MOTIVATORS OF ADULT WOMEN ENROLLED IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

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ABSTRACT

CONNIE DIANNE JOHNSTON. Motivators of adult women enrolled in a community college. (Under direction of DR. CLAUDIA FLOWERS)

The goal of this study was to describe what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to pursue higher education. Utilizing profile analysis and multiple regression analyses, this study investigated the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement, (2) Social Contact, (3) Educational Preparation, (4) Professional Advancement, (5) Family Togetherness, (6) Social Stimulation, and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991).

Data collection involved administering an online survey to 367 students enrolled in a large urban community college in the Southeastern United States. Twenty-eight percent were males and 72% were females. The majority of students were in their early 30s (*M*=33.7, *SD*=12.1). Ethnicity of the group varied with 47% White/Caucasian (*N*=173), 36% African-American/Black (*N*=133), 10% Latino/Hispanic (*N*=38), 6% Asian-American/Asian (*N*=21), and 1% Native American/ Alaskan (*N*=2). Fifteen percent of the participants indicated they speak a language other than English as their first language.

The results indicated that females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. In short, females seem to be less motivated by social reasons (i.e. Social Contact, Social Stimulation, Family Togetherness), and more motivated by practical reasons (i.e.

Professional Advancement, Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation). A profile analysis demonstrated that the motivational profiles for males and females can be considered coincident with similar profiles for the genders.

Multiple regression results indicated that gender was not a significant predictor of motivation, but age of respondent and students who spoke English as their first language were predictors of several motivational factors. In general, older students place less importance on social reasons to attend school, such as Communication Improvement, Social Contact, and Social Stimulation. Students who speak English as a second language are more likely to value Communication Improvement, Social Contact, Family Togetherness, Social Stimulation and Cognitive Interest than students who speak English as their first language.

The current findings seem to indicate that most females (and males) value attending college in order to obtain better employment options and to prepare to take even higher level classes later. The research implies incorporating course content related to a student's career goals would assist with student motivation, such as using examples related to career interests in developmental classes. This strategy would also tap into Cognitive Interest, which is the second most important motivator for females.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The goal of this research was to describe what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to pursue higher education. Utilizing profile analysis and multiple regression analyses, this study investigated the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). In this chapter, background information, the problem statement, a description of the study's significance and an overview of the methodology are presented.

Non-traditional Student Enrollment in Community Colleges

According to the NCES (cited in Compton et al, 2006), a nontraditional student meets at least one of these criteria: (a) takes at least a year off after high school before enrolling in college, (b) takes classes part-time, (c) works full-time, (d) provides for himself, (e) has children, (f) is a single parent, or (g) did not graduate from high school. Nontraditional students are attracted to the community college for vocational training, because adults usually have clearer educational goals directly related to their aspirations for a better job. Due to their multiple responsibilities, adult students see themselves as workers first and often balance family obligations outside of the classroom. Thus, adults

need educational options that fit into their busy lifestyles. Finally, adult students are more likely to speak a language other than English (Compton et al, 2006).

Recent societal, economic, and political developments will continue to bring more students to the community college. Emphasizing work-force development and affordable short-term training, community colleges are an important access point for adults who need retraining to gain employment skills (Cohen & Brawer, 2008). In December 2007, a recession began that developed into the worst economic downturn in the United States since the Great Depression. As a result, the Obama Administration proposed $12 Billion dollars for the American Graduation Initiative aimed at community colleges to increase the number of college graduates by 5 million by 2020 (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009).

Prior to the recession, societal shifts increased the numbers of college-going women. After the Second World War, it became much more acceptable for women to attend college, and now they are the majority. As we move to a more knowledge-based society, the number of industrial jobs has declined, thus demanding further education for workers who need to be retrained. Finally, since most adults do not have a college degree, they represent an untapped market for most colleges, and so many colleges have developed fast track and evening courses to meet the needs of the adult population (Compton et al., 2006).

What We Know About Why Adults Enroll in College

The first study to examine the issue of why adults enroll in college was conducted by Johnstone and Rivera in 1962 (cited in Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007).

The researchers conducted interviews with a sample of almost twelve thousand families from across the nation and concluded,

> *The adult education participant is just as often a woman as a man, is typically under forty, has completed high school or more, enjoys an above-average income, works full-time and most often in a white-collar occupation, is married and has children, lives in an urbanized area but more likely in a suburb than large city, and is found in all parts of the country, but more frequently in the West than in other regions* (cited in Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007, p.8).

Next, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) conducted a series of surveys, with the most recent one taking place in 2001. The random-dialed telephone survey examined both formal and informal educational activities that did not involve an instructor. For the most part, Johnstone and Rivera's findings from 1962 continue to hold true. Adults enrolled in college tend to possess more education, are younger, work full-time and report higher income levels. One difference that has emerged from the series of NCES studies is that women's participation has increased to 49% (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007).

A study conducted by the College Board (Aslanian, 2001a) examined the reasons adults enroll in college, both community colleges and four-year schools. The majority were middle-aged Caucasian women with household incomes higher than the average who already possessed significant education prior to enrollment. About one-third of the students worked and studied full-time, and they were most interested in education, business or healthcare training. The adults were motivated to seek an education for career reasons, such as updating their technology skills, responding to a lay-off, or seeking a promotion. When asked to identify the events that prompted them to enroll, adults cited reasons related to their careers or jobs (82%), family transitions (5%), leisure pursuits (5%), artistic interests (4%) and spiritual, health, or citizenship reasons (1%).

The American Association of Community Colleges (2009) released statistics about the students who were enrolled in 2009. The average age of students was 29, and 40% were 22 to 39 years of age and 13% were 40 or older. Nationally, 58% of the students were women and 42% were men. 17% are single-parents, 60% of all community college students were enrolled part time and 27% worked and attended school full time. Half of the students were enrolled part time and worked full time. Annually, community colleges award 612,915 associate degrees and 328,268 certificates. The trend of enrollment growth is expected to increase, and so it is important to gain a better understanding of the career and educational aspirations of adult women enrolled in a community college so we may better serve this unique population.

Kasworm (2003) suggested that it is important to give equal consideration to reasons related to career aspirations and adult lives. Kasworm identified three key themes motivating adults to participate in higher education due to (1) life changes such as divorce, lay-off, or an empty nest, (2) proactive enrollment as a result of several years of planning, or (3) a mixture of both. Students were also influenced to enroll by societal beliefs that a college degree bestows prestige and will allow students access to another social class. One study of couples with two wage earners found that women with more family and work demands were more likely to pursue further education as well (Hostetler, Sweet & Moen, 2007).

Wlodowski (2008) discusses three main reasons why more women than men pursue higher education. First, there are more adult females than males in the general population in the United States. Second, women are more likely to believe education

leads to success. Third, role changes and familial support have opened the door for more women to attend college than in the past.

Aslanian and Brickell (1980) proposed a "trigger and transitions" model for why adults decide to enroll in college. Adults seek higher education when they are moving from one status to another due to a change in their work, family, or marital status and leisure activities. "Triggers" are the events or non-events that precede the decision to enroll and relate to the time of the decision to go back to school, such as divorce, children leaving home, or lay-off. "Transitions" describe the need to obtain more education, so the student can cope with the change in status.

Astin (1998) found that more women aimed to get a higher educational degree than men and have grown more interested in non-traditional career fields that were typically occupied by men. The purpose of this study will be to quantitatively investigate what motivates adult women to enroll in community college.

Statement of the Problem

The number of adult women enrolled in the community college makes this an important subject. The economy, societal changes, and rates of divorce and single-parents mean that women need further education to ensure a good wage. Education is a labor-intensive process; college administrators, faculty and student support personnel benefit from understanding what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. The body of research examining why students enroll in college has provided general information, but more needs to be known about adult women. As Kasworm (2003) suggested, researchers need to give equal consideration to reasons related to career

aspirations and adult lives, and this study contributed to the body of literature about what motivates adult women to attend community college.

Importance of the Research

In 2007, Donaldson and Townsend analyzed 3,200 journal articles published during 1990-2003 to ascertain how many focused on adult undergraduates. Their research included the *Journal of College Student Development*, the *NASPA (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators) Journal, Community College Journal of Research and Practice, Community College Review*, *The Journal of Higher Education, Research in Higher Education, and The Review of Higher Education.* Using journal titles as their data collection method, Donaldson and Townsend concluded that only 1.27% (*N*=41) of the articles focused on adult undergraduates. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice and Community College Review* published 18 articles. Six key themes were identified: "student retention, student needs, classroom behavior and perceptions, new ways to think about and work with adult students, professional development of instructors of adults, and other, or articles not fitting into any of the other five categories (p.34)." The researchers found three articles focused on the needs of adult women at either the community college (Johnson, Schwartz & Bower, 2000), university (Breese & O'Toole, 1994) or both (Rountree & Lambert, 1992). Johnson, Schwartz and Bower surveyed adult women enrolled the community college and reported the women expressed high stress levels due to family, financial, wellness and age related concerns. Breese and O'Toole used qualitative research methods to demonstrate that women enrolled in the university use their student status as a bridge to transition to a new life. Finally, Rountree and Lambert surveyed women enrolled in noncredit and credit college

courses to determine how they preferred to learn, how they evaluated their abilities, and what they hoped to achieve through their studies. Donaldson and Townsend's analysis demonstrates a need for more research in this area given the number of adult women attending community college.

In their book "The American Community College" Cohen and Brawer (2008) conclude,

> *.. they have rarely been examined, mainly because during most of its history, the community college has been unnoticed, ignored by writers about higher education. Books on higher education published from the turn of the century, when the first community college appeared, through the 1980s rarely gave even a nod to the community colleges; one searches in vain for a reference to them in indexes (p.40)."*

The primary goal of this dissertation was to investigate what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college. The Educational Participation Scale (A-form) was utilized to determine motivators (Boshier, 1991) and examine the relationships between gender, English as a first language and age to the motivation factors. Several benefits were found:

1. The research added to the body of knowledge about community colleges, a popular educational option for adults.
2. The research contributed to what we know about a unique subset of the community college student population – the adult female learner.
3. More quantitative studies need to be conducted with adult women at the community college level about what motivates women to enroll. This information may be used by student development personnel and program developers as they develop curriculums that target specific student concerns. For example, if women enroll in arts programs for social interaction, then the

curriculum can be designed to facilitate more group interaction (Fujita-Stark, 1996).

Research Questions

A profile analysis comprised of a repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) were conducted to gain a deeper understanding of what motivations were important for adult women to enroll in community college and compare the women's profile to males. A correlational approach examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Multiple regression analyses were utilized to investigate both the direct and indirect relationships among the variables. Figure 2 contains the hypothesized relationships between the outcome variables (seven motivators) and the predictor variables of gender, English as a first language, and age in the multiple regression analyses.

Definition of Terms

Adult Student

According to the NCES website (2002), "The term "nontraditional student" is not a precise one, although age and part-time status (which often go together) are common defining characteristics (Bean & Metzner, 1985)." While many college faculty and student affairs personnel refer to adult students as "nontraditional", this is an inaccurate use of the term. The term nontraditional student can be used to refer to a student who is

younger and married, disabled, from a racial or ethnic background, a woman, or attends classes part-time. In other words, most students today are considered nontraditional. Therefore, the term "adult student" will be used to refer to students who are 25 years of age and older (Kasworm, Polson & Fishback, 2002).

English as a First Language

The term English as a first language refers to students who learned to speak English first, before learning to speak any other languages.

Community College

Community colleges award associate or 2-year degrees, as well as diplomas and certificates. Community colleges offer community programs like literary events, developmental education, vocational degrees, college transfer, and corporate and continuing education (Cohen & Brawer, 2003).

Motivation

Motivation is defined as the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991).

Limitations and Delimitations

Delimitations limit the scope of the inquiry. In this study, the delimitations were that the study examined one community college. The inquiry focused on adult females in community college, and examined only looking at 7 motivators. Finally, the research was quantitative in nature, and did not use qualitative research methods.

Overview of Method

This research employed survey methods for data collection. An electronic version of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) and a demographic questionnaire were distributed to students enrolled at a community college. Figure 2 contains the hypothesized relationships for the multiple regression analyses. After collecting data and developing a correlation matrix, the model was compared to the researcher's predictions.

Summary

In this initial chapter, the researcher introduced the proposed topic, defined the research problem, explained the purpose of the research, introduced the multiple regression analyses and provided an overview of the research methodology. The background explained why the issue of adult women's motivators is important. This study was significant, because it added to the body of knowledge about what motivates adult women when they return to community college. In Chapter Two, a review of the major research related to this study will be presented. Chapter Three will detail the research methodology, including the population, sample, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter Four will report the study's findings, and Chapter Five will feature a discussion of the results and conclusion.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The number of adults attending college is expected to increase in the future (Aslanian, 2001a). Adult students often make many personal and financial sacrifices to attend college, because they must balance school, work and family responsibilities. Education can be an expensive and labor-intensive process, and so it is important for educators to understand the motivations of adult women in order to better assist them. The majority of the students attending community colleges are women and many of them are motivated to return to school due to changes in their personal or professional lives. The goal of this research was to investigate what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college.

The purpose of the literature review is to present an examination of what is known about adult women's motivators, particularly the seven factors of the EPS (A-form). The review of literature commences with an overview of the history of community colleges. Next, an overview of college student development theories is presented. Then, adult development theorists (Knowles, Kasworm, Wolff and Houle) will be discussed in relation to the research focus. National surveys about what motivates adults to enroll in college are summarized, including data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), College Board and Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP). The review of literature concludes with information about the Education Participation Scale (A-form), the theoretical focus of the proposed research.

Community Colleges in the United States of America

Community colleges are an important educational option for adult women, because community colleges have an emphasis on increasing access for under-represented groups, present an adult-friendly educational option, and promote workforce development. This section provides historical information about the development and expansion of community college in the United States as it pertains to adult women. The original mission of the community college focused on the college transfer function, but that role has expanded significantly. Community colleges aim to help citizens of the community, including women, with whatever they need to learn. As community needs grew, the community college mission area expanded as well. Today, community colleges offer community programs like literary events, developmental education, vocational degrees, college transfer, and corporate and continuing education (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). Key legislation and important milestones in the community college movement will be summarized.

One key theme in the development of community colleges has been increasing access to higher education, including women and minorities. The first and second Morrill Acts, established in 1862 and 1890 respectively, led the way for the development of community colleges. Both acts increased access to education by underrepresented groups. The Morrill Act of 1890 required states to admit minority students to land grant colleges or develop a separate college for the minority students to attend (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010). For example, in North Carolina, the General Assembly passed an act creating A. and M. College for the "Colored Race" in March 9, 1891, which is today the North Carolina A&T State University (North Carolina A&T State University,

2010). The advent of land grant colleges marked a shift to vocational education, rather than the liberal arts education (Lucas, 2006).

Community colleges offer an affordable educational option for students looking for an alternative to a traditional four-year degree. Today's community college emerged from the junior college system. Prior to the 1950s, the term junior college was utilized. In 1950, Jesse R. Bogue popularized the usage of the word "community college" when he wrote "The Community College (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010)." As the number of junior colleges grew, they developed an identity that was separate from their 4-year counterparts. Initially, most junior colleges viewed themselves as "feeders" for the four-year schools. In 1918, 85 junior colleges existed. By the mid-1920s, their numbers grew to 196 junior colleges. Junior colleges allowed the higher education system to accommodate a rapid enrollment increase from 1920-1940. At this time, junior colleges began to conceptualize themselves as offering terminal degrees for students interested in trades without the financial means to pursue a four-year degree (Lucas, 2006).

After World War II, community colleges were instrumental in reeducating returning servicemen, including adult women and minorities who took advantage of these programs. Congress approved the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, commonly referred to as the GI Bill, in 1944 (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010). This legislation awarded billions of dollars in funds to support veterans pursuing a college education (Lucas, 2006). The GI Bill improved access to education by removing many societal and monetary barriers to higher learning (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010). The first major financial aid program of its kind, the GI Bill provided

tuition assistance and reimbursed veterans for living expenses during enrollment (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). Through the GI Bill, over 2.2 million veterans attended college, including approximately 60,000 women and 70,000 African-Americans (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010).

Beginning in the 1960s, further gains in educational access were made at the community college level due to increased availability of student financial aid. Starting in 1965, the Higher Education Act provided financial aid for college, thus making the possibility of a college education accessible for almost every citizen (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010). In 1963, the Vocational Education Act began a wave of federal funding that benefited the community colleges. In the following years, the Comprehensive Training and Employment Administration (1973), Job Training Partnership Act (1982), Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (1984), School-to-Work Opportunities Act (1994) and Workforce Investment Act (1998) were put into place (Cohen & Brawer, 2003).

As more organizations and the federal government increased their involvement and funding at the community college level, an interest in oversight and accountability mounted. One result was the publication of a report titled "A test of leadership: Charting the future of U.S. higher education" by The Secretary of Education's Commission on the Future of Higher Education in 2006, commonly referred to as the Spellings Commission. The report discussed the issue of access, because improvements still need to be made in the college completion rates of students of color. The commission also called for more disclosure about whether colleges were meeting their goals (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

As a result of the worst economic downturn in the United States since the Great Depression, the Obama Administration proposed $12 Billion dollars for community colleges through the American Graduation Initiative in July 2009. The report called for community colleges to increase the number of college graduates by 5 million by 2020. Funds were appropriated to be used for community college facility improvements and the development of more online courses, thus expanding access even further. Similar to the Spellings Commission, the report also called for greater accountability (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009).

This section overviewed the important events in the development of community colleges in the United States. The review started with the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 (American Association of Community Colleges, 2010) and continued through the American Graduation Initiative in July 2009 (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009). Throughout its history, community college have emphasized workforce development, educational access and presented an adult-friendly environment. Thus, community colleges have been a key educational option for adult women. In the following section, influential college student development theories will be summarized.

Theories of College Student Development

Santos (2004) stated "motivation is the key to understanding what triggers students' decisions to enter college." There are many potential reasons a student may be motivated to enroll, such as changes in their personal or professional lives. Understanding student motivation helps college personnel develop programs that ease the transition to college, thus potentially improving retention and student success.

Student development theories explain how students change, and some theories deal more with motivation than others. Several theories have been put forth to explain college student development. This section will be concentrate on four main categories of theories: identity development theories, cognitive-structural theories, typological theories, and typology theories and models of college impact (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Identity development theories explain how individuals develop by resolving developmental tasks and were advanced by Chickering (Chickering, 1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993), Josselson (1987), and Schlossberg (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984; Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman, 1995). Cognitive-structural theorists such as Perry (1981), Kohlberg (Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1984), and Gilligan (1982) explain how students develop intellectually. Unlike identity development and cognitive-structural theories, typological theories are not tied to stages. Instead, typology theorists such as Kolb (1984), Holland (1985, 1992), and Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1980) demonstrate individual differences in the way students view their worlds (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Finally, models of college impact set forth by theorists such as Astin (1970a, 1970b, 1991) and Tinto (1975, 1987, 1993) address how college changes students (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Identity Development Theories

Identity development theories explain how individuals develop by resolving developmental tasks. This section presents more information about theories advanced by Chickering (Chickering, 1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993), Josselson (1987), and Schlossberg (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984; Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman, 1995).

Chickering's Seven Vectors of College Student Development (1969) described seven developmental vectors that shaped identity during the college years. Using the term "vector" was an important distinction for Chickering, because it demonstrated that each vector possessed both a path and magnitude. Chickering used the analogy of a spiral rather than a straight line to explain the direction, and explained that the vectors build on each other, even though students may not move through each vector sequentially (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

In the first vector students develop competence that they can cope with the intellectual, physical and emotional challenges associated with college. For example, a student could make the transition from a successful high school to college athlete, or develop appropriate study skills. The second vector addresses communicating and controlling emotions, such as controlling their anger during a heated classroom debate. The challenge in the third vector is to move away from an independent life approach to a view of interconnectedness. One example is the challenge some student face with renegotiating their parental relationships as they become independent adults who are still connected to their nuclear families. The fourth vector is concerned with learning to build adult interpersonal relationships with people from diverse backgrounds, as well as deep and meaningful relationships with friends and romantic partners. Finding an identity is the major concern of the fifth vector, and can include becoming comfortable with physical appearance, sexual orientation, and cultural background, among other things. Establishing a purpose, including career goals, is the sixth vector. The final vector, developing a value system, deals with finding your own value system and making sure it

is congruent with the surrounding world (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

Josselson's Theory of Women's Identity Development (1987) is based on longitudinal studies of women and set out to adapt Marcia's model of identity formation to women. Using a qualitative interview approach with an initial group of 60 women, Josselson grouped women into four categories (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) based on their level of identity crisis and commitment. "Foreclosures" are women with a committed identity who have not experienced a crisis, and often follow in the footsteps of their family heritage. After experiencing a crisis, "identity achievers" make a commitment to an occupation and way of life. Although a painful process, "identity achievers" break ties with the family in order to find their own unique selves. "Moratoriums" are in a liminal state of exploration and are caught in a period of identity crisis. With time, many "moratorium" women will go on to the "identity achiever" stage. Finally, "identity diffusion" women are characterized by the absence of crisis and commitment sometimes due to psychopathology or emotional problems (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Josselson, 1987).

Schlossberg's Transition Theory proposed a four-pronged model for conceptualizing how personal differences, the surroundings and circumstances about the transition affect how an individual copes with change. Schlossberg presented four major factors that related to an individual's aptitude for coping with a transition, and these were called the "4 S's." The first S represents the "situation", or the factors surrounding the transition including timing and prior experience with similar changes. "Self" is concerned with the individual's personal resources, such as their attitude and outlook. "Support" is

comprised of the help that is available. Lastly, "strategy" consists of the techniques utilized to manage the change (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984; Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman, 1995).

This section summarized the identity development theories of Chickering(Chickering & Reisser, 1993), Josselson (1987), and Schlossberg (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984; Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman, 1995). Understanding student development theories is important, because it helps with conceptualizing how students grow and change. While identity development theories are useful, they do not directly address motivation and the current research focus. In the next section, the work of cognitive-structural theorists Perry (1981), Kohlberg (Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1984), and Gilligan (1982) will be overviewed.

Cognitive-Structural Theories

Cognitive-structural theories explain student's intellectual development. Perry (1981), Kohlberg (Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1984), and Gilligan (1982) are key theorists that will be overviewed (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). According to Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) these theories have several commonalities. The models are hierarchical and development is irreversible. The theories describe how a student constructs their own reality. Therefore, cognitive-structural theories are believed to be universal for all cultures.

Perry's Scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development presents nine positions that represent how individuals think about the world. Perry uses the term "position" to signify that the individual's perception originates in a specific point-of-view (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). King (1978 as cited in Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005)

assembled the positions into four groups. The first two positions represent "dualism", in which individuals perceive the world in absolutes, such as right and wrong. For the third and fourth positions, individuals realize people sometimes have differing perspectives, and a respect for the right of others to hold another point-of-view develops. During the fifth and sixth positions, "relativism" develops in which knowledge is contextualized and analytical skills are used to weigh options. In the final stages of the model, individuals develop their own unique set of values and beliefs about others (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perry 1981).

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development is a six-stage model about how people make ethical decisions. In the first two "preconventional" stages, students adhere to the rules in order to avoid trouble and follow the rules if it is self-serving. The "conventional" stages follow, characterized by an emphasis on appearing like a just person and rules are applied consistently. In the final or "postconventional" stages, individuals develop an awareness of human rights and attempt to make decisions with the other person's point-of-view in mind (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1984).

Gilligan's Theory of Women's Moral Development was developed in response to Kohlberg. Gilligan believes women were characterized by the "care" voice and men typified the "justice" voice. Women move through three levels during development. Initially, women are focused on personal survival and fulfilling their own needs and desires. In the second level, women strive for acceptance and consensus, and often demonstrate conventional feminine principles. During the final level, women take their

personal and other's needs into consideration when making moral decisions (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Gilligan, 1982).

This section summarized the cognitive structural theories of Perry (1981), Kohlberg (Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1984) and Gilligan (1982). These theories provide an important basis for conceptualizing how students think about world around them. Useful when designing developmentally appropriate curriculums, cognitive structural theories are helpful in conceptualizing how to challenge students to stretch to another stage. However, these theories do not directly address the current research focus of motivation. In the next section, typology theories, including the work of Kolb (1984), Holland (1985, 1992) and Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1980) will be discussed.

Typology Theories

Typological theories differ from identity development and cognitive structural theories, because they are not stage bound. Rather, Kolb, Holland, and Myers and Briggs presented theories that explain individual differences in the way students view their worlds (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

Kolb's Theory of Experiential Learning gives a four-stage model for conceptualizing the way students learn. During the "concrete experience" step, students are fully involved in a learning activity, such as a structured task. The "reflexive observation" step involves thinking about something that a student observed, and one example might be writing a paper about a movie. For the "abstract conceptualization" step, students bring together ideas by using their new knowledge to problem-solve. In the "active experimentation" phase, students apply their knowledge by trying new things out and testing hypotheses. Kolb's theory can inform the way instructors teach and also

explain how special programs like service-learning and cooperative education complete the learning cycle (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Kolb, 1984).

Holland's Theory of Vocational Interests emerged from his work as a vocational counselor employed in school, military and clinical environments. The theory rests on the idea of typing individual interests and matching them to a career that utilizes those interests (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Holland conceptualized six potential interest areas, and usually career counselors focus on the top two or three interests for matching purposes. The interests areas are as follows: (1) "realistic" interests related to the outdoors, protective services, construction and military service; (2) "investigative" interests related to science and math; (3) "artistic" interests including culinary arts and writing careers, as well as visual and performing arts; (4) "social" interests representing helping professions, including education and health sciences; (5) "enterprising" interests associated with business and sales careers; (6) "conventional" interests focused on organizing data, including clerical positions, finance and some computer-related careers (Borgen & Grutter, 2005; Holland, 1985, 1992).

The Myers-Briggs Personality Type Theory is a popular personality preference theory commonly used in career counseling and student leadership development. Katherine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers based their work on the psychoanalytic typologies of Carl Jung (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). According to Myers-Briggs Type Theory, four dichotomies represent key differences in individual's personalities, resulting in 16 potential personality types. The first difference addresses whether you are energized through your inner or outer world ("introversion" and "extroversion" respectively). The second dichotomy attends to how you gather

information, which is through your concrete experience ("sensing") or abstractly ("intuition"). The third dichotomy concentrates on how you make decisions, represented by "thinking" or "feeling." Finally, the fourth dichotomy focuses on how you organize the world around you, either through a structured ("judging") or more casual ("perceiving") approach (Hammer, 2007; Myers, 1980).

This section summarized the typology theories of Kolb (1984), Holland (1985, 1992) and Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1980). Typology theories are useful in career counseling, team building, working with student groups and conceptualizing experiential programs such as service-learning and cooperative education. However, typology theories do not directly address motivation and the current research focus. In the next section, models of college impact will be discussed.

Models of College Impact

The final group of student development theories consists of models of college impact. Both Astin (1970a, 1970b, 1991) and Tinto (1975, 1987, 1993) address how college changes students, and their work will be summarized in this section (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Astin's Involvement Theory (1970a, 1970b, 1991) discusses five ways students are physically and psychologically engaged in their college experience. Students can be involved with faculty, subject matter, peers, employment, and other activities, such as commuting to school and viewing television. For Astin, interacting with faculty is the most vital way to engage students, because instructors can influence students' level of accomplishment. In the past, connecting with faculty has been a challenge at the community college level, perhaps due to persistence and retentions rates. It is important

to consider both the extent of engagement and amount of time dedicated to an activity. For example, most community college students are commuters and therefore will not be engaged in the college as much as a student who lives on a college campus. One critique of Astin's work is that his research concentrated on traditional college students residing at four-year universities, and he still needs to address involvement for the adult community college population (Astin, 1970a, 1970b, 1991; Chaves, 2006).

Tinto's Interactionalist Theory also addresses learner persistence and retention. Tinto's theory assumes students enroll with different backgrounds, such as college readiness, talents, financial resources, support, and commitment to academic success. As students and colleges continuously interact within social and educational settings, persistence is dependent on how well students are integrated into the college community. Due to its unique commuter population, community colleges need to develop social and intellectual engagement in the classroom (Chaves, 2006; Tinto, 1975, 1987, 1993**).** Learning communities are one way to increase student engagement. Tinto, Russo, and Cadel (1994) found in their longitudinal study that students in learning communities achieve better academically and have better retention rates than students enrolled in traditional classes.

This section provided an overview of the four main categories of student development theories: identity development theories, cognitive-structural theories, typological theories, and typology theories and models of college impact (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Models of college impact focus on how the college and student interact with one another. Student development theories

have many applications, but they do not address motivation. In the next section, three adult education theorists who address motivation will be summarized.

Adult Education Theorists

This section provides a brief overview of four adult education theorists whose work addresses adult motivation to learn. First, Knowles' (2005) concept of andragogy about how and why adults learn will be summarized. Second, Kasworm's (2002) framework of three key themes about adult motivation to learn will be presented. Third, Aslanian and Brickell's (1980) "trigger and transitions" model for why adults choose to enroll in college is discussed, followed by a summary of Wolff's (1996) idea of gender shift. Finally, Houle's (1963) typology is overviewed, because it is the theoretical framework for the original Education Participation Scale (Boshier, 1991).

Malcolm Knowles developed a theory of andragogy, which sets forth six key assumptions about the way adults learn (Knowles et al., 2005). First, adults need to know why the learning is necessary before they will set out to learn something. Second, learners appreciate learning opportunities that respect their self-concept as adults who can make their own decisions. Third, adults desire education that utilizes their significant life experience. Fourth and most relevant to this research, adults are ready for learning when the new knowledge is necessary to cope with transitions occurring in their lives, such as moving from one developmental stage is another. Fifth, adults possess a "life-centered" orientation to learning, as opposed to children's focus on subjects. Motivation for learning is tied to the idea that learning will help adults deal with real-life challenges. Finally, the most powerful source of motivation for adults is internal. While adults can be motivated by external factors, such as promotions and salaries, the aspiration for internal

factors like a more satisfying job and feeling pride in one-self is greater. Several researchers have supported Knowles claim that adult students are more intrinsically motivated than other students (Bye, Pushkar, & Conway, 2007; Jacobson & Harris, 2008; Kasworm, 2002; Scala, 1996).

According to Kasworm (2003), it is important to give equal importance to reasons related to career aspirations and adult lives when considering the rationale for why adults enroll in college. Kasworm discussed three key themes motivating adults to participate in higher education due to (1) life changes such as divorce, lay-off, or an empty nest, (2) proactive enrollment as a result of several years of planning, or (3) a mixture of both. The idea that adults enroll in response to a life change is similar to the idea of "triggers and transitions" presented by Aslanian (2001a). While some adults enroll in response to a change in their lives, other adults intentionally commence their studies to create new opportunities for themselves with future rewards. These adults may move to live closer to a university, take a job that offers tuition assistance, or seek out a work schedule that is more conducive to their studies in order to prepare for enrollment. For adults who are planners, the process of getting ready to enroll takes time and is carefully thought-out. Some adults are a mix of both conditions; they have been carefully planning and now a life change is prompting their enrollment.

Aslanian and Brickell (1980) proposed a "trigger and transitions" model for why adults choose to enroll in college. Their model was based on interviews conducted by the College Board with a national representative sample of about 2,000 adults 25 years of age or older. Adults seek out higher education when they are moving from one status to another due to a change in their work, family, or marital status and leisure activities.

"Triggers" are the events or non-events that precede the decision to enroll and relate to the time of the decision to go back to school, such as divorce, children leaving home, or lay-off. "Transitions" describe the need to obtain more education, so the student can cope with the change in status. Aslanian and Brickell's work has been cited by many prominent authors in the adult education field during recent years, including Kasworm, Polson, & Fishback (2002), Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner (2007), and Miller, Bender, Schuh & Associates (2005).

Wolff (1996) reviewed adult education literature and conducted case studies to develop the idea of gender shift. As people age, they attempt to fulfill aspects of their personality that are traditionally associated with the opposite gender. Wolff provides recommendations of related courses, such as taxes and business for women and classes about personal enrichment and spirituality for men. Wolff recounts the case study of a nun who has become increasingly outspoken and developed leadership qualities as she has grown older. Another case study involves a male who is returning to school after being laid off and finally identifies himself as a student. He has also assumed more parenting duties while his wife continues to work.

According to Houle (1963), adult learners are "goal-oriented", "activity-oriented", or "learning-oriented." "Goal-oriented" learners have a theme of learning intermittently throughout their lives, although learning is not a constant activity. Typically, learning is initiated by "goal-oriented" learners due to a specific purpose. These types of learners usually read for a specific interest, such as trade publications (Houle, 1963).

"Activity-oriented" learners participate in learning for reasons other than interest in the content. Potential reasons include to (1) remedy loneliness; (2) meet others

(friends, romantic partners); (3) escape an unhappy relationship or other personal difficulty; (4) earn credits; (5) continue a family tradition; (6) out of habit. "Activity-oriented" learners are the types of people who take courses and enjoy joining groups (Houle, 1963).

For "learning-oriented" students, education is a continuous activity. "Learning-oriented" students are the type of people who (1) enjoy reading; (2) participate in groups and associations for educational purposes; (3) watch serious television programs; (4) select jobs and make other life choices based on the opportunity for growth; and (5) prepare for travel thoroughly in order to appreciate it. Intrinsically motivated, "learning-oriented" students possess a need to know (Houle, 1963).

This section provided a brief summary of theories that relate to the present research including Knowles' (2005) concept of andragogy, Kasworm's (2002) framework, Aslanian and Brickell's (1980) "trigger and transitions" model and Wolff's (1996) idea of gender shift. While these theorists discuss motivation, quantitative instruments based on these theories have not been developed for researchers to use. Boshier originally developed the Education Participation Scale based on Houle's typology (Boshier, 1991). Therefore, the EPS (A-form) was selected for use the proposed research. In the next sections, key research from national studies about adult motivations will be summarized and then research related to the factors on the Education Participation Scale will be discussed.

National Surveys on Adult Motivations to Pursue Further Education

In 1962, Johnstone and Rivera conducted the first study to examine the issue of why adults enroll in college (cited in Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007). The

researchers conducted interviews with a sample of almost twelve thousand families from across the nation and concluded,

> *The adult education participant is just as often a woman as a man, is typically under forty, has completed high school or more, enjoys an above-average income, works full-time and most often in a white-collar occupation, is married and has children, lives in an urbanized area but more likely in a suburb than large city, and is found in all parts of the country, but more frequently in the West than in other regions* (cited in Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007, p.8).

Following Johnstone and Rivera's study, several NCES and College Board surveys in recent years have included questions about why adults participate in higher education. In the first, Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) analyzed data about community college students from three major studies. In 2005, Horn, Cataldi, and Sikora compared data from the same three surveys with a focus on students who delayed enrollment after high school. Also in 2005, O'Donnell published a report examining data collected in the NCES National Household Education Surveys Program of 2003. Aslanian (2001a) reported the results of the most recent survey by the College Board, and Astin (1998) analyzed longitudinal data from CIRP.

Table 1

National Surveys on Adult Motivations to Pursue Further Education

Study	Method	Outcomes	Critical Features
Aslanian, 2001a	Conducted telephone interviews with sample of 1,500 adults 25 years of age and older	Eight-five percent of adults declared career as their primary reason for enrollment	College Board study
Astin, 1998	Examined data from 30 years worth of surveys of first year college students conducted by the Cooperative Institutional Research Program	Found increasing convergence of male and female career interests. Women report more interest in pursuing graduate degrees than males.	Astin attributed the change in women's educational aspirations to the women's movement
Horn, Cataldi, & Sikora, 2005	Examined data from 3 major national data sets. Compared students who delayed college enrollment a year or more	Students who delayed longer reported reasons related to a job change and better employment option more often.	National Center for Education Statistics
Hoachlander, Sikora, & Horn, 2003	Analyzed information from three national surveys	Found students who were 24 years of age or older: 45% attend for work skills, 23% to earn a degree/ certificate, 13% to transfer, 20% for personal improvement	National Center for Education Statistics
O'Donnell, 2005	12,725 participants, national telephone interviews, people who are 16 or over and not enrolled in high school or below	Females cite "to help change job or career field" more often (82%) than males (63%). Males cite reasons related to current position more frequently.	NCES National Household Education Surveys Program of 2003

Hoachlander, Sikora, & Horn (2003)

Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) discussed the educational goals of community college students in their examination of data from the 1999-2000 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study, the 1996/01 Beginning Postsecondary Students (BPS) Longitudinal Study, and the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS) of 1988, Fourth Follow-up. Overall, all three studies indicated that about 90% of community college students enroll to earn a credential or transfer to a university. The NELS and BPS found that about 20% of students who aim to earn an associate's degree or transfer to a university go on to achieve their goals. Roughly 50% of all community college earn some type of degree (including an associate's) or transfer to the university. Students take longer to achieve their goals, because 2/3 of community college students are enrolled part-time. Therefore, it takes about 2 ½ years for most students to complete a certificate. About 44% of the students who aim to earn a bachelor's degree are enrolled after 6 years.

Using data from the 1996/01 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, they concluded that among male and female students 24 years of age or older: 19.4% did not aim to earn a certificate or degree, 26.2% strived for a certificate, 45.3% endeavored for an associate degree, and 9.1% hoped to attain a bachelors/ transfer to a university. When asked about the primary purpose of their enrollment, 45.2% of the students 24 years of age or older attributed their participation in coursework to job skills, 22.8% cited earning a degree or certificate, 12.2% cited transferring to a four-year school, .4% mentioned transferring to somewhere other than a university, 19.5% mentioned personal growth. The researchers noted a difference in purpose among age groups. They concluded, "Students 24 years of age or older were more likely than younger students to

cite job skills as their purpose for enrolling. In contrast, students 24 years or older were less likely than students 18 years or younger to report transfer to a four-year institution as their purpose for enrolling (12 % vs. 50 %) (p.13-14)."

Besides detecting age differences in stated educational goals, Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) found gender differences too. Twenty-five percent of females aimed to earn a degree or certificate compared with 16% of males; however, men were more likely to aim to transfer to a university than women (42% vs. 32%). The fact that more males than females expressed an interest in earning a four-year degree conflicts with other research that the majority of women express higher educational goals than men (see Astin, 1998).

Horn, Cataldi & Sikora (2005)

Two years later, Horn, Cataldi and Sikora (2005) examined the same three national data sources as Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003), but focused on students who did not enroll in college immediately after high school. This was a seminal work cited in the American Council on Education publication *Adult Learners in the United States: A National Profile* (Paulson & Boeke, 2006). Overall, students' motivations changed according to the length of the delay in college enrollment. As the time between college enrollment and high school graduation increased, the need for job training or career opportunities dissipated. Among students who delayed enrollment after high school five to nine years, the number one reason cited for returning to school was "personal satisfaction of earning a degree" (31.6%), followed by "training to enter the workforce" (26.6%) and "improve job skills" (26.4%). On the other hand, students were more likely to report reasons related to career transitions and job skill improvement as the

time between college enrollment and high school graduation increased. For students who are delayed 10 or more years, the number one reason cited for returning to school was "improve job skills" (30%), followed by "personal satisfaction of earning a degree" (28.9%) and "change careers" (23.7%). The least popular reason for both groups was to qualify for a different job.

Comparing males and females, more females than males are represented as students get older (Horn et al., 2005). Of the students who did not experience any delay at all, 53.6% are female and 45.2% are male. Among students who delay five to nine years, 43.9% are male and 56.1% are female. Of students who delay 10 or more years, 66.4% are female versus 33.6% are males. Women often experience gaps in their work and education due to childrearing responsibilities. Community college is a popular educational option for students who delay attending school. Roughly 62% of the students who delay attending college for five or more years opt to enroll in a public community college.

NCES National Household Education Survey

Another seminal work cited in *Adult Learners in the United States: A National Profile* (Paulson & Boeke, 2006) is the NCES National Household Education Survey (O'Donnell, 2005). For this research, 12,725 homes were interviewed by phone and researchers spoke with anyone older than 16 not currently enrolled in high school. For every age group, the principal reason for attending college was "to maintain or improve skills or knowledge" and "to learn completely new skills or knowledge." Among students pursuing a vocational education, a larger percentage of students in the 45-54 year old demographic selected "to maintain or improve skills or knowledge" compared to "to

learn completely new skills of knowledge." For students over the age of 55, there were not enough cases to report.

According the NCES data (O'Donnell, 2005), women were more likely to enroll in school to change jobs (82% versus 63%), while men were more likely to cite reasons related to their current employment more frequently than females. For example, 81% of males stated they wanted "to maintain or improve skills or knowledge" while only 72% of females agreed with this statement. Thirty-one percent of males said they enrolled "because employer required or recommended it" versus 19% of females.

College Board Studies

In *Adult Students Today,* Aslanian (2001a) reports the findings of telephone interviews conducted by the College Board with a sample of 1,500 adults 25 years of age and older. The report has been cited by several distinguished adult education authors, including Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner (2007), Paulson & Boeke (2006), and Wlodkowski (2008). Aslanian used seven categories "to classify the transitions and the triggers into the following life areas: career, family, health, religion, citizenship, art and leisure (p. 16)." Eight-five percent of the adults declared career as their reason for enrollment. The adults talked about needing to learn for a career change, to gain a promotion, and to maintain their job skills in their current employment. Adults also mentioned family reasons (4%), leisure (4%), art (3%), health (1%), religion (1%), and citizenship (1%).

The College Board also asked adult students about the events that preceded their enrollment and related to the timing of their decision (Aslanian, 2001a). Every adult who specified a reason for their enrollment had an accompanying triggering event. Sometimes

the events were dramatic in nature, such as a lay-off or death of a spouse. Respondents also talked about other kinds of important events, such as a child leaving home, relocation or seeking a promotion. Overall, participants cited reasons related to career (71%), family (18%), leisure (6%), art (2%), health (1%), religion (1%), and citizenship (1%). Among students seeking an undergraduate degree, both two and four-year school students cited career (66%) and family (21%) as their main triggers.

Based on her research, Aslanian (2001b) concluded that the middle-aged Caucasian females were a major population among current college students. These women balance multiple roles, including families and careers. In general, their income levels are higher than the average U.S. household. Already possessing higher education, they become students again in order to enhance their earning potential. The fields of business, education and healthcare are the most popular program options. The women attend classes in the evening about as often as they do in the day.

Thirty Years of Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Data

Beginning in 1966, a survey has been administered to first-year college students by the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) annually (Astin, 1998). Over nine million students enrolled in over 1,500 colleges have completed the survey. Astin analyzed 30 years of data for trends. The most striking finding from his analysis was the longitudinal effect of the women's movement in the educational aspirations of females.

> *Some of the most obvious effects of the women's movement during the past 30 years can be seen in the greatly increased interest of women in pursuing advanced degrees. Whereas only two in five (40.35) aspired to graduate degrees in 1966, fully two-third (67.7%) are seeking such degrees among today's freshmen women…Note that the women began to show increasing interest in doctoral degrees when men's interest in such degrees was on the decline – the late 1960s and early 1970s, which is precisely the same time that the women's movement was beginning to gain momentum. Men's and women's interests*

> *continued to converge until 1990, by which time they had become virtually identical.* (p. 116-117)

Women's changing career interests caused the convergence between males and females interests. Women expressed less interest in traditionally female occupations, such as teaching and the arts, and were more interested in other fields, such as business and law (Astin, 1998). Women's views have altered significantly, and their career aspirations, ideals, and educational goals have shifted to more closely resemble those of men. In addition, the mind-sets of both genders about women's place in the world have grown to be more balanced. By providing longitudinal rather than cross-sectional data, the CIRP also demonstrates shifting social norms in the general public (Astin, 2003).

This section contained an overview of national surveys on adult motivations to pursue further education from the NCES, College Board and CIRP. Considerable evidence suggests adults pursue education primarily for career related reasons, including Aslanian (2001), Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003), and O'Donnell (2005). One study was found that suggested adults who delay enrollment in college five-nine years after high school are intrinsically motivated to earn a degree (Horn, Cataldi & Sikora, 2005). Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) concluded that males had higher educational aspirations than females; however, Astin (1998) found them to be similar. Next, the Education Participation Scale will be discussed, because it is a popular instrument among researchers of adult motivation to learn.

Educational Participation Scale

The Education Participation Scale is the most common instrument used to research motivation and educational participation. This section will discuss the theoretical background of the EPS and research related to each of the seven factors. First

developed by Boshier in 1971, the most current EPS was revised in 1991 by Boshier. Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007) discuss the importance of the EPS in *Learning in Adulthood*, "By far the most extensive work has been done with Boshier's 48 item EPS, later refined to 42 items (Boshier, 1991)." The original EPS is based on Houle's famous typology classifying three types of adult learners (Boshier, 1991).

Boshier decided to update the 1976 version of the EPS and developed a different factor structure. According to Boshier, the connections to the Houle typology were restrictive, because the typology was developed using a small sample (n = 22) that was not representative. Updating the EPS allowed Boshier to streamline scoring. The EPS (A-form) features seven factors (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). More information about the reliability, validity and development of the EPS (A-form) is presented in Chapter III.

In a study of 844 adults (523 women and 321 men) engaged in education, Boshier (1991) used discriminant analysis to examine how each of the seven EPS factors related to age, gender and ethnic origin. The group was comprised of 46.4% North Americans, 36.7% Asians, and 16.9% Europeans. His work is important because, "there has been little research between orientations and their ability to predict participant characteristics (gender, age, ethnic origin) (p. 163)." Several of his conclusions have direct relevance for the proposed research. In addition, other pertinent studies involving the EPS (Bova, 1979, 1981; Bova & Zelazek, 1984; Der-Karabetian & Best, 1984; Dia et al., 2005; Fujita-Stark, 1996; Gordon, 1982; Humphrey, 1999;) and college choice (Dixon & Martin, 1991; Joshi et al., 2009; Kurlaender, 2006; Lendy, 2009; Nomi, 2005; Santos,

2004; Somers et al., 2006; and Voorhees & Zhou, 2000) will be addressed. Next, a summary of each of the seven EPS factors will be presented.

Communication Improvement

Communication Improvement is defined as enrolling to develop communication skills, including written and oral in addition to social norms related to communication (Boshier, 1991). First, Boshier found men are more likely to be motivated by this factor than women. Second, after he added age to his canonical correlation analysis, the equation did not change significantly. Thus, Boshier concluded that gender was a better predictor than age. Third, Boshier found Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college to improve their communication skills than North Americans. This conclusion has face validity, because students who speak English as their second language would probably have more interest in improving their communication skills.

When Fujita-Stark (1996) compared curricular groups, she determined that students enrolled in personal interest courses, such as history, languages and communication, were more motivated by the Communication Improvement factor.

Rountree and Lambert (1992) studied the motivations and learning goals of women enrolled in the community college. Seventy-percent of the women in their study rated gaining knowledge to communicate better with others as very or extremely important. When rating their communication abilities, the majority of respondents rated their speaking and writing abilities as average or below average (61% and 57% respectively).

The findings from these studies suggest that men viewed Communication Improvement more important than woman. Furthermore, Communication Improvement

was not as important to students who spoke English as a first language when compared to students who have a first language other than English.

Social Contact

Social Contact is comprised of getting to know other people and developing friendships (Boshier, 1991). Boshier (1991) concluded men are more likely to be motivated by this factor than women. After he added age to his canonical correlation analysis, the equation did not change significantly. Thus, Boshier concluded that gender was a better predictor than age. Finally, Boshier found Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college for social contact reasons than North Americans.

In contrast, a study conducted by Morstain and Smart (1977) analyzed responses on the EPS from 648 evening students to determine what motivators influenced them to enroll. Morstain and Smart concluded 55% of social learners were female. Either motivators have changed over time for genders, or more research needs to be conducted in this area.

In Fujita-Stark's (1996) comparative study of curricular groups, students enrolled in arts and recreational courses were more motivated by the Social Contact factor. The group mean for the students enrolled in arts and recreational courses was higher than students enrolled in professional and personal development classes.

Santos (2004) administered a researcher developed instrument to determine the motivations of 179 Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college in the Bronx. During the analysis, Santos detected five motivational factors. Factors related to gaining knowledge, self improvement and a better job were ranked more highly than factors associated with improving social status and quality of social life.

Hispanic students from families with a higher income were less likely to attend college to improve their social lives.

Other researchers have administered the EPS, and found information pertinent to the Social Contact factor. The EPS was featured in studies focused on students in developmental courses, adult women and students with disabilities. One researcher (Humphrey, 1999) administered the EPS to community college students with disabilities in North Carolina. Students scored higher on the factors related to Social Contact as well Educational Preparation, Social Stimulation and Cognitive Interest. Using an earlier version of the EPS, researchers (Bova & Zelazek, 1984) determined "escape" and "stimulation" were moderately important to students of adult basic education who were 18-45 years of age. Students who were over the age of 55 valued this factor the most, while students 46-54 valued this factor the least. Der-Karabetian and Best (1984) administered the EPS to 200 college women ages 30-55. They concluded that women were less motivated by "social relations" when compared to the other factors, and scores on this factor did not change significantly due to program. Women of color tended to score higher on "social relations" than Caucasian females. Although they did not employ the EPS, Rountree and Lambert (1992) researched the motivations of adult women enrolled in the community college. Forty-one percent of the women in the study rated gaining knowledge to enhance the ability to be an active citizen in the community as very or extremely important.

In study of motivations of senior participants in the Elderhostel program, "escape/stimulation", "social welfare", "social relationships" and Cognitive Interest were compared using a modified version of an earlier rendition of EPS. The primary motivator

was Cognitive Interest followed by "social relationships." Among the sample of senior citizens, age and gender differences were not found (Bova, 1981). The same researcher also studied adults enrolled in college courses, and found students aged 18-22 and housewives were more motivated by "social relationships" than other groups (Bova, 1979).

Educational Preparation

Educational Preparation is comprised of remedying educational gaps to prepare for further higher education (Boshier, 1991). First, Boshier (1991) found men are more likely to be motivated by this factor than women. Second, after he added age to his canonical correlation analysis, the equation did not change significantly. Thus, Boshier concluded that gender was a better predictor than age and did not find any significance related to ethnic origin for this factor. Third, Boshier did not find a statistically significant difference among different ethnic origin groups for this factor. Likewise, this factor was not reported as a significant factor for adults enrolled in non-credit continuing education courses in Fujita-Stark's 1996 study.

Other researchers have investigated the importance of educational preparation. Kurlaender (2006) compared Caucasian, African-American and Latino students, and concluded that degree goals influence college choice. Students who wish to pursue a four-year degree are more likely to commence their studies at the university. Compared to Caucasian and African-American students, Latino students are less likely to have higher aspirations. Even Latino students who aspire to attain a bachelor's degree are less likely to begin their studies at the community college. In general, first generation college students are more likely to aspire to attain an associate's degree, rather than a four-year

degree (Nomi, 2005). One researcher (Humphrey, 1999) administered the EPS to community college students with disabilities in North Carolina. Students scored higher on the factors related to Educational Preparation as well Social Contact, Social Stimulation and Cognitive Interest.

Examining data from 30 years worth of surveys of first year college students conducted by the Cooperative Institutional Research Program, Astin (1998) found an increasing convergence of male and female career interests. Women report more interest in pursuing graduate degrees than males. Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) analyzed data from three National Center for Education Statistics surveys and reported 13% of students who were 24 years of age or older planned to transfer to a university.

Shank, Winchell, and Myers (2001) interviewed a convenience sample of 197 nontraditional women and men. When asked about factors that influenced enrollment, males and females expressed similar rationale. Adult women were more interested in business and healthcare. Researchers found a difference in educational aspirations among women related to age; older women were more interested in an Associates rather than a four year degree.

In a study of adult women enrolled in a community college (Rountree & Lambert, 1992), 54% of subjects reported entering community college to complete prerequisites to apply for a higher education program. Fifty-percent of the women rated their scholastic ability above average. However, confidence in mathematical ability was low, with 60% of women rating their skills average or below average. The majority of women rated their reading abilities above average (60%), compared to 39% for speaking and 43% for writing skills.

In addition, student goals are fairly stable. Voorhees and Zhou (2000) found almost 80% of community college student's goals do not change after initial enrollment. If students change their goals, they are most likely to change them only once. When goals change, they also tend to become less focused.

Professional Advancement

Professional Advancement is defined as gaining a promotion in a current position or finding a better employment opportunity elsewhere (Boshier, 1991). For this factor, Boshier (1991) did not find a statistically significant difference for gender or age. Boshier found Asians and Europeans were less likely to enroll in college for professional reasons than North Americans.

However, gender differences were found in the work of Morstain and Smart in 1974 and Morstain and Smart in 1977. Morstain and Smart administered the Education Participation Scale (EPS) to 611 students enrolled in adult education courses. Men cited reasons related to complying with work regulations more often and differences between males and females increased with age. In a similar study focused on adults enrolled in evening studies, Morstain and Smart (1977) determined that 58% of the individuals who were attending for career related reasons were male. In contrast, another study using the EPS found that women were more motivated by Professional Advancement than males (Bova, 1979).

One research study suggested differences exist on the Professional Advancement scale depending on program of study. Basham and Buchanan (2009) found differences in motivation related to Professional Advancement in their comparison of Masters level social work and MBA students. Their research suggested social work students are more

motivated by the opportunity to gain knowledge and business students were more motivated by enhanced career opportunities. Another study found health care and clerical professionals scored higher on this factor (Bova, 1979).

When Fujita-Stark (1996) compared curricular groups, she determined that students enrolled in professional development courses were more motivated by the "professional development" factor than other groups. The group mean for the professional interest group was 18.1, compared to 10.8 for the arts and recreational group and 13.8 for the personal development group.

Other researchers interested in college choice have investigated the importance of professional advancement. Nomi (2005) found first generation college students are motivated to attend college for professional reasons. Eighty-seven percent of first generation college students view attaining a secure position as "very important." Students from families with higher levels of income do not value job security as much. First generation college students are more likely to emphasize compensation. In a study of Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college, Santos (2004) determined that getting a better job was more important than social factors, but less important than personal improvement and gaining knowledge. Somers et al. (2006) also found a theme among focus groups with community college students that they were motivated by educational goals tied to an ambition for a better position.

Rountree and Lambert's study (1992) of adult women in a community college provides further support for the importance of professional development. Seventy percent of the women in the study rated gaining an education to further their job skills and work performance as very or extremely important. The same percentage rated learning more to

improve their opportunities for a good salary or obtain a promotion as very or extremely important. The study implies many women seek promotions, rather than entirely new careers. Fifty-one percent of the subjects rated starting a new career as very or extremely important compared to 70% for gaining a credential for the type of position they really desire.

A group of researchers (Dia et al., 2005) administered a modified version of the EPS to social workers engaged in continuing education, and determined that professional reasons were the primary motivator. In a similar study, engineers engaged in continuing education also were motivated by this factor during an administration of a modified version of the EPS (Samers, 1982). Using an earlier version of the EPS, researchers (Bova & Zelazek, 1984) determined Professional Advancement was more important to students of adult basic education who were younger than 50 than students who were older than 50.

In addition, several national surveys have supported that career reasons are a primary motivator for adult students (Aslanian, 2001a; Hoachlander, Sikora, & Horn, 2003; Horn, Cataldi, & Sikora, 2005; O'Donnell, 2005). O'Donnell found women cite career change reasons more often (82%) than males (63%). Males cite reasons related to current position more frequently. In his analysis of Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) data, Astin (1998) pointed out that the women's movement had caused a convergence to occur in gender differences over the past 30 years. Women are expressing higher educational aspirations and considering a broader range of career opportunities. Recent research in the last ten years seems to support Astin's findings with less overall

gender differences being reported. Another researcher supported the idea of interest convergence (Hanner, 2000).

No significant differences were found for gender in a study using a mixed methods approach (Kinser & Deitchman, 2007). Researchers compared "tenacious persisters" and "standard persisters" at a community college. Tenacious persisters are adults who delayed enrolling in college at least three years after graduation or who stopped out. Three factors were cited as "very important" reasons for returning to college: getting a better job (82%), desire to "do something for myself" (77%) and attaining individual goal of earning a degree (61%).

Der-Karabetian and Best (1984) administered the EPS to 200 college women ages 30-55. They concluded that women had scores in the moderate range for Professional Advancement when compared to the other factors, and students enrolled in liberal arts courses tended to score the lowest on this factor. Subjects who were unemployed scored higher on this factor. Another researcher using the EPS found a relationship may exist between career goals and motivations (Gordon, 1982).

Family Togetherness

Family Togetherness is comprised of narrowing gaps between generations and developing familial bonds. This factor was added during the development of the EPS (A-form) and was not included in earlier versions of the instrument (Boshier, 1991). The research is inconclusive about the role that family plays as a motivator for adults pursuing further education. Two studies suggested that women value their families and personal lives as key motivators to enroll in school more than men (Bers & Smith, 1987; Boshier, 1991). Two studies found family and children to be an important influence for both males

and females (Hensley & Kinser, 2001; Scanlon, 2008). The influence of family does not seem to vary depending on program type (Fujita-Stark, 1996). Two studies found that women were more likely to enroll if they had more demands on their time, such as having young children in the house (Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995; Hostetler, Sweet & Moen, 2007). Women who are divorced are more likely to return to school (Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995). Family members play an important role, because they encourage students to enroll (Dixon, 1991); however, this influence is not as strong for first-generation college students (Nomi, 2005).

Bers and Smith (1987) conducted focus groups with 55 women and 15 men who were at least 25 years of age when they matriculated in college. Women attributed their decision to enroll to change in personal life or need for a career change. Conversely, men did not cite reasons related to their personal or family lives as important. The authors commented that the focus groups did not support a common belief that women enroll so they may prepare to enter or re-enter the work-force, because most participants were already employed.

Parents and children are another theme in the literature. In a qualitative study that analyzed written responses of 74 adult students enrolled in an orientation course, researchers found that reasons discussed by respondents for returning to school were: enhanced self-awareness, career and financial motives, and familial influences (Hensley & Kinser, 2001). Most parents (male and female) mentioned their children as the reason they enrolled. Other studies have downplayed the influence of family in favor of career-related reasons (Aslanian, 2001). Lendy (2009) conducted focus groups, and concluded that college choice was important to parents as well. Parents wanted their children to

have the best education possible and believed their child's college choice was indicative of their parenting. Many parents also viewed community college as a wise choice.

Another qualitative study cited family as an important influence (Scanlon, 2008). Researchers conducted a series of interviews with 35 Australian students aged 19-55 over 3 years. Identified central themes for motivation to return to school included: being a role model for children, gaining employment, being laid-off, finishing something they started, chance to reinvent themselves, and achieving a dream.

Family can play a role in the type of college that students choose to attend. In 1991, Dixon found that students often chose a particular college because they were advised by others, especially their parents. Joshi, Beck, and Nsiah (2009) found students from families of origin with lower socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to choose a community college than students who attend universities. Nomi (2005) surmised that first generation college students are less likely to be influenced by their parents to enroll in college. Family and friends are often trusted more than college and high school faculty and staff, because students believe school employees encourage students to attend college as part of their jobs (Sommers et al., 2006).

Boshier (1991) concluded men are less likely to be motivated by this factor than women. Conversely, women are more likely to be motivated by this factor than men. After he added age to his canonical correlation analysis, the equation did not change significantly. Thus, Boshier concluded that gender was a better predictor than age. Boshier concluded Asians and Europeans were less likely to enroll in college for Family Togetherness reasons than North Americans (Boshier, 1991).

When Fujita-Stark (1996) compared curricular groups, she determined that students had similar scores in all three groups studied for the Family Togetherness factor. The group mean for the personal interest group was 9.4, compared to 8.6 for the arts and recreational group and 7.5 for the professional development group. When compared to other factors, Family Togetherness was not identified as a strong motivator for students in the study.

In a related study, Hostetler, Sweet and Moen (2006) analyzed data from the Cornell Ecology of Career Study (*N*=4,637 participants). Researchers examined data from both husbands and wives to ascertain how couples work together on their career goals. They concluded that the women with the most job and family demands were the most likely to return to college. Bradburn, Moen, and Dempster-McClain (1995) found adult women are more likely to return to school prior to their younger children leaving the household. The empty nest had a negative impact on women's college going rates. A cohort effect exists, with women from more recent generations being more likely to return to school after their children were born (Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995). In a broad review of the literature, Galvin (2009) found research on divorce among post-secondary students was limited. Becoming divorced or widowed has been shown to be positively related to the women's college going rate (Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995).

This section summarized research about how family serves a motivator for adult females enrolled in college. Some studies indicate that family plays an important role as a motivator for adult women (Bers & Smith, 1987; Hostetler, Sweet & Moen, 2006; Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995). Other studies found no differences

between males and females (Hensley & Kinser, 2001; Scanlon, 2008). The current research utilized the EPS, which includes a factor about the influence of family. Therefore, this study advanced knowledge in this area.

Social Stimulation

Social Stimulation is defined as participating in education to remedy sadness, ennui, and loneliness (Boshier, 1991). Boshier (1991) did not find a statistically significant gender or age. Boshier concluded Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college for Social Stimulation reasons than North Americans.

In 1977, Morstain and Smart administered the EPS to a sample of 648 students and conducted cluster analysis identifying five types of adult learners: "social, stimulation-seeking, life change, non-directed, and career-oriented." 75% of stimulation seekers were female. Women's motivations may have changed over time or more research needs to be done in this area. In a study of adults enrolled in college courses, the researcher found students aged 18-22 were more motivated by stimulation than other age groups (Bova, 1979).

When Fujita-Stark (1996) compared curricular groups, she determined that students enrolled in arts and recreational courses were more motivated by Social Stimulation. The group mean for the arts and recreational group was 10.9, compared to 8.9 for the professional development group and 9.6 for the personal development group.

Other researchers have investigated the social importance of college to students. In a study of Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college, Santos (2004) determined that social factors were less important than personal improvement, gaining knowledge and getting a better job. Students who come from

families with more income are less likely to attend college for social reasons. One researcher (Humphrey, 1999) administered the EPS to community college students with disabilities in North Carolina. Students scored higher on the factors related to Social Stimulation as well Social Contact, Educational Preparation and Cognitive Interest. Using an earlier version of the EPS, researchers (Bova & Zelazek, 1984) determined "escape" and "stimulation" were moderately important to students of adult basic education who were 18-45 years of age. Students who were over the age of 55 valued this factor the most, while students 46-54 valued this factor the least.

Der-Karabetian and Best (1984) administered an earlier version of the EPS to 200 college women ages 30-55. They concluded that women had scores in the moderate range for "stimulations" when compared to the other factors, and the level of importance did not vary due to academic program. Caucasian subjects who were unemployed scored highest on this factor.

Cognitive Interest

The final factor, Cognitive Interest is comprised of pursuing an education for intrinsic reasons due to a search for knowledge (Boshier, 1991). Boshier (1991) did not find a statistically significant gender or age. Boshier concluded Asians and Europeans were less likely to enroll in college for Cognitive Interest reasons than North Americans.

Morstain and Smart (1974) found gender and age differences when they administered the Education Participation Scale (EPS) to 611 students enrolled in adult education courses. Women scored higher on studying subjects that related to their interests. Overall, differences between males and females increased with age on the

scales. In a study of adults enrolled in college courses, the researcher found students aged 40-45 were more motivated by Cognitive Interest than other age groups (Bova, 1979).

In Fujita-Stark's (1996) comparative study of curricular groups, students enrolled in arts and recreational courses and personal development courses were more motivated by Cognitive Interest. The group mean for the students enrolled in arts and recreational courses and personal development courses was 18.0 and 18.2 respectively. The professional development group mean was 15.7.

Other researchers have studied the importance of cognitive interest in college enrollment. In a study of Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college, Santos (2004) determined that gaining knowledge was the most important factor motivating students to enroll, followed by self-improvement, getting a better job and social reasons respectively. One researcher (Humphrey, 1999) administered the EPS to community college students with disabilities in North Carolina. Students scored higher on the factors related to Cognitive Interest as well Social Contact, Educational Preparation and Social Stimulation. Der-Karabetian and Best (1984) administered an earlier version of the EPS to 200 college women ages 30-55. For Cognitive Interest, minority women scored higher and Caucasian subjects who were unemployed scored lowest.

In study of motivations of senior participants in the Elderhostel program, "escape/stimulation", "social welfare", "social relationships" and Cognitive Interest were compared using a modified version of an earlier rendition of EPS. The primary motivator was Cognitive Interest followed by "social relationships." Among the sample of senior citizens, age and gender differences were not found (Bova, 1981).

In a study of 123 women over the age of 23 enrolled in undergraduate or graduate classes featuring the EPS, the top ranked reasons for enrollment were first "for personal satisfaction/ happiness" and second "to become better educated and informed" (Hanner, 2000). Reasons related to job opportunities were ranked in the middle of the scale. This research does not support the idea that adults are primarily motivated to enroll in college for career related reasons. Instead, it points to a more general intrinsic motivation. However, Hanner's research supported the idea of interest convergence, because business was a popular career choice for women.

Rountree and Lambert (1992) studied the motivations and learning goals of women enrolled in the community college. Fifty-two percent of the women rated gaining knowledge for "intellectual curiosity" as very or extremely important. Fifty-two percent of the women cited growing and cultivating their intellectual abilities as very or extremely important. Half the women rated learning more about something simply because it is interesting as very or extremely important. Finally, 59% of the subjects rated "to feel the enjoyment and have the experience of learning on my own (p. 90)" as very or extremely important.

Samers (1982) examined the relationship between locus of control as measured by the Adult Nowicki –Strickland Internal-External Scale (ANSIE) and motivational factors as measured by the EPS. The researcher concluded

Taking courses in order to "escape" from their work or other aspects of their current existence is more common for those with high ANSIE scores (feel that they are controlled by external forces) – a not surprising finding. Taking courses for the sake of "knowledge" itself was more likely among those with low ANSIE scores, that is, those who felt internally motivated (Samers, 1982, p.62). *While ANSIE did show some significant results, none were particularly important* (p. 98).

This section summarized relevant research about each of the seven EPS (A-form) factors, which consist of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991).

The final sections discuss the purpose of the dissertation research and summarize Chapter Two.

Purpose of Research

A profile analysis comprised of a repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) were conducted to gain a deeper understanding of what motivations were important for adult women to enroll in community college and compare the women's profile to males. A correlational approach examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Multiple regression analyses were utilized to investigate both the direct and indirect relationships among the variables. Figure 2 contains the hypothesized relationships between the outcome variables (seven motivators) and the predictor variables of gender, English as a first language, and age in the multiple regression analyses.

Summary

Donaldson and Townsend's literature review (2007) advocated for more research with adult students, and only identified two studies focusing on women. Given the

number of adult women attending community colleges, it is important to conduct more research into this unique population. Kasworm (2003) believes more researchers need to give equal consideration to reasons for attending college related to career aspirations and adult lives, and this proposed study would contribute to the body of literature about what motivates adult women to enroll in the community college. After examining 30 years of data, Astin (1998) observed a longitudinal effect of the women's movement on the educational aspirations of females and a convergence of males and females career interests. If women's educational and career aspirations have been changing over time, more current research needs to be conducted to update the body of literature. A study that investigated what motivates adult women to enroll in the community college may assist student affairs personnel and college faculty with developing future programs focused on enhancing student success.

The review of literature contained what is known about what motivates adult women and other important historical and contextual information. First, the review commenced with an overview of the history of community colleges and student development theories. Second, Knowles (2005), Kasworm (2002), Wolff (1996), and Houle's (1963) theoretical works were presented. Third, national surveys by National Center for Education Statistics, College Board and Cooperative Institutional Research Program were briefly summarized. Fourth, information about the seven factors of the Educational Participation Scale (A-form) was overviewed. Finally, the purpose of the research was presented. Chapter Three will detail the research methodology, including population, sample, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter Four will report

the study's findings, and Chapter Five will feature a discussion of the results and conclusion.

CHAPTER III: METHODS

The goal of this research was to investigate what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to participate in higher learning. This chapter will detail the method of the study, including the population, sample, and procedures for data collection and analysis.

Participants and Setting

The research participants were selected from a population of students enrolled in a southeastern United States community college. This section will present demographic information about the college and a description of its setting, as well as the selection criteria and sampling.

Demographic Data

Demographic data for the entire college were obtained for the most recent academic year available and are presented in Table 2 below (Community College Planning and Research, 2009). Total headcount for the college is 61,403. The college has more females than males (53% vs. 47%). The college has a diverse student population comprised of white (48%), black, non-Hispanic (33%), Hispanic (11%), Asian/Pacific Islander (4%), race unknown/other (4%) and American Indian/ Alaska Native (< 0%). Students come from many different age groups, specifically, younger than 21 years of age (18%), 21-30 (34%), 31-40 (21%), 41-50 (16%), and older than 51 (11%).

Table 2

Demographic Data for 2008-2009

Description	Number	Percent
Total Headcount	61,403	
Males	29,057	47%
Females	32,246	53%
American Indian/ Alaska Native	274	0%
Asian/ Pacific Islander	2,347	4%
Black, non-Hispanic	20,166	33%
Hispanic	6,553	11%
White	29,554	48%
Race Unknown/ Other	2,509	4%
<21 years	10,855	18%
21-30 years	20,878	34%
31-40 years	13,031	21%
41-50 years	9,776	16%
>51 years	6,863	11%

Setting

The college is located in a large metropolitan region, and draws from students in surrounding counties and a nearby state. Sixty-nine percent of the students live within the county, 13% live in neighboring counties, 3% reside in other counties within the state,

3% are out-of-state, and 9% are international students (Community College, 2009). According to the U.S. Census, American Community Survey 2007, (cited in Charlotte Chamber, 2009), 716,874 people resided in the city in 2009 and an additional 935,304 people lived in the county. The median age is 34.2 for males and 36 for females. In 2007, the county was predominately white (60%) with 30% Black and 10% other. The unemployment rate for the metropolitan region was 11.6% in September 2009 (Employment Security Commission of North Carolina, 2009).

Selection Criteria and Sampling

Every student who is enrolled in curriculum courses at the community is provided with a college email address. The college generated a list of email addresses of potential subjects who are at least 18 years of age and are taking at least one curriculum course. It was important for students to be currently enrolled in at least one curriculum class, because they would have an active and accurate email account issued by the college. In addition, they would be more likely to check their email messages to receive college related communications. Selecting students attending curriculum courses also helped target students who were potentially seeking a degree, diploma or certificate from the college, rather than students taking short term personal interest classes.

Three thousand students who met the inclusion criteria were randomly selected and invited to participate in this study. Students were randomly selected using computer software by the community college's planning and research department. Both males and females were included in the sample.

Procedure

This section provides information about the procedures that were followed and the instruments that were used to provide data to address research questions. The research conformed to suggested guidelines for conducting research with humans. Participants completed the EPS (A-form) and demographic questionnaire following the common process for administering online surveys.

Institutional Review Board Approvals

The researcher submitted a protocol application to the UNC Charlotte Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the research was deemed exempt, because it posed no risk for human subjects. In addition, the researcher submitted a research proposal form to the community college's planning and research department and obtained permission to conduct research. IRB approval documents are provided in Appendix A.

As a part of the online survey, a note was provided to ensure informed consent and the rights of human subjects, such as the purpose of the research, researcher, explanation, length of time for participation, risks, confidentiality, and benefits. A statement about fair treatment and a volunteer statement were also included. The note was modeled after a cover letter used in a dissertation research study conducted recently at the community college (Lander, 2009). The cover letter is available in Appendix B. Informed consent was assumed if the participants completed the instruments.

Data Collection

The research design involved collecting data using the Internet and an online version of the instruments created using Survey Share. Boshier developed the EPS (A-form) in 1991, and items used in the current research were taken from Table 1 of Fujita-

Starck (1996). Scores for each factor were calculated by averaging all the items within the factor, which results in 1 to 4 factor score.

The survey was available for a two week administration period and students completed the survey anytime they could access the Internet. The survey was distributed through the college's email system and each email was personalized with the student's name. The initial email is available in Appendix B. A reminder email was sent to increase response rates, and is available in Appendix D. The span of time between emails was 7 days. The survey was both anonymous and confidential.

Due to logistical concerns and a desire to preserve a perception among subjects of anonymity and confidentiality, no incentives were used in the current research. Muñoz-Leiva et al. (2009) found personalizing emails and sending more frequent reminders led to a higher response rate, and this method was used in this study.

This section provided a summary of how the research conformed to IRB standards and how the data was collected by distributing an online survey. The next section describes the instruments used in data collection in more detail.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used during data collection. First, the EPS (A-form) as employed to determine what motivates students to return to college. Second, a demographic questionnaire was used to collect information to describe the sample.

The Educational Participation Scale (EPS). Boshier developed the EPS (A-form) in 1991, and items used in the current research were taken from Fujita-Starck (1996). The instrument was used to determine what motivates students to return to college, because it is the most common instrument used to research motivation and educational participation.

First developed by Boshier in 1971, the most current EPS was revised in 1991 by Boshier. Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007) discuss the importance of the EPS in *Learning in Adulthood*, "By far the most extensive work has been done with Boshier's 48 item EPS, later refined to 42 items (Boshier, 1991)." The original EPS is based on Houle's famous typology (Boshier, 1991).

Boshier (1991) explains the five step process undertaken to develop the EPS (A-form), which is designed to quantitatively assess the qualitative reasons students enroll in college. First, 120 students were asked to write the five reasons why they enrolled in college. Working with an assistant, Boshier coded and grouped these reasons. Second, Boshier administered the resulting assessment to 280 students, and analyzed the data to produce 42 factors. Third, he piloted the refined instrument with 121 college students and 21 female inmates. Fourth, Boshier administered the instrument to a diverse group of students at eight different sites, including an ESL program and an international language center in Singapore. In addition, 65 individuals completed the instrument a second time after six weeks. Finally, an interviewer worked with 9 students to assess predictive validity.

The EPS is both a widely recognized and well supported instrument. Researchers have investigated the psychometric qualities of the original instrument extensively (Boshier, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1984, 1985; Boshier & Collins, 1982, 1983, 1985; Furst, 1986). Considerable research has been completed illustrating the reliability and validity of the original EPS (Boshier, 1971; Boshier & Collins, 1985, Morstain & Smart, 1974, 1977), including examining the factors (Boshier, 1971, 1991; Boshier & Collins, 1985; Morstain & Smart, 1974, 1977). Later, the reliability and validity of the EPS (A-form)

was well documented (Boshier, 1991; Fujita-Stark, 1996). Flynn (2006) found over 100 dissertations employing the EPS featuring approximately 60,000 participants. The EPS (A-form) continues to be utilized by current researchers, including a recent study comparing the motivations and aspirations of social work and business students (Basham & Buchanan, 2009).

Boshier (1991) developed the EPS (A-form), which is comprised of six items for each of the seven factors representing a total of 42 potential reasons for enrollment. Boshier developed the EPS (A-form), because the original form was limited by its connections to Houle's typology, to improve ease of scoring, and better reflect the mind-set of the current population. Subjects use a four-point scale ("no influence", "little influence", "moderate influence, or "much influence") to rate how much each item impacted their decision (Boshier, 1991, p.151). "No influence" was scored as 1 and "much influence" received as 4. Factors on the EPS were calculated using the average of the items related to each factor (Boshier, 1991). A description of each factor for the EPS (A-form) is presented in Table 3 (Boshier, 1991; Boshier & Collins, 1985), as well as information about reliability (Boshier, 1991).

Table 3

Education Participation Scale A-Form Factors and Reliability

Factor	Reliability Coefficient	Mean Stability Over-Time Coefficients
Communication Improvement (COM) – focuses on improving oral and written communication skills, including "customs" related to communication	.89	.56
Social Contact (SOC) – meeting others and establishing friendships	.91	.75
Education Preparation (EDUC) – remedying educational gaps and getting ready for higher level training	.80	.61
Professional Advancement (ADV) – improving stature in a current position or preparing for a better opportunity	.80	.70
Family Togetherness (FAM) – improving familial relations and closing gaps between generations	.82	.74
Social Stimulation (STIM) – finding solace from ennui, isolation, and sadness	.80	.58
Cognitive Interest (COG) – learning for its intrinsic reasons and developing a questioning mind	.76	.60

Note: $p < .001$

Similar to the original form, the EPS (A-form) has been shown to have considerable construct, concurrent, and predictive validity, as well as reliability. Regarding construct validity, Boshier (1991) explained, "In this study the chief evidence pertaining to construct validity is the unambiguous nature of the orientations that stemmed from factor-analysis of the EPS (A-form) data. Consistently high loadings suggest that the items are good measures of their underlying orientations (p.153)." The test contained ten items from the original EPS. Boshier administered both instruments to 23 students and found "considerable" concurrent validity between the two forms. With

the exception of one student, strong congruence existed between the interviewer and student's estimates of EPS scores, thus supporting predictive validity. Boshier conducted studies in 1991 to test the internal consistency and reliability of the newest version of the EPS. Initially, Boshier calculated the reliability coefficient for the factors. After six weeks, Boshier administered the instrument to a subgroup of the sample and estimated test-retest reliability in the range of .56 to .75. As a result, Boshier surmised that the EPS (A-form) was a sound research instrument demonstrating internal consistency and stability.

Further support of the factor and construct validity of the EPS (A-form) is evident in the work of Fujita-Stark (1996), which analyzed the responses of 1,142 university students. For example, the overall alpha for the instrument was .92. Her work included calculating the reliabilities for each factor as .87, .95, .75, .91, .77, .82, and .83 respectively. Specifically, the alpha coefficients for the first, third and fifth factors were somewhat lower than Boshier's findings (1991), and the reliability coefficients of the remaining factors were higher.

Demographic Questionnaire. A questionnaire featuring questions about age, gender, program of study, and relationship and employment status was included. These were similar questions to the ones posed by Flynn (2006) in a similar dissertation with adult graduate students, but the items have been modified to fit the setting and current research focus. Demographic data can be used as a control and to gain insight into the generalizability of the results.

This section provided an overview of the instruments used in the study. The EPS (A-form) was used to measure what motivates students to return to college. A

demographic questionnaire collected descriptive data. Appendix C features a copy of each instrument applied in the research. In the next section, the researcher will provide an overview of how the data was analyzed.

Data Analysis

A repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) was run to determine what motivates adult women to enroll in community college.

A correlational approach examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Multiple regression analyses were utilized to investigate both the direct and indirect relationships among the variables.

Correlational research involves several important assumptions and limitations, particularly outliers, singularity, multicollinearity and normality. Prior to analysis, the researcher screened the data for missing information, assumptions and outliers. An examination of bivariate scatterplots was used to indicate if there is a linear relationship between all the variables. An analysis of the variance inflation factor (VIF) collinearity statistic was used to show whether all values are less than 2. Finally, visual inspection of a scatterplot of the multiple regression was utilized to detect randomness (Huck, 2008).

The researcher analyzed data using SPSS with significance level of .05. In addition, testing was conducted at a more stringent level (.017), because of the multiple tests being conducted. This level of significance means a 5% chance exists of a Type I error occurring, meaning the researcher rejects a null hypothesis when it is actually true. The .05 probability was selected because the consequences of committing a Type I error in this study are not life threatening. In the field of education, this level of significance is commonly employed (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2006). In a similar dissertation featuring graduate students, Flynn (2006) set alpha at .05 to test a hypothesis related to genders and EPS (A-form) factors.

Multiple regression analyses were used to examine the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predict the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form). Figure 2 contains the hypothesized relationships for all the multiple regression analyses. During the analysis, descriptive statistics, as well as the unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), semipartial correlations (sr_i), *t*-values, *p*-values and correlation coefficients were reported.

This section provided an overview of the data analysis. First, a repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender), was run to gain a deeper understanding of what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. Next, a correlational approach incorporating multiple regression analyses examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predict the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form). Assumptions, limitations, and the tests that

were conducted were presented. In the next section, a summary of Chapter Three concludes this segment of the dissertation.

Summary

The goal of this research was to investigate what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to participate in higher learning. First, a repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) was run to gain a deeper understanding of what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. Then, a correlational approach examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Subjects from a southeastern community college completed surveys online to address these research questions. Online survey methods were used to collect data for the research. A version of the EPS (A-form), a widely recognized and well supported instrument, was used to quantify data about motivations. A questionnaire featuring questions about age, gender, program of study, relationship and employment status and education was included. Figure 2 contains the hypothesized relationships for the multiple regression analyses. Chapter Four will report the study's findings, and Chapter Five will feature a discussion of the results and conclusion.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The goal of this research was to investigate the motivations of adult women enrolled in a community college by administering an online version of the EPS (A-form) and a questionnaire. Using profile analysis differences between the motivational factors were examined. Next, a correlational approach was used to examine the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). This chapter commences with a description of the research participants followed by an account of the profile analysis. Finally, a summary of the differences in the seven motivation factors and analyses determining the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) is presented.

Participants

Three-thousand students older than 18 who are taking at least one curriculum course at a community college were randomly selected to receive an invitation to participate in the study by email. Three hundred and sixty-seven students completed the survey for a response rate of 12%. Twenty-eight percent were males and 72% were females. The majority of students were in their early 30s (M=33.7, SD=12.1). Ethnicity of

the group varies with 47% White/Caucasian (*N*=173), 36% African-American/Black (*N*=133), 10% Latino/Hispanic (*N*=38), 6% Asian-American/Asian (*N*=21), and 1% Native American/ Alaskan (*N*=2). Fifteen percent of the participants indicated they speak a language other than English as their first language. Participants indicated a variety of academic goals, represented by 38.4% Associate of Applied Science (*N*=141), 39.4% College Transfer Program (*N*=128), 13.6% indicating "other", 5.7% diploma (*N*=21), 4.9% certificate (*N*=18), and 2.5% undecided (*N*=9). Diplomas and certificates are shorter term programs than attaining an Associate of Applied Science or completing the College Transfer Program. The majority or 43% of the participants were unemployed (*N*=156). A quarter of the participants were employed part-time (*N*=92) and 35% worked full-time (*N*=119). In addition, the majority or 51.8% of participants were single (*N*=190), followed by 34.9% married (*N*=128), 8.2% divorced (*N*=30), 3.5% separated (*N*=13), and 1.6% widowed (*N*=6) respectively.

Despite using random sampling, the participants differed in some ways from the college population (Community College Planning and Research, 2009). While the college has more females than males (53% vs. 47%), more females participated in the study (72%). The college has a diverse student population comprised of white (48%), black, non-Hispanic (33%), Hispanic (11%), Asian/Pacific Islander (4%), race unknown/other (4%) and American Indian/ Alaska Native (< 0%). The ethnicity of the participants was similar with 47% White/Caucasian (*N*=173), 36% African-American/Black (*N*=133), 10% Latino/Hispanic (*N*=38), 6% Asian-American/Asian (*N*=21), and 1% Native American/ Alaskan (*N*=2). Among the college population, students come from many different age groups, specifically, younger than 21 years of age (18%), 21-30 (34%), 31-

40 (21%), 41-50 (16%), and older than 51 (11%) (Community College Planning and Research, 2009).However, the majority of participants were in their early 30s (*M*=33.7, *SD*=12.1).Therefore, the participants tended to be a little older than the general college population.

Data Screening

Prior to analysis, the researcher screened the data for missing information. Two participants with a high degree of missing data were omitted. Otherwise, participants responded to the majority of the questions. Out of the remaining 365 responses, the percentage of missing data that existed for each question ranged from .0 to 1.6% per item. With the exception of the two participants, the researcher chose to keep participants with missing data in the analysis. For participants with missing data, a mean substitution was used.

The data were also screened for outliers and assumptions. Five outliers existed for the professional advancement factor. With the outliers, the skewness coefficient for professional advancement was -1.6 and the kurtosis was 2.45. Excluding the five outliers resulted in a skewness coefficient of -1.4 and kurtosis coefficient of 1.6. The factors related to family and stimulation had one and three outliers respectively. The researcher chose to keep the outliers in the analysis for the family and stimulation factors, but removed the outliers for the professional advancement factor. Refer to Table 4 for the variables' means, standard deviations, skewness coefficient, and kurtosis coefficient. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were less than the absolute value of one except for advancement and stimulation, which were slightly negatively and positively skewed respectively. An analysis of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were less than 2.0

indicating that multicollinearity was not problematic. Mahalanobis distance analysis indicated that were no multivariate outliers.

Table 4

Sample Sizes, Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for Each Variable

Variable	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
Age	365	33.54	11.95	.585	-.60
Communication	365	2.07	.91	.48	-.96
Social	365	1.84	.93	.86	-.46
Education	365	2.84	.75	-.41	-.32
Advancement	360	3.47	.57	-1.40	1.60
Family	365	1.91	.78	.86	.04
Stimulation	365	1.75	.76	1.07	.44
Cognitive	365	2.98	.82	-.76	-.22

Research Questions

This section begins by summarizing the statistical analysis used to determine the motivations of adult women enrolled in a community college as measured by an online version of the EPS (A-form) (Fujita-Stark, 1996). First, a profile analysis using a repeated

measures ANOVA identifies what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. The next set of analyses examines the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Then, each set of hypotheses will be discussed with the corresponding data. Bonferroni's adjustment was used. Therefore, *p* values that were less than or equal to .017 were interpreted as significant. Independent variables were gender (coded 1 for females and 0 for males), English (coded 1 for English as a first language and 0 for English as the second language), and age.

Profile Analysis

A repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factors, which consist of seven levels (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) was run to gain a deeper understanding of what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. All items utilized the same scale, 1 to 4. The analysis was run with both the data set with the five outliers removed for Professional Advancement and with the outliers included. Similar results were obtained with both data sets. The means and standard deviations for both genders for the seven motivational factors with the outliers included are shown in Table 11. Figure 1 features a plot of the male and female motivational profiles with the outliers included.

Table 5

Profile Analysis of Motivational Factors by Gender

		M	*SD*	*N*
Communication	Male	2.0020	.89521	101
	Female	2.0929	.92025	264
	Total	2.0678	.91307	365
Social	Male	1.8446	.92519	101
	Female	1.8433	.92797	264
	Total	1.8437	.92593	365
Education	Male	2.7591	.72630	101
	Female	2.8662	.76307	264
	Total	2.8365	.75361	365
Advancement	Male	3.5214	.50948	98
	Female	3.4594	.59504	262
	Total	3.4763	.57299	360
Family	Male	1.8211	.73700	101
	Female	1.9490	.78827	264
	Total	1.9136	.77554	365
Stimulation	Male	1.7436	.79804	101
	Female	1.7545	.74740	264
	Total	1.7515	.76065	365
Cognitive	Male	2.8670	.88013	101
	Female	3.0198	.78900	264
	Total	2.9775	.81687	365

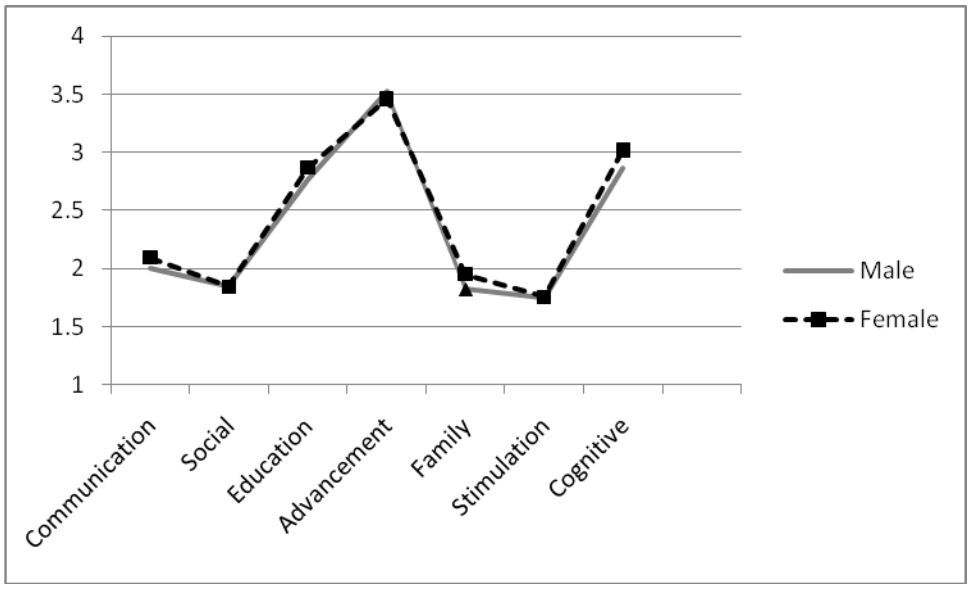

Figure 1. Line graph of females and males seven mean EPS factors

For the data set including the outliers, the test of parallelism shows that parallelism is tenable ($F_{(6,2148)}$ = .545, p=.142). This suggests that there were no differences between the females and males across the seven motivational factors. There was no difference between genders on the overall motivational score (i.e., all factors combined), $F_{(1,358)}$=.367, p=.545. This suggests that differences between males and females may be attributed to sampling error. There were differences between the seven factors, $F_{(6,2148)}$=446.2, p<.001.

Next, a Bonferroni pairwise comparison for differences between the seven factors for females was run. The analysis demonstrated that almost all comparisons were significantly different. The only exception is factor 2 (Social Contact) is not different from factor 5 (Family Togetherness) and 6 (Social Stimulation). In fact, it seems like these 3 factors are very low for females (and males). Specifically, females were most

motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. In short, females seem to be less motivated by social reasons (i.e. Social Contact, Social Stimulation, Family Togetherness), and more motivated by practical reasons (i.e. Professional Advancement, Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation).

Multiple Regression Results

The following analyses examine the relationship between the seven motivation factors and gender, English as a first language, and age. Gender was coded females equal to 1 and males equal to 0. English language was coded with English as the first language as 1 and English not the first language as 0. Age was measured in number of years old.

Hypothesis One: Communication featured the following set of hypotheses:

H1a. On average, Communication Improvement is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women.

H1b. On average, Communication Improvement is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who have a first language other than English than for students who speak English as their first language.

H1c. On average, Communication Improvement is less important (as a reason to go to college) for older students.

A multiple regression was run with Communication Improvement as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .129 (adjusted R^2 = .121), which was significantly different from zero (F=17.764, p<.001). Age and English as a first language contributed

significantly to the prediction of the communication factor, both with negative betas. This suggests that participants who use English as their first language and are older tended to have lower Communication Improvement scores.

Table 6

Communication Improvement Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	3.029			16.815	<.001
Female	.099	.048	.051	.979	.328
English	-.798	-.311	-.313	-6.257	<.001
Age	-.011	-.138	-.144	-2.762	.006

Based upon the analysis, two of the hypotheses (H1b and H1c) were supported but one (H1a) was not supported. Gender was not a significant factor in this regression analysis. Therefore the claim that Communication Improvement is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women was not supported. Improving communication skills has more importance among students who do not speak English as their first language. Finally, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between age and the communication factor. In other words, communication tends to be less important as a reason to go to school among older students. Therefore, the third

hypothesis that communication would be less important among older students was supported. While age was statistically significant, the practical significance was minimal. For every one year increase in age, there was a .011 decrease on the Communication Improvement score. Whereas, when English was the first language, there was a .798 decrease in the Communication Improvement score.

Hypothesis Two: Social Contact featured the following set of hypotheses:

H2a. On average, Social Contact is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women.

H2b. On average, Social Contact is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who have a first language other than English than for students who speak English as their first language.

H2c. On average, Social Contact is more important to older students than younger students.

A multiple regression was run with "social improvement" as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .129 (adjusted R^2 = .121), which was significantly different from zero (F=17.764, p<.001). Age and English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Social Contact factor, both with negative betas. This suggests that participants who use English as their first language and are older tended to have lower Social Contact scores.

Table 7

Social Contact Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	3.015			16.505	<.001
Female	-.039	-.019	-.020	-.379	.705
English	-.440	-.169	-.176	-3.405	.001
Age	-.023	-.296	-.298	-5.934	<.001

Upon completion of the data analysis, insufficient evidence existed to support one of the hypotheses (H2a), although one of the hypotheses (H2b) was supported. Sufficient evidence existed to reject the final hypothesis, H2c. The analysis shared above clearly demonstrates that gender was not statistically significant in this regression analysis. Therefore the hypothesis that Social Contact is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women was not supported. However, males placed more importance on the Social Contact factor, even though this difference was not statistically significant. The second hypothesis was supported; meeting others is more important among students who do not speak English as their first language. Finally, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between age and the Social Contact factor. In other words, Social Contact tends to be less important as a reason to go to school among older students. Therefore, the third hypothesis that Social Contact would be more

important to older students was rejected. While age was statistically significant, the practical significance was minimal. For every one year increase in age, there was a .023 decrease on the Social Contact score. Whereas, when English was the first language, there was a .440 decrease in the Social Contact score.

Hypothesis Three: Educational Preparation featured the following set of hypotheses:

H3a. On average, Educational Preparation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women.

H3b. Educational Preparation is not significant (as a reason to go to college) for students who have a first language other than English.

H3c. On average, Educational Preparation is less important (as a reason to go to college) as age increases.

A multiple regression was run with Educational Preparation as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .027 (adjusted R^2 = .019), which was significantly different from zero (F=3.299, p=.021). However, none of the independent variables contributed significantly to the prediction of the Educational Preparation factor.

Table 8

Educational Preparation Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	3.156			20.084	<.001
Female	.101	.060	.060	1.146	.253
English	-.214	-.101	-.101	-1.92	.055
Age	-.006	-.099	-.099	-1.886	.060

After data analysis, none of the hypotheses were supported . Therefore the hypothesis that Educational Preparation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women was not supported. The second hypothesis was not supported; the difference between non-native English speakers and students who speak English as their first language was not statistically significant. Finally, the third hypothesis that Educational Preparation is less important (as a reason to go to college) as age increases was not supported, because the difference between older and younger students was not statistically significant.

Hypothesis Four: Professional Advancement featured the following set of hypotheses:

H4a. On average, Professional Advancement is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women.

H4b. On average, Professional Advancement is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who have English as their first language than for students who speak a language other than English as their first language.

H4c. On average, the difference between males and females on the importance of Professional Advancement (as a reason to go to college) increases with age.

H4d. On average, "professional development" is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who are younger than 50.

With five outliers removed from the analysis, a multiple regression was run with Professional Advancement as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .004 (adjusted R^2 = -.005), which was not significantly different from zero (F=.429, p=.732). None of the independent variables contributed significantly to the prediction of the Professional Advancement factor.

Based on the data analysis, insufficient evidence exists to support the predictions in H4a, H4b, H4c, or H4d. There are not any significant differences in the value that students place on this factor based on gender, first language, or age.

Hypothesis Five: Family Togetherness featured the following set of hypotheses:

H5a. On average, Family Togetherness is more important (as a reason to go to college) for women than for men.

H5b. On average, Family Togetherness is less important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who have English as their first language.

H5c. On average, Family Togetherness is more important (as a reason to go to college) for younger students.

A multiple regression was run with Family Togetherness as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .074 (adjusted R^2 = .066), which was significantly different from zero (F=9.611, p=<.001). While age and gender did not contribute significantly, English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Family Togetherness factor, with a negative beta. This suggest that participants who use English as their first language tended to have lower Family Togetherness scores. When English was the first language, there was a .214 decrease in the Family Togetherness score.

Table 9

Family Togetherness Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	2.418			15.333	<.001
Female	.139	.080	.083	1.574	.116
English	-.530	-.243	-.242	-4.748	<.001
Age	-.005	-.071	-.072	-1.374	.170

Based on the data analysis, there is insufficient evidence to support the hypotheses that the importance of Family Togetherness varies based on gender or age (H5a and H5c). However, Family Togetherness was more important for students who speak a language other than English as their first language (p<.001). Sufficient evidence exists to reject the hypothesis (H5b) that Family Togetherness is less important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who have English as their first language. The semipartial correlation coefficient seems to indicate that English has a moderate ability to predict Family Togetherness. When English was the first language, there was a .530 decrease in the Family Togetherness score.

Hypothesis Six: Social Stimulation featured the following set of hypotheses:

H6a. On average, Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for females than males.

H6b. On average, Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who have English as their first language.

H6c. On average, Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) as age increases.

A multiple regression was run with Social Stimulation as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .098 (adjusted R^2 = .090), which was significantly different from zero (F=13.013, p=<.001). Age and English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Social Stimulation factor, but gender was not statistically significant.

Both age and English had negative betas. This suggests that participants who use English as their first language and older students tended to have lower Social Stimulation scores.

Table 10

Social Stimulation Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	2.566			16.801	<.001
Female	.001	.001	.001	.015	.988
English	-.478	-.223	-.227	-4.422	<.001
Age	-.012	-.191	-.195	-3.769	<.001

According to the data analysis, a statistically significant difference does not exist based on gender. As a result, insufficient evidence exists to support the hypothesis (H6a) that Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for females than males. Students who speak English as their first language place less importance on the Social Stimulation factor than non-native English speakers. Statistically significant evidence exists to support H6b, which stated Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who have English as their first language. Finally, a negative relationship exists between age and Social Stimulation. Therefore, Social Stimulation is

more important for younger students. Sufficient evidence exists to reject H6c, which stated Social Stimulation is more important as age increases. While age was statistically significant, the practical significance was minimal. For every one year increase in age, there was a .012 decrease on the Social Stimulation score. Whereas, when English was the first language, there was a .478 decrease in the Social Stimulation score.

Hypothesis Seven: Cognitive Interest featured the following set of hypotheses:

H7a. On average, Cognitive Interest is more important (as a reason to go to college) for women than for men.

H7b. On average, Cognitive Interest is less important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who have English as their first language.

H7c. On average, the difference between males and females on the importance of Cognitive Interest (as a reason to go to college) increases with age.

A multiple regression was run with Cognitive Interest as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .029 (adjusted R^2 = .021), which was significantly different from zero (F=3.607, p=.014). Speaking English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Cognitive Interest factor, with a negative beta. This suggests that participants who use English as their first language tended to have lower Cognitive Interest scores. However, gender and age did not contribute significantly to the prediction of this factor.

Table 11

Cognitive Interest Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B) and Intercept, the Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Semipartial Correlations (sr_i), t-values, and p-values

IV s	*B*	*β*	sr_i	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intercept	3.013			17.712	<.001
Female	.176	.095	.097	1.848	.065
English	-.336	-.146	-.145	-2.790	.006
Age	.004	.054	.054	1.026	.306

According to the data analysis, one of the hypotheses was supported (H7b) and others were not (H7a and H7c). The analysis shared above clearly demonstrates that gender was not a significant factor in this regression analysis. Therefore the hypothesis that Cognitive Interest is more important (as a reason to go to college) for women than for men was not supported. The second hypothesis was supported; Cognitive Interest has more importance among students who do not speak English as their first language. When English was the first language, there was a .336 decrease in the Cognitive Interest score. Finally, there is a no relationship between age and the Cognitive Interest factor. Therefore, the third hypothesis that the difference between males and females on the importance of Cognitive Interest (as a reason to go to college) increases with age was not supported.

This section provided an overview of the data analysis. First, a profile analysis was used to gain a deeper understanding of the motivational profiles of females. A correlational approach incorporating multiple regression analyses examined the extent to which age, gender, and first language predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form). In the next section, a summary of Chapter Four concludes this segment of the dissertation.

Summary

The goal of this research was to investigate what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to participate in higher learning. First, a profile analysis demonstrated that the motivational profiles of males and females can be considered coincident. Females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. Next, a correlational approach examined the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). Multiple regressions were run with each of the seven motivational factors as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. Table 12 lists the dependent and independent variables, and statistically significant results are indicated with an "X."

Table 12

Statistically Significant Results of Dependent and Independent Variables

Factor	Gender	English	Age
Communication		X	X
Social		X	X
Education			
Professional			
Family		X	
Stimulation		X	X
Cognitive		X	

The results discussed in this chapter demonstrate that age was a statistically significant independent variable to predict the factors related to Communication Improvement; Social Contact; and Social Stimulation. In this study, whether a student speaks English as their first language or not served as a statistically significant predictor for Communication Improvement; Social Contact; Family Togetherness; Social Stimulation; and Cognitive Interest. The results also demonstrated that gender differences were not statistically significant. Figure 3 in the Appendix illustrates the resulting multiple regression analyses based on the findings. In the final and fifth chapter of the dissertation, the findings will be summarized more extensively in order to discuss the research to draw conclusions.

Gender was not a significant factor in these regression analyses. Speaking English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Communication Improvement, Social Contact, Family Togetherness, Social Stimulation, and Cognitive Interest factor, with negative betas. This suggests that participants who use English as their first language tended to have lower Communication Improvement, Social Contact, Family Togetherness, Social Stimulation, and Cognitive Interest scores. Age contributed significantly to the prediction of the Communication Improvement, Social Contact and Social Stimulation, all with negative betas. This suggests that participants who are older tended to have lower Communication Improvement, Social Contact and Social Stimulation scores.

Chapter V: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This research aimed to describe what motivates adult women enrolled in a community college to pursue higher education. Utilizing profile analysis and multiple regression analyses, this study investigated the extent to which gender, English as a first language, and age predicted the seven factors of the Education Participation Scale (A-form) comprised of (1) Communication Improvement; (2) Social Contact; (3) Educational Preparation; (4) Professional Advancement; (5) Family Togetherness; (6) Social Stimulation; and (7) Cognitive Interest (Boshier, 1991). The results indicated that females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. In this concluding chapter, a summary of the research is presented, including the problem statement, methodology and results. Finally, a discussion provides additional information about the study, including an interpretation of the results, how the study relates to previous research, implications for educators and recommendations for further research.

Statement of the Problem

The economy, societal changes, and rates of divorce and single-parents mean that women need further education to ensure a good wage. Education is a labor-intensive process; college administrators, faculty and student support personnel benefit from understanding what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. The body of

research examining why students enroll in college has provided general information, but more needs to be known about adult women. As Kasworm (2003) suggested, researchers need to give equal consideration to reasons related to career aspirations and adult lives, and this study contributed to the body of literature about what motivates adult women to attend community college.

Summary of the Methodology

As detailed in Chapter 3, the dissertation research described here involved administering an online survey using SurveyShare to students enrolled in a large urban community college in the Southeastern United States. The research was quantitative in nature. Potential subjects were students who are at least 18 years of age and were taking at least one curriculum course. Using the list, the emails of 3,000 students were selected randomly by the research staff at the community college using computer software to receive invitations to participate in the survey. The study relied on two instruments for data collection. First, the EPS (A-form) was employed to determine what motivates students to return to college, because it is a commonly used instrument to investigate motivation and educational participation. Boshier developed the EPS (A-form) in 1991, and items used in the current research were taken from Table 1 of Fujita-Starck (1996). Second, a demographic questionnaire featuring questions about age, gender, program of study, and relationship and employment status was included to collect information to describe the sample. Results were analyzed using SPSS to conduct a profile analysis and several multiple regression analyses.

Review of the Results

In this section, a discussion of the study's results provides additional insight into the study, including an interpretation and how the findings relate to previous research about each factor. Then, implications for educators and future researchers will be discussed.

Three-thousand students older than 18 who are taking at least one curriculum course were randomly selected to receive an invitation to participate in the study by email. Three hundred and sixty-seven students completed the survey for a response rate of 12%. Twenty-eight percent were males and 72% were females. The majority of students were in their early 30s (*M*=33.7, *SD*=12.1). Ethnicity of the group varies with 47% White/Caucasian (*N*=173), 36% African-American/Black (*N*=133), 10% Latino/Hispanic (*N*=38), 6% Asian-American/Asian (*N*=21), and 1% Native American/ Alaskan (*N*=2). Fifteen percent of the participants indicated they speak a language other than English as their first language. Participants indicated a variety of academic goals, represented by 38.4% Associate of Applied Science (*N*=141), 39.4% College Transfer Program (*N*=128), 13.6% indicating "other", 5.7% diploma (*N*=21), 4.9% certificate (*N*=18), and 2.5% undecided (*N*=9). Diplomas and certificates are shorter term programs than attaining an Associate of Applied Science or completing the College Transfer Program. The majority or 43% of the participants were unemployed (*N*=156). A quarter of the participants were employed part-time (*N*=92) and 35% worked full-time (*N*=119). In addition, the majority or 51.8% of participants were single (*N*=190), followed by 34.9% married (*N*=128), 8.2% divorced (*N*=30), 3.5% separated (*N*=13), and 1.6% widowed (*N*=6) respectively.

A repeated measures ANOVA with seven within-subjects factors (i.e. each of the seven motivational factors) and one between-subjects factor (gender) was run to gain a deeper understanding of what motivates adult women to enroll in community college. All items utilized the same scale, 1 to 4. The motivational profiles of males and females were determined to be coincident.

The profile analysis revealed females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. In short, females seemed to be less motivated by social reasons (i.e. Social Contact, Social Stimulation, Family Togetherness), and more motivated by practical reasons (i.e. Professional Advancement, Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation).

Multiple regressions were run with each of the seven motivational factors as the dependent variable and female, English, and age were the independent variables. The results demonstrated that age was a statistically significant independent variable to predict the factors related to Communication Improvement, Social Contact, and Social Stimulation, all with negative betas. This suggests that participants who are older tended to have lower scores on Communication Improvement, Social Contact, and Social Stimulation. In this study, whether a student speaks English as their first language or not served as a statistically significant predictor for Communication Improvement, Social Contact, Family Togetherness, Social Stimulation, and Cognitive Interest. The analysis suggested that participants who speak English as their first language tended to have lower scores on Communication Improvement, Social Contact, Family Togetherness, Social Stimulation, and Cognitive Interest. Moreover, the results demonstrated that gender

differences were not statistically significant. Figure 3 in the Appendix illustrates the results of the multiple regression analyses.

This section contained a summary of the study's results. The following section provides additional insight into the study, including an interpretation and how the findings relate to previous research about each factor. Then, implications for educators and future researchers will be discussed.

Discussion of the Findings

Communication Improvement

Communication Improvement is defined as enrolling to develop communication skills, including written and oral skills in addition to social norms related to communication (Boshier, 1991). The profile analysis revealed females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. In other words, Communication Improvement was neither very important nor unimportant to females, because it was the middle ranked motivator. Furthermore, the profile analysis suggested that males and females did not have differences across the seven motivational scores. Second, the multiple regression analyses demonstrated that improving communication skills has statistically significant more importance among students who do not speak English as their first language. Simply stated, participants who use English as their first language tended to have lower Communication Improvement scores. Third, there is a negative relationship between age and Communication Improvement. In other words, participants who are older tended to have lower Communication Improvement scores.

The findings about gender support the research of Astin (1998). The fact that the difference between males and females was not statistically significant is congruent with Astin's conclusion about the increasing convergence between males and females during his 30-year longitudinal study. Astin observed women's views have altered significantly, and their career aspirations, ideals, and educational goals have shifted to more closely resemble those of men.

The findings about age and gender are incongruent with the findings of Boshier (1991) and Rountree and Lambert (1992). Rountree and Lambert's found 75% of women rated gaining knowledge to communicate better with others as very or extremely important. In the present study, females ranked Communication Improvement fourth among the seven factors in importance. The current study did not support Boshier's conclusion that men are more likely to be motivated by this factor than women. Boshier ascertained that gender was a better predictor than age. Conversely, the present study found age to be a better predictor than gender.

Boshier(1991) found Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college to improve their communication skills than North Americans. Similarly, the present study found students who speak English as their second language were more motivated by improving their communication skills. This conclusion has face validity, because we would expect this to be a motivator for the ESL population.

Social Contact

Social Contact is comprised of getting to know other people and developing friendships (Boshier, 1991). The profile analysis demonstrated females ranked Social Contact second to last in importance among the seven motivational factors. The only

factor that was less important for females was Social Stimulation. Furthermore, the profile analysis suggested that males and females did not have differences across the seven motivational scores, including the Social Contact factor. A Bonferroni pairwise comparison for differences between the seven factors for females was run. The analysis demonstrated that almost all comparisons were significantly different. The only exception is Social Contact is not different from Family Togetherness and Social Stimulation. In fact, it seems like these three factors are very low for females (and males).

The multiple regression analyses showed that age and English as a first language contributed significantly to the prediction of the Social Contact factor, both with negative betas. This suggested that participants who use English as their first language and are older tended to have lower Social Contact scores. The hypothesis that Social Contact would be more important to older students was rejected. The hypothesis that Social Contact is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who have a first language other than English than for students who speak English as their first language was supported.

At the same time, the multiple regression analyses demonstrated that gender was not statistically significant in the prediction of the Social Contact factor. Therefore, the hypothesis that Social Contact is more important (as a reason to go to college) for men than for women was not supported.

The results about gender and age differed from research conducted by Boshier (1991), who found men are more likely to be motivated by the Social Contact factor than women. After Boshier added age to his canonical correlation analysis, the equation did not change significantly. Thus, Boshier concluded that gender was a better predictor than

age. However, the present study found age to be a statistically significant predictor of the Social Contact factor and no gender differences. Older students do not value Social Contact as much as younger students. The present research reiterates the importance of Social Contact among the traditional student population. The reason for this may be that older students already have a social circle, while younger students are making a transition from high school to college.

Similarly, the work of Chickering underscores the importance of socialization with traditional students. Chickering's fourth vector is concerned with learning to build adult interpersonal relationships with people from diverse backgrounds, as well as deep and meaningful relationships with friends and romantic partners (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). It should be noted Chickering's original research was mainly conducted on a traditional student population.

The conclusion that women do not value Social Contact as much as men goes against traditional stereotypes. The implication is that gender differences may have indeed changed over time, similar to the conclusions drawn by Astin (1998). Other researchers (Der-Karabetian & Best, 1984) have also indicated that women do not value social interactions as much as a reason for higher learning. In contrast, a study conducted by Morstain and Smart in the 70s (1977) concluded 55% of social learners were female.

Perhaps women have many social contacts outside of school, so they view school for more utilitarian functions, such as to get a better job. Given the fact that most students balance jobs and family responsibilities along with their student status, social interaction through school may not be a priority. Students are too busy to see school as a social outlet, and the number of single-parents continues to rise.

While Social Contact may not be a primary motivator for females, Tinto's (1975, 1987, 1993) and Astin's (1970a, 1970b) research point out the importance of student engagement. Learning communities are a practical solution for increasing student engagement by providing interaction in the classroom for commuter students (Chaves, 2006; Tinto, 1975, 1987, 1993**).**

The present study found students who speak a language other than English as their first language were more motivated by Social Contact. Approximately 15% of the respondents in the current study spoke a language other than English as their first language. Boshier (1991) found Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college for Social Contact reasons than North Americans. The college classroom could serve as an important point of social contact for these students. Also, attaining language skills helps students from other cultures make stronger social connections with others. This is one potential reason why both Communication Improvement and Social Contact were significant predictors for this population.

Educational Preparation

Educational Preparation is comprised of remedying educational gaps to prepare for further higher education (Boshier, 1991). Overall, Educational Preparation was the third most important motivator for females to attend school. Only Professional Advancement (ranked first) and Cognitive Interest (ranked second) were more important. While it is an important reason, there are no statistically significant differences among the independent variables researched in this study. This seems to be a strong motivator for most students. Almost 40% of the participants indicated they planned to transfer to a four year school to attain a bachelor's degree.

In some cases, the results from the present study did not support the findings of other researchers (Boshier, 1991; Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn, 2003). According to Boshier, men are more likely to be motivated by this factor than women. The present study did not detect gender differences. Hoachlander, Sikora, and Horn (2003) found 25% of females aimed to earn a degree or certificate compared with 16% of males; however, men were more likely to aim to transfer to a university than women (42% vs. 32%). Boshier (1991) did not find statistically significant differences among Asians, Europeans, and North Americans. Similarly, the present study did not find a statistically significant difference according to English as a first language.

Professional Advancement

Professional Advancement is defined as gaining a promotion in a current position or finding a better employment opportunity elsewhere (Boshier, 1991). According to the profile analysis, Professional Advancement was the most important motivator for females (and males) to enroll in school. The multiple regression analyses revealed there are not any statistically significant differences in the value that students place on this factor based on gender, English as a first language, or age.

The finding that there were not statistically significant gender differences supports the work of Astin (1998), who implies that gender differences between women and men are converging. Most of the studies from the 1970s indicated that gender differences existed (Bova, 1979; Morstain & Smart, 1974, 1977). In 1991, Boshier did not find a statistically significant difference for gender or age. The implication is that gender differences may have shifted over time.

Professional Advancement was the number one reason overall cited by participants in this study. This finding supports a general theme found by other researchers interested in college choice, because gaining better employment opportunities is cited in a variety of studies with different student populations. Nomi (2005) found first generation college students are motivated to attend college for professional reasons. In a study of Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college, Santos (2004) determined that getting a better job was more important than social factors, but less important than personal improvement and gaining knowledge. Somers et al. (2006) also found community college students were motivated by educational goals tied to an ambition for a better position. Additionally, Aslanian (2001a) concluded that 85% of adults declared career as their reason for enrollment. The adults talked about needing to learn for a career change, to gain a promotion, and to maintain their job skills in their current employment. Although age did not predict Professional Advancement in this study, tt seems that Professional Advancement is a key motivator for most adult students.

Family Togetherness

Family Togetherness is comprised of narrowing gaps between generations and developing familial bonds. According to the profile analysis, females ranked this motivational factor fifth in importance. The only factors that were less important were Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation.

A Bonferroni pairwise comparison for differences between the seven factors for females found that almost all comparisons were significantly different except Social Contact is not different from Family Togetherness and Social Stimulation. In fact, it seems like these three factors are very low for females (and males). In sum, females seem

to be less motivated by social reasons (i.e. Social Contact, Social Stimulation, Family Togetherness) than practical concerns (i.e. Professional Advancement, Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation).

Prior research is inconclusive about the role that family plays as a motivator for adults pursuing further education. Some studies indicate that family plays an important role as a motivator for adult women (Bers & Smith, 1987; Hostetler, Sweet & Moen, 2006; Bradburn, Moen, & Dempster-McClain, 1995). Other studies found no differences between males and females (Hensley & Kinser, 2001; Scanlon, 2008). The current research utilized the EPS, which includes a factor about the influence of family. Therefore, this study advanced knowledge in this area.

Although insufficient evidence exists to support the hypotheses that the importance of Family Togetherness varies based on age, Family Togetherness was more important for students who speak a language other than English as their first language. The current research finding is congruent with generally accepted practices in multicultural counseling. In general, Latino/Hispanic Americans and Asian Americans value family in decision-making (Sue & Sue, 2003). Additionally, age was not a statistically significant factor in this analysis.

Social Stimulation

Social Stimulation is defined as participating in education to remedy sadness, ennui, and loneliness (Boshier, 1991). The profile analysis revealed females were least motivated by Social Stimulation. According to a Bonferroni pairwise comparison for differences between the seven factors for females, almost all comparisons were

significantly different except Social Contact is not different from Family Togetherness and Social Stimulation. All three factors are very low for both genders.

While a single research study cannot provide a solid foundation for women's motivation, the present results along with Boshier's 1991 study (when compared with earlier studies) seem to indicate women's motivations have changed over time. Both Boshier (1991) and the present study did not find a statistically significant effect for gender. In 1977, Morstain and Smart used cluster analysis techniques and found 75% of stimulation seekers were female. Based on the present research and Boshier's conclusions, it seems that gender differences may have changed over time since Morstain and Smart's research.

A statistically significant negative relationship exists between age and Social Stimulation, which is more important for younger students. Prior research has been inconclusive about the effect of age on this motivational factor. Boshier (1991) did not find a statistically significant effect for age. Der-Karabetian and Best (1984) administered an earlier version of the EPS to 200 college women ages 30-55. They concluded that women had scores in the moderate range for "stimulations" when compared to the other factors. In a study of adults enrolled in college courses, the researcher found students aged 18-22 were more motivated by stimulation than other age groups (Bova, 1979). Similar to Bova, the present research indicates younger students may be more motivated by Social Stimulation.

First language is a statistically significant predictor of the Social Stimulation factor. Social Stimulation is more important (as a reason to go to college) for students who speak a language other than English as their first language than for students who

have English as their first language. In brief, students who speak English as their first language tend to have lower Social Stimulation scores. Boshier concluded Asians and Europeans were more likely to enroll in college for Social Stimulation reasons than North Americans. Similar to Boshier (1991), the present study found students who speak a language other than English as their first language place more importance on enrolling in school for Social Stimulation reasons. In addition, the current research finding is congruent with generally accepted practices in multicultural counseling. Latino/Hispanic Americans and Asian Americans typically have a more group oriented rather than individualistic worldview (Sue & Sue, 2003).

Cognitive Interest

Cognitive Interest, the final factor, is comprised of pursuing an education for intrinsic reasons due to a search for knowledge (Boshier, 1991). The profile analysis revealed females ranked Cognitive Interest as their second most important motivator. By comparison, the only factor that was more important for females was Professional Advancement.

While a sole research study cannot provide a firm basis for women's motivation, the present results along with Boshier's 1991 study (when compared with earlier studies) seem to indicate women's motivations have changed over time. Similar to Boshier (1991), the current study did not find a statistically significant effect for gender or age. Comparing the more historical studies (Bova, 1979; Morstain & Smart, 1974) with recent findings implies that the effect for age and gender may have changed over time. Over 35 years ago, Morstain and Smart found gender and age differences in their study. Women scored higher on studying subjects that related to their interests. Overall, differences

between males and females increased with age on the scales in Morstain and Smart's study. In a study of adults enrolled in college courses, the researcher found students aged 40-45 were more motivated by Cognitive Interest than other age groups (Bova, 1979). In contrast, the present study did not find age to be a significant predictor of Cognitive Interest.

Cognitive Interest has more importance among students who do not speak English as their first language, and this difference is statistically significant. Boshier (1991) concluded Asians and Europeans were less likely to enroll in college for Cognitive Interest reasons than North Americans. In contrast, this study found a statistically significant difference; students who do not speak English as their first language placed more importance on this factor. One reason may be that Boshier used North Americans, Asians and Europeans. In the present study 15% of the participants indicated they speak a language other than English as their first language. Given the changing demographics in the US population, the present study included many Hispanic students (10%). In a study of Hispanic students enrolled in their first semester at a community college, Santos (2004) determined that gaining knowledge was the most important factor motivating students to enroll, followed by self-improvement, getting a better job and social reasons respectively.

Suggestions for Educators

The profile analysis found females were most motivated by Professional Advancement, followed by Cognitive Interest, Educational Preparation, Communication Improvement, Family Togetherness, Social Contact, and finally Social Stimulation. The current findings seem to indicate that most females (and males) value attending college in

order to obtain better employment options and to prepare to take even higher level classes later. Professional Advancement was the most important reason students attend college and Cognitive Interest was the second most important reason. Throughout its history, community college has emphasized workforce development, educational access and presented an adult-friendly environment. Thus, community colleges have been a key educational option for adult women. Other researchers, such as Aslanian (2001a) have addressed the importance of career-related training. Aslanian found 85% of adult students declared career as their reason for enrollment. The adults talked about needing to learn for a career change, to gain a promotion, and to maintain their job skills in their current employment. Adults also mentioned family reasons (4%), leisure (4%), art (3%), health (1%), religion (1%), and citizenship (1%). However, career was the primary motivator.

Community colleges need to recruit more adult women. In December 2007, a recession began that developed into the worst economic downturn in the United States since the Great Depression. As a result, the Obama Administration proposed $12 Billion dollars for the American Graduation Initiative aimed at community colleges to increase the number of college graduates by 5 million by 2020 (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009). Education increases earning potential and decreases the likelihood of unemployment. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010), the unemployment rate for high school graduates was 9.7% in 2009. Unemployment rates dropped to 6.8% for workers who earned an Associate degree during the same time period. Conversely, workers with a high school education earned

$626 a week on average. Likewise, workers with an Associate degree earned $761 a week on average in 2009.

Increasing women's access to education through the community college will give more women the resources for financial stability. Divorce has a negative impact on women's finances. Hilton and Anderson (2009) concluded divorce that occurs in midlife has a long-term negative impact on women's capacity to build up wealth. Even in marriages with two wage-earners, finances can be hurt when a spouse loses their employment due to health problems or a lay-off. This is one reason so many have faced foreclosure during the recent recession. Education can help prepare women in case they are faced with future difficulties.

In addition to issues of access, incorporating content related to a student's career goals would assist with student motivation. While teaching methods were not the focus of this study, the findings may be considered by educators to increase classroom motivation. For example, given the high number of students who place into developmental courses and the low rate of completers (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009), educators may consider including examples related to a students' professional goals as a way to increase motivation, even in developmental classes. One exemplary program described by the Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers Report (2009) is the Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST) offered in Washington State. Students receive technical and literary training together. For example, nursing students learn medical language from both a nursing and English instructor at the same time.

Further Research

Further research seems to be called for on the converging gender differences in motivation for community college students. As discussed above, the present study seems to support Astin's (1998) findings that gender differences are converging. The current research indicates that age and first language are better predictors than gender. Due to their unique mission to increase access to education, community colleges are a popular educational option for adult learners and students from other countries. However, this study was carried out at one urban community college in the Southeastern United States. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted in other settings, such as other geographical regions.

Further research could investigate how other variables, such as program of study, first generation college student status, and employment, parental and marital status effect motivation. Some researchers (Aslanian, 2001a, 2001b; Basham & Buchanan, 2009; Bradburn, Moen & Dempster-McClain, 1995; Boshier, 1991; Der-Karabetian & Best, 1984; Fujita-Stark, 1996; Nomi, 2005) have already investigated this issue, but more research needs to be conducted with community college students. Associate of Applied Science, diploma, and certificate programs are typically career-related. Given the fact that professional advancement was the top ranked motivator for both males and females, program of study may have influenced the results. Therefore, future researchers should include program of study in their analyses. In addition, someone needs to replicate the findings of the study given the small unstandardized coefficients found for age on the Communication Improvement, Social Contact, and Social Stimulation factors.

Given the high number of students who place into developmental courses and the low rate of completers (Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers, 2009), further research could examine how motivation predicts completion rates. If certain motivational styles are found to be more likely to complete college, this information could be used to increase college completion rates. Recently the community college that was studied for this dissertation started participating in the "Achieving the Dream" initiative, which is aimed at helping more students complete college.

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APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL

UNC CHARLOTTE

Compliance Office / Office of Research Services

9201 University City Boulevard, Charlotte, NC 28223-0001
t/ 704.687.3311 f/ 704.687.2292 www.research.uncc.edu/comp/complian.cfm

Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research with Human Subjects

Approval of Exemption

Protocol #	**10-04-19**
Title:	**Motivations of Adult Women Enrolled in a Community College**
Date:	**4/26/2010**

Responsible Faculty	**Dr.**	**Claudia**	**Flowers**	**Educational Leadership**
Investigator	**Ms.**	**Connie**	**Johnston**	**Educational Leadership**

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) certifies that the protocol listed above is exempt under category 2 .

Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:

a) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and

b) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

This approval will expire one year from the date of this letter. In order to continue conducting research under this protocol after one year, the "Annual Protocol Renewal Form" must be submitted to the IRB. Please note that it is the investigator's responsibility to promptly inform the committee of any changes in the proposed research, as well as any unanticipated problems that may arise involving risks to subjects. Amendment and Event Reporting forms are available on our web site: http://www.research.uncc.edu/comp/human.cfm

M. Z. 4/29/10

Dr. M. Lyn Exum, IRB Chair Date

From: Terri Manning [mailto:Terri.Manning@cpcc.edu]
Sent: Monday, April 05, 2010 11:54 AM
To: Flowers, Claudia
Subject: RE: graduate student

That sounds like fun. I am still using your books.

The VP approved her study so let me know her timeline and exactly who she wants…. Age, demographic characteristics and the total number in her sample, etc.

Terri M. Manning, Ed.D.

Associate Vice President for Institutional Research and

Director, Center for Applied Research

Central Piedmont Community College

P.O. Box 35009

Central Campus, Admin IV

Charlotte, NC 28235

(704) 330-6592 - phone

(704) 330-6013 - FAX

terri.manning@cpcc.edu

Solving Real World Problems through Quality Research

APPENDIX B: Informed Consent and Cover letter

Dear *Student's First Name*:

For my doctoral dissertation at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte, I am conducting a 5-10 minute survey focusing on what motivates students to enroll in community college. Your participation may provide information that will help people who work with community college students to develop programs that target specific student concerns.

Your participation in this research is voluntary with no cost or risk involved.

Your responses are both confidential and anonymous. In other words, your name will not be connected to your responses.

To complete the survey, please click on the link below. By clicking the link, you are indicating that you have read this message and agree to participate in the survey voluntarily.

Link goes here

UNC Charlotte and CPCC are eager to ensure that all research participants are treated in a fair and respectful manner. Contact UNCC's Research Compliance Office (704-687-3309) if you have questions about how you are treated as a study participant. If you have any concerns or questions about your treatment as a subject in this project, contact Dr. Terri Manning, Planning and Research, P.O. Box 35009, Charlotte, NC 28235, (704) 330-6597. For questions about the study, please contact the investigators, Ms. Connie Johnston at cdjohnst@email.uncc.edu or Dr. Claudia Flowers at claudiaflowers@uncc.edu.

Thank you,

Connie Johnston
UNC Charlotte Doctoral Student
Department of Educational Leadership

APPENDIX C: Instruments

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Age: _____
2. Gender:

   ___ Female ___ Male
3. Marital Status:

   ___ Married

   ___ Single

   ___ Divorced

   ___ Widowed
4. Employment Status

   ___ Employed full-time

   ___ Employed part-time

   ___ Not employed
5. Program of Study:

   ___ College Transfer Program

   ___ Undecided

   ___ Diploma

   ___ Certificate

   ___ Associate of Applied Science

   ___ Other _____
6. Ethnic group:

   ___ Asian-American/ Asian

___ African-American/ Black

___ Latino/Hispanic

___ Native American/ Alaskan

___ White/ Caucasian

___ Other

7. Is English your native language? __ Yes __ No
8. Why are you in college? (open-ended question)

_____

_____

Education Participation Scale (A-form) (Fujita-Stark, 1996)

1. “Improve language skills”
2. “Meet friendly people”
3. “Make up for narrow education”
4. “Secure advancement”
5. “Prepare for changes”
6. “Overcome frustration”
7. “Get something meaningful”
8. “Speak better”
9. “Have fun with friends”
10. “ To get missed education”
11. “Achieve an occupational goal”
12. “Share common interest”
13. “Get away from loneliness”
14. “Acquire general knowledge”
15. “Learn another language”
16. “Meet different people”
17. “To get knowledge for class”
18. “Prepare for job”
19. “Keep up with family members”
20. “Get relief from boredom”
21. “Learn for the joy of it”
22. “Write better”
23. “Make friends”
24. “Prepare for further education”
25. “Get higher job status”
26. “Keep up with children”
27. “Take break from routines”
28. “Satisfy enquiring mind”
29. “Understand what others say”
30. “Make new friends”
31. “Do courses for school”
32. “Get a better job”
33. “Answer child’s questions”
34. “Do something”
35. “Seek knowledge”
36. “Learn local customs”
37. “Meet new people”
38. “Get entrance to school”

39. “Increase competence”
40. “Help me talk to children”
41. “Escape unhappy relationship”
42. “Expand my mind”

APPENDIX D: REMINDER EMAIL

Dear *Student's First Name*:

You received an email last week inviting you to participate in a short survey focusing on what motivates students to enroll in community college. If you have not taken the survey already, **please click on the link below to participate**. The survey only takes 5-10 minutes to complete. Your opinions are important and may help people who work with community college students to develop programs that target specific student concerns.

To complete the survey, please click on the link below. By clicking the link, you are indicating that you have read this message and agree to participate in the survey voluntarily.

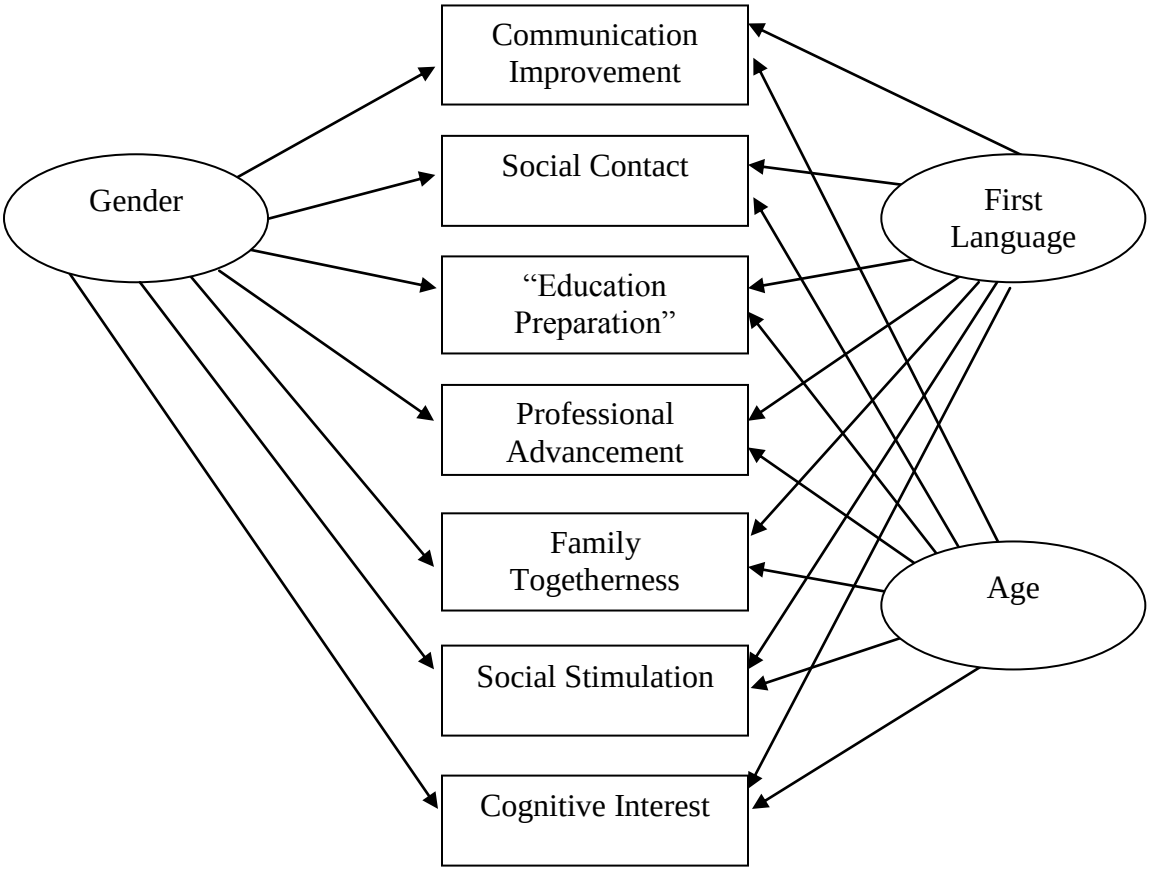
Link goes here.

UNC Charlotte and CPCC are eager to ensure that all research participants are treated in a fair and respectful manner. Contact UNCC's Research Compliance Office (704-687-3309) if you have questions about how you are treated as a study participant. If you have any concerns or questions about your treatment as a subject in this project, contact Dr. Terri Manning, Planning and Research, P.O. Box 35009, Charlotte, NC 28235, (704) 330-6597. For questions about the study, please contact the investigators, Ms. Connie Johnston at cdjohnst@email.uncc.edu or Dr. Claudia Flowers at claudiaflowers@uncc.edu.

Thank you,

Connie Johnston
UNC Charlotte Doctoral Student
Department of Educational Leadership

APPENDIX E: FIGURE 2. HYPOTHESIZED MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES



APPENDIX G: FIGURE 3. RESULTING MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES