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Academic Advising and Potential Litigation

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INTRODUCTION

It is important for the academic advisor to be aware of the legal ramifications of advising. However, the academic advisor cannot function in fear. Generally, when legal action occurs in the area of academic advising the result is either a tort claim or a contract claim. There have been instances of other actions which involve other types of legal issues such as conflict of interest, constitutional rights violations, and violation of anti-trust laws. The vast majority of legal cases in recent years focused upon academic decisions rather than upon cases involving disciplinary action or student unrest. The advisor, then, should limit advice to areas which are specifically assigned and areas in which the advisor has appropriate knowledge and background. Advice given without careful thought or in reckless disregard of its truth may result in legal action.

A tort action is a civil action independent of contracts for which the court may award money damages. On the other hand, a contract claim is brought when an agreement created an obligation between two or more parties is violated. Because of the litigation generated in recent years, this paper will focus on these basic areas.

TORT LAW

NEGLIGENCE

Negligence is a tort that has been created due to necessity. Because of the special relationship of a person professing knowledge, the reasonable and prudent person relies upon representations made by the specialist. Often, if the trust is misplaced, an innocent person suffers. Thus, the courts have had to create a type of tort to protect the innocent.

Negligence has four basic elements. There must be a legal duty recognized by the court; this duty must be breached; the breach of this duty must be the legal cause of an injury; and the claimant must experience actual injury.

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The major question in negligence is whether a duty exists. Duty is defined by Prosser as being the obligation which is recognized by the law which requires the actor to conform to a certain standard of conduct for the protection of others against unreasonable risks.¹

Courts have been reluctant to impose a duty except in a few extraordinary instances. The general rule is that there is no duty if there is no special relationship. Special relationships have been determined to exist in a doctor-patient relationship, a lawyer-client relationship, and in the psychiatrist-patient relationship. In very recent decisions, courts have indicated that the special relationship between teacher-student may soon be acknowledged.

It can be seen that once a special relationship is determined, a tremendous burden is created. This burden creates an extremely high margin of liability, because once a duty exists the court must examine the facts to determine if there was an injury to the claimant, and if an injury which was present was the injury due to a breach of an existing duty. In addition to an injury, the court asks if the reliance by the claimant was reasonable. The theory of negligence rests upon the reasonable, prudent person standard, that is, the court creates a fictitious person who acts with ordinary skill and care.

In a relatively large number of cases during the last decade negligence was the primary issue. A major court issue facing academic advisors today, is the question of relationship and duty. The academic advisor must know or at least be aware of the fact that because the advisor is held publicly to have special knowledge and because the advisor has access to certain information, the advisor may have a duty to a student advisee. If the advisor is not careful in gathering information or if the information is made available with disregard for truth, then the advisor may be negligent.

NONDISCLOSURE AND MISREPRESENTATION

One problem which arises regularly in the academic environment, is when an advisor who has information, remains silent or passively fails to disclose these facts. Is this grounds for claiming an injury? As a general rule, courts have not found silence to be sufficient grounds upon which to base liability. The general rule is based upon *Caveat Emptor* or "let the buyer beware." It dates back to early English law which reflected the rather unethical business practices of the English merchant.²

Modern cases have held that as long as one does not actively mislead another, there is no misrepresentation. Nevertheless, courts have deemed it necessary to develop some expectations. An expectation is that if one speaks at all, sufficient information must be disclosed so that the words are not misleading. One cannot, then, disclose only a part and represent it to be the whole.

Another expectation is that the one who has the information has a fiduciary duty to the other party. Examples of such duty are: the employer-employee relationship, where a special trust is placed upon the discloser, or where one holds oneself out as a profession; or expert in that field and has assumed a position of authority. Most courts will find a duty of disclosure if the party has special knowledge or means of acquiring that knowledge, not openly available to the other. This is particularly true if there is reliance on the information and the information would affect the ultimate decision of the one not in possession of the information. As a result of the court's chiseling away at the general rule of disclosure, the law today appears to be that full disclosure of all material facts must be made whenever conduct demands it.³

If misrepresentation exists, then the next question follows. To whom is the representor liable? The answer depends upon the facts of the case. If the misrepresentation was intentional, then the representor is liable if the intention was to mislead or to deceive. There is greater liability if "scienter," (defendant had knowledge) can be proven. Sometimes courts may be asked to impose the doctrine of transferred intent, but they have refused to do this because of public policy. It is possible that the size of the group which may rely upon the misrepresentation will be so large that the burden of liability would far exceed the fault in the misrepresentation. Thus, the limits for liability may include the original advisee and exclude the casual observer who might overhear and who had no reason to act upon the misrepresentation. On the other hand, anyone who has reason to act upon the misrepresentation, even though it was not made to that individual personally, is included within the zone of liability.

If the speaker believes his/her own statement to be true, or the representation is made without any belief as to its truth, or the statement is made with reckless disregard of its truthfulness, the representor is merely negligent and liable only if there is detrimental reliance on the misrepresentation. This reliance must be reasonable.

It must be remembered that the academic advisor influences a large number of persons. Memos and other statements published by academic advisors may be directed to other people in addition to the intended recipient, and it is not unreasonable for them to rely on incorrect information.

When a misrepresentation is made, the significance assigned to it will be determined by the effect it would have on a reasonable and prudent person. If it is logical that one would rely on the statement or information that was misrepresented, then the court is likely to acknowledge that negligence occurred. However, if it appears to be an unreasonable reliance, then it is highly unlikely that the court will find the declarant liable.

Misrepresentation may occur merely by entering into a transaction; for example, the actions of an academic advisor may be sufficient representation though no oral disclosure was made. Once again, if the reliance by the advisee or anyone else who may reasonably be expected to rely upon the information was reasonable, the academic advisor may be liable for damages based upon negligence.

¹William L. Prosser, *Law of Torts*, 4th ed. (1971), Paul, MN: West Publishing Co., p. 143.

²*Peck v Gurney* (1873), L.R. 6 H.L. 377.

³W. Page Keeton, *Fraud-Concealment and Non-Disclosure*, 15 TEX. L. REV. 1, 31-40 (1936); Note, 2 IDAHO L. REV. 112 (1965); *Joynes v. Albert Merrill School*, 411 N.Y.S. 2d 911 (1978); *Dizick v. Umpqua Community College*, 577 P.2d 444 (OR 1978).

When an ambiguous statement is made, and the advisee mistakes the meaning, **negligence** is present. It makes no difference that there may be two meanings, a true and **false** one. If the **advisee makes** a reasonable reliance upon the false meaning, it does not matter that the advisor intended the true meaning and that the advisor thought the advisee understood the true meaning. What matters is that **misrepresentation** based upon **negligence occurred** and the advisee was reasonable in relying upon the false meaning. Again, as in **every** instance of negligence, the **advisee** must experience an injury because of **the** misrepresentation.

In summary, misrepresentation is negligent behavior. It can be deliberate concealment of facts. It can be words which conceal the **truth**, or it can be a false denial of knowledge. Misrepresentation can be by conduct as well as oral declarations. The liability of negligent misrepresentation or nondisclosure is not necessarily confined to the **advisee**, but includes anyone who may reasonably be expected to rely upon the **disclosed** information.

DEFAMATION

Defamation is another common tort action. Academic advisors are particularly susceptible to this action because they come into contact with sensitive and personal information on a daily basis. Defamation is **composed** of the **separate torts** of libel and slander. Libel is written communication which can harm **one's** reputation, and slander is an oral statement **made to** injure a party's reputation or standing in society.

Academic advisors must process **and** communicate information concerning an **advisee's** scholastic performance and social behavior. This information may affect a student **advisee's** reputation and stigmatize **his/her** future. The advisor is given no special relationship privileges. When ordered by the court, the advisor must disclose known facts.

On the other hand, in order to perform the duties of an advisor, there must be a confidential relationship between advisor and advisee. Thus, courts have held that a qualified privilege exists between advisor and advisee.¹ A qualified privilege requires that the advisor make statements in good faith, without **malice**, **based** upon reasonable grounds, and in answer to an appropriate inquiry.

An advisor should not volunteer **information** concerning an **advisee**. Although truth of a statement is a defense for a defamation action, the modern trend is that the disclosure of the information must be made with good intentions and for justifiable reasons. Courts might consider the voluntary disclosure of damaging **information** to be malicious conduct by the discloser.

Persons employed in an academic setting are particularly susceptible to **charges** of libel and slander. Student information should be passed from one office to another with caution. Gossip and careless **talk** is not privileged information and should be avoided. Information should not be passed to prospective employers without a personal **request** from the **advisee**. As a matter of fact, in Texas, a president of a college was asked for graduation **information** concerning a former student. The president indicated that the student had not graduated and had, in fact, **been** dismissed from the **college** because he stole a typewriter.

¹*Quinn v Crossfield*, 228 S.W. 673 (KY 1921).

The **president** added that the student was **placed** in jail. The student sued for damages **claiming the statement of the** college president was slanderous and untrue. The **president** could not prove the statement true **and** the court found in favor of the injured student.²

In addition to state courts demanding discretion by responsible individuals, the Federal **Law** also serves to **protect** the student. In 1974 the Family Educational Rights and Privacy **Act** was passed, and the amendment (often referred to as the **Buckley** Amendment)³ **establishes** the standards which must be **used** in handling student records. The records which **are** protected under **this** act include academic records, health records, attendance data, achievement test scores and behavioral reports which are routinely handled by advisors and counselors. Those communications which are not routinely shared by counselors and advisors are probably not included in the protected file if the communications are **kept** by the individual advisor or counselor.⁴

One of the protections of this Educational Act is that student information cannot **be** released unless the student or the legal guardian **has** given consent or unless the court orders the release of information from the student's file. School officials have **access to** the records if the need or interest is a legitimate educational interest. When student records are legitimately transferred or examined, the student and/or legal guardian may request to inspect and review and/or receive a copy of the records and they may request the opportunity to have a hearing to challenge the contents.⁵

In summary, an academic advisor who has the responsibility of interpreting highly sensitive data is particularly vulnerable to the defamation action. Courts will look closely **to determine** if the facts of the **case** show malice or bad faith by the advisor. Caution should be the key factor in disclosing **confidential** information since only a qualified privilege exists to protect the advisor.

CONTRACT LAW

WRITTEN CONTRACTS

Courts have been reluctant to assume jurisdiction over disputes between student/institutions of higher education. Judges **have** consistently stated that they do not **have** **the** necessary expertise to determine educational standards.

In the **1960s** most of the actions in higher education being heard in courts centered around disciplinary dismissal or academic grade deficiencies. Courts stated that they would not enter into academic affairs unless there was a clear case the action by the university or college was arbitrary, **capricious**, and/or unfair to the student.⁶

²*Tyler Commercial College v Latimer*, 34 S.W.2d 361 (TX 1930).

³*Education Amendments of 1974*, Public Law No. 93-380, 10 U.S.C.A. 1232g.

⁴David O. Carter, II, John Harris III., and Frank Brown. "Privacy in Education: Legal Implications for Educational Researchers," *Journal of Law and Education*, 3 (Oct. 1976), 470.

⁵*Education Amendments of 1974*.

⁶*University of Miami v Militania*, 184 So.2d 701 (FL 1966), 236 So.2d 162 (FL 1971).

In 1965, the courts established a standard for intervention in academic affairs.¹⁰ The standard established was that colleges and universities have broad discretion where academic requirements are concerned, and the administrators have the necessary information to determine the requirements necessary to attain academic success. Therefore, courts will intercede only if the college/university administrator's decision is clearly arbitrary and capricious.¹¹

The courts held firmly to the arbitrary and capricious standard throughout the 1960s, steadfastly refusing to examine or review decisions made by administrators of colleges and universities. The court stated in *University of Miami v. Militania*¹² that arbitrary was not synonymous to bad faith or good faith. Therefore, the court stated that it would be necessary to examine the facts of each case to determine if institutions of higher education acted arbitrarily and capriciously.

Another court stated that if a student charged that a college acted unfairly in an academic decision, then the student must prove that the decision was based upon arbitrary and capricious actions by the individual charged with the responsibility of making the decision.¹³

During the 1970s, charges made by students claiming injury were no longer based entirely upon tort law, but also incorporated contract law. There were many instances where actions for the tortious act of misrepresentation could not be proven, but the claim could be made and heard based upon contract law. Tort actions usually result in claims for money damages. Contract actions usually seek restitution and fairness to both parties.

Courts began to recognize that injustices were occurring, because students were claiming that when they entered a college or university they entered into a contract with the institution. They also claimed that the terms of the contract were stated in the institution's bulletin and student handbooks. Students were winning these cases.¹⁴

Recently, a court held the following:

- that advising was an implied contract between a student and an institution.
- that terms prescribed by the institution for graduation are binding.

¹⁰Connelly v University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, 244 F. Supp. 156 (VT 1965).

¹¹Connelly v University of Vermont.

¹²University of Miami v. Militania, p. 703.

¹³Bower v O'Reilly, 318 N.Y.S.2d 242 (NY 1911); Paulsen v Golden Gate University, 602 P.2d 778 (CA 1979); Janssen v Emory University, 440 F. Supp. 1060, affirmed in 579 F.2d 45 (GA 1977).

¹⁴Heally v Larsson, 323 N.Y.S.2d 625 (NY 1911); DeMarco v University of Health Sciences, 352 N.E.2d 356 (IL 1976); Steinberg v Chicago Medical School, 371 N.E.2d 634 (IL 1977); Lyons v Salve Regina College, 565 F.2d 300 (1st Cir. 1977), cert. denied 98 S.Ct. 1611 (1977); 43 S.U.S. 971 (1977); Eisele v Ayers, 381 N.E.2d 21 (IL 1978); Ross v Pennsylvania State University, 445 F. Supp. 147 (PA 1978); Peretti v State of Montana, 464 F. Supp. 784 (D. MT 1979), reversed 661 F.2d 756 (MT 1981); Kantor v Schmidt, 423 N.Y.S.2d 209 (NY 1979); Watson v University of Southern Alabama College of Medicine, 463 F. Supp. 720 (AL 1979); Yakin v University of Illinois, 308 F. Supp. 844 (IL 1980); In re Antioch University, 418 A.2d 1001 (DC 1980); Essigmann v Western New England College, 419 N.E.2d 1017 (MA 1981).

that additional requirements may not be placed upon a student after the student completes those requirements that were outlined for the student by the proper officials.¹⁵

However, another court held that additional requirements could be required after a student was admitted to the institution. The court said that as long as the requirements were reasonable and the student had proper notification before his program was completed, there was no arbitrary action by the university.¹⁶

Courts have consistently held that bulletins and handbooks of an institution constitute a contractual relationship between the student and the institution. With this relationship, duties are imposed on both parties and the contract may be judicially enforced.¹⁷ As recently as 1981 a New Jersey court held that an institution must follow its own rules.¹⁸

Although courts have determined that a contractual relationship exists between student and institution, one court said the principles of commercial contract law should not rigidly applied, and colleges and universities should be allowed to retain broad discretionary powers in making academic decisions.¹⁹

Courts continue to hold that institutions of higher education must not act arbitrarily and capriciously, and as long as institutional decisions appear to be made in good faith without malice the institution may retain its broad discretionary powers.²⁰

A Montana court held that the state breached its contract with several students when the state eliminated a course of study leaving the students with limited study, with only dubious training, and no opportunity to complete the course of study. The court determined that when the state eliminated the courses it breached an implied contract. However, the court cautioned that not every statement in the publication would become part of the contract; statements must be reasonable to be implied; and its ruling should not be so rigidly applied that the institution becomes static.²¹

If the contract claim centers around academic dismissal, courts hold firmly to the general standard that arbitrary and capricious action must be proven before the student prevails.²² Courts have said that even if a bulletin is a contract, if the student does not achieve passing grades, the student can be dismissed and it will not be a breach of

¹⁵Heally v Larsson.

¹⁶Giles v Howard University, 428 F. Supp. 603 (DC 1977).

¹⁷Steinberg v Chicago Medical School.

¹⁸Clayton v Trustees of Princeton University, 519 F. Supp. 802 (NJ 1981).

¹⁹Lyons v Salve Regina College.

²⁰Eisele v Ayers.

²¹Peretti v State of Montana.

²²Watson v Univ. of So. Alabama College of Medicine; Ayton v Bean, 436 N.Y.S.2d 781 (NY 1981).

contract." **Courts** will not **interfere** if there is no evidence of bad faith or arbitrary action, and no stigma attaches to the student's name or reputation."

Courts have been asked to intervene when the student has been dismissed for failing to achieve adequate grades to continue in good academic standing, and also when the student claims there has not been adequate warning of **his/her deficient** performance. One court held that such failure to notify the student was not arbitrary and capricious action, though a valid regulation published in the institution's student handbook stated there would be proper notification to the student if **academic progress** was **deficient**. However, that court cautioned institutions to keep students advised of academic deficiencies which affect their progress toward a degree."

Another court determined that when a student was advised of academic requirements for remaining in a doctoral program, this was sufficient notice of those requirements. The court also stated that when an institution makes extraordinary efforts and goes beyond its obligation to **allow** a student to remedy **failures**, this does not breach the **contract**." Generally, courts have not found academic dismissals to be arbitrary and capricious, but students must at **least** be advised of deficiencies."

A Washington State court was asked to intervene when a student failed to maintain an adequate grade point average in law school, and the court held that a university has no duty to **warn** of potential academic failure. The court **stated there** was no fiduciary **duty** or confidential relationship between the university and the student. The relationship is contractual and when a student fails to achieve satisfactory **progress** the student breaches the **contract**."

ORAL CONTRACTS

A contract is not always written. It can be oral. As a result, the advisor must be careful not to relate information or make agreements in **conflict** with the institution's written policies. Reliance upon oral statements can be just as binding as reliance upon written policies. Yet, if there is a written policy, it appears the written policy **takes** precedence over the oral agreement." In one state court the judges determined that an oral agreement to award a degree, regardless of the school's regulation, could not be recognized. When such an oral agreement was made and violated, the student sought relief from the court. The student alleged arbitrary and capricious actions by the institution **resulted** in an erroneous

"Watson v Univ. of So. Alabama Schd of Medicine.

"Aubuchon v Olson, 467 F. Supp. 568 (MO 1979).

"Kantor v Schmidt; Abrams v Illinois College of Podiatric Medicine, 395 N.E.2d 1061 (IL 1979).

"Morpurgo v U.S. 437 F. Supp. 1135, affirmed 380 F.2d 1043 (NY 1977).

"Dietz v American Dental Association, 479 F. Supp. 554 (MI 1979).

"Maas v Corporation of Gonzaga University, 618 P.2d 106 (WN 1980).

"Holloway v University of Montana, 582 P.2d 1263 (MT 1978).

decision not to award a degree. **The** court held that to deny the degree was not erroneous and that the institution's established regulation was controlling."

In another **case** the **misunderstanding** resulted when the assistant dean of a law school informed a student that if a brief was rewritten satisfactorily the failing grade received on the first brief would not be calculated into the student's grade point average, but when the student's grades were calculated the failing grade was included even though she rewrote the brief. The student was dismissed for **academic** reasons and she brought suit claiming she had **been** misled and that she had relied upon the assistant dean's representation. The court looked **carefully** at the facts of the **case** and ruled that the student had lost nothing by relying upon the assistant dean's assurance since she had other poor **grades**."

Reasonable **reliance** upon assurances by academic advisors and assistant deans may, in the future, result in courts granting relief. If the reliance is reasonable and results in prejudicial actions by the institution, the courts may find that students were treated arbitrarily and capriciously. Presently, broad **discretion** exists if students are dismissed for academic **reasons**." It appears that if the institutional publications are silent as to requirements, then departmental documents may constitute contractual terms." Often, departmental documents are **based** upon oral assurances such as the assistant dean's in **Shields**." Thus, the courts may find that a student's reliance upon such assurances are arbitrary and relief by court intervention is the only **equitable** solution. The court in **Lanner v Board of Education**, said that "... in constitutional adjudication as elsewhere, equitable remedies are a **special** blend of what is necessary, what is fair, and what is workable.""

AGENCY

It is important that the academic advisor understand the relationship between the student and the institution. The relationship which exists is one of contract. Within that relationship, the academic advisor is the institution's representative or agent, and the student has the right to rely upon the representations made by the academic advisor, **as** agent.

The advisor must adopt the **legal** stand of the reasonable and prudent person. The reasonable and prudent person **will** rely upon **information** communicated by an agent; therefore, it **is** imperative that the academic advisor transmit to the student or the student's guardian only the level of **knowledge** the academic advisor is trained to provide. The academic advisor should stress that the **responsibility** of an advisor is to advise, **and** the final decision **lies** with the student **and/or** the student's guardian. The advisor may make suggestions based upon knowledge or upon statements from university publications, and

"Holloway v Univ. of Montana.

"Shields v School of Law, Hofstra University, 431 N.Y.S.2d 60 (NY 1980).

"Board of Curators of University of Missouri v Horowitz, 98 S.Ct.W.435 U.S. 78 (MO 1978).

"Yankin v University of Illinois, 508 F. Supp. 848 (IL 1980).

"Shields v Schd of Law, Hofstra University.

"Lanner v Board of Education Logan, Utah 463 F. Supp. 867 (UT 1978).

he/she has the responsibility to transmit such information to the student enabling the student to make **an** informed decision. The advisor does not make the final decision, the student has that responsibility.

Since the student must make decisions **based** upon information received from the advisor and from **university** publications, the student should be encouraged to read the publications carefully. It is important that the academic advisor **informs** each **advisee** of their **responsibilities** since in a contractual arrangement, the contract terms apply **equally** to both **parties**.

As an agent of the institution, the academic advisor has the responsibility of representing the principal (the university) in matters pertaining to academic transactions. This **agency** is expressed as well as implied. The university **has** demonstrated by its **actions** as principal that agreements **made** between academic advisors and students will **constitute a** contract; however, the written rules and regulations must **also** be included.

The individual's academic advisor is the person on campus who best knows **his/her** needs and the departmental requirements. Together the **student** and academic advisor must negotiate a program to meet those needs. There must be no deceit, no fraud, and above all, no **misrepresentations**, and the student must be able to rely upon the advice of the advisor. On the other hand, the academic advisor must not be misled or deceived by the student. It is recommended that the advisor **keep** accurate records of each conference for self protection, and protection for the student.

The academic advisor should not overstep authority by misrepresenting to the student that **he/she** has greater authority than **has** been defined for that position. The reasonable **and** prudent person may rely on information presented, if the person is led to believe it will **help** achieve **desired** results. The **reasonable** person may **look** to past recommendations and past decisions even though those decisions were not made with that person's circumstances and needs in mind. Therefore, it is necessary that the academic advisor **stress** the uniqueness of each person's needs, to enable **him/her** to make **intelligent** decisions.

The academic advisor is in a vulnerable position. Because of the **responsibilities** of academic advising, the advisor is a **confidant** of the student, and at the same time, **he/she** is an agent of the university. The advisor is viewed by students as having broad **discretionary** powers in the area of academic advising. However, the **advice** and counseling must center around the written publications (listing the rules and regulations) of the institution. The written publications constitute the **terms** of the contract **between** the student and the **institution**; and thus, the publications are the controlling matter. The academic advisor is not merely an **advisor**, but **is** the **person** who has knowledge and experience and can give advice intelligently and accurately to students, so they may make **informed decisions**.

SUMMARY

The academic advisor is **vulnerable**. Due to the responsibilities and duties placed upon the academic advisor, legal actions may result. The academic advisor must be alert, but not fearful. If an academic advisor **fears** criticism and liability, then that person's effectiveness may weaken. **Courts** have been reluctant to interfere in academic **conflicts between stu-**

dent and institution. If the advisor **has** not **misrepresented** the facts or the duties of the office, and if the knowledge, **information** and authority of the advisor has not been **misrepresented**, courts **will** allow broad discretion in the academic decisions of **an** institution. However, if there have been arbitrary and capricious actions by the institution and its agents, courts **will** intervene to ~~see~~ that **fairness** prevails.

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A Skills Approach To Career Development

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ABSTRACT

Students preparing **themselves** for careers in the future must be able to develop a wide range of skills that are applicable ~~across~~ those careers. Academic advisors must attempt to ensure that these students acquire such **ski**. This article presents an approach for doing bot...

A SKILLS APPROACH TO CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The academic advisor's role in the career development of college students has lately increased in importance. Since stage, motivational, environmental and personality theories have influenced the modern approach to career development, this article is an attempt to complement those theories with a practical approach that is applicable to them and to careers. It is an approach that:

- 1) provides flexibility in the ever-changing job market;
- 2) require, little additional advisor training;
- 3) is generally applicable to all students who intend to enter the labor force, whether or not they earn their degree(s).

It is a skills approach to career development.

CURRENT CONDITIONS AND FUTURE NEEDS

Advisors (especially faculty advisors), still find themselves in the aftermath of the effects upon educational philosophies and policies; for example, the freedoms and relaxations enjoyed by students in the late sixties and seventies often resulted in underprepared workers. Also, during recent economic and employment conditions, many high school (and college) graduates find themselves lacking in certain skills and, thus, at a competitive disadvantage in a tight labor market. Advisors, however, can provide a brighter outlook and strategy to help their students compete in this difficult market by utilizing the skills approach to career development.



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