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ABSTRACT

In discussing part-time university students, one of the first questions one must ask is, What precisely are the demographic features of this kind of student? The social and demographic characteristics of the part-time student population, including educational background, employment characteristics, residence, travel, parental background, financial support, and marital and family status, indicates a relationship between these variables, academic aspiration, and achievement. Adult students are higher achievers than representative college-age groups. The sample consisted of all new students who registered in the Mature Students Qualifying Program with a 67.6 percent rate of response to a questionnaire. Three dependent variables-credits were used as criteria of educational outcomes for part-time university students. Desire to learn and become educated emerged as the prime reason for taking university courses among over 70 percent of the students tested, while job-related reasons were given first priority by about 20 percent. Family pressures and social reasons received the lowest priority by an overwhelming proportion of respondents. (Author/KE)

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Our commitment to technological advance has resulted in an accelerated demand for advanced training. The acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, consequently, is one of society's most important values in the later half of the twentieth century. It is obvious that the educational needs of a society experiencing constant technological change cannot be met entirely within the period of childhood and adolescence traditionally given to formal educational preparation. Recurrent education has become institutionalized as one of the ways to deal with the technological and cultural change which has characterized modern society.

The enormous expansion in part-time student registration in programs leading to certification and degrees at the post-secondary level is particularly significant as it portends a realization of the concept of education as a life-long process. In recent years, the part-time university student has become the subject of a small but growing body of research.

In discussing part-time university students, one of the first questions one must ask is, what precisely are the demographic features of this kind of student population? The evidence suggests that the majority of them are between 21-35 years of age, with males showing greater enrolment than females (Johnstone & Rivera, 1956; Swerson, 1963). They generally tend to be average, or above average, in socio-economic status (Buttedahl, 1963; Liveright, 1968) and are actively involved in community organizations, usually having lived for a relatively long period in their present community (Buttedahl, 1963).

Work by White (1966) suggests that there are significant differences in the attitudes of various evening university students which might be a function of the type of program (arts, science, engineering and the like) enrolled. He investigated the relationship between anxiety scores, values, self-concepts and aspirations of 60 male (average age 27.6 years) part-time university students. Although White (1966) found no significant difference in the anxiety scores between the students enrolled in the various programs, they differed on the value dimensions (theoretical, social and the like) measured. However, further research with larger sample including female subjects is needed before any valid comparisons between part-time students in the various faculties can be made.

Liveright (1968) suggests that the reason many students undertake part-time education is because of a "conscious intention to bring about changes in information, knowledge, understanding, skills, appreciation, and attitudes; or to identify and solve personal and community problems." Although this statement essentially summarizes why part-time students take courses, a multiplicity of more specific factors is also evident in the literature. Johnstone and Rivera (1965) in their book Volunteers for Learning suggest that the major reasons people take part-time university courses are either to become better informed persons, to prepare for a new job, to learn how to spend spare time profitably, or to meet interesting new people. Scholsberg (1967) reports six major reasons why males over 35 years of age return to university education. These reasons are in a slightly different order of preference when compared to the findings of Johnstone & Rivera (1965). Scholsberg (1967) found that job reasons - advancement, change, retirement, security - tended to be more important

factors precipitating a return to evening university. Dooley and White (1968) point to career sentiments as a strong motive for evening university enrolment. Tough (1969) stresses the importance of enjoyment of learning and the satisfaction obtained through acquisition of knowledge as also being major reasons for taking courses. It is evident from the research discussed here that a wide range of factors are involved in initiating part-time university enrolment. These factors are multi-dimensional depending to a great extent on the age, sex, socio-economic status and other attributes of the particular sample tested.

A large group of potential students, which presumably includes many very capable people, do not enrol in evening university. Interestingly enough, the same factors which facilitate enrolment also inhibit it. Job factors, in this case job interference, seems to be a major barrier to enrolment. Other factors preventing enrolment are personal and family reasons and lack of proper guidance (Scholsberg, 1967). Liveright (1968) provides evidence which is consistent with the results obtained by Scholsberg (1967). He found that the major obstacles to enrolment were (a) financial factors; (b) a busy schedule; and (c) lack of physical energy. Similarly,in a study conducted among rural adults, Waldron (1967) reported that financial factors were the primary reason for failure to enrol but self-concept of not being an academic type was also significant. Gibb (1975) has recently reported a study of an estimated 100,000 potential students for the Open University in England. Lack of study time was found to be the principal deterrent from applying for admission. Manual workers were more easily put off than others, and women were discouraged to a greater

extent than men through such lack of study time. Other reasons given included domestic circumstances, finances, and the nature of programs available.

Once the part-time university student has overcome the initial barriers facing enrolment, he finds himself in a rather unusual situation. Thompson (1968) suggests that the older evening student has a different self-concept from his younger full-time counterpart.

> " -- youth enters into education as a full-time vocation. It is his full-time job. An adult comes to school as a means to an end. Education is a secondary consideration, therefore, the expectations of the adult are different."

Whether the self-concept is significantly different or not remains to be seen. However, the part-time student does tend to perform academically as well, or better, than the full-time student.

One of the more extensive analyses of the performance of adult students in degree courses is that of Beagle (1970). The study compared the academic achievement of adult students with that of regular full-time students, and academic achievement of adult students with respect to such demographic variables as sex, marital, status, matriculation status, whether they were taking an on-campus or off-campus course, and whether they attended full-time or part-time. The major comparisons were based on the performance of an experimental group of 114 adult students and a control group of 58 regular students. The experimental group was broken down into six sub-groups: matriculated, non-matriculated, part-time, full-time, part-time on-campus, and matriculation unknown. Achievement of each group was compared to the total control group. A regular student was defined as one who was 19 or 20 years of age as of December 31, 1968,

who had proceeded directly to university from grade 13 or equivalent. An adult student was one who was 25 years of age or more as of December 31, 1968. The adult students ranged in age from 25-63; 51% were between 25-29 years of age. The adult sample included both full-time and part-time students. Nearly half of the adults were admitted as mature students, that is, students who did not meet the minimum admission requirements at Lakehead University. The mean academic performance of the experimental (adult) group as a whole, and each of the experimental sub-groups except the non-matriculated group, was found to be significantly better than the control (regular) group. Non-matriculated students obtained a higher mean academic achievement score than the control group, but the difference was not statistically significant. Adult students who attended full-time did slightly less well than students in other categories, but significantly better than the control group. There was no significant difference between the academic performance of adult students grouped by part-time and full-time attendance by matriculation status, or by location on- or off-campus. Female students obtained a significantly higher mean achievement score than male students, and the academic achievement of married adult students was significantly higher than that of the single adult students. Matriculated adult students did not differ significantly from non-matriculated students, but did differ significantly from regular students. Non-matriculated adult students on the other hand did not differ significantly from regular students. The author suggests that "matriculation and maturity together may contribute to a superior academic performance, whereas maturity alone may make possible an average performance by compensating for deficiencies in academic preparation".

Dennison and Jones (1969) compared the G.P.A's of a total group of 376 adult and younger students who transferred from Vancouver City College and entered the University of British Columbia in September 1967. The adult sample consisted of 61 students who were 25 years of age or more at the time of transfer, 54 of whom were between the ages of 25 and 34, the remaining 7 between 35 and 44. The mean G.P.A. of the mature students was found to be higher than that of the sample as a whole in each of the faculties. The mean G.P.A. of all students who transferred from Vancouver City College, with the comparison mean G.P.A. of the mature students in brackets, were as follows:

Arts, 2nd year - 2.51 (3.09);
Arts, 3rd year - 2.78 (3.04);
Science - 2.53 (2.96);
Education - 2.59 (2.74).

Compared to the college-age transfer of students the ratio of first-class grades (80% and over) for mature students was found to be over double that of the under 25 group. The ratio of second-class grades (65% to 79%) was nearly double that of the younger group which accounted for most of the lower grades. An interesting finding noted by the authors is "that a greater proportion of adult students received upper class averages at university than received the equivalent upper class grades, while in attendance at the college." The authors do not comment on this point, but it may be that the content of university level courses, especially at the more advanced levels, is particularly suited to the intellectual maturity of adults: whereas the adult may utilize a form of analagous thinking derived from a background of experience, the younger student may tackle each subject as an isolated phenomenon. However, in as much as analagous

thinking may also represent thinking which is cognitively stereotyped, the adult may be less creative in an area new to him. Some satisfactory measure of the relative creative production of adult and younger graduates, or psychological tests employing different types of cognitive behaviour would have to be compared in order to explore further the whole area of findings generally favourable to adult success in university. One further point that should be noted is that while a greater proportion of the mature students in the Dennison and Jones sample studied part-time -- 28.9% as compared to 6.8% of the college-age students -- the proportion of adult students carrying a full course load is relatively larger than that usually reported. Arguments which have been put forward, both for and against the adult student, based on the amount of time he has to devote to his courses, are therefore not relevant to this study. Beagle (1970) also found that full-time adult students performed significantly better than a control group of younger, full-time students.

The success of students admitted to universities on the basis of maturity is of special interest here. As noted above, Beagle (1970) found the mean academic achievement of non-matriculated students to be higher, though not significantly better than that of the younger matriculated group. This finding is supported in a study by Perkins (1971) who compared the academic achievement of 23 adults admitted to the University of Lethbridge without high school matriculation to that of four groups of matriculated college freshmen. The selection of the four control groups in the Perkins study was based on the number of matriculation exams they had to write to obtain a minimum average of 60% for university

entrance. Group 1 was composed of students who had obtained an average of 60% + on 5 matriculation exams and failed the 6th. Group 2 was composed of students who had obtained an average of 60% + on 5 exams and passed the 6th. Students in Group 3 had obtained an average of 60% ± on 6 exams and had written 6-8 exams to do so. Students in Group 4 had an average of 60% + on 5 subjects and had written 9 or more exams to do so. (It is not specified in how many subjects a student could be recommended, that is, whether there was a minimum number of matriculation exams which all students had to write, and whether the selection procedure used eliminated the brightest high school students. The study was undertaken in order to assist the University of Lethbridge, which had been only recently established at the time, in formulating a suitable admissions policy for non-matriculated students. It may be that minimally qualified students and students with average qualifications were considered as justifiably comparable in view of the stated purpose of the study). 23 mature students were admitted on the basis of their school records, their work experience and a personal interview. The age range of the mature students was from 21 to 53 with a mean age of 30. All students enrolled in the University of Lethbridge in 1967. The performance of the five groups was compared on the College Qualification Test (CQT) and on the Fall, Spring and cumulative G.P.A.'s. The mature students had the lowest mean score on all the sub-tests of the CQT, except verbal, in which they received the highest mean. Comparisons of the Fall, Spring and cumulative G.P.A.'s showed that the mature students obtained the highest Fall G.P.A., the second-highest Spring G.P.A. and the highest cumulative G.P.Q. An analysis of variance showed that the performance of the mature students was significantly different from Groups 1

and 4, but not from Groups 2 and 3, the better students. In discussing these findings the author notes that since "nearly all" of the mature students were enrolled in Arts and Humanities courses and had the highest mean score on the verbal sub-test of the CQT, "their success with respect to their G.P.A.'s may have been due in part to their selection of non-science subjects". However, this point is only valid if students in other groups were enrolled in courses related to sub-tests of the CQT in which they did not obtain high scores. Perkins also stresses that motivational factors may have had an important influence in the success of the mature students.

The general indication is that adult students in credit courses show above average performance compared to younger students. However, Bail, et al (1969) found adult students obtained significantly lower grades in a graduate educational psychology class than younger, full-time students. They compared the performance of students enrolled in a regular on-campus class at Cornell University, an off-campus class given under the auspices of Cornell University, and an extramural class from a nearby branch of the State University. The day class met for three 50 minute sessions per week, while the two extramural classes each met one night a week for two and one half hours. For all three classes, the material covered, the order of presentation, the textbook, outside readings and course outline were the same. The course was organized in five parts. Each class was given a unit test on each of the five sections of the course. The tests were not the same, but the authors report that they were constructed by the instructor and his two graduate assistants and were content-valid.

Students in all three classes were given the Terman Concept Mastery Test (CMT). There were no statistically significant differences between any two of the three groups on mean CMT scores. On the five unit tests the full-time, on-campus class obtained a significantly higher mean score on each individual test, and a significantly higher mean summated test score than either of the off-campus groups. The two extramural classes were not significantly different from each other. Comparisons of the mean summated unit test scores, adjusted for variations in CMT scores partialled out, showed that the unit test scores of the on-campus class were still significantly higher than the adjusted means of either of the two off-campus classes. Most of the students in the evening classes were women who were employed as teachers. The authors point out that their findings are contrary to those of previous studies comparing regular classes with off-campus groups, and suggest that the lower course achievement scores of the off-campus students may have been due to limitations of study time imposed by the dual demands of their professional and family responsibilities.

The research reviewed thus far has been concerned with the academic performance of adult students. The generally higher achievement of the adult students when compared to a representative college-age group suggests that, since adults who enrol in university courses are a self-selected group, the intellectual capabilities of the two groups may not be equal.

While there is some indication that adult students as a group show a relatively high level of intellectual ability when measured by a general intelligence test, comparisons of the performance of adult students on college entrance examinations show that, particularly in some areas of

knowledge, adults obtain lower mean scores than a normative sample of college students.

The only research known in which large scale intelligence testing of adults was undertaken is that reported by Hackett and Farnum (1963). The purpose of their study was to assess the academic ability of "all evening students attending college-level programs, not only selected students enrolled in a bachelor's degree or a master's degree program." They obtained an intelligence quotient for 1,042 University of Rhode Island evening students who were given the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability (Higher Form A). The resultant scores were compared with scores established for the general population, and with a college population comparison group. In the three major study areas of Engineering, Liberal Arts and Business Administration, the mean score obtained by the evening students was found to be at the 65th, 56th and 50th percentile rank, respectively, established for similar college students. The average score of the total evening student body exceeded that of 56% of all college students and 86% of the general population. Though 97% of the evening students tested were high school graduates, the median age was 30 and over 50% were married with children. It is likely, then that many of them had been away from formal study for several years, yet their intellectual ability was shown to be at least equivalent to that of the average college student.

These findings are of interest in view of indications that mental ability may decline with age. Jensen, et al (1964) cite evidence showing peak performance shown in the standardized Wechsler-Bellevue scale adopted

in 1939 was reached in the 20-24 age range with a decline thereafter. They add, however, that in the 1955 standardization of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) there was a shift in peak performance to the 25-29 age range and a less noticeable decline in performance in age ranges above this.

While the adult student in general may show a high level of intellectual ability, research fairly consistently indicates his performance on college entrance exams to be below that of younger students. Hand in hand with these findings is the adult student's awareness, reflected in a lack of self-confidence, of his lack of factual knowledge. As noted earlier, Perkins (1971) found that the mature students in his study scored lower on the College Qualification Test than college-age students except in the verbal sub-test.

Two recent studies have analyzed the performance of adults of the College-Level Examination Program (CLEP) used by several United States Colleges and Universities. The tests are designed to test knowledge and comprehension of basic facts, principles and concepts in the five areas of English Composition, Humanities, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences - History. Sharon (1971) found adults' scores were inversely related to age and positively related to level of education in test results from a large sample of military personnel. Fagin (1971) found no significant relationship between age and test scores in a sample of 319 women. However, the women's performance was shown to be related to level of education and also to the extent of participation in informal educational experiences.

Bayley (1966) suggests that motivation, drive and time rather than variation in intelligence scores might be important determiners of adult learning ability. Others support a "theory of disuse", which implies that learning decrease is a function of age (Sorenson, 1930; Knox & Sgogres, 1965). Zahn (1967) offers the best interpretations for these diverse results and opinions. He suggests that cross-sectional studies comparing intelligence in older and younger students show a decline in intelligence as age increases. However, more meaningful comparisons, in longitudinal studies show no such decrease, and in some cases, an increase. Performance on other cognitive tests varies, with older students doing better on vocabulary tests, years of formal schooling strongly influencing performance, as well as health and physical differences.

Part of the differences in reported studies (Hackett & Farnum, 1963; Bayley, 1966; Zahn, 1967) can also be related to different preferences for, or orientations towards, learning among older students. Knox and Sgogres (1965) found, for example, that optimum learning occurred in older students when they were allowed to learn at their own rate. Blackburn (1967) examined adult method orientations (defined as preferences expressed by adults selecting a method through which to become involved in educative behaviour) in seven subject areas among 611 adult subjects. He found that the majority of the respondents preferred group method orientations. These results are consistent with the reports dealing with why evening students enrol in the first place. Although not the most important reasons, "meeting new people" (Johnstone and Rivera, 1965) or "association with people studying" (Scholsberg, 1967) were, nevertheless among the reasons given for enrolling

in evening university. Dubois and others (1968) examined the effectiveness of various learning conditions in evening introductory psychology courses given at the University of Washington. They compared the conventional conditions in which the instructor sets the stage, and full participation in the class program is explicitly or implicitly demanded, with that of permissive condition in which the student chooses the degree of participation in activities established by the instructor. They found a positive relationship between permissive condition and achievement and suggested that evening university students may learn more effectively under conditions of "elective participation".

No matter what orientations evening students may prefer, or whatever the precise reasons for enrolment, part-time students, on the whole, tend to perform better, or at least as well as full-time students when achievement is measured by teacher-made or standardized tests (Ulmer, 1965). Ulmer (1965) also reported that evening students tend to be more consistent than day students in the rate of achievement as evidenced by performance on the examinations during the semester. In 17 out of 18 examining periods, the evening students had higher achievement than their matched day time students. It would be interesting to know the relationship between reasons for enrolment and academic achievement. Does a student whose primary reason for enrolment is job advancement perform better than a student enrolling because he wants to meet people or obtain satisfaction from completing his education? Schultz and Ulmer (1966) also found that evening junior college students performed better than their day-time counterparts on both teacher-made and

standardized tests. Six day and six evening classes each taught by the same instructor day and evening, were paired. Course content, teaching methods employed, and pre and post tests were matched for each group. Schultz and Ulmer (1966) found that low ability young students performed better in the evening classes. This finding that low ability young students perform better in the evening class has implications for university admissions policies, if in fact these findings can be confirmed by further studies.

Very few studies have been concerned with the prediction of success among part-time university students. One exception to this, however, is the work of Flackerty (1965). He reports that intellectual ability was the best predictor of science, social science and overall grade point average. Study habits and attitudes were the best predictors in humanities. Age, interestingly enough, was also a predictor of science and mathematics grades. Further research must be conducted to determine factors affecting academic success among part-time university students in the various degree programs.

Research studies suggest that part-time students most often enter university voluntarily. They come to school of their own violation; either because of some sense of educational inadequacy which they feel a need to overcome, or because they seek advancement in their jobs or professions. The younger full-time student typically comes to school mostly out of pressure, either because of parental and/or peer group pressure or because of the fear of being unemployed, or because he does not want to enter the labour market. The part-time student usually enters

university for immediate use of learning for the solving of immediate life or occupational problems, whereas the younger full-time student is concerned with the idea of storing up knowledge for the time when he becomes an adult and gets his first job. As a result, the full-time student enters university with a subject-centered orientation, whereas the part-time student comes with a problem-centered approach. Gibb (1960) suggests that adult learning must be experience centered, the goals must be set by the learner and the search must be organized by the learner, with learning and performance feedback channels clearly established. Straight transmission of information is not enough. Thompson (1968) feels it is important to use educational devices such as business games, case studies and the like, that relate to the experience of the part-time student. It has become quite evident that one of the fundamental principles of learning that internalization of material best occurs when the material relates to one's experience, has been widely disregarded by many teaching part-time university students.

Many evening students feel handicapped and insecure because they have not taken any courses for many years. DiSalvi (1971) introduced a remedial program for evening students in order to improve basic study skills. A major improvement in grade-point average of these students was reported.

A brief review of research on academic achievement and adjustment of part-time university students shows that interest in this area is of relatively recent origin. There were few studies worthy of note as late as the 1950s. The sixties have witnessed some progress. However,

most of these studies reported in the sixties were of descriptive variety.

In most universities part-time students, at the undergraduate level at any rate, form a useful but, nevertheless, peripheral group. Universities perceive education of full-time students as their central concern. Part-time courses are generally relegated to be run by Departments of Continuing Education (or similar organizations), and as such, are set apart from academic departments within the university. Part-time courses are taught either by regular faculty on an 'overload' basis or by part-time instructors. In many cases both students and instructors feel removed from the mainstream of academic life of the university. An overwhelming proportion of the research discussed above has been conducted with students in such extra-mural or off-campus classes.

With the exception of York University in Toronto, Sir George Williams University (now Sir George Campus of Concordia University) represents a unique situation in Canada as far as part-time university education is concerned. There are more part-time than full-time students. The day and evening operations are fully integrated in terms of timetable, registration, curriculum, student services and teaching personnel. Faculty members are required to teach during the day as well as during the evenings as part of their regular teaching duties and not as an 'overload'. Academic departments, and not Department of Continuing Education, are responsible for courses taught during the evenings.

Despite its long tradition of part-time university education and despite being one of the major centres of part-time education in Canada,

no study of educational experience of part-time students has been carried out at Sir George. Indeed no large-scale systematic investigations have been reported in Canada. The present series of studies was designed to fill that gap. Report 1 dealt with Part-time University Education in Montreal: Past, Present and Future. The present Report 2 will deal with social and demographic characteristics of the part-time student population at Sir George. Relationship between these variables and academic aspirations and achievement will be studied.

CHAPTER 2

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The sample consisted of all new students who registered in the Mature Students Qualifying Program at Sir George Williams University in the fall of 1971. A total of 932 students were sent a questionnaire (Appendix A) by mail. This was followed up with a request to return the questionnaire for those who failed to respond. The postal follow-up was then continued through three rounds of telephone follow-up. As a result a total of 630 completed responses were obtained. This represents 67.6% of the total sample. Of the students who did not respond 136 could not be traced because they had moved without leaving a forwarding address, 38 declined to complete the questionnaire, and 128 did not respond even after one postal and three separate telephone requests.

The Dependent Variables

Three dependent variables were used as criterion of educational outcomes for part-time university students. These criterion variables were, credits attempted, credits obtained, and grade-point average. Credits attempted represented the student's academic aspirations in quantitative terms, while credit obtained was used as a measure of the extent to which these aspirations were realized. The grade-point average reflected the quality of academic achievement of the part-time student.

The Measuring Instrument

The questionnaire (Appendix A) was employed as the chief measuring instrument in the study. Data on courses attempted, courses completed, grades and reigistration was obtained from the records kept at the Registrar's office.

A questionnaire consisting of 168 items was developed after extensive discussion with many professors and students. This was then submitted to 78 part-time students in two advanced undergraduate classes for completion. The aims of the proposed study were explained and the students were then asked to comment on the validity of the individual items. As a result of these comments, 62 items were dropped from the revised version of the questionnaire. The revised version was then again submitted to 54 part-time students in two advanced undergraduate classes, for completion and comments. As a result of this exercise 35 further items were dropped from the questionnaire. The remaining items, thus, formed the questionnaire (Appendix A) employed in this study. Since, for the most part, the questionnaire attempts to obtain factual information, and since it does not result in a global score, the well-established methods of determining reliability and validity were not applicable in this case.

Analysis

The data was transferred to computer cards and analysis carried out. Many students failed to answer all items on the questionnaire. Such partially completed questionnaires were, nevertheless, included in the

analysis. The analysis of the various variables, therefore, shows a category of missing responses. These missing responses correspond with the number of students who failed to respond to that particular item on the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 3

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

This chapter examines the social characteristics of part-time university students in terms of the usual demographic variables such as age, sex, nationality and marital status. Since mass immigration in Canada is of relatively recent origin, and since 'New Canadians' formed a substantial part of student population at Sir George, it was decided to study the sample in terms of both nationality and country of birth. Similarly, many immigrant students reported a language other than English or French as their 'mother-tongue', yet they spoke English or French all the time. It was, therefore, decided to study the sample both in terms of mother-tongue and language commonly spoken at home.

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The frequency distribution of the sample according to age is described in Table 1.1. By far the largest proportion of students in the sample, 85.5% of the 625 students who responded, were under 30 years of age. More than half the students were between 20 and 25 years of age. Sixty-five students (10.4%) were 41 years or over. Clearly, the bulk of the part-time student population of Sir George Williams University who responded to the questionnaire were only slightly older than the regular day student population.

Table 1.2 describes the mean scores and variance of the various age groups on the criterion variables, namely--credit attempted, credit obtained, and grade-point-average (G.P.A.). Table 1.3 compares the mean scores of the various age groups on the three criterion variables.

There was no significant difference between the mean number of credits attempted by the various groups, with the exception of the 41+ age group. This group attempted significantly less number of credits than the '20-25', '26-30', '31-35' age groups.

There were no significant differences between the various groups in the mean number of credits and G.P.A. obtained. Thus, although the older students attempted fewer credits, the number and quality of credits obtained by them were similar to those obtained by others. It appears that, on the whole, the older students had become more realistic about their ability to cope with the course load. The results indicate that age does not appear to be a significant factor in academic achievement at the university level.

TABLE 1.1

Frequency Distribution According to Age

AGE	20-25 yrs.	26-30 yrs.	31-35 yrs.	36-40 yrs.	41+ yrs.
NUMBER (N)	355	167	65	22	16
PERCENT %	56.8	26.7	10.4	3.5	2.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 625

MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 5 or 0.8%

TABLE 1.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down By Age

AGE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
20-25 yrs.	3.49	1.25	2.30	1.78	2.48	1.66
26-30 yrs.	3.44	1.30	2.52	1.79	2.51	1.55
31-35 yrs.	3.60	1.18	2.66	1.58	2.77	1.46
36-40 yrs.	3.18	1.10	2.09	1.69	2.41	1.56
41 + yrs.	2.75	1.13	2.00	1.55	2.75	1.53

TABLE 1.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Age

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
20-25 yrs. - 26-30 yrs.	.05	-.22	-.03
20-25 yrs. - 31-35 yrs.	-.11	-.36	-.29
20-25 yrs. - 36-40 yrs.	.31	.21	.07
20-25 yrs. - 40+ yrs.	.74*	.30	-.27
26-30 yrs. - 31-35 yrs.	-.16	-.14	-.26
26-30 yrs. - 36-40 yrs.	.26	.43	.10
26-30 yrs. - 40+ yrs.	.69*	.52	-.24
31-35 yrs. - 36-40 yrs.	.42	.57	.36
31-35 yrs. - 40+ yrs.	.85*	.66	.02
36-40 yrs. - 40+ yrs.	.43	.09	-.34

* significant at 5% level

S E X

Table 2.1 describes the distribution of the sample by sex. The number of males was nearly double the number of females. Since formal education has long been recognized as a means of vertical social mobility, and since the principle wage-earners in most families still happen to be males, it is hardly surprising to find that many more males than females are willing to commit themselves to the hard road of part-time education. The data indicates that the females represent a significant untapped resourse for part-time student population.

Table 2.2 describes the mean scores and standard deviations of the two groups on the three criterion variables. Table 2.3 compares these mean scores. Males attempted significantly more courses than females but did not complete more credits than females. Females obtained a significantly higher G.P.A. Thus, it appears that males attempt to do more course work but end up with a similar average of credits obtained, and a lower quality of grades than females.

Considering the fact that twice as many males as females were in the sample, it is obvious that the sample represented a more selected female than male population. A much smaller proportion of eligible females than males had decided to take up part-time studies. It is quite possible that many more males than females would have registered with the university for professional and job advancement reasons rather than for personal fulfillment. This perhaps accounts for the higher academic performance of the female group.

TABLE 2.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Sex

SEX	MALE	FEMALE
NUMBER (N)	407	223
PERCENT %	64.6	35.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 630 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 0

TABLE 2.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Sex

SEX	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
MALE	3.57	1.26	2.31	1.79	2.36	1.57
FEMALE	3.25	1.24	2.50	1.70	2.82	1.64

TABLE 2.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Sex

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
MALE - FEMALE	.32**	-.19	-.46*

** significant at the 1% level

* significant at the 5% level

NATIONALITY

Table 3.1 analyzes the citizenship status of the sample. Canadian citizens and landed immigrants accounted for almost 98% of the population sampled. It would appear that Sir George Williams University's part-time students are almost entirely Canadian residents.

Table 3.2 describes the scores of the three groups on the criterion variables. Table 3.3 compares the mean scores. Compared to Canadian citizens landed immigrants both attempted and obtained a greater number of credits and had a higher mean G.P.A. This generally higher achievement of the immigrant group can perhaps be explained by the higher level of motivation amoung immigrants. Having made the effort to move a long way from home in search of a better life, the immigrants, are more prone to search for and exploit the educational route to upward social mobility.

The total number of foreign students in the sample was much too small to make any statistically meaningful comparison.

TABLE 3.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Nationality

NATIONALITY	CANADIAN	LANDED IMMIGRANT	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	441	170	11
PERCENT %	70.9	27.3	1.8

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 622

MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 8 or 1.3%

TABLE 3.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down By Nationality

NATIONALITY	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
CANADIAN	3.23	1.22	2.12	1.68	2.43	1.62
LANDED IMMIGRANT	3.99	1.17	2.99	1.79	2.81	1.54
OTHER	3.45	1.81	2.55	2.55	1.64	1.69

TABLE 3.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Nationality

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
CANADIANS - LANDED IMMIGRANTS	-.76**	-.87**	-.38**
CANADIANS- OTHERS	-.22	-.43	.79
LANDED IMMIGRANTS - OTHERS	.54	.44	1.17*

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

COUNTRY OF BIRTH

Table 4.1 describes the distribution of the sample by country of birth. Almost forty-one percent of the sample was born outside of Canada.

Table 4.2 describes the mean scores and standard deviation of the various groups on the criterion variables.

Table 4.3 compares the means. Foreign-born students in each of the three general catagories considered, attempted and obtained a greater number of credits and had a higher G.P.A. than Canadian-born students. While U.S.-born students obtained the greatest mean number of credits and had the highest mean G.P.A., they accounted for only six of the respondents. Although these students scored significantly higher G.P.A. scores than Canadians, in view of the very small numbers involved, no reliance can be placed on the results. No statistically significant difference was found between the three groups of foreign-born students.

The results are in conformity with the now well recognized dynamics of immigration.

Immigrants, on the whole, tend to be better motivated and work harder for upward social mobility. Since, motivation plays an important role in educational acheivement at the university level, it is perhaps to be expected that foreign-born students will do better than local Canadians.

TABLE 4.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Country of Birth

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	CANADA	EUROPE	U.S.A.	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	369	139	6	114
PERCENT %	58.8	22.1	1.0	18.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 628 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 2 or .3%

TABLE 4.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Country of Birth

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
CANADA	3.12	1.23	2.01	1.67	2.34	1.63
EUROPE	3.91	1.13	2.77	1.77	2.77	1.63
U.S.A.	3.33	1.37	3.33	1.37	3.67	.52
OTHER	3.97	1.18	3.01	1.75	2.74	1.48

TABLE 4.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Country of Birth

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
CANADA - EUROPE	-.79**	-.76**	-.43**
CANADA - U.S.A.	-.21	-1.32*	-1.33*
CANADA - OTHER	-.85**	-1.00**	-.40*
EUROPE - U.S.A.	.58	-.56	-.90
EUROPE - OTHER	-.06	-.24	.03
U.S.A. - OTHER	-.64	.32	.93

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

MOTHER TONGUE

Table 5.1 shows the distribution of the sample by mother-tongue. Roughly 60% of the sample spoke English as a mother-tongue and approximately 40% listed a language other than English as their mother-tongue.

Table 5.2 discribes the mean and standard deviation scores of the various language groups on the criterion variables.

Table 5.3 compares these scores. There were no significant differences on any of the criterion variables between students whose mother-tongue was English or French. It is interesting to note that students who listed French as their mother tongue were doing just as well at an English university as students who listed English as their mother-tongue. However, students who listed 'other' as their mother-tongue attempted and obtained significantly more credits than 'English' students. There were no significant differences in the mean G.P.A. scores of these groups. Immigrants are probably highly represented in the 'other' language group which possibly explains the higher number of mean credits attempted/obtained by this group.

TABLE 5.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Mother Tongue

MOTHER TONGUE	ENGLISH	FRENCH	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	380	97	152
PERCENT %	60.4	15.4	24.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 629 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 1 or .2%

TABLE 5.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Mother Tongue

MOTHER TONGUE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
ENGLISH	3.31	1.26	2.24	1.72	2.54	1.63
FRENCH	3.53	1.17	2.56	1.79	2.36	1.59
OTHER	3.80	1.25	2.63	1.81	2.55	1.56

TABLE 5.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Mother Tongue

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ENGLISH-FRENCH	-.22	-.32	.18
ENGLISH-OTHER	-.49**	-.39*	-.01
FRENCH-OTHER	-.27	-.07	-.19

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

HOME LANGUAGE

Table 6.1 indicates that 73% of the sample claim English to be their dominant tongue; roughly 13% spoke French while another 13% (approximately) listed a language other than English or French. When comparing the data on the frequency distribution between home language (Table 6.1) and mother tongue (5.1), it appears that the latter does not necessarily imply the former. In this particular sample, it is interesting to note that while 152 claim to having a mother-tongue other than French or English, almost half do not speak their mother tongue at home. The dominant language shift appears to be moving toward the English language. This is not surprising, however, in view of the fact that the sample was extracted from an English University.

In Table 6.3, the three language groups were compared yielding results which confirm that the 'other' group attempted more credits than either the English or French-speaking groups. Those listed as 'other' also obtained more credits than the English-speaking group. However, the G.P.A. was not significantly different between any two given groups.

These findings suggest that non-English/French-speaking groups, presumably immigrants, may have more initial motivation than English or French speaking groups, to take on extra courses. Surprisingly enough, the possible language problem encountered by the non-English-speaking group in an English university coupled with an added course load did not decrease the G.P.A. of the 'other' group as compared with the G.P.A. of either the English-dominant or French dominant language groups.

TABLE 6.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Home Language

HOME LANGUAGE	ENGLISH	FRENCH	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	459	85	85
PERCENT %	73.0	13.5	13.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 629 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 1 or .2%

TABLE 6.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Home Language

HOME LANGUAGE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
ENGLISH	3.31	1.25	2.24	1.71	2.53	1.62
FRENCH	3.61	1.20	2.60	1.80	2.53	1.59
OTHER	4.15	1.10	2.93	1.85	2.41	1.55

TABLE 6.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Home Language

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ENGLISH- FRENCH	-.30*	-.36	.00
ENGLISH- OTHER	-.84**	-.69 **	.12
FRENCH- OTHER	-.54*	-.33	.12

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

MARITAL STATUS

Table 7.1 illustrates that over 50% of the sample were single while roughly 45% were married, leaving approximately two percent and one percent in the divorced and separated catagories, respectively.

Table 7.3 indicates that single people attempt significantly more credits than either married or separated individuals but not more than divorced people. However, there was no significant difference between any two given groups on the number of credits obtained. Divorced people obtained a significantly lower G.P.A. in comparison to single, married and separated individuals. Married people, regardless of their possible, greater preoccupations and commitments over single persons, obtained a similar G.P.A. to single individuals.

It could be argued that the low G.P.A. scores attained by divorced people could be attributed to emotional disturbances brought on by post-marital adjustment difficulties, however, the size of the group is so small (N=11) that the G.P.A. data could be reflective of a highly selective group.

TABLE 7.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Marital Status

MARITAL STATUS	SINGLE	MARRIED	DIVORCED	SEPARATED
NUMBER (N)	324	289	11	6
PERCENT %	51.4	45.9	1.7	1.0

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 630 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 0 or 0%

TABLE 7.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Marital Status

MARITAL STATUS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
SINGLE	3.61	1.27	2.42	1.81	2.43	1.60
MARRIED	3.29	1.21	2.38	1.68	2.68	1.59
DIVORCED	3.82	1.66	1.64	2.29	1.00	1.27
SEPARATED	2.50	1.23	1.83	1.84	2.67	1.37

TABLE 7.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables
According to Matrital Status

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
SINGLE - MARRIED	.32**	.04	-.25
SINGLE - DIVORCED	-.21	.78	1.43**
SINGLE - SEPARATED	1.11*	.59	-.24
MARRIED - DIVORCED	-.53	.74	1.68**
MARRIED - SEPARATED	.79	.55	.01
DIVORCED - SEPARATED	1.32	-.19*	-1.67*

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

CHAPTER 4

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

This chapter examines the nature and amount of course work undertaken, academic preparation prior to university entry, and their relationship with criterion variables. Variables studied include the number of courses enrolled, how many of these were required and how many were optional courses, reasons for taking optional courses, and anticipated course work in the following academic year. Relationship between possession of high school diploma, achievement at high school level, type of high school attended, and achievement at part-time university was looked into. The amount, nature and reasons for delay between high school graduation and university entry were examined for their association with criterion variables. Special training prior to university entry and reasons for taking university courses are analysed.

HALF-COURSE ENROLMENT

Table 8.1 illustrates the frequency distribution of the sample according to the number of half-courses taken. Almost 50% of the sample were registered with three to four half-courses; approximately 25% were enrolled in two half-courses or less, while almost the same proportion were taking five to six half-courses. Twenty-four individuals were taking seven to eight half-courses with eight persons enrolled in more than eight half-courses.

Table 8.3 illustrates that the number of credits attempted generally coincides with the number of credits obtained. One would expect to find that groups undertaking more courses would be unable to successfully meet the excess work involved. However, this was not the case, as evidenced in the G.P.A. contrast between groups 'two half-courses to three to four half-courses', 'two half-courses to six half-courses', 'two half-courses to seven to eight half courses', whereby the group with the greater course load obtained a significantly higher G.P.A. as compared with the group with the one to two half-course load. This group as compared with all other groups, repeatedly obtained a lower G.P.A. It might have been predicted that this group would be more capable of achieving a higher G.P.A. than all other groups in view of the comparatively reduced time and study factor. Clearly, this was not the case. However, this incongruous set of data may be explained by the fact that students registered with less than two half-courses lacked the required motivation to achieve higher standards. It may be that members of this group were apprehensive about the program or uncertain of its potential benefits and were, therefore, more passively than actively involved in their studies. By taking just one or two half-courses they might be just trying on both the programme and their ability to cope with this level of study.

TABLE 8.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Half-courses Taken

NUMBER OF HALF-COURSES	2 HALF-COURSES OR LESS	3-4 HALF-COURSES	5-6 HALF-COURSES	7-8 HALF-COURSES	8+ HALF-COURSES
NUMBER (N)	158	299	138	24	8
PERCENT %	25.2	47.7	22.0	3.8	1.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 627 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 3 or .5%

TABLE 8.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Half-courses Taken

NUMBER OF COURSES TAKEN	CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
TWO HALF-COURSES OR LESS	1.21	1.06	2.15	1.77
THREE - FOUR HALF-COURSES	2.44	1.61	2.56	1.52
FIVE - SIX HALF-COURSES	3.49	1.92	2.75	1.53
SEVEN - EIGHT HALF-COURSES	3.17	1.58	3.38	1.31
EIGHT AND MORE HALF-COURSES	2.25	1.67	2.38	1.85

TABLE 8.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Half-courses Taken

GROUP	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
2 Half-courses or less- 3-4 half-courses	-1.23**	-.41**
2 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-2.28**	-.60**
2 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-1.96**	-1.23**
2 Half-courses- 8+ Half- courses	-1.04**	-.23
3-4 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-1.05**	-.19
3-4 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-.73*	-.82*
3-4 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	.19	.18
5-6 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	.32	-.63
5-6 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	1.24	-.37
8+ Half-courses	.92	1.00

** significant at
* significant

REQUIRED HALF-COURSE ENROLMENT

According to the frequency distribution in Table 9.1 the majority of the sample (44.8%) were required to take three to four half-courses while 34% followed two or less required courses. Roughly 15% were registered in five to six half required courses, leaving approximately five percent of the sample enrolled in seven or more required half-courses.

Once again, Table 9.3 indicates that the number of credits attempted is proportional to the number of credits obtained. Students undertaking more required courses did in fact obtain the credits. There was no significant difference between any two given groups on the G.P.A. with the exception of groups 'two half-courses or less to seven to eight half-courses' and 'three to four half-courses to seven to eight half-courses', where the group with the greater amount of required courses obtained a higher G.P.A.

Due to the fact that required courses are often: a) not specifically tailored to the individual's liking or interest and b) somewhat basic and rigid, it could be expected that students required to take more courses and, thus, have less options would become less enthusiastic and less stimulated in face of these limitations. Clearly, this was not the case. It may be that the part-time candiate is looking for a program structure and approves of a well-defined curriculum. It is not uncommon to find that individuals who have temporarily left the academic environment and are employed in a field upon their return to school, appreciate and value structure and clear guidelines.

TABLE 9.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Required Courses

NUMBER OF HALF-COURSES	2 HALF-COURSES OR LESS	3-4 HALF-COURSES	5-6 HALF-COURSES	7-8 HALF-COURSES	8+ HALF-COURSES
NUMBER (N)	183	241	88	22	4
PERCENT %	34.0	44.8	16.4	4.1	0.7

VALID OBSEVATIONS - 538 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 92 or 14.6%

TABLE 9.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Required Courses

NUMBER OF COURSES TAKEN	CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
TWO HALF-COURSES OR LESS	1.66	1.49	2.27	1.72
THREE - FOUR HALF-COURSES	2.60	1.72	2.52	1.50
FIVE - SIX HALF-COURSES	3.47	1.89	2.66	1.51
SEVEN - EIGHT HALF-COURSES	3.00	1.57	3.27	1.35
EIGHT AND MORE HALF-COURSES	1.75	2.36	2.25	2.63

TABLE 9.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Required Courses

GROUP	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
2 Half-courses or less- 3-4 half-courses	-.94**	-.25
2 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-1.81**	-.39
2 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-1.34**	-1.00**
2 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	-.09	.02
3-4 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-.87**	-.14
3-4 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-.40	-.75*
3-4 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	.85	.27
5-6 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	.47	-.61
5-6 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	1.72	.41
8+ Half-courses	1.25	1.02

** significant at l

* significant a

REASONS FOR TAKING OPTIONAL COURSES

Table 10.1 demonstrates the reasons for taking optional courses. Almost 45% were prompted to register in optional courses because of the need to specialize in a particular field. More than a third of the sample were following optional courses for self-interest and acquisition of general knowledge. Over 15% of the sample were required to take optional courses as pre-requisites for their specific program. Surprisingly enough only roughly four percent of the sample were motivated for employment and job advancement reasons. This figure is somewhat lower than could be expected particularly in view of the large enrolment for specialization motives. One would expect that the percentage figure for specialization catagory would closely resemble the one for employment category on the presumption that a certain degree of specialization is necessary for professional and job advancement.

Table 10.3 shows no significant differences in the number of credits attempted or obtained with the exception of the group contrast between (self-interest) and (specialization) where the former group attempted more credits than the latter. Individuals enrolled in optional courses for self-interest reasons obtained a significantly higher G.P.A. score than all other groups with the exception of group four (employment) where there was no difference in G.P.A. scores. It is interesting to note that the group being required to take optional courses (group three) did not obtain a lower G.P.A. than all other groups. This finding together with the data in Table 9.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Required Courses) whereby the number of required courses taken did not negatively affect the G.P.A. scores, indicates that if this type of student is

required to do a course, he is likely to do well; but if he takes up a course for self-interest reasons he is likely to do even better.

TABLE 10.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Reasons For Taking Optional Courses

REASONS	SELF-INTEREST-GEN. KNOW	SPECIAL-IZATION	COMPUL-SORY OPTION	JOB ADVAN.-EMPLOYMENT	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	183	241	88	22	4
PERCENT %	34.0	44.8	16.4	4.1	.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 538 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 92 or 14.6%

TABLE 10.2

Group Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Reasons For Taking Optional Courses

REASONS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
SELF-INTEREST	3.37	1.24	2.67	1.51	3.27	1.36
SPECIALIZATION	4.15	1.35	2.77	2.00	2.15	1.81
COMPULSORY OPTION	3.68	1.49	2.37	2.06	2.53	1.84
EMPLOYMENT	3.79	.89	2.79	1.48	2.86	1.70
OTHER	3.61	1.17	2.79	1.64	2.61	1.44

TABLE 10.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Reasons For Taking Optional Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
SELF-INTEREST-SPECIALIZATION	-.78*	-.10	1.12*
SELF-INTEREST-COMPULSORY OPTION	-.31	.30	.74*
SELF-INTEREST-EMPLOYMENT	-.42	-.12	.41
SELF-INTEREST-OTHER	-.24	-.12	.66*
SPECIALIZATION-COMPULSORY OPTION	.47	.40	-.38
SPECIALIZATION-EMPLOYMENT	.36	-.02	-.71
SPECIALIZATION-OTHER	.54	-.02	-.46
COMPULSORY OPTION-JOB ADVANCEMENT	-.11	-.42	-.33
COMPULSORY OPTION-OTHER	.07	-.42	-.08
EMPLOYMENT-OTHER	.18	.00	.25

* significant at

ANTICIPATED COURSES IN FALL SESSION

Table 11.1 shows that almost 50% of the sample were anticipating a three to four half-course-load for the fall winter session. Roughly a fifth were forcasting registration in under two or less half-courses while approximately the same proportion of the sample claimed they would be enrolling in five to six half-courses in the fall. The remainder of the sample (5.2%) anticipated a load of seven half-courses and over.

Table 11.3 indicates that there was a significantly negative difference in the number of credits attempted/credits obtained and G.P.A. between group one (two half-courses or less) and all other groups with the exception of the G.P.A. group comparison between one and five. It could be suggested that the group who were planning to take less than two half-courses in the fall session: (a) were disappointed with and consequently apathetic towards the academic format of the courses they were taking or (b) found themselves incapable of coping with the course work (c) disapproved of the orientation of the courses. This group did not obtain as high G.P.A. scores as those who saw themselves taking more than two half-courses. The findings could also result from an initial lack of motivation on the part of low course group to intensively pursue academic studies. Or, maybe the motivation was present but because group one obtained lower G.P.A. scores than all other groups, it may be that they were hesitant and anxious about their success in school for the year to come.

Significant differences in the number of credits attempted and obtained are witnessed in the group contrasts between two and three; and three and four. In both comparisons, group three attempted and obtained more credits

than the contrasted group, however, G.P.A. scores were not significantly different in either cases.

TABLE 11.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Courses Anticipated for Fall-Winter Session

NUMBER OF ANTICIP COURSES	2 HALF-COURSES OR LESS	3-4 HALF-COURSES	5-6 HALF-COURSES	7-8 HALF-COURSES	8+ HALF-COURSES
NUMBER (N)	131	273	143	26	4
PERCENT %	22.7	47.3	24.8	4.5	.7
GROUP	1	2	3	4	5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 577 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 53 or 8.4%

TABLE 11.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down By Number of Courses Anticipated in Fall-Winter Session

NUMBER OF COURSES TAKEN	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
TWO HALF-COURSES OR LESS	2.24	.77	1.31	1.15	2.21	1.78
THREE -FOUR HALF-COURSES	3.49	1.04	2.53	1.57	2.67	1.50
FIVE - SIX HALF-COURSES	4.53	.97	3.29	1.92	2.60	1.58
SEVEN - EIGHT HALF-COURSES	3.58	1.07	2.46	1.73	3.00	1.41
EIGHT AND MORE HALF-COURSES	4.25	1.50	3.25	1.26	3.75	.96

TABLE 11.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Courses Anticipated in Fall-Winter Session

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
2 Half-courses or less- 3-4 half-courses	-1.25	-1.22**	-.46**
2 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-2.29**	-1.98**	-.39*
2 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-1.34**	-1.15**	-79*
2 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	-2.01**	-1.94**	-1.54
3-4 Half-courses- 5-6 Half-courses	-1.04**	-.76**	.07
3-4 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	-.09	.07	-.33
3-4 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	-.76	-.72	-1.08
5-6 Half-courses- 7-8 Half-courses	.95**	.83*	-.40
5-6 Half-courses- 8+ Half-courses	.28	.04	-1.15
8+ Half-courses	-.67	-.79	-.75

** significant at

* significant

POSSESSION OF HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA

Table 12.1 indicates that 438 persons from the sample had previously obtained their high school diploma while 179 had not reached this level of education.

In table 12.3 the two groups were compared with the resulting data showing no significant difference between those who had obtained a high school diploma and those who had not, on the number of credits attempted or obtained. There was, however, a significant difference on G.P.A. scores, whereby the group who claimed possession of the diploma obtained higher scores than those who did not hold this certificate.

From these findings it may be inferred that the involvement in formal education prior to entry into a university curriculum affects the level of achievement but not the quantity of course work undertaken or completed.

TABLE 12 1

Frequency Distribution According to Possession of High School Diploma

POSSESSION OF HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMA	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	438	179
PERCENT %	71.0	29.0

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 617 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 13 or 2.1%

TABLE 12.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Possession of High School Diploma

HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.49	1.23	2.45	1.73	2.64	1.60
NO	3.35	1.34	2.15	1.83	2.13	1.57

TABLE 12.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Possession of High School Diploma

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.14	.30	.51**

** significant at 1% level

DELAY BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA AND UNIVERSITY

Table 13.1 illustrates that over three-quarters of the sample who had obtained a high school diploma, had waited for a certain period of time before registering in a university program. This left roughly 17% of high school candidates who had gone directly from secondary school to university.

Table 13.1 shows that the 'delay' group did not attempt as many credits as the 'no-delay' group. However, there was no significant difference between the two groups on the number of credits obtained. Students who had waited before entering university did significantly better on G.P.A. scores than those who had not.

These findings are in keeping with the assumption that a delay between the two levels of formal education leads to a greater tendency to appreciate, profit from, and respect the merits of education. In addition this greater enthusiasm and motivation usually leads to successful completion of course requirements. The finding that the delay group may not have attempted as many courses as the non-delay group may be explained by the fact that they had a better knowledge of what courses would be most beneficial. The time factor and exposure to a milieu other than the academic one, enables one to acquire a better idea of what one requires with added maturity.

TABLE 13.1

Frequency Distribution According to Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

DELAY	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	365	79
PERCENT %	82.2	17.8

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 444 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 186 or 29.5%

TABLE 13.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.46	1.21	2.56	1.70	2.81	1.57
NO	3.77	1.26	2.15	1.81	1.86	1.52

TABLE 13.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES/NO	-.31*	.41	.95**

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

AMOUNT OF DELAY BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA AND UNIVERSITY REGISTRATION

Table 14.1 shows that 56.7% of the sample had a gap of more than four years between obtaining their high school diploma and university registration; 6.4% had a delay of one year, and approximately 12% had a delay of two, three, or four years.

Table 14.2 describes the mean and standard deviation of the sample on the three criterion variables. A comparison of the means is made in Table 14.3. No significant difference was found between the various groups on credits attempted or credits obtained. With two minor exceptions, the G.P.A. increased with the increase in delay. The difference reached a significant level in two to four years and two to five year comparison. The results indicate a general trend (though not always statistically significant) of a higher G.P.A. with increase in delay between high school graduation and university entry.

TABLE 14.1

Frequency Distribution According to Years of Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

NUMBER OF YEARS DELAY	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years or more
NUMBER (N)	23	41	46	46	204
PERCENT %	6.4	11.4	12.8	12.8	56.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 360 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 270 or 42.9%

TABLE 14.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Years of Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
One Year	3.65	1.19	2.61	1.75	2.57	1.44
Two Years	3.63	1.11	2.24	1.74	2.15	1.44
Three Years	3.72	1.19	2.46	1.89	2.74	1.73
Four Years	3.50	1.09	2.78	1.41	3.11	1.48
Five Years	3.37	1.23	2.60	1.71	2.91	1.56

TABLE 14.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Years of Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
One year-two years	.02	.37	.42
One year-three years	-.07	.15	-.17
One year-four years	.15	-.17	-.54
One year-five years	.28	.01	-.34
Two years-three years	-.09	-.22	-.59
Two years-four years	.13	-.54	-.96**
Two years-five years	.26	-.36	-.76**
Three years-four years	.22	-.32	-.37
Three years-five years	.35	-.14	-.17
Four years-five years	.13	.18	.20

** significant at 1% level

REASONS FOR DELAY

Table 15.1 illustrates the distribution of the various reasons stated for the delay by those in the sample who had not immediately entered university after high school.

Over 17% of the sample claimed that the delay was caused by a need to travel right after the completion of high school. Just one tenth of the sample listed financial difficulties as a reason for the delay. Apparently the subject of financial support for university studies is not as important a variable as might be anticipated. Only approximately six percent of the sample claimed that the delay was the consequence of a feeling of futility and apathy towards further educational studies. Roughly ten percent were more concerned with pursuing their education in a specialized field and, thus, opted for a special form of training rather than continuing at the university level. Less than five percent maintained that marriage resulted in a postponement of their studies. Approximately 15% were uncertain about what they wanted to do at the termination of the secondary level and thus were unwilling to commit themselves to a particular line of study at the university level. Over 15% of the sample claimed that language barriers or immigration status hampered further studies after high school. The remainder of the sample--roughly 12%, either gave a reason other than those listed or a combination of reasons including: work, financial difficulties, special training, and lack of enthusiasm towards further education.

The total number of valid observations exceeds the total number of the sample who claimed that there was a delay period between high school and university. This is because certain respondents listed more than one reason for the delay.

TABLE 15.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Reasons for Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

REASONS FOR DELAY	OUTSIDE STUDIES SPECIAL TRAINING	WORK	UNIVERSITY UNIMPORTANT AT THE TIME	FINANCIAL DIFFICULTIES	COMBINATION of 1-4
NUMBER (N)	70	36	38	79	43
PERCENT %	26.30	13.50	14.3	29.7	16.2

TABLE 15.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Reasons for Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration

REASONS FOR DELAY	MARRIAGE	TRAVEL	UNDECIDED FIELD	IMMIGRATION/ LANGUAGE	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	29	112	97	100	36
PERCENT %	4.53	17.50	15.16	15.63	5.63

AVERAGE MARK OF HIGH SCHOOL MATRICULATION

Table 16.1 indicates that almost a third of the sample had obtained a 61-65% average on their high school matriculation, while roughly a quarter of the respondents attained a 66-69% average on their final high-school exams. Approximately eight percent finished their matriculation with a 60% average. Over a quarter of the sample obtained a 70-79% matriculation average, leaving a group of almost ten percent with an average of 80% or more.

Table 16.3 does not yield data indicating that the group who obtained a 60% average mark in high school attempted/obtained fewer credits or attained a lower G.P.A. than all other groups contrasted. There was one exception to this finding, in which the '80%' group obtained more credits and attained higher G.P.A. scores than the '60%' group. The group who finished high school with a 61-65% average attempted and obtained fewer credits and had a lower G.P.A. score than all other groups with the exception of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. in contrast to the '60%' group where there was no significant difference. The group who averaged 66-69% in the final high school exams, attempted and obtained fewer credits than the 70-79% group and the 80%+ group.

The data in Table 16.3 presents a general pattern whereby those students who achieved a higher average in their matriculation attempted/obtained more credits and attained a higher G.P.A. score than those students who achieved a relatively lower average in high school. Thus, it appears that on the whole, the average mark obtained in the final high school exams is related to the level of achievement in university. It is surprising, however, that the group who obtained the lowest average matriculation mark--60% did no worse than all other groups with the exception of the '80%+' group on all three criterion variables.

TABLE 16.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Average Mark of High School Matriculation

AVERAGE MARK IN PERCENT	60%	61-65%	66-69%	70-79%	80%+
NUMBER (N)	29	112	97	100	36
PERCENT %	7.8	29.9	25.9	26.7	9.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 374 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 256 or 40.6%

TABLE 16.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Average Mark of High School Matriculation

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
60%	3.62	1.35	2.31	1.82	2.41	1.38
61-65%	3.45	1.12	1.95	1.55	2.18	1.58
66-69%	3.08	1.21	2.18	1.56	2.72	1.61
70-79%	3.68	1.25	2.91	1.75	2.83	1.59
80%+	3.94	1.19	3.44	1.81	3.11	1.41

TABLE 16.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Average Mark of High School Matriculation

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
60% / 61-65%	.17	.36	.23
60% / 66-69%	.54*	.13	-.31
60% / 70-79%	-.06	-.60	-.42
60% / 80%+	-.32	-1.13	-.70*
61-65% / 66-69%	.37*	-.23	-.54*
61-65% / 70-79%	-.23**	-.96**	-.65**
61-65% / 80%+	-.49*	-1.49**	-.93**
66-69% / 70-79%	-.60**	-.73**	-.11
66-69% / 80%+	-.86**	-1.26**	-.39
70-79% / 80%+	-.26	-.53	-.28

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

REPEAT OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADE

Table 17.1 indicates that 199 or roughly one-third of the sample had experienced failure in one or more grades in high school, while almost two-thirds of the sample (375) had passed every high-school grade without repeating a grade.

In table 17.3 the 'repeat' and 'no-repeat' groups were compared yielding a significant difference in favour of the latter group on all criterion variables. People who experienced failure at the secondary level did, in fact, attempt and obtain fewer credits than the 'no-repeat' group. Also, those who had not met with high-school failure obtained higher G.P.A. scores than the other groups.

It appears from the data that failure at the high-school level is an indicator of the amount of course work attempted, credits and grade-point-average obtained by the part-time student.

TABLE 17.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Grades Were Repeated in High School

REPEATED GRADES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	199	375
PERCENT %	34.7	65.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 574 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 56 or 8.7%

TABLE 17.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Grades Were Repeated in High School

GRADES REPEATED IN HIGH SCHOOL	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.22	1.23	1.80	1.58	2.05	1.46
NO	3.57	1.26	2.69	1.77	2.76	1.60

TABLE 17.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Grades Were Repeated in High School

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.35**	-.87**	-.71**

** significant at 1% level

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED

Table 18.1 shows that over two-thirds of the sample had previously attended a public high school while 11% had gone to a private school. Another 81 students or 18% of the sample were previously following evening high-school courses, leaving almost 1.0% who obtained their high-school education through correspondence. The remaining part of the sample, 3.3%, had participated in a form of secondary schooling other than the type previously mentioned.

In all group contrasts in Table 18.3 there does not appear to be a significant difference in the number of credits attempted or obtained, in the G.P.A. scores, with the exception of the group comparison between public and evening high-school candidates in which case students of the public system obtained a higher G.P.A. score than evening students.

The data does not appear to create any type of consistent pattern which leads to the conclusion that the specific nature of the high-school attended does not affect the number of credits attempted/obtained or G.P.A. scores. This is a surprising finding in view of the fact that one would expect students of private high-schools to do significantly better on G.P.A. scores and possibly attempt and obtain more credits. Private high-schools are generally catagorized by a low student-teacher ratio and tend to include more intensive study periods than the public school system. These characteristics of the private school should give the 'private-school' group an academic advantage over all other groups but apparently, according to the results in Table 18.3, this is not the case.

TABLE 18.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Type of High School Attended

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL	PRIVATE SCHOOL	PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL	EVENING HIGH SCHOOL	CORRES-PONDENCE	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	49	302	81	4	15
PERCENT %	10.9	67.0	18.0	.9	3.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 451 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 179 or 28.4%

TABLE 18.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Type of High School Attended

REASONS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
PRIVATE	3.76	1.07	2.60	1.65	2.65	1.55
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL	3.42	1.27	2.48	1.75	2.79	1.59
EVENING HIGH SCHOOL	3.62	1.23	2.37	1.68	2.11	1.64
CORRESPONDENCE	4.25	1.50	3.75	2.50	2.75	1.89
OTHER	3.60	1.30	2.20	1.97	2.60	1.60

TABLE 18.3

Grades Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Type of High School

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
PRIVATE/PUBLIC	.34	.12	-.14
PRIVATE/EVENING	.14	.23	.54
PRIVATE/CORRESPONDENCE	-.49	-1.15	-.10
PRIVATE/OTHER	.16	.40	.05
PUBLIC/EVENING	-.20	.11	.68**
PUBLIC/CORRESPONDENCE	-.83	-1.27	.04
PUBLIC/OTHER	-.18	.28	.19
EVENING/ CORRESPONDENCE	-.63	-1.38	-.64
EVENING/OTHER	.02	.17	-.49
CORRESPONDENCE/OTHER	.65	1.55	.15

** significant at 1% level

SPECIAL TRAINING PRIOR TO UNIVERSITY

Table 19.1 illustrates that of the sample, almost one-third had been taking a special training of a technical nature prior to university. Roughly 27% were following either commercial, business or secretarial courses before university. Almost 20% had enlisted with some sort of electronics or computer program before university, while just under that proportion were envolved in courses of a professional nature. Another 13.9% were enrolled in a curriculum other than the four categories mentioned above prior to university registration.

Table 19.3 indicates that the group who had previously taken courses of a technical nature obtained significantly fewer credits in comparison with all other groups except the 'business/secretarial' one. However, the relatively fewer credits attempted by the 'technical group' did not affect their G.P.A. scores in relation to any other group with the exception of the 'other' group

Other significant differences appear in group contrasts on the number of credits attempted between the 'business/secretarial' and 'electronics/computer' group in which the former group attempted less than the latter. The secretarial/business group also obtained significantly fewer than the 'other' group.

Table 19.3 does not indicate the emergence of any consistent pattern. Those who had had technical training prior to university generally obtained less course credits than all other groups, however, G.P.A. scores were not affected so it does not appear that this kind of training hampers success at the university level. The 'other' group tend to have higher G.P.A. scores and obtain more credits than all other groups but this finding is somewhat ambiguous in that the only known characteristic of this group is that its members were not participating in one of the four special training groups. Furthermore, this is just a trend which is not statistically significant.

TABLE 19.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Nature of Special Training Prior to University

NATURE OF SPECIAL TRAINING	TECHNICAL-TRADE	BUSINESS-SECRETARIAL	I.B.M.-COMPUTERS	PROFESSIONAL	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	106	92	65	29	47
PERCENT %	31.3	27.1	19.2	8.6	13.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 339 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 291 or 46.2%

TABLE 19.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Nature of Special Training Prior to University

TRAINING	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
TECHNICAL-TRADE	3.25	1.23	2.12	1.77	2.45	1.71
BUSOMESS-SECRETARIAL	3.20	1.23	2.35	1.64	2.69	1.66
I.B.M.-COMPUTER	3.74	1.18	2.85	1.65	2.89	1.52
PROFESSIONAL	3.45	1.43	2.97	1.72	2.97	1.40
OTHER	3.55	1.12	2.91	1.60	3.06	1.45

TABLE 19.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Nature of Special Training Prior to University

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
TECHNICAL - SECRETARIAL/BUSINESS	.05	-.23	-.24
TECHNICAL/I.B.M.	-.49*	-.73**	-.44
TECHNICAL/PROFESSIONAL	-.20	-.85*	-.52
TECHNICAL/OTHER	-.30	-.79**	-.61*
SECRETARIAL/BUSINESS - I.B.M.	-.54**	-.50	-.20
SECRETARIAL/BUSINESS - PROFESSIONAL	-.25	-.62	-.28
SECRETARIAL/BUSINESS - OTHER	-.35	-.56*	-.37
I.B.M./PROFESSIONAL	.29	-.12	-.08
I.B.M./OTHER	.19	-.06	-.17
PROFESSIONAL/OTHER	-.10	.06	-.09

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

REASONS FOR TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES

Table 20.1 illustrates the distribution of sample according to the reasons for taking university courses. Seven reasons are listed in the Table, each reason being broken down by a five-point priority scale, indicating the popularity of the specific reason, according to respondents choices.

Apparently, the desire to learn and get educated is the prime motivating force for students in this sample. Over 70% listed this reason, at the first priority level. Reasons concerned with job advancement occupied the second most popular position, at the first priority level, with over 20% of the sample claiming this reason to be the motivating force for taking university courses. Taking into consideration the two other reasons concerned with (1) job security and (2) increased salary, a total of roughly 40% of the sample were going to school primarily, to ameliorate job conditions in one form or another. The proportion of students enrolling in university courses for occupational betterment increased substantially at the second priority level where a total of roughly 75% of the sample claimed school registration was a means to (a) job security (b)job advancement and/or (c) increased salary. Reviewing the data in Table 20.1 listed in the first and second priority levels, it would appear that students in the sample are enrolling with university courses largely in the belief that additional training enhances their occupational motives.

Family pressure upon the student to attend school was not a highly motivating reason for students to take university courses. Over 90% of the sample placed this reason at the fifth priority level and no students placed this reason at the first priority level. Furthermore, the fact that friends were taking courses did not seem to be a prime reason for student attendance.

Ninety percent of the sample listed this reason at the fifth priority level. The social incentive, or the desire to meet people was more of a reason for respondents to attend school than family pressures or attendance of friends. Roughly 15% of the sample listed this reason at the second priority level, however, over 60% listed the 'desire to meet people' at the fifth priority level.

In conclusion, it would appear from the data in Table 20.1 that the least important motive for attending university courses was family pressures followed by the reason that friends were taking courses and also the reason to meet other people.

Clearly, the desire to learn and get educated was the primary force for attending university as indicated by this sample. Reasons related with occupational concerns, was the second most motivating force for university attendance. The need to socialize and make acquaintances remains as the third most chosen reason for attending school while persuasions through friends and family to continue school were the least influential incentives to pursue education.

It would appear that the move to attend university courses originates from the student's personal desires, motives, and incentives, rather extrinsic sources. It must be remembered that over 50% of the sample had been out of school for four or more years before attending university (see Table 14.1,-- Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Years of Delay Between High school Diploma and University Registration) and, thus, had probably come to the conclusion that additional schooling would help to fulfill their desires to improve themselves and their job situation. It is conceivable that a sample of students who enter university immediately after high school would

produce different reasons for attending school with probably much more emphasis on social and family motives for attending college, simply due to the lack of having formed for themselves an idea of their desires.

In analysing the data in Table 20.1, it is important to note that this item in the questionnaire required an answer in order of priority reasons for attending school, hence, the student was required to list a maximum of seven reasons in order of preference. Thus, because of the demands of the question, the data does not total to 100% in the vertical direction but it does total to 100% in the horizontal direction.

TABLE 20.1

Reasons for Taking University Courses

REASONS	FIRST PRIORITY	SECOND PRIORITY	THIRD PRIORITY	FOURTH PRIORITY	FIFTH PRIORITY
DESIRE TO LEARN AND GET EDUCATED	431 (n) 72.8%	57 (n) 9.6%	44 (n) 7.4%	44(n) 7.4%	16 (n) 2.7%
FAMILY PRESSURES	-	13 (n) 3.4%	7 (n) 1.8%	8 (n) 2.1%	355 (n) 92.7%
ALL YOUR FRIENDS ARE TAKING COURSES	2 (n) .5%	17 (n) 4.5%	12 (n) 3.1%	7 (n) 1.8%	343 (n) 90.0%
DESIRE TO MEET PEOPLE	2 (n) .5%	64 (n) 15.3%	60 (n) 14.3%	27 (n) 6.4%	266 (n) 63.5%
JOB ADVANCEMENT	113 (n) 22.3%	212 (n) 41.9%	57 (n) 11.3%	42 (n) 8.3%	82 (n) 16.2%
JOB SECURITY	46 (n) 10.2%	70 (n) 15.5%	96 (n) 21.2%	90 (n) 19.9%	150 (n) 33.2%
INCREASED SALARY	33 (n) 7.1%	74 (n) 15.9%	141 (n) 30.3%	96 (n) 20.6%	122 (n) 26.2%

CHAPTER 5

ECMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

The various employment variables are examined here for their possible relationship with academic achievement among part-time students. A comparison is made between academic performance of students who were employed and those who were not, those who had a full-time job as against a part-time job. The nature of occupation, the average number of hours spent on the job, the degree of supervisory function performed, is looked into. An attempt is made to analyse the student profile in terms of job mobility - total number of years spent working, number of firms worked for, and the length of employment with the present firm. The importance of the present job and university studies for future career aspirations is then examined. Relationship between academic performance and employer attitude towards studies undertaken by the student, and the extent of interference between studies and job demands is looked into.

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Table 21.1 shows that over nine-tenths of the sample were 'employed' while roughly one-tenth listed themselves as 'not employed.' This group presumably consists primarily of housewives.

Table 21.3 indicates that there was a significant difference on the number of credits attempted between the employed and unemployed group in which the former attempted less credits than the latter group. However, there is no significant difference between the two groups on the other two criterion variables. Although, not statistically significant, there does appear to exist a trend whereby employed students attempt less credits and attain lower G.P.A. scores than unemployed students.

It is possible that the unemployed group, having more spare time and fewer occupational commitments, were able to devote greater time and energy to their studies and, therefore, could afford to register in more courses than employed students. The findings are entirely in expected directions.

TABLE 21.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Employment Status

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	EMPLOYED	NOT EMPLOYED
NUMBER (N)	568	62
PERCENT %	90.2	9.8

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 630 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 0 or 0%

TABLE 21.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Employment Status

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EMPLOYED	3.42	1.25	2.36	1.75	2.48	1.61
UNEMPLOYED	3.81	1.32	2.56	1.84	2.85	1.59

TABLE 21.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Employment Status

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EMPLOYED-UNEMPLOYED	-.39*	-.20	-.37

* significant at 5% level

NATURE OF OCCUPATION

Table 22.1 indicates that of the working sample, roughly 45% were employed in an area of business, while almost 30% had careers in a technical field. Almost 15% of respondents were professionals. Less than five percent listed their occupation as being concerned with trade, leaving almost ten percent of the sample who were non-skilled workers.

Table 22.3 shows that non-skilled workers attained significantly higher G.P.A. scores than all other groups compared. In addition, although the data did not reach a level of significance, non-skilled workers tend to obtain more credits than all other groups compared. It would appear from the results in Table 22.3, that non-skilled workers are performing at a higher level than all other occupational groups at university. It may be that this group achieved higher grades because they were motivated to acquire training that would ameliorate job conditions. In not having a specific vocation, they possibly achieved more at school, realizing that educational training was a means of obtaining better jobs and increased salary. It is also possible that this group included a large number of immigrants--although this is not certain, but conceivable in view of the fact that many immigrants coming to Canada are often employed in non-skilled jobs due to their lack of training or schooling in a specific field.

Professionals attempted/obtained significantly more credits and attained higher G.P.A. scores than students who were employed in an area of business. Professionals also obtained more credits than the 'technical' group.

It would appear from the data, that students employed in an area of business tend to attempt and obtain fewer credits than any other group contrasted. In addition, the G.P.A. of the business group is significantly lower

than the G.P.A. of professional and non-skilled workers. The business group apparently did not seem to be doing as well at their studies as were other groups. It could be that occupational commitments for this group were greater than for all other groups, however, this is only a speculative explanation accounting for what appears to be a fairly consistent trend.

TABLE 22.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Nature of Occupation

OCCUPATION	PROFES-SIONAL	BUSINESS	TECHNICAL	TRADE	NON-SKILLED
NUMBER (N)	82	253	159	19	55
PERCENT %	14.4	44.5	28.0	3.4	9.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 22.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Nature of Occupation

NATURE OF OCCUPATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
PROFESSIONAL	3.60	1.12	2.87	1.62	2.87	1.49
BUSINESS	3.23	1.21	2.16	1.67	2.37	1.63
TECHNICAL	3.52	1.29	2.29	1.85	2.55	1.61
TRADE	3.68	1.38	2.68	1.97	3.05	1.93
NON-SKILLED	3.80	1.35	2.65	1.81	2.22	1.42

 END

TABLE 22.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Nature of Occupation

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
PROFESSIONAL - BUSINESS	.60*	.71**	.50*
PROFESSIONAL - TECHNICAL	.08	.58*	.32
PROFESSIONAL - TRADE	.08	.19	-.18
PROFESSIONAL - NON-SKILLED	-.20	.22	.65*
BUSINESS - TECHNICAL	-.52	-.13	-.18
BUSINESS - TRADE	-.68	-.52	-.68
BUSINESS - NON-SKILLED	-.80	-.49	.15*
TECHNICAL - TRADE	-.16	-.39	-.50
TECHNICAL - NON-SKILLED	-.28	-.36	.33*
TRADE - NON-SKILLED	-.12	.03	.83*

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

PART-TIME OR FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT

Table 23.1 indicates that of the employed, almost 95% were employed on a full-time basis, while over five percent were employed on a part-time schedule.

Table 23.3 shows that those who were employed on a part-time basis obtained significantly more credits and attained significantly higher G.P.A. scores than the group who was employed on a full-time basis.

These findings confirm the results obtained from Table 21.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Employment Status). Apparently the amount of available time the student can afford to his/her studies affects their educational success. Furthermore, it may be that the full-time employee is more committed to and involved with his job than the part-time employee and, thus, has less energy to devote to his educational goals. The full-time employee may be involved in an occupation which is more long-lasting and less temporary than the part-time employee and, therefore, his/her job takes prescedence over all other activities.

It is interesting to note that the 'full-time' group did not attempt fewer credits than the 'part-time' group. This finding can be interpreted to mean that the motivation to pursue further education was present for the 'full-time' group; however, other occupational commitments hindered and stunted this initial enthusiasm.

TABLE 23.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Part-time/Full-time Employment

PART-TIME/FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT	FULL-TIME	PART-TIME
NUMBER (N)	536	32
PERCENT %	94.4	5.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 23.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Full-time/Part-time Employment

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
FULL-TIME	3.42	1.24	2.33	1.75	2.44	1.60
PART-TIME	3.44	1.39	3.06	1.65	3.47	1.34

TABLE 23.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Full-time/Part-time Employment

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
FULL-TIME/ PART-TIME	-.02	-.73*	-1.03**

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

NUMBER OF HOURS IN WORK WEEK

Table 24.1 indicates that roughly 90% of the working sample (568) were working over 30 hours a week; while almost 27.2% were employed for over 40 hours a week. Another 4.0% of the respondents were employed for 11-20 hours and approximately the same proportion were working anywhere from 21-30 hours a week. Less than two percent of the sample were employed for ten hours or less a week. The distribution in Table 24.1 shows that the bulk of the part-time student population at Sir George Williams University had occupational commitments of over 30 hours a week.

Table 24.3 yields findings in support of the assumption that the amount of available time outside of occupational commitments, influences the number of credits obtained and the G.P.A. score. Groups that were devoting over 30 hours a week to work obtained fewer credits and attained significantly lower G.P.A. scores than the groups employed for 20 hours or less a week. These results are in accordance with the data obtained on group comparisons between students employed on a full-time basis and those employed on a part-time basis. Time, may not be the only factor which determined the lower amount of credits obtained and G.P.A. scores for the '30+ hours' groups. It may be that the students in these two groups were employed in jobs related to future ambitions and, therefore, were taking their work jobs more seriously than groups who were employed on a part-time basis (groups 10 hours or less; 11-20 hours; 21-30 hours). It is interesting to note that the group working for 31-40 hours a week obtained a significantly higher G.P.A. than the group working for more than 40 hours a week. Once again, the availability of time may have been the influencial factor or it may be in view of the fact that the standard working week equals 40 hours, that those devoting more than that amount of work were highly motivated and/or preoccupied by their occupation--hence, had less energy to devote to their studies.

Surprisingly enough, there was no significant difference in the number of credits attempted by any two groups contrasted with the exception of the '21-30 hours' group (number of credits obtained and G.P.A., however, were not significantly different for those two groups). It appears that the amount of time allotted to employment and/or the dedication to work does not influence the initial motivation to attempt credits.

TABLE 24.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Hours in Work Weeks

NUMBER OF HOURS IN WORK WEEK	10 hours or less	11-20 hours	21-30 hours	31-40 hours	40+ hours
NUMBER (N)	10	23	24	356	155
PERCENT %	1.8	4.0	4.2	62.7	27.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 24.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Hours in Work-week

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
10 HOURS	3.50	1.35	3.40	1.27	3.50	.53
11-20 HOURS	3.43	1.41	3.43	1.41	3.83	1.23
21-30 HOURS	3.83	1.05	2.75	1.80	2.92	1.77
31-40 HOURS	3.33	1.24	2.33	1.71	2.48	1.54
40+ HOURS	3.55	1.26	2.12	1.82	2.18	1.69

TABLE 24.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Hours in Work Week

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
10 hours - 10-20 hours	.07	-.03	-.33
10 hours - 21-30 hours	-.33	.65	.58
10 hours - 31-40 hours	.17	1.07*	1.02*
10 hours - 40+ hours	-.05	1.28*	1.32*
11-20 hours - 21-30 hours	-.40	.68	.91*
11-20 hours - 31-40 hours	.10	1.10**	1.35**
11-20 hours - 40+ hours	-.12	1.31**	1.65**
21-30 hours - 31-40 hours	.50*	.42	.44
21-30 hours - 40+ hours	.28	.63	.74*
31-40 hours - 401 hours	-.22	.21	.30*

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

DEGREE OF SUPERVISORY FUNCTION OF JOB POSITION

Table 25.1 represents the distribution of the sample according to the degree of supervisory responsibility of the respondent at his job. Over 50% claimed their job required little or no supervision on their part. Approximately 23% of the respondents were responsible for a moderate degree of supervision at work, leaving over 25% of the sample in a job position demanding much (18.1%) or very much (7.1%) supervision.

It appears from the findings gathered in Table 25.3 that the group having the highest degree of supervisory functions obtained more credits and attained a higher G.P.A. in contrast to all other groups. Because this group was occupying a position, high in supervisory functions, it is conceivable that the degree of responsibility at work carried over to their sense of responsibility in the academic field. It is also possible that their position at work is indicative of both a higher ability and aspirational level, which would account for this group's better performance at the university.

TABLE 25.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Degree of Supervisory Function of Job Postion

DEGREE OF SUPER-VISORY FUNCTION	NO SUPER-VISION	LITTLE SUPER-VISION	MODERATE SUPER-VISION	MUCH SUP-ERVISION	VERY MUCH SUPERVISION
NUMBER (N)	128	126	114	89	35
PERCENT %	26.0	25.6	23.2	18.1	7.1

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 492 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 138 or 21.9%

TABLE 25.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Degree of Supervisory Functions of Job Postion

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
NO SUPERVISION	3.48	1.29	2.33	1.80	2.38	1.59
LITTLE SUPERVISION	3.41	1.27	2.37	1.85	2.56	1.67
MODERATE SUPER-VISION	3.49	1.22	2.35	1.64	2.48	1.54
MUCH SUPERVISION	3.33	1.25	2.26	1.75	2.42	1.76
VERY MUCH SUPER-VISION	3.60	1.09	3.09	1.46	3.31	1.28

TABLE 25.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Degree of Supervisory Function of Job Position

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
NO SUPERVISION/ LITTLE SUPERVISION	.07	-.04	-.18
NO SUPERVISION/ MODERATE SUPERVISION	-.01	-.02	-.10
NO SUPERVISION/ MUCH SUPERVISION	.15	.07	-.04
NO SUPERVISION/ VERY MUCH SUPERVISION	-.12	-.76**	-.93**
LITTLE SUPERVISION/ MODERATE SUPERVISION	-.08	.02	.08
LITTLE SUPERVISION/ MUCH SUPERVISION	.08	.11	.14
LITTLE SUPERVISION/ VERY MUCH SUPERVISION	-.19	-.72*	-.75*
MODERATE SUPERVISION/ MUCH SUPERVISION	.16	.09	.06
MODERATE SUPERVISION VERY MUCH SUPERVISION	-.11	-.74**	-.83**
MUCH SUPERVISION/ VERY MUCH SUPERVISION	-.27	-.83**	-.89**

** significant at 1%

* significant at

NUMBER OF WORKING YEARS

Table 26.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the number of working years. It is interesting to note that over a quarter of the respondents were employed for ten years or more before entering university. One would predict that there could be a negative correlation between the amount of time spent away from the academic mileu and the degree of incentive to return to school, but apparently, in this sample, this was not the case. Over a fifth of the sample had been working from six to ten years prior to university, while almost a third had been employed from three to five years. The remainder of the sample--over 20%, had previously worked for two years or less.

Table 26.3 indicates that the time spent away from the academic milieu does not reflect upon the number of credits obtained or the G.P.A. To the contrary, the group who had previously worked for ten years or more obtained more credits and higher G.P.A. scores than the group who had worked for only one year and the group who were employed for six to ten years. Table 26.3 does not yield data supporting any significant difference between the 'ten years +' group and any other group contrasted on the number of credits attempted/obtained or G.P.A. with the exception of those cases already mentioned.

The group who had been working for six to ten years attempted/obtained less credits and a lower G.P.A. score than the group who had been working two years. The findings do not show a consistent trend. Any relationship between the number of years spent working and academic performance cannot be inferred from the data.

TABLE 26.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Years Working

NUMBER OF YEARS	1 year	2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	10 years+
NUMBER (N)	45	74	175	130	156
PERCENT %	7.8	12.8	30.2	22.4	26.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 580 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 50 or 7.9%

TABLE 26.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Years Working

NUMBER OF YEARS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
1 year	3.67	1.26	1.98	1.82	1.76	1.58
2 years	3.58	1.25	2.65	1.60	2.69	1.45
3-5 years	3.44	1.22	2.43	1.71	2.71	1.58
6-10 years	3.18	1.29	1.97	1.86	2.18	1.75
10 years +	3.51	1.24	2.61	1.70	2.69	1.50

TABLE 26.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Years Working

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
1 year / two years	.09	-.67	-.93**
1 year / three to five years	.23	-.45	-.95**
1 year / six to ten years	.49*	.01	-.42
1 year / ten and more years	.16	-.63*	-.93**
two years / three to five years	.14	.22	-.02
two years / six to ten years	.40*	.68*	.51*
two years / ten and more years	.07	.04	0
three to five years / six to ten years	.26	.46*	.53**
three to five years / ten and more years	-.07	-.18	.02
six to ten years / ten and more years	-.33*	-.64**	-.51**

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

NUMBER OF FIRMS EMPLOYED WITH

Table 27.1 indicates that over 15% of the sample had been employed with just one firm throughout their working career. Almost a quarter of the respondents had worked with two firms while roughly the same proportion had been employed with three organizations. About 17% of the sample had been employed by four firms, leaving roughly the same proportion of the sample who had worked for five or more institutions.

The data in Table 27.3 evidences only three cases of significance, all on the number of credits attempted, in which the groups that had been employed with fewer firms attempted fewer credits than groups employed with relatively more firms. The group employed with just one firm attempted significantly fewer credits than the two groups employed with four or five and more organizations. The group who had been working for two firms, also attempted fewer credits than those employed with five or more firms. Although, these findings were the only cases of statistical significance, there does appear to emerge a consistent negative trend in the direction of the groups who had worked with fewer firms as compared with the groups who had worked with relatively more firms on the number of credits attempted. This trend may be explained by one of two factors:--(1) Those employed with more firms and, thus, having possibly a broader knowledge of the labour market requirements, may have more readily recognized the value of education in relation to job advancement, than those who had been employed with fewer firms and were possibly not as aware of the value of additional education or (2) It may also be that those who had worked with fewer firms knew more precisely what area of work they were interested in and, thus, registered with fewer courses for the purpose of specialization while those who had worked for relatively more firms, were still testing their abilities and interests

and, thus, enrolled in more courses in an attempt to eventually discover their job needs.

It is interesting to note, however, that the number of credits obtained and the G.P.A. scores between any two given groups were not statistically different, nor was there evidence of a trend in any direction. Evidently, it appears from Table 27.3 that the number of firms the student has worked with affects only the number of credits obtained or G.P.A.

TABLE 27.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Total of Firms Employed With

TOTAL NUMBER OF FIRMS	1 FIRM	2 FIRMS	3 FIRMS	4 FIRMS	5+ FIRMS
NUMBER (N)	94	139	129	100	97
PERCENT %	16.8	24.9	23.0	17.9	17.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 559 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 71 or 11.27%

TABLE 27.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Total Number of Firms Employed With

TOTAL NUMBER OF FIRMS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
1 FIRM	3.20	1.25	2.34	1.68	2.62	1.58
2 FIRMS	3.36	1.20	2.36	1.75	2.53	1.57
3 FIRMS	3.49	1.35	2.36	1.82	2.46	1.60
4 FIRMS	3.59	1.26	2.35	1.79	2.36	1.62
5+ FIRMS	3.75	1.16	2.75	1.73	2.75	1.65

TABLE 27.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Total Number of Firms Employed With

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
1 FIRM - 2 FIRMS	-.16	-.02	.09
1 FIRM - 3 FIRMS	-.29	-.02	.16
1 FIRM - 4 FIRMS	-.39*	-.01	.26
1 FIRM - 5+ FIRMS	-.55**	-.41	-.13
2 FIRMS - 3 FIRMS	-.13	0	.07
2 FIRMS - 4 FIRMS	-.23	.01	.17
2 FIRMS - 5+ FIRMS	-.39*	-.39	-.22
3 FIRMS - 4 FIRMS	-.10	.01	.10
3 FIRMS - 5+ FIRMS	-.26	-.39	-.29
4 FIRMS - 5+ FIRMS	-.16	-.40	-.39

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT WITH PRESENT FIRM

Table 28.1 shows that over 35% of the working sample had been employed with their present firm for one year or less. Another 20.8% of the working respondents were working with their current firm for two years, while roughly the same proportion were employed for three to five years in their current job. Almost ten percent of the sample had been working for six to ten years at their present job, leaving 13.7% who had been employed at the present job for ten years or over.

Respondents who were working for their firm for one year or less attained lower G.P.A. scores than the groups who had been employed with their current firm for two years; six to ten years; and ten years or more.

There are two possible explantions why those who had worked one year or less at their present job did worse than others. It might be that they were starting out with a new firm and, therefore, were preoccupied with the problems of adjustment to the new job. On the other hand, this group might contain a much larger proportion of individuals who have difficulties in keeping a job and are, therefore, continually shifting from job to job. The job instability, in turn might have influenced their accademic performance.

TABLE 28.1

Frequency Distribution According to Length of Employment with Present Firm

LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT	1 year or less	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	10 Years +
NUMBER (N)	201	118	115	56	78
PERCENT %	35.4	20.8	20.2	9.9	13.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 28.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Length of Employment With Present Firm

LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
1 year	3.54	1.22	2.15	1.81	2.12	1.65
2 years	3.46	1.26	2.73	1.71	2.85	1.48
3-5 years	3.33	1.28	2.17	1.67	2.44	1.55
6-10 years	3.25	1.28	2.45	1.71	2.82	1.50
10+ years	3.33	1.20	2.53	1.67	2.77	1.62

TABLE 28.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Length of Employment With Present Firm

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
1 year / two years	.08	-.58**	-.73**
1 year / three to five years	.21	-.02	-.32
1 year / six to ten years	.29	-.30	-.70**
1 year / ten and more years	.21	-.38	-.65**
two years / three to five years	.13	.56*	.41*
two years / six to ten years	.21	.28	.03
two years / ten and more years	.13	.20	.08
three to five years / six to ten years	.08	-.28	-.38
three to five years / ten and more years	0	-.36	-.33
six to ten years / ten and more years	-.08	-.08	.05

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

IMPORTANCE OF PRESENT JOB FOR CAREER ASPIRATIONS

Table 29.1 shows the distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of the respondent's present job towards his future career aspirations. Roughly 20% of the sample claimed their current job was extremely important for their career aspirations, while approximately a quarter of the working students felt their present job to be very important for their career aspirations. Just over a third of the sample viewed a moderate relationship between present and future occupations. Almost a fifth of the respondents did not see any relevance between their present job and future career aspirations.

Table 29.3 indicates that students who viewed their present job as being extremely important to career aspirations attempted fewer credits than all other groups. With the exception of the group contrast between the 'extremely' and 'very' groups, the 'extremely' group also obtained fewer credits than the other two groups. This finding supports the assumption that the time availability is a crucial factor in university achievement. Most probably those who viewed their job as being extremely important, were devoting more time and energy to occupational demands at the expense of their part-time studies. However, G.P.A. scores for the 'extremely' group, were significantly lower only when compared to the scores obtained by those whose job was moderately related to future career aspirations, In addition, those who viewed a moderate relationship between present and future jobs obtained more credits and higher G.P.A. scores than those who claimed their job was very important to future career aspirations.

The data in Table 29.3 reveals a general, consistent pattern whereby groups who deemed their jobs to be extremely or very important did not seem to do as well at their studies as did groups who viewed their current jobs

as having only a slight or insignificant relevence to future career aspirations.

TABLE 29.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Importance of Present Job for Career Aspirations

IMPORTANCE OF PRESENT JOB	EXTREMELY	VERY	MODERATELY	NOT AT ALL
NUMBER (N)	112	138	189	108
PERCENT %	20.5	25.2	34.6	19.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 547 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 83 or 13.2%

TABLE 29.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Importance of Present Job for Career Aspirations

IMPORTANCE OF PRESENT JOB FOR CARREER ASP.	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EXTREMELY	3.05	1.30	1.91	1.64	2.31	1.61
VERY	3.52	1.22	2.19	1.79	2.30	1.55
MODERATELY	3.43	1.23	2.67	1.73	2.71	1.62
NOT AT ALL	3.69	1.23	2.56	1.77	2.17	1.66

TABLE 29.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Importance of Present Job for Career Aspirations

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EXTREAMELY - VERY	-.47**	-.28	.01
EXTREMELEY - MODERATELY	-.38*	-.76**	-.44*
EXTREMELY - NOT AT ALL	-.64**	-.65**	-.16
VERY - MODERATELY	.09	-.48*	-.45*
VERY - NOT AT ALL	-.17	-.37	-.17
MODERATELY - NOT AT ALL	-.26	.11	.28

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

IMPORTANCE OF UNIVERSITY DEGREE FOR CAREER

Table 30.1 shows that roughly 45% of the sample felt that a university degree was extremely important for their careers, while another 30.8% thought a degree was very important for their occupations. Approximately 24% of the respondents saw moderate or insignificant career benefits coming from a university degree. It seems somewhat surprising that almost a quarter of the sample saw little or no relevance between possession of a degree and their career. These two groups might have included individuals who were not interested in the labour market and were taking courses for general interest and self-betterment. In addition, this group might have included working students who found university courses moderately or totally unapplicable to their jobs or future occupations.

Whether a student considers a degree to be important or irrelevent to their career, has no influence upon the number of credits they attempt/obtain and G.P.A. Table 30.3 does not yield a statistically significant difference between any two groups contrasted or any of the three criterion variables.

It would be expected that students who deemed the degree status as being extremely or very important to their career would have a higher level of achievement and motivation towards their studies than those who saw moderate or no benefits from a university degree for occupational goals. However, this assumption was not validated by the data in Table 30.3.

TABLE 30.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Importance of University Degree for Career

IMPORTANCE OF DEGREE FOR CAREER	EXTREMELY	VERY	MODERATELY	NOT AT ALL
NUMBER (N)	269	183	110	33
PERCENT %	45.2	30.8	18.5	5.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 595 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 35 or 5.6%

TABLE 30.2

Frequency Distribution of Sample Broken Dwon by Importance of University Degree for Career

IMPORTANCE OF DEGREE FOR CAREER	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EXTREMELY	3.57	1.33	2.49	1.84	2.47	1.55
VERY	3.36	1.18	2.33	1.70	2.57	1.60
MODERATELY	3.43	1.22	2.29	1.75	2.56	1.71
NOT AT ALL	3.15	1.09	2.03	1.49	2.58	1.84

TABLE 30.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Importance of University Degree for Career

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EXTREMELY - VERY	.21	.16	-.10
EXTREMELY - MODERATELY	.14	.20	-.09
EXTREMELY - NOT AT ALL	.42	.46	-.11
VERY - MODERATELY	-.07	.04	.01
VERY - NOT AT ALL	.21	.30	-.01
MODERATELY - NOT AT ALL	.28	.26	-.02

EMPLOYER ATTITUDE TOWARD TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES

Table 31.1 demonstrates over 60% of the sample claimed their employer was either very enthusiastic (24.0%) or enthusiastic (38.1%) about their university studies. Over a third of the respondents maintained their employer did not care about their courses at the university. Only two per cent of the sample felt that their employer was unhappy or very unhappy about their university studies.

Students who claimed their employer was very enthusiastic or enthusiastic about their studies obtained significantly more credits than students who felt their employer was unhappy or very unhappy about their educational activities. Furthermore, the group who maintained their employer was very enthusiastic or enthusiastic obtained significantly higher G.P.A. scores than the group who felt their employer was unhappy about their studies. Students who claimed their employer didn't care either way about their courses also: (1) attempted more credits than the 'unhappy' group, (2) obtained more credits than the 'unhappy' group and 'very happy' group and (3) attained a higher G.P.A. score than the 'unhappy' group. The data in Table 31.3 indicates that the employer attitude toward taking university courses as perceived by the student has an effect upon the number of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. when two extreme groups are compared with one another. This finding can be explained by the fact that groups who felt they gained employer approval for taking university courses were more encouraged to pursue their studies than groups who felt their employer was not enthusiastic about their university courses. Also, groups who claimed their employer did not care whether they took courses or not, still achieved more than groups whose employer was unhappy or very unhappy about their educational commitments. It appears that employer indifference does not have a negative influence upon the students' ambition or achievement at school.

TABLE 31.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Employer Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

EMPLOYER ATTITUDE	VERY ENTHUSIASTIC	ENTHUSIASTIC	DOES NOT CARE	UNHAPPY	VERY UNHAPPY
NUMBER (N)	132	209	197	5	6
PERCENT %	24.0	38.1	35.9	.9	1.1

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 549 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 81 or 12.9%

TABLE 31.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Dwon by Employer Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

EMPLOYER ATTITUDE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC	3.39	1.25	2.40	1.71	2.52	1.53
ENTHUSIASTIC	3.39	1.26	2.29	1.78	2.38	1.66
DOES NOT CARE	3.51	1.20	2.53	1.72	2.68	1.59
UNHAPPY	2.40	.89	.60	1.34	.40	.89
VERY UNHAPPY	3.33	1.03	1.00	.89	1.67	1.37

TABLE 31.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Employer Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - ENTHUSIASTIC	.0	.11	.14
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	-.12	-.13	-.16*
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	.99	1.80*	2.12**
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - VERY UNHAPPY	.06	1.40*	.85
ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	-.12	-.24	-.30
ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	.99	1.69*	1.98**
ENTHUSIASTIC - VERY UNHAPPY	.06	1.29	.71
DOES NOT CARE - UNHAPPY	1.11*	1.93*	2.28**
DOES NOT CARE - VERY HAPPY	.18	1.53*	1.01
UNHAPPY - VERY UNHAPPY	-.93	-.40	-1.27

** significant at 1%
* significant at 5%

YEARLY INCOME

Table 32.1 indicates that over 40% of the sample were earning a yearly salary of $3,000 to $6,000, while less than 9% , were paid under $3,000 a year. Over a third of the sample had yearly salaries of $6,000 to $10,000. Roughly 10% of the respondents were earning yearly wages of $10,000 to $15,000, leaving 1.2% who were receiving over $15,000 a year.

Table 33.3 illustrates that the group earning less than $3,000 yearly, (1) attempted more credits than all other income groups, with the exception of the group earning over $15,000 a year; (2) obtained more credits than all other income groups; and (3) attained higher G.P.A. scores than the $3,000 to $6,000 and $15,000+ groups. In addition, the group earning $10,000 to $15,000 a year attempted fewer credits than the $15,000+ group. The data in Table 32.3 reveals an interesting pattern regarding the 'under $3,000' group. Firstly, it is probable that this group have a part-time working status. Data from Table 23.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Part-time Employment) indicates part-time students obtain more credits and attain higher G.P.A. scores than the full-time candidates, presumably because they have more time and energy to devote to studies than do students who have full-time job commitments. The group earning less than $3,000 yearly also attempted more credits than all other groups with the exception of the '$15,000+' group. Thus, it would appear that the question of financing towards university courses for those earning less than $3,000 a year is not a pertinent one in so much as it doesn't determine the number of courses the student can take.

TABLE 32.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample Accoding to Yearly Income

YEARLY SALARY	LESS THAN $3,000	$3,000- $6,000	$6,000- $10,000	$10,000- $15,000	$15,000+
NUMBER (N)	51	245	214	60	7
PERCENT %	8.8	42.5	37.1	10.4	1.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 577 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 53 or 8.4%

TABLE 32.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Yearly Income

YEARLY SALARY	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
LESS THAN $3,000	4.12	1.18	3.29	1.53	2.96	1.52
$3.000 to $6,000	3.30	1.28	2.25	1.77	1.43	1.66
$6,000 to $10,000	3.45	1.24	2.44	1.76	2.51	1.53
$10,000 to $15,000	3.30	1.08	1.98	1.56	2.48	1.66
$15,000+	4.14	.90	1.57	2.37	1.57	1.40

TABLE 32.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Yearly Income

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
LESS THAN $3,000 - $3,000-$6,000	.82**	1.04**	1.53*
LESS THAN $3,000 - $6,000-$10,000	.67**	.85**	.45
LESS THAN $3,000 - $10,000-$15,000	.82**	1.31**	.48
LESS THAN $3,000 - $13,000+	-.02	1.72*	1.39*
$3,000-$6,000 - $6,000-$10,000	-.15	-.19	-1.08
$3,000-$6,000 - $10,000-$15,000	0	.27	-1.05
$3,000-$6,000 - $15,000+	-.84	.68	-.14
$6,000-$10,000 - $10,000-$15,000	.15	.46	.03
$6,000-10,000 - $15,000+	-.69	.87	.94
$10,000-$15,000 - $15,000+	-.84*	.41	.91

** significant at 1%
* significant at 5

EXTENT JOB AFFECT ABILITY TO PERFORM AS STUDENT

Table 33.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the extent the respondent's job affects his/her ability to perform as a student. Roughly a third of the sample claimed their job had no influence upon their academic achievement. This finding, could be interpreted either one of two ways: (1) the job is unrelated to their line of studies and, hence, does not aid in scholastic performance, or (2) occupational commitments are not so great as to hamper educational achievement. Roughly 14% of the sample claimed their studies were suffering as a result of their careers. Over 21% of the respondents found their job to be either very helpful (6.1%) or helpful (15.8%) in their academic studies.

Table 33.3 indicates that those who felt their job made no difference in their scholastic performance: (1) attempted fewer credits than all other groups compared with, (2) obtained fewer credits than the 'helpful' group and (3) attained a lower G.P.A. score than the 'helpful' group. The data would seem to demonstrate that students who fail to see either a positive or negative relationship between their job and their academic studies tend to perform worse at school than those who can see a relationship. It is surprising to note that the group who claimed their job did not affect their studies attempted fewer credits than the two groups who saw jobs had some degree of interference with courses. A possible explanation for this finding is that students in these two categories failed to see any positive relationship between job and school, but were attempting more courses in the hope of ameliorating career opportunities through the education route. Or, it may also be that students who claimed their job made no difference in their student abilities towards their studies, held a generally apathetic attitude towards their studies.

TABLE 33.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Extent Job Affects Ability to Perform as Student

EXTENT JOB AFFECTS ABILITY TO PERFORM AS STUDENT	VERY HELP-FUL	HELPFUL	MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	INTERFERES	INTERFERES BADLY
NUMBER (N)	35	90	192	195	56
PERCENT %	6.2	15.9	33.8	34.3	9.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 33.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Extent Job Affects Ability to Perform as Student

EXTENT JOB AFFECTS ABILITY TO PERFORM AS A STUDENT	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
VERY HELPFUL	3.56	1.16	2.37	1.77	2.40	1.61
HELPFUL	3.56	1.21	2.60	1.71	2.80	1.41
MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	3.20	1.25	2.14	1.68	2.38	1.63
INTERFERES	3.47	1.27	2.40	1.79	2.48	1.67
INTERFERES BADLY	3.61	1.29	2.48	1.95	2.36	1.59

TABLE 33.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Extent Job Affect Ability to Perform as Student

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
VERY HELPFUL - HELPFUL	.10	-.23	-.40
VERY HELPFUL - MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	.46*	.23	.02
VERY HELPFUL - INTERFERES	.19	-.03	-.08
VERY HELPFUL - INTERFERES BADLY	.05	-.11	.04
HELPFUL - MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	.36*	.46*	.42*
HELPFUL - INTERFERES	.09	.20	.32
HELPFUL - INTERFERES BADLY	-.05	.12	.44
MAKES NO DIFFERENCE - INTERFERES	-.27*	-.26	-.10
MAKES NO DIFFERENCE - INTERFERES BADLY	-.41*	-.34	.02
INTERFERES - INTERFERES BADLY	-.14	-.08	.12

* significant at 5% level

EXTENT STUDIES AFFECT OCCUPATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Table 34.1 indicates that the majority of the sample or roughly 55% claimed their studies did not affect their occupational performance, either positively or negatively. Thirty-four percent of respondents felt their occupational performance was favourably affected by their academic studies, while roughly 11% claimed their studies were interfering with their occupational performance. The data presented by Table 34.1 highlights a weak area in academic programming. Over 65% of the sample could not transfer academic benefits into their occupational performance. This fact leaves to question the relevance of the academic curriculum to the real-life situation. Theoretical instruction should ideally be related to on-the-field experience, but that only a minority of the sample could appreciate this relationship reflects a possible problem in the part-time curriculum design.

Table 34.3 does not yield significant data on any of the three criterion variables between any two groups, nor does there emerge a consistent, observable pattern. Hence, it would appear that the relationship between academic studies and occupational performance, as perceived by the respondent does not affect the number of credits attempted/obtained or G.P.A.

TABLE 34.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Extent Studies Affect Occupational Performance

EXTENT STUDIES AFFECT OCCUPATIONAL PERFORMANCE	VERY HELPFUL	HELPFUL	MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	INTERFERES
NUMBER (N)	47	146	312	63
PERCENT %	8.3	25.7	54.9	11.1

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 568 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 62 or 9.8%

TABLE 34.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Extent Studies Affect Occupational Performance

EXTENT STUDIES AFFECT OCCUPATIONAL PERFORMANCE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
VERY HELPFUL	3.60	1.41	2.47	1.86	2.53	1.49
HELPFUL	3.49	1.15	2.33	1.72	2.44	1.55
MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	3.38	1.25	2.39	1.75	2.46	1.62
INTERFERES	3.19	1.40	2.03	1.81	2.56	1.71

TABLE 34.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According tc Extent Studies Affect Occupational Performance

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
VERY HELPFUL - HELPFUL	.11	.14	.09
VERY HELPFUL - MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	.22	.08	.07
VERY HELPFUL - INTERFERES	.41	.44	-.03
HELPFUL - MAKES NO DIFFERENCE	.11	-.06	-.02
HELPFUL - INTERFERES	.30	.30	-.12
MAKES NO DIFFERENCE - INTERFERES	.19	.36	-.10

CHAPTER 6

RESIDENCE AND TRAVEL

This chapter examines housing and travel variables for their possible relationship with academic performance among part-time students. Housing variables studied include type and size of residence and its distance from the university. Travel factors examined include method of travel, the average length of travel time, the number of weekly trips to the university for purposes other than attending lectures, whether travel time could be used for study purposes, and the extent to which travel time interfered with the total amount of time available for study purposes.

TYPE OF RESIDENCE

Table 35.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the type of residence. Almost half of the sample lived in apartments while roughly a quarter dwelled in either a duplex or a triplex. Under ten percent of the respondents lived in a bungalow, while 16.0% resided in a house. Approximately our percent lived in a type of residence other than those mentioned.

Table 35.3 does not produce any significant findings between any two groups compared on any of the three criterion variables. Furthermore, there does not seem to emerge a consistent pattern leading to a trend in any direction. Thus, it would appear that the type of residence a student lives in or owns does not affect the various criteria of educational achievement employed in this study.

TABLE 35.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Type of Residence

TYPE OF RESIDENCE	APPART-MENT	TRIPLEX/ DUPLEX	BUNGALOW	HOUSE	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	300	155	52	101	22
PERCENT %	47.6	24.6	8.3	16.0	3.5

VALID OBERVATIONS - 630 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 0 or 0%

TABLE 35.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Type of Residence

TYPE OF RESIDENCE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
APARTMENT	3.50	1.23	2.55	1.79	2.65	1.65
TRIPLEX/DUPLEX	3.33	1.29	2.25	1.73	2.37	1.56
BUNGALOW	3.35	1.17	2.13	1.67	2.44	1.58
HOUSE	3.55	1.34	2.27	1.71	2.48	1.57
OTHER	3.64	1.29	2.14	1.91	2.27	1.55

TABLE 35.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Type of Residence

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
APARTMENT - TRIPLEX/ DUPLEX	.17	.30	.28
APARTMENT - BUNGALOW	.15	.42	.21
APARTMENT - HOUSE	-.05	.28	.17
APARTMENT - OTHER	-.14	.41	.38
TRIPLEX/DUPLEX - BUNGALOW	-.02	.12	-.07
TRIPLEX/DUPLEX - HOUSE	-.22	-.02	-.11
TRIPLEX/DUPLEX - OTHER	-.31	.11	.10
BUNGALOW - HOUSE	-.20	-.14	-.04
BUNGALOW - OTHER	-.29	-.01	.17
HOUSE - OTHER	-.09	.13	.21

NUMBER OF ROOMS IN DWELLING

Table 36.1 shows that almost 40% of the sample were living in residences of two to four rooms, while roughly 30% were occupying homes of five to seven rooms. Approximately 13% of respondents were residing in eight to nine room dwellings, while under ten percent of the sample lived in homes of ten or more rooms. Roughly eight percent of students in the sample lived in one and a half room residences.

The data in Table 36.3 yields only two cases of statistical significance in which students who lived in one and a half room dwellings attained significantly lower G.P.A. scores than students who lived in: (1) two to four room homes and (2) five to seven room homes. In addition, the data produced by group contrasts between the '1½ rooms' group and all other groups gives rise to a general pattern which although not significant, statistically, lends itself to a consistent trend. It would appear that students who live in one and a half room dwellings also obtain fewer credits than all other groups contrasted, although they attempt as many credits as all other groups. Negative figures were obtained for the '1½ rooms' group in G.P.A. scores aside from the two statistically significant negative findings already cited.

It would appear that students who occupy the smallest dwellings, are not performing as well as other groups at university.

It may be concluded that these students, living a modest life in small homes, are pre-occupied with financial problems that hamper achievement at school. Or it may also be that these students are single and as noted in Table 7.1 (Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Marital Status) single students tend to perform less well at school than married students. It must be mentioned, however, that the data only yielded two cases of

significance complemented by a general trend and, thus, these speculative explanations can not be confirmed.

Other than the pattern mentioned above, the data in Table 36.3 does not give rise to any sort of consistent trend, hence, it can be concluded that the size of the student's dwelling does not affect achievement and performance at school, unless the student lives in a very small home of one and a half rooms. However, this final exception is not supported by significant data and its validity may be subject to question.

TABLE 36.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Rooms in Residence

NUMBER OF ROOMS	1½ ROOMS	2-4 ROOMS	5-7 ROOMS	8-9 ROOMS	10+ ROOMS
NUMBER (N)	49	242	193	86	54
PERCENT %	7.9	38.8	30.9	13.8	8.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 624 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 6 or 1.0%

TABLE 36.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Rooms in Residence

NUMBER OF ROOMS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
1½ ROOMS	3.51	1.24	2.02	1.69	2.06	1.71
2-4 ROOMS	3.48	1.22	2.47	1.72	2.68	1.68
5-7 ROOMS	3.31	1.31	2.50	1.79	2.61	1.55
8-9 ROOMS	3.58	1.16	2.35	1.67	2.42	1.20
10+ ROOMS	3.65	1.36	2.07	1.88	2.20	1.73

TABLE 36.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Rooms in Residence

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
1½ ROOMS - 2-4 ROOMS	.03	-.45	-.62*
1½ ROOMS - 5-7 ROOMS	.20	-.48	-.55*
1½ ROOMS - 8-9 ROOMS	-.07	-.33	-.36
1½ ROOMS - 10+ ROOMS	-.14	-.05	-.14
2-4 ROOMS - 5-7 ROOMS	.17	-.03	.07
2-4 ROOMS - 8-9 ROOMS	-.10	.12	.26
2-4 ROOMS - 10+ ROOMS	-.17	.40	.48
5-7 ROOMS - 8-9 ROOMS	-.27	.15	.19
5-7 ROOMS - 10+ ROOMS	-.34	.43	.41
8-9 ROOMS - 10+ ROOMS	-.07	.28	.22

* significant at 5% level

POSSESSION OF CAR

Table 37.1 indicates that 309 or almost 50% of the sample owned a car, while roughly the same amount-311, or just over 50% did not own a car.

Table 37.3 shows that those who own a car attempt significantly more credits than those who do not. However, there is no statistical difference between the two groups on the number of credits obtained or the G.P.A. scores. Students who own cars may be more in a position to take on more credits than those who do not simply because a car facilitates the problem of transportation to and from the university. The time factor involved in travelling to and from classes is an important consideration in the total number of courses a student is able to take. It is conceivable that students who owned cars, would be less opposed to taking courses that finished late in the evening, than students who did not own cars and had to find more time-consuming means of transport.

TABLE 37.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Possession of Car

POSSESSION OF CAR	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	309	311
PERCENT %	49.8	50.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 620 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 10 or 1.4%

TABLE 37.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Possession of Car

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.35	1.25	2.25	1.73	2.51	1.64
NO	3.55	1.27	2.51	1.79	2.52	1.58

TABLE 37.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Possession of Car

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.20*	-.26	-.01

* significant at 5% level

DISTANCE BETWEEN RESIDENCE AND UNIVERSITY

Table 38.1 indicates that over roughly 60% of the sample lived five or more miles from the university. Another 17.3% travelled from three to four miles from home to school. Approximately 18% of the respondents claimed the distance between residence and university was two miles or under.

Table 38.3 does not yield data showing that the distance from home to school has an effect upon the number of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. There were three exceptions to this general pattern of the number of credits attempted between the group who lived five or more miles from school: (1) the group who lived two miles from school, (2) the group who lived three miles from school and (3) the group who lived four miles from school. In all cases the group who had to travel five miles or more to school attempted fewer credits, however, they did not obtain fewer credits, except in contrast to the four mile group, and attained as high G.P.A. scores as all other groups.

This set of data appears to indicate that distance from home to school will only influence the number to total credits attempted but not scholastic achievement. Furthermore, the little influence home-school distance had upon the number of credits attempted was evidenced only in the group who were travelling distances of five miles or greater. It is unknown precisely how much more than five miles these students were travelling to school, but it is conceivable that the greater distance factor would be more of an inconvenience in the amount of available time the student could devote to studies.

TABLE 38.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Approximate Distance Between Residence and University

APPOX. DISTANCE IN MILES	1 mile or less	2 miles	3 miles	4 miles	5+ miles
NUMBER (N)	71	39	63	39	376
PERCENT %	12.1	6.6	10.7	6.6	63.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 588 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 42 or 6.7%

TABLE 38.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Approximate Distance Between Residence and University

APPROXIMATE DISTANCE IN MILES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
1 mile or less	3.56	1.17	2.52	1.65	2.77	1.61
2 miles	3.97	1.18	2.69	1.81	2.62	1.68
3 miles	3.71	1.18	2.33	1.95	2.37	1.95
4 miles	3.92	1.04	2.82	1.67	2.74	1.60
5+ miles	3.32	1.28	2.26	1.74	2.43	1.53

TABLE 38.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Distance Between Residence and University

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
1 mile or less - 2 miles	-.41	-.17	.15
1 mile or less - 3 miles	-.15	.19	.40
1 mile or less - 4 miles	-.36	-.30	.03
1 mile or less - 5+ miles	.24	.26	.34
2 miles - 3 miles	.26	.36	.25
2 miles - 4 miles	.05	-.13	-.12
2 miles - 5+ miles	.65**	.43	.19
3 miles - 4 miles	-.21	-.49	-.37
3 miles - 5+ miles	.39*	.07	-.06
4 miles - 5+ miles	.60**	.56*	.31

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

METHOD OF TRAVEL TO SCHOOL

Table 39.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the method of travel from home to school. Just under a third travelled to school by bus, subway or train. Almost the same proportion of the sample came to school by car while 13.3% walked from residence to university. Roughly 25% used a combination of two or three of these transport methods to come to school.

There does not emerge any consistent pattern from the data in Table 39.3. People who travelled by foot attained significantly higher G.P.A. scores than those who came to school in a car or those who used a combination of two transport methods; however, they did not attempt or obtain more credits than any other group. Students who came to school by car attempted and obtained fewer credits than students who used public forms of transportation (train, bus, subway). Students who used the public transport system attempted more credits than those who used a combination of two or three methods of travel.

However, it does not appear that these differences can be attributed to the specific method of travel used by each group, as the data does not present any sort of consistent trend in any direction.

TABLE 39.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Method of Travel to School

METHOD OF TRAVEL	BY FOOT	CAR	SUBWAY/ TRAIN/ BUS	COMBINATION OF 2	COMBINATIONS OF 3
NUMBER (N)	83	192	198	125	26
PERCENT %	13.3	30.8	31.7	20.0	4.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 624 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 6 or 1.0%

TABLE 39.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Method of Travel to School

METHOD OF TRAVEL	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
BY FOOT	3.40	1.20	2.43	1.64	2.86	1.60
CAR	3.44	1.23	2.17	1.76	2.44	1.61
SUBWAY/ TRAIN/ BUS	3.70	1.21	2.75	1.78	2.57	1.58
COMBINATION OF TWO	3.31	1.37	2.17	1.76	2.36	1.63
CONBINATION OF THREE	3.00	1.27	2.38	1.53	2.77	1.56

TABLE 39.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Method of Travel to School

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
BY FOOT - CAR	-.04	.26	.42*
BY FOOT - SUBWAY/TRAIN/ BUS	-.30	-.32	.29
BY FOOT - COMBINATION OF TWO	.09	.26	.50*
BY FOOT - COMBINATION OF THREE	.40	.05	.09
CAR - SUBWAY/ TRAIN/BUS	-.26*	-.58**	-.13
CAR - COMBINATION OF TWO	.13	0	.08
CAR - COMBINATION OF THREE	.44	-.21	-.33
SUBWAY/TRAIN/BUS - COMBINATION OF TWO	.39**	.58**	.21
SUBWAY/TRAIN/BUS - COMBINATION OF THREE	.70**	.37	-.20
COMBINATION OF TWO - COMBINATION OF THREE	.31	-.21	-.41

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

LENGTH OF TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL

Table 40.1 indicates that over 40% of the sample were required to travel an hour or less from home to school, while almost half of the respondents lived half an hour to an hour travelling time from school. Roughly eight percent needed an hour to an hour and a half to get from their place of residence to the university.

The data in Table 40.3 produces two cases of significance; the '30 minutes or less group' attempted and obtained significantly more credits than the '1 hour to 1½ hour group'. These results are in the expected direction. It would be presumed that students, required to travel a long distance to school, thus, devoting a greater portion of their spare time to transportation, may hesitate in taking registration with several courses, particularly if the courses they wanted were offered on different evenings.

The effect travel time has upon credits attempted/obtained is witnessed only in the contrast between the two extreme 'travel-time' groups. The G.P.A. scores were not affected by travel time.

TABLE 40.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Length of Travel Time to School

LENGTH OF TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL	30 MINUTES OR LESS	30 MINUTES - 1 HOUR	1 - 1½ HOURS
NUMBER (N)	273	297	52
PERCENT %	43.8	47.7	8.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 622

MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 8 or 1.1%

TABLE 40.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Length of Travel Time to School

LENGTH OF TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
30 MINUTES OR LESS	3.54	1.21	2.49	1.75	2.57	1.64
30 MINUTES TO 1 HOUR	3.49	1.26	2.37	1.74	2.53	1.57
1 HOUR TO 1½ HOURS	2.98	1.42	1.98	1.82	2.37	1.68

TABLE 40.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Length of Travel Time to School

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
30 MINUTES OR LESS - 30 MINUTES TO 1 HOUR	.05	.12	.04
30 MINUTES OR LESS - 1 HOUR TO 1½ HOURS	.56**	.51**	.20
30 MINUTES TO 1 HOUR - 1 HOUR TO 1½ HOURS	.51	.39	.16

** significant at 5% level

NUMBER OF WEEKLY TRIPS TO UNIVERSITY FOR PURPOSES OTHER THAN ATTENDING LECTURES

Table 41.1 shows that over 50% of the sample only came to school to attend lectures. Roughly a quarter of the respondents came to school, on the average, once a week for purposes other than attending lectures. Approximately 19% of the sample came to school two to three times a week aside from trips for lectures. The remainder of the sample or 4.2% came to school four or more times for reasons other than attending lectures.

The findings in Table 41.3 indicates that the group who travelled to university strictly for the purpose of attending lectures: (1) attempted fewer credits than all other groups contrasted, (2) obtained fewer credits than all other groups contrasted, with the exception of the group who came to school twice a week for reasons other than lectures, and (3)attained a significantly lower G.P.A. than the group who came to school once a week aside from lectures. This consistent negative pattern for the '0 trip' group, can be explained by one of three assumptions. (1) This group lacked the time, because of other commitments to attempt more courses, hence, the need to come to school for study purposes would be significantly reduced, in contrast with students who attempted more courses and had a heavier work load demanding additional trips to the university for study purposes. (2) The distance factor between home and school may have made additional trips to the university more difficult for some students than for others. Table 38.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Length of Travel Time to School) shows that the travel time to school affected the number of credits attempted and obtained when the student had to travel more than one hour from home to the university. (3) The students lack of academic motivation reduced

the number of courses attempted and the trips to school for purposes other than attending lectures. However, because G.P.A. scores for this group were lower in only one case, assumption (3) seems the least likely of explanations given.

The remaining group contrasts, although not as consistent, follow the pattern set by the '0 trip' group comparisons. Those who came to school for purposes other than attending lectures four or more times a week attempted and obtained more credits than the '1 trip' group and the '2 trip' group. This group also obtained more credits than the '3 trip' group. However, the '3 trip' group attained a lower G.P.A. than the '1 trip' group. This last finding remains as the only inconsistancy in a generally consistent pattern whereby the more times a student travels to school for purposes other than attending lectures, the more credits they attempt and obtain.

TABLE 41.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Weekly Trips to University for Purposes Other Than Attending Lectures

NUMBER OF WEEKLY TRIPS	0 TRIPS	1 TRIP	2 TRIPS	3 TRIPS	4+ TRIPS
NUMBER (N)	310	150	67	44	25
PERCENT %	52.0	25.2	11.2	7.4	4.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 596 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 34 or 5.4%

TABLE 41.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Weekly Trips to University for Purposes Other Than Attending Lectures

NUMBER OF WEEKLY TRIPS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
0 TRIPS	3.19	1.26	2.10	1.67	2.43	1.66
1 TRIP	3.68	1.16	2.83	1.63	2.87	1.34
2 TRIPS	3.67	1.24	2.43	1.99	2.58	1.74
3 TRIPS	3.95	1.16	2.66	1.83	2.36	1.54
4+ TRIPS	4.44	.82	3.60	1.61	2.68	1.75

TABLE 41.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Weekly Trips to University for Purposes Other Than Attending Lectures

Group	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
0 TRIPS - 1 TRIP	-.49**	-.73**	-.44**
0 TRIPS - 2 TRIPS	-.48**	-.33	-.15
0 TRIPS - 3 TRIPS	-.76**	-.56*	.07
0 TRIPS - 4+ TRIPS	-1.25**	-1.50**	-.25
1 TRIPS - 2 TRIPS	.01	.40	.29
1 TRIP - 3 TRIPS	-.27	.17	.51*
1 TRIP - 4+ TRIPS	-.76**	-.77*	.19
2 TRIPS - 3 TRIPS	-.28	-.23	.22
2 TRIPS - 4+ TRIPS	-.77**	-1.17**	-.10
3 TRIPS - 4+ TRIPS	-.49	-.94*	-.32

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

TRAVEL TIME

Table 42.1 indicates that over 75% of the sample did not use the travel time between home and school for study purposes, leaving just under 25% of the respondents who found that travel time was valuable for study purposes.

It appears from the data in Table 42.3 that those students who found travel time from home to school valuable for study purposes, attempted significantly more credits than the group who did not use travel time to study. There was, however, no significant difference between the two groups on the number of credits obtained or G.P.A.

It is difficult to draw any conclusions from this data except that maybe students who did use the travel time to study anticipated added time while travelling to devote to their studies and, thus, attempted more courses.

TABLE 42.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Travel Time is Used for Study Purposes

USE OF TRAVEL TIME FOR STUDY PURPOSES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	143	462
PERCENT %	23.6	76.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 605 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 25 or 4.0%

TABLE 42.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Travel Time is Used for Study Purposes

USE OF TRAVEL TIME FOR STUDY PURPOSES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.69	1.30	2.66	1.80	2.47	1.50
NO	3.40	1.25	2.35	1.73	2.59	1.63.

TABLE 42.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Travel Time is Used for Study Purposes

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.29*	.31	-.12

* significant at 5 % level

VALUE OF TRAVEL TIME FOR STUDIES

Table 43.1 indicates that roughly 85% of the sample did not find travel time to and from the university valuable for studies. The remaining 15% of the sample claimed that travel time was valuable for studies.

It appears, from the data in Table 43.3 that the group who found travel time to be useful for their studies, attempted and obtained significantly more credits than the group who did not use travel time for study purposes; however, there was no difference in G.P.A. between the two groups. Time availability has proven to be a crucial determinant of the amount of courses a student is able to take, thus, students who anticipated the use of travel time for study purposes, may have been more in a position to attempt, therefore, obtain more credits due to the additional time factor.

TABLE 43.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Travel Time is Valuable for Studies

TRAVEL TIME VALUABLE FOR STUDIES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	92	507
PERCENT %	15.4	84.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 599 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 31 or 4.9%

TABLE 43.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Travel Time is Valuable for Studies

TRAVEL TIME VALUABLE FOR STUDIES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.72	1.23	2.80	1.74	2.53	1.53
NO	3.41	1.27	2.31	1.76	2.52	1.63

TABLE 43.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Travel Time is Valuable or Studies

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.31*	.49*	.01

* significant at 5% level

EXTENT TRAVEL TIME INTERFERES WITH STUDY TIME

Table 44.1 shows that over 50% of the sample claimed their travel time did not at all interfere with their study time, while roughly 37% felt that travel time did either slightly (17.2%) or moderately (19.8%) affect study time. Roughly nine percent of the sample maintained that their study time was either extremely (2.9%) or very much (5.8%) affected by travel time.

Table 44.3 reveals a general pattern with a few statistical singificances that confirm a consistent trend. It appears that, on the whole, groups who felt study time was extremely or very much affected by travel time attempted/ obtained fewer credits and attained lower G.P.A. scores than groups who felt that travel time interfered moderately, slightly or not at all with study time.

TABLE 44.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Extent Travel Time Interferes With Study Time

EXTENT TRAVEL TIME INTERFERES WITH STUDY TIME	EXTREMELY	VERY MUCH	MODERATELY	SLIGHTLY	NOT AT ALL
NUMBER (N)	18	36	122	106	335
PERCENT %	2.9	5.8	19.8	17.2	54.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 617 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 13 or 2.1%

TABLE 44.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Dwon by Extent Travel Time Interferes With Study Time

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EXTREMELY	3.11	1.32	1.56	1.69	2.16	1.86
VERY MUCH	3.58	1.40	1.94	2.00	1.86	1.68
MODERATELY	3.54	1.25	2.91	1.51	2.95	1.30
SLIGHTLY	3.63	1.28	2.50	1.77	2.55	1.59
NOT AT ALL	3.39	1.24	2.26	1.77	2.47	1.67

TABLE 44.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Extent Travel Time Interferes With Study Time

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EXTREMELY - VERY MUCH	-.47	-.38	.30
EXTREMELY - MODERATELY	-.43	-1.35**	-.79*
EXTREMELY - SLIGHTLY	-.52	-.94*	-.39
EXTREMELY - NOT AT ALL	-.28	-.70	-.31
VERY MUCH - MODERATELY	.04	-.97**	-1.09**
VERY MUCH - SLIGHTLY	-.05	-.56	-.69*
VERY MUCH - NOT AT ALL	.19	-.32	-.61*
MODERATELY - SLIGHTLY	-.09	-.41	.40*
MODERATELY - NOT AT ALL	.15	-.65**	.48**
SLIGHTLY - NOT AT ALL	.24	.24	.08

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

CHAPTER 7

PARENTAL BACKGROUND

Attention was next turned towards an examination of relationship between academic performance of part-time university students and their parental socio-economic and educational backgrounds. Factors studied include father's socio-economic status, country in which parents spent most of their lives, whether parents were living together, whether the student lived with his parents, parental level of education, and attendance of a sibling at a university.

FATHER'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Table 6.1 reveals the distribution of the sample according to the socio-economic status of the respondent's father. Under seven percent of the sample claimed their father belonged to the upper-class level, while roughly 14% of the sample maintained their father was a member of the upper-middle-class echelon. Approximately 43% of the respondents listed their father as occupying a middle-class status while 32% claimed their father belonged to a lower-middle class level. Just over ten percent of the sample listed their father as being affiliated with the lower-class group.

Table 6.2 indicates that student's whose father came from an upper-class background, attempted/obtained significantly more credits and attained higher G.P.A. scores than all groups contrasted with the exception of the 'lower-class group' where the difference was not significant but the data was in the direction of previous pattern. It is possible that students whose father was a member of an upper-class level had obtained, in the past, a better standard of education through private schools, and, thus, has a higher motivational and achievement level than the other groups. However, beside the degree of significance in the group contrasts with the 'upper-class' group, it must be noted that this group included only four students and, thus, the findings are of limited value.

In addition, the 'lower-middle' group, attained significantly lower G.P.A. scores than the 'upper-middle' and 'middle' groups.

The data does not present a consistent pattern in any direction. Therefore, aside from the significance regarding the group contrasted between the 'upper-class' group and all other groups, which may not be very valuable due to the size of this group, it appears that the socio-economic level occupied by the student's father does not influence the number of credits attempted/obtained or the G.P.A.

TABLE 45.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Father's Socio-Economic Status

FATHER'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS	UPPER	UPPER-MIDDLE	MIDDLE	LOWER MIDDLE	LOWER
NUMBER (N)	4	67	225	166	57
PERCENT %	.8	13.9	43.4	32.0	11.0

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 519 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 111 or 17.6%

TABLE 45.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Father's Socio-Economic Status

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
UPPER	4.75	.50	4.75	.50	4.50	.58
UPPER MIDDLE	3.34	1.19	2.58	1.64	2.73	1.57
MIDDLE	3.48	1.21	2.49	1.68	2.67	1.64
LOWER MIDDLE	3.40	1.28	2.31	1.83	2.26	1.69
LOWER	3.54	1.30	2.51	1.72	2.64	1.63

TABLE 15.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Father's Socio-Economic Status

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
UPPER - UPPER MIDDLE	1.41*	2.17*	1.75*
UPPER - MIDDLE	1.27*	2.35**	1.83*
UPPER - LOWER MIDDLE	1.35*	2.44**	2.24**
UPPER - LOWER	1.21	2.24*	1.87*
UPPER MIDDLE - MIDDLE	-.14	.18	.08
UPPER MIDDLE - LOWER MIDDLE	-.06	.27	.49*
UPPER MIDDLE - LOWER	-.20	.07	.12
MIDDLE - LOWER MIDDLE	.08	.09	.41*
MIDDLE - LOWER	-.06	-.11	.04
LOWER MIDDLE - LOWER	-.14	-.20	-.37

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

COUNTRY MOTHER LIVED IN PREDOMINENTLY

Table 46.1 indicates that over 50% of the sample claimed their mother had predominently lived in Canada, while just over a quarter of the sample listed Europe as the country their mother lived in most. Roughly two percent of the sample claimed their mother's predominent country was the United States, leaving over 15% of the respondents who maintained their mother had lived in a country other than those listed.

Table 46.3 demonstrates that students whose mother had mostly lived in Canada attempted/obtained significantly fewer credits and attained lower G.P.A. scores than both the 'Europe' and 'Other' group. Although there was no significance, there does exist a consistent trend in which the group whose mother dwelled mostly in the United States also attempted/obtained fewer credits and attained a lower G.P.A. than both the 'Europe' and 'Other' groups. On the whole the data in Table 46.3 illustrates a cut-off point between students of predominently North-American mothers and students of predominently foreign mothers whereby the former groups appear to attempt and obtain fewer credits and attain lower G.P.A. scores than the two latter groups.

These findings are in accordance with the data presented in Tables 4.3, 5.3, and 6.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Country of Birth; Mother Tongue; Home Language, respectively) whereby it was found that immigrant students attempted/obtained more credits and higher G.P.A. scores. These findings in addition to the results offered by Table 46.3 would seem to indicate that the value and appreciation of education exemplified by immigrant groups may be possibly, in part, transmitted from mother to child. Since the findings in Table 46.3 are indicative only of the mother's predominent place of residence and not the student's, it can only be assumed

that regardless of the student's actual place of birth or predominent count
the values placed on education by the mother may be transferred to the child.

TABLE 46.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Country Mother Lived in Predominantly

COUNTRY MOTHER LIVED IN	CANADA	EUROPE	U.S.A.	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	336	162	13	101
PERCENT %	54.9	26.5	2.1	16.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 612 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 18 or 2.9%

TABLE 46.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Country Mother Lived in Predominantly

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
CANADA	3.14	1.24	2.08	1.67	2.37	1.65
EUROPE	2.81	1.14	2.71	1.75	2.83	1.45
U.S.A.	3.62	1.33	2.54	1.94	2.31	2.06
OTHER	3.28	1.21	3.06	1.75	2.72	1.46

TABLE 46.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Country Lived in Predominantly

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
CANADA - EUROPE	-.67**	-.63**	-.46**
CANADA - U.S.	-.48	-.46	.16
CANADA - OTHER	-.34**	-.98**	-.35**
EUROPE - U.S.	.19	.17	.32
EUROPE - OTHER	-.17	-.35*	.11
U.S. - OTHER	-.36	-.52	-.41

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

COUNTRY FATHER LIVED IN PREDOMINENTLY

Table 47.1 indicates that just over 55% of the sample listed Canada as being their father's predominent country, while roughly 45% claimed their father had mostly lived in Europe. Two percent of the respondents maintained their father had resided predominently in the United States, leaving approximately 16% of the sample whose father had lived in a country other than those listed. It is interesting to note that the number of students in each of the four groups in Table 47.1, roughly corresponds with the number of students in each group in Table 46.1 (Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Country Mother Lived in Predominently). The two Tables, 46.1 and 47.1 lead one to an assumption that the respondent's parental background was fairly similar.

The data in Table 47.3 demonstrates the same general pattern presented by the findings in Table 46.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Country Mother Lived in Predominently) whereby students whose father lived in North America most of their lives attempted/obtained and attained significantly fewer credits and attained lower G.P.A. scores than students whose father had lived in Europe or another country predominently. There is one exception to this pattern being the G.P.A. score between the 'Canada' and 'Other' group where the former did not attain a significantly lower G.P.A. score than the latter, however, the direction of the finding is in accordance with the prevalent pattern.

In addition, the 'Europe' group obtained significantly more credits than the 'Other' group but the number of credits attempted and G.P.A. scores were not statistically different between the two groups.

In conclusion, it would appear from the results presented both by Tables 46.3 and 47.3 that the student's parent's predominent country affects his achievement at university. The values on education maintained by parents who

have not lived in North America most of their lives and, thus, emmigrated to Canada or the U.S. seem to positively affect the student's performance at school in contrast to student's whose parents lived mostly in North America.

TABLE 47.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Country Father Lived in Predominently

COUNTRY FATHER LIVED IN	CANADA	EUROPE	U.S.A.	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	344	152	12	102
PERCENT %	56.4	24.9	2.0	16.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 610 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 20 or 3.2%

TABLE 47.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Country Father lived in Predominently

COUNTRY FATHER LIVED IN PRE-DOMINENTLY	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
CANADA	3.15	1.24	2.13	1.67	2.42	1.63
EUROPE	3.79	1.13	2.62	1.78	2.75	1.60
U.S.A.	3.67	1.44	2.75	1.87	2.53	1.93
OTHER	4.04	1.19	3.07	1.80	3.68	1.50

TABLE 47.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Country Father Lived in Predominently

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
CANADA - EUROPE	-.64**	-.49**	-.33*
CANADA - U.S.	-.52	-.62	-.16
CANADA - OTHER	-.89**	-.94**	-.26
EUROPE - U.S.	.12	-.13	.17
EUROPE - OTHER	-.25	-.45*	.07
U.S. - OTHER	-.37	-.32	-.10

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP

Table 48.1 indicates that over 90% of the sample maintained their parents were living together while four percent listed their parents as being separated, leaving roughly the same proportion of respondents claiming their parents were divorced.

The data in Table 48.3 produce only one case of significance whereby students whose parents lived together attempted significantly more credits than students whose parents were divorced. Table 48.3 does not present any type of consistent trend in any specific direction, hence, it would seem that parents' marital status does not influence student performance at university. In consideration of the sometimes negative repercussions upon the child incurred by parental separation or divorce, it could be expected that emotional preoccupations and/or increased responsibility on the part of the student would reflect on his achievement at school, but apparently this is not so in the case of a part-time university student.

TABLE 48.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Parental Relationship

PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP	LIVING TOGETHER	SEPARATED	DIVORCED
NUMBER (N)	438	19	20
PERCENT %	91.8	4.0	4.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 477 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 153 or 24.3%

TABLE 48.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Parental Relationship

PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
LIVING TOGETHER	3.51	1.26	2.44	1.79	2.50	1.60
SEPARATED	3.32	1.41	2.53	2.17	2.53	1.87
DIVORCED	2.90	1.29	2.15	1.76	2.45	1.70

TABLE 48.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Parental Relationship

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
LIVING TOGETHER - SEPARATED	.19	-.09	-.03
LIVING TOGETHER - DIVORCED	.61*	.29	.05
SEPARATED - DIVORCED	.42	.38	.38

* significant at 5% level

PRESENCE OF PARENT(S) AT HOME

Table 49.1 indicates that roughly a third of the sample were living with one or both of their parents, while approximately two-thirds of the respondents were living on their own, away from home.

Table 49.3 indicates that students who were living away from their parents, were performing at a higher academic level, than students living with one or both of their parents. Students living with one or both parents attempted signi icantly more credits, however, tended to obtain fewer credits and also attained a significantly lower G.P.A. than students who were living on their own. The data would appear to indicate that factors in the lives of students living with at least one parent hamper academic achievement. It may be that students living with one or both parents are experiencing an uncomfortable situation as a result of being at odds with the parent(s). Or it may be that living experience away from parents gave the student a greater exposure to life which in turn matured the student where he was more in a position to value the function of education. Also, students who lived with one or both parents may have been influenced into taking courses which were not in their line of interest and, thus, understandably were not as motivated as the student who had more of a choice.

These are but a few of the explanations to account for the data in Table 49.3 and a whole range of other explanations may also be valid as it is difficult to decipher the variables which are having an effect upon student performance when analysing the effects of home environment and interpersonal relationships between student and parent(s).

TABLE 49.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Presence o. Parent(s) at Home

PRESENCE OF PARENT(S)	ONE OR BOTH	ALONE
NUMBER (N)	153	296
PERCENT %	34.2	65.8

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 449 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 181 or 28.6%

TABLE 49.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Presence o Parent(s) at Home

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EITHER OR BOTH	3.66	1.21	2.14	1.78	2.09	1.51
NEITHER	3.44	1.25	2.60	1.73	2.79	1.52

TABLE 4.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Presence of Parent(s) at Home

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ONE OR BOTH	0.22*	-0.46	-0.70**

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Table 50.1 indicates that roughly 40% of the sample claimed their father had finished the primary level of education, while over a quarter of the respondents maintained that their father had finished high school. Approximately 13% listed their father as having had a university education, leaving roughly 18% whose fathers had some sort of special training.

It appears from the data in Table 50.3 that students whose fathers had completed elementary school: (1) attempted significantly fewer credits than all other groups compared, (2) obtained significantly fewer credits than those groups whose fathers had been to university had had special training, and (3) attained lower G.P.A. scores than the 'university' group. Taking into consideration both the statistically significant data and the corresponding trends that emerge in the group comparisons with the 'elementary school' group on all three criterion variables, it appears that students whose fathers have completed elementary school themselves achieve and perform at a lower level than all other students coming from the three different groups. It may be that the fathers of the elementary school group did not value the potentiality of education as much as did the father who had reached higher levels of education, and in turn, they transmitted this attitude on to their child. This lack of motivation towards and possible apprehension about university courses harbored by the 'elementary school' group may have contributed to their lower level of scholastic achievement and performance at school compared with all other groups. This finding is in accordance with the assumption that parents who have had little education tend to be sceptical and/or apathetic about the benefits derived from education and this attitude may be subtly transmitted to their off-spring.

The rest of the data in Table 50.3 yields only one instance of statistical significance whereby those students whose father had attended university attained higher G.P.A. scores than the group whose father had obtained some form of special training. However, aside from this case, the over all data fails to produce any observable trend in either direction on any of the three criterion variables. Thus, in conclusion, it would appear that the level of education attained by the student's father affects the students performance at university only in cases when the father has not gone beyond the elementary level of education.

TABLE 50.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Father's Level of Education

FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION	ELEMENTARY	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY	SPECIAL TRAINING
NUMBER (N)	250	166	81	114
PERCENT %	40.9	27.2	13.3	18.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 611 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 10 or 1.6%

TABLE 50.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Father's Level of Education

FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	3.20	1.36	2.22	1.73	2.44	1.63
HIGH SCHOOL	3.67	1.23	2.45	1.77	2.58	1.62
UNIVERSITY	3.65	1.13	2.74	1.71	2.95	1.46
SPECIAL TRAINING	3.72	1.16	2.62	1.80	2.47	1.65

TABLE 50.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Father's Level of Education

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - HIGH SCHOOL	-.47**	-.23	-.14
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	-.45**	-.52*	-.51*
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.52**	-.40*	-.03
HIGH SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	.02	-.29	-.37
HIGH SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.05	-.17	.11
UNIVERSITY - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.07	.12	.48*

** Significant at 1% level
* Significant at 5% level

MOTHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Table 51.1 shows that roughly 40% of the sample claimed their mother had completed the primary level of education. Approximately 40% of the respondents maintained their mother had finished high school, while less than five percent listed their mother as having had a university education. The remainder of the sample or 10.4% claimed their mother had had some form of special training.

The data in Table 51.3 does not yield any case of statistical significance on any of the three criterion variables, between any two given groups. In addition, there does not appear to emerge a consistent trend in any direction. Hence, it would appear, from the results in Table 53.3 that the level of education attained by the student's mother does not affect the student's scholastic achievement or performance at university. These findings conflict, somewhat, with the results produced by Table 50.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Father's Level of Education), whereby it was found that students whose father had reached just the first level of education generally attempted/obtained fewer credits and attained lower G.P.A. scores than all other groups. In comparing the data in these two Tables, it would seem reasonable to infer that the value towards education possessed by the student is acquired more from the father than the mother. It may be that the students in the sample felt that their mother's level of education was not a significant factor in view of the relative lack of emphasis on education for women at the time of the mother's schooling years. Or it may also be that mothers do not impress their views on education upon their offspring to as great an extent as do the fathers.

TABLE 51.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Mother's Level of Education

MOTHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY	SPECIAL TRAINING
NUMBER (N)	273	249	29	64
PERCENT %	44.4	40.5	4.7	10.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 615 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 15 or 2.4%

TABLE 51.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Mother's Level of Education

MOTHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	3.51	1.24	2.45	1.79	2.53	1.63
HIGH SCHOOL	3.46	1.27	2.34	1.72	2.52	1.59
UNIVERSITY	3.59	1.32	2.45	1.90	2.79	1.66
SPECIAL TRAINING	3.34	1.20	2.50	1.59	2.58	1.55

TABLE 51.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Mother's Level of Education

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - HIGH SCHOOL	.05	.11	.01
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	-.08	0	-.26
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	.17	-.05	-.05
HIGH SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	-.13	-.11	-.27
HIGH SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	.12	-.16	-.06
UNIVERSITY - SPECIAL TRAINING	.25	-.05	.21

SIBLING ATTENDANCE AT UNIVERSITY

Table 52.1 indicates that over 35% of the sample had siblings who had attended college, while roughly 60% claimed neither their brother and/or sister had ever attended university.

Table 53.3 shows that respondents who claimed that a sibling(s) had attended college attempted/obtained significantly more credits and obtained higher G.P.A. scores than students who claimed siblings had not attended university. These findings are in accordance with two basic assumptions that could serve to explain the results: (1) students whose brother and/or sister attended college were probably more informed about and better equipped for the demands and expectations of the university curriculum than students who had not witnessed a sibling attending university. In addition, siblings who had attended college might have been in a position to offer aid to the respondent should he/she encounter difficulty, (2) it may also be that the motivation required to achieve well at school might have been transferred from sibling to respondent and/or parents to children.

Students whose siblings had attended school may have been competitively encouraged to do well at school or they may have been inspired by their sibling's experience in the academic milieu and his future progress in the labour market as a result of educational benefits. Hence, the value of getting an education increased with students whose siblings attended university as opposed to students whose siblings did not attend university.

TABLE 52.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Sibling Attendance at University

SIBLING ATTENDENCE AT UNIVERSITY	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	178	297
PERCENT %	37.5	62.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 475 MISSING OBSERVATIONS 155 or 24.6%

TABLE 52.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Sibling Attendance at University

SIBLING ATTENDENCE AT UNIVERSITY	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.61	1.16	2.70	1.70	2.76	1.62
NO	3.30	1.32	2.17	1.77	2.43	1.65

TABLE 52.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Sibling Attendence at College

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.31**	.53**	.33*

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

CHAPTER 8

FINANCIAL SUPPORT

This chapter examines the relationship between financial support variables and educational performance of part-time university students. Factors studied include whether the student received any financial support for his courses, the origin and degree of such support, whether the financial assistance was dependent upon successful completion of courses, the nature and amount of financial expenditure necessitated by university attendance, and the degree to which expenses disrupted budget.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF COURSES

Table 53.1 indicates that roughly 35% of the sample were receiving financial support for their courses at the university, while approximately 65% of the respondents were not being aided financially to take university courses.

The data in Table 53.3 indicates that the number of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. are not influenced by whether the student is or is not receiving financial support for courses. Table 53.3 does not present any significance on any of the three criterion variables nor does there emerge any consistent trend in either direction. It appears once again, in confirmation of the findings in Table 15.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Reasons for Delay Between High School Diploma and University Registration) and 32.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Yearly Income) that the cost of supporting university course fees does not influence the number of credits attempted/obtained or G.P.A.

TABLE 53.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Financial Assistance

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR COURSES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	210	401
PERCENT %	34.4	65.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 611 MISSING OBSERVATIONS 19 or 3.0%

TABLE 53.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Financial Assistance

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR COURSES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.40	1.24	2.44	1.72	2.53	1.56
NO	3.48	1.27	2.35	1.78	2.51	1.64

TABLE 53.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Financial Support for Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.08	.09	.02

ORIGIN OF FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

Table 54.1 indicates that a large majority of students or roughly 93% of the sample who were receiving financial assistance for courses were being aided by their employer. Only 3.7% of the sample were receiving governmental assistance, while the same proportion of respondents were being financially sponsored, at school, by some other organization. It seems somewhat surprising to find that the bulk of students receiving financial assistance were being aided by their employer while the government was sponsoring less than five percent of the sample.

Table 54.3 indicates that the source of financial aid does not affect the students performance at school. The data does not produce any case of statistical significance nor does there emerge any consistent pattern in any direction.

TABLE 54.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Origin of Financial Assistance for Courses

ORIGIN OF FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE	EMPLOYER	GOVERNMENT	OTHER ORGANIZATION
NUMBER (N)	188	7	7
PERCENT %	93.1	3.5	3.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 202 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 67.9% or 128

TABLE 54.2

Scores on Criterion Variables According to Origin of Financial Assistance for Courses

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE OF COURSE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EMPLOYER	3.37	1.22	2.37	1.64	2.50	1.54
GOVERNMENT	3.57	1.13	2.43	1.99	2.86	1.95
OTHER ORGANIZATION	3.14	1.46	2.29	2.29	2.57	1.27

TABLE 54.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Origin of Financial Assistance for Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EMPLOYER - GOVERNMENT	-.20	-.06	-.36
EMPLOYER - OTHER ORGANIZATION	.23	.08	-.07
GOVERNMENT - OTHER ORGANIZATION	.43	.14	.29

DEGREE OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Table 55.1 indicates that roughly a quarter of the sample were not receiving any financial assistance for the cost of their courses. Approximately ten percent of the respondents were being financed for the total cost of the course, while 36% were receiving money to cover 50% of course fees. About 20% were being financially supported for 75% of course costs leaving roughly five percent who were receiving financial support other than the amounts mentioned.

The data in Table 55.3 does not produce any case of statistical significance . However, there does emerge a general pattern whereby students who claim they are not being supported for courses attempt/obtain fewer credits and attain lower G.P.A. scores than other groups contrasted. There are two facts which must be mentioned before going on to speculate about the relevance of this trend. Firstly, the data is not significant, but only contains a consistent negative direction in favour of the group receiving no support. Secondly, almost 60% of the sample refrained from answering this item and, hence, it is difficult to draw conclusions with so great a proportion of missing observations.

TABLE 55.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Degree of Financial Assistance Received for Courses

DEGREE OF FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE	NONE	COST OF COURSES	50%	75%	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	66	26	91	55	15
PERCENT %	26.1	10.3	36.0	21.7	5.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 253 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 377 or 59.8%

TABLE 55.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Degree of Financial Assistance Received for Courses

DEGREE OF FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR COURSES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
NONE	3.24	1.35	1.91	1.82	2.44	1.64
COST OF COURSE	3.31	1.35	2.62	1.70	2.42	1.30
50%	3.42	1.25	2.45	1.73	2.51	1.54
75%	3.42	1.17	2.18	1.62	2.62	1.73
OTHER	3.40	1.24	2.87	1.55	2.87	1.25

TABLE 55.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Degree of Financial Assistance for Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
NONE - COST OF COURSE	-.07	-.71	.02
NONE - 50%	-.18	-.54	-.07
NONE - 75%	-.18	-.27	-.18
NONE - OTHER	-.16	-.96	-.43
COST OF COURSE - 50%	-.11	-.17	-.09
COST OF COURSE - 75%	-.11	.44	-.20
COST OF COURSE - OTHER	-.15	-.25	-.45
50% - 75%	0	.27	-.11
50% - OTHER	.02	-.42	-.36
75% - OTHER	.02	-.69	-.25

WHETHER FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE IS DEPENDENT UPON COURSE COMPLETION

Table 56.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the contingency of financial assistance received, on successful completion of course requirements. Roughly 90% of the sample were required to pass to course(s) in order to receive financial assistance, while roughly ten percent received financial assistance regardless of whether they passed the course or not.

Table 56.3 indicates that students who were required to pass the course(s) in order to receive financial assistance attempted significantly fewer credits than students whose financial support of courses was not contingent upon course completion. In addition, although the data did not reach the five percent level of significance, a trend does emerge indicating that students who had to pass the course(s) in order to obtain financial support obtained fewer credits and lower G.P.A. scores than students who received financial support irrespective of course completion. This data indicates that the matter of financing courses does affect student scholastic achievement and performance, when the support of courses is dependent upon their completion. It may be that pressures upon the student to pass the course hamper performance at school. It is conceivable that students who obtain financial assistance for courses regardless of course completion, are less apprehensive about attempting more courses than students who must complete the course in order to have it paid for.

TABLE 56.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Financial Assistance is Dependent Upon Course Completion

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE DEPENDENT UPON COURSES COMPLETION	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	189	19
PERCENT %	90.5	9.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 208 MISSING OBSERVATIONS 422 or 66.8%

TABLE 56.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Financial Assistance is Dependent on Course Completion

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.31	1.22	2.27	1.63	2.47	1.56
NO	3.89	1.20	2.89	1.76	2.63	1.50

TABLE 56.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Financial Assistance is Dependent Upon Course Completion

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.58*	-.62	-.16

* significant at 5% level

WHETHER COURSE ENROLLMENT IS DEPENDENT UPON FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

Table 57.1 indicates that over 94% of the sample would still take courses at the university regardless of whether the course was being financed or not, while roughly five percent of the respondents maintained that course enrollment was dependent upon financial assistance. These findings are in keeping with previous results suggesting that the issue of finance for university courses is not a highly relevant factor.

The data in Table 57.3 indicates that students who claimed that they would not be taking courses at university unless they were being financed, obtained significantly more credits than those who claimed they would take courses irrespective of financial support. In addition, although the data is not statistically significant, it appears that those who would not take courses unless receiving financial support attained higher G.P.A. scores than those who were willing to take courses in the absence of financial aid. This finding seems somewhat difficult to account for. The data indicates that the group not willing to continue their educati n in the absence of financial aid seem to be scholastically better endowed than the other group. It may, then be that students who are doing well at school and who are possibly devoting much time and energy to their studies feel they deserve to be assisted financially at school. However, it must be noted that these students numbered only 15 and, hence, the data may be reflective of the individual students in the group, rather than their position on the question of financial assistance.

TABLE 57.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Course Enrollment is Dependent Upon Financial Assistance

COURSE ENROLLMENT DEPENDENT UPON FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	247	15
PERCENT %	94.3	5.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 262 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 368 or 58.4%

TABLE 57.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Course Enrollment is Dependent Upon Financial Assistance

COURSE ENROLLMENT DEPENDENT UPON FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.35	1.19	2.19	1.65	2.43	1.60
NO	3.40	1.55	3.07	1.71	3.20	1.15

TABLE 57.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Course Enrollment is Dependent Upon Financial Assistance

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.05	-.88*	-.77

* significant at 5% level

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

Table 58.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to personal expenses incurred from university attendance. Almost 60% of the sample were paying for tuition, transportation to and from school, books, and meals while attending university. Roughly one percent of respondents were supporting tuition fees only from their personal finances, while approximately six percent of the sample claimed costs incurred from tuition fees and transportation were being financed from their own budget. Roughly ten percent were required to pay for transportation costs only, leaving almost 25% of respondents who were personally financing the cost of books and meals only. The data in Table 58.1 clearly indicates that the bulk of the part-time population who responded to this survey were supporting all expenses incurred from university attendance from their personal finances.

Table 59.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the yearly expenditure for university attendance. Over 25% of the sample were spending anywhere from $50 to $150 a year for school costs. Roughly 18% of respondents required a yearly budget of $151 to $250 for attending school. Twenty-two percent of the sample were spending $251 to $350 yearly for school expenses. Over 15% of the sample claimed they allotted $351 to $490 a year towards the support of school costs, while roughly the same proportion of the respondents were spending over $490 a year for schooling expenses.

Table 59.3 reveals a consistent and significant pattern, whereby groups who spent more yearly at school, attempted and obtained significantly more credits than groups who spent relatively less a year at school. The data supporting this finding is statistically significant with the exception of four cases, which although not significant, tend to complement the observable

pattern: (1) the group spending $351 to $490 yearly did not obtain significantly fewer credits than the group spending $251 to $350 yearly; (2) (3) students spending $251 to $350 yearly did not attempt or obtain significantly more credits than the students who spend $151 to $250 yearly; (4) the $351 to $490 group did not obtain significantly more credits than the $251 to $350 group.

This pattern may be easily accounted for,--students who spend more at school yearly, are most probably enrolling with more courses, hence, obtaining more credits than students who are spending less and enrolling with fewer courses; hence, obtaining fewer credits.

The group who was spending the most amount of money for yearly expenses at school did, however, obtain higher G.P.A. scores than all other groups contrasted, with the exception of the $151 to $250 group where although the data was not significant, it was in accordance with the pattern described above.

It may be that students who are registering for many courses at school; thus, spending more money to finance university expenses, take their education more seriously than other groups. In view of the greater number of courses this group enrolls with, it may be presumed that they are highly motivated to complete educational training. Furthermore, in view of the greater amount of money allotted to school expenses,this group may feel a greater responsibility towards successfully completing their courses and, thus, they achieve well at school.

Table 60.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to whether expenses incurred from univeristy costs disrupt the student's budget, and to what extent. Roughly 30% of the sample claimed their budget was disrupted either extremely (13.2%) or very much (23.9%) as a consequence

of financing school fees. Thirty-two percent of respondents maintained their budget was disrupted either slightly (22.5%) or not at all (9.5%) as a result of financing school costs.

The data in Table 60.3 indicates that the group whose budget was disrupted extremely by school costs were attempting significantly more credits than all other groups contrasted, with the exception of the group whose budget was disrupted very much by school costs. However, the 'extremely' group did not obtain more credits or higher G.P.A. scores than all other groups. It would be expected that the group who claimed school expenses disrupted their budget extremely would obtain more credits in view of the fact that they attempt more credits, because they would tend to feel a greater obligation to complete courses in view of the financial inconvenience, however, this was not the case.

In addition, the group whose budget was disrupted, very much, by school expenses: (1) obtained significantly more credits than all other groups, with the exception of the 'extremely' group where there was no statistical difference; (2) attempted significantly more credits than the 'slightly' group; and (3) attained a higher G.P.A. than the 'not at all' group. The general pattern produced by the group whose budget was disrupted very much is more in accordance with the expected results than the pattern produced by those students who claimed school expenses disrupted their budget extremely; because they take on more courses and, hence, obtain more credits, their school costs are greater, and their budget is more disrupted; and, because their budget is very much disrupted they feel a greater obligation to complete courses attempted.

In addition, a case of significance resulted from the group contrast between the 'moderately' and 'not at all' group, whereby the former group

obtained significantly more credits than the latter group.

The data in Table 60.3 presents a confusing relationship between the degree of budget disruption for school costs and the number of credits attempted/obtained, and G.P.A. Although patterns do emerge as have been described above, the basic rational underlying each pattern are in conflict with one another, hence, it is difficult to arrive at an all-encompassing explanation of the data in Table 60.3.

The data produced from items 58, 59, and 60 on the questionnaire have been integrated into one analysis because they each deal with one aspect of the financial issue for supporting school fees. In summary of this analysis, certain findings which have emerged will be highlighted:

(1) The bulk of the part-time population at Sir George Williams University who responded to these items, were required to finance all expenses while attending school, including: tuition, books, transportation, and meals.

(2) Students who forward the most amount of money towards educational expenses a year ($490+) appear to attempt and obtain more credits than all other groups who spend comparatively less. This result has been previously accounted for and is in accordance with the basic assumption that the more credits attempted, hence, the more credits obtained, leads to a greater allowance for school fees. However, in addition, the group who spent the most at school attained higher G.P.A. scores than all other groups, probably because the greater donation of finances towards school fees created an obligation, on the part of the student to successfully complete courses.

(3) There does not appear to be a direct and consistent relationship between the degree of budget disruption and the number of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. The assumption validated by findings in Table 59.3 that students who are required to donate greater sums of money towards school fees feel an added responsibility to successfully complete a course is not entirely confirmed in the findings produced in Table 60.3 where it was found that students whose budgets were extremely disrupted did not obtain more credits although they attempted more than any other group and did not attain higher G.P.A. scores than any other group.

In conclusion, it would appear that the effect of financing school fees upon the three criterion variables is somewhat complex lending itself to ambiguity within the context of this general survey.

TABLE 58.1

Frequency Distribution of Courses According to Personal Expenses Incurred From University Attendance

PERSONAL EXPENSES INCURRED FROM UNIVERSITY ATTENDANCE	TUTTION	TRANSPORTATION	TUITION	BOOKS AND MEALS	ALL OF THE ABOVE
NUMBER (N)	6	45	26	107	257
PERCENT %	1.4	10.2	5.9	24.3	58.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 441 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 189 or 30.0%

TABLE 58.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Personal Expenses Incurred From University Attendance

PERSONAL EXPENSES INCURRED FROM UNIVERSITY ATTENDANCE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
TUITION	2.00	1.67	1.50	1.98	2.17	2.23
TRANSPORTATION	3.07	1.14	1.93	1.63	2.44	1.42
TUITION AND TRANSPORTATION	3.58	1.10	2.65	1.65	2.81	1.67
BOOKS AND MEALS	3.08	1.26	2.16	1.62	2.37	1.53
ALL OF THE ABOVE	3.67	1.21	2.60	1.81	2.77	1.65

TABLE 59.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Yearly Expenditures for Attending University

YEARLY EXPENDITURES AT UNIVERSITY	$50 - $150	$151 - $250	$251 - $350	$351- $490	$490+
NUMBER (N)	147	104	123	92	93
PERCENT %	26.3	18.6	22.0	16.5	16.6

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 559 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 71 or 11.3%

TABLE 59.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Yearly Expenditures for Attending University

YEARLY EXPENDITURE AT UNIVERSITY	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
$50 - $150	2.82	1.16	1.86	1.50	2.30	1.59
$151 - $250	3.34	1.22	2.34	1.72	2.67	1.60
$251 - $350	3.41	1.23	2.27	1.59	2.47	1.51
$351 - 490	3.74	1.12	2.61	1.83	2.38	1.55
$490+	4.55	.80	3.39	1.88	2.94	1.69

TABLE 59.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Yearly Expenditure for Attending University

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
$50 - $150 to $151 - $250	-.52**	-.48*	-.37
$50 - $150 to $251 - $350	-.59**	-.41*	-.17
$50 - $150 to $351 - $490	-.92**	-.75**	-.08
$50 - $150 to $490+	-1.73**	-1.53**	-.64**
$151 - $250 to $251 - $350	-.07	.07	.20
$151 - $250 to $351 - $490	-.40*	-.27	.29
$151 - $250 to $490+	-1.21**	-1.05**	-.27
$251 - $350 to $351 - $490	-.33*	-.34	.09
$251 - 350 to $490+	-1.14**	-1.12**	-.47*
$351 - $490 to $490+	-.81**	-.78**	-.56*

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

TABLE 60.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Expenses Disrupt Budget

EXPENSES DISRUPT BUDGET	EXTREMELY	VERY MUCH	MODERATELY	SLIGHTLY	NOT AT ALL
NUMBER (N)	79	143	185	135	57
PERCENT %	13.2	23.9	30.9	22.5	9.5

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 599 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 31 or 4.9%

TABLE 60.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Expenses Disrupt Budget

EXPENSES DISRUPTS BUDGET	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
EXTREMELY	3.81	1.20	2.29	2.07	2.34	1.77
VERY MUCH	3.55	1.25	2.66	1.67	2.73	1.60
MODERATELY	3.46	1.34	2.61	1.78	2.54	1.50
SLIGHTLY	3.25	1.16	2.02	1.58	2.46	1.62
NOT AT ALL	3.26	1.28	1.95	1.86	2.09	1.70

TABLE 60.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Expenses Disrupt Budget

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
EXTREMELY - VERY MUCH	.26	-.37	-.39
EXTREMELY - MODERATELY	.35*	-.32	-.20
EXTREMELY - SLIGHTLY	.56**	.27	-.12
EXTREMELY - NOT AT ALL	.55*	.34	.25
VERY MUCH - MODERATELY	.09	.05	.19
VERY MUCH - SLIGHTLY	.30*	.64**	.27
VERY MUCH - NOT AT ALL	.29	.71**	.64*
MODERATELY - SLIGHTLY	.21	.59**	.08
MODERATELT - NOT AT ALL	.20	.66*	.45
SLIGHTLY - NOT AT ALL	-.01	.07	.37

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

CHAPTER 9

MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS

This chapter examines the relationship between marital and family status variables and academic performance at part-time university studies Factors examined include number of children in the family, level of education and occupation of the spouse, whether spouse is also taking university courses and her/his attitude towards courses taken by the student. Single student's dating habits, presence or absence of steady boyfriend/girlfriend, and if the student is engaged is studied for its relationship with drop-out.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Table 61.1 indicates that of those respondents who were married or were once married, almost 50% did not have any children while roughly 21% had one child and about the same proportion had two children. Approximately eight percent of the sample had three or more children. It must be noted that the series of questions directed to the married group of the sample obtained for the most part a greater number of responses than would be expected according to the number of married students listed in Table 7.1 (Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Marital Status) hence, it is assumed that students who were either separated or divorced answered these items on the questionnaire even though they were not currently married, but had once been.

The data produced in Table 61.3 indicates that students who had four or more children attempted and obtained significantly fewer credits than all other groups contrasted and also tended to attain lower G.P.A. scores than all other groups although this final observation is not significant.

The most obvious explanation for these results is that students with the most number of children will encounter greater family preoccupations due to the number of offsprings and as a result they will have less time and/or energy to perform and achieve as well as other groups with fewer children. However, it must be noted that this group was composed of only seven students and, hence, the observable differences may be a result of individual differences rather than the number of children the student had.

Other than the differences mentioned above and the pattern envoked by group contrast between the '4+ children' group and all other groups, the data in Table 61.3 does not suggest that the number of children a student has, affects the number of credits attempted/obtained and G.P.A. at school.

TABLE 61.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Number of Children

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	0 CHILDREN	1 CHILD	2 CHILDREN	3 CHILDREN	4+ CHILDREN
NUMBER (N)	146	64	67	19	7
PERCENT %	48.2	21.1	22.1	6.3	2.3

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 303 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 327 or 51.9%

TABLE 61.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Number of Children if Married

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
0 CHILDREN	3.43	1.20	2.41	1.73	2.64	1.62
1 CHILD	3.45	1.15	2.61	1.83	2.47	1.59
2 CHILDREN	3.27	1.33	2.49	1.77	2.79	1.58
3 CHILDREN	2.95	1.08	2.00	1.45	2.84	1.64
4+ CHILDREN	1.71	.49	.85	1.07	1.86	1.07

TABLE 61.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Number of Children if Married

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
0 CHILDREN - 1 CHILD	-.02	-.20	.17
0 CHILDREN - 2 CHILDREN	.16	-.08	-.15
0 CHILDREN - 3 CHILDREN	.48	.41	-.20
0 CHILDREN - 4+ CHILDREN	1.72**	1.56*	.78
1 CHILD - 2 CHILDREN	.18	.12	-.32
1 CHILD - 3 CHILDREN	.50	.61	-.37
1 CHILD - 4+ CHILDREN	1.74**	1.76*	.61
2 CHILDREN - 3 CHILDREN	.32	.49	-.05
2 CHILDREN - 4+ CHILDREN	1.56**	1.64*	.93
3 CHILDREN - 4+ CHILDREN	1.24**	1.15*	.98

** significant at 1% level
* significant at 5% level

SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION

Table 62.1 indicates that roughly 45% of the married sample claimed their spouse was employed in some type of business enterprise, while roughly half of this proportion claimed their spouse was a professional. Approximately ten percent of respondents listed their spouse as having a technical occupation. Roughly two percent of the sample had spouses employed in a field of trade, leaving approximately 20% of respondents whose spouses were employed in a field other than those mentioned.

The data presented in Table 62.3 yields only four cases of statistical significance:--(1) the group whose spouses were professionals attempted significantly fewer credits than the group whose spouse was employed in a field of business, and (2) also attained higher G.P.A. scores than the 'trade' group (3), (4) the group who claimed their spouse was employed in a field of business attempted significantly more credits than the 'technical' and 'other' group. Aside from these cases of significant difference, the data in Table 62.3 does not yield a consistent trend in any direction, hence, it would seem reasonable to conclude that the occupational field the student's spouse is employed in has little effect upon the number of credits the student attempts/obtains or G.P.A.

TABLE 62.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Spouse's Occupation

SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION	PROFESSIONAL	BUSINESS	TECHNICAL	TRADE	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	60	126	26	7	56
PERCENT %	21.8	45.8	9.5	2.5	20.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 275 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 355 or 56.3%

TABLE 62.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Spouse's Occupation

SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
PROFESSIONAL	3.30	1.25	2.65	1.70	2.80	1.57
BUSINESS	3.69	1.09	2.60	1.85	2.74	1.65
TECHNICAL	3.12	1.28	2.31	1.59	2.65	1.44
TRADE	3.20	1.25	1.71	1.80	1.57	1.27
OTHER	2.96	1.21	2.09	1.55	2.52	1.61

TABLE 62.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Spouse's Occupation

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
PROFESSIONAL - BUSINESS	-.39*	.05	.06
PROFESSIONAL - TECHNICAL	.18	.34	.15
PROFESSIONAL - TRADE	.01	.94	1.23*
PROFESSIONAL - OTHER	.34	.56	.28
BUSINESS - TECHNICAL	.57*	.29	.09
BUSINESS - TRADE	.40	.89	1.17
BUSINESS - OTHER	.73**	.51	.22
TECHNICAL - TRADE	-.17	.60	1.08
TECHNICAL - OTHER	.16	.22	.13
TRADE - OTHER	.33	-.38	-.95

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

SPOUSE'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Table 63.1 indicates that of the sample who were married or had been married, roughly 50% claimed their spouse had completed high school, while approximately 25% claimed their spouse had education at the university level. Almost 20% of the sample maintained their spouse had obtained some form of special training, leaving six percent who claimed their spouse had finished the primary level of education.

The data in Table 63.3 indicates that students whose spouse finished their primary level of education attained a higher G.P.A. than students whose spouse completed secondary school. It appears from the data that students whose spouse finished elementary school generally attempt and obtain fewer credits than all other groups, however, G.P.A. scores tend to be higher for this group although the observations are only part of a general pattern that did not reach statistical significance. In view of this witnessed trend, it appears that although students whose spouses completed their elementary level of education, may be less motivated or more apprehensive about attempting and, thus, obtaining fewer credits at university. Their G.P.A. scores are not affected by their spouse's level of education; and, if anything; tend to be higher than all other groups contrasted.

TABLE 63.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Spouse's Level of Education

SPOUSE'S LEVEL OF TRAINING	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY	SPECIAL TRAINING
NUMBER (N)	18	150	76	58
PERCENT %	6.0	49.7	25.2	19.2

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 302 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 328 or 52.1%

TABLE 63.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Spouse's Level of Education

SPOUSE'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	3.11	1.32	2.50	1.62	3.33	1.57
HIGH SCHOOL	3.28	1.17	1.99	1.74	2.24	1.59
UNIVERSITY	3.38	1.27	2.79	1.66	3.04	1.51
SPECIAL TRAINING	3.47	1.26	2.91	1.67	2.97	1.53

TABLE 63.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Spouse's Level of Education

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - HIGH SCHOOL	-.17	.51	1.09**
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	-.27	-.29	.29
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.36	-.41	.36
HIGH SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	-.10	-.80**	-.80**
HIGH SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.19	-.92**	-.73**
UNIVERSITY - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.09	-.12	.07

** significant at 1% level

WHETHER SPOUSE IS TAKING COURSES

Table 64.1 indicates that of the sample who were married or once married almost 70% claimed their spouse was not taking courses, while roughly 30% claimed their spouse was taking courses.

Table 64.3 indicates that students whose spouses were taking courses obtained significantly more credits and attained significantly higher G.P.A. scores than the group of students whose spouses were not taking courses. In addition, although the data is not significant, it appears that students whose spouses were taking courses tend to attempt more credits than those whose spouses were not taking courses. Clearly students whose spouses were taking courses had an advantage over students whose spouses were not taking courses as witnessed by the data in Table 64.3.

The pattern presented in Table 64.3 is somewhat similar to that pattern witnessed in Table 52.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Sibling Attendance at University) whereby it was found that students whose siblings were attending or had attended university courses performed at a higher level at school than did students whose siblings had not attended university.

It would appear that the presence of a relation who is attending courses and, thus, partly involved in an academic milieu greatly influences student achievement and performance at school. This relation, (whether it be the spouse or the sibling of the student), experience at school has obviously motivated the student to persue their education and achieve well at school. It is difficult to discern which motives are transferred from relation to student, but clearly it is a form of positive reinforcement. Furthermore, a student whose spouse has attended courses can inform him/her of the demands and expectations of an academic milieu, giving them an advantageous position

over the student whose spouse has not attended courses and may not have as clear an image of the academic environment.

TABLE 64.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Spouse is Taking Courses

TAKING COURSES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	88	206
PERCENT %	29.9	70.1

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 294 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 336 or 53.3%

TABLE 64.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Spouse is Taking Courses

SPOUSE TAKING COURSES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.38	1.21	2.70	1.56	3.00	1.45
NO	3.28	1.22	2.23	1.74	2.53	1.66

TABLE 64.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Spouse is Taking Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.10	.47*	.47*

* significant at 5% level

TYPE OF COURSE TAKEN BY SPOUSE

Table 65.1 indicates that over 55% of the sample who claimed their spouse was taking courses, listed their spouse as being involved with university courses. Under 15% of respondents claimed their spouse was taking courses at Sir George Williams University, while roughly 30% claimed their spouse was partaking in courses in other areas than those two categories listed above.

The data in Table 65.3 does not produce a case of significance, however, it would appear that students whose spouses were attending courses at Sir George Williams University attained higher G.P.A. scores than either the 'university' or 'other' group. Students whose spouses attended Sir George Williams University may have had an added advantage over other students in that they were able to discuss with and relate to a friend who was involved in the same academic atmosphere. It could also be that the spouse was pursuing the same area of training as the student and, hence, a cooperative effort between husband and wife toward their studies created a conducive environment to learning. These are only possible explanations for the perceived pattern in Table 65.3, however, since the data has not reached a level of confidence, they are presented as tentative explanations.

TABLE 65.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Type of Course Taken by Spouse

TYPE OF COURSE TAKEN BY SPOUSE	UNIVERSITY	SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS	OTHER
NUMBER (N)	49	12	27
PERCENT %	55.7	13.6	30.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 88 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 542 or 86.03%

TABLE 65.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Type of Course Taken by Spouse

TYPE OF COURSE TAKEN BY SPOUSE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
UNIVERSITY	3.39	1.16	2.71	1.64	3.05	1.49
SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS	3.08	.95	2.77	1.30	3.62	1.33
OTHER	3.55	1.29	2.97	1.52	2.87	1.31

TABLE 65.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Type of Course Taken by Spouse

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
UNIVERSITY - SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS	.31	-.06	-.57
UNIVERSITY - OTHER	-.16	-.26	.18
SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS - OTHER	-.47	-.20	.75

SPOUSE'S ATTITUDE TOWARD TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES

Table 66.1 indicates that over 50% of the sample claimed their spouse was very enthusiastic about their taking courses at the university, while roughly 40% listed their spouse as being enthusiastic about taking their courses. Under five percent of the sample claimed their spouse did not care either way about their activities at the university, leaving approximately three percent of the sample who stated their spouse was unhappy about their participation in courses at school.

The data in Table 66.1 reveals a process of natural selection whereby approximately 92% of the married or once married students responding to the survey gained full approval from their spouse for taking courses at the university. It is presumed that students whose spouse did not approve of educational training refrained from entering school, in view of the fact that this type of student contributes slightly to the total distribution. Thus, it would appear that the attitude of the student's spouse is an influential factor in terms of university attendance. Furthermore, the data can also be explained by the basic law of social attraction, generally stating that people are attracted to each other on the basis of common desires, goals and objectives. Consequently, an individual who values education is unlikely to form a close relationship with one who disapproves of the academic function.

TABLE 66.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Spouse's Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

SPOUSE'S ATTITUDE	VERY ENTHUSIASTIC	ENTHUSIASTIC	DOES NOT CARE	UNHAPPY
NUMBER (N)	154	121	12	10
PERCENT %	51.9	40.7	4.0	3.4

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 297

MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 333 or 52.9%

TABLE 66.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Spouse's Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

SPOUSE'S ATTITUDE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC	3.43	1.17	2.63	1.68	2.65	1.45
ENTHUSIASTIC	3.17	1.30	2.13	1.70	2.65	1.76
DOES NOT CARE	3.75	1.14	1.50	1.24	2.92	1.88
UNHAPPY	3.50	1.20	3.25	1.39	3.50	.93

TABLE 66.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Spouse's Attitude Toward Taking University Course

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - ENTHUSIASTIC	.26	.50*	0
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	-.32	1.13*	-.27
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	-.07	-.62	-.85
ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	-.58	.63	-.27
ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	-.33	-1.12	-.85
DOES NOT CARE - UNHAPPY	.25	-1.75**	-.58

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

SINGLE STUDENT'S DATING HABITS

Table 67.1 illustrates the distribution of the single respondents according to their dating patterns. Under ten percent of this sample claimed they never dated. Roughly 45% dated occasionally, while approximately the same proportion of single respondents said they dated regularly.

It would appear from the results witnessed in Table 67.3 that students who maintain a regular dating pattern attempt fewer credits than the other two groups and, in addition, obtain fewer credits than the group who never dates. The G.P.A. scores for the group who dates regularly, were not significantly lower than either of the two groups. Furthermore, students who date occassionally also attempted fewer credits. In view of these findings it would seem reasonable to suggest that students who maintain an active life, probably anticipate having less available time to devote to their studies than students who never date. In turn, students who never date, have fewer social commitments than groups who do date and; thus, can afford more time to their studies, permitting them to attempt more courses than the other two groups.

TABLE 67.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Single Student's Dating Habits

DATING HABITS	NEVER DATE	OCCASIONALLY DATE	REGULARLY DATE
NUMBER (N)	22	132	135
PERCENT %	7.6	45.7	46.7

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 289 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 341 or 54.1%

TABLE 67.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Single Student's Dating Habits

DATING HABITS	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
NEVER DATE	4.41	1.22	2.95	2.17	2.82	1.89
OCCASIONALLY DATE	3.71	1.20	2.45	1.81	2.46	1.64
REGULARLY DATE	3.36	1.32	2.12	1.72	2.21	1.55

TABLE 67.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Single Student's Dating Habits

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
NEVER DATE - DATE OCCASIONALLY	.70*	.50	.36
NEVER DATE - DATE REGULARLY	1.05**	.83	.61
DATE OCCASIONALLY - DATE REGULARLY	.35*	.33	.25

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

PRESENCE OF STEADY BOY/GIRL FRIEND

Table 68.1 indicates that roughly 53% of the sample did not have steady boy/girl friends, while approximately 46% of single respondents were seeing a boy/girl on a regular basis. It is interesting to note that the number o students who claimed they were dating regularly in Table 67.1 (Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Single Students' Dating Habits) corresponds precisely to the number of students who claimed in Table 68.1 to having a steady boy/girl friend (NUMBER = 135).

The data in Table 68.3 does not yield any cases o statistical significance between the two groups on any of the three criterion variables. There does emerge, however, a consistent trend in which students who do have steady boy/girl friends attempt/obtain fewer credits than those students who do not have a steady relationship. Although these observations are not statistically conclusive, it would be conceivable that students who did have a steady boy/girl friend had less time to devote to their studies than students who were not seeing someone on a regular basis. Once again, time availability might explain the pattern witnessed in Table 68.1.

TABLE 68.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Presence of Steady Boy/Girl Friend

STEADY BOY/GIRL FRIEND	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	135	157
PERCENT %	46.2	53.8

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 292 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 338 or 53.7%

TABLE 68.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Presence of Steady Boy/Girl Friend

STEADY BOY/GIRL FRIEND	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.49	1.29	2.20	1.64	2.33	1.53
NO	3.69	1.27	2.44	1.91	2.40	1.69

TABLE 68.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Presence of Steady Boy/Girl Friend

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.20	-.24	-.07

WHETHER STUDENT IS ENGAGED

Table 69.1 indicates that of the single sample, 90% were not engaged while ten percent were engaged to be married.

The data in Table 68.3 reveals a similar pattern to that witnessed in Table 68.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Presence o: Steady Boy/Girl Friend). There is no statistical significance on any of the three criterion variables between the group that was engaged and the group that was not engaged, however, there does emerge from the results a trend in which students who were engaged attempted and obtained fewer credits than students who were not engaged. Taking into consideration the three tables that analyse the effect of social patterns upon the single student's scholastic achievement at university--Table 67.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Presence of Steady Boy/Girl Friend); Table 69.3 (Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Single Student is Engaged) it appears that the greater the social commitments the student has to a steady companion, the less number of credits he/she will attempt and in certain cases obtain. Surprisingly enough, G.P.A. scores are not affected by consistency or intensity of student social relationships. It would appear that students who are considerably involved in a relationship seem to know the degree of time they can devote to their studies and adjust accordingly, by enrolling with fewer courses and consequently, sometimes, obtaining fewer credits.

TABLE 69.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Single Student is Engaged

SINGLE STUDENT ENGAGED	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	29	260
PERCENT %	10.0	90.0

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 289 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 341 or 54.1%

TABLE 69.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Single Student is Engaged

SINGLE STUDENT ENGAGED	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.28	1.33	2.00	1.56	2.45	1.72
NO	3.65	1.26	2.43	1.82	2.39	1.58

TABLE 69.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Single Student is Engaged

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	-.37	-.43	.06

LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF BOY/GIRL FRIEND OR FIANCE(E)

Table 70.1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to the students boy/girl friend's or fiancé's(é's) level of education. Roughly 30% of the sample claimed their social companion had completed the secondary level of education. The majority of the sample or 55.4% claimed their social companion had obtained a university education, leaving less than 15% of students whose social companion had participated in special training courses.

The data in Table 70.1 would seem to confirm the basic law of social attraction, in that the majority of single students taking courses at university date and choose as social companions, individuals who have had, themselves a university education. In view of this supposition, the data in Table 70.1 is probably representative of a selective portion of the general population.

Table 70.3 indicates that students whose boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) had obtained a high school education: (1) attained lower G.P.A. scores than the 'university' group; (2) attempted and obtained significantly fewer credits and attained significantly lower G.P.A. scores than the 'special training' group. Clearly, the 'high school' group is performing at a lower academic standard than any other group.

This finding confirms previous reports in which students whose spouse or sibling had attended university were at a greater advantage than students whose spouse or sibling had not attended university. The reinforcement and preparation for the academic environment a student receives from significant individuals around him appears to have a large influence upon their achievement at school. Hence, students whose boy/girl friend or fiance(e) had completed high school, may not have these additional advantages resulting in lower achievement at the university level.

In addition, students whose social companion had had special training, attempted and obtained significantly more credits than the 'university' group. This is an unexpected finding, however, it may be the students included in the 'special training' group were motivated to register with more courses for occupational reasons, in view of the fact that their social companion had taken special training courses, probably for job betterment and, thus, held the view that education was a means of securing a good job, which in turn may have been transmitted to the student.

TABLE 70.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Level of Education of Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e)

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY	SPECIAL TRAINING
NUMBER (N)	54	101	25
PERCENT %	30.0	56.1	13.9

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 180 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 450 or 71.4%

TABLE 70.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Level of Education of Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e)

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
HIGH SCHOOL	3.33	1.32	1.78	1.71	1.85	1.70
UNIVERSITY	3.33	1.22	2.17	1.66	2.38	1.51
SPECIAL TRAINING	4.08	1.15	3.04	1.51	2.72	1.40

TABLE 70.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Level of Education of Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e)

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
HIGH SCHOOL - UNIVERSITY	0	-.39	-.53*
HIGH SCHOOL - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.75*	-1.26**	-.87*
UNIVERSITY - SPECIAL TRAINING	-.75**	-.87*	-.34

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

WHETHER BOY/GIRL FRIEND OR FIANCE(E) IS TAKING COURSES

Table 71.1 indicates that of the single students, 53% claimed their boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) were taking courses, while 47% claimed they were not.

Table 70.3 indicates that the group whose boy/girl friends or fiancé(e) were taking courses attempted significantly more credits than the other group. In addition, although the data is not statistically significant, it appears that the 'yes' group was also obtaining more credits than the 'no' group.

It may be that the student's boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) motivated the student and created an atmosphere conducive to academic studies. Or it may also be that the student had originally met their boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) at school and now, both were continuing their studies. It is also possible that the student was attending school at the same time during the week as their boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) and, thus, the academic experience took on added attractiveness to the student. Any one o these explanations may account for the findings in Table 70.3.

TABLE 70.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to Whether Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e) is Taking Courses

BOY/GIRL FRIEND/FIANCE TAKING COURSES	YES	NO
NUMBER (N)	98	87
PERCENT %	53.0	47.0

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 185 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 445 or 70.6%

TABLE 71.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by Whether Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e) is Taking Courses

BOY/GIRL FRIEND/ FIANCE TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
YES	3.69	1.17	2.33	1.73	2.26	1.54
NO	3.18	1.30	2.06	1.68	2.36	1.62

TABLE 71.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Whether Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé(e) is Taking Course

GROUP.	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
YES - NO	.51**	.27	-.10

** significant at 1% level

BOY/GIRL FRIEND'S ATTITUDE TOWARD TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES

Table 72.1 indicates that over 50% of the sample of single students claimed their boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) were very enthusiastic about their taking courses at the university. Roughly 30% of single respondents claimed their social companion was enthusiastic about their participation in education. Under 15% claimed their social companion did not care while less than three percent claimed their boy/girl friends or fiancé(e) was unhappy about their registration at university. The data in Table 72.1 reveals a process of natural selection whereby approximately 85% of single students responding to the survey gained full approval from their social companion for taking courses at the university. It is presumed that students whose boy/girl friends or fiancé(e) did not approve of educational training refrained from entering school, in view of the fact that this type of student contributes slightly to the total distribution. Thus, it would appear that the attitude of the student's boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) is an influential factor in terms of university attendance. Furthermore, the data can also be explained by basic laws of social attraction, generally stating that people are attracted to each other on the basis of common desires, goals and objectives. Consequently, an individual who values education is unlikely to form a close relationship with one who disapproves of the academic function.

Table 72.3 indicates that students whose boy/girl friend or fiancé(e) were unhappy about their activities at school obtain significantly fewer credits and lower G.P.A. scores than (1) students whose social companion is enthusiastic and (2) students whose social companion is very enthusiastic. Clearly the effect of a boy/girl friend's or fiancé's(e's) attitude upon the student taking courses is very evident when comparing two extreme groups--one with

low approval and the other with high approval.

The group whose social companion did not care either way about their taking courses do not seem to be doing any worse at school or attempting fewer credits than the groups whose social companion was either enthusiastic or very enthusiastic. To the contrary, this group 'tended' to attain higher G.P.A. scores than all other groups with one case of significance in contrast to the 'unhappy' group.

Thus, it would appear that the attitude of the student's social companion does have its effects upon the number of credits obtained and G.P.A., but the student whose social companion does not care either way, seems to be performing better than other groups. It could be inferred from the data in Table 72.3 that an indifferent attitude on the part of the student's social companion permits the student to participate in school without either being worried they will not meet the expectations of their social companion who is enthusiastic about their work or apprehensive about disapproval they receive from a social companion who is not happy about their work.

TABLE 72.1

Frequency Distribution of Sample According to
Boy/Girl Friend's/Fiancé's(es) Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

BOY/GIRL FRIEND'S/ FIANCE'S ATTITUDE	VERY ENTHU- SIASTIC	ENTHUSIASTIC	DOES NOT CARE	UNHAPPY
NUMBER (N)	101	58	25	4
PERCENT %	53.7	30.9	13.3	2.1

VALID OBSERVATIONS - 188 MISSING OBSERVATIONS - 442 or 70.2%

TABLE 72.2

Scores on Criterion Variables Broken Down by
Boy/Girl Friend's/Fiancé's(es) Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

BOY/GIRL FRIEND'S/ FIANCE'S ATTITUDE	CREDITS ATTEMPTED		CREDITS OBTAINED		G.P.A.	
	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.	MEANS	S.D.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC	3.52	1.24	2.22	1.71	2.20	1.50
ENTHUSIASTIC	3.62	1.20	2.53	1.76	2.48	1.66
DOES NOT CARE	3.08	1.19	1.92	1.55	2.72	1.52
UNHAPPY	3.00	2.31	.50	.57	.50	.57

TABLE 72.3

Groups Contrasted on Criterion Variables According to Boy/Girl Friends/Fiancé(es) Attitude Toward Taking University Courses

GROUP	CREDITS ATTEMPTED	CREDITS OBTAINED	G.P.A.
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - ENTHUSIASTIC	-.10	-.31	-.28
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	.44	.30	-.52
VERY ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	.52	1.72*	1.70*
ENTHUSIASTIC - DOES NOT CARE	.54	.61	-.24
ENTHUSIASTIC - UNHAPPY	.62	2.03*	1.98*
DOES NOT CARE - UNHAPPY	.08	1.42	2.22**

** significant at 1% level

* significant at 5% level

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS

A large proportion of part-time student population appears to be only slightly older than their full-time counterparts, the difference being five years or less in more than half the sample tested. Age appeared to be unrelated to the three variables (credits attempted, credits obtained and grade-point average) employed in this study as criteria of desirable educational outcomes. Although the older group (41+) attempted fewer credits, they did not obtain less credits or a lower G.P.A. than others. The results are in accordance with previously reported research in the area and point towards an urgent need for a reexamination of the traditional practice of restricting formal education primarily to the early years of life.

The number of males, who started on the long road of obtaining a bachelor's degree through part-time studies, was twice that of females. If one assumes similar spread of ability among the sexes, and there is no evidence to the contrary, the study demonstrates that females form a large untapped source of potential part-time university population. On the whole, the males were more ambitious in the sense of attempting more credits, but failed to complete more credits than females. Females also obtained a significantly higher G.P.A. The results demonstrate greater selectivity among the female population. Since a smaller proportion of females managed to get enrolled, it might be presumed that it was the more able proportion that had made the effort. The results confirm this line of reasoning.

The portion of foreign students in the sample was less than 2%. Part-time programmes at Sir George Williams cater overwhelmingly to two groups of Canadian residents, Canadian citizens and landed immigrants. Of these groups, landed immigrants show both a higher level of educational aspiration and academic achievement. They both attempted and obtained a greater number of credits and a higher G.P.A. The results are in accordance with now well-established dynamics of immigration. Immigrants, particularly first generation immigrants, tend to be highly motivated towards upward social mobility. Since education is a prime means of such mobility in Canadian society, immigrants tend to take their studies very seriously.

Since the term "Canadian nationals" included both first generation immigrants who had acquired Canadian nationality and Canadian born students, the data was looked at in terms of country of birth. A pattern similar to the one described above emerged. Students born out of Canada attempted and obtained more credits with higher G.P.A. than Canadian born students.

Roughly 60% of the students sampled spoke English as their mother-tongue while 73% claimed English as their dominant tongue. Surprisingly, students who claimed English as either their mother-tongue or dominant language did not do better than others. In fact, the differences were fairly consistently in favour of the 'other' groups. It is interesting to note that students who claimed French as their mother-tongue and dominant language did not attempt and complete courses or

obtain G.P.A. at a level lower than their English counterparts. It may be that French-speaking students who make an effort to attend English university are parhaps not representative of the French-speaking students in the province, but they did appear to be better motivated. The students who claimed that their mother-tongue was a language other than English or French attempted and obtained more credits than the other two groups although their G.P.A. was similar. These findings would have been predicted by the dynamics of immigration referred to earlier. Undoubtedly this group consisted primarily of immigrant students who could be expected to better motivated.

Roughly half of the students enrolled as part-time students were married or once married. The marital status of students does not appear to make a significant difference as far as the criterion variables employed in this study are concerned. The exception to this general rule was the case of divorced students who obtained significantly lower G.P.A. than the other groups. These students might be going through a major crisis in their lives at this point in time. This perhaps accounts for their poor grades. It might be pointed out that married students, despite their greater family and time commitments, do not perform at a lower level than single students.

3-4 half courses per academic year was found to be the most popular course load. Approximately half the sample was taking the equivalent of 3-4 half courses a year with roughly 25% taking two half courses or less, and another 25% taking 5-6 half courses. Very few students were

taking more than 6 half courses per academic year. With the exception of the less-than-2-half-course group, no relationship between course work undertaken and the criterion variables could be established. The students who only took 2 half courses or less obtained fewer credits which follows, and obtained a lower G.P.A. which does not follow. One would expect that students who were taking a very limited academic load would have a fair amount of time and energy to devote to their studies and would,therefore, do quite well at it. This was not found to be the case. Enrolment in a minimum number of courses appears to be indicative of lack of motivation, It also indicates lack of involvement with, and integration into, the academic environment of the university. It a student enrols in a minimum number of courses, whether these courses are required or optional, he is likely to do less well than students who undertake a higher course load.

Almost 45% of the students sampled were taking optional courses because of the specialization requirements of a particular field, another 16% were taking these courses as pre-requisites for further courses while almost 45% were drawn by the intrinsic value of the course. It is interesting to note that only 4% stated employment reasons for taking optional courses. Students who took optional courses for intrinsic reasons obtained a higher G.P.A. than others. The data obtained in this study clearly demonstrates that a part-time student is likely to do much better if he takes a course because of its intrinsic value for acquiring knowledge rather than for extrinsic reasons, such as needs of specialization.

Roughly 29% of the students enrolled in the Mature Students Qualifying Programme without having obtained high school diploma prior to university entry, yet they did not attempt or obtain fewer credits than those who entered university after successfully completing high school. There was a significant difference in the G.P.A. of the two groups, however, with students without high school diploma scoring lower. For these students who had not been academically successful at high school attempting and obtaining similar number of credits as the other group must be considered a tremendous success even though their grades were lower. One must keep in mind that that this was their first year at the university and perhaps with the passage of time their grades would improve.

Only a small proportion of students had gone into a part-time university programme directly from high school. A pattern emerges whereby students who enrol directly after high school attempt more credits, obtain less, and have a lower G.P.A. than those who delayed their entry into university one year or more. about 12% each had a gap of 2 3 or 4 years, and only 6% had a delay of 1 year. No differences were found between the numbers of credits attempted and obtained by the various groups. However, on the whole, the G.P.A. increased with increase in delay. The trend was fairly consistent although it did not always reach statistical significance. The students gave a variety of reasons, including need for travel, employment demands, inancial or language difficulties, and a lack of commitment to a particular field of study, for delay in university registration. Strangely enough,

alienation from the formal educational process at the time of finishing high school emerged as a reason for delay only among 6% of the respondents. Alienation from formal educational process is either much less common than is generally assumed, or it is not deep enough among an overwhelming proportion of student population to keep them from continuing their studies at the university.

The results of this study suggest that work experience sandwiched between high school and university studies enables the student to benefit more from the academic exposure than would otherwise be the case. Perhaps time has arrived to look into the merits of requiring full-time students to work for a few years before entering university.

The level of academic achievement at high school appears to be related to academic achievement at the university. There was a general trend, though not always statistically significant, for students who did well at high school to also do well at university. Students who had experienced failure at high school and were required to repeat a grade did worse than others. This group of students could perhaps benefit a great deal from counselling about study habits and attitudes. Very little, if any, of such help is generally available. This study points towards an urgent need to provide this valuable service.

Desire to learn and get educated emerged as the prime reason for taking university courses among over 70% of the students tested, while job-related reasons were given first priority by about 20% as the prime motivating force. Family pressures and social reasons received the lowest priority by an overwhelming proportion of respondents.

Although important, job-related reasons do not appear to be such dominant motives for part-time students to enrol in university programmes, as is generally believed, a good proportion of the students gave job-related reasons, job advancement, job security and increased salary, least priority reason for enrolment. Intrinsic value of university studies was found to be the most important reason. The results are quite encouraging. A large proportion of the part-time students come to university because they desire to learn and get educated. This has implications for curriculum planning within the university.

Almost one tenth of the sample listed themselves as 'not employed'. This group presumably consists primarily of housewives. The employed group attempted more credits than the not employed group. The number of credits and the G.P.A. obtained of the two groups, however, were very similar. Of the working group, roughly 45% were employed in business, almost 30% in a technical field, about 15% were professionals, and almost 10% were non-skilled workers. The proportion of non-skilled workers represented in the sample appears to be higher than has been the pattern for part-time university registration elsewhere. Once again, contrary to studies reported elsewhere, non-skilled workers obtained higher G.P.A. than all the other groups, including professionals. Students employed in business tended to do less well at their studies than any other group.

Of those who held a job, students who were employed on a part-time basis formed about 5% of the sample while the other 95% held a full-time job. Although part-time employees did not attempt more credits than full-time employees, they obtained more credits with a higher G.P.A.

Greater availability of time to students holding only a part-time employment appears to be an important factor here. Almost 90% of the working sample had to work more than 30 hours a week, while 27% were employed for over 40 hours a week. Only 10% worked less than 30 hours a week. The general trend of findings, though not always statistically significant, supported the assumption about the relationship between availability of time and success at university studies. On the whole, students who were required to work longer hours obtained a lesser number of credits and a lower G.P.A.

The study found a relationship between degree of supervisory function of the job held by the student and his academic achievement through part-time studies. Students who had the highest degree of supervisory function in their jobs obtained more credits with a higher G.P.A. than others. It would appear that the more able and the more conscientious who were able to climb the employment ladder were precisely the ones who were also doing well at their university studies.

Almost 47% of the respondents had been working over 6 years while 30% had worked between 3 and 5 years, and about 20% less than 3 years. The data produced did not lead to any consistent trend of relationship between number of years spent working and academic achievement. The only exception to this appeared to be students who had worked for one year or less. They had a lower G.P.A. than other groups.

46% of the sample tested thought their job to be either extremely or very important for their future career aspirations. 78% of the respondents thought possession of a university degree either extremely or very important for their careers. Only 20% perceived their present job and 6% thought of a degree as being of little consequence for their career aspirations. On the whole, the students who thought of their present job as being extremely or very important for their careers attempted and obtained fewer credits with a lower G.P.A. than others. On the other hand, no relationship emerged between perception of the importance of the university degree for career aspirations and the various criteria of academic aspiration and achievement employed in this study. For example, no significant difference could be found in the number of credits attempted, obtained and G.P.A. of students who thought possession of a university degree as being extremely important for their careers and those who did not attach any importance to it.

Almost 62% of the students reported favourable employer attitude towards taking courses while only 2% of the employers were opposed to such a move. It is possible that the sample represents a self-selected population. Individuals whose employers were opposed to taking universiy courses might have refrained from registering and hence were severely underrepresented in the present sample. With minor exceptions, the degree of employer support was reflected in credits and G.P.A. obtained by the student. Students with supportive employers obtained more credits and with a higher G.P.A than others. The data shows that employer attitude is an important variable in success at part-time studies.

About 44% of the respondents claimed that their job interferes or interferes badly with their ability to perform as a student, a third claimed it makes no difference while the rest stated their job to be helpful or very helpful in their studies. The data points towards the need to examine the ways and means of developing compatibility between the job and study demands of part-time students. It was somewhat surprising to find, however, that the degree of job interference does not influence a student's level of performance at the university. Those who claimed that their job interferes badly with their studies did not obtain less credits or lower G.P.A. than those who claimed it to be very helpful. 11% of the respondents reported that their studies interfered with their jobs, about a third found them to be helpful or very helpful for their jobs while almost 55% saw them as making no difference. It might be worth noting that the student's job interferes with his studies to a much greater degree than the other way around. Presumably students whose studies interfered badly with their jobs had either failed to register or had already left. The various groups did not obtain any significant differences on the criterion variables. There does not appear to be a relationship between academic achievement and studies-job interference.

A large proportion of the sample, over 60%, lived 5 or more miles away from the university and another 17% lived between 3 and 5 miles from the university. No consistent relationship between the distance travelled in order to attend university and criterion variables was found. When the method of travel to university was examined, once

again, no consistent relationship with criterion variables emerged. Perhaps it is not the distance and method of travel which are of importance as far as part-time studies are concerned. The travel time required might be of greater significance since time is obviously an important commodity for part-time students. Over 40% of the respondents were required to travel one-half hour or less, and another 47% between one-half and one hour. About 8% took over an hour to reach university. The results demonstrated a fairly consistent relationship between travel time and criterion variables employed in this study. A general tendency was found for students who spent less time travelling to attempt and obtain more credits and to have a higher G.P.A. although the results were not always statistically significant.

A quarter of the sample came to the university, on the average, once a week for purposes other than attending lectures, another 18% came 2 or 3 times a week and about 50% came to the university only on the evenings they had to attend lectures. On the whole, students who came to university only for the purpose of attending lectures attempted and obtained less credits than others and a lower G.P.A. The trend was fairly consistent although the differences did not always reach the 5% level of significance. It would appear that these students were not fully integrated into the academic life of the university and probably felt removed from the academic mainstream. Attendance at a part-time university just for the purpose of attending lectures is not likely to lead to success.

Just under 25% of the sample found travel time useful for study purposes while over 75% did not find it useful. Of the 25% who found travel time useful for study purposes, 15% thought it formed an important part of their time available for study. Students who could use travel time for study purposes attempted but did not obtain more credits than others. The G.P.A. of the two groups was fairly similar. However, students who found travel time to be valuable for study purposes attempted and obtained significantly more credits than others. Once again, the G.P.A. of the two groups was fairly similar. Only 9% of the respondents reported that their travel time seriously interfered with their study time, 50% claimed no interference at all, and 37% felt that the interference was either slight or moderate. No consistent relationship between this variable and the criterion variables employed in the study could be found.

Approximately 88% of the respondents listed themselves as belonging to the middle class, 11% to lower class and less than 1% to upper class. Apart from the upper class group, no significant differences in the academic achievement of the various groups were found. The number of respondents in the upper class group was very small and no confidence could be placed in results involving that group. It would thus appear that the parental socio-economic status has little bearing on performance of part-time university students. Further analysis of parental background revealed that about 55% of the students had parents who spent most of their lives in Canada, parents of about 25% had lived predominantly in Europe and about 16% outside of North America and Europe. Students

whose parents had spent most of their lives outside Canada performed better on the criterion variables employed in this study. They attempted and obtained more credits with a higher G.P.A. than the Canadian group. Presumably this group included many second generation immigrants, and second generation immigrants appear to retain higher degree of motivation than found among first generation immigrants.

Students whose father had elementary education only performed at a lower level than other students, although this pattern did not hold for mother's level of education. No relationship between mother's level of education and the criterion variables could be established. It would thus appear that with the exception of the group whose fathers had only an elementary level education, parental level of education is not a good predictor of academic performance of part-time university students.

About 34 % of the students sampled were living with one or both parents while the remaining were living alone. Students who were living with parents were found to perform at significantly lower level than those who were not. They attempted significantly more credits but tended to obtain fewer credits, and had a significantly lower G.P.A.

Approximately 37% of the students had a sibling also attending a university. These students attempted and obtained significantly more credits with a higher G.P.A. It would appear that if students come from families where attendance at university is an established tradition, in the sense that more than one child attends university, they are likely to do well at their studies. It is interesting to note that father's or

mother's attendance at university appears to be less related to the student's performance than sibling's attendance.

Roughly one third of the sample was receiving financial assistance to attend university while the remaining two thirds were not. Of those receiving financial assistance, 93% were being helped by their employers while the government provided assistance to only 3.5%. Approximately one-tenth reveived financial assistance to cover the total cost of the course, about 20% were given help to cover three quarters of the course costs while 36% were being financed to the tune of half the course costs involved. For over 90% of the respondents the financial aid was dependent upon successful completion of the courses. The relative non-support of part-time students from government sources is noteworthy. The prevailing assumption in the Quebec Department of Education appears to be that these students do not need and the government need not provide, financial assistance. The degree and the nature of financial assistance did not appear to have any bearing upon academic performance.

When an analysis of personal expenses incurred by students, for university attendance, was done some interesting patterns emerged. 10% of the students were incurring personal expenditures for transportation only, 6% for tuition and transportation, 24% for books and meals and 58% were paying for everything. In actual dollar terms 26% were spending less than $150 a year, 19% between $150 and $250 a year, 22% between $250 and $350 a year, 16% between $350 and $490 a year, and another 17% were spending more than $490 per year. As a result

37% reported that university related expenses seriously disrupted their budget, 31% found it moderately disrupting while 32% reported expenses having little or no disrupting effect on their budget. The group which had its budget extremely disrupted as a result of university-related expenses attempted more credits but did not obtain more credits than the other groups. Apart from this, no consistent pattern emerged. Relationship between financial expenditures and academic performance appears to be much less direct than has been presumed by many.

Roughly 45% of the married sample claimed their spouse was employed in some type of business enterprise, while roughly half this proportion stated that their spouse was a professional. Approximately 10% of the respondents listed their spouse as having a technical occupation. No consistent relationship between spouse's occupation and criterion variables was obtained. When the spouse's level of education was examined, almost 50% had finished high school, 25% had gone through university, almost 20% had special training of some sort while only 6% had stopped their formal education after elementary school. Students whose spouse had finished elementary school only tend to attempt and obtain fewer credits than others but their G.P.A. was not found to be lower than other groups. Students whose spouse finished their formal education at the high school level obtained significantly less credits and lower G.P.A. than university and special training groups.

30% of the sample reported that their spouse was also taking university courses. This group obtained significantly more credits and a higher

G.P.A. than the group whose spouse was not taking university courses. The presence of spouse at the university appears to give psychological support to the student. It would seem that the presence of a close relative (spouse or sibling) is related to higher academic performance at the university. Interestingly enough, spouse's attitude towards taking university courses was not found to be related to the criterion variables. It might well be that the sample represented was self-selected as far as this variable is concerned. Students whose spouse disapproved of their taking university courses did not enrol in the first place. Almost 93% of the students reported that their spouse was either enthusiastic or very enthusiastic about their taking university courses while only 3% stated that their spouse displayed an unfavourable attitude.

Among single students, 46% dated occasionally and about the same proportion dated on a regular basis. A consistent relationship was found between dating patterns and academic performance. Those who never dated attempted and obtained more credits with a higher G.P.A. than those who dated occasionally. This group, in turn, attempted and obtained more credits with a higher G.P.A. than those who dated regularly . The results demonstrate that time is perhaps one of the most scarce commodity for a part-time student. Active social life and part-time university education do not mix well.

Analysis of the sample in terms of a steady relationship with a person of opposite sex revealed that about 46% of the single students

had a steady boy/girl friend, 10% were engaged while 90% were not. These variables were not found to be related to the criterion variables employed in this study.

The present study represents one of the first attempts to build up an empirically based theoretical framework for factors influencing success of a student at part-time undergraduate studies. Comprehensive studies of this nature have been virtually non-existent in Canada and relatively rare elsewhere. The present report examined the relationship between the various characteristics students bring with them to university on entry, and educational outcomes. Further reports will examine the relationship between the various factors within the university environment experienced by part-time students, and educational outcomes.

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APPENDIX A

University Student Questionnaire

This is a scientific investigation concerned with examining the factors that influence the performance of part-time university students. Your responses to the following questions will be strictly confidential; they will serve only as a basis for completing this scientific study concerned with helping university students. We request your name only because a proportion of the students responding to this questionnaire will later be solicited to volunteer for a follow-up study. The return of this questionnaire is essential, in order that proper sampling procedures may be maintained.

Please respond to the following questions either by providing the appropriate answer (PLEASE PRINT) or by placing a tick ✓.

Name or Student Number _____

Age _____

Address _____

Telephone Number _____

Male _____ or Female _____

Nationality: Canadian ☐ Landed Immigrant ☐ Other (Specify) _____

1. What was your country of birth? _____

2. What is your mother tongue? _____

3. What language do you normally speak at home? _____

4. Are you single _____ married _____ divorced _____
   separated _____ widow _____ widower _____

5. How many courses are you currently enrolled in? _____

6. How many of these are required courses? _____

7. How many of these are optional courses? _____

8. What were your reasons for taking optional courses?
   (1) _____
   (2) _____
   (3) _____
   (4) _____

9. How many courses do you anticipate taking in the regular (i.e. fall-winter) session _____ and summer sessions _____ of this year?

10. Did you obtain your high school diploma? Yes _____ No _____

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11. If you have obtained your high school diploma, was there any delay (in years) between the time you received your high school diploma and the time you registered for university? Yes _____ No _____

12. If you answered "yes" to the above question, please specify the number of years between the time you received your high school diploma and the time you registered for university _____.

13. If there was a delay (in years) between the time you received your high school diploma and the time you registered for university, could you give any reasons that prevented you from enrolling sooner.

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

(4) _____

14. If you have received your high school diploma, specify your matriculation average mark (in per cent)_____.

15. Did you repeat any grades in high school? Yes _____ No _____

16. If you have obtained a high school diploma, please specify the type of school attended: private school _____ public high school _____ evening high school _____ correspondence _____ other _____

17. Did you take non-university courses or receive any other special training after high school but before entering university (e.g. Montreal Trade Schools, MTS or IBM courses)?

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

18. What type of course or training was this? _____

_____

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19. What made you decide to take university courses? Number the factors (that apply to you) in order of importance. (1 indicates the most important, 2 the next most important and so on...)

Desire to learn and get educated _____
Family pressure _____
All your friends are taking courses _____
Desire to meet people _____
Job advancement _____
Job security _____
Increased salary (job) _____

20. List any other factors (not mentioned above) that influenced you or caused you to take university courses (briefly).

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

(4) _____

(5) _____

21. Are you currently employed? Yes _____ No _____

22. What is your occupation (if any)? _____

23. Do you work full-time _____ or part-time_____ ?

24. How many hours a week do you work: less than 10 hours _____ between 10-20 hours _____ 20-30 hours_____ 30-40 hours_____ 40-60 hours _____ 60 or more hours _____.

25. What is the function of your job position _____

_____

26. How long have you been working? _____

27. How many companies or organizations have you worked for? _____

28. How long have you been employed with your present firm, company or organization? _____

29. How important is your present job for your career aspirations?
Extremely _____ Very _____ Moderately _____ Not at all _____

30. How important will the acquisition of a university degree be for your career?
Extremely _____ Very _____ Moderately _____ Not at all _____

31. If you are employed, what is the attitude of your employer toward your taking university courses:
very enthusiastic _____ enthusiastic _____ does not care _____
is unhappy about it _____ is very unhappy about it _____

32. Is your yearly salary (total): less than $3000 _____
between $3000 - 6000 _____ $6000 - 10,000 _____
$10,000 - 15,000 _____ $15,000 - 20,000 _____ $20,000 and up _____

33. To what extent does your job affect your ability to perform as a student?
Very helpful _____ helpful _____ makes no difference _____
interferes _____ interferes badly _____

34. To what extent do your studies affect your occupational performance?
Very helpful _____ helpful _____ makes no difference _____
interferes _____ interferes badly _____

35. In what type of residence do you live: apartment _____
triplex _____ duplex _____ bungalow _____ house _____ other _____

36. How many rooms are there in your place of residence? _____

37. Do you own a car? Yes _____ No _____

38. In what part of Montreal or surrounding suburb do you live? _____

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39. What is the approximate distance (in miles) between the area in which you live and the university? _____

40. How do you travel to school (tick more than one if necessary): walk _____ car _____ subway _____ bus _____ train _____ bicycle _____

41. How long does it take you to travel to school: less than 30 minutes _____ 30 minutes to 1 hour _____ 1 to 1 1/2 hours _____ 1 1/2 to 3 hours _____ more than 3 hours _____

42. How many times a week do you have to travel to university to attend lectures? _____

43. In addition, on the average, how many times a week do you travel to university for purposes other than attending lectures? _____

44. Do you use the travelling time for study purposes? Yes _____ No _____

45. Do you find travelling time valuable for your studies? Yes _____ No _____

46. To what extent does travelling to and from the university interfere with your available study time: extremely _____ very much _____ moderately _____ slightly _____ not at all _____

47. What is (was) your father's occupation? _____

48. In what countries did your parents live most of their lives?
mother _____ father _____

49. If your parents are alive, are they: living together _____ separated _____ divorced _____

50. Do you live with your mother _____ and/or father _____

51. How much education does (did) your father have: elementary school _____ high school _____ university _____ special training (specify) _____

_____

52. How much education does (did) your mother have: elementary school _____ high school _____ university _____ special training (specify) _____

_____

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53. Did any of your siblings attend college? Yes _____ No _____

54. Do you or will you receive any financial assistance for the cost of your courses? Yes _____ No _____

55. If you do receive financial assistance for the cost of your courses, is this given to you by: your employer _____ the government _____ or other organization (specify) _____

56. How much financial assistance do you receive for the cost of your courses? _____

57. (a) If you do receive financial assistance for the cost of your courses, are you required to pass the courses in order to receive this financial assistance? Yes _____ No _____

(b) Would you take courses even if you were not given any financial assistance for the cost of the courses? Yes _____ No _____

58. What kind of expenses do you incur from your own pocket for attending university? _____

59. Approximately how much do you expect to spend per year from your own pocket for attending university? $_____

60. To what extent do these expenses disrupt your budget: extremely _____ very much _____ moderately _____ slightly _____ not at all _____

ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE PLEASE COMPLETE THE SECTION THAT APPLIES TO YOU .

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MARRIED STUDENTS ONLY

61. Do you have any children? Yes _____ No _____
How many? _____

62. What is your spouse's occupation? _____

63. How much education does your spouse have: elementary school ___
high school _____ university _____ special training (specify)_
_____

64. Is your spouse currently taking any courses? Yes _____ No _____
What type of course is your spouse taking (specify) _____
_____

65. What is your spouse's attitude toward your taking courses. He/she is:
very enthusiastic _____ enthusiastic _____ does not care _____
is unhappy about it _____ is very unhappy about it _____

SINGLE STUDENTS ONLY

66. Do you date: Never _____ Occasionally _____ Regularly _____

67. Do you have a steady (boyfriend/girlfriend)? Yes _____ No _____

68. Are you engaged? Yes _____ No _____

69. How much education does your boyfriend/girlfriend/fiancé(e) have:
elementary school _____ high school _____ university _____
special training (specify) _____

70. Is your boyfriend/girlfriend/fiancé(e) currently taking any courses?
Yes _____ No _____

71. What is the attitude of your boyfriend/girlfriend/fiancé(e) toward your taking courses: very enthusiastic _____ enthusiastic _____
does not care _____ is unhappy about it _____ is very unhappy about it _____