A Comparison by Sex, Age, and Marital Status of the Needs and Educational Goals of Students in a community College

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A COMPARISON BY SEX, AGE, AND MARITAL STATUS
OF THE NEEDS AND EDUCATIONAL GOALS OF
STUDENTS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE
BY
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Susan Carol Bracken
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ABSTRACT

A Comparison by Sex, Age, and Marital Status of the Needs and Educational Goals of Students in a Community College

by

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Utah State University, 1978

Major Professors: Dr. C. Jay Skidmore
Dr. Ramona Marotz-Baden

Department: Family and Human Development

The purpose of this study was to investigate the possible differences in needs and educational goals of community college students based on their sex, age, and marital status, particularly between older women students and other student groups. Information was gathered from the college application forms of all day students enrolled in any class during the fall of 1976 at Southwestern Community College. The total number was 6,854, 51% were men, with a mean age of 27.9; and 49% were women with a mean age of 25.2. Thirty-one percent were married.

The specific questions under study were:

1. Would there be a difference in the stated needs and educational goals of women students compared to those of men students?

2. Would there be a difference in the stated needs and educational goals of older students compared to those
of younger students?

3. Would there be a difference in the stated needs and educational goals of married students compared to those of single students?

The major findings of the study included:

1. Career counseling was requested somewhat more frequently by women students (40.7%) than men students (36.2%). When controlled for marital status and age, greater differences were found. For example, 47.1% of single women under 25 requested career counseling compared to 26.1% of older married men.

2. Transfer counseling was requested more frequently by men students (31.2%) than by women students (24.4%). The most striking difference was between single young men students (36.9%) and married young women (14.7%).

3. Forty-two percent of men students planned to transfer and earn a Bachelor of Arts degree compared to 28% of women students.

4. Younger and single students set their goals at more demanding and time-consuming courses of study than older or married students. Women were generally over-represented in the shorter, less demanding majors.
INTRODUCTION

The adult student entering postsecondary education during the seventies is considered to be the most rapidly growing movement in higher education today (Cross, 1972). Adult students are defined by educational researchers as those persons enrolled in college who are 25 years of age and over. This adult population may soon become as numerous on campus as students of traditional college age (Bicknell, 1975).

Since many colleges are experiencing declining enrollments, this adult college population is seen as a possible area for recruitment. This interest has led to conjectures about who these students are, where they come from, why they are enrolling in college, and what they want.

A group that comprises a large segment of this population is women. While particular attention has been focused on women returning to school, conflicting views have been reported concerning their needs, educational goals, and background. The descriptions of these re-entering women have ranged from white, middle-class housewives who are bored with life, to low-income heads of households seeking better employment (Rains, 1975). If it is true that there is a variability in the backgrounds and
goals of re-entering women students, it would seem likely that they would have varying needs. These needs should also differ in some degree from those of the young, unmarried students who have made up most of the college enrollment in the past.

One college which is interested in the issue of the adult student is Southwestern Community College in Chula Vista, California. Little data were available describing the type of support or special programs that might be needed by these students, especially the women students, at this particular college. Therefore, this study was undertaken to determine whether the needs and goals of college students differ in relation to the variables of sex, age, and marital status. More specifically, the study explored such questions as: whether older students really have needs different from younger students and, within the older groups, whether women have special needs that should be taken into consideration in planning and reorganizing college curricula and supportive programs.

The Problem

Colleges are currently recruiting women students. Many of the women enrolling in college are older, married women who have had a break in their education. There are conflicting views concerning the background, educational goals and needs of re-entering women students. A review of the literature reveals that much has been assumed,
but little researched. This leaves a number of unanswered questions.

Do these older women differ in their educational goals and needs from the young, single men students colleges were originally designed to serve? Do these older women students differ from younger women students or from older male students? To what extent are the goals and needs of all students related to their sex, age, and marital status?

Importance of the Study

This study was designed to add to the information being gathered on the special needs and goals of re-entering women. The needs of all students were compared to see the possible relationship between sex, age, and marital status of community college students and their stated needs and educational goals.

The study was essential to determine what the population of older women students at Southwestern College stated they needed to complete their educational goals and what those goals were. The information could then be used to design a responsible program to assist older women in attaining their goals.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationship between community college students' sex, age, and
marital status and their stated needs and educational goals. Special emphasis would be given to comparing older women students to other student groups. Specifically, the major objectives were to determine whether:

1. The stated needs and educational goals of women students were different from those of men.

2. The stated needs and educational goals of married students were different from single students.

3. The stated needs and educational goals of older students were different from younger students.

It was also the objective of this study to evaluate possible areas of special support services to women students in response to their needs and goals.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The educational system in the United States was traditionally designed to meet the needs of young, white males. As the country has evolved from a predominately rural to a highly complex urban society, this tradition has been revealed as inadequate. To meet the expanding need for more highly trained and aware citizens, it became essential that educational programs be developed that would involve all ages, all racial groups, and both sexes. Pressure for such an alteration in the basic aims of the educational system also grew due to increased enrollment of older people, minorities and, especially, women. While the schools have changed somewhat in response to this pressure, they have not always changed sufficiently to accommodate the new students they now serve.

The review of literature includes a brief historical perspective on the education of women and men in the United States, a summary of the research investigating the needs and goals of college students, and projections of future trends in education relative to nontraditional students.

History of Education in the United States

Ideas about who should be educated have undergone some drastic changes in the United States over the past
330 years. One of the more important of these changes has involved the question of women's education. This section will trace the major events of the transformation from a public educational system which served only white men to the present situation in which recently passed federal laws require equal educational opportunities for both women and men, regardless of race.

Public elementary education began in the United States in 1647 in Massachusetts. Most of the New England colonies developed similar systems within a generation. Until the end of the eighteenth century, girls were not permitted to attend these public elementary schools (Tidball, 1962). Education in the other colonies was mostly private until that time.

Higher education in the United States began in 1636, when Harvard was founded. The first colleges were established with the purpose of maintaining European culture and moral principles (Carnegie Commission, 1973).

During the seventeenth, eighteenth, and early nineteenth centuries, American colleges were conceived and operated as pillars of the locally established church, political order, and social conventions. (Jencks & Reesman, 1968, p. 1)

The first woman was admitted to college in 1837, more than 200 years later (Blackwell, 1963). Why did it take so long for women to be granted the opportunity for a college education? Opposition toward educating women came from many directions. A common attitude explained that
women did not need a college education because they were especially endowed with moral sensitivities and capacities. Education, it was claimed, would not enhance these qualities but might diminish them. Early treatises on women's education emphasized the importance of women's moral responsibilities and assumed women could not be both learned and virtuous. Since virtue was more highly prized than learning, women did not need an advanced education.

Other critics of women's education concluded that women were not, physically or mentally, able to profit from college training. The menses and the smaller weight of women's brains were cited as disabling characteristics. Women were thought to lack the persistence required to succeed in college (Park, 1977).

Not only was higher education for women seen as not necessary and not possible, but socially dangerous. Some believed college women would have fewer or no children and the "propagation of the race would, therefore, devolve upon the lower classes" (Park, 1977). Many studies were conducted in the first part of the twentieth century to determine the percentage of college women who married and the number of children each had. Goodsell (1923, p. 35) concluded the records showed "clearly college women are not perpetuating themselves." Earlier critics were less conscious of the possible lower birthrate, but feared social disruption. Higher education would confuse women
about "their place" and "tend to make women ambitious and thus upset the established order" (Goodsell, 1923, p. 19).

The arguments used against educating women sound very similar to those used against educating Blacks. On one hand they are thought to be incapable of benefiting from education and on the other, feared because they might learn too much and expect society to change.

In view of these attitudes, it is not surprising that formal education was almost exclusively limited to white males until after the Civil War. However, by 1870, women comprised 25 percent of all students enrolled in institutions of higher learning (Tidball, 1962). American society was transformed radically during the second quarter of the nineteenth century. People who disliked or were not allowed to enroll in the colleges of the time did not try to change them, but instead set up new ones. Americans grouped themselves by occupation, social class, religion, sex, locality, and ethnic background. Colleges were set up for and by nearly all of these groups to perpetuate these subcultures (Jencks & Reesman, 1968).

As the West opened to settlement, women were sought as teachers. They were expected to be particularly successful because of their moral gifts, and could be employed at cheaper wages. As schools began to furnish some of the educational activities previously cultivated in the home, specialized education for teachers was advocated.
By the end of the nineteenth century most public colleges admitted women, even in states where women were not allowed to vote. In the western states most private colleges had become coeducational (Jencks & Reesman, 1968). The tradition of training students for service in the community was continued, though the community was not an industrial society (Park, 1977). The co-educational colleges offered mostly sex-typed vocations for women, whereas the women's colleges offered undergraduate degree programs matching the men's colleges. Still, most college educated women were teachers (Park, 1977).

After World War I, college became a transition period from parental domination to adult responsibility. Alternative life choices were examined. Students now enrolled in college to search for their identity rather than as a commitment to an academic or professional life (Carnegie Commission, 1973).

The percentage of enrollment and degrees earned reached a peak during the 1930s. Following the Depression and a drought, women began to move from the farms to the cities. Industry provided both new products, such as fabrics requiring less care, and jobs for women outside the home. Women were becoming consumers and beginning to look at parenting in a new way. Quality, not quantity of time spent with children was considered important.
The development of intelligence tests was another important, if indirect, factor encouraging women to pursue education. When boys and girls were found to score equally well, women could not so easily be dismissed as inferior in intelligence (Osborn & Strauss, 1975).

Another factor in women's increased participation in college was the development of land-grant and community colleges. Both offered higher education nearer to the homes of students and for no or low tuition. Families who could not afford to send all of their children to college had generally chosen to send their sons. Now, daughters—and other women—would have more opportunity because of the lower cost and accessibility.

Other factors then occurred causing the proportion of women students to fall. During the G.I. Bill era men had more money to go to school. While women's enrollment stabilized at about 40 percent after 1950, the percentage of women earning degrees continued to fall until 1958.

The percentage of women participating in higher education began to slowly increase at this time. The birth rate had begun to decline by 1957. In the sixties many women were becoming restless and seeking ways of securing training, job experiences, and participation in professions. It was during the late 1950s and 1960s "Continuing Education for Women Programs" were developed to offer classes that might appeal to these women. In
1960 there were no centers of continuing education for women and no counseling services for adult women seeking further education. By 1970 there were over 450 centers and services scattered across the country (U.S. Department of Labor, 1971).

Until October 1971, sex discrimination in education was legal and common.

Female students could be (and were) excluded from many publicly supported schools and colleges, denied admission to special classes, admitted to some institutions on a quota basis, and subjected to numerous discriminatory practices that denied them the educational benefits that were the birthrights of their brothers. (Sandler, 1974, p. 318)

In October 1971, Congress passed two laws prohibiting sex discrimination in the admission of students to federally funded health professions training programs. The next year, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibited sex discrimination in any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Sandler, 1974). Another enactment, Women's Educational Equity Act of the Education Amendments of 1974, PL 93-380, provided monies for grants and contracts to develop educational equity for women and girls at all levels of the country's educational system (Verheyden-Hilliard, 1977). The effect of these amendments on women's enrollments might be difficult to assess directly. The data show, however, the proportion of women students in college has increased in the last 10 years (Yearbook, 1976).
Student Needs

The philosophy of most colleges today commits the school to meeting the needs of both the community and the individual student. This requires recognizing each student as a unique person. Attempts are made, however, to group major portions of the student population together with new stereotypes of their backgrounds, goals and needs. Upon reviewing these current profiles of students, conflicting assumptions of student needs are apparent. This section is a summary of research and opinions concerning student needs as they are influenced by sex, age, and marital status. Because these factors overlap, they are discussed simultaneously.

The fall 1975 Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors was devoted to older students returning to college. On the President's Page, Barbara Cook stated:

Nontraditional students often require nontraditional education. In this arena of nontraditional education, almost more than any other, the skills of the teacher, counselor and administrator must be meshed together so that institutions will become more responsive in meeting the needs of all students.

John Bicknell attempted to describe the typical older student re-entering college after a break of a few years. He typified the older students as self-confident, responsible, mature achievers with an established identity and definite goals. Other researchers have described the
returning students as awkward, hesitant to speak, attempting to be inconspicuous, and overly concerned about grades and tests (Buckey, Freeark & O'Barr, 1976).

The difference between these two observations may have been that Bicknell's observations were biased by his own experiences as a returning student. If he felt self-confident, achievement oriented, and had a definite goal, he may have projected these same characteristics on all other mature students, not distinguishing between men and women. Even when older women students are considered separately, there is a wide variety of conflicting profiles. Rose Marie Roach (1976, p. 86) depicts "the typical re-entering woman as a white, middle-class housewife in her late 30's who has had two years of a traditional liberal arts education before she dropped out to marry or raise a family."

Other researchers have suggested that this portrayal of re-entering women students is a myth (Hunt, 1966; Riddell & Bingham, 1973). A recent California survey of Women's Re-entry Programs supports this statement. A Sacramento program reported 19% of their participants were of ethnic minorities, and the De Anza Community College program consisted of 40% Mexican-American and Asian-American women. Approximately half of the women were married in both programs and tended to be in their late twenties and early thirties. Nearly equal numbers of
women were classified as low income and middle income. They ranged in education from no high school graduation to completion of advanced degrees (Rains, 1975).

Gordon Blackwell (1963, p. 33) has suggested "that women may have peculiar needs which could demand, in part at least, a different kind of education than is required for men, though not different in quality." He advocates women being advised of the social stereotypes of women's roles in American culture and the career choices "differentially" open to women.

Upon reviewing the materials discussing the needs of students, another factor became apparent. Needs varied considerably with respect to who was perceiving the need. Researchers varied in their perspective according to their goal. If they were concerned with students gaining employment after graduation, they might list a set of student "needs" to better enable them to get hired. If instructors of upper-class students were disappointed with the performance of their students in writing assignments, they might prescribe certain courses to meet the needs of their students. If a researcher was particularly interested in equal educational opportunity for all students, they may see students needing still another set of experiences or resources. When students were asked open-ended questions concerning their own opinions about their needs, even more "needs" emerged. This researcher
was limited to the classifications of needs listed on the Southwestern College application form. These needs were financial aid, career counseling, personal counseling, child care, and veterans' benefits.

**Financial aid.** Lack of money has always been a barrier to both men and women wanting to pursue post-secondary education. Financial aid has been more difficult for women to obtain because of the following practices: (a) making scholarship, fellowships and loans more available to men than women; (b) restricting financial aid to full-time students only; (c) withholding financial aid from women who are married, pregnant, or mothers; (d) failing to provide a variety of deferred payment plans; (e) failing to provide financial aid for child care and other expenses; (f) limiting employment opportunities for women students; and (g) imposing different cost bases for male and female students, and for part-time and full-time students. The main problem encountered by women in different costs was related to residency. If a woman married a nonresident in a state where a wife's legal domicile was the state in which her husband claimed residency, she was required then to pay higher out-of-state tuition (Westervelt, 1975). In addition,

At some institutions, financial aid committees have
automatically assumed that a married women needs less assistance because her husband will support her, while a married man needs more assistance because he is the "head of the household. (Dunkle & Sandler, 1975, p. 9)

When faced with difficulties in obtaining loans or grants to attend school, many women have relied on earnings from employment to further their education. Working one's way through college has been an option for women and men with limited funds and resources for many years. It has been more difficult for women because they have traditionally earned less than men. The gap between what women and men students earn has narrowed, and women are paying for more of their educational expenses by working summers and part-time during the school year. Yet, men students still earn more than women students. In 1976, the average summer earnings for a man was $869 compared to $538 for a woman (Project on the Status of Women, 1977).

Sex discrimination in job placement both before and after graduation has also been reported by women students. Men were more apt than women to become teaching assistants in graduate school and men were more likely to be helped by faculty to find part-time work related to their graduate studies. Men were also more likely than women to receive teaching assistanships (Westervelt, 1975).

In 1972-73, about 80% of the nation's most prestigious fellowships and awards went to men. As well as
providing financial aid, these programs provided opportunities to gain specialized knowledge, to develop leadership skills, to make political contacts, and to increase personal growth and awareness of developments in one's own field. Such fellowships, traineeships and internships have played a large part in the process of educating the best American scholars, professionals, and business and government leaders. "Until women achieve a higher participation rate in these programs, many qualified women will lack one of the more important credentials necessary for career upward mobility" (Attwood, 1972, p. 15).

Career counseling. Since colleges changed their emphasis from liberally educating the elite to preparing students for specific skilled occupations, the need for career planning has been apparent. Information on the possible careers a student might consider is frequently given by counselors in both high school and college. The counselors may be biased in which careers they recommend to students based on the student's race, age, marital status, or gender.

The relationship between counseling and the educational development of girls and women has received considerable attention. Counselor bias against women has been documented (Westervelt, 1975), with the charges against counselors--female as well as male, being that
they (a) did not confront the issue of sex identity and vocational identity; (b) were not cognizant of the societal changes making career planning a necessity for women; (c) held definite sex stereotypes about "appropriate" occupations for women; and (d) discouraged women students against the more rigorous, traditionally male courses of study (Blaska, 1976). Pitrofes and Schlossberg (cited in Westervelt, 1975) reported in a study of student counselors in a graduate program where each counselee who had been coached by experimenters to present herself as a recent undergraduate transfer to upper division who had high mathematical ability and was trying to decide between a career in mathematics or in elementary school teaching. The taped interviews indicated that more than 80% of the male and female counselors advised the young women to enter elementary school teaching.

Commonly used interest inventories also may have contributed to the lowering of aspirations and vocational options of women. Women's tests covered a more limited range of occupations than the equivalent tests for men and included occupations which were traditionally "women's fields" as well as occupations that were low in pay and status (Westervelt, 1975). Seventy-one percent of women in a sample by Dickerson (1974) felt women had not been encouraged to have vocational aspirations and commitment
as strong as men. Lack of counselors' orientation to the actual responsibilities and the current and emerging opportunities of women has constituted a major barrier to women's pursuits of postsecondary education.

Even more influential than the counselors were the faculty members. Only a small percentage of students sought the counselor's help, while students were in continued and frequent contact with faculty. Women's complaints against faculty included discouragement of their work, implications that scholarship was unfeminine, indifference to their training, and reluctance to help them find aid or jobs.

Personal counseling. While the need for nonsexist career counseling was frequently recommended and discussed by researchers, it was seldom listed by women students when they were asked open-ended questions relating to their needs (Rains, 1975). Women more frequently stated a need for personal counseling.

The need for personal counseling is probably related to the lack of confidence and fear of failure expressed by most older returning women students (Rains, 1975). Younger women students may experience not only this lack of self-esteem and fear of failure, but also a fear of success (Bem & Bem, 1973; Horner, 1972; Steele, 1974). Women students have been rewarded in high school for being passive, dependent, and avoiding conflict. When they
reach college, aggressiveness, active learning, and independence are rewarded. A conflict of values is likely to occur (Stein & Bailey, 1973).

In a 1969 study, Matthews saw women redefining their identity when they returned to school and recommended counseling services providing a series of experiences which would incorporate these students' values, interests, aptitudes, and the outlooks of their husbands and families into their educational and employment opportunities. The cooperation and encouragement from families was a most critical determinant of whether or not a woman would return to school and whether or not she would persist and earn a degree.

Husbands have not always been found to be supportive. The reactions of husbands and families have ranged from continuous support to continuous open hostility (Roach, 1976). One of the most striking findings in a study of re-entry women at Fresno City Community College in California was that most of the women (60%) reported that their families were not supportive (Richards, 1975). Little data exist as to how many women have been forced to drop out of school as a result of negative reactions from husbands, families and friends. Hunt (1966), however, found that married women were more likely than married men to feel that emotional pressure from a spouse would cause them to drop out of school. Husbands' supportiveness
seems to be related to his level of education. Husbands with some college training were more supportive and encouraging than husbands with less than a college education (Hunt, 1966). Doty (1966) found husbands of women attending college were more likely to have attended college and more often employed as professionals than husbands of nonstudents.

Older women seeking new careers in mid-life appear to have special problems. Many women felt "over-the-hill" and were concerned that most of society equated "old" with "ugly." These anxieties have been reinforced by a societal climate that glorifies youth (Berry, 1976). Some women waiting until their children were grown to return to school have suffered what is called "empty nest syndrome." These women have expressed concern over being no longer needed or useful. This time in life is also currently a very common time for couples to divorce. The stress felt by women at this time can be especially great. Shishkoff (1975) agreed that for most women, middle age was a period of role ambiguity, with women suffering stress from a loss of identity and goals. This stress might have been reflected in marital disruption, alcohol and drug abuse, depression and even suicide.

Child care. The women who would have preferred to return to college before their children were grown faced the problem of finding satisfactory child care services.
The need for child care to enable women to attend college has been documented many times (Aanstad, 1972; Geisler & Thrush, 1975; Hunt, 1966; Jelfo & Burger, 1975; Nichols, 1975; Owens, 1977; Rains, 1975; Richardson, 1975; Ruslink, 1969; Steele, 1974; Thom, 1975; Westervelt, 1975).

Jelfo and Barger (1975) found that when child care was provided, the average program accommodated 40 children and had a waiting list of 63 children—one and a half times the number enrolled. The potential for large programs seemed apparent. Most older women returning to school are mothers. Steele (1974) surveyed 921 women students over 30 years of age and found 90% of her sample had children and more than half of those children were 10 years old or younger. Osborn and Strauss (1975) found similar percentages of students who had children. In a total enrollment of 3,322 women in continuing education classes, 20% of the mothers had preschool children and another 65% had school age children. In their sample, 88% of the women students were married and 95% of the married women had children. Many of the 8.6% who were widowed, divorced or separated probably had children also, but those figures were not given. The average number of children was 2.7 with a range from 1 to 11. In the California Women's Re-entry Programs surveyed by Rains (1975), 64% of the programs defined child care as an important need. Only 25% of the programs had child care
available to the re-entering women. When California Community Colleges were considered separately, only 18% provided child care programs. Lack of child care affects women in the prime of life. Women with young children emphasized the satisfactions they gained from adult social contact in the school environment, yet were more concerned about possible adverse emotional effects their absence might have upon their children (Ruslink, 1969).

Child care is not a problem exclusively for women. In a University of Chicago study (cited in Westervelt, 1975), 33% of the men with children as well as 77% of the women with children implied that their academic work was hampered by the need to care for their children. The single-most critical problem for women with children appeared to be the lack of high quality, inexpensive child care.

Veteran's benefits. Veteran's benefits are included here as a need because they might be considered as a form of financial aid, although they also benefit men who have no financial need. Their impact can be substantial. While no review of literature dealing with Veteran's benefits was conducted for this study, information gathered from the Veteran's Affairs Office on Southwestern College Campus indicated that the average veteran at Southwestern in the fall of 1976 was married, had one or
two children and collected approximately $400 per month for attending school full time (Harrington, 1977).

Educational Goals

To what extent are the goals of men and women college students the same? Why do students attend school now? How does age and marital status affect their aspirations to earn degrees?

Adults return to an educational institution for a variety of reasons. Buckey, Freeark, and O'Barr (1976) saw some of the reasons as more leisure time, discontentment with the exclusive role of wife and mother, a need to earn more money, increasing potential for job advancement, and a basic desire to develop more fully. Steele (1974) found the same reasons in a study of 468 mature women students at Skyline Community College in San Bruno, California. Approximately one third returned to prepare for employment, another 11% to upgrade skills to qualify for promotions, 9% anticipated economic necessity, and 14% admitted to dissatisfaction or boredom at home. Ruslind (1969) found that while lower class women looked to education as a way to earn more money, middle class women wanted to feel more comfortable with their educated friends and family. The Commission of Professors of Adult Education (1968) states that adults overcome many obstacles to return to school because they have some real need or problem to solve. They are thus highly motivated and respond enthusiastically when their needs are met.
Since their backgrounds and reasons for returning to school are so varied, their goals are also varied. Despite the rise in participation of women students in higher education, however, their persistent concentration in college courses preparing them for the traditional women's professions perpetuated their "occupational segregation" (Yearbook, 1976). Women of all ages are generally over-represented in the shorter, less demanding programs and underrepresented in longer programs that lead more readily into higher paying employment (Westervelt, 1975).

Possible explanations of this phenomenon have included the policies and practices within educational institutions that actively discriminated against women, social constraints in the life situations of many women that made participation in educational programs more difficult, and psychological and social factors prevalent in our society that resulted for some women, in negative attitudes and expectations about diverging from the traditional role for women.

Institutional Barriers

Institutional factors that tend to exclude women from postsecondary education are most numerous. Discriminatory policies and practices were found in admissions, financial aid, institutional regulations, curriculum planning, student services, and faculty and staff attitudes (Westervelt, 1975).
Admissions. Women admitted to a four-year public college were found to have had higher grade point averages in high school than the men admitted (American Council of Education, 1972). In testimony before the Special Subcommittee on Education, Dr. Frances Norris stated that, in interviews with 25 admissions officers, at northeastern medical schools, 19 acknowledged that they accepted men in preference to women unless individual women were demonstratably superior. Another course of discrimination in admissions was the reluctance or refusal of schools to admit students who were over 35 or 40. A large number of universities refused to accept applicants over age 35 into graduate programs. Since women were more likely to delay education until the middle years than men, this is another barrier to women. Many women also choose, because of their family responsibilities, to return to school part-time. So again, schools which refuse to accept part-time students actually discriminate against women. Still another problem more common to women was the difficulty in getting transfer credit accepted. Married women were frequently obliged to move because of their husband's employment. Women are usually younger than their husbands and less likely to have completed their education before marriage. The final type of discrimination in admissions was the refusal or reluctance to admit women because they would presumably have difficulty finding employment in
that field. This type of discrimination was most frequent in vocational and technical schools.

Institutional regulations. Even when women were admitted and procured the necessary financial support, they found more obstacles in the form of rigid regulations concerning residency and housing. Residency may not have meant living on campus, but full-time attendance for one year may have deterred many women with family responsibilities from persisting.

Some student requirements originally instituted to serve the developmental needs of younger women were inappropriate for older women. One such requirement was made by home economics degrees in some institutions—that all students, regardless of marital status, must live for one semester in a group house where they were responsible for preparing meals, cleaning, child care, and other domestic activities. When faced with such regulations, some women felt they did not belong (Westervelt, 1975).

Until recently, women at numerous colleges and universities were required to live in dormitories while men were not. Married housing was available to married couples only as long as the husband was a student. If only the wife were a student, they were asked to move.

Curriculum planning—student services. Women students are affected more than men students by such variables as location of courses, scheduling of courses,
ability to accelerate courses, and availability of external degree programs. Factors related to residence imposed additional restraints on women's participation in educational activities. Lack of privacy in a home with preschoolers or other crowded conditions made study difficult. Distance from the educational institution was found to be more of a deterrent for women than for men. Women in a one-car family are particularly cut off when there is a lack of public transportation. The effect of these factors is exemplified by Cross' (1972) study. She found that many women were choosing goals based on what late afternoon and evening classes were available rather than pursuing goals related to their own interests. She also asserts that access to student services was more difficult for women attending part time with family responsibilities. Women complained of situations where they had hired a babysitter, wasted precious time searching for parking places, and finally got to the library to find required reading placed on reserve had already been checked out. Some resources and programs are only available to full-time students.

Another obstacle to the educational and career development of women has been the absence of female role models among teachers and faculty. Tidball (1973) found a highly significant positive correlation between the number of women faculty on campuses and the number of women
achievers from those campuses. Husbands (1972) pointed out that the smaller number of women faculty members has not only limited role modeling but also deprived women of a demand and challenge they often do not experience from male professors. Epstein (1973) noted that male professionals did not encourage women to model them and did not require hard work nor demand excellence of performance. Dickerson (1974) spoke of the same phenomenon when she referred to the "climate of unexpectation." Forty-seven percent of women in the sample said they did not feel that the faculty and administration expected as much of them as would be expected of a male with similar training. The absence of women in faculty and administrative positions may have served as a silent, but potent message to female students that aiming high would be foolish (Blaska, 1972).

These data demonstrated an existence of a relationship between achievement by women and exposure to women faculty. Yet, women are outnumbered in educational professional staffs by a large margin. The predominance of men has been maintained in part, on some campuses with antinepotism rules which have kept women from being hired at institutions where their husbands were employed (Westervelt, 1975).

Social Constraints

Social constraints imposed upon the pursuit of education by women, according to Westervelt (1975), are
functions of (a) social class and ethnic or racial group membership; (b) family circumstances, including number and ages of dependents, roles of family members, financial resources and place of residence; and (c) community attitudes. In general, less privileged women received less exposure to information about opportunities for further education. The major factors that lower the levels of educational attainment of women in ethnic or racial minorities appeared to be (a) cultural values regarding the feminine role and/or life style that are counter-productive for educational achievement, (b) obstacles posed by low income and low social status, (c) inferior elementary and secondary preparation; and (d) social, geographical, and political isolation for some groups (Indians and Eskimos in Alaska and Indians on some reservations). Parental attitudes and expectations upon educational achievements of daughters have been noted as important. But for women more than for men, marital status and the attitude of spouses toward continued pursuit of education was a critical determinant. Marriage has frequently been given as the reason for not continuing education.

There are also major constraints associated with community attitudes. Communities control who gets educated, to a certain extent, by voting how their taxes will be spent and electing governing board officials who
determine policies affecting students. Higher education for adults has usually been designed for those who can pay their own way. Some communities have shown their lack of support for women who might return to college by not morally and financially supporting centers that would disseminate information to women about educational and career opportunities. Women were also exposed to community pressures to engage in volunteer activities at the expense of other involvements outside the home (Doty, 1966).

**Psychological Factors**

While women have obviously been deterred from participation in postsecondary education by institutional and social practices, an even more complex constraint may have been their own psychological development. There is no generally accepted, organized body of knowledge about the psychology of women currently available. It is therefore difficult to draw generalizations about fundamental psychological factors associated with the various educational choices women make.

Widespread acceptance of certain theories of the psychology of women has constituted an obstacle to women's pursuit of education. They have lacked a comprehension of female development and identity that could be independent of the male prototype, not clouded by the image of woman
as mother, and relevant to current and emerging roles for both sexes. The perception of stereotyped sex roles adds conflict and stress to women achievers.

Recent studies on the psychology of women have attempted to integrate a large body of biological, psychological, and sociological data into the framework for further study of personality (Westervelt, 1975). Personality might influence career choices.

Women's attitudes about themselves and their relationships with others has been a subject of many studies. Sex stereotypes have been reflected in the self-concepts of women and in men's perception of women. Many studies have shown that both sexes tended to value masculine characteristics more than feminine characteristics in either sex (Deutsch & Gilbert, 1975; Rosenkranz and others, 1968). College women were found to see themselves as slightly feminine, wanted to be more androgenous, and thought men wanted them to be extremely feminine (Deutsch & Gilbert, 1975). Men's ideal woman was found to be significantly more active and self-assertive than the ideal that women attributed to them (Deutsch & Gilbert, 1975; Steinman & Fox, 1964, 1966). In general, women tended to value stereotyped feminine characteristics less highly than stereotyped masculine characteristics, incorporated the former in their self-concepts, and thus perhaps devalued themselves as compared to males.
Goldberg (1968) asked female and male college students to evaluate identical essays which in some cases were attributed to a woman author and others to a man. Students consistently placed a lower value on essays purportedly written by a man, even on qualities in which women are considered to excel and even when the essay was in a "woman's field." Women tend to accept themselves as inferior to men and men concur in this judgment. Women over 25 displayed a significantly lower level of self-esteem than other women and all men in a study conducted at Southwestern Community College (Anderson, 1976).

The lack of self-esteem among women might be the most important reason for their lower educational and career aspirations (McBee, Murray, & Suddick, 1976; Mackeen & Herman, 1974; Richardson, 1975; Super, 1957). Individuals choose occupations perceived as congruent with their self-concepts (Super, 1957). Women who perceived themselves as similar to their picture of a homemaker were not career oriented. The women whose self- and role-concepts were oriented toward the homemaking role had medium to low levels of self-esteem (Richardson, 1975). These results are consistent with the research showing ambivalence experienced by women who pursue a traditional course of development in a society which devalues this feminine role (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971). Apenfels (1963) asserted that young college women learned that women were less capable
less intelligent, less serious, more emotional and less important than men. That propelled them toward "soft" courses, pushed them into "women's occupations" and away from science, and finally closed the door on many kinds of work for which they may have been well suited.

High self-esteem is likely to have facilitated women's ability to deviate from a traditional role (Richardson, 1975). Professional women have been found to have higher levels of self-esteem than nonprofessional women and women in "masculine" professions have higher self-esteem than women in "feminine" professions (McBee, Murray, and Suddick, 1976). While these women may have developed higher levels of self-esteem as professionals, Mackeen and Herman (1974) found that self-esteem was essential for success in professional educational programs.

Psychological studies of sex differences and of development may have begun to answer some of the questions concerning women's lower educational aspirations and attainments. There is still much to be learned.

Projections of Future Trends

Colleges have moved from a tradition of serving mostly young, white males to serving the entire community. "Open-door" policies have made it possible for anyone to attend college. Yet, it appears to have not been enough to insure equal education for all. Women are still
clustered into sex-typed vocations (Rains, 1975). Women and minorities have a higher dropout rate than white males (MacDougall, 1977). There is fear that the "open door" may be becoming a "revolving door." Those women who stayed in school and earned degrees have received fewer job offers than men (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977). This section looks at the projections of possible future trends.

Laws have been enacted prohibiting sex and race discrimination in educational institutions. These federal enactments are:

- **Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972:**
  Prohibits discrimination against students or others on the basis of sex.

- **Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as measured by Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972:**
  Prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of sex (also race, color, religion, and national origin).

- **Equal Pay Act of 1963 as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972:**
  Prohibits discrimination in salaries and fringe benefits on the basis of sex.

The Women's Educational Equity Act of the Education Amendments of 1974, PL 93-380, provides monies for grants
and contracts to develop educational equity for girls and women at all levels of the country's educational system (Verheyden-Hilliard, 1977).

The effect of all of this legislation on women's enrollments is difficult to assess directly. The data do show, however, that the proportion of women students in college has increased rapidly. The number of women enrolled in college increased 124% from 1962 to 1972 while the number of men increased 82% during the same period. An additional 15% increase of women compared to a 3% increase of men attending college by 1982 is predicted (Yearbook, 1976). At a local level, the proportion of women students enrolled at Southwestern College increased from 40 percent of day students in 1970 to 49% higher in 1976. Projections for the next few years show an even higher rate of participation of women, particularly those 25 years of age and over (MacDougall, 1977). The spring semester enrollment at Grossmont College, another San Diego two-year school, produced a women's majority (52.2%) for the first time (Burger, 1977).

Jelfo and Barger (1975) state that while there are still many barriers to women participating in higher education, the proportion of women students will increase rapidly in the next ten years for the following reasons.

1. Women and men are perceiving a change in sex roles.
2. More women are in the labor market. Jobs are requiring more education and skill.

3. The open-door policy common at most community colleges permits any adult to attend, without graduation from high school, entrance exams or grade point restrictions.

4. The increase in the number of colleges and universities with fewer admission and residency requirements has made access easier for women.

5. Since women generally make less money than men, schools providing no or low tuition have especially helped women.

6. There is a large reservoir of academically qualified women not now in college.

7. The equal opportunities movement is growing.

8. Women have fewer children and spend less time cooking and caring for their home. They have more time for pursuing other options.

9. Women are equal in intelligence to men and more likely to graduate from high school.

Alan Pifer (1976), President of Carnegie Corporation, is optimistic. He asserts that a large number of changes can be made in the educational realm that will have an influence on equal opportunity for women in the world of work. "These measures would affect every level of education, from preschool to graduate training" (p. 15).
Yet, he concludes that these ideas for equal opportunity cannot be implemented until the deep-rooted and persistent beliefs about sex roles are changed and the economy is strong and growing.

Programs to increase the awareness of the potential of women in education and society at large are being developed. One study showed that while most of these "consciousness raising" activities have been designed for women, males tend to be more accepting of the dual role of mother and worker (Englehard, Jones, & Stiggins, 1976).

Patricia Cross (1972) envisions adult students changing education in fundamental ways. Instead of the traditional certification of indirect learning, i.e., the student's presence in class for three hours per week for one semester earns three units of credit, nontraditional studies proposed a measurement of competency—however the student may have acquired the knowledge and skills.

In the very near future, a 35-year-old housewife may have a whole series of new educational opportunities available to her. If she has young children at home, she may opt for taking a course via cassette or television. Oklahoma has developed a talk-back TV where students can hear and participate in class discussions taking place 50 miles away. Or a nontraditional student may wish to study independently and demonstrate academic competency on tests, thereby gaining credit by examination. The New York regents are now prepared to grant a four-year college degree based on examinations alone. (p. 25)

Nontraditional studies would deliver education to the
students in any way they could use it. Adult students, as taxpayers, support the institution. This creates a different atmosphere for accommodation and instruction (Martorana and Kuhns, 1977).

Many researchers credited changes in the educational system to the women's movement (Blaska, 1976; Kincaid, 1973; Mulligan, 1975; Watkins, 1974) and research has shown that women who return to college change their self-perceptions and become more involved in the women's movement. "She becomes vitalized and stimulated by her environment and a peer group who sees her as worthwhile, an accomplishing individual in her own right, unrelated to and independent of her relationship with her family" (Roach, 1976, p. 87). Some of her former feelings of lack of confidence and low self-expectations begin to subside. For example, a study by Doris Voetz (cited in Watkins, 1974) at the College of DuPage in Illinois revealed that prior to enrollment, 29% of the first 145 women in a re-entry program reported satisfaction with the traditional feminine role and only 20% were active feminists. Following their college experiences, however, only 9% still adhered to traditional views, while over 75% rated themselves as active feminists. Nearly 90% reported some movement toward feminist viewpoints. Kincaid (1973) found Consciousness Raising was effective in helping women move from "other-directedness" to "self-orientation." As a
result of raised consciousness, higher self-esteem, and identification with other women, female professionals have been talking to each other, helping each other, and beginning to "sponsor" women students and to support them in their efforts to gain a professional career the way male professionals have always sponsored male students (Blaska, 1976). Truman (1972) is optimistic that the visibility of women achievers will help to break down the stereotype in men's minds concerning the talents, capacities, and accomplishments of women. Bernice Sandler, Director of the Project on the Status and Education of Women, is concerned that while high achieving women may experience some gains in acceptance, equality of all women is much more difficult to achieve. Sandler (1972) has stated that true equality will not be a reality until mediocre women can go as far as mediocre men.

While researchers point to trends of greater equality in education and in society as a whole, there is a general consensus that it will take a long time:

During the past decade, UNESCO has promoted equal opportunities for girls and women on the assumption that, in the long run, education will prove to be the most effective channel for achieving equality between men and women and ensuring the full participation of women in development. The ultimate objective will not be achieved in the near future -- the effort to change the situation of women in any society touches upon very sensitive domain concerning cherished values and in consequence, elicit deep-rooted opposition. Laws in most countries no longer discriminate, yet subtle and overt discrimination exist in many forms. (Pilain, 1975, p. 1)
To change attitudes, a long process of education in its broadest terms will be required. Women are returning to school in greater numbers each year. Their self-concepts and career expectations are changing. Their needs may cause educational institutions set up to serve young, single males to adapt to this new constituency. The present study was designed to investigate the difference between educational goals and needs of older women students and those of younger women and men.
METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in stated needs and educational goals between married and single students, between older and younger students, and between women and men students.

Operational Definitions

The variables in the hypotheses presented on page 44 have been operationally defined as follows:

1. "Age" was determined as of the first day of classes at Southwestern College in the fall of 1976, August 23, 1976.

2. "Student" referred to any person enrolled in one or more day classes at Southwestern College.

3. "Older" students referred to students 25 years of age and over. The majority of educational statistics and literature reviewed used the age 25 as a dividing point (MacDougall, 1977; Yearbook, 1976). "Younger" students consisted of those under 25 years of age.

4. "Married" students included those who identified themselves as married given the following choices: (a) single, (b) married, (c) divorced, (d) widowed, and (e) separated. "Single" students were operationally designated as those who selected any response other than "Married."
5. The "stated needs" of students were assessed by the following question: "In order to accomplish my personal and educational objective at Southwestern this semester, I may need:
   
   a. Transfer Counseling
   b. Career Counseling
   c. Personal Counseling
   d. Tutoring
   E. Financial Aid
   f. Health Services
   g. Child care
   h. Veteran's Benefits
   i. Other, specify___________________________.
   j. None of the above."

Students could select any number of needs. However, 99% of the students selected three or less needs.

6. "Educational goals" were tapped with the following question: "Primary educational objective at Southwestern:
   
   a. Vocational Certificate
   b. Associate Degree
   c. Transfer Courses toward Bachelor's Degree
   d. Courses Related to Employment
   e. Self-Improvement
   f. Undecided."

Only one choice was permitted.
Design

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in stated needs and educational goals of the men and women students at Southwestern Community College. In preliminary reviews of research in this area, two additional variables appeared likely to influence the needs and goals of students: age and marital status. Furthermore, the various combinations of these factors might show differences, for example, between older, single women and younger, married men. Therefore, a descriptive study was designed so the needs and goals of women and men, older and younger, and married and single students could be compared in all possible combinations. Based on the review of literature, hypotheses were formulated to predict significant differences in these various groups.

Hypotheses

Six hypotheses were formulated to investigate to what extent needs and goals of students are related to their sex, age, and marital status. They were stated as follows:

1. There is a meaningful difference in the stated needs of women students compared to those of men.

2. There is a meaningful difference in stated needs of students 25 years of age and over and 24 years of age and under.
3. There is a meaningful difference in stated needs of married students versus single students.

4. There is a meaningful difference in the educational goals of women versus men students.

5. There is a meaningful difference in educational goals of students 25 years of age and over and 24 years of age and under.

6. There is a meaningful difference between the educational goals of married and single students.

Description of the Sample

The population consisted of all students enrolled in one or more day classes at Southwestern Community College in the fall semester of 1976. The total number was 6,864, 51% were men, with a mean age of 27.9; and 49% were women with a mean age of 25.2. The median age for both groups was 20. Nearly 40% were under 20, another 40% between 20 and 30, and 20% were over 30. Thirty-one percent of all students were married.

Of the 106 California Community Colleges, Southwestern is the furthest south. The college district extends from the south city limits of San Diego to the United States-Mexican border. Residents of the area are employed primarily in the aircraft industry or at naval installations in the greater San Diego metropolitan area. Because of its location, Southwestern may be unusual in
its high percentage of minority students; 42% at this time. (See Appendix B.)

While many colleges are concerned with the possible special needs of women students, California Community Colleges are recognized for taking the lead in developing programs. Community Colleges provide some advantage to women students because of their availability, low cost, acceptance of part-time students, and "open door" policy. The "open door" policy allows any resident of California who is 18 years of age or older to enroll in any Community College. They need not have graduated from high school, nor have passed a General Education Development test. There are no requirements for particularly good grades in high school and no entrance exams. The only test required is a placement test for full-time students planning to take Math or English. No one is kept from enrolling at the college on the basis of these scores. However, students with low scores are required to successfully complete certain "remedial" courses before they may enroll in specific upper level courses.

The majority of California Community Colleges offer a 3-track program consisting of the following: (a) preparation for transfer to a 4-year college, (b) general education for those who do not go on to a 4-year institution, and (c) vocational training for semi-professional positions.
Data and Instrumentation

The data used in this study were obtained from information requested on the student application form required by Southwestern College. (See Appendix A.) Every student was required to fill out the application, but not necessarily answer every question.

Because the total population was studied, no statistical tests of significance were required (MacDougall, 1977). The data were listed in percentages. It was felt that the real differences occurring in this total population listed in percentages would provide adequate information for readers to decide if there were meaningful differences.
FINDINGS

The purpose of the study was to determine if there were differences in Community College students' stated needs and educational goals in relation to their sex, age, and marital status. Differences were found in each area.

Hypotheses

The first three hypotheses were involved with the stated needs of students. Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a difference in the stated needs of women and men students. Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be a difference in the stated needs of older and younger students. Hypothesis 3 stated there would be a difference in the stated needs of married and single students. Table 1 shows a summary of the percentages of students in each group based on sex, age, and marital status who selected the needs listed.

Differences were found in the percentages of students in the various groups selecting each stated need, except for "Tutoring" and "Health Services." In some cases the difference was found between women and men; in others it was between married and single students, and often between older and younger students. Some needs were found to differ with all three variables. For example, "Transfer
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>WOMEN</th>
<th></th>
<th>MEN</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 and over</td>
<td>under 25</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>25 and over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N =</strong></td>
<td>735</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>1,957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer Counseling</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Counseling</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Counseling</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutoring</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Aid</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Services</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Care</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veteran's Benefits</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>3,271</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Counseling" was selected more frequently by men, by younger students, and by single students. The groups showing the greatest needs for transfer counseling were the younger, single groups. More males listed this as a need than did females.

Career counseling was requested more frequently by younger students, and by single students when comparing only the students under 25. Nearly 50% of single women under 25 selected career counseling compared to 35% of married women under 25. More single men under 25 (41%) indicated a need for career counseling than married men under 25 (31%).

Personal counseling was listed more often by single students and somewhat more by men. Twenty-two percent of single men stated a need for personal counseling, while only 20% of younger, married women indicated this need.

Women and men under 25 listed financial aid as a need much more frequently than those over 25. Younger students showed more need than older students and single students more need than married students.

Women requested child care more often than men with about 10% of women over 25 selecting this need compared to less than 2% of younger women or older men. Marital status was not a significant factor in the selection of this need.
Men requested a need for veteran's benefits more frequently than women. Over 60% of married men over 25 selected this need compared to less than 6% of married women over 25. Married men chose this need more often than single men, especially if they were 25 and over. One interpretation for the low female response to this need as well as the low response for males under 25 is that these respondents are not often entitled to these benefits, and therefore, may not list them as a need.

Educational Goals

The remaining three hypotheses stated that there would be differences in educational goals of students by age, sex, and marital status. The greatest differences were found in the percentages of students planning to earn either 2-year or 4-year degrees, in those who wanted self-improvement, and those who were undecided. Table 2 shows a comparison by percentages of students in each group selecting each of the goals listed.

Approximately 47% of the single men 24 and younger set their goal as taking courses to transfer and earn a Bachelor of Arts degree. About 30% of single women under 25 selected this goal. Within each age group, single students made this choice more frequently than married students. Younger students and men, more often than older students and women, plan to transfer to a 4-year college.
Table 2
Educational Goals of Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>WOMEN</th>
<th></th>
<th>MEN</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 and over</td>
<td>under 25</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>25 and over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>N =</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
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<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>21.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transfer Courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toward B.A.</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses Related</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to Employment</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.9a</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                  |        |        |         |         |         |        |
|                  | 758    | 263    | 186     | 2,154   | 3,361   |        |
| Vocational      |        |        |         |         |         |        |
| Certificate     | 3.8    | 3.0    | 5.4     | 4.9     | 4.5     |        |
| Associate       |        |        |         |         |         |        |
| Degree          | 35.4   | 31.6   | 32.8    | 16.0    | 22.5    |        |
| Transfer Courses |        |        |         |         |         |        |
| toward B.A.     | 31.5   | 34.2   | 43.5    | 46.5    | 42.0    |        |
| Courses Related |        |        |         |         |         |        |
| to Employment   | 8.6    | 13.3   | 8.6     | 8.1     | 8.6     |        |
| Self-           |        |        |         |         |         |        |
| Improvement     | 14.4   | 11.8   | 3.8     | 5.7     | 8.0     |        |
| Undecided       | 6.3    | 6.1    | 5.1     | 18.8    | 14.3    |        |
| TOTAL           | 100.0  | 100.0  | 100.0   | 100.0   | 99.9a   |        |

*aVariation due to rounding of figures.*
The married women 25 and over plan least frequently to transfer—just 21%.

Slightly less than one third of all men other than the younger, unmarried group selected an Associate degree as their goal. Fewer women in all groups planned on earning a 2-year degree. Women were more often selecting self-improvement as their goal. Among women, those married chose self-improvement more frequently than those who were single. The percentage of older women desiring self-improvement was over twice as high as for the younger women, especially if they were married. Thirty percent of married women over 25 compared to less than 6% of younger, single women selected this goal. Older men selected self-improvement more often than younger men (12% compared to 5%).

Younger, single students were less sure about their goals than married students or older students. In general, slightly more women stated they were undecided than men, especially if they were married and younger.

The groups differed only slightly in percentages in selecting a vocational certificate in courses related to employment as their goal. For example, 7% of women students and 4% of men students selected "Vocational Certificate" as their goal. The number of students selecting "Courses Related to Employment" was approximately 10% of women students and 9% of men students.
DISCUSSION

Stated Needs

There were several areas where the needs of college students varied with their sex, age, and marital status. Men requested all types of counseling and veteran's benefits more frequently than women. Younger students showed more need for financial aid. Single students within each age group requested more counseling than the married students. Older women students stated a need for child care most frequently. "Tutoring" or "Health Services" were selected infrequently by all groups.

Counseling. The need for counseling appears to be related to educational goals. Younger men students indicated higher educational aspirations -- over 40% planned to transfer to a 4-year school and earn a Bachelor of Arts degree. Since more men than women planned to transfer, more men would also be expected to ask for transfer counseling, and Table 1 (page 49) bears out this assumption. Career counseling may be related to being undecided about an educational goal. Single students under 25 stated they were undecided more frequently than any other group and also made the most requests for career counseling.

The review of literature related to returning women students indicated that these women, particularly, needed
personal counseling. The present study shows that at Southwestern College, such women perceived a need for personal counseling less frequently than men and less frequently than younger, single women. Younger, married women selected this need least frequently (10.2%). If one interprets that stating a need for "Personal Counseling" suggests some dissatisfaction with one's life separate from school or work, perhaps young, married women are the most satisfied with their personal lives. They may not be experiencing the stress associated with fluctuating between career or marriage that researchers have found to create conflict for women (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Deutsch & Gilbert, 1975). They have made a decision and their marriage may be meeting their affiliation needs. They are also in school, and may not have experienced the isolation that some older, married women report.

Single students in every age group selected "Personal Counseling" slightly more frequently than married students, with one interesting exception—married women over 25. Could it be that marriage is seen as a very healthy state to be in for young people and for men of all ages, but not as good for older women? Single students in the other three groups may feel something is lacking in their lives if they are not married. Older women students who are married, however, may feel that something is lacking in their home situation. Taking classes at the
community college is frequently prescribed for middle-aged women in this community who show signs of depression or unhappy marriages. Married men requested "Personal Counseling" less frequently than single men. This is consistent with previous studies showing married men are more happy than single men.

Financial aid. Financial aid was requested much less frequently by married, older women (6.5%) and married, older men (8.7%) than other groups (22%-31%). There is a great variation in the financial situation of students at Southwestern College that appears to be closely related to sex, age, and marital status. The older, married students have the most money. (See Appendix D.) Over 75% of the older, married women estimated their family income at more than $9,000 per year, while 70% of the single women 25 and over had incomes of less than $9,000. Only 30% of the older, married women worked either full or part time compared to 46% of the single, older women who worked. Most of those who worked (28.4%) were employed full time. (See Appendix F.) Twenty-one percent of the older, single women that were not employed were seeking work. More than half of the older, married women were not employed and not seeking work.

While more than 55% of the older, married women estimated their family incomes at more than $12,000, only 36% of the older, married men students were as well off.
It could be that many men in this community making over $12,000 are too busy working to attend day classes at the college, or they may have already earned advanced degrees and have professional positions. The latter interpretation seems more likely.

The younger, single students estimated their family incomes higher than younger, married students or older, single students. Perhaps this is because the younger, single students are considering their parents' income, while others consider themselves more independent. (See Appendix F.)

Over 50% of both men and women students under 25 listed their family income at more than $9,000. The younger, married students are the least well off. Over half of the young, married women attending school have family incomes of over $7,500. Only one-third of the young, married men have incomes of $7,500 or more and only 5% over $12,000. This may be because the young, married students are relying on their spouses to put them through school, and women in this community earn considerably less than men. Another factor that may be occurring with the young, married men is related to Veteran's Benefits. Nearly half of them are collecting benefits. The average married veteran attending Southwestern in 1976 received $4,752 per year (Harrington, 1977). These veterans may be relying on this income as their primary source of
support. Many would probably prefer to be working (36.2% were seeking employment) but use their benefits as an alternative to or in addition to unemployment.

When asked who was their primary source of financial support, many differences appear to be related to sex, age, and marital status. Over 80% of the married women considered their husbands as their primary supporter, while only 7.6% of men over 25 and 15.2% of younger men considered their wives to be financially supporting them. Single men of all ages were also more likely than women to state they supported themselves. (See Appendix F.) Single women were more likely to be dependent on "Spouses" (presumably ex-spouses), "Parents," or "Other" (possibly welfare, financial aid, unemployment, loans, etc.) than men.

Child care. The need for child care did not appear nearly as often as was expected from previous research. About 10% of the older women students requested these services, and less than 2% of other groups, with one surprising exception—young, married men requested child care more frequently (3.2%). These may be men with working wives. A possible explanation for the relatively low indicated need for child care is that those students who have small children frequently inquire about the availability of child care on campus before they apply to the college for admittance. Conceivably there are many
people in the community who might attend Southwestern College if more child care services were provided, but their numbers are not reflected here because they did not fill out application forms. Another explanation may be that their children are in school and/or they have ongoing child care arrangements.

Southwestern College does provide limited child care services. The campus facility is designed primarily as a preschool program to provide teaching experience for Child Development Majors, rather than to serve the needs of students with children. The number of children attending these programs is limited to 35 in the morning session from 8:00 a.m. until 11:00 a.m. and to 20 in the afternoon session from noon until 3:00 p.m. Children must be over 2 years of age and not yet attending kindergarten. They are not allowed to attend both morning and afternoon sessions. The cost is $8 for registration and $2.50 per session. Even though these hours may not be convenient to the schedules of the parents attending classes, and the price may be prohibitive to many, each semester there is a waiting list to enroll in the preschool program. These preschool programs may be in demand because of the educational experiences they provide to the children.

Veteran's benefits. It occurred to me that if I had constructed the application form, I would have included "Veteran's Benefits" under the heading "Objective for
attending school" rather than as a need. Many veterans have stated verbally to this investigator that their objective at Southwestern is to collect as much money for as long as possible with the least effort. In the fall of 1976 this attitude was more common than it is today (Harrington, 1977). In 1976 the Veteran's Administration instituted some stringent regulations upon veterans collecting benefits for attending college which has diminished the possibility of attending school to get "free" money.

Most of the older men and nearly half of the younger, married men were collecting Veteran's Benefits. Only 5.7% of the women stated they might require Veteran's Benefits to complete their objective at Southwestern. It is particularly interesting that while 60.2% of the older, married men claimed they needed Veteran's Benefits to attend Southwestern, only 8.7% needed financial aid. Given their veteran's benefits, they may be aware that they probably would not qualify for additional financial aid. Perhaps these men did not need money, but it provided motivation to attend classes.

Educational Goals

Men's responses in this study indicated higher academic aspirations than women's responses. Men of all ages, whether married or single, selected goals which would lead to degrees. Women more often selected
"Self-Improvement" as their goal. These findings are consistent with previous research showing women are generally underrepresented in longer, more demanding educational programs. Lack of self-esteem might account for their perceived need for "Self-Improvement." Perhaps, more likely, however, they were not concerned about having to support themselves or a family.

Much research has shown that students select majors and careers consistent with their own self-concept (Richardson, 1975). If women at Southwestern have lower self-esteem than men, as has been shown by Anderson (1977) and might be inferred from this study, then this might be influencing their choice of less demanding programs of study. It is interesting that the group with the highest grade point average (women 25 and over--3.2) has the lowest percentage of persons selecting the 4-year degree program and the groups with the lowest grade point average (men under 25--2.5) have the highest percentages of persons planning to earn a 4-year degree. (See Appendix H and Table 2 [page 52].) Stein and Bailey (1973) have found that boys are more likely to set unrealistically high goals for themselves while girls set goals lower than their abilities would suggest. These data would seem to concur with that finding. Among students with equal grade point averages, younger men and women who were single had averages of 2.5 for each group, men (46.5%)
were more likely to plan on the Bachelor of Arts degree than women (32.8%).

It is possible, however, that men have higher levels of vocational aspirations on record than they actually intend to pursue. Men who are collecting Veteran's Benefits must declare a specific major, and "Self-Improvement" is not allowed. This might account for some of the high percentages of men planning to earn advanced degrees, and the relatively few number of men who are "Undecided."

Women who planned on earning degrees tended to select majors that have been traditionally defined as "women's fields." Men's choices were much more varied, but few selected majors in "women's fields."
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the possible differences in the needs and educational goals of community college students based on their sex, age, and marital status. Special emphasis was given to comparing older women students to other student groups. Information was gathered from the college application forms of all day students enrolled in any class during the fall of 1976 at Southwestern Community College. The total number was 6,854, 51% were men, with a mean age of 27.9, and 49% were women with a mean age of 25.2. Thirty-one percent were married.

Meaningful differences were found in each area. The major findings in different needs were in the areas of career counseling and transfer counseling. Career counseling was requested somewhat more frequently by women students (40.7%) than by men students (36.2%) and when controlled additionally for age and marital status greater differences were found. For example, single women under 25 (41.1%) requested career counseling much more frequently than married males over 25 (26.1%).

Transfer counseling was requested more frequently by men students (31.2%) than by women students (24.4%). The most striking difference was between single young men
students (36.9%) and married young women (14.7%).

The major conclusion of this study relating to educational goals is that younger and single students have set their goals at more demanding and time-consuming courses of study than older or married students. Women were generally overrepresented in the shorter, less demanding majors. Forty-two percent of men students planned to transfer and earn a Bachelor of Arts degree compared to 28% of women students.

A more accurate composite of the needs and goals of the older women students at Southwestern College became apparent. The majority of these women are married, have above-average family incomes, are not working or seeking employment, but rather "self-improvement."

Delimitations of the Study

In narrowing the focus of this research, the following decisions were made:

The population studied consisted of all day students enrolled at Southwestern Community College in the 1976 fall semester. While the evening population would have included more students 25 years of age and over (68%) and more married students (65%), it would have included fewer women students (39%). An additional reason for selecting the day population was the relative ease in providing services at convenient times for these students. Evening students often work days and, in the history of this
college, have not utilized special services available to them as frequently as day students.

The decision to research the needs and goals of students at just one college was made because of the specific nature of the objective to provide services at this college. The procedures and findings of this study might be helpful to another college considering a needs assessment survey.

**Limitations of the Study**

The study had certain limitations the reader should keep in mind. The study was dependent on the precision of the application form in determining stated needs and educational goals. The researcher had to rely on the accuracy of the data as stored in the computer. While this provided a great quantity of data, a more precise instrument on a smaller sample may have provided additional information.
RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for further research include:

1. The study should be repeated with the evening student population. This population includes more students over 25 years of age (68%) and more married students (65%) but fewer women students (39%). Most of these students are employed full time.

2. A more in-depth instrument should be designed to assess additional needs or goals not listed on the application form.

3. A study of students who drop out of college before the end of their first semester might uncover needs not being met.

4. A needs assessment of potential students in the college district could provide directions both in curriculum planning and special support services.

5. Follow-up study to assess changes in the student population's composition, needs and goals three years later.
LITERATURE CITED
LITERATURE CITED


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Dunkle, M. C., & Sandler, B. Title IX, new rules for an old game. Teachers College Record, 1975, 76, 385-399.


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MacDougall, A. Personal communication, January 19, 1977.


Richards, L. Women's perception of their psychological and practical needs upon re-entry to a community college: Implications for restructuring the learning environment. Ed.D. Practicum, Nova, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 130 713)


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**STUDENT APPLICATION FORM**

**ENTER THE NUMBER OF THE RESPONSE WHICH APPLIES TO YOU IN MARGIN AT RIGHT.**

This information is confidential and used for statistical and service purposes only.

### 1. ETHNIC BACKGROUND
- 1. Mexican American
- 2. American White
- 3. American Negro Black
- 4. Oriental American
- 5. American Indian
- 6. Filipino American
- 7. Foreign Student
- 8. Other

**Ethnicity**

### 2. VETERANS STATUS
- (1) Veteran
- (2) Non-Veteran

**Veterans Status**

### 3. EMPLOYMENT STATUS
- (1) Employed Full-time
- (2) Employed Part-time
- (3) Not Employed and Seeking Work
- (4) Not Employed and Not Seeking Work

**Employment Status**

### 4. MARITAL STATUS
- (1) Single
- (2) Married
- (3) Divorced or Widowed
- (4) Separated

**Marital Status**

### 5. FAMILY SIZE
(Number in your household including yourself)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enter Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Family Size**

### 6. PRIMARY SOURCE OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT
- (1) Self
- (2) Spouse
- (3) Other

**Support**

### 7. FAMILY INCOME
Estimate Total From All Sources
- (1) $0.00
- (2) $0.00-$5,000
- (3) $5,000-$9,999
- (4) $10,000-$17,999
- (5) $18,000-$24,999
- (6) $25,000 or more

| Enter Number |

**Income**

### 8. NUMBER OF PREVIOUS SEMESTERS AT SOUTHWESTERN

| Enter Number |

**Previous Semesters**

### 9. NUMBER OF SEMESTERS YOU PLAN TO ATTEND SOUTHWESTERN

| Enter Number (not counted) |

**Semesters**

### 10. NUMBER OF COURSES YOU PLAN TO TAKE THIS SEMESTER

| * Semesters |

**Courses**

### 11. NUMBER OF UNITS COMPLETED
- (1) 0-14
- (2) 15-29
- (3) 30-44
- (4) 45-58
- (5) 60 or more; no degree
- (6) Associate Degree
- (7) Bachelor's Degree
- (8) Master's Degree
- (9) Doctorate Degree

| Units |

**Units Completed**

### 12. PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVE AT SOUTHWESTERN
- (1) Associate Certificate
- (2) Associate Degree
- (3) Transfer Courses Toward Bachelor's Degree
- (4) Bachelor's Degree
- (5) Other, specify
- (6) Courses Related to Employment
- (7) Self-improvement
- (8) Job Advancement
- (9) Undecided

| Objectives |

**Educational Objective**

### 13. MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY: If you wish to major in a specific field of study, please indicate the major.

| Major |

**Major**

### 14. IN ORDER TO ACCOMPLISH MY PERSONAL AND EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AT SOUTHWESTERN THIS SEMESTER I MAY NEED
- (1) Transfer Counseling
- (2) Career Counseling
- (3) Personal Counseling
- (4) Testing
- (5) Financial Aid
- (6) None of the above

| Need |

**Needs**

### 15. IDENTIFY ANY OF THE FOLLOWING PROBLEMS WHICH YOU FEEL MAY SLOW YOUR PROGRESS IN SCHOOL THIS SEMESTER
- (1) Physical Handicap
- (2) Language Problems
- (3) Economic Problems
- (4) Emotional Problems
- (5) Social and Cultural Problems

| Problem |

**Problems**

### 16. PLANS AFTER LEAVING SOUTHWESTERN
- (1) Transfer to a Four-Year College
- (2) Transfer to a Two-Year College
- (3) Employment
- (4) Military Service
- (5) Undecided

| Plan |

**Plans**

### 17. THIS SEMESTER I PROJECT TO PARTICIPATE IN
- (1) Student Government
- (2) Campus Club

| Activity |

**Activities**

**APPLICATION MUST BE SUBMITTED IN PERSON**

**PLEASE DO NOT MAIL**
APPENDIX B

ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS
BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX: PERCENTAGES
Ethnic Distribution of Community College Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

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<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>25 and over</th>
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<th>Total Women</th>
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<td>American Indian</td>
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<td>.7%</td>
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<td>Filipino American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign Student</td>
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^aVariation due to rounding of figures.
### Ethnic Distribution of Community College Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
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<th>under 25</th>
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<th>Total Men</th>
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<td>5.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oriental American</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino American</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Student</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.9a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Variation due to rounding of figures.*
ETHNIC BACKGROUND

The background of the four groups differed significantly in ethnic self-identification. Based on the 1970 census, the community population was 29.4% minority. The fall 1976 student population at Southwestern was 42% minority. The percentage of Mexican-American students was 21.6%, nearly the same as the percentage of younger Mexican-American students, both women (26.8%) and men (25.6%) than older students (12.6%). This may be a result of increased recruitment in the local high schools by bilingual peer advisors. The small percentage of older Mexican-American students might indicate a possible spot for increased recruitment efforts.

The Black population of Southwestern shows the opposite trend, with higher percentages of older students, particularly men, and low percentages of younger students, especially women. There is a small proportion of Black students in the high schools in Southwestern's district. There may be more encouragement for Black students to attend a 4-year college.

The percentage of Filipinos on campus is higher than in the community. The men have slightly higher percentages than women, especially men over 25.
APPENDIX C

ESTIMATED YEARLY FAMILY INCOME REPORTED BY STUDENTS BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX: PERCENTAGES
## Predicted Yearly Family Income Reported by Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

### WOMEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
<th>under 25</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>715</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-$3,000</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3,000-$6,000</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$6,000-$7,500</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$7,500-$9,000</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$9,000-$12,000</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$12,000 or more</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>99.9\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>99.9\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>99.9\textsuperscript{a}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### MEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
<th>under 25</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-$3,000</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3,000-$6,000</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$6,000-$7,500</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$7,500-$9,000</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$9,000-$12,000</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$12,000 or more</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100.1\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>100.1\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Variation due to rounding of figures.
APPENDIX D

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF STUDENTS BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX: PERCENTAGES
Employment Status of Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
<th>under 25</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**W O M E N**

- Employed Full Time: 15.8% (18.2%), 28.4% (8.0%), 12.7%
- Employed Part Time: 14.3% (20.0%), 17.6% (33.4%), 26.4%
- Not Employed and Seeking Work: 13.5% (21.8%), 21.6% (40.7%), 31.1%
- Not Employed and Not Seeking Work: 56.5% (40.0%), 32.4% (18.0%), 29.8%

**TOTAL**: 100.1% (100.0%), 100.0%, 100.1% (100.0%), 100.0%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
<th>under 25</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**M E N**

- Employed Full Time: 45.3% (33.0%), 26.1% (9.6%), 20.2%
- Employed Part Time: 10.0% (18.4%), 14.0% (39.5%), 29.7%
- Not Employed and Seeking Work: 24.9% (36.2%), 39.0% (39.5%), 36.0%
- Not Employed and Not Seeking Work: 19.8% (12.4%), 20.8% (11.5%), 14.1%

**TOTAL**: 100.0% (100.0%), 99.9% (100.0%), 100.0% (100.0%), 100.0%

*aVariation due to rounding of figures.*
Primary Source of Financial Support Reported by Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>WOMEN</th>
<th></th>
<th>MEN</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 and over</td>
<td>under 25</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>733</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>86.9</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
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<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.9&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|          | MEN         |            |            |            |
| N =      | 759         | 262        | 184        | 2,158      | 3,363      |
| Self     | 83.5        | 80.2       | 69.6       | 35.6       | 52.5       |
| Spouse   | 7.6         | .0         | 15.2       | .0         | 2.6        |
| Parents  | .0          | 3.8        | 2.7        | 55.7       | 36.2       |
| Other    | 8.8         | 16.0       | 12.5       | 7.6        | 8.8        |
| TOTAL    | 99.9<sup>a</sup> | 100.0      | 100.0      | 100.0      | 100.1<sup>a</sup> |

<sup>a</sup>Variation due to rounding of figures.
APPENDIX F

MAJOR SELECTIONS OF STUDENTS BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX: PERCENTAGES
### Major Selections of Students by Age, Marital Status, and Sex: Percentages

#### WOMEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over Married</th>
<th>25 and over Single</th>
<th>under 25 Married</th>
<th>under 25 Single</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
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<td>354</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>1,954</td>
<td>3,645</td>
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<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>22.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-Improvement</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>14.2</td>
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<td>11.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job Advancement</td>
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<td>6.2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>99.9a</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.9a</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### MEN

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>25 and over Married</th>
<th>25 and over Single</th>
<th>under 25 Married</th>
<th>under 25 Single</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>180</td>
<td>2,163</td>
<td>3,365</td>
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<td>Undecided</td>
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<td>9.6</td>
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<td>28.8</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Improvement</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>11.0</td>
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<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Advancement</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
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<td>30.7</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
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<td>43.2</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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</table>

*Variation due to rounding of figures.*
APPENDIX G

MEDIAN GRADE POINT AVERAGE OF STUDENTS
BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX
Median Grade Point Average of Students
by Age, Marital Status, and Sex

<table>
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<th>under 25</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
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<td>2.5</td>
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</table>

W O M E N

M E N

<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>2.5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX H

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS DROPPING ALL CLASSES BEFORE END OF FALL SEMESTER BY AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SEX
### Percentage of Students Dropping All Classes Before End of Fall Semester by Age, Marital Status, and Sex

#### WOMEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25 and over</th>
<th>under 25</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>735</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>21.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### MEN

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>1,957</td>
<td>3,362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>19.8</td>
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</table>