty-five Pacific Coast Colleges," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, 1942, 17: 355-358.

42. Emil Leffler, "A Motivation Technique for Aiding Freshmen in Academic Difficulty," *College and University*, January, 1951, 26: 280-284.

43. F. Edith Carothers, *Psychological Examinations of College Students* (Archives of Psychology, No. 46, December 1921; Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy and Psychology), pp. 1-82.

44. J. McKeen Cattell and L. Farrand, "Physical and Mental Measurements of the Students at Columbia University," *Psychological Review*, 1896, III, 618-647.

45. Clark Wisser, "The Correlation of Mental and Physical Traits," *Psychological Review Monograph Supplement*, No. 1901, III, 62.

46. Walter W. Cook, "Tests, Achievements," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1461-1463.

monumental work of this early period was done by Binet and Simon, who in 1905, developed an individual mental examination which tested complex mental processes, the results of which were meaningful for scholastic prediction purposes. With the development of new educational measurement devices came increased research in education and, in turn, an increase in records and record utilization.

Bureaus of cooperative research were established by universities and colleges in an effort to promote educational measurement in public schools as well as in the colleges or universities. In 1914 the Kansas State Normal School established one of the first bureaus of measurements in the United States. The bureau was instituted for the purpose of aiding superintendents and teachers in measuring the achievement of their pupils with the achievement of pupils in other schools.<sup>47</sup> Also, the bureau tested college students and, as an outcome of the achievement testing, each student was assigned to college classes according to his placement results on the examinations.

#### HOW COLLEGE AND STATE ACCREDITING AGENCIES AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS INFLUENCED RECORDS

*The colleges as high school accrediting agencies.* Education in the United States was in a disorganized condition after the Civil War. The public high school replaced or developed as an institutional addition to the early academies. As a result of these conditions, uncertainty existed as to the function of the colleges and the high schools.<sup>48</sup> To further the dilemma of public high schools, college entrance requirements were so diverse that the high schools could not prepare students in all the subjects required for admission by various colleges in the United States. A development between 1870 and about 1895 was the inspection and accreditation of high schools.

Beginning at the University of Michigan in 1871, colleges began to control admission by certificate.<sup>49</sup> Only in the past year has the University of Michigan discontinued the accreditation of high schools. Usually the state universities, which were the first to admit by certificate, were the accrediting agencies for their respective states. In general, the institutions that admitted by certificate accepted secondary school credits in more subject areas than did the group which admitted by examination.<sup>50</sup>

In terms of recent research findings, it is extremely difficult to justify the accreditation of secondary schools by the colleges. Nevertheless this college entrance procedure did allow the high schools to include more secondary subjects for college preparatory students and it tended to alter the arbitrary and dogmatic college admission requirements. An emphasis on the well-rounded development of the individual, rather than only attention to intellectual aspects, brought more data on various aspects of pupil development.

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47. Fish and Kayser, *op. cit.*, I, 176.

48. F. J. Kelley and others, *Collegiate Accreditation by Agencies Within the States*, p. 20.

49. J. L. Henderson, *Admission to College by Certificate* (Contributions to Education, No. 50, Teachers College; Columbia University, 1912), p. 51.

50. *Ibid.*, pp. 50-58.

*The New England College Entrance Certificate Board.* Prior to 1900 several state university systems in the Middle West were accrediting secondary schools and granting admission to the university by certificate. This same practice by universities in the East led in 1902 to the formation of the first successful organized movement to secure uniformity in the standards of the college preparatory school, the New England College Entrance Certificate Board.<sup>51</sup> The next year the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools set up requirements for accrediting secondary schools, and it published the first list of accredited schools in 1904. Thus, the certificate for admission became a required report on the student and its function was essentially administrative.

The influences of the College Entrance Examination Board, as established in 1900, and the New England College Entrance Certificate Board are evident in the 1908 admission policies of the University of Maine.<sup>52</sup> Admission was by examination and by certificate from schools approved by the New England College Entrance Certificate Board. Entrance by examination required the completion of examination blanks furnished by the University and a statement by the principal of the high school regarding the applicant's fitness to take the examination. Certificates for admission to the freshman class were accepted only from graduates of the approved secondary schools. Besides the completed certificate record, a recommendation by the applicant's secondary school principal was required. In addition to these two procedures of admission, the college catalog enumerated entrance requirements based on points for designated subjects.

*Regional associations of colleges and secondary schools.* The need existed after the Civil War to determine the characteristics and functions of the high schools and the colleges in the total pattern of American education. This need to differentiate between the work of the two institutions gave rise to associations composed of representatives of colleges and universities in four regions—New England, the Middle, the Southern, and the North Central States.<sup>53</sup> In time these associations assumed the function of the accreditation of secondary schools and colleges on a regional basis.

The cooperative setting of standards for accreditation of secondary schools was first formulated by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1902<sup>54</sup> and this Association became a leader in the improvement of accreditation standards. The North Central Association's standards of accrediting colleges and universities were revised in 1923. Even at this time most of the standards were mere statements in terms of a given number of conditions, e.g., the admission requirement, unit of secondary work, semester hours of college work for graduation, number of college departments, number of library volumes, students in a class, and amount of income for the educational program. Student records and student services were not mentioned beyond the implication of required admission units and graduation credit hours.<sup>55</sup>

51. F. J. Kelley and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 8-11.

52. *Catalog of the University of Maine, 1908-1909* (Orono, Maine, 1908), pp. 49-52.

53. F. J. Kelley and others, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

54. E. D. Grizzell, "Accreditation," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1-3.

55. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Meeting* (The Association, 1925), pp. 13-15.



A new system of accrediting higher institutions based on a total pattern evaluation was again adopted by the Association in April, 1934. Included in the accreditation scope this time was a concern for such institutional provisions as student financial aid and the counseling of students in their "intimate personal affairs."<sup>56</sup>

The standards for student records were derived from Gardner's<sup>57</sup> study of personal records, and the Russell and Reeves<sup>58</sup> study of records in administration. In general, these investigations consisted of comparisons of record practices in colleges with subjective ratings of institutional excellence. A total score was assigned on the aspects of college student personnel service or administration under consideration. The recommendations regarding student records as stated in these two studies are essentially the same as those in the *Revised Manual of Accrediting* used for the accreditation of colleges and universities.<sup>59</sup>

*Accreditation and control by state departments of education.* Education is usually considered as a function of the state, and the state authority usually provides some machinery for inspection and accreditation. However, such provisions are usually limited to elementary and secondary institutions.<sup>60</sup> The first state department to develop an accreditation system for its public schools was the Indiana Department of Public Instruction in 1873.<sup>61</sup>

All states require reports from public high schools within the state and these state regulations undoubtedly have influenced the records and reports kept by secondary schools about student academic records, enrollment statistics, graduates, and similar accounts. It is likely that these secondary school records have not influenced the records kept by colleges to any great degree. However, state regulatory and supervisory functions over higher education are evident in such processes as chartering and establishing new institutions, granting degrees, certification of public school teachers, and similar activities.<sup>62</sup> Records and reports for such educational processes are important and are needed, but in the main they take the form of accounting to a higher authority.

*The Progressive Education Association.* The Eight Year Study, a national effort to improve secondary education through experimentation, was sponsored starting in 1934 by the Progressive Education Association in cooperation with the colleges and universities of the United States.<sup>63</sup> Thirty selected private and public suburban and city schools were released from the restriction of prescribed high school offerings for college entrance requirements in order to more freely plan a curriculum offering. The graduates of these 30 schools did as well in college as matched students who had

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56. George F. Zook and M. E. Haggerty, *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions—I—Principles of Accrediting Higher Institutions* (Chicago, 1936), p. 153.

57. Danfred H. Gardner, *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions—V—Student Personnel Service* (Chicago, 1936), pp. 52-65.

58. John Dale Russell and Floyd W. Reeves, *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions—VI—Administration* (Chicago, 1936), pp. 1-285.

59. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *Revised Manual of Accrediting* (Commission on Colleges and Universities, July 1, 1941), pp. 5-6, 29-37.

60. Grizzell, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

61. *Ibid.*, p. 1.

62. *Ibid.*, p. 4.

63. Eugene R. Smith and Ralph Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (New York, 1942).

followed the traditional secondary school course. The study tended to show a need for the collection of more types of information than mere test scores and course work. Some comprehensive personnel record forms were used experimentally in the study and features of these forms were later incorporated in the revised cumulative record form of the American Council on Education.

*The American Council on Education and its influence on records and reports.* Probably the most extensive and thorough research pertaining to non-academic records of students was done by a committee of the American Council on Education, which, in July, 1927, created a committee on Personnel Procedures. Four subcommittees, working under an executive committee, were presented with specific assignments in the area of personnel work.<sup>64</sup> The task for Committee I was to build a cumulative personal record form to be used for student guidance, personnel research, and student accounting. Operating under a subvention from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., the 1928 Cumulative Record form was presented. It was the work of Professor Ben D. Wood of Columbia College and Dr. E. L. Clark of Northwestern University, who had made a study of many record cards, preserving good features and adding others for the forms.<sup>65</sup> Professor Wood was credited for the philosophy underlying the record forms. Two of the significant values of the college cumulative record form were to give homogeneity of forms to the high schools for reporting on high school graduates and to furnish a compact continuous source of information on the student's pre-college and college history.

The American Council on Education published four cumulative record forms of a provisional nature which were used over an experimental period of ten years or more:<sup>66</sup>

- (1) a folder for college students, (2) a folder for secondary school students, (3) a card for elementary school students, and (4) a card that may be used in either elementary school or the secondary school.

Many adaptations of these records were made by such organizations as the Educational Records Bureau and the Remington Rand Corporation. It later developed that one of the most significant weaknesses of the forms was an emphasis on discrete, isolated test scores with no space for the recording of basic student behavior patterns.

The American Council on Education recognized the inadequacies of the 1928 cumulative record forms, and, in 1941 and 1943, it presented revisions of the earlier forms. The new forms encourage greater flexibility in the recording of academic work and a greater emphasis upon the recording of observations about student behavior in terms of a broad understanding of personality development.<sup>67</sup>

64. Francis Foster Bradshaw, *The American Council on Education Rating Scale: Its Reliability, Validity and Use* (Archives of Psychology, No. 119, October, 1930; Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy and Psychology), pp. 25-26.

65. "Personnel Methods," *The Educational Record Supplement* (American Council on Education, July, 1928), Vol. 9, No. 8, pp. 12-52.

66. Committee on Revision of Cumulative Records, *Manual for Cumulative Records* (American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1947), pp. 3-4.

67. *Ibid.*, p. 4.

### HOW RECORDS FOLLOWED CHANGES IN CURRICULUM AND EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The development of the American universities was largely conditioned by the conflicts of ideas and concepts within and between the several generations of clientele served by the institutions. Clapp<sup>68</sup> has shown how the modern university has evolved from the medieval and English universities.

*Harvard as a model college of the colonial period.* The early story of American higher education, according to Broome, can be found in the history of Harvard College as actively established in 1638.<sup>69</sup> The outstanding characteristics of this school were its religious zeal and its design in imitation of Emmanuel College of England. The purposes and conservatism of Harvard were reflected in colleges established later in the United States.

The prime purpose for the establishment of Harvard was to supply the people with an enlightened clergy of the Calvinist faith. There was a three-year course of study until 1655, when it was increased to four.<sup>70</sup> The curriculum was of a single type for all students of a given class and consisted largely of such subjects as Greek, Hebrew, logic, rhetoric and theological and philosophical disputations. The curriculum of Harvard College stood throughout the seventeenth century with scarcely any change.<sup>71</sup> A simple single curriculum, making few provisions for individual differences, did not require a great number of student records.

Regimentation of student behavior was considered an important function of the early colleges and the few student records were utilized as disciplinary techniques. Under the college laws of Harvard in 1822, the student names were arranged in the records according to the social rank of the parents, and the seating in the classes was in the same order.<sup>72</sup> The rearrangement of this rank was used as a threat for undesirable behavior on the part of students.

The faculty attempts at rigid regimentation of the students, as prescribed by college laws, eventually led to extremes. Campus riots, arson, and shootings were common. College laws, rigid discipline, and personal examination of the applicant's character did not tend to eliminate undesirable student behavior on the college campuses.<sup>73</sup>

It was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that Harvard and its sister colleges began to alter the objectives and curriculum of the college. About the close of the eighteenth century arithmetic and astronomy were increasing in importance as college subjects.<sup>74</sup>

*The increase of college enrollments.* The small number of students in the colleges of the colonial period tended to relegate student records to a place of inferior importance. Small college enrollments continued until about 1870.<sup>75</sup> By the end of the nineteenth century, college enrollments in

68. Clapp, ed., *The Modern University*.

69. E. C. Broome, *An Historical and a Critical Discussion of College Admission Requirements* (Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology, and Education, Columbia University, 1903), XL, Nos. 3-4, pp. 1-153.

70. *Ibid.*, p. 24.

71. *Ibid.*, pp. 20-21.

72. Goode, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

73. *Ibid.*, pp. 224-225.

74. Broome, *op. cit.*, pp. 225-250.

75. Cowley, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

the United States had passed the 230,000 figure.<sup>76</sup> Between 1900 and 1948, the total population of the United States almost doubled, while student enrollment in higher education increased more than tenfold. Exclusive of veteran enrollments, the 1947-48 enrollments were five or six times the total number of students in 1899-1900. In 1947-48 the U.S. Office of Education reported a total 2,616,262 enrollment. In the fall of 1958 the U. S. Office of Education reported the total enrollment for the contiguous states was 3,226,038.<sup>77</sup>

The tremendous increase of student population during the past 70 years has made possible the institution of new courses and curriculums to meet the needs and demands of a large and variable student body. The change from the prescribed classical studies to an elective one encompassing vocational, scientific, and practical training has stimulated student personnel work and the use of student records.

Throughout the history of any college or university, the inadequacy of statistical records and reports presents insurmountable problems in the pursuance of needed research. The limited number of basic recommendations made by McCormick for Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia in 1925 are essential ones that many institutions still could heed today. These early recommendations were:<sup>78</sup>

1. The separation of men and women should be made in the office of the Registrar in the enrollment figures for all courses . . .
2. The separation of men and women should be made in the office of the Registrar for the graduate lists . . .
3. More detailed information regarding the summer school enrollment should be kept. This should show the division as to men and women and as to academic rank . . .
4. More detailed information should be kept of the correspondence study group. Care should be taken to see that students enrolled in correspondence and who do work in residence the same year are not counted twice . . .
- . . .
6. It is believed that to have the teaching experience of each student enrolled would be valuable information. This might be incorporated in the form used for enrollment. The publishing of the average teaching experience of the graduating class should be valuable information . . .
7. The copies of the catalogs should be bound before sections are misplaced . . .

*The rise of two new educational institutions.* The increasing pressure of college financial support caused the early colleges to alter the curriculum to serve a larger number of students. Strict denominational schools

76. John Dale Russell, "Colleges and Universities," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 221.

77. U. S. Office of Education Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1946-48, *Statistics of Higher Education*, (Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1950), Chapter 4, pp. 1-26; Edith Huddleston and Hazel Poole, *Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Education, 1958: Analytic Report* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1959), Circular No. 545, Table 14, p. 23.

78. McCormick, *op. cit.*, pp. 103-104.

found that their clientele was limited to members of that faith. Vocational preparation for the ministry as the purpose of the colleges further curtailed enrollments and financial support. The rise of two new institutions, the academies and the land-grant colleges, had a tremendous effect upon the curriculum offerings of institutions of higher education.

The early popular demand for what was described as a practical type of schooling rather than the classical one led to the development of many academies by the late 1700's. Science, geography, English, mathematics, history, music, bookkeeping and other vocational subjects were offered to students in the academies.<sup>79</sup> Even though the academies were instituted as lower level educational institutions, the broadened educational opportunities of these schools began to attract large numbers of students. The colleges felt the competition of the academies and wisely began to broaden their own curriculum to meet this competition for students. The curriculum changes were of a most conservative type and consisted largely of adding the basic natural sciences and allowing modern languages as electives in place of Latin and Greek.<sup>80</sup>

No agricultural or mechanical college existed in America at the middle of the nineteenth century.<sup>81</sup> In Europe, hundreds of agricultural colleges, as well as other technical schools were in operation. The prestige of the American colleges was founded upon a classical curriculum and any institution with a more liberal course of studies was considered as only an academy, although it might have the designation of a college.

Plans were made before the Civil War to establish colleges primarily for agricultural and mechanical training. Two colleges were proposed to meet the popular demands of the time in New York state. The curricular program of People's College was designed to train students in agriculture and mechanics. Due largely to financial problems that developed, this college did not formally open. The second, New York State Agricultural College, was opened in December, 1860, but officially closed in March, 1862, because of the outbreak of the Civil War.<sup>82</sup>

In spite of public agitation for agriculture and mechanical training in colleges, the liberal nature of the proposal had similarities to the programs of the academies and these practical courses did not flourish in institutions of higher education. In 1862 the Morrill Act led to the establishment of land-grant colleges in 23 states as entirely new and independent institutions, and in 25 states the new college was incorporated with some other institution.<sup>83</sup>

At the time that the Morrill Act was passed there were in operation agricultural colleges in three states, and the Yale Scientific School in Connecticut also offered courses in agriculture.<sup>84</sup> Ten years after the land-grant act was passed, agricultural instruction was given by colleges and univer-

79. Fine, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

80. Alfred C. True, *A History of Agricultural Education in the United States, 1785-1925* (Washington, D. C., United States Government Printing Office, 1929), pp. 33-35.

81. W. T. Hewett, *Cornell University: A History* (New York, 1905), I, 57.

82. *Ibid.*, I, 58-59.

83. Palmer O. Johnson, *Aspects of Land-Grant College Education* (Minneapolis, 1934), p. 1.

84. True, *A History of Agricultural Education in the United States 1785-1925*, p. 116.

sities in 30 states.<sup>85</sup> The endowment not only established more colleges with a liberal curriculum, but these institutions gave support to vocational and other practical courses and considered them worthy for inclusion in higher education.

The establishment of the first public Normal Schools at Lexington in 1839 marked the rise of institutions dedicated to the professional training of teachers for the public schools. These Normal Schools faced active opposition or vacillating apathy from many sections of the general population and, furthermore, received no federal help through the Morrill Act. Achievement of the schools in the training of more competent teachers and in the resulting continuous improvement of public education in America was a credit to the remarkable growth of the Normal Schools.

Until about 1900 the basic outcomes to be achieved by educational institutions were understood to be the acquisition of information and skills.<sup>86</sup> The other curriculum consideration was the training of mental faculties based on the theory of formal discipline in education. By the turn of the century, the research concerning the validity of claims made for mental discipline demonstrated the unsoundness of the theory. The curriculum criterion of social usage began to replace that of formal discipline, and, since about 1930, the democratic ideal has been added as a criterion.<sup>87</sup> The modern college offers as many as some 87 curriculums.<sup>88</sup>

In the early 1930's, Williamson saw the trends in education leading to the optimum development of basic learning skills as the ". . . enrichment of the curriculum, individualization of education, and reorganization of the curriculum."<sup>89</sup> Williamson further said that these trends have not been implemented and he predicted that a fourth trend, that of student personnel work, would serve the purposes of the selection of students and the deliverance of the students to the classroom in the best condition to benefit by instruction.<sup>90</sup> Student records and reports are used as a tool in this process.

*Some More Recent Chronological Developments Relating to Student Personnel Records and Reports.* Over a period of years after about 1870, student personnel work began as an organized service. Many functions of the personnel offices, such as counseling and recreational activities, were done primarily for the benefit of the students with the student records kept by these offices designed for promotion of student welfare. Other college offices kept student records for the protection and welfare of the institution. These two points of view regarding purposes and uses of personnel records have hindered coordination and utilization of student records. Much of the literature on records has not recognized these distinctions. As early as 1912, a committee of the National Education Association recommended a cumulative record form, but it was basically an administrat-

85. *Ibid.*, pp. 116-117.

86. William H. Bristow and O. I. Fredrick, "Curriculum Development," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 307-312.

87. *Ibid.*, p. 307.

88. W. Ray Smittle, "Colleges and Universities—VII—Curriculum," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 267-272.

89. E. G. Williamson, "To Avoid Waste," *Journal of Higher Education*, February, 1933, Vol. 8, No. 2, p. 64.

90. *Ibid.*, pp. 64-67.

ive device and not a student guidance one.<sup>91</sup> Student personnel work was not commonly organized into a group of student services under several specialized college offices before the First World War. Most of the early college records were few in number and had several purposes. For example, this situation is illustrated by the following recommendation made by Andrews in 1916<sup>92</sup> pertaining to items to be included in a complete registration record:

Part I. Student's Directory.

1. Name in full.
2. Home address.
3. College address.
4. Place and Date of birth                      Age.
5. Church membership or preference.
6. Name of parent or guardian.
7. Address of parent or guardian.
8. Occupation of parent or guardian.
9. Preparatory School from which certificate was offered.
10. (For Freshmen only)
  - a. Entrance subjects offered.
  - b. Entrance units credited.
  - c. Entrance conditions.
11. (For other students) Subjects on which failed or conditioned.

Part II. Class Assignment Blank.

1. College, school or course.
2. Class.
3. Subjects selected in detail:
  - a. Required subjects and elective subjects grouped or marked.
  - b. Hours per week in each subject.
  - c. Time and day of each registration.
  - d. Value of each in units.
  - e. Number of the division of the class.
  - f. Name or signature of the professor or instructor.
  - g. Location of classroom.
4. Approval of college officers.
5. Bursar or treasurer.
6. Date.

The preparation of registration records poses a problem that may be solved by having the students fill out the forms. Zook<sup>93</sup> has treated some of the valuable techniques to be used in this self-registration plan.

91. *Records of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports*. Adopted by the Department of Superintendence of the Nat. Ed. Association, February 29, 1912 (Washington, D. C., U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 3, 1912).

92. Benjamin F. Andrews, *Registration and Student Records for Smaller Colleges* (Washington, D. C., U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 33, 1916), p. 28.

93. George F. Zook, "Student Records and Accounting," in Raymond A. Kent, ed., *Higher Education in America* New York, 1930, Ch. XV, pp. 460-487.

Ralph and Allen,<sup>94</sup> in cooperation with 52 colleges, compiled and illustrated some of the better student personnel records in use during 1916. The usual application blank of the time emphasized "time spent on each subject, the date of completion, the quantity of text covered and the grades received."<sup>95</sup> The trend at the time in admissions record was to include a form for data on scholastic aptitude and a certificate for physical examinations. The former results were described as "good" or "bad." A written estimate of the candidate's character was also a common form in use. Individual records for students after admission included scholarship, physical training reports, attendance, and personality descriptions by teachers.<sup>96</sup> The illustrated character and personality reports were written by teachers concerning their impressions of students. A student self-rating sheet was in use by at least one college at the time. Student health forms were filled out by students as well as physicians. Follow-ups were made of students dropping out of school. The illustrated scholarship records had space for credits and grades, and some provided space for the subjects taken. In general, all of the records provided space for only a minimum of information according to modern standards.

Kitson,<sup>97</sup> writing in 1917, is considered one of the first persons to put an emphasis upon the importance of studying the student in relationship to college and to recognize that other aspects of the student other than psychological test results should be included. His purpose in giving heed to this topic was probably to counteract the excessive importance given to mental tests about this time. However, Harper (of Chicago) had delivered an address at Brown University in 1899 entitled "The Scientific Study of the Student" in which he recommended a study of the student's character, social life, intellect, special abilities, and interests.<sup>98</sup> Probably the only difference in the propositions of these two men was in a difference of emphasis due to a difference of educational setting.

By 1915-1916 it was discovered that the individual rank of students among their classmates in high school (if sufficient size) was the best single predictor at the time of college grades.<sup>99</sup> In order to improve on this prediction, mental testing programs were initiated. In 1917-1918 the University of Minnesota was the first to use Army Alpha with college students. The Army Alpha was utilized as the basis for the development of the Ohio State Psychological Examination, the best single predictor of college grades among the mental tests. Carothers<sup>100</sup> gives a resume of the mental testing programs in various colleges and universities, and also states the prediction values of the mental tests.

94. Georgia G. Ralph and William H. Allen, eds., *Record Aids in College Management* (New York, 1916), pp. 1-28.

95. *Ibid.*, p. 7.

96. *Ibid.*, pp. 1-38.

97. H. D. Kitson, *The Scientific Study of the College Student, Psychological Monograph*, (No. 98) 1917, 23.

98. Cowley, "Some History and a Venture in Prophecy," in Williamson, ed., *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, p. 22.

99. John B. Johnson, "Pre-Entrance Advising at the University of Minnesota," in William S. Gray, ed., *Provision for the Individual in College Education* (Chicago, 1932), IV, 31-43.

100. Edith F. Carothers, *Psychological Examinations of College Students* (Archives of Psychology, No. 46. December, 1921; Columbia University. Contributions to Philosophy and Psychology), XXVII, No. 3.



The national Association of Secondary School Principals in 1920 prepared a certificate of secondary school credits and a permanent record.<sup>101</sup> One of the purposes was to facilitate the transfer of students from high school to colleges. The forms later were revised after the American Council on Education published its cumulative form.

Herbert Toops,<sup>102</sup> in 1924, published a report of the individual student card used at Ohio State University. The card was largely a statistical record of mental and achievement test scores, and physical measures, including lung capacity. In order to expedite the selection of students by classification for research purposes, punches were made at the top of the cards for ready identification.

One of the first publications concerning the use of punched card methods in college registrars' offices appeared in 1925 by Maruth of the State University of Iowa.<sup>103</sup> Most statistical reports were completed by hand methods at this time and were few in number.

The familiar modern revolution in the use of electronic equipment for records and research is far removed from the early adventures in the 1920's with punched cards. Stibal,<sup>104</sup> in 1953, tested principles for application to automatic punched card methods, and developed methods for application of these accepted principles to machine methods at the University of Minnesota. Since that time others have written doctoral studies concerning administrative aspects of processing records by machines.

As an illustration of these developments, I.B.M. equipment was installed at Kansas State Teachers College in 1955 and procedures in registration were adjusted to this method of handling student information. The Registration Office at Emporia State, since the summer of 1958, has improved and added an average of three major I.B.M. reports or records each semester. Also, other offices are using the machines for special statistical reports. The Brooks-Baker and Sare studies previously published in the *Research Studies*, which concerned the academic preparation of teachers, utilized I.B.M. techniques. Currently, this college produces at least 120 types of records and reports through I.B.M. procedures.

A 1926 committee report on junior colleges in the state of Missouri recommended six major college records and described the forms in detail.<sup>105</sup> These six records are: Entrance Certificate, Information Blank, Program Card, Class Roll, and Transcript of Records. Some ten years later the value of these recommended records was the subject of an investigation and it was concluded that the six records were inadequate.<sup>106</sup>

101. "School Record Forms of the National Association of Secondary School Principals," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), p. 42.

102. Herbert A. Toops, "An Individual Educational and Guidance Card for College Students," *School and Society*, XX (July 26, 1924), pp. 125-128.

103. Charles H. Maruth, "Machine Methods Applied to the Compilation of Collegiate Statistics," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. N.S. 1 (July, 1925), pp. 41-58.

104. Willard O. Stibal, *An Analysis and Critical Evaluation of Punched Card Methods in Connection with Student Records and Reports at the University of Minnesota* (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1953).

105. J. H. Coursalt and Committee on Accredited Schools and Colleges, "Circular of Information to Accredited Junior Colleges," *University of Missouri Bulletin*, Educational Series No. 21 (October 1926), pp. 12-14.

106. W. W. Carpenter, "Records of Public Junior Colleges of Missouri," *Peabody Journal of Education*, May, 1937, 8: 348-361.

One of the better college student record systems of the 1920's existed at Northwestern University.<sup>107</sup> It had a summary Record Folder for the purpose of serving as an aid to the interviewing counselor and "for future emergencies." There was no regularly practiced follow-up of students. This is implied by the "Exceptional Case" file that was used for research purposes.

In a 1926 publication of a survey in 14 colleges, Hopkins<sup>108</sup> concluded that a need existed for a pupil record that would aid the coordination of the schools' services in student personnel. This report received rather wide publicity and gave an added impetus to cumulative records.

In 1928, the American Council on Education presented its first cumulative record.<sup>109</sup> This important study provided a stimulus to research on records and record use.

Thisted,<sup>110</sup> in 1931, made a statistical treatment of the reliability and the grade predictability of information on a personnel blank at the University of Iowa. This study accelerated research on items of information and a concern for a valid use of such items.

In the same year, Hawkes<sup>111</sup> described the teacher's report forms and the system used at Columbia College to secure from the instructors of freshmen the information on the behavior and characteristics of the students. This is one of the early instances of coordination technique for one aspect of college personnel records. It probably grew out of a recognition of the inadequacy of single test scores and isolated data for understanding students.

By the year 1932 all of the colleges of Wisconsin had adopted an admissions blank form for use with the state high schools.<sup>112</sup> At that time a subcommittee was finishing the construction of a cumulative record for the high schools that would correspond to the type of information called for in the admissions blank.

In 1933 Robertson<sup>113</sup> reported the use of the American Council Cumulative Record Forms in 236 institutions in 40 subdivisions of the United States. He did not distinguish how many were at the secondary level or how many schools using the forms were colleges. Some 85,000 forms of the American Council Cumulative Record were purchased by colleges and about 75,000 forms were purchased by secondary schools during the period 1928-1931, suggesting its wider use in colleges.

In 1934 Wood<sup>114</sup> deplored the lack of advancement of counseling and illustrated his position by stating that most counselors normally have no

107. D. T. Howard, *The Personnel Department of Northwestern University* (Evanston, 1927), pp. 40-41.

108. L. B. Hopkins, "Personnel Procedures in Education," *Educational Record, Supplement*, No. 3 (Washington, D. C., October, 1926).

109. The achievements pertaining to cumulative records of the American Council of Education have been reviewed earlier in this study.

110. Moses N. Thisted and Lonzo Jones, "A Critical Analysis of the Personal Information Blank in Use at the State University of Iowa," *School and Society*, XXXIII (April, 1931), pp. 540-544.

111. H. E. Hawkes, *Five College Plans—Columbia* (New York, 1931), p. 115.

112. Frank O. Holt, "Selection at Wisconsin," in Gray, ed., *Provision for the Individual in College Education*, VI, pp. 44-54.

113. David Allen Robertson, "The American Council Cumulative Record Forms for Colleges and Secondary Schools," *The Educational Record*, XIV (January, 1933), pp. 83-93.

114. Ben D. Wood, "The Major Strategy of Guidance," *Educational Record*, Vol. XV (1934), pp. 419-444.

information on children that exceed a group test I.Q. score, teacher's subjective grades, sometimes the data on one or more questionnaires, the counselor's notes as based on one to three brief interviews, and scores on one or more achievement tests.

By examining 21 different methods of admitted students to colleges, Grossman<sup>115</sup> in 1935 found that, since 1924, recommendations by the principal, recommendations by others who have known the applicant, and the personal interview are procedures of increasing importance in student selection. Most of the more comprehensive student cumulative records publications of today devote space for such kinds of materials even though cumulative records, *per se*, are not necessarily used in student selection processes.

Carpenter<sup>116</sup> in 1937, reported a survey study of junior college records in Missouri using, as a frame-of-reference, the 1926 recommendations of Missouri's Committee on Accredited Schools and Colleges. Carpenter concluded that a dean of a junior college in Missouri needs more records than the six major records recommended by the 1926 Committee.

Ruth Strang<sup>117</sup> in 1937 stated that the two main criticisms of the American Council Cumulative Record Forms were that they were "too intricate" and did not provide "for a uniform pattern of appraisal and adjustment." Another difficulty cited was the clerical task of filling in the students' records.

A year later, Segal<sup>118</sup> published a study reporting the frequency that items occur in the cumulative records of a selected sample of 177 public school systems distributed throughout the United States. Randomization, tests of significance, and estimation of parameters are not utilized in the study. A few elementary principles, as derived from the study, were presented.

The same year a study was made on various aspects of the high school-college articulation conditions in a "representative" sample of high schools and colleges.<sup>119</sup> The study included: records that the high school sends to colleges, records maintained by colleges, reports that colleges send to high schools, and the reports that high schools and colleges would like to receive from one another. The study does not explain adequately the sample used, the experimental design, or the estimation of population parameters.

Later, the National Association of Secondary School Principals proposed a transfer form for high school use in reporting the record of its students going to colleges.<sup>120</sup> Personality items and test result items are in-

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115. D. A. Grossman, "Trends in Admission to Higher Education," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, X (1935), pp. 251-261.

116. W. W. Carpenter, "Records of Public Junior Colleges of Missouri," *Peabody Journal of Education*, VIII (May, 1937), pp. 348-361.

117. Ruth Strang, *Counseling Techniques in College and Secondary Schools* (New York, 1937), p. 13.

118. David Segal, *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record* (Washington, D. C., Bulletin No. 3, U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1938).

119. National Education Association Research Division, "From High School to College," *Research Bulletin*, 1938, 16: 63-122.

120. National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Secondary School Record* (Washington, D. C., 1941), p. 2.

cluded. At about this same time, Traxler<sup>121</sup> summarized the information that a high school should give about its students to the colleges. The philosophy expressing the need for specific items in transfer from high school to college was established in the literature at this time, but the functional implementation of this philosophy was a different matter. Only in those states, such as Wisconsin, where the colleges and the high schools had agreed on a transfer was there sufficient uniformity on the types of information available to colleges from the high school.

A more critical attitude towards the materials included in records was developing. Paterson and others, in one of the better books during this time stressed the desirability of using the cumulative records "as a basic tool in guidance."<sup>122</sup> It was pointed out that single test scores, without interpretation in light of adequate case data, has limited significance. Paterson recommended written reports on the counseling interview for the purposes of eliminating a dependence in future guidance upon vague recollections of previous interviews and eliminating the necessity for retesting or for additional inquiry.

Feder,<sup>123</sup> writing in 1939, discerned a trend toward the centralization of a system of records and toward making them more complete and understandable. This latter trend was a reaction against the over-mechanization of earlier forms. However, even today, this objective of understandability in record construction has not been adequately achieved.

The marked influence on student records of the Progressive Education Association was due to their emphasis upon understanding the individual pupil or student. One of the most comprehensive and coordinated attacks on the problem of pupil personnel records was that made by the schools under the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association.<sup>124</sup> This study, begun in 1934, formulated records in terms of the objectives of the schools and of the teachers. Various reports supplement one another in describing pupil behavior. The sampling and experimental design of the Eight Year Study was poorly conceived but the recording of pupil behavior was unique and purposeful.

Eugene R. Smith, chairman of the Eight-Year Study, became chairman of the American Council on Education's Committee on the Revision of Cumulative Records. The committee was appointed in 1940 and its Manual was published in 1947.<sup>125</sup>

As college personnel workers increased within the colleges, the problem of diversified record uses and record duplication became more acute. Personnel research and record keeping increased in colleges and universities to a significant degree between 1926 and 1935. Other personnel func-

121. A. E. Traxler, "What the Secondary School Should be Able to Tell the College About Its Prospective Students," *Education in a Nation at War* (Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, University of Pennsylvania, 1942), pp. 296-305.

122. Donald G. Paterson, Gwendolyn C. Schneikler and Edmund G. Williamson, *Student Guidance Techniques* (New York, 1938), pp. 18-27.

123. Daniel D. Feder, "Personnel Records," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. IX, No. 2 (April, 1938), pp. 204-206.

124. Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (New York, 1942).

125. *Manual for the American Council on Education Cumulative Record Folders for Schools and Colleges* (Washington, D. C., 1947).

tions also greatly increased in number during this period. Kirkpatrick,<sup>126</sup> in 1941, explained the centralization of reports under a dean's control at Bethany College as one solution to this organizational problem brought about by these developments.

An experimental study of the predictive value of specific personal history items was made at the University of Minnesota.<sup>127</sup> The item score weights were developed on criterion groups of good and poor students. This device was then applied to a new group of entering freshmen. The history item scores did not predict scholarship as well as college aptitude tests and high school rank and it was concluded that an insignificant relationship existed on the personal history data and college scholarship.

In 1942, Allport<sup>128</sup> published one of the best references on the use of personal documents as records. The subject of better descriptions of student behavior is treated. Allport also considers the issue of the relative value of nomothetic vs. ideographic forms of knowledge in terms of validity and scientific knowledge. His influence is one that aided in the development of more complete and comprehensive student records.

One method of determining items to include in records is an analysis of student problems. Wrenn and Bell,<sup>129</sup> in a 1942 publication, reviewed the literature on college student problems and reported on the adjustment problems found in checking 5,038 new students in 13 colleges and universities. From an examination of the important adjustment problems of this sample of students, the problem items bearing relevancy to records include reading skills, vocational goals, selection of academic major, outside work, financial status, library information, social activities, emotional condition, health, living arrangements, fraternities and sororities, and friends. Numerous later studies of student problems would indicate other items of value in records. Pepinsky<sup>130</sup> used an analysis of record item results for the classification of individuals within problem categories.

Dunlap,<sup>131</sup> writing in 1942, considered personnel work the registrar's function as well as the usual safekeeping of students' grades. This was considered an important innovation. He recommended the organization of records by subject areas, the establishment of grade norms, and rating the competency of high schools. The last two types of studies are often made today by colleges with adequate research facilities. Dunlap also recommended the practice of giving to the student his profile report of the Graduate Record Examinations.

About this same time there seemed to be an increased concern for adequate student records, not only in student personnel offices, but also in the academic record offices. Roy M. Carson<sup>132</sup> studied the transfer rec-

126. F. H. Kirkpatrick, "Records and Counseling in the Small College," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, XVI (April, 1941), pp. 316-318.

127. E. G. Williamson, "Significance for Educational Guidance of Personal Histories," *School Review*, 1936, 44: 41-49.

128. Gordon W. Allport, *The Use of the Personal Documents in Psychological Science* (Bulletin No. 49, Social Science Research Council, New York, January, 1942), pp. 1-30.

129. Gilbert C. Wrenn and Reginald Bell, *Student Personnel Problems* (New York, 1942).

130. Harold B. Pepinsky, *The Selection and Use of Diagnostic Categories in Clinical Counseling* (Stanford, 1948).

131. J. W. Dunlap, "Evaluation of Data in a Personnel Program," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, XVII (July, 1942), pp. 493-503.

132. Roy M. Carson, "College Student Records in Relation to Transfer," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, July, 1942, 17: 526-531

ords of 241 institutions of higher education and found serious deficiencies or omissions among 24 essential items.

Singewald<sup>133</sup> the same year reported his survey of the record forms used by a total of 85 Pacific Coast schools, including a cross-section of teachers colleges, junior colleges, and liberal arts colleges. The only item that appeared in all of the records was the student's full name! And two of the schools did not keep records of college grades or credits! Complete and accurate records on which the students were admitted to college and of the student's college work were not kept by all of the colleges. The number of colleges that kept satisfactory records was not reported.

By the 1940's records were assuming an increased relationship to a philosophy of education. This was in contrast to the older mechanistic accounting function, not only at the collegiate level, but also at the high school level. Gross,<sup>134</sup> in 1942, explained the teacher-parent record planning process in the Omaha, Nebraska schools. Such a method of record development gave meaning and importance to records in helping the pupils. There is no description in the literature, as reviewed by this writer, that discusses any teacher-parent planning of records that may have existed at the college level.

The problem of initiating and developing the continuous study of records by the teachers of an institution was studied by Allen.<sup>135</sup> He suggested criteria for examining the school's cumulative records and gave suggestions for the effective use of records. His description of record development procedures are of value today at the college level, but these procedures described by Allen are of greatest utility in the secondary schools. At the college level his procedures could be readily adopted in situations where there is a desirable rapport between the students and staff and where the staff has the major student personnel function responsibility. In larger collegiate institutions, trained personnel workers under special administrative organizations perform major personnel functions at higher levels. The acute problem is not one of training these special workers in the use of records, but in developing coordination and mutual cooperation in record construction and use. It appears that there now exists a need for an outline of procedures for record development and coordination in the more complex organizational set-up of large colleges and universities.

The first comprehensive study concerning types of items found in records of elementary and secondary schools was made in 1944.<sup>136</sup> A 1938 study discussed earlier dealt with 177 school systems. This 1944 study polled as a sample all school systems in the country in cities of 2,500 or over and those under the direction of all county superintendents. The occurrences of items in the records were tabulated by taking every third record for inclusion in the item analysis sample. The study concluded that 41 per cent of the cities and 18 per cent of the rural school systems used

133. G. L. Singewald, "Analysis of the Permanent Record Forms Used by Eighty-five Pacific Coast Colleges," *American Association of Collegiate Registrars Journal*, 1942, 17: 355-356.

134. Albert J. F. Cross, "Counselors Guide," *School Executive*, June, 1942, 61: 17-18

135. W. C. Allen, *Cumulative Pupil Records* (New York, 1943), p. 63.

136. *Handbook of Cumulative Records*. A Report of the National Committee on Cumulative Records, Bulletin 1944, No. 5, (Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education).

cumulative records. The occurrences of items were tabulated and tabled by these divisions:<sup>137</sup> personal items; scholarship items; items concerning parents; item regarding siblings; home environment items; items relating to test scores and ratings; items regarding health; attendance items; items on extra curricular activities; vocational plans and experiences, both during and after leaving school; and miscellaneous items.

A 1944 U. S. Office of Education study<sup>138</sup> made recommendations on items to include in elementary and secondary school system records. The basis of the recommendations was the importance attached to the items by the schools as determined by the frequency of occurrence. However, this stated criterion was not the only basis for the recommendations; some suggestions were made on items that did not occur frequently. An example is the personality test item recommendation that occurred in only 1 per cent of the schools. This survey is suggestive of good items to include and it does give added prestige to records. The conclusion that 41 per cent of the secondary schools and 18 per cent of the rural schools use cumulative records is not valid, because a complete response to the inquiry was not attained and the percentage of response was not reported. No new principles were conceived from the study.

In spite of these deficiencies, this 1944 survey remains as one of the best statistical studies on cumulative records in the elementary and secondary levels. No comparable study has been made on the college level.

The status of records in 1945 was reported by Bixler<sup>139</sup> as a wider concept of included information, more use of records, and some significant research on records. Also, it was reported that, for the first time, the college registrar is considered in the literature as an important adjunct in a complete personnel program. A 1945 issue of the *Review of Educational Research*<sup>140</sup> was the first time that the publication devoted considerable space to the use of instruments and machines. The advantages of the I.B.M. test-scoring machines were given.

Various revisions and adaptations of the American Council on Education forms have been made since 1928. One of the best known revisions of the form was made by the Educational Records Bureau. Several schools, in turn, have made revisions of the Educational Records Bureau forms. This is permissible as the American Council forms and the Educational Records Bureau forms are not copyrighted. Up to the time of this writing the Educational Records Bureau has not published a form for college use. Traxler<sup>141</sup> has illustrated various revisions of cumulative records. The National Association of Secondary School principals made a report on its three forms of the cumulative personnel record and its uses for secondary schools.<sup>142</sup> These latter records have a direct bearing on the types of inform-

137. *Ibid.*, pp. 1-20.

138. *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record* (Washington, D. C., U. S. Office of Education), Bulletin 25, pp. 1-10.

139. Harold H. Bixler and others, "Conditions Affecting Personnel Work," *Review of Educational Research* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association), Vol. XV, No. 2 (April, 1945), pp. 118-121.

140. Saul B. Sells and Robert M. W. Travers, "Observational Methods of Research," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. XV (December, 1945), pp. 394-407.

141. Arthur E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance* (New York, 1945), pp. 216-233.

142. National Association of Secondary School Principals, "School Record Forms of the National Association of Secondary School Principals," *The Association*, XXX (October, 1946), pp. 39-49.

ation that the high school can give about its students to the colleges.

The earliest college admissions criteria were definite and fairly uniform, but, with various developments, the criteria of college success prediction became more varied.<sup>143</sup> In 1928 it was reported that 334 different items were asked on the admission blanks used by 78 colleges.<sup>144</sup> In spite of a vast amount of research in this general area, the problem of admission criteria and needed admission records continued to plague the colleges.

Benjamin Fine<sup>145</sup> in 1946 made a questionnaire study of 650 colleges of liberal arts and sciences for the purpose of discovering the philosophy of admissions and the admission practices. A tabulation was made from the 450 survey sample returns of the admission conditions within the colleges. No tests of significance or estimation of population parameters were made. Fine concluded that there was considerable diversity between the college philosophy of admissions and the implementation of that philosophy.

#### MODERN PERSONNEL RECORDS AND SOME CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE CONCERNING RECORDS

*General.* The cumulative record, or its equivalent in the form of other records types, is usually used for counseling procedures in institutions of higher education.

Eugene R. Smith and his committee have listed four principal uses of the record:<sup>146</sup>

1. It forms a basis for present guidance.
2. It preserves guidance material so that it can be used with continuity over a term of years in one or more institutions.
3. It provides information for use in cooperation with parents, either through written reports or as a basis for interviews.
4. It helps the institution to advise a student's further education or entrance into an occupation, and furnishes the material for reporting to other institutions and agencies on his readiness for such an experience and his probability of success in it.

All of these objectives have significance to college cumulative records, but, at the present time, the third objective of records is most important at the pre-college level.

The revised American Council cumulative record folders prepared by the Smith Committee place more emphasis on descriptions of behavior and evaluation of personal characteristics.<sup>147</sup> The illustrated college record folder in the 1949 Manual devotes three-fourths of the space to behavior descriptions, personal experiences, syntheses, and suggestions for guidance by years. A space is provided for follow-up information. The test record is not illustrated graphically. Subjects, grades, and credits are listed by years of attendance.

143. American Council on Education, "Personnel Methods," *Educational Record, Supplement*, 1928, pp. 1-68.

144. R. E. Salley and R. G. Weintraub, "Student Records of Entrance and Graduation," *School and Society*, June 4, 1949, 69: 404-406.

145. Fine, *Admission to American Colleges*.

146. Committee on Revision of Cumulative Records, *Manual for Cumulative Records*, p. 6.

147. *Manual for the American Council on Education Cumulative Record Folders for Schools and Colleges*, pp. 20-23.



In addition to the development of cumulative records for coordinating student services, a reorganization of student personnel work along many diverse patterns was attempted by colleges and universities for purposes of coordination.

Procedures in the new organization of coordinating special services at Brigham Young University was centered in a faculty group called Committee on Special Services.<sup>148</sup> There is no evidence of the effectiveness of this coordination system other than the stated opinion of the author.

Traxler<sup>149</sup> reviewed the literature on college records up to the time of 1950. He cites three areas of needed record research. These are the types of items needed by teachers and counselors, the prognostic value of personal data, and the predictive value of secondary school cumulative records in contrast to the predictive value of entrance tests. Some writings in all of these areas have been reviewed in this study, but more good research is needed. The combination of secondary school cumulative records and entrance tests by the statistical tool of multiple regression is a possibility. Some research has been done at Minnesota using this method.

Witty and Brink have treated the differential remedial reading needs of high school students.<sup>150</sup> It follows that these same reading deficiencies persist in colleges and are an aspect to consider in predicting scholastic success. The recognized importance of reading would indicate that the results of reading tests should be recorded for purposes of counseling with students.

Feder<sup>151</sup> has reviewed some of the research dealing with the statistical interpretation of student population in colleges. By far most of the studies cited were published in the 1930's or later, but World War II is given as a reason for inhibited research on student populations during the first half of the 1940's. Feder organized the student population research in terms of age, socioeconomic status, level of intelligence, vocational interest trends, attendance and student mortality. From the lack of consistent results of the studies, he pointed out the need for each individual college to make its own study of its student population.

Currently, one of the best single references on college admission and registration pertaining to records and record procedures is by Sprouse and Bradshaw.<sup>152</sup> In order to secure integration of admission practices within the university, they recommend that the admissions procedure be dealt with as a central administrative function rather than as student personnel work. According to Sprouse and Bradshaw:

Where this policy [student admission considered as an administrative function] has been followed, all admissions to any division of the university or college have been centered in one office with a well-trained staff to complete the work efficiently.

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148. Wesley P. Lloyd, "Administration of Student Personnel Services," *Association American College Bulletin*, 1946, 32: 511-515.

149. Arthur E. Traxler, "Student Personnel Work—II—Personnel Records," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1299-1301.

150. Paul Witty and William Brink, "Remedial Reading Practice in the Secondary School," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 4, No. 4 (April, 1949), pp. 193-200.

151. Daniel D. Feder, and others, "Student Personnel Work—I—Student Population," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.

152. W. Lloyd Sprouse and Francis W. Bradshaw, "Admissions and Registration," in Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 262-266.

If the above statement means that the creation of an administrative admissions agency will automatically serve all departments or colleges within the university, the statement is not entirely true. For example, while all permanent or academic records are centralized in the Office of Admissions and Records at the University of Minnesota, there are now two colleges or departments within the institution that still admit their own students. In other words, the admissions function is not centralized at Minnesota, whereas the records function is. The trend is toward centralization of admissions too, and, in that sense, the statement of Sprouse and Bradshaw is not invalidated.

The College of Education, University of Minnesota, with the financial support of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Public Law 531), in 1956 initiated a twelve-year longitudinal study of students covering a period from entrance to five years following graduation. In order to ensure controls for securing completion of the research data, the College of Education made a thorough revision of record keeping procedures and extended its data collection activities to sources in other departments and offices of the university.

*Some Special Types of Records or Reports.* Strang<sup>153</sup> has defined the autobiography as “. . . an individual's life story written by himself.” She distinguishes it from the life history by the “technical analysis and resynthesis” of the important aspects of the individual's development that are found in life histories. Symonds<sup>154</sup> makes one distinction between the two in that the life history “. . . does not attempt to maintain status whereas the autobiography does since it is written as a private record of one's inner thoughts and feelings.” Symonds, also, has recognized that the differences between the autobiography, the life history, the case history, and the case study are not clear. He did not give distinguishing characteristics of the latter two.

One of the important developments during World War II was the General Educational Development Tests on both the college and high school levels. A brief review by Mumma<sup>155</sup> of the survey conducted under the auspices of the American Council on Education would indicate a widespread use of the test with veterans and, in many colleges, there is no restriction on the application of the results. Borrows<sup>156</sup> indicated that institutions are extending the uses of the tests to include mature civilians, but he did not indicate his basis for the opinion. Mumma, in his review of the predictive values of the G.E.D. tests, has concluded that the group of students admitted to college on the basis of the high school level tests do poorer college work than the college group that completed high school.

Anderson<sup>157</sup> has proposed that the college level G.E.D. tests be used as a basis for admission purposes. He also recommends that college cumu-

153. Ruth Strang, *Technics of Counseling in Colleges and Universities* (New York, 1949), pp. 80-81.

154. Percival M. Symonds, “The Autobiography and Life History,” *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. IX, No. 2 (April, 1939), pp. 207.

155. Richard A. Mumma, “The College Record of Students Admitted on the Basis of G. E. D. Tests,” *College and University*, Vol. XXVI, No. 1 (October, 1950), pp. 79-86.

156. Thomas N. Borrows, “The G. E. D. Tests—A Rejoinder,” *College and University*, Vol. XXIV, No. 4 (July, 1949), pp. 564-566.

157. Gordon V. Anderson, “Validity of General Educational Development Tests for College Entrance,” *College and University*, Vol. XXIII, No. 3 (April, 1948), pp. 371-381.

lative folders should be kept on all students admitted by the G.E.D. tests for the purpose of studying the implications of the different scores in relationship to other data. Anderson reviewed the results of studies but he did not name the specific study or describe the specific techniques involved.

The most comprehensive national statistics on the college population student body is issued every two years about one-and-a-half years after the biennium is completed.<sup>158</sup> Its data include total students, students by sex, students by levels, enrollments in the professional schools, residency of the students, new students, etc. It is probable that some of the data is reported by the individual colleges in an inconsistent manner. For example, the U.S. Office of Education does not distinguish between attendance and enrollment; and it is easy to confuse total enrollment of all students and enrollment at any one time. By the latter is probably meant attendance, but the use of the term may convey a meaning of all students enrolled without the consideration of drop-outs. Another likely error is the figure on the per cent of the population of college students age 18 to 21 based on the total population of age 18 to 21. This figure is given as 28.21 per cent for 1948.<sup>159</sup> Few colleges would have that type of information available; and it would involve a major clerical undertaking to secure the information unless it was already available on college I.B.M. registration cards. Partly, because of the ambiguous nature of the item, it is likely that perhaps a majority of the colleges reported their entire student body for that particular item calculation. The U.S. Office of Education surveys have not secured complete returns on their questionnaires and yet the data is treated as descriptive statistics rather than as statistical inference based on sampling.<sup>160</sup>

Allport<sup>161</sup> has discussed the use of personal documents concerning the individual as a tool or basis for the evaluation of numerous features of his personality. As he considers it, the term personal document embraces only documents in the first person, and includes such things as autobiographies, letters, diaries, and artistic and literary works. While personal documents are commonly used by psychologists in the diagnosis of personality problems, little use has been made of them in the rating of attitudes and beliefs toward social objects and problems.<sup>162</sup>

*The present status of student records in colleges and universities.* Records concerning the personal development of the students have increased in importance with the adoption of more refined methods of educational measurement and student appraisal. The increased concern for helping college students in their personal problems has opened up an area whereby student records may be used as basic tools for aiding student growth.

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158. U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1946-47—Statistics of Higher Education* (Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950).

159. *Ibid.*, p. 5.

160. John Dale Russell, "The Collection of Statistics on College Enrollments," *College and University*, Vol. XXIII, No. 1 (October, 1947), pp. 16-31.

161. Allport, *op. cit.*

162. David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology* (New York, 1948), pp. 238-239.

Record principles have been rather clearly stated as rules of action for certain personnel offices and for certain types of student records, such as cumulative records and academic records. For other personnel functions, criteria of student personnel records have not been applied to any significant degree. Confusion and trite recommendations concerning student records are all too commonly evident in the literature.

In especially the large university of today the loose and often poorly coordinated organizational structure has rendered available student records relatively impotent in helping the students as well as the institution. Some college offices know little concerning the records of other college offices and, in numerous cases, college personnel offices remit regular reports on students without any knowledge about the use of these reports. Wrenn<sup>163</sup> has pointed out that the central problem in the administration of records is their coordination for use by the different college offices advising students.

The increased use of punched card methods in colleges may be an aid in the improvement of student records and in their increased duplication to allow wider distribution. Too often, however, these methods are merely replacements of former methods of student record construction with no significant improvement in the student records.

The improvement of student records at the college level depends largely upon the educational program directed towards a better staff understanding of the uses and the limitations of student records. The validation of items in records and the reported studies on the value of specific records within the institution will aid in the understanding and appreciation of coordinated student record construction and use.

One area in the use of student records needing special, expert attention today is in the development of systematic methods and controls for longitudinal research studies. The increased understanding of automatic punched card methods and the coordination of such methods for research are apt to result in an almost complete reorganization of personnel offices and record procedures.

One of the most serious handicaps to the development of effective punched card procedures and records in the schools of the United States has been the evident tendency for personnel workers or administrators to rely exclusively upon the advice of machine salesmen for the design of their automatic machine records. Such reliance tends to eliminate institutional understanding, creativity, and flexibility in a continuous adjustment of machine methods to specific informational needs and services.

As colleges and universities improve data collection devices, and the validity of the measurement instruments, student records will develop new stature in helping the students and in providing relevant information for the administration of colleges and universities. Also, student records maintained by colleges and universities will be designed to promote continuous and justifiable experimental research.

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163. C. Gilbert Wrenn, *op. cit.*, pp. 438-439.

## The Emporia State Research Studies

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