

COMMUNITY COLLEGE ORIENTATION OPTIONS FOR ADULTS:

AN ASSESSMENT OF PERCEIVED RELEVANCE

by

Elizabeth Altland Dickson

Dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Community College Education

APPROVED:

---

B. D. Silliman, Co-Chairman

---

S. A. Tschumi, Co-Chairman

---

R. L. McKeen

---

F. B. Pesci

---

E. M. Sweitzer

August, 1979

Blacksburg, Virginia

## DEDICATION

This manuscript is dedicated with great gratitude and love to two of my favorite adults, Stuart and Margaret Dickson. Their love and belief in me have never ended. Thank you.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people have provided personal and/or professional support during the process of researching and writing this dissertation. Primary thanks are due to my co-chair, Drs. Ben Silliman and Sally Tschumi. Both gave freely of their time and acted willingly and effectively as guides, teachers, prodders, mentors, and friends. Perhaps most important to me, both recognized my needs as a person and gave me a kick in the seat when that was appropriate and support and encouragement when I needed them. The other members of my committee, Drs. Ron McKeen, Frank Pesci, and Ed Sweitzer, are each important in special and different ways. Thank you all.

My colleagues at the Loudoun and Annandale Campuses of Northern Virginia Community College offered considerable assistance in making this study both initially possible and finally completed. Dr. Mary Ryan was particularly important as my liason with the Annandale Campus and as a friend who had already been through the experience.

Two other people have given important and much needed personal support. To Christopher Michael, my thanks for patiently listening to "we'll have time for that when I'm finished with this" in what must have seemed like a never ending litany; and to Nancy Aiello, who spent hours coaching me on statistics and even more hours coaching me on the powers of optimism, thank you.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
CHAPTER 1, INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Purpose of the Study	5
Significance of the Study	5
Scope of the Study	6
Definition of Terms	7
Limitations of the Study	8
Organization of the Remaining Chapters	9
CHAPTER 2, REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	11
Developmental Stages and Tasks	12
Adult Learners and their Needs	18
The Origins of Orientation	24
College and University Orientation	25
Community and Junior College Orientation	31
Orientation Programs for the Adult Student	36
Evaluation of Orientation	41
Edwards Personal Preference Schedule	43
Chapter Summary	52
CHAPTER 3, METHODOLOGY	54
General Design	54
Hypotheses	55

Population	57
Sample	59
Treatment	64
Data Gathering and Instrumentation	68
Data Analysis	70
Chapter Summary	72
CHAPTER 4, ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	75
Hypothesis One	76
Hypothesis Two	77
Hypothesis Three	82
Chapter Summary	85
CHAPTER 5, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	87
Discussion	88
Conclusions	104
Recommendations	105
Summary	107
REFERENCES	109
APPENDIX A: THE EDWARDS PERSONAL PREFERENCE SCHEDULE VARIABLES	118
APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE	121
APPENDIX C: RELEVANCE QUESTIONNAIRE	123
APPENDIX D: PERMISSION STATEMENT	125
APPENDIX E: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR INFORMATION AND PLANNING WORKSHOP FOR INTERIOR DESIGN STUDENTS	126
APPENDIX F: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR COLLEGE SURVIVAL	127
APPENDIX G: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR SELF-INSTRUNCTIONAL ORIENTATION	129

APPENDIX H:	COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR ORIENTATION FOR WOMEN RETURNING TO SCHOOL	130
APPENDIX I:	COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR ORIENTATION FOR SECOND CAREER ADULTS	131
APPENDIX J:	MAJOR COURSE TOPICS FOR ANNANDALE CAMPUS ORIENTATION COURSES	132
VITA		133
ABSTRACT		

## LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1	Adult Life Cycle Tasks/Adult Continuing Education Program Response	40
Table 2	Reported Reliability Coefficients for the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule	47
Table 3	Enrollment for Loudoun Campus Orientation Offerings for 1977-78	60
Table 4	Enrollment for Loudoun Campus Orientation Offerings for Fall, 1978	61
Table 5	Distribution of Sample by Course, Age, and Sex	63
Table 6	Comparison of Relevance Scores for Experimental and Control Groups	78
Table 7	Comparison of Retention Rates for the Experimental Group	80
Table 8	Comparison of Retention Rates for Information/Skill Subgroup	81
Table 9	Comparison of Retention Rates for Personal Growth Subgroup	83
Table 10	Prediction of Orientation Course Relevance Based on Selected EPPS Variables for Information-giving/Skill-building Subgroup	84
Table 11	Prediction of Orientation Course Relevance Based on Selected EPPS Variables for Personal Growth Subgroup	86
Table 12	Comparison of Relevance Mean Scores Including and Excluding the Self-Instructional Orientation Group	92

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

The history of the community college has been one of continuing growth. Particularly during the late sixties and early seventies, community colleges developed and expanded at phenomenal rates. Perhaps because of such rapid growth, many services and elements of the community colleges were not "created"; they were lifted, intact, from four-year colleges (O'Banion, Thurston, and Gulden, 1972).

The expansion has now slowed, and community colleges are becoming increasingly introspective. With the emphasis off the growth-related crises, more time is available for program development. Community colleges may be finding that the structure or program borrowed from the four-year college is not really what is needed to fit the goals and objectives of the community-oriented two-year college.

One of the most important focuses of the community college is student development. Community colleges, which began with the goal of serving all potential students in the community, recognized that many of those students would require special student services. The student personnel models borrowed from the four-year colleges are being discarded or revised to institute programs more capable of serving the majority of community college students that many refer to as non-traditional students. One of these groups to which

community colleges are awakening is that of adult students. With a minimum of literature in the field to guide them, community colleges are offering greatly expanded services and programs for adults. This study was an investigation of one element of those expanding services: community college orientation for adults.

### Statement of the Problem

Orientation courses have been a part of college and university programs since the early 1900's, long before the rapid rise of community colleges in higher education (Butts, 1971). They were directed toward the needs of incoming youth as those needs were perceived by the college administrators and served mainly to aid the students in their adjustment from high school to college; to orient them to the services, offices, and personnel of the school; and to guide them through the processes of registration and schedule planning (Knode, 1930). Over the years additional aspects such as study skills, career planning, library planning, and frequently social acclimating were incorporated into the orientation program (Black, 1964).

Community college orientation has had similar goals. Many programs were developed to aid the student in making the adjustment from high school to college. Early orientation programs seemed to be twins of those at the four-year colleges with emphasis on large-group lectures and formal presentations by the college's administrative personnel (O'Banion, 1971).

Orientation courses at the community college are in a state of change. Some of the objectives, such as registration and an intro-

duction to the services and personnel, have been retained. Many of the more recent objectives are still important parts of orientation courses, e.g., study skills, social activities, and vocational planning. However, a fairly new area has been opened: learning about oneself. Many orientation courses are still based on the traditional model of disseminating information (O'Banion, 1971), yet some are trying to combine the traditional model with new sessions focused on self-growth (Marchbanks, 1973), and still others seem to have given up on the information-based model and are offering courses with a primary focus on self-growth (O'Banion, 1969). Even a brief search of the literature on orientation, however, will confirm that orientation courses are still being planned and presented primarily with the younger student in mind (Black, 1964; Gerber, 1970, O'Banion, 1971; Pappas, 1967).

A constantly increasing number of mature adults are attending community colleges. According to figures reported by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the number of students under age 25 decreased 3% from 1972 to 1976. During the same time span, the number of students aged 25 and older increased 5.5% (Drake, 1978). These mature adult students are decidedly different from younger students. They have backgrounds, which frequently include major work experience, raising families, and managing a home, that give them an experiential advantage over younger students. In addition to the advantages, however, these students also have special problems. They fear inadequacy in class discussions, being out of date, competing with adolescents coming directly from high

school, and an inability to study and read rapidly (Erickson, 1970). They have concerns about changing role patterns, personal and social adjustment, and are frequently seeking identity in a changing life (Erickson, 1970). Adults, like all age groups, are facing a series of developmental tasks, "as critical as adolescence and in some ways more harrowing" (Sheehy, 1977, p. 360).

Harris and Kuckuck (1975) included in their list of the needs of mature adult students a positive atmosphere, an identified contact person to go to, good academic advisement, confidence, freedom from unnecessary rules and regulations, and organizations for men and women to meet others with similar emotional needs. Erickson (1970), through a questionnaire sent to adult students, identified from a checklist of needs the following as the two most common needs among adults in school: special academic advising and counseling and a recognized adult center or "home." On the same questionnaire, in response to open-ended questions, the adults listed a special orientation for adults as one of their priority needs.

Adults do have and perceive themselves as having special needs. By indicating needs for adult centers, an identified contact person, special academic advising, and a special orientation course, these adults are not asking for extraordinary student services. They have identified specific adaptations of common services: student lounge, orientation program, etc.

What has been done in response to these needs? Many courses have been instituted especially for adult students, directed frequently to women in particular (Manis & Mochizukis, 1972) or to adult

students in general (Harris & Kuckuck, 1975). Few courses apparently have been developed for men.

Emphasis in these courses has seemed to follow two different directions, as did the adult-identified needs, to information-giving/skill-building courses or to self-growth courses. A clearer understanding is needed of how relevant these two directions are as orientation courses for adults and when or for whom each of these directions is appropriate.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relevance of two orientation forms for adult community college students: information-giving/skill-building courses and personal growth courses. This was done by studying five orientation models. The relevance was measured by an end of course student questionnaire. Not all adults have the same needs, however, and what is relevant for one adult may not be relevant for another. Therefore, this study had as a further purpose to investigate the relationship between personality characteristics and the self-reported relevance of the orientation forms. A follow-up of student retention through the first academic year was included in the study.

#### Significance of the Study

Despite the growing call in individual colleges and in the professional literature for programs and services for adult students, there has been little formal response in the literature. This study was an attempt to provide specific information regarding courses

offered for adults and their relevance for subgroups of adults. Furthermore, by identifying the personality characteristics that may make one form of orientation more relevant for a given individual, this study enables student personnel workers to assist adult students in selecting appropriate orientation courses.

#### Scope of the Study

During the fall quarter, 1978, five orientation courses enrolling primarily adult students were offered at the Loudoun Campus of Northern Virginia Community College (NVCC). Three of the courses, College Survival, Self-Instructional Orientation, and Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students, were designed as information-giving/skill-building courses. Two other courses, Women Returning to School and Second Career Adults, were designed as personal growth courses. All five courses were one credit courses consisting of ten class hours. (The self-instructional course did not meet as a class but was designed to require ten hours of student work effort.) Adult students in these five courses, drawn from the population of all adult students at NVCC, formed the experimental group.

The experimental group completed the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and a demographic questionnaire during the first week of classes. Orientation courses followed the course syllabi for the quarter. At the end of the course, each student completed a self-report relevance questionnaire. Continued enrollment of students through the winter and spring quarters was checked to measure student retention. Students who had not re-enrolled were contacted by telephone to determine why they had not continued.

Participants in each of the two forms of orientation were divided into those who found their course very relevant and those who found it low on relevance. Retention rates were compared for these groups. The relationship between personality characteristics as measured by the EPPS and self-reported relevance was investigated.

A control group composed of adults enrolled in a single-format orientation course at the Annandale Campus of NVCC completed the relevance and demographic questionnaires. The level of reported relevance of the control group was compared to that of the experimental group.

#### Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study and report, the following terms are defined as:

Adult: A person of at least 25 years of age. This age was chosen because it falls at a period of transition according to adult developmental stage theory (Levinson, et al., 1976; Sheehy, 1977) and because by this age individuals who are returning to school have frequently already made role commitments (work, marriage, family) that typify adult students. In addition, individuals have probably experienced a significant time gap in their education.

Information-giving/skill-building Orientation: A community college credit course taught by a counselor which has a primary focus on providing specific information about the college, its services, and personnel and procedures and in aiding the student in developing content-based student skills such as studying, time budgeting, test taking, and decision making. These courses will also be referred to

as information/skill courses.

Orientation: A one-credit course which is required in all degrees at NVCC. Students are encouraged but not required to take the course in their first quarter of enrollment.

Personal Growth Orientation: A credit community college course taught by a counselor which has a primary focus in developing self-confidence and a sense of identity, recognizing one's strengths and using those strengths to cope with emotional and psychological pressures and building a supporting, trusting environment.

Relevance: The appropriateness of the course content for an individual as it matches the perceived needs of the individual.

Retention Rate: The percentage of students from the fall quarter, 1978, returning for subsequent quarters. Computed by dividing the number of returning students by the number enrolled in the fall quarter.

#### Limitations of the Study

The reader is alerted to the following aspects of the study which may serve to limit its application in different settings:

1. Time was not considered as a factor in the study. All five courses were based on a ten hour instructional period, however, those ten hours were fit into course lengths ranging from five to ten weeks.
2. With two partial exceptions, all of the courses were taught by the author. Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students was co-taught with a faculty member. Students in Self-Instructional Orientation were required to meet with a counselor and

were free to choose any counselor. All written work required for the course, however, was submitted to the author. Orientation courses included in the control group were not taught by the author.

3. The College Survival, Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students, and Women Returning to School included some younger students. The effect, if any, of the presence of younger students on the adult students in the classes was not measured. The impact on the adults may have been anything from confirmation of fears of intimidation by younger students to inappropriately high self-confidence.

4. The total adult enrollment in the five orientation classes was included in the study; however, the sample size was still relatively small. Three students withdrew from their orientation courses very early in the quarter for personal reasons. Each of these students was interviewed by the author; however, because of their early withdrawal, no data were collected for these students and they were not included in the sample.

#### Organization of the Remaining Chapters

The following chapters provide greater detail concerning the study. Chapter 2 presents the historical and theoretical background of the study through a review of the literature available on adult students and their needs, orientation programs, and specific orientation programs for adult students. Chapter 3 contains the design of the study including a summary of each orientation course, the instruments and methods used to gather the data, and the methods

used in analyzing the data. Chapter 4 presents the results of the investigation. Conclusions and recommendations comprise Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides a summary of the literature related to adults as students, orientation programs, and the instrumentation used in this study. Adult developmental stages and tasks are presented to provide a foundation of the adult life cycle. The section on adult learners and their needs is a summary of the literature on how the needs of adult students differ from those of younger students and the specific adult needs that colleges can address. A brief description of the development of orientation programs is included. Orientation courses and programs are then studied in two groups: college and university orientation and community college orientation. In each section, the current trends of orientation as well as alternative programs and programs for groups with special needs are discussed. The section on orientation programs for the adult student includes descriptions of some of the programs for adults that have been reported in the literature. The methods and criteria that have been used in orientation evaluation are summarized. Finally, a summary of the literature related to the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule is included.

Dissertations and dissertation abstracts in addition to those cited in this chapter were reviewed and were of particular assistance in locating additional reference sources.

### Developmental Stages and Tasks

According to Havighurst (1972), a developmental task is "a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks" (p. 2). Some tasks arise from physical maturation, some from the cultural pressure of society (e.g., learning to read, participating as a responsible citizen in society), and some from the personal values and aspirations of the individual (e.g., choosing and preparing for an occupation).

A developmental stage, or period as Levinson (1978) calls it, is an interval of several years, frequently five to seven, which can be associated with a grouping of developmental tasks. A developmental stage will frequently have a primary theme or overall task, and an individual will generally experience some form of transitional phase going into and out of each stage.

Developmental tasks and stages have been associated most frequently with children; however, in recent years the terms have been used in reference to adults. The applicability of a developmental frame of reference for colleges was presented by Chickering (1969) in discussing his book Education and Identity: "Its fundamental assumption is that colleges and universities will be educationally effective only if they reach students 'where they live,' only if they connect significantly with those concerns of critical importance to their students" (p. 3). Chickering was writing specifically about the needs

and concerns of young adults, but his assumption indicates that if the students are adults, then the college must attend to their adult needs and concerns. Miller and Prince (1976) made a similar statement when explaining that by student development, they meant "the application of human development concepts in postsecondary settings so that everyone involved can master increasingly complex developmental tasks, achieve self-direction, and become independent" (p. 3). Levinson (1978) also noted the importance of recognizing adult developmental needs within colleges and universities in his book's final section, "Fostering Adult Development":

If we are to support adult development on a wider scale, we will have to modify the social institutions that shape our lives. Industry and other work organizations, government, higher education, religion and family--all of these must take account of the changing needs of adults in different eras and developmental periods. What is helpful in one era may not be in another. (p. 337)

Havighurst (1972) has defined the ages of 12 to 18 as adolescence, 18 to 30 as early adulthood, and 30 to 60 as middle age. Many authors have found, however, that college students in their late teens and early twenties are in an extension of the adolescent period and still working on those developmental tasks (Chickering, 1969; Jackson, 1977; Levinson et al., 1976). Traditionally the college environment served to continue the role of the family and prolong the adolescent stage with students who entered directly from secondary school. It is likely, therefore, that the students dealing with the early adulthood tasks will be adults returning to school. The tasks of early adulthood, as given by Havighurst (1972), are as follows:

1. Selecting a mate,
2. Learning to live with a marriage partner,
3. Starting a family,
4. Rearing children,
5. Managing a home,
6. Getting started in an occupation,
7. Taking on civic responsibility,
8. Finding a congenial social group. (p. 85 - 93)

In addition, other adults may be working on the following tasks associated with the middle age period:

1. Assisting teen-age children to become responsible and happy adults,
2. Achieving adult social and civic responsibility,
3. Reaching and maintaining satisfactory performance in one's occupational career,
4. Developing adult leisure-time activities,
5. Relating oneself to one's spouse as a person,
6. Accepting and adjusting to the psychological changes of middle age,
7. Adjusting to aging parents. (p. 96 - 104)

Erikson (1963) was one of the first writers to introduce the concept of developmental stages. Erikson defined each stage in terms of opposing attitudes which represented the critical growth need of that stage and out of which the individual needed to achieve some balance or equilibrium. For Erikson, adolescence was "identity vs. role confusion;" young adulthood was "intimacy vs. isolation;" adulthood was "generativity vs. stagnation;" and maturity was "ego integrity vs. despair."

Recent work has now amplified the stages outlined by Erikson. Using interview techniques, both Levinson (1976), who studied men exclusively, and Sheehy (1977) researched the stages of adulthood. Both studies showed essentially the same pattern of development.

1. From about 18 through the early twenties is a separation stage which emphasizes attempting to become an adult through physical, emo-

tional, and financial independence from one's parents.

2. From the early to the late twenties is a stage of exploration of the adult world and commitment to some provisional role in it. Young adults in this stage are fashioning their adult identities both externally (roles, interests, life style) and internally (values, fantasies).

3. A transitional period, covering approximately ages 28 to 32, is a period of re-evaluation of the commitments and decisions made during the twenties. The period may range from a calm, quiet reassessment to a tumultuous undoing of everything built during the twenties.

4. The thirties are a period of establishing roots and forming deep commitments to both family and work. Long range plans are frequently mapped out during this period.

5. An additional phase overlaps the previous period in the last half of the thirties. During this period an individual will frequently feel a need to establish greater independence and achieve a better position for success and recognition.

6. A mid-life transition occurs for both men and women. For men it occurs at about age 40 and is accompanied by a rigorous examination of goals set in earlier periods and the probability of achieving those goals. Each man must test the "goodness of fit" between his external life and his internal life structure. He must also review the dreams and fantasies that were ignored in favor of others during the thirties as a part of evaluating the decisions of earlier stages. This period is the most prominent time for career change in men. For

women, the mid-life transition comes somewhat earlier, at approximately age 35, and is more a period of exhilaration. Women are frequently experiencing a freedom from the constant demands of young children and a new opportunity to reach out to school, work, or other activities (Sheehy, 1977).

7. Beginning in the middle forties is a period of restabilization. This can be a period of great creativity and developmental growth for both men and women.

The Student Development Task Inventory developed by Prince, Miller, and Winston specifies nine subtasks for young adults under three major headings: developing autonomy, developing mature interpersonal relations, and developing purpose (Miller & Prince, 1976). The tasks and subtasks are closely related to Chickering's seven tasks for the college age adult. The inventory was designed to identify the developmental tasks and needs of students so that a college could provide the appropriate opportunities for students to meet their developmental needs. Unfortunately, the inventory has been developed for the traditional college age student. Jackson (1977) used the Student Development Task Inventory along with a locally constructed College Student Activities Questionnaire at two four-year colleges to identify the developmental tasks which students were currently facing. Knowledge of the specific developmental needs of students would then enable more appropriate programming for student services. The study looked only at the needs of young adults using Chickering's college age definition.

Eckard (1977), in an attempt to identify the specific develop-

mental tasks of adult women students, gave a questionnaire to women students between the ages of 23 and 54 which asked them to give their critical concerns at specified periods in the school year. Twelve tasks were identified as particularly important to adult women students:

1. Making decisions about educational alternatives which will lead to desirable future goals,
2. Employing organizational skills which will allow dispensation of energies to priority tasks at school and at home,
3. Organizing physical, emotional, and intellectual space in order to meet both her own needs and the needs of those to whom she has made commitments,
4. Independently assuming responsibility and initiative for learning related to future occupations,
5. Realistically differentiating between social and professional relationships and expectations with authority figures,
6. Redefining relationships with those to whom she has made commitments (i.e., husband, children, parents, friends),
7. Accepting persons of older and younger ages as peers,
8. Maintaining or building friendships with persons who can serve as support systems,
9. Interacting with persons in work-oriented groups,
10. Interacting positively with peers and professors who possess different cultural and/or ethnic characteristics,
11. Understanding and manipulating financial structures and concerns,
12. Perceiving current financial limitations as a necessary step toward economic independence. (p. 18 - 20)

Eckard points out that the areas of developing objectivity, independence, and goal-orientation are most frequently associated with earlier developmental stages. Many women students, for whatever reasons, apparently need to do some developmental catching-up as a part of achieving their academic goals.

### Conclusions

The developmental tasks and stages of adults demonstrate that their needs are considerably different from those of younger students. Furthermore, although it may be possible to view all younger students

as experiencing the same developmental needs, adult students may represent an age range of over 50 years, spanning seven developmental stages. Clearly adult students have needs that are not only different from younger students but different from other adults.

Adults face a continual process of redefinition of self, goals, relationships with other people, and relationships with the environment. Eckard (1977), Levinson et al. (1976), Levinson (1978), and Sheehy (1977) all emphasize this point. Colleges may respond to these needs by offering personal exploration courses. It is important that they recognize, however, that the range of adult stages may require a similar range of programs or courses.

#### Adult Learners and their Needs

Even apart from their different developmental tasks and stages, adults as learners are very different from younger college students. The adult typically is more motivated than the younger student (Krings, 1976). Many students may see this time in school as their last chance for an education. As a result the adult students are particularly conscious of avoiding failure. Further, school and grades may be seen as measures of self-worth (Hardaway, 1976). Adults are consumer oriented and want to know that their time and money will be well spent on their education (Leavengood, 1977). The adult is used to more independence and more responsibility (Krings, 1976). The adult is more experienced (Krings, 1976) and has a broader background of informal education (Siegel, 1973). The adult is seeking learning that will be immediately useful rather than learning for a postponed use

or vaguely defined future goal (Krings, 1976; Lenz & Shaevitz, 1977). Concept mastery is more important to the adult learner than competition (Lenz & Shaevitz, 1977; Siegel, 1978). Adults are typically part-time students with major commitments to family and job (Siegel, 1978). Adults are returning to school after a break in their education and frequently are not familiar with the educational routine and expectations for students (Siegel, 1978). Finally, colleges and the adults themselves have no immediate and accurate basis by which to judge their academic potential (Siegel, 1978).

Marienau and Klinger (1977) proposed that the barriers for adults returning to school are derived from two sources: "They are derived from the situations people face and from the particular value orientations of the people themselves" (p. 11). This review will consider the barriers faced by adult students in three categories: those represented by needs for specific services that the college can supply; those represented by more subjective personal needs; and those which derive from the value orientations of the individual.

There are some fairly objective needs for services. As part-time students, adults may find themselves ineligible for many financial aid sources, regardless of their need factor (Chitayat & Hymer, 1976; Erickson, 1970; Geisler & Thrush, 1975; Jacobson, 1967; Riddell & Bingham, 1977; Sanchez, 1977). Adults, because they have no immediate measure of their potential, may need a testing program (Erickson, 1970). If a college requires an admission test for adults, the adult may require some test coaching (Erickson, 1970). Child care services are an important need particularly for women (Chitayat & Hymer, 1976;

Geisler & Thrush, 1975; Harris & Kuckuck, 1975; Kelman & Staley, 1974; Riddell & Bingham, 1977; Sanchez, 1977). Adult students may have a need for both study skills workshops or courses (Krings, 1976; Plot-sky, 1977; Sanchez, 1977) and remedial communications skill workshops (Krings, 1976; Kelman & Staley, 1974; Riddell & Bingham, 1977). In order to make it easier for them to meet and socialize with other adults, colleges should consider providing an identified adult lounge and adult student organizations (Erickson, 1970; Harris & Kuckuck, 1975; Kelman & Staley, 1974). Admission requirements may need to be revised to make them more appropriate for the adult applicant (Erickson, 1970; Riddell & Bingham, 1977). Several writers called for special academic advising by someone who was familiar with the needs of adult students and/or an identified counselor who would work with adult students (Chitayat & Hymer, 1976; Erickson, 1970; Geisler & Thrush, 1975; Harris & Kuckuck, 1975). Several writers suggested that the best way to meet several of these needs was to offer an orientation program specifically designed for the adult student (Chitayat & Hymer, 1976; Erickson, 1970; Harris & Kuckuck, 1975; Kelman & Staley, 1974; Krings, 1976).

There are a number of more subjective personal needs felt by returning adult students in addition to those implied in the listing of services above. Perhaps the most typical of psychological needs of the adult student is the lack of self-confidence in academic areas (Krings, 1976; Lenz & Chaevitz, 1977; Manis & Mochizukis, 1972; Powell & Rogers, 1975). Adults frequently feel out-of-place in a college (though less so at a community college) because they see

themselves filling a youth associated role and at the same time fear competing with those youths (Lenz & Shaevitz, 1977). Many students must deal with the academically related fears held over from long past college or high school experiences, e.g., fear of math (Lenz & Shaevitz, 1977). Erickson (1970) provides a list of the potential fears that the returning adult student must contend with: fears of inadequacy, of exams, of an inability to study and read rapidly, of class discussions, of being out-of-date, of competition from adolescents, of failure.

In a separate category altogether are the barriers which are derived from the value hierarchies of the individual. Before the individual can become a fully committed student, these value conflicts must be resolved. For both men and women, there may be a feeling that the adult is robbing the family of time and/or money which should be reserved for the family needs. Related to that is the conflict between family responsibilities as a whole and the role of the student. Students who do not resolve this value question satisfactorily will find that it leads to guilt over depriving their family (Aanstad, 1972; Lenz & Shaevitz, 1977; Manis & Mochizukis, 1972; Marienau & Klinger, 1977; Westervelt, 1975). Some men find themselves in a conflict because they are being supported by their wives (Plotsky, 1977). Some adults, women particularly, find the requirements of the student role in conflict with their own self-perception, i.e., a violation of the feminine sex stereotype through an achieving student role (Westervelt, 1975).

The needs of adults returning to school appear to remain fairly

constant across geographical distribution and urban/suburban/rural settings. The studies from which the above composite list of needs was developed represented a wide cross-section of settings. Leavengood's (1977) work was done in Tampa, Florida, a southern, urban setting, and two other studies were in northern urban settings, Chitayat and Hymer (1976) in New York City and Riddell and Bingham (1977) in Boston. Geisler and Thrush's (1975) study had an urban orientation at the University of Wisconsin at Madison. Lesser urban areas were included in additional studies: Gainesville, Florida (Aanstad, 1972), Palentine, Illinois (Powell & Rogers, 1975), and East Lansing, Michigan (Erickson, 1970). Marienau and Klinger's (1977) study was done in rural, west central Minnesota. The western states were represented by studies at Fort Collins, Colorado (Kelman & Staley, 1974), Austin, Texas (Plotsky, 1977), Fresno City, California (Sanchez, 1977), and Scottsdale, Arizona (Hardaway, 1976). Despite these vastly different settings, the same needs consistently were reported.

### Conclusions

Adult needs were separated in this section into those associated with specific services, with subjective personal needs, and with the individual's value orientation. An alternative way to categorize the same needs would be into those associated with a need for additional personal insight and self-understanding and those associated with a need for information and skills. Those needs for information and skills result directly from the individual's

entry back into education. These are needs that the adult would most likely not experience if she or he were not returning to school. The needs associated with personal insight are more clearly related to the adult's developmental stages and tasks, possibly as they interact with the additional requirements associated with their new student roles. This group of needs may well be felt whether or not the adult returns to school, but may be influenced by the school setting.

It is quite possible to categorize the needs provided in the section either as information and skill needs or personal growth needs. In so doing, one is defining possible topics for the adult orientation courses mentioned by several authors as an excellent means to meet adult needs. An information/skill related course should, then, include a complete introduction to the college, its services, procedures, and expectations of students; study skills; information on how to obtain additional special services such as financial aid, credit for life experiences, or credit by examination; academic advising; test taking skills; group discussion skills; etc. A personal growth related course should include self-confidence building experiences; opportunities to clarify and work on role conflicts; values clarification; and opportunities to increase understanding of oneself as a changing, developing being.

Examples of orientation courses which follow this categorization and offer the experiences described will be included in the sections about orientation programs for adults.

### The Origins of Orientation

In the United States, orientation had its beginnings at Boston University in 1888, in an attempt to introduce students to the problems they would face in their college lives and work (Knodel, 1930). The idea of an orientation course spread slowly, however, In 1900, Iowa State College required all freshmen to register for a non-credit course which had goals similar to those of an orientation course (Knodel, 1930). The University of Michigan and the University of Illinois both added orientation courses within their Colleges of Engineering in 1911, and the University of Washington in 1912 added a required one credit course called Library and Curriculum Instruction (Knodel, 1930). It was not until 1923 that the now more prevalent freshman week began at the University of Maine (Knodel, 1930).

Knodel in 1930 listed the following factors which in his opinion made an orientation program (a course or freshman week) a necessity: the enlarged enrollment at many colleges, the lack of homogeneity of social background among students, the growing complexity of the college instructional fields, the growing independence of high schools, and the confusion and conflict among educational objectives. The following ten objectives which Knodel listed are closely related to those needs: to familiarize the student with the regulations and the methods of the campus; to give information and advice about college life; to register for classes; to make freshmen feel welcome; to provide a contact for future guidance as needed; to inform students of the college's history, traditions, and customs; to give an introduction to the campus; to

welcome students and make provisions for their acquaintance-building; to give students information concerning student conduct; and to give students information concerning activities and organizations.

Black (1964) referred to Knode's list of objectives and indicated that, while many objectives have remained the same, more concern and emphasis is now placed on development of the person. He stated the orientation should flow from students' needs, but that most colleges do not know what their students need.

Butts (1971) gave four objectives of orientation: "completion of necessary enrollment procedures in a humane manner, educational and vocational development, information dissemination, and community and relationship building" (p. 8 - 9). Marchbanks' (1973) list of the requirements for an orientation course reflected the growing emphasis on student development: to help students assess themselves, including their interests, aspirations, and aptitude; to acquaint students with the campus and community; and to acquaint students with the college activities program.

The additions and changes to the lists of orientation objectives provide a brief survey of the development of orientation programs. Courses which had begun as very college-centered are becoming more student-centered. Orientation content is now derived from the needs of the institution as well as of the student.

#### College and University Orientation

Kronovet's (1969) survey of colleges and universities, to which 1,378 colleges responded, indicated that 92.4% of the colleges had

some form of orientation program. About 49% of the colleges ran their program for a week or less immediately prior to the beginning of classes. An additional 20% combined a before class orientation with a program continuing through the term. Only 15% offered an orientation course that extended through the semester or year. Less than 1% offered a summer orientation.

Some other important trends are apparent in Kronovet's study. Seventy-seven percent of the colleges did not award any credit for the orientation course. Orientation was required by 78% of the colleges. Perhaps most important, 77% of the colleges had faculty involvement in the orientation programs. There was general agreement on the primary goals of the orientation courses: introducing students to college life, facilities, counseling, and remedial services, 39%; an introduction to the college and its facilities, 25%; an introduction to the college and information regarding counseling services, 15%; and a discussion course, 11%.

One of the recurring questions for planners of orientation at colleges and universities is whether the focus should be social or intellectual. Drake (1966), through a study of orientation programs at 110 colleges and universities, found that 41% of the activities were mainly informational, 41% were social, and 18% were intellectual in nature. Fitzgerald and Busch (1963) exhorted orientation planners to make orientation an introduction to "the framework for an enriched educational experience and the foundation for scholarship" (p. 274). A major aspect of their proposal was to include fewer administrators and student aides in orientation and more faculty.

Combs (1970) seemed to be bridging some of these gaps in listing the purposes of orientation as: to assist the students in their transition from secondary school to college; to stimulate students to think about their motives and purposes for seeking a college education; and to challenge students to question their system of values as related to campus problems and issues which they might encounter.

Colleges and universities most frequently offer their orientation in the first few days prior to the beginning of fall classes. Even within that framework, however, colleges are experimenting with possible alternatives. Florida A & M offered a "mini-quarter" complete with scheduled classes the week prior to the fall quarter in an attempt to soften the transition between high school and college (Abraham, 1975). Louisiana State University, Lakefront Campus, a commuter school, tried a half day orientation that focused on small groups of ten students with a student leader completing a walk-through of the registration process, complete with faculty advisor meetings (McCoy, 1973). Staff at Morgan State College believed that freshmen needed more developmental work in communication skills. They set up a two week required orientation program that emphasized writing, reading, speaking, listening, and study skills (Froe & Lee, 1956).

Colleges which are primarily residential have an advantage for orientation purposes over other colleges. At Emory University, all freshmen are required to live in freshman dormitories. They focus their year-long orientation activities around the dormitories and the resident counselors (Year-round Orientation, 1973). The University of Florida also requires freshmen to live in dormitories and places

emphasis on the resident counselors and the trained big-brother and big-sister aides. They also, however, require a freshman logic class which is frequently co-taught by the resident counselor. One third of the content of the logic class is current issues and concerns (Mott, 1971).

Despite the prevalence of the freshman week orientation, a number of colleges are experimenting with summer orientation programs. Colorado State University compared their 1963 freshman week program with their 1964 and 1965 one day summer programs and found that the students saw the freshman week activities as mainly social in nature and the summer programs as mainly academic (Miller & Ivey, 1967). The University of Maine found that 54% of their freshmen found their summer orientation moderately or very helpful. The most helpful experiences were getting to know other freshmen and being in the residence hall, and the least helpful was meeting the university officials (Zink, 1970). Coles (1975), reporting on the results of a two day summer orientation, indicated that while the orientation program was a success in promoting meeting new people and lowering anxiety concerning personal adjustment to college, it raised the level of anxiety concerning academic competence and led to increasing self-doubts as measured by a questionnaire.

In some cases colleges and universities have developed special orientation courses or programs to meet the particular needs of special groups of students. Mankato State College offers an Experimental Studies Program that places emphasis on individual growth, self-development, team work, and community associations and relations. They dis-

covered that the Minnesota Outward Bound School emphasized these same elements. The result was a three week Outward Bound orientation for 20 new students in the Experimental Studies Program. The results indicated that women showed slight growth toward self-actualization as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory. There were no significant changes for men (VanderWilt & Klocke, 1971). The University of Massachusetts offered an orientation course specifically for their engineering students. The course ran for two weeks and covered a review of mathematical concepts and the use of the slide rule. They found that the orientation course increased by 50% a student's chances of staying in the engineering program until the beginning of the sophomore year, and doubled the chances of receiving a degree in engineering within ten semesters (Rising, 1967). Lopez (1974) reported on a special subsection of orientation for minority and economically disadvantaged students designed "to assist the participants in acquiring the knowledge and skills for academic, financial, emotional, and social 'survival' in a complex university environment" (p. 4). Students also took part in the regular orientation activities being held concurrently. No evaluation results were reported.

Comparative studies of orientation programs have provided some conflicting results. At the University of Utah, all freshmen were randomly split into a pretest group and a posttest group. Instruments used to evaluate the effects of orientation were the College and University Environment Scale (CUES), the University of Utah Information Test (a multiple-choice test over the content of the orientation materials), and the University of Utah Orientation Inventory

(a semantic differential survey of attitudes about the orientation program). The researchers found that the pretest group scored further in the desired direction on the CUES scales of practicality, awareness, scholarship, and community. The results indicated that students taking the two day orientation program changed their perceptions about the college so that the posttest group saw the college as less orderly and procedural, less expanding and enriching, less scholarship oriented, and less friendly. The posttest group did score significantly better on the Information Test and gave generally positive reactions on the Attitude Inventory (Foxley, 1969a, 1969b).

Gerber (1970) compared four groups in different orientation alternatives. One group had no orientation, a second had a formal class emphasizing the rules and regulations of the college and the skills relevant to success, a third group had a large group lecture presentation of the same material covered by the second group, and the fourth group had no orientation in the first quarter but individuals were told they would be required to take orientation in the second quarter if their grades were below a cut-off point. Gerber found a slight difference in favor of the traditional formal orientation class on a knowledge test (covering the orientation content), but when using grades or student retention, no one option was better than another. On the student preference survey, however, students indicated that they preferred the "no orientation" option.

### Conclusions

College and university orientation programs are most frequently run for several days immediately before classes begin. The programs

are directed predominantly toward information needs and social interaction. Faculty frequently play a major role in the programs. The effects of orientation programs are conflicting. Some responses indicated that too much information and not enough personal attention is given. Most studies, however, are only comparing presentation methods or course structure or time, not the content offered.

Although some schools have offered special orientation sections for special groups, obviously most colleges and universities are not recognizing the adult student as a special group. If 69% of the schools rely at least partly on a full-time orientation program immediately prior to classes, the adult, predominately part-time student, may be left out.

#### Community and Junior College Orientation

Community college orientation objectives bear a strong similarity to those of the four year college programs. Blimline and New (1975) list the following objectives for community college orientation: to establish a personal relationship between a counselor and students; to acquaint the student with the college; to help students develop more effective methods of learning; to help students explore their aptitudes, interests, and goals; and to stimulate and facilitate personal growth. Two important differences, however, that are readily apparent from reading the literature on community college orientation are that the orientation programs are more closely identified with and under the direction of the counselors at the community college (as opposed to a special office for orientation or the faculty at a four-year college) and that the community college orientation programs more

often take the form of a continuing course, frequently with credit, rather than a one or two day program. One result of the increased length of the program is more time to respond to the students' individual needs and therefore more opportunity to provide an orientation course which is more student-centered than information-centered.

Nevertheless, some colleges have experimented with either summer or pre-term orientation programs. One advantage of a summer program is that it frees the counselors from orientation at what is frequently the busiest time of the year (fall) and transfers that load to one of the slackest times (summer). Garmeski and Heimann (1967) reported on a summer orientation that offered 267 students a series of small group meetings with a counselor for a total of six to eight hours. Topics included in the program were interpretation of vocational interest inventory results and American College Test results; information about school policies, curricula, and procedures; investigation of curricula compatible with interests and abilities of the students; program planning for the fall term; and vocational career information.

North Shore Community College and Leicester Junior College offered a three hour human development module immediately prior to the fall term. At North Shore, the module was followed by pre-registration for the term. At Leicester (a small private, residential school) the unit was included in the freshman week activities. Emphasis in the module was completely on interpersonal relations, developing self-confidence and self-knowledge, and feeling a part of a group (Del Prete & Waterhouse, 1973). O'Banion (1971) reported on

two pre-term orientation programs. Rochester State Junior College offered a six day program that included three days of orientation activities and three days of registration. Florida Junior College at Jacksonville offered a whole day of large and small group sessions focusing on information giving and program planning followed by a day of registration and social activities.

Most community college orientation programs that have been reported on have been developed in response to some specific need felt by the college or the students. Burlington City College's instructional program is based on a systems approach. They began to realize that they needed more than a program which would orient the student to the college. They wanted to be able to demonstrate the difference between conventional high school and a two-year college with a systems approach to instruction. What resulted after much study was a half-day systems approach orientation program. The materials used and the way they were used reflected the instructional approach of the college. Students were given a learning packet which included the learning objectives of the orientation course, a course syllabus, and a list of instructional materials to be used. They used the audio-visual equipment as a part of the individualized instruction; and they took the posttest in the testing center. The college personnel attributed the subsequent drop in the attrition rate from 20-25% to 7.6% to the successful orientation program (Hammons, 1975).

Keenan (1974) reported on an orientation course to enhance the self-concept of associate degree nursing students. He believed that

a more positive self-concept could lead to greater self-motivation, achievement, and professional growth. Students who participated in the orientation showed a significant gain in self-concept.

Tarrant County Junior College felt that their traditional lecture orientation was probably not meeting the needs of many of their students and changed to a more need-based orientation. Students attended a large group meeting for the first two weeks with the main objective being an introduction to the college. For the next six weeks, students chose which special topic seminars, involving from one to ten hours, they wished to take. The only requirement was that each student include a total of ten hours of seminars. Topics available included: effective listening, 4 hours; study habits, 2 hours; career opportunities, 4 hours; work, loans, scholarships, and veterans' benefits, 1 hour, reading lab, 5 hours; and a marathon group, 10 hours (Needs Orientation, 1969).

Another large group of orientation programs is directed specifically at the growth and development needs of the students. "The Individual in a Changing Environment" is one course in a six course core required of all students at Sante Fe Junior College. It was designed as an open, flexible "course in introspection" (O'Banion, 1969, p. 12). Grossmont College developed a new orientation course that included a large group lecture and a small seminar each week and focused on the need for the student "to become more responsible for himself and the total society in which he lives, along with the need for students to find additional reasons for education besides potential financial gain" (O'Banion, 1971, p. 54). Lectures were

on topics such as student rights, alienation, war and peace, and personal commitment. During seminar discussions, the students presented their individual responses and ideas on the lecture topic. Rochester State Junior College offered a three day freshman camp as one means of uniting the students coming from diverse backgrounds and helping them develop positive attitudes toward college and their roles in the college. The program included three discussions led by faculty: "What Kind of World do I Want?," "What Kind of College do I Want?," and "What Kind of Person do I Want?" Coffee houses, movies, skits, and an after dark initiation ceremony were also included (O'Banion, 1971).

Orientation courses directed toward specific groups are a newly developing trend in community colleges. Flint Community Junior College offers a different orientation for each academic division of the college (O'Banion, 1971). Moorpark Community College offers two orientation courses designed specifically for the mature woman. One is a half-credit course called "Rap Focus--Women's Re-entry." The second, "Career Development--Women's Re-entry," is worth one and a half credits (Elliot & Mantz, 1976). William Rainey Harper College offered a one day, non-credit program for women aged 25 and over. The program included a description of the counseling services, a slide program about the experiences of women returning to school created by women students at the college, a tour of the campus, small group interaction with current students, individual counseling to help with course selection, and registration (Powell & Rogers, 1975).

## Conclusions

In 1971, O'Banion wrote "most orientation sessions are a holocaust of information-giving, in which administrators and student personnel staff members feel they have met the purposes of orientation when they have 'told the students what they need to know'" (p. 54). Colleges must recognize that the diversity within the student population at most community colleges means that, at the very least, they must give different information to different students. Colleges are creatively searching for alternate orientation packages and delivery methods as the variety of programs and courses described clearly shows. However, in many cases the assumption seems to remain that once the proper orientation is discovered, it will be appropriate for all students. Research comparing various orientation options is directed at identifying the best one presented according to the criteria defined. No research could be found that identified the students enrolling in the orientation courses as a variable in an effort to learn which students gain the most from which form of orientation. Research of this type is needed.

### Orientation Programs for the Adult Student

Most orientation courses have been directed, either explicitly through their stated goals or implicitly through their activities, toward younger students. A number of orientation programs have, as one of their goals, to assist students in their transition from high school to college. Orientation programs which are based on all freshmen living in freshman dormitories (Combs, 1970) or which include

activities like a torchlight parade through the downtown streets and wearing freshman beanies (O'Banion, 1971) are definitely not recognizing that the needs of adult students may be different from those of younger students. The following programs have been developed by four-year colleges and community colleges to meet the needs of returning adult students.

Adults consistently mention a lack of study skills as one of their most pressing needs as returning students. Tryon and Sy (1977) describe a study skills course developed for adults. The program developers recognized that although adult students are frequently far better motivated than younger students and have superior generalized backgrounds, these returning adults also have much greater anxiety about the college pressures and feel inadequate in academic settings. The program was evaluated using the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes as a pre and posttest in addition to an end of program questionnaire on the level of anxiety felt in the college setting. The students whose ages ranged from 23 to 66 had improved their study habits over the period of the course and also experienced less anxiety at the end of the course.

Many colleges have developed personal growth courses specifically for adults. "Perspectives for Men" was developed as a course to deal with the special concerns and high stress situations of men as identified in a preliminary survey. The course covered topics such as divorce, loss of job, relationship with their children, and having too many roles to fill. Responses on the evaluation indicated that the course was particularly relevant to the men because it dealt with

the needs associated with where they were in their lives at that time (Kirkman, 1977/78). Moorpark Community College offered a package of two courses for women returning to college: "Rap Focus--Women's Re-entry" and "Career Development--Women's Re-entry." These courses were provided as part of the college's freshman orientation offering (Elliot & Mantz, 1976). McCannon (1974) reported on an orientation for adult evening students designed to increase the students' self-knowledge and facilitate their adjustment to school. A comparison of the experimental group with a control group of adults who did not experience any orientation indicated no significant difference in self-concept, attitude toward the college, re-enrollment rate, or educational goals. There was a significant difference in grade point averages for the semester of the study.

Rice and Goering (1977) describe "Career Planning and Decision Making for Adults," a college course offered for women. Topics included values clarification, decision making, life goal planning and time management, and specific information about jobs, volunteer work, and how to enter them. The presentation methods ranged from mini-lectures to role models. Evaluation was based on a questionnaire at the end of the program and a follow-up questionnaire ten months later for the first group and six months later for the second group. Results indicated that the unanimously positive attitudes persisted through to the follow-up and that the participants did experience a behavior change attributed to new skills learned from the program.

University of South Florida ran a series of workshops directed to adults returning to college. Workshops included "ReFocus Seminar,"

an annual workshop to provide educational and college information; "It's Never Too Late," covering the educational opportunities for women; "The Adult as a Total Student," co-sponsored annually with the community college system; and "New Careers at Mid-Life," based on speakers and activity workshops (Leavengood, 1977).

Montgomery College has recognized the diversity among adult students and offers a set of orientation courses designed to assist the adult students in their developmental "learning" tasks. Their courses include "How to Study," "Human Potential Seminar," "Career Development," "Emerging Woman," and "College Survival" (Blimline & Klinek, 1977).

Gleazer (1978) provided an excellent means for colleges to follow the leadership of Montgomery College in his article "Education for Teachable Moments." His article forms the link between developmental stages for adults as described by Sheehy and the educational goals of the community college. Gleazer includes in his article a chart developed by Vivian Rogers McCoy: "Adult Life Cycle Tasks/Adult Continuing Education Program Response." (See Table 1.) As its name suggests the chart provides for each developmental stage the associated tasks, possible program responses to each of the tasks, and the outcomes sought in each program response. The suggested program responses include workshops and courses which could be provided as part of a counseling program, as credit courses, or as community service courses.

### Conclusions

Just as adults have different needs than younger students,

Table 1

## Adult Life Cycle Tasks/Adult Continuing Education Program Response

Developmental Stage	Tasks	Program Response	Outcomes Sought
Catch-30 Ages 29-34	1. Search for personal values.	1. Values clarification.	1. Examined and owned values.
	2. Reappraise relationships.	2. Marriage counseling and communication workshops; human relations groups; creative divorce workshops.	2. Authentic personal relationships.
	3. Progress in career.	3. Career advancement training, job redesign workshops.	3. Career satisfaction, economic reward, a sense of competence and achievement.
	4. Problem solve.	4. Creative problem solving workshops.	4. Successful problem solving.
Midlife Examination Ages 35-43	1. Search for meaning.	1. Search for meaning workshops.	1. Coping with existential anxiety.
	2. Reassess marriage.	2. Marriage workshops.	2. Satisfying marriages.
	3. Re-examine work.	3. Mid-career workshops.	3. Appropriate career decisions.
	4. Adjust to single life.	4. Living alone, divorce workshops.	4. Fulfilled single state.
	5. Reassess personal priorities and values.	5. Value clarification; goal setting workshops.	5. Autonomous behavior

(Vivian Rogers McCoy in Gleazer, 1978, p. 14-15)

some adults have different needs than other adults. Colleges should remember that adults may be from a number of different developmental stages, each stage having its own tasks. Colleges are now offering programs relating to both the information needs and the personal growth needs of adults. Further research needs to be done on the relevance of some of these programs for the adults and the appropriateness of these programs for particular adults.

### Evaluation of Orientation

A variety of evaluation means and criteria have been used in measuring the effect of orientation programs. The most common method is a questionnaire distributed to the students at the end of the program or mailed shortly thereafter (Abraham, 1975; Better-Reed, Bryan, & Dittmar, 1974; Blimline & New, 1975; Coles, 1975; Miller & Ivey, 1967). Lopez (1974) used the questionnaire format but gathered more specific information by asking questions about each activity individually. A more subjective means of evaluation is to rely on informal feedback either from participants or from others who come in contact with participants. McCoy (1973) reported on an evaluation based on the feedback from college personnel about the preparedness of freshmen for registration, assuming that better prepared means better orientation. Packard (1967) used registration preparedness, as rated by registration advisors, in addition to other measures.

A number of studies used an indirect evaluation method, frequently in conjunction with a questionnaire and/or an objective test of knowledge gained. Kopecek (1971) reported on a comparison of two

orientation groups on retention of the material, grade point average, and student withdrawal rate. Gerber (1970) used these same three criteria plus a student preference questionnaire on which students indicated the orientation option they preferred. Rising (1967) in the orientation for engineer students used as the sole criterion the completion of the degree program. Pappas (1967a, 1967b) used only the grade point average and the number of students using student personnel services in comparing three orientation groups. Packard (1967) used a locally constructed knowledge-retention test and an evaluation inventory to evaluate a two-day summer program. Garneski and Heimann (1967) compared those students who had completed the summer orientation program with those students who had requested the program but were not admitted using the criteria of grade point average, the number of semester hours earned, and the drop-out rate. Rothman and Leonard (1967) used the grade point average and the drop-out rate in comparing the students in a newly developed orientation model with students who took no orientation, but also compared pre and posttest scores on the Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values. Chandler (1970) used grade point average, persistence in college or major, and participation in organized co-curricular activities. Mississippi Gulf Coast Junior College and Burlington County College both used criterion-referenced tests on the content of the orientation program to evaluate their programs (Fisher, 1975; Hammons, 1975).

The third major grouping of evaluating or comparing methods involves standardized tests and inventories, sometimes in combinations

to cover several different objectives. The Morgan State College orientation that was intended to prepare students in the communication skills for their freshman year was evaluated using a standardized study skills test and reading test (Froe & Lee, 1956). The University of Utah in a program emphasizing small group contact used the College and University Environment Scale as their main instrument along with two locally developed tests (Foxley, 1969a, 1969b). Monkato State College used Chostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory to measure the effect of their Experimental Studies Program orientation (VanderWilt & Klocke, 1971). Haislip (1972) used the Institutional Self-Study Service Survey, College Form of the American College Testing Program, Inc. as well as student grade point averages. He found no difference between those who took orientation and those who did not.

The most common evaluation means is a student questionnaire. The criteria on which the questionnaires were based, however, were not included in any of the articles cited. Other frequent evaluation criteria are grade point average or some measure of future academic achievement, withdrawal rate, and content retention.

#### Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

Personality assessment instruments are generally an attempt to measure some particular aspect of personality through such means as adjective checklists or a questionnaire identifying needs (Super & Bohn, 1970). Super and Bohn (1970) defined need as "a lack of something which, if it were present, would contribute to the well-being of

the organism" (p. 21). The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) measures needs in an objective manner designed to provide "greater reliability and to save time in administration and scoring" (Super & Bohn, 1970, p. 24). The EPPS measures the individual's reported needs on 15 scales. The scales have their origin in Murray's (1938) study of personality variables in which he identified 44 different variables: 20 manifest needs, 8 latent needs, 4 needs which referred to inner states, and 12 general traits. Edwards (1959) used 15 of the manifest needs as his scales.

The 15 scales for which scores are obtained are achievement, affiliation, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality, and aggression. An additional score on consistency is obtained by comparing 15 sets of identical pairs (Edwards, 1959). Edwards' definitions for each of these scales as provided in The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule Manual are included in Appendix A.

Items from each of the fifteen scales were paired twice with each of the other fourteen scales in forced-choice items. For each of the 225 items, the subject is directed to choose the statement that is more characteristic of him/her self (Edwards, 1959). Edwards paired items of equal social desirability as rated on a social desirability scale developed by Edwards and Thurstone in order to control for the effect of a subject choosing socially desirable items.

#### Normative Population

Edwards reports two sets of norms: college men and women and adult men and women. The college sample included 749 women and 760

men enrolled as day or evening students in liberal arts classes at a variety of colleges and universities. The ages ranged from 15 to 59 with 84% of the total sample under the age of 25 and 94% of the sample under the age of 30. Significant differences between the means for men and women were found on 12 of the 15 scales. Men had significantly higher means than women on achievement, autonomy, dominance, heterosexuality, and aggression. Women had significantly higher means than men on deference, affiliation, intraception, succorance, abasement, nurturance, and change. The adult sample included 4031 men and 4932 women from 48 states who were members of a consumer purchase panel used for market surveys. No ages were reported for the adult sample. Edwards found significant differences between the means and standard deviations of the college group and those of the adult group. Differences of means ranged from as little as .04 to as much as 6.45 on a raw score scale of 0 to 28. The most pronounced changes were order, means for adult men and women were 4.45 and 5.35 points higher than the college sample; endurance, means for adult men and women were 4.31 and 3.87 points higher than the college sample; and heterosexuality, means for adult men and women were 6.45 and 6.22 points lower than the college sample. In all cases the differences between sex groups were in the same direction for both samples.

Kinnick and Nelson (1970) reported on a study in which the EPPS was administered to 10% of the undergraduate population of Colorado State College (1,820 students) and local norms were established. These norms differed significantly from the reported EPPS

norms of 8 of the 15 variables for men and 6 of the 15 for women. They suggest a need to establish new norms in view of major shifts in the American culture and the college student population since 1954 when the EPPS was first published.

### Reliability

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule Manual (Edwards, 1959) reported a split half reliability measure of internal consistency for each of the scales with coefficients ranging from .60 to .87, as well as a one week test-retest reliability for each scale, with coefficients ranging from .74 to .88. (See Table 2.) Waters (1968) provided the results of a seven week test-retest reliability study of the EPPS. His reliability coefficients ranged from .37 to .67. He cautioned, however, that the testing was done at the beginning and seven weeks into an intensive pre-flight training for naval flight candidates, and the nature of the training may have affected the scores. A 15 month test-retest reliability with coefficients ranging from .41 to .73 was reported from a study using nursing students. The authors noted, however, that the score changes may have been as much a measure of subject change as of the reliability of the instrument (Caputo, Psathas, & Plapp, 1966).

### Validity

The most serious question raised about the EPPS concerns the validity of the instrument. Edwards (1959) included a section in the manual about validity in which he discussed the possibilities of establishing validity through correlation with self-ratings, ratings by peers, or other instruments measuring the same constructs. He

Table 2

Reported Reliability Coefficients for the  
Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

EPPS Scale	Edwards (1959) Split-half N=1509	Edwards (1959) 1 week Test-retest N=89	Waters (1968) 7 week Test-retest N=148	Caputo et al. (1966) 15 month Test-retest N=52
Achievement	.74	.74	.53	.47
Deference	.60	.78	.47	.45
Order	.74	.87	.57	.59
Exhibition	.61	.74	.53	.60
Autonomy	.76	.83	.64	.65
Affiliation	.70	.77	.37	.64
Intraception	.79	.86	.67	.41
Succorance	.76	.78	.51	.46
Dominance	.81	.87	.56	.60
Abasement	.84	.88	.67	.59
Nurturance	.78	.79	.61	.65
Change	.79	.83	.58	.73
Endurance	.81	.86	.62	.61
Heterosexuality	.87	.85	.62	.45
Aggression	.84	.78	.60	.50

does not, however, provide any substantial evidence of validity within the section. Heilbrun (1972) and McKee (1972) both indicated that insufficient indication of validity has been given for the EPPS. Jones (1974) attempted to correlate scales from the EPPS and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory with Carkhuff's scales of empathetic understanding, genuineness, and respect. There were no significant correlations. Bouchard (1968) and Poe (1969) both tested the validity of the EPPS using the multitrait-multimethod matrix proposed by Campbell and Fiske and reported good convergent and discriminant validity.

A number of authors have attempted to validate certain scales of the EPPS by correlating the scores with some other rating of a characteristic. Izard (1960) correlated the autonomy, dominance, deference, and abasement scales with a criterion of resistance to change. For men abasement and deference were significantly correlated with the criterion, but for women there was no significant correlation. Coody and Hinely (1967) compared the EPPS scores for student teachers who had been rated as either dominating or submissive. They found that the dominating group scored significantly higher on aggression, autonomy, and dominance; and the submissive group scored significantly higher on abasement and succorance. They concluded that the EPPS was a valid tool for identifying these personality traits. Coody and Hinely also summarized a study by Bernadin demonstrating the validity of the autonomy and deference scales for measuring dependence, a study by Gisvold showing a significant correlation between the autonomy scale and conformity behavior; and a study by Zuckerman that reported

a significant positive relationship between rebelliousness and the EPPS scales aggression, autonomy, and dominance and a significant negative relationship between rebelliousness and the EPPS scales abasement, deference, and succorance.

### Research Usage

Considerable research has been directed toward the use of the EPPS as a prediction and/or selection instrument particularly in college settings. Bachman (1964) attempted to use the achievement scale of the EPPS as a supplement to Scholastic Aptitude Test scores to predict over or under achievement. He concluded that the EPPS scale does not aid in the prediction of achievement. Morgan (1975) attempted a similar study using the achievement scale and the American College Test (ACT) to predict over and under achievers. The achievement scale did not increase the predictive ability of the ACT. Lunneborg and Lunneborg (1966) tried to predict grade point averages from the EPPS but found no predictive ability. Belcastro (1975) used the EPPS along with the Strong Vocational Interest Blank to predict completion of a secondary teacher education program. He found that the two instruments along with grade point averages predicted completion with 78% accuracy for males and 66% accuracy for females.

Other researchers have employed the EPPS to distinguish between groups separated by some other criterion. Zaccaria and Creaser (1970) used the EPPS to distinguish between those students who sought counseling and those who did not. They found no difference for women but a lower endurance score for men who sought vocational/

occupational counseling. Pool (1965) found that students for whom counseling was effective scored higher on the EPPS succorance and autonomy scales and lower on the endurance and intrareception scales than those students for whom counseling was not effective. Wigent (1974) used the EPPS to differentiate between community college students who reported high, average, and low career choice certainty. The results indicated that students who scored high on affiliation tended to be more uncertain of career choice and women who scored high on succorance tended to be more uncertain. There was no significant difference among other variables.

An important consideration in using the EPPS in research is the interdependence of the scales. Because each item is a forced choice between two scales, the respondent in choosing will raise one scale and lower another. Therefore it is impossible for a person to show all needs as high or all needs as low. This ipsative effect results in scores that show the "relative strength of competing needs within the person" (Barron, 1959, p. 115). The EPPS scales are negatively correlated with each other at least partially as a result of the ipsative construction. Because the EPPS violates some of the conditions that are assumed by many typical statistical procedures, the user must consider the ipsative effect on correlations between the EPPS and some other variable (Guilford, 1954; Hicks, 1970). Scott (1968) compared the published ipsative EPPS with a modified, single-stimulus form that eliminated the ipsative effect. He found that the validity did not seem to be effected by the change, and that the forced-choice EPPS was more reliable. He did not, however, attempt

to correlate the two forms with some other variable.

An advantage of the EPPS is its emphasis on non-clinical terminology, particularly in scale names. A personality inventory which provides scores on "such clinical and psychiatric syndromes as schizophrenia, paranoia, or hysteria" (Edwards, 1959, p. 6) may create problems when used in an educational setting where scores are routinely returned to students. The EPPS scale names emphasize non-clinical needs. Emphasis throughout the development and norming of the EPPS has been on use with "normal" individuals (Edwards, 1959).

Edwards recommended the EPPS for use in stimulating discussion within counseling settings and for research purposes with normal subjects. Barron (1959) has reported on the wide spread use of the EPPS in both areas. Kinnick and Nelson (1970) referred to the EPPS as a successful counseling tool and called particular attention to its use in college settings. Wigent (1974) reported on the EPPS as an appropriate tool in community college settings.

### Conclusions

The EPPS is a widely used counseling and research tool that provides scores on 15 personality needs. The EPPS has adequate reliability for research purposes, and studies have shown sufficient validity of the scales, though more research on validity is needed. The scores on the 15 scales are inter-related because of the forced-choice construction of the test. This ipsative effect can be minimized by including fewer than all the scales in the statistical procedure.

EPPS scores are measures of the individual's need at the moment

of the inventory. For the purposes of this study, the scores are relevant as an indication of the student's needs at the time of re-entry into college. This study will employ only the raw scores, and therefore the possibility of out-dated norms is not a relevant concern.

### Chapter Summary

Authors agree that growth and development are lifelong processes and that adults, therefore, continue to experience developmental cycles. Those cycles and their associated developmental tasks are one of the sources of the differences between adult students and younger students who are involved in a very different developmental stage with different tasks. Other major differences result from the greatly enriched background of the adults and the unique adult experience of returning to school rather than continuing in school.

Orientation programs have evolved into dual purpose efforts seeking to provide students with the information and skills that make the college's job easier (regulations, library skills, etc.) and the skills and explorations associated with the students' needs (study skills, values clarification, etc.) Colleges have attempted to meet these objectives with a variety of programs ranging from one day information workshops to year-long required courses. Some colleges have prescribed a single orientation course for all students while others have developed a variety of courses so that students can select the course most appropriate to meet their needs.

Most colleges that have attempted to serve the particular needs of adult students have done so through special courses, workshops, or

non-credit programs. These courses and programs frequently focus on either the skills and information that will ease the adult's re-entry or the personal concerns associated with the fears and conflicts caused by the entry into a college environment.

Research associated with the adult programs has been mainly descriptive and tends to be more of a "here's what we tried" nature. Most studies have not included adequate follow-up or evaluation. No research could be found which considered a means of predicting the appropriateness of different forms of orientation for different adults.

CHAPTER 3  
METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a summary of the procedures followed in the study. A description is given of the population, the sample, and the orientation sections offered which formed the treatment. The instruments used to gather data are described along with the manner in which they were used. The final section summarizes the methods used in the analysis of the data.

General Design

Five orientation sections offered at the Loudoun Campus of Northern Virginia Community College (NVCC) were studied to determine their relevance for adult students. The sections were classified as either information-giving/skill-building courses or personal growth courses. College Survival, Self-Instructional Orientation, and Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students were the information-giving/skill-building sections. Orientation for Women Returning to School and Orientation for Second Career Adults were the personal growth sections. Students selected whichever orientation section they desired. All students in the classes who were age 25 or older participated in the study. Adult students in four orientation sections at the Annandale Campus of NVCC formed a control group.

During the first week of the quarter all students in the experimental group completed the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and a questionnaire for background information. At the end of each

course, students completed a questionnaire on the relevance of the course to their particular needs. Enrollment data were checked for the winter and spring quarters to determine if those students in the experimental group continued as students at the college. Students who had not continued were telephoned as a follow-up procedure. A comparison was made of the self-reported relevance of the experimental group and of the control group. The retention rates for experimental group students reporting high relevance vs. those reporting low relevance were compared. The relationships between personality characteristics and self-reported relevance for students in information/skill courses and personal growth courses were analyzed.

### Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study were based on the needs and characteristics of adult students as summarized in Chapter 2. Adult students' needs are different from those of younger students, and the needs of all adult students are not the same. It should be true then that adult students who are allowed to choose the most appropriate orientation course for their particular needs from among several courses directed to the needs of adult students will find their orientation course more relevant than students who are not given a choice. Furthermore, students who consider the course very relevant may have a higher retention rate in subsequent quarters than students who did not find their orientation relevant.

Relevance was defined in a very individual manner. A course was relevant for a student if that student perceived the course content as personally meaningful and appropriate. The relevance of

a course, in other words, was related to how completely it fulfilled the needs of the student at the time the student enrolled. A personality inventory that measures needs was administered to investigate the relationship between personality variables in the form of needs and the relevance of the orientation courses.

### Hypothesis One

H<sub>1</sub>: Adult students who are free to choose their own orientation option will rate their orientation course as more relevant than adult students who are not free to choose their own orientation option.

### Hypothesis Two

H<sub>2</sub>: Students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than students who rate their course as low in relevance.

H<sub>2a</sub>: Information-giving/skill-building students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than those information-giving/skill-building students who rate their course as low in relevance.

H<sub>2b</sub>: Personal growth students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than those personal growth students who rate their course as low in relevance.

### Hypothesis Three

H<sub>3a</sub>: Using relevance as the criterion, it will be possible to develop a statistically significant prediction equation for information-giving/skill-building students given selected EPPS variables.

H<sub>3b</sub>: Using relevance as the criterion, it will be possible to develop a statistically significant prediction equation for personal

growth students given selected EPPS variables.

### Population

This study was carried out at Northern Virginia Community College. NVCC serves the counties of Arlington, Fairfax, Loudoun, and Prince William and the cities of Alexandria, Falls Church, Fairfax, Manassas, and Manassas Park. The total area population is over one million. The jurisdiction is a part of the Washington, D. C. metropolitan area which has the highest per person income of any metropolitan area in the U. S. (The Way Cities Rate, 1978).

NVCC is a part of the Virginia Community College System. The college includes five separate campuses with fall, 1978 enrollments ranging from 2,489 students to 11,709 students and the Extended Learning Institute, a non-campus based instructional program which offers courses through correspondence, television, and radio. The total student enrollment for fall quarter, 1978 was 31,327. All five campuses draw predominately from suburban settings. Each campus of the college offers all the courses required for the Associate in Arts and Associate in Science transfer degrees. In addition each campus offers some common occupational/technical curricula that are available at every campus and some specialized curricula which are available at only one or two campuses.

Students from two campuses were included in the study. Loudoun, the second smallest campus with a fall, 1978 enrollment of 3,074, was included because it provides a variety of orientation options from which students may choose. Annandale, the largest campus with a fall, 1978 enrollment of 11,709, was included because it offers a

single format orientation program. The students included from Annandale Campus formed the control group. Both campuses draw from similar geographic pools and have comparable student populations.

The average age of students at Loudoun Campus is 30 years. Over half of the students are 25 or older. Sixty-six percent of the students are women, and 34% are men. Most students at Loudoun Campus are attending part-time. Only 22% are enrolled as full-time students. Seventy-two percent of the students have not officially enrolled in a degree program. Thirty-nine percent attend classes only during the day, 38% attend only evenings and weekends, and 23% attend both times.

The average age of students at the Annandale Campus is 27. Fifty-five percent of the students are women and 45% are men. Only 33% are enrolled as full-time students. Forty-eight percent attend classes only during the day, 34% attend only evenings and weekends, and 18% attend both times.

Orientation is a one credit course that is required for all degree programs. Students are encouraged, but not required, to take the course during their first quarter at NVCC. Each campus structures orientation differently, but in all cases the course is taught by a counselor and is scheduled for a total of ten class hours. Self-instructional courses are co-ordinated by a counselor and designed to require ten hours to complete.

Loudoun Campus has had a continually evolving orientation program. The campus originally offered a standard format course that focused on information about the college and the campus. This devel-

oped into a single format course which emphasized both college information and personal growth. Since 1975, the campus has been offering, through different overall structures, a variety of orientation sections from which students could self-select the section most appropriate for their needs. In the 1977-78 academic year, 10 different orientation options were offered in addition to the Extended Learning Institute's correspondence course. (See Table 3 for a summary of sections offered during the 1977-78 academic year.) Some sections were offered only one quarter during the year and others were offered several quarters. No section was offered more than one time in any given quarter. Enrollment in the sections ranged from 2 to 129 with the median enrollment being 14. Four of the sections were repeated fall, 1978, and were included in this study as part of the experimental treatment.

Orientation at Annandale Campus is based on the philosophy that all new students have similar needs regardless of age, educational or work experience, etc. All orientation sections offered at Annandale Campus follow a prescribed format with identical course requirements.

#### Sample

During Fall Quarter, 1978, 12 different orientation sections were offered at the Loudoun Campus. (See Table 4.) Except for two sections which were specifically designated for students in certain classes, any student could register for any orientation section. Students were also able to take orientation at any of the four other campuses or as a correspondence course from the Extended Learning

Table 3

## Enrollment for Loudoun Campus Orientation Offerings for 1977-78

Course Title	Quarter Offered			
	Fall	Winter	Spring	Summer
Self-Instructional Orientation <sup>a</sup>	129	44	17	19
College Survival <sup>a</sup>	14 <sup>b</sup>	13 <sup>b</sup>	c	
Women Returning to School <sup>a</sup>	14 <sup>b</sup>			
Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students <sup>a</sup>		16 <sup>b</sup>		
Efficient Reading	31	11	11	11
Microcounseling	9 <sup>b</sup>	c	c	
Experiences Through Volunteering	6		2	
Survey of Career Options	22 <sup>b</sup>			
Career Explorations	16 <sup>b</sup>			
Planning Workshop for Horticulture Students		12		

<sup>a</sup>Indicates orientation sections which were repeated Fall, 1978, and included in this study.

<sup>b</sup>Course was filled and closed to further enrollment.

<sup>c</sup>Course was cancelled due to insufficient enrollment.

Table 4

Enrollment for Loudoun Campus Orientation Offerings for Fall, 1978

Course Title	Enrollment
Self-Instructional Orientation <sup>a</sup>	73
College Survival <sup>a</sup>	13 <sup>b</sup> (8/25/78)
Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students <sup>a</sup>	24 <sup>c</sup>
Orientation for Women Returning to School <sup>a</sup>	16 <sup>b</sup> (9/21/78)
Orientation for Second Career Adults <sup>a,d</sup>	8
Planning Workshop for Horticulture Students	15
Planning Workshop for Secretarial Science Students <sup>d</sup>	10
Microcounseling	12 <sup>b</sup> (9/6/78)
Career Exploration	15 <sup>b</sup> (9/11/78)
Orientation for Students in Verbal Studies Lab (ENGL 01-02L) <sup>d</sup>	3
Orientation for Students in Reading Improvement (ENGL 08-01L) <sup>d</sup>	4
Efficient Reading	17

<sup>a</sup>Indicates sections included in this study.

<sup>b</sup>Course was filled and closed to further enrollment (date course closed).

<sup>c</sup>Course was closed 9/11/78 but re-opened 9/21/78.

<sup>d</sup>New orientation offering.

Institute. Enrollment in the sections varied from 3 to 73. The median enrollment was 14.

Students registered for whichever orientation course they desired during the Fall Quarter registration period from August 21 through October 3. A brief description of each section was included in the schedule of classes which was bulk mailed to all northern Virginia residents. More complete descriptions were included in an orientation hand-out for interested students available at information locations on campus. It is possible that as some sections filled and were closed to further enrollment, students registered for their second or third choice orientation. Two students indicated on their demographic questionnaire that they were not in their first choice class.

All students who were aged 25 or older and registered for Orientation for Women Returning to School, College Survival, Orientation for Second Career Adults, and Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students were automatically a part of the experimental group. Students in the Self-Instructional Orientation who were aged 25 or older received a special instructional packet for their orientation explaining that a study was being done concerning adult students and encouraging them to take part. The instructions indicated that if they wished to take part they needed to complete the initial steps during the first week of classes.

A total of 43 adult students were included in the experimental group. (See Table 5.) The mean age of the students in the group was 34.8. Sixteen percent of the students were male and 84% were

Table 5

Distribution of Sample by Course, Age, and Sex

Age	Experimental Group											Control Group						
	Information-giving/Skill-building						Personal Growth											
	Int. Des.			Self-Instr.			Coll. Surv.			Women Ret.					2nd Career			
	M	F	Tot	M	F	Tot	M	F	Tot	M	F				Tot	M	F	Tot
25 - 29	1	1		2	2		1	1		3	3		1	1	2	8	7	15
30 - 34	6	6		1	1	2				6	6		2	2	4	1	6	7
35 - 39	1	1					2	2		4	4			1	1	3	9	12
40 - 44	2	2														2	1	3
45 - 49	2	2							1	1			1	1			3	3
50 - 54	1	1														1	2	3
55 and over	1	1																
Total	14	14		1	3	4	3	3		14	14		3	5	8	15	28	43

female. Twenty-six percent of the students were currently employed full-time; 14% were employed part-time; 11% were in current volunteer work; and 47% were not currently employed. Ninety-three percent of the total, however, had some work experience. Most of the students, 79%, were enrolled part-time and only 21% were full-time.

A total of 25 orientation sections were offered fall, 1978, at the Annandale Campus. Four of these were selected for inclusion as a control group on relevance. All students in the classes completed the questionnaires, but only those students aged 25 or older were included in the group. A total of 43 students were in the control group. Thirty-five percent of the students were male, and 65% were female. Forty-nine percent of the students were currently employed full-time; 21% were employed part-time; 9% were in current volunteer work; and 21% were not currently employed. Ninety-three percent of the total had some work experience. Most of the students, 72% were enrolled part-time and only 28% were full-time.

#### Treatment

Each orientation section included in the experimental group was different in content and objectives; however, they could be grouped into two areas: information-giving/skill-building sections and personal growth sections. The three information/skill courses were Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students, Self-Instructional Orientation, and College Survival. The two personal growth sections were Orientation for Women Returning to School and Orientation for Second Career Adults. All sections were offered during the regular fall quarter of 1978, as the one credit orientation

course required for completion of all degrees. Each orientation section included in the study will be described briefly. Course objectives for each section in the experimental group and major topics for the sections in the control group are provided in the appendices (E - J).

#### Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students

This section was offered specifically for students who had already decided upon the interior design curriculum or who were seriously contemplating such a decision and desired more information about the curriculum and the career field. Interior design students were not required to take this section and were free to enroll in any orientation section they chose. The section was co-taught by the author and the program head for interior design. It met one afternoon each week for the first five weeks of the quarter. Twenty-four students were enrolled in the course. Course objectives are provided in Appendix E.

#### College Survival

This section met one night a week for the first six weeks of the quarter. The course was instructor-centered with an emphasis on information giving and skill teaching. Time was allowed each evening, however, for students to share those individual techniques which they had found workable or information that particularly helped them in relation to that evening's topic. Thirteen students were registered for the class. Course objectives are provided in Appendix F.

#### Self-Instructional Orientation

This section did not have any regularly scheduled class meetings.

Students met with the instructor at any one of three introductory meetings during the first week of classes or individually if none of the three times was convenient. At the introductory meeting an instructional packet was given to each student; a brief overview of the course, its requirements, and the relevant due dates were given; and students were able to ask any questions they had about the course. No content instruction was given at the meetings. The course had six required activities that were of an information nature. One activity required that students meet with a counselor. Students were free to choose any counselor for that activity. To raise their grades, students could complete one, two, or three optional activities. Optional activities were predominantly skill building and in some cases information seeking activities such as: study skills project, vocabulary project, career information project, etc. All reports on optional activities and a form indicating completion of required activities were submitted to the author for review. Course objectives are provided in Appendix G.

#### Orientation for Women Returning to School

This orientation section was described in the schedule and in the orientation hand-out as directed specifically to the needs of adult women who were returning to school. Younger students, who were coming to the community college immediately from their high school experience or very soon thereafter, were actively discouraged from enrolling in the course. The section met one hour per week for ten weeks. The course was a discussion based, sharing oriented course with an enrollment of 16 women. The instructor acted as a resource

and discussion facilitator rather than as an active provider of factual information and solutions. Women were encouraged to learn from each other and to seek new solutions or perspectives together. Course objectives are provided in Appendix H.

#### Orientation for Second Career Adults

This course met one night a week for six weeks. The course was specifically designated in the course schedule and in the orientation hand-out as being for adult students. Younger students were actively discouraged from enrolling. The course was structured much like the Orientation for Women Returning to School, with the instructor acting as a resource and discussion facilitator. Eight students were enrolled in the class. They were encouraged to work together to understand common problems and achieve a resolution of conflicts using skills they had developed over their adult years. Course objectives are provided in Appendix I.

#### Control Group

These four classes were offered at the Annandale Campus. Each met for one hour a week for ten weeks. The classes had a large group presentation format that was instructor centered. Two of the classes were taught by one counselor and the other two by a second counselor; however all four classes covered the same material and had the same course requirements. A locally written text was used with all four classes. The main topics covered in the course are provided in Appendix J.

### Data Gathering and Instrumentation

Four types of data were used in this study: demographic information, personality inventory results, self-reported degree of relevance of the orientation course, and follow-up data concerning student retention.

During the first week of classes all students in the experimental group completed the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and a demographic questionnaire asking for background information. A copy of this questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

The EPPS was chosen for several reasons. First it has been widely demonstrated as a valuable research and counseling tool. Second, the emphasis on the need element of the scores was particularly appropriate for this study because the relevance of a particular orientation course would be related to the needs of the individual. Finally, the EPPS has wide usage with adult education re-entry programs in the northern Virginia area. A number of potential students, therefore, may already have recent EPPS scores. By using the same instrument, the results of this study will have greater applicability for these future students.

The EPPS includes 15 scales: achievement, affiliation, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality, and aggression. A description of each of these scales is included in Appendix A. Test-retest reliability coefficients for the 15 scales as reported by Edwards (1959) range from .74 to .88. A number of studies have indicated that the EPPS has sufficient validity for selection purposes

particularly when used in conjunction with counseling. A more complete discussion of the EPPS is included in Chapter 2.

A brief group interpretation of the EPPS scores was included in the class time. Students were given the option of an additional individual appointment for a more complete interpretation. Only three students chose to make a follow-up appointment.

During the last class meeting of each orientation section, the students completed an additional questionnaire which measured the degree of relevance of the orientation course to the individual student as reported by the student. The concept of relevance was limited to the appropriateness of the content for the student's current needs, interests, and situation as defined by the student. Items were written in a statement form following the criteria for attitude scale development given by Edwards (1957) and Likert (1967). Student response was given on a four point Likert scale. The questionnaire was field-tested and a split-half reliability of .96 was computed. Individual items which were not consistent with the separation of high and low total scores or which were consistent but did not add to the discriminating ability of the instrument were discarded. The questionnaire was reviewed in its early stages and its final form by an educational research and evaluation specialist. A copy of the relevance questionnaire is in Appendix C.

The relevance questionnaire was also completed by adult students in four orientation sections offered at the Annandale Campus of NVCC to form a control group for comparison of relevancy responses. Use of the Annandale students as a control group provided a comparison

for the relevancy of orientation for students who were able to select an orientation option directly related to their needs vs. students in an orientation program that assumed that all students have similar needs and can best be served by the same course.

At the beginning of the winter quarter and the spring quarter, a check was made to determine if students in the experimental group had continued their enrollment at NVCC. Each student from any of the orientation courses who had not continued enrollment was contacted by the author for an interview to determine the cause for withdrawal. Students were asked why they had withdrawn or not re-enrolled. If the response was anything other than a purely personal situation, they were also asked what if anything the college could have done to help them remain in school. Students were asked specifically if any additions or changes in the orientation course could have provided some support to stay in school. Finally, students were asked if they anticipated re-enrolling at some future date. A follow-up check was made on those students who had withdrawn prior to or during the winter quarter to see if they had re-enrolled for the spring quarter.

#### Data Analysis

The analysis of the collected data was directed toward (a) comparing the degree of relevance reported by the control group and by students in the experimental group, (b) comparing the retention rates for the experimental group students reporting high and low relevance for their orientation course, and (c) investigating the relationship between the identified EPPS personality variables with

the relevance of the two experimental subgroups.

Background information was summarized in order to characterize the sample. Because the students selected their own orientation options, the sample could not be defined in advance of the study other than as adults aged 25 and older enrolled in the orientation sections included in the study.

The testing of the hypothesis required a division between high relevance scores and low relevance scores. The relevance questionnaire had a possible point range of 16 to 64. A student answering each of the 16 questions in a negative fashion (1 = strongly disagree and/or 2 = disagree) would have scored between 16 and 32 inclusive (after converting for negatively stated items). A student answering each question in a positive fashion (3 = agree and/or 4 = strongly agree) would have scored between 48 and 64 inclusive. It was originally thought that the low relevance scores would be defined as those at 32 or below and the high relevance scores would be those at 48 or above. This division, however, would have included 24 students in the high relevance group and only one student in the low relevance group (with 18 students in the neutral group reporting 33 to 47). Because such a lopsided division was not practical for statistical comparison of groups, an alternative method was derived. The mean score for the experimental group was 49; the median was 48. These measures of central tendency, therefore, fell at the point dividing those students reporting all positive responses (agree and strongly agree) from students reporting some or all negative responses. Therefore, the cut-off used to separate high scores from low for this

study was 48, i.e., all scores of 48 and above were considered high scores and all scores of 47 and below were considered low scores. The resulting distribution of scores was 24 in the high category and 19 in the low category.

To test hypothesis one (p. 56), the mean relevance score of students in the experimental group was compared to the mean relevance score of students in the control group using a t-test for independent groups.

To test hypothesis two (p. 56), the retention rates were determined for the experimental group as a whole as well as for each of four subgroups: high and low relevance reporters for information/skill and high and low relevance reporters for personal growth classes. Separate rates were computed for the winter quarter, the spring quarter, and the academic year. The retention rates for high relevance reporters were compared to those of low relevance reporters for the total group as well as within each of the subgroups, using a chi square analysis.

Hypothesis three (p. 56) involved the relationship of the EPPS personality variables with the reported relevance of the two subgroups of the experimental group. Factors which were significant determinants of relevance for each subgroup were identified and weighted through multiple regression analysis. It should be noted that the low intercorrelations of the EPPS scales due to the ipsative construction result in an apparent greater significance with multiple regression analysis. The EPPS scales appear statistically more independent than they actually are.

Because of the small sample size and because of the ipsative nature of the EPPS, it was necessary to limit the number of EPPS variables to be included in the multiple regression procedure. A number of different procedures were used to identify the variables to be included. The review of the literature, particularly that portion related to adult developmental stages and tasks suggested several EPPS variables that might be appropriate predictors. As a second procedure, a zero order correlation matrix including all 15 EPPS variables and the relevance scores for all experimental group participants was constructed. The author derived a list of variables providing the highest correlation with the relevance scores and the lowest intercorrelation. Finally a number of multiple regression tests with step-wise inclusion were run for the information-giving/skill-building subgroup and for the personal growth subgroup. These trial regression analyses were done to identify the best possible prediction equation with the minimum number of variables. The variables suggested by the multiple regression were generally consistent with those suggested by the literature. The EPPS variables achievement, autonomy, deference, and succorance were identified as the EPPS predictors for the multiple regression for information-giving/skill-building students. The EPPS variables autonomy, change, deference, nurturance, and order were identified as the EPPS predictors for the multiple regression for personal growth students.

#### Chapter Summary

This study investigated the relevance of community college orientation for adult students. The population and sample have been

described within this chapter.

Students in the experimental group self-selected their own orientation option from among the 12 sections offered. The five sections directed toward the needs of adult students were included in this group and could be described as either information-giving/skill-building or personal growth courses. All participating students completed the EPPS and a demographic questionnaire at the beginning of the course and a questionnaire on the relevance of the course content at the end of the course.

A t-test was used to compare the reported relevance of the experimental group to the reported relevance of a control group of adult students enrolled in an orientation program in which no special interest options were available. The retention rates for subsequent quarters for experimental group participants reporting high relevance and those reporting low relevance were compared to study the relationship between relevance and retention.

To provide a possible means of prediction of relevance for future students, the relationship between EPPS personality variables and the level of relevance for each of the orientation categories was investigated using multiple regression analysis.

The results of the study are reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4  
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study has been to investigate the relevance of two forms of community college orientation for adult students. Five different orientation sections were classified as information-giving/skill-building courses or as personal growth courses based on the course objectives.

Adult students in each of the five courses, the experimental group, took part in the study by completing a demographic questionnaire and a personality inventory in the beginning of the course and a questionnaire on the relevance of the course to their individual needs at the end of the course. The responses of the participants, who had self-selected their own orientation course, were compared to the responses of the control group participants who were not given the opportunity to select an orientation section from among several options.

Retention rates within the experimental group and within the experimental subgroups were compared between high relevance reporting students and low relevance reporting students. In addition, selected personality variables were investigated for possible relation with the relevance scores. Evidence of a relationship would allow for prediction of course relevance based on personality inventory results.

All of the statistical aspects were completed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Brent, 1975). Analysis of data was tested at the .05 level of

significance as that was considered a sufficient level for research of this nature. The results of the study by hypothesis follow.

#### Hypothesis One

H<sub>1</sub>: Adult students who are free to choose their own orientation option will rate their orientation course as more relevant than adult students who are not free to choose their own orientation option

The adults in the experimental group chose their orientation sections from among 12 options (only five of those were included in the study). In order for the possibility of choice to have had a positive impact, students would need to have their first choice option available. Forty-one of the 43 participants indicated on the demographic questionnaire that they had been able to enroll in their first choice orientation course. Thirty-three of the 43 participants indicated that they chose their orientation course because of the course content and seven indicated that their choice was based on course structure (two indicated the convenient time of the course and one indicated "other").

The control group was composed of 43 adults enrolled in four orientation sections offered at the Annandale Campus of NVCC. All orientation sections at that campus have the same content and structure. Students therefore had essentially only a choice of different times. These students completed the same demographic and relevance questionnaires as the study participants.

The relevance questionnaire was composed of 16 questions with the

response for each question ranging from (one) "strongly disagree" to (four) "strongly agree." The possible score range therefore was 16 to 64. The difference between the means (49.28 for the experimental group and 41.53 for the control group) was evaluated using a t-test for independent groups and was found to be significant at beyond the .05 level ( $p = .0005$ ). (See Table 6 for the complete results.)

This hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

### Hypothesis Two

H<sub>2</sub>: Students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than students who rate their course as low in relevance.

All experimental group participants were separated into two subgroups based on their relevance score. Students with a score of 48 to 64 were defined as students who rated their course as very relevant and students with a score of 16 to 47 were defined as students who rated their course as low in relevance. (See Chapter 3 for a more complete explanation of this division.) The retention rates for the high relevance reporters and the low relevance reporters were computed for the winter quarter, the spring quarter, and the academic year (retention through the winter and spring quarters).

The independence of these two groups was tested using the Yate's corrected chi square procedure. The strength of the relationship was tested using the phi statistic which ranges from zero (no relationship) to one (perfect relationship).

The winter, spring, and academic year retention rates for all high relevance reporters were compared to the rates for all low

Table 6

Comparison of Relevance Scores for Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean <sup>a</sup>	Standard Deviation	<u>t</u> value	<u>p</u> <sup>b</sup>
Experimental Group	43	49.28	8.5	3.61	.0005
Control Group	43	41.53	11.2		

<sup>a</sup>Possible range of 16 to 64

<sup>b</sup>One-tailed, directional test

relevance reporters. The resulting chi square values did not meet the required critical level for significance at the .05 level. (See Table 7 for specific data.) The differences in the retention rates for the entire experimental group were not statistically significant, and therefore this hypothesis was rejected.

$H_{2a}$ : Information-giving/skill-building students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than those information-giving/skill-building students who rate their course as low in relevance.

The same analysis procedure was followed for this subgroup of the experimental group as was used with the total group. The winter, spring, and academic year retention rates for all high relevance reporters and for all low relevance reporters in this subgroup were compared. The resulting chi square values did not meet the required critical level for significance at the .05 level. (See Table 8 for specific data.) The differences in the retention rates for the information-giving/skill-building students were not statistically significant, and therefore this subhypothesis was rejected.

$H_{2b}$ : Personal growth students who rate their orientation course as very relevant will have a higher retention rate than those personal growth students who rate their course as low in relevance.

The same analysis procedure was again followed for this subgroup. The winter, spring, and academic year retention rates for all high

Table 7

## Comparison of Retention Rates for the Experimental Group

Group	N	Retention											
		Winter				Spring				Year			
		N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value
High Relevance	24	20	83	.00076ns	.05597	20	83	1.33149ns	.22963	17	71	.04233ns	.08134
Low Relevance	19	15	79			12	63			12	63		
Total	43	35	81			32	74			29	67		

Note. ns = not significant at the .05 level.

Table 8

## Comparison of Retention Rates for Information/Skill Subgroup

Group		Retention											
		Winter				Spring				Year			
		N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value
High Relevance	7	4	57	.26250ns	.22361	5	71	.02679ns	.07143	3	43	.21875ns	.20412
Low Relevance	14	11	79			9	64			9	64		
Total	21	15	71			14	67			12	57		

Note. ns = not significant at the .05 level.

relevance reporters and for all low relevance reporters in this subgroup were compared. The resulting chi square values did not meet the required critical level for significance at the .05 level. (See Table 9 for specific data.) The differences in the retention rates for the personal growth students were not statistically significant, and therefore this subhypothesis was rejected.

### Hypothesis Three

H<sub>3a</sub>: Using relevance as the criterion, it will be possible to develop a statistically significant prediction equation for information-giving/skill-building students given selected EPPS variables.

The multiple regression procedure with step-wise inclusion was performed to determine a predictive equation for relevance using the four EPPS scores: achievement, autonomy, deference, and succorance. (See Table 10.) Succorance was entered into the formula first with a simple  $r$  of  $-.44$ , explaining 19.1% of the variance. Autonomy, achievement, and deference were entered in that order. The final multiple  $R$  was  $.76$ , explaining 58% of the variance. The reported  $F$  value was 5.533, significant at beyond the .05 level. The regression of relevance for information-giving/skill-building students on all the variables entered was therefore statistically significant, and this subhypothesis was accepted.

H<sub>3b</sub>: Using relevance as the criterion, it will be possible to develop a statistically significant prediction equation for personal growth students given selected EPPS variables.

Table 9

## Comparison of Retention Rates for Personal Growth Subgroup

Group		Retention											
		Winter				Spring				Year			
		N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value	N	%	Chi Value	Phi Value
High Relevance	17	16	94	.00647ns	.20580	15	88	.60752ns	.30679	14	82	.19466ns	.22353
Low Relevance	5	4	80			3	60			3	60		
Total	22	20	91			18	82			17	77		

Note. ns = not significant at the .05 level.

Table 10

Prediction of Orientation Course Relevance Based on  
Selected EPPS Variables for Information-giving/Skill-building Subgroup

Variable	Multiple R	Simple <u>r</u>	Beta
Succorance	.43706	-.43706	-.60386
Autonomy	.54140	-.21507	-.59745
Achievement	.70468	.09971	.62766
Deference	.76185	.38067	.32948

Final Multiple R Square: .58042

F value: 5.533 (p = .01)

The multiple regression procedure with step-wise inclusion was again used to derive an equation for predicting relevance by the five EPPS variables: autonomy, change, deference, nurturance, and order. (See Table 11.) Deference was entered into the formula first with a simple  $r$  of .42, explaining 17.6% of the variance. Change, nurturance, order, and autonomy followed in that order. The final multiple R was .72, explaining 52.5% of the variance. Therefore, the regression of relevance for personal growth orientation courses on all the variables entered was statistically significant, and this subhypothesis was accepted.

#### Chapter Summary

The three hypotheses were tested using the SPSS procedures. The first hypothesis, that the experimental group would rate their orientation course as more relevant than the control group, was accepted. The second hypothesis, that the students reporting high relevance would have a higher retention rate than those reporting low relevance, was rejected for the total experimental group and for the two subgroups: information-giving/skill-building students and personal growth students. The third hypothesis, that relevance scores for the two subgroups can be predicted by the EPPS variables was accepted. Further discussion of these results is included in Chapter 5.

Table 11

Prediction of Orientation Course Relevance Based on  
Selected EPPS Variables for Personal Growth Subgroup

Variable	Multiple R	Simple <u>r</u>	Beta
Deference	.42027	.42047	.21756
Change	.49202	-.38169	-.64491
Nurturance	.55168	-.16007	-.71024
Order	.67213	.04612	-.67927
Autonomy	.72492	-.28878	-.36551

Final Multiple R Square: .52550

F Value: 3.544 (p = .05)

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relevance of community college orientation courses for adult students. Two major aspects were included. First was the impact of providing a variety of orientation courses from among which students could choose their desired course. Second was the possibility of predicting the relevance of a particular orientation option for an adult student.

The study included five orientation classes which were categorized as either personal growth oriented or information-giving/skill-building oriented. The adult students in these classes completed the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, a demographic questionnaire, and, at the end of the course, a questionnaire on the relevance of the orientation course.

Hypotheses were formulated to test the assumptions of the study that (a) adult students who had a choice from among several options would find their course more relevant than adult students who had no choice, (b) adult students who rated their orientation course as highly relevant would have a greater tendency to re-enroll in subsequent quarters than students who did not rate their course as highly relevant, and (c) a regression equation could be developed to predict the relevance of different orientation options for adult students using the EPPS scores.

This final chapter includes a discussion of the results of each

of these hypotheses as well as other results not directly related to the hypotheses, the conclusions drawn by the author based on these results, and recommendations for the application of the results and for additional research related to this study.

### Discussion

#### Hypothesis One

One of the strongest points made in the literature related to adult learners is the variety of their needs. As has been demonstrated in the review of the literature, the different developmental stages represented by adult students in community colleges as well as their great diversity of background result in a broad range of needs for these adult learners. By extension it would, therefore, seem incumbent upon community colleges to offer as broad a range of opportunities both inside and outside of the classroom so that adult students can work on their student and adult developmental needs. Given the nature of the orientation course as it is defined at Northern Virginia Community College, an obvious place to begin meeting these diverse needs is through orientation. The natural conclusion is that community colleges which offer an orientation course should offer a variety of options with different contents and different structures rather than one universal orientation.

To test the truth of this hypothesis, this study compared the reported orientation relevance of adult students who had no options from which they could select with the reported relevance of those adult students who had an option. As has been indicated, students who had a choice of orientation classes had a significantly higher

mean relevance score ( $p = .0005$ ). This evidence forms the essential foundation for the additional aspects of the study.

An extensive list of the particular needs of adult learners has been suggested in Chapter 2. These needs were defined as barriers for adults returning to school and were divided into three categories: those represented by needs for specific services that the college can supply; those represented by more subjective personal needs; and those which derive from the value orientation of the individuals. Just as different adults may be at different developmental stages or may experience the same developmental stage in a different way, different adults face different barriers when returning to school. Some adults may need specific information or skills such as financial aid information or time scheduling skills. Other adults may need help in building their self-confidence or coping with held-over math fears. Providing a variety of orientation options allows the adult student to identify his or her own most pressing needs. The evidence of this hypothesis supports the logical conclusion that if a student can choose what she or he wants, it will probably be more relevant.

The standard deviation for the control group was 11.202 compared to 8.5 for the experimental group. This difference in standard deviations may indicate that a single format orientation which has been designed to meet everyone's needs, or at least to meet the needs of most of the students, will result in meeting the needs of some students quite well and missing the needs of others completely. In such a situation the variance for the scores would, as was the case, be greater than the variance for an orientation that was directed toward

a narrower sample of the population. The difference between the variances, although not significant at the .05 level, is approaching significance ( $p = .07$ ).

Further investigation of the relevance scores indicates more important differences than those mentioned. While there is indeed a significant difference between the mean relevance scores for the control group and the experimental group, there is also a significant difference between the mean scores of the two subgroups within the sample. The mean score for the information/skill subgroup was 45.05, and the mean score for the personal growth subgroup was 53.32. This difference is significant at beyond the .05 level ( $p = .001$ ). A comparison of the mean scores for the control group (41.53) and for the information/skill subgroup (45.05) indicates that there is no significant difference ( $p = .10$ ).

One element in the mean score for the information/skill subgroup is the four students in the Self-Instructional Orientation. This orientation, because it had no class meetings, no personal contact among students, and very limited personal contact between students and the instruction, represents a very different type of course than the other four orientation classes. It is not possible to determine if the low relevance scores for this class (mean score = 37.75) was a response to the instructional methodology (self-instructional) or to the instructional content (information-giving/skill-building). For this reason, a further analysis was completed comparing the personal growth subgroup mean score with the information/skill subgroup mean score leaving out the scores for the self-instructional class. The personal growth subgroup mean score was still significantly higher

( $p = .008$ ). A comparison of the mean score of the control group and the mean score of the information/skill subgroup without the self-instructional class indicated that the information/skill mean was higher at beyond the .05 level of significance ( $p = .04$ ). These data are provided in Table 12.

It is clear that the personal growth content is a significant element in relevance. It is not as clear how significant the choice of options is. Within the classification of personal growth courses, students had a choice between Women Returning to School, Second Career Adults, and other personal growth courses which were not included in the study because they were not directed specifically toward adults. Most of the students in the personal growth courses chose their particular course because of the course content. Only one of the four students in the Self-Instructional Orientation chose that course because of the content. When the students in the Self-Instructional Orientation are removed from the information/skill subgroup, that subgroup has a significantly higher mean score than the control group. The author's subjective impression is that adults prefer having a choice for orientation, including presumably an option that may be less relevant but more logistically simple from a scheduling perspective.

The emphasis on personal growth content in orientation courses has some strong support in the literature. Eckard (1977) in her identification of developmental tasks of adult women students included many tasks that would be classified as personal growth related. A few of these tasks are "making decisions about educational alterna-

Table 12

Comparison of Relevance Mean Scores Including and Excluding the Self-Instructional Orientation Group

Group	Including Self-Instructional				Excluding Self-Instructional			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Information/skill subgroup	45.05	7.9	1.29	.10 <sup>a</sup>	46.76	7.6	1.77	.04 <sup>a</sup>
Control Group	41.53	11.2			41.53	11.2		
Information/Skill Subgroup	45.05	7.9	3.62	.001 <sup>b</sup>	46.76	7.6	2.78	.008 <sup>b</sup>
Personal Growth Subgroup	53.32	7.0			53.32	7.0		

<sup>a</sup>Directional probability

<sup>b</sup>Non-directional probability

tives which will lead to desirable future goals;" "organizing physical, emotional, and intellectual space in order to meet both her own needs and the needs of those to whom she has made commitments;" "redefining relationships with those to whom she has made commitments (i.e., husband, children, parents, friends);" and "maintaining or building friendships with persons who can serve as support systems" (p. 18 -

Levinson (1987) in his study of the adult development of men identified the developmental stages as alternating periods of stability and transition.

The primary task of every stable period is to build a life structure: a man must make certain key choices, form a structure around them, and pursue his goals and values within this structure . . . . The primary tasks of every transitional period are to question and reappraise the existing structure, to explore various possibilities for change in self and world, and to move toward commitment to the crucial choices that form the basis for a new life structure in the ensuing stable period. (p. 49)

The primary tasks facing both men and women throughout their development are, therefore, personal growth related. To the extent that orientation will deal with these life tasks, it should be a personal growth directed course. For those students who find their primary needs in these areas of life structure building, values clarification, life goal planning, etc., a personal growth orientation course will be relevant.

A number of community colleges have experimented with an orientation course that could be classified as personal growth. The three hour human development module offered at North Shore Community College and Leicester Junior College (Del Prete & Waterhouse, 1973), "The Individual in a Changing Environment" orientation course offered at

Sante Fe Junior College (O'Banion, 1969), and the women's re-entry courses offered at Moorpark Community College (Elliot & Mantz, 1976) are examples of personal growth courses included in the literature.

However, even in these cases, generally no choice among courses is offered. More emphasis has been placed on providing a variety of experiences within a single orientation course than on offering a variety of courses.

### Hypothesis Two

One possible effect of a relevant orientation course would be that the students would be more apt to continue at the college in subsequent quarters. The hypothesis is that a relevant orientation course will enable the student to deal more effectively with potential barriers to future enrollment: scholastic, emotional, financial, etc. As has been noted, this hypothesis was rejected for the total group and for the two subgroups. Many factors, in addition to the relevance of an orientation course, may affect a student's subsequent enrollment. For any student, the list of possible reasons could include such personal factors as changes in job hours or job responsibilities, changes in educational or personal goals, job transfer to a different geographic area, health problems, travel conditions (some students do not attend during the winter when travel may be hazardous), and changes in financial status. For adult students, many of whom have families and other responsibilities, the list of possible reasons is further compounded to include the job, health, and financial status of spouse and family. Given the multitude of factors that may affect a student's

continued enrollment, it is not surprising that this hypothesis was rejected.

The hypothesis as stated compared those reporting high relevance with those reporting low relevance. A separate analysis comparing the proportion of personal growth students who re-enrolled with the proportion of information/skill students who re-enrolled indicated a significant difference. A test of the significance of the difference between two independent proportions which results in a  $z$  value was computed. Seventy-one percent of the information/skill students registered for the winter quarter compared to 91% of the personal growth students with a resulting  $z$  value of 2.96 ( $p = .01$ ). Sixty-seven percent of the information/skill students registered for the spring quarter compared to 82% of the personal growth students with a resulting  $z$  value of 1.96 ( $p = .05$ ). Fifty-seven percent of the information/skill students registered for the entire year (both winter and spring quarters) compared to 77% of the personal growth students with a resulting  $z$  value of 2.32 ( $p = .05$ ). The data indicate that although relevance does not have a significant effect on retention, the type of orientation does. Students who completed the personal growth orientation had a higher retention rate than other students in the study. The higher retention rates for the personal growth subgroup again emphasize the relevance of this course material for the adult students. Several possible explanations can be presented. Because all adults are facing personal growth related developmental tasks, it is possible that these students who experienced the personal growth content found themselves better prepared to cope with the

specific college related concerns of being a student. Those students in information/skill courses, on the other hand, may not have been able to cope with the personal growth related concerns. In other words, when both types of concerns are present, personal growth concerns will be the primary. Another possible explanation is that because of the sharing nature of the personal growth courses, students felt more a part of a group and developed a stronger identity with the college. The many factors affecting retention, however, make it difficult to derive any conclusions.

A separate comparison was made of the retention rates of the students in the experimental group and of the college as a whole. Of the 31,327 students enrolled at NVCC for the fall quarter, 58.2% enrolled in the winter quarter, 48.6% enrolled in the spring quarter, and 43.2% enrolled in both winter and spring quarters. The total experimental group had significantly higher retention rates for each of these periods. Those participants in the total experimental group reporting high relevance also had significantly higher retention rates for each of these periods. The students in the experimental group reporting low relevance, however, did not have retention rates that were significantly different from those of the college as a whole. This evidence would seem to support the original hypothesis that students with a highly relevant orientation course would have a higher retention rate. Two cautions must be noted. First, students who take orientation tend to be students who are seeking a degree rather than those intending to take a few courses. One would expect to find a higher retention rate for degree students than for non-degree stu-

dents. Second, because the personal growth orientation subgroup had a higher relevance and retention rate than the information/skill subgroup, the distinctions here between high and low relevance reporters may be simply the differences between the personal growth students and information/skill students.

Several studies have used student retention in school as one of the evaluative criteria for an orientation program. Rising (1967) used continued enrollment in engineering as the sole criterion for evaluating an orientation to the engineering program at the University of Massachusetts. He found that the orientation program increased the probability that a student would continue. Garneski and Heimann (1967) found that students who completed a summer orientation course had a significantly lower drop-out rate for the first and second semesters than students who had no orientation. Rothman and Leonard (1967) found no significant difference in attrition between students who completed an orientation course and students who did not take any orientation. None of these studies provided the age level of the students or whether they were part-time or full-time students.

A telephone follow-up of students who did not re-enroll was conducted to determine if their orientation course could have been more helpful or in any way affected their not returning. Of the 14 students who did not re-enroll for the winter quarter, spring quarter, or both, the author was able to contact nine. None indicated that the orientation course could have in any way prevented their reasons for not returning. Most students did not return because of their health

or because the family moved (three students each). One student was forced to withdraw and return to work due to interruption of veterans' benefits and increasing debt. Three students who did not return in the winter quarter did enroll for the spring quarter.

As an aside, the telephone follow-up appeared to meet a need quite separate from that related to the study. Students who left the college with some anger against the college or its personnel were able to express that anger and in some cases were able to gain a different perspective on the incident. Some students seemed very pleased with the personal interest represented by a telephone call and spoke of returning in a future quarter. Telephone follow-up appears to be an effective though time-consuming retention tool. Community college administrators tend to assume that students, particularly part-time students, who attend for one or two quarters and then do not continue, have met the goals which motivated them to enroll. A telephone follow-up provides a personal way to test the validity of this assumption and to reverse the decision to drop-out or stop-out in some cases.

### Hypothesis Three

Two regression equations were derived using the data from the study. Although each of the equations can be considered significant based on the F value and accounts for more than 50% of the variance of the dependent variable, the relevance score; the equations were based on only 21 and 22 participants and should therefore be considered only preliminary in nature. Multiple regression equations are subject to change with different samples and with even slight changes in the variables included. Recognition of this inherent instability

makes the small sample size all the more critical.

Four variables, succorance, autonomy, achievement, and deference, were included in the regression equation for the information-giving/skill-building subgroup. Two of these four, succorance and autonomy, were negatively correlated with relevance. The beta weight, a standardized partial regression coefficient, can be viewed as the relative impact of the variables on the dependent variable, relevance. The variables in descending order by their beta weights are achievement (.62722), succorance (-.60386), autonomy (-.59745), and deference (.32948).

The information/skill courses (Self-Instructional Orientation, College Survival, and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students) were directed toward persons seeking specific information or skills. Areas included were school related information (financial aid, rules and regulations, administrative structure, etc.), school related skills (study skills, test taking skills, goal setting skills, etc.), and career information (job market, required qualifications, related program planning, etc.). The classes (except for the Self-Instructional Orientation) were predominately lecture and media presentations. Discussion was limited to the specific skills and information related to the class topic. Classes centered around information, not people and ideas.

It was expected that the adults who registered for these classes would be goal-oriented, task-structured people. Because they were students seeking college related skills to enable them to perform more successfully in college, it was assumed that they would be high or

moderate achievers. However, because most of the information and skills included in the class could be gained through reading the catalog or using the self-instructional materials in the learning laboratory, it was assumed that these persons would tend to be followers, preferring to have information and directions given to them than to have to seek it out.

The results of the multiple regression equation for the information/skill subgroup are partially inconsistent with the expected profile. It was expected that succorance would be positively correlated with relevance for this subgroup rather than the actual negative correlation. Autonomy, however, was negatively correlated with relevance as expected. This would seem to indicate that these students were not eager to be totally independent but nor did they want to go so far as to be passive recipients, coddled and cared for by an instructor or the college in general. Achievement had practically no correlation with relevance ( $r = .10$ ), but the beta weight of .62766 indicates that after the factors in common with succorance and autonomy have been partialled out, achievement does have a significant impact on the relevance score. This relationship would have been expected given the profile of the information/skill student. The positive correlation of deference with relevance follows the expected profile and is consistent with the negative correlation of autonomy. Students who rated their orientation as relevant valued receiving information and opinions from others.

Five variables, deference, change, nurturance, order, and autonomy, were included in the regression equation for the personal growth

subgroup. Three of these, change, nurturance, and autonomy, were negatively correlated with relevance. The variables in descending order by their beta weights are nurturance (-.71024), order (-.67927), change (-.64491), autonomy (-.36551), and deference (.21756).

The personal growth courses (Second Career Adults and Women Returning to School) were essentially exploratory and directed toward growth in the student's own human potential. Discussion topics were predominately those identified in the literature as potential barriers to developmental growth or successful emotional adjustment to school (e.g., strength and success identification, assertion training, handling stress, handling school-related guilt). Much of the class time was spent in a student sharing of concerns and personal solutions related to the topic. Many problems were raised and few definite answers were provided. Both of the courses were directed specifically to adults in the process of or anticipating change.

It was expected that the adults who would choose to take these courses and particularly the adults who would find the courses relevant to their needs would have some common characteristics. Presumably, they would be adults who were concerned with looking at their own motives, values, and needs. They would be adults who were conscious of the change going on in their lives and were taking control of themselves and the change. They would be sharing people, interested both in receiving ideas and feedback from others and in providing similar responses to their peers.

The results of the multiple regression are not completely consistent with the anticipated profile. Deference had the highest bi-

variate correlation with relevance. It would seem to indicate that those who rated their course as highly relevant did value the opinions of others and were concerned with receiving their input. Change was negatively correlated with relevance rather than the expected positive correlation. That may indicate that the persons who valued the course the most were those who did not seek the change but through some other circumstances had it forced on them (e.g., a recently divorced or widowed woman may need to return to school prior to seeking a job). Nurturance also was negatively correlated with relevance and may indicate that those persons who found the course highly relevant were at that point primarily concerned with themselves and not with the nurturance of children, spouses, coworkers, etc. There seems to be no logical explanation for the inclusion of order in the equation. Autonomy is a second variable that was negatively correlated with relevance when a positive correlation was expected. The autonomy scale includes freedom in decision making as well as freedom from conformity and the influence of others. Individuals who found the personal growth courses relevant were apparently more interested in the opinions of others and in receiving their influence.

Two variables were included in both regression equations. Autonomy was negatively correlated with relevance for both subgroups, and deference was positively correlated with relevance for both subgroups. These two variables may partially describe the persons who would tend to find orientation relevant regardless of the content or format. Adult students who are both high in deference and low in

autonomy would tend to want to receive ideas, suggestions, and directions from others and tend not to want to be set apart from their peer group of adult students.

The possibility that other variables might correlate significantly with relevance and lead to a skewed effect because of their distribution was considered. A Pearson's correlation was computed between relevance and sex, age, previous educational background, and the number of years since the most recent educational experience. The highest resulting correlation was with the number of years since the most recent educational experience ( $r = .27$ ) and the lowest correlation was with sex ( $r = -.03$ ). It was concluded that none of these variables was a significant factor in determining the relevance of the orientation course. A larger sample, however, may have shown a different relationship.

Sex was of particular concern because women and men tend to score differently on specific EPPS scales. Of the five scales on which men tend to score higher, two were included in the regression equation for the information/skill subgroup (achievement and autonomy) and one was included in the regression equation for the personal growth subgroup (autonomy). Of the seven scales on which women tend to score higher, two were included in the regression equation for the information/skill subgroup (deference and succorance) and three were included in the regression equation for the personal growth subgroup (deference, nurturance, and change). In other words, all four of the variables in the information/skill equation are generally scored differentially by men and women and four of the five variables in the

personal growth subgroup equation are generally scored differentially by men and women. Because the sample was predominately women, the regression equations generated by this study presumably are better predictors for women than for men.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the results of the research.

1. Adults are more apt to find an appropriate and relevant orientation program or course if they are provided with a selection from which they can choose their option based on content and/or format.

1a. Adults tend to find orientation courses which are directed toward personal growth more relevant than courses which emphasize information and skills.

2. Among adults, there is no evidence in this study that the possibility of choice of orientation options will lead to increased student retention.

2a. Adults who experience a personal growth orientation will have a higher retention rate than adults who experience information/skill orientations.

3. It is possible to predict the relevance of an orientation course for an adult student given EPPS variables.

3a. Adult students who score high on deference and achievement and low on autonomy and succorance on the EPPS will find information-giving/skill-building orientation courses more relevant.

3b. Adult students who score high on deference and low on change, nurturance, order, and autonomy will find personal growth orientation

courses more relevant.

4. Adult students do find orientation a meaningful course and colleges should continue to offer some form of orientation. The fact that the mean relevance score for the sample participants was 49 (possible range 16 to 64) indicated that most students felt positively about their orientation course.

5. Adults may be drawn to self-instructional orientation courses which provide them with the maximum in flexibility to fit college requirements into a busy schedule; however, they will tend to find these courses not as relevant as courses which offer the same content in a classroom setting.

#### Recommendations

The following recommendations for implementation of the results of this study and for future studies are based on the results of the study as well as the experiences of the author while carrying out the study.

1. Community colleges which offer an orientation program or course should offer a variety of options from which adult students may choose. The development of options should be done with careful consideration of the specific needs of adults at different stages of their lives, special characteristics of the community (e.g. high unemployment), and any special needs inherent in the structure or programs of the college.

2. Community colleges that offer an orientation program or course should place more emphasis on the personal growth elements that are or can be included in the program.

3. This study should be replicated with a larger sample and include additional settings. The sample of this study is of particular concern because (a) it did not include any racial minorities and therefore the applicability of the results to blacks and other minorities, who may have different needs or may approach similar needs in different ways, can not be tested; (b) the distribution by sex was very one-sided and necessarily leads to an uncertainty in data interpretation; (c) the small sample size resulted in insufficient numbers of adults in some courses; and (d) the small sample size makes the results of the multiple regression tentative and unstable. With only slight differences in a sample of this size, different EPPS variables may have been selected as relevance predictors and very different weights may have been assigned. This study should be considered of a preliminary nature; and until the results have been replicated, the regression equations should be applied with caution. A replication should also include the orientation course instructor as a variable. It is possible that different instructors with different skills and interests may lead to different results.

4. A study should be conducted to assess the ability of adults to predict their EPPS scores. The regression equations of the present study are useful only if one has EPPS raw scores. A demonstration that adults can predict their own scores given a description of what is measured by each variable would allow for a prediction of the relevance of an orientation course without actually taking the EPPS. No studies could be found which investigated a client's ability to predict EPPS scores. For the application of the results of this

study, however, only gross approximations (high, average, low) of scores would be needed. It is reasonable to assume, until such a study can be completed, that a counselor who is familiar with the 15 personality needs as Edwards defines them and capable of explaining these needs in terms readily understood by a prospective adult student and an adult with some willingness to explore his/her relative needs can predict with sufficient accuracy the adult's need level on the relevant variables. Even a fairly complete explanation of the EPPS variables, including consultation and exploration time, would require less time than actually taking and scoring the EPPS.

5. A study should be conducted to assess the effectiveness of telephone follow-up as a retention tool. Prior to the availability of the results of such a study, colleges should pursue the use of telephone follow-up particularly with students who have attended for more than one quarter and then failed to return.

#### Summary

This study investigated the relevance of two forms of orientation for adult students. It was concluded that colleges should offer options of a variety of orientation courses, but that adults will tend to find personal growth orientation courses more relevant. The relevance of the orientation course was found to have no effect on the student's subsequent enrollment; however, again personal growth students were more apt to continue in college than information-giving/skill-building students. Two regression equations were derived from the data of the study. It was concluded that it is possible to predict the relevance of a particular orientation form for a student,

given that student's Edwards Personal Preference Schedule scores. Several conclusions and recommendations have been made related to the meaning and application of these results.

## REFERENCES

- Aanstad, J. A study of mature women at Sante Fe Junior College. Florida Community Junior College, Inter-institutional Research Council, 1972. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 057 797)
- Abraham, A. A. New student orientation. Florida A and M University, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 122 688)
- Bachman, J. G. Prediction of academic achievement using the Edwards need achievement scale. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1964, 48, 16-19.
- Barron, F. (Review of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule) in O. K. Buros (Ed.), The fifth mental measurements yearbook, Highland Park, NJ: Gryphon Press, 1959.
- Belcastro, F. P. Use of selected factors as predictors of success in completing a secondary teacher preparation program. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1975, 35, 957-962.
- Bettters-Reed, B., Bryan, W. A., & Dittmar, N. D. Orientation: new student survey, summer, 1974. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 133 647)
- Black, B. R. Student needs and orientation directors' aspirations. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1964, 6, 102-108.
- Blimline, C. & Klimek, R. Developmental education: the recognition of individualized differences. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1977, 18, 403-405.
- Blimline, C. A. & New, R. Evaluating the effectiveness of a freshman orientation course. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1975, 16, 471-474.
- Bouchard, T. J., Jr. Convergent and discriminant validity of the Adjective Check List and Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1968, 28, 1165-1171.
- Butts, T. A. Personnel services review, new practices in student orientation. Office of Education (DHEW), 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 057 416)
- Caputo, D. V., Psathas, G., & Plapp, J. M. Test-retest reliability of the EPPS. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1966, 26, 883-886.

- Chandler, E. M. Short-term orientation programs for freshmen: a contrast between participants and non-participants in a program at the California State Polytechnic College (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32, 116A. (University Microfilm No. 71-18, 182)
- Chickering, A. W. Education and identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969.
- Chitayat, D., & Hymer, S. The new occupational student: the maturing adult woman. New York State Education Department, Bureau of Two-Year College Programs, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 138 877)
- Coles, H. W., III. Evaluation of the 1974 summer orientation program. Buffalo, NY: State University of New York at Buffalo, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 121 164)
- Combs, H. T. Orientation and student values. Paper presented at the American College Personnel Association convention, St. Louis, MO, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 041 350)
- Coody, B. E., & Hinely, R. T. A validity study of selected EPPS subscales for determining need structure of dominating and submissive student teachers. Journal of Educational Research, 1967, 61, 59-61.
- Darkenwald, G. G. Why adults participate in education: some implications for program development of research on motivational orientations. Paper presented to faculty of the University Extension Division, Rutgers University, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 135 992)
- Del Prete, R. P., & Waterhouse, P. G. Human development orientation module. NASPA Journal, 1973, 10, 238-242.
- Drake, R. W., Jr. Freshman orientation in the United States colleges and universities. Colorado State University, 1966. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 030 923)
- Drake, S. L. Research report. Community and Junior College Journal. 1978, 48(5), 57.
- Eckard, P. J. Developmental tasks of older female students in undergraduate education. Paper presented at annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, New York, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 138 179)
- Edwards, A. L. Techniques of attitude scale construction. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1957.

- Edwards, A. L. Edwards personal preference schedule manual (Rev. ed.). New York: Psychological Corp., 1959.
- Elliot, J. M., & Mantz, C. M. The mature woman and the community college. Community College Frontiers, 1976, 4, 35-41.
- Erickson, M. B. Counseling needs of adult students. Paper presented at American Personnel and Guidance Association convention, New Orleans, LO, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 039 569)
- Erikson, E. H. Childhood and society (2nd ed.). New York: Norton, 1963.
- Ferguson, G. A. Statistical analysis in psychology and education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976.
- Fisher, B. W. A comparative study of two methods of freshman orientation. Mississippi Gulf Coast Junior College, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 105 916)
- Fitzgerald, L., & Busch, S. Orientation programs: foundation and framework. College and University, 1963, 38, 270-275.
- Foxley, C. H. An experimental study and evaluation of the 1967 University of Utah freshman orientation program (Doctoral dissertation, University of Utah, 1968). Dissertation Abstracts, 1969a, 29, 2562A. (University Microfilm No. 69-3495)
- Foxley, C. H. Orientation or dis-orientation?. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1969b, 48, 218-221.
- Froe, C. D., & Lee, M. A. New emphasis in freshman orientation. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1956, 34, 360-365.
- Garneski, T. M., & Heimann, R. A. Summer group counseling of freshmen. Junior College Journal, 1967, 37(3), 40-41.
- Geisler, M. P., & Thrush, R. S. Counseling experiences and needs of older women students. Journal of National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1975, 39, 3-8.
- Gerber, S. K. Four approaches to freshman orientation. Improving College and University Teaching, 1970, 18, 57-60.
- Gleazer, E. J., Jr. Education for teachable moments. Community and Junior College Journal, 1978, 48(3), 12-17.
- Guilford, J. P. Psychometric methods (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1954.

- Haislip, T. M. The effect of a community college orientation course on selected behaviors (Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, 1972). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1972, 33, 970A. (University Microfilm No. 72-20, 491)
- Hammons, J. O. Systems orientation to a systems college. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1975, 53, 521-525.
- Hardaway, F. Educating adults. Community College Frontiers, 1976, 5(1), 4-7.
- Harris, S., & Kuckuck, S. Orientation and extra curricular programming for students over thirty. Paper presented at annual conference of National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 108 091)
- Havighurst, R. J. Developmental tasks and education (3rd ed.). New York: David McKay Co., 1972.
- Heilbrun, A. B., Jr. (Review of the Edwards Personnel Preference Schedule). In O. K. Buros (Ed.) The seventh mental measurements yearbook (Vol. 1). Highland Park, NJ: Gryphon Press, 1972.
- Hicks, L. E. Some properties of ipsative, normative, and forced-choice normative measures. Psychological Bulletin, 1970, 74, 167-184.
- Hooper, J. O., & Rice, J. K. Locus of control and outcomes following the counseling of returning adults. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1978, 19, 42-47.
- Izard, C. E. Personality characteristics associated with resistance to change. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1960, 24, 437-440.
- Jackson, B. L. Identification and analysis of activities related to developmental tasks of college students. NASPA Journal, 1977, 15, 11-19.
- Jacobson, R. F. New scholarships for mature women. Junior College Journal, 1967, 38(4), 34+.
- Jones, L. K. Toward more adequate selection criteria: correlates of empathy, genuineness, and respect. Counselor Education and Supervision, 1974, 14, 13-21.
- Keenan, H. C. A study to evaluate orientation emphasizing humanness on freshman associate degree nursing students (Doctoral dissertation, Boston University School of Education, 1974). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1974, 34, 5634A. (University Microfilm No. 74-7622)

- Kelman, E., & Staley, B. The returning woman student: needs of an important minority group on college campuses. Colorado State University, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 103 747)
- Kinnick, B. C., & Nelson, T. M. The EPPS norms: reevaluation a necessity. Journal of Experimental Education, 1970, 38(4), 37-39.
- Kirkman, A. V., Jr. For men only. Community and Junior College Journal, 1977/78, 48(4), 28-29.
- Knode, J. C. Orienting the student in college. New York: Columbia University, 1930.
- Kopecek, R. J. Freshman orientation programs: a comparison. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1971, 12, 54-57.
- Krings, D. Meeting the counseling needs. Adult Leadership, 1976, 24, 311-313.
- Kronovet, E. Current practices in freshman orientation. Improving College and University Teaching, 1969, 17, 204-205.
- Leavengood, L. Mid-life counseling: new dimensions in theory and practice. Paper presented at annual convention of National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, Atlanta, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 136 181)
- Lenz, E., & Shaevitz, M. H. So you want to go back to school: facing realities of reentry. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977.
- Levinson, D. J. The seasons of a man's life. New York: Ballantine Books, 1978.
- Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. H., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. Periods in the adult development of men: ages 18 to 45. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6, 21-25.
- Likert, R. The method of constructing an attitude scale. In M. Fishbein (Ed.) Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1967.
- Lopez, H. Report on the survival week program, 1974. University of Texas at Austin, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 112 336)
- Lunneborg, P. W., & Lunneborg, C. E. The utility of EPPS scores for prediction of academic achievement among counseling clients. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1966, 13, 241.

- Manis, L. G., & Mochizukis, J. Search for fulfillment: a program for adult women. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1972, 50, 594-599.
- Marchbanks, J. Examples of new student personnel programs created to meet the needs of diversified community college student bodies. 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 079 664)
- Marienau, C., & Klinger, K. An anthropological approach to the study of educational barriers of adults at the postsecondary level. Paper presented at the Adult Education Research Conference, Minneapolis, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 141 511)
- McCannon, R. S. Effectiveness of an orientation and counseling program for adult evening students at Drake University (Doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University, 1973). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1974, 34, 6934A. (University Microfilm No. 74-9136)
- McCoy, R. D. Commuter college orientation: the walk through. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1973, 14, 551.
- McKee, M. G. (Review of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule). In O. K. Buros (Ed.) The seventh mental measurements yearbook (Vol. 1). Highland Park, NJ: Gryphon Press, 1972.
- Miller, C. D., & Ivey, A. W. Student response to three types of orientation programs. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 45, 1025-1029.
- Miller, T. K., & Prince, J. S. The future of student affairs. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.
- Morgan, R. P. Prediction of college achievement using the need achievement scale from the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1975, 35, 387-392.
- Mott, D. D. Innovations in freshman orientation. Paper presented at American Personnel and Guidance Association convention, Atlantic City, 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 056 318)
- Murray, H. A. Explorations in personality. New York: Oxford University Press, 1938.
- Needs orientation. Hurst, TX: Tarrant County Junior College, 1969. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 038 120)
- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Brent, D. H. Statistical package for the social sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

- O'Banion, T. Experiment in orientation of junior college students. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1969, 10, 12-15.
- O'Banion, T. New directions in community college student personnel programs. (Student Personnel Series No. 15) Washington, D. C.: American College Personnel Association, 1971.
- O'Banion, T., Thurston, A., & Gulden, J. Junior college student personnel work: an emerging model. In T. O'Banion & A. Thurston (Ed.) Student development programs in the community junior college. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Packard, R. E. The use of programmed materials in a freshman orientation program. University of Minnesota, 1967. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 019 938)
- Pappas, J. G. The effects of three approaches to college orientation on two groups of entering freshmen students at Kent State University (Doctoral dissertation, Kent State University, 1966). Dissertation Abstracts, 1967a, 28, 401A. (University Microfilm No. 67-9425)
- Pappas, J. G. Effects of three approaches to college orientation on academic achievement. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1967b, 8, 195-198.
- Plotsky, F. SOTA: students older than average: a social group. Paper presented at annual meeting of American College Personnel Association, Denver, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 138 916)
- Poe, C. A. Convergent and discriminant validation of measures of personal needs. Journal of Educational Measurement, 1969, 6, 103-107.
- Pool, D. A. The relation of personality needs to vocational counseling outcomes. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12, 23-27.
- Powell, J., & Rodgers, A. Orientation to college: meeting the needs of mature women. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1975, 16, 432.
- Rice, J. K., & Goering, M. L. Women in transition: a life-planning workshop model. Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1977, 40, 57-61.
- Riddell, J., & Bingham, S. Continuing education: the older, wiser student. Washington, D. C.: Office of Education, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 143 885)

- Rising, E. J. The effects of a pre-engineering orientation program on academic progress. University of Massachusetts, 1967. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 022 413)
- Rothman, L. K., & Leonard, D. G. Effectiveness of freshman orientation. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1967, 8, 300-304.
- Sanchez, B. M. ERIC clearinghouse for junior colleges: women's programs in community college. Community College Frontiers, 1977, 5, 62-64.
- Scott, W. A. Comparative validities of forced-choice and single-stimulus tests. Psychological Bulletin, 1968, 70, 231-244.
- Sheehy, G. Passages: predictable crises of adult life. New York: Bantam Books, 1977.
- Siegel, B. The "older" student: challenge to academe. Paper presented at the annual conference of the California Association for Institutional Research, San Francisco, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 149 835)
- Super, D. E., & Bohn, M. J., Jr. Occupational psychology. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1970.
- Tryon, G. S., & Sy, M. J. The effectiveness of study skills instruction with students in an adult degree program. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1977, 18, 478-481.
- VanderWilt, R. B., & Klocke, R. A. Self-actualization of females in an experimental orientation program. Journal of National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1971, 34, 125-129.
- Waters, L. K. Stability of Edwards Personal Preference Schedule need scale scores and profiles over a seven-week interval. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1968, 28, 615-618.
- The way cities rate in personal incomes. U. S. News & World Report, 1978, 85(5), 58.
- Westervelt, E. M. Barriers to women's participation in postsecondary education: a review of research and commentary as of 1973-74. Washington, D. C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1975.
- Wigent, P. A. Personality variables related to career decision-making abilities of community college students. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1974, 15, 105-108.
- Year-round orientation. College Management, 1973, 8(8), 24-25.

Zaccaria, L., & Creaser, J. Personality differences between counseled and uncounseled students: a need for replication studies. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1970, 3, 133-137.

Zink, M. S. Freshman appraisal of pre-registration information and summer orientation. University of Maine, Orono, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 039 542)

## APPENDIX A: THE EDWARDS PERSONAL PREFERENCE SCHEDULE VARIABLES

1. "Achievement: To do one's best, to be successful, to accomplish tasks requiring skill and effort, to be a recognized authority, to accomplish something of great significance, to do a difficult job well, to solve difficult problems and puzzles, to be able to do things better than others, to write a great novel or play.

2. "Deference: To get suggestions from others, to find out what others think, to follow instructions and do what is expected, to praise others, to tell others that they have done a good job, to accept the leadership of others, to read about great men, to conform to custom and avoid the unconventional, to let others make decisions.

3. "Order: To have written work neat and organized, to make plans before starting on a difficult task, to have things organized, to keep things neat and orderly, to make advance plans when taking a trip, to organize details of work, to keep letters and files according to some system, to have meals organized and a definite time for eating, to have things arranged so that they run smoothly without change.

4. "Exhibition: To say witty and clever things, to tell amusing jokes and stories, to talk about personal adventures and experiences, to have others notice and comment upon one's appearance, to say things just to see what effect it will have on others, to talk about personal achievements, to be the center of attention, to use words that others do not know the meaning of, to ask questions others cannot answer.

5. "Autonomy: To be able to come and go as desired, to say what one thinks about things, to be independent of others in making decisions, to feel free to do what one wants, to do things that are unconventional, to avoid situations where one is expected to conform, to do things without regard to what others may think, to criticize those in positions of authority, to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

6. "Affiliation: To be loyal to friends, to participate in friendly groups, to do things for friends, to form new friendships, to make as many friends as possible, to share things with friends, to do things with friends rather than alone, to form strong attachments, to write letters to friends.

7. "Intracception: To analyze one's motives and feelings, to observe others, to understand how others feel about problems, to put one's self in another's place, to judge people by why they do things rather than by what they do, to analyze the behavior of others, to analyze the motives of others, to predict how others will act.

8. "Succorance: To have others provide help when in trouble, to seek encouragement from others, to have others be kindly, to have others be sympathetic and understanding about personal problems, to receive a great deal of affection from others, to have others do favors cheerfully, to be helped by others when depressed, to have others feel sorry when one is sick, to have a fuss made over one when hurt.

9. "Dominance: To argue for one's point of view, to be a leader in groups to which one belongs, to be regarded by others as a leader, to be elected or appointed chairman of committees, to make group decisions to settle arguments and disputes between others, to persuade and influence others to do what one wants, to supervise and direct the actions of others, to tell others how to do their jobs.

10. "Abasement: To feel guilty when one does something wrong, to accept blame when things do not go right, to feel that personal pain and misery suffered does more good than harm, to feel the need for punishment for wrong doing, to feel better when giving in and avoiding a fight than when having one's own way, to feel the need for confession of errors, to feel depressed by inability to handle situations, to feel timid in the presence of superiors, to feel inferior to others in most respects.

11. "Nurturance: To help friends when they are in trouble, to assist others less fortunate, to treat others with kindness and sympathy, to forgive others, to do small favors for others, to be generous with others, to sympathize with others who are hurt or sick, to show a great deal of affection toward others, to have others confide in one about personal problems.

12. "Change: To do new and different things, to travel, to meet new people, to experience novelty and change in daily routine, to experiment and try new things, to eat in new and different places, to try new and different jobs, to move about the country and live in different places, to participate in new fads and fashions.

13. "Endurance: To keep at a job until it is finished, to complete any job undertaken, to work hard at a task, to keep at a puzzle or problem until it is solved, to work at a single job before taking on others, to stay up late working in order to get a job done, to put in long hours of work without distraction, to stick at a problem even though it may seem as if no progress is being made, to avoid being interrupted while at work.

14. "Heterosexuality: To go out with members of the opposite sex, to engage in social activities with the opposite sex, to be in love with someone of the opposite sex, to kiss those of the opposite sex, to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex, to participate in discussions about sex, to read books and plays involving sex, to listen to or to tell jokes involving sex, to become sexually excited.

15. "Aggression: To attack contrary points of view, to tell others what one thinks about them, to criticize others publicly, to make fun of others, to tell others off when disagreeing with them, to get revenge for insults, to become angry, to blame others when things go wrong, to read newspaper accounts of violence."

(Edwards, 1959, p. 11)

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible. All information will be used only for the purposes of the study and will be kept confidential. Student identification numbers are requested only so that information may be paired with later questionnaires. No names or identifying characteristics of individuals will be reported in the results of the study. All data will be reported by groups.

1. Student identification number: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Sex (M or F): . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_
3. Age (in years): . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_
4. Educational background (check highest level attained):
  - not high school graduate \_\_\_\_\_
  - GED certificate \_\_\_\_\_
  - high school graduate \_\_\_\_\_
  - one year college \_\_\_\_\_
  - two years college \_\_\_\_\_
  - three years college \_\_\_\_\_
  - college graduate \_\_\_\_\_
  - graduate credits \_\_\_\_\_
  - other \_\_\_\_\_
5. Number of years since educational experience identified in question #4: . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_
6. Work experience outside the home (check as many as apply):
  - no work experience \_\_\_\_\_
  - continuous work since previous education \_\_\_\_\_
  - previously worked but recently unemployed \_\_\_\_\_
  - substantial volunteer experience \_\_\_\_\_
  - other \_\_\_\_\_
7. Current work status outside the home (check one):
  - not employed \_\_\_\_\_
  - working full-time \_\_\_\_\_
  - working part-time \_\_\_\_\_
  - volunteer work \_\_\_\_\_
  - other \_\_\_\_\_
8. Current enrollment status at school (check one):
  - part-time \_\_\_\_\_
  - full-time \_\_\_\_\_



APPENDIX C: RELEVANCE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions concern the relevance of your orientation course, the appropriateness of the course content for your needs as you see them. Please respond to each of the statements by circling "1" if you strongly disagree, "2" if you disagree, "3" if you agree, and "4" if you strongly agree.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	(1) The course helped me to see myself in a new way.
1	2	3	4	(2) I learned skills that I needed to know.
1	2	3	4	(3) The course helped me with problems and questions on which I needed help.
1	2	3	4	(4) For me, the course was a waste of time.
1	2	3	4	(5) The objectives of the course related to the objectives I have for my life.
1	2	3	4	(6) I learned a lot in the course.
1	2	3	4	(7) I would recommend the course to a fellow student who had the same needs that I had when I started the course.
1	2	3	4	(8) The activities of the course were very appropriate for meeting my needs.
1	2	3	4	(9) I have not learned very much that will help me as a student.
1	2	3	4	(10) Almost every topic in the course helped me to grow.
1	2	3	4	(11) This course came at the time of my college career when I most needed it.
1	2	3	4	(12) I learned skills that I will need to be a successful student.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	(13) The course helped me resolve some questions about my role as a student.
1	2	3	4	(14) This course was <u>exactly</u> what I needed.
1	2	3	4	(15) This course has made it easier for me to be a student.
1	2	3	4	(16) The course raised some questions and issues that were important for my life.

APPENDIX D: PERMISSION STATEMENT

I give my permission for my scores on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and on the relevance questionnaire to be used by Elizabeth Dickson for her study of adult students. I understand that all data reported will be done by groups and that no identifying characteristics of individuals will be included. I also give my permission for Ms. Dickson to review my enrollment status for the winter and spring quarters of this year.

---

(Signature)

(Date)

APPENDIX E: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR  
INFORMATION AND PLANNING WORKSHOP FOR INTERIOR DESIGN STUDENTS

By the end of the course, the student should be able to:

1. define the four divisions of the campus, identify and explain at least five special services available to students at the campus, identify the steps involved in the add/drop procedure, and given specific college-related questions, identify appropriate sources for the answers;
2. locate given offices and rooms on the Loudoun Campus;
3. identify sources or methods for acquiring any additional information and skills which the student may feel necessary for a successful student career;
4. list the qualifications necessary for entry into the interior design field, describe the tasks and responsibilities for a new worker in the field and for someone in a senior position, and list and explain at least three specializations of the interior design field;
5. construct a quarter-by-quarter program for completion of the interior design degree requirements that accounts for when specific courses will be available and in which order courses should be taken;
6. list and explain the options within the interior design curriculum including the possibility of transfer;
7. explain the structure and operation of an interior design firm;
8. define and explain in depth an interior design career specialization of the student's choice;

and by the end of the course, the student should have:

9. made a decision concerning future enrollment in the interior design program; and
10. been enrolled officially in the chosen degree program.

APPENDIX F: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR  
COLLEGE SURVIVAL

By the end of the course, the student should be able to:

1. define the four divisions of the campus, identify and explain at least five special services available to students at the campus, identify the steps involved in the add/drop procedure, and given specific college-related questions identify appropriate sources for the answers;
2. locate given offices and rooms on the Loudoun Campus;
3. identify sources or methods of acquiring any additional information and skills which the student may feel necessary for a successful student career;
4. explain and give examples of at least two forms for note taking, explain the appropriateness of the student's personal style of note taking, describe and give examples of two formats for reading and studying, and define the purposes and appropriateness of note taking and underlining;
5. list and explain the major steps in studying for an objective test and for a subjective test, list the appropriate steps to follow in taking each kind of test, define typical words used in directions for essay tests, and given a brief reading be able to project possible objective and subjective test questions on the reading;
6. explain three different types of time schedules, choose the most appropriate type of schedule (using the student's own needs), and construct and follow a schedule for at least two weeks;
7. list the steps in decision making, identify those steps in a narrative summary of a decision process, identify the student's own barriers in decision making, and list the decision steps for a current personal decision;
8. identify acceptable and unacceptable goals following the criteria given, develop acceptable weekly goals, list the steps in setting long-term goals, state three advantages of setting long-term goals;
9. explain the services of the library, the audio-visual laboratory, and the learning laboratory, list five possible student uses of the learning laboratory, operate three pieces of equipment in the

learning laboratory, find a specified book on the microfiche union catalog, locate the reference, periodical, equipment, and stacks sections in the library;

10. identify the career resources available at the Loudoun Campus, identify four off-campus sources of career information, and given a specific career identify three off-campus sources of information for that career; and

by the end of the course, each student should have

11. been enrolled officially in a chosen curriculum.

APPENDIX G: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR  
SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL ORIENTATION

By the end of the course, the student should be able to:

1. define the four divisions of the campus, identify and explain at least five special services available to students at the campus, identify the steps involved in the add/drop procedure, and given specific college-related questions, identify appropriate sources for the answers;
2. locate given offices and rooms on the Loudoun Campus;
3. identify sources or methods for acquiring any additional information and skills which the student may feel necessary for a successful student career;
4. list the general degree requirements for AAS and for AA/AS degrees;
5. construct a quarter-by-quarter program for meeting the requirements for a chosen degree;
6. define a personal educational goal;
7. define a personal career goal; and

by the end of the course, the student should have:

3. been enrolled in a chosen degree program; and
9. identified personal skill goals and personal optional activities to meet those goals if desired.

APPENDIX H: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR  
ORIENTATION FOR WOMEN RETURNING TO SCHOOL

By the end of the course, the student should be able to:

1. identify common elements of concern shared by many of the students in the class;
2. list her strengths and achievements and share the list with the class;
3. list at least five recent experiences during which she felt in control of her life;
4. explain at least ten reasons why she will be successful as a student;
5. outline a life style plan that includes educational, family, personal, and career goals;
6. list some common myths about being a student and refute them (e.g., that all students are between the ages of 18 and 22, that all instructors are infallible fountains of wisdom, that learning is a passive process);
7. identify and rank her values;
8. share her concerns and doubts about being a student with other students in the class;
9. identify and explain possible methods of dealing with stress;
10. develop a list of human rights and evaluate her assertive and non-assertive behaviors according to a human rights standard;
11. identify acceptable and not acceptable goals according to criteria provided, develop acceptable short-term goals, develop acceptable long-term goals;
12. predict possible future conflicts between student, family, and work roles and plan for ways to lessen or eliminate the conflict (e.g., recognizing that there will be less time for family during exam week and planning for the family adjustment); and
13. apply her knowledge of her values to her felt role conflicts.

APPENDIX I: COURSE OBJECTIVES FOR  
ORIENTATION FOR SECOND CAREER ADULTS

By the end of the course, the student should be able to:

1. identify the common elements of concern shared by many of the students in the class;
2. list individual strengths and achievements and share the list with the class;
3. list at least ten reasons why he/she will be a successful student;
4. explain at least five recent experiences during which the student felt control over his/her life;
5. outline a life style plan that includes educational, family, personal, and career planning;
6. define the terms developmental stages and tasks and summarize the adult developmental stages;
7. locate oneself in the appropriate developmental stage;
8. develop a plan for career change that reflects knowledge of developmental stages;
9. define oneself without using any role titles;
10. define and explain internal and external change and apply the terms to the student's own career change plan and life style plan;
11. explain the place of retirement planning in life style planning; and
12. list and evaluate the internal and external effects of planned change.

APPENDIX J: MAJOR COURSE TOPICS FOR  
ANNANDALE CAMPUS ORIENTATION COURSES

1. Knowledge Acquisition
2. Community College
3. Career Development
4. Transfer Planning
5. Library
6. Student Development Division
7. Administrative Policies and Practices

**The two page vita has been  
removed from the scanned  
document. Page 1 of 2**

**The two page vita has been  
removed from the scanned  
document. Page 2 of 2**

COMMUNITY COLLEGE ORIENTATION OPTIONS FOR ADULTS:

AN ASSESSMENT OF PERCEIVED RELEVANCE

by

Elizabeth Altland Dickson

(ABSTRACT)

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the relevance of two forms of orientation courses for adult students (aged 25 and older) and to determine a means of predicting the relevance for future adult students. The two forms of orientation were information-giving/skill-building courses which emphasized school related information and student related skills and personal growth courses which emphasized self-confidence and self-determination building and emotional/psychological adjustment to the role of student.

The experimental group included adults in five orientation courses. Three were information-giving/skill-building (Self-Instructional Orientation, College Survival, and Information and Planning Workshop for Interior Design Students) and two were personal growth (Women Returning to School and Second Career Adults). Students were able to select whichever orientation option they preferred. The control group included adults in four orientation courses taught at another campus of the same community college. Students in the control group did not have a choice of orientation content or structure. All students completed a questionnaire on the relevance of their orientation at the end of the course. Students in the experimental group also completed the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS).

A comparison of the mean relevance scores of the experimental and control groups indicated that those students who had an option in their orientation course found the course more relevant than those who had no option. A comparison of the retention rates (subsequent enrollment in the community college) for the high and low relevance reporters in the experimental group and within each of the two groups of the experimental group (information-giving/skill-building and personal growth) indicated that high relevance reporters did not have a higher retention rate than low relevance reporters within the subgroups or for the group as a whole. In a comparison between the subgroups, however, the personal growth subgroup had both a higher mean relevance score and a higher retention rate than the information-giving/skill-building subgroup.

Using relevance as the dependent variable, regression equations for each of the subgroups were developed on the basis of selected EPPS variables. Adult students who are high on deference and achievement and low on autonomy and succorance are more likely to find an information-giving/skill-building course relevant. Adult students who are high on deference and low on change, nurturance, order, and autonomy are more likely to find a personal growth course relevant.

On the basis of the study, it was concluded that adults will be more apt to find their orientation course relevant if they have several options from which to choose, that personal growth elements should receive more emphasis in orientation courses for adult students, that the relevance of an orientation course will not affect the student's likelihood of re-enrolling, and that orientation relevance

can be predicted given the appropriate EPPS scores.