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Balancing Multiple Roles: A Re-examination of How Work Impacts Academic Performance for Community College Students

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BALANCING MULTIPLE ROLES: A RE-EXAMINATION OF HOW WORK IMPACTS
ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated how work impacts academic performance for community college students, from a multiple role balance perspective. Perna (2010) called for a re-examination of the role of work in college students' lives, especially regarding the exploration of benefits, rather than just the detriments of working while studying. According to Karp and Bork (2014), more research was also needed on community college students and how they balance multiple roles. Exploring the relationship between balancing multiple roles and academic performance may provide new insight into how community college students contend with demanding roles, while striving to achieve academic success. This study was framed by the theoretical understanding of Marks and MacDermid's (1996) role balance theory and the instrument used was the Role Balance scale. Four hundred and ten participants responded to the online survey containing role balance and demographic questions. Data from 403 respondents were used in the regression analysis to determine how work impacted role balance. Among the community college student respondents, hours worked for pay was a significant factor in predicting role balance when controlling for demographic and lifestyle variables. For every extra hour worked per week, the role balance score would decrease by 0.02. Demographic and lifestyle variables were not significant in predicting role balance. Data from the survey responses of all 410 respondents were used for the correlation analysis. There was no significant relationship found between role balance and academic performance.

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CHAPTER 1
THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

In the US, 30% of the adult population does not have a college education and more than 60% of the population has not earned at least an associate degree. The traditional vision of students heading directly to a four-year institution right after high school, with the goal of attaining a bachelor's degree, has been eclipsed by the more accurate reality of students delaying going to college and working at least part-time while attending college (Baum, Kurose, & Ma, 2013). Other countries have outpaced the United States regarding postsecondary degree attainment among young adults, as the US placed 12th among 25 to 34 year-olds (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2013). However, chasing higher levels of postsecondary education means much more than just keeping up with global competition; college graduates are also more likely than high school graduates to be employed full-time (Baum et al., 2013). Individuals with an associate degree can earn 30% to 39% more than individuals who have graduated from high school (Baum et al., 2013). Baum et al. (2013) also emphasized that the benefits of higher education extend well beyond a higher income and more robust employment opportunities; higher education is also related to fringe benefits, positive health outcomes and behaviors (e.g., lower obesity rates and increased exercise), and greater civic participation (e.g., higher voting rates). Furthermore, almost 75% of Americans surveyed by Gallup and the Lumina Foundation thought that a college degree was vital to improving their quality of life (Lumina Foundation, 2014).

Two-year institutions are a popular option for US students, constituting almost 40% of total enrollment in postsecondary institutions in fall 2014 (National Center for Education

Statistics [NCES], 2016). Similarly, in 2013-14, of those students who earned a degree from a

four-year institution, 46% of them had attended a two-year institution in the last decade

(National Student Clearinghouse Research Center [NSCRC], 2015). Enrollment at US public

two-year institutions in the past few decades reflect a dramatic 229% increase, compared to a

90% increase in public and private four-year institutions (Baum et al., 2013). In other words,

community colleges play a critical role in growing postsecondary credential attainment in the

US.

Statement of the Problem

In order to meet the year 2025 goal of having at least 60% of individuals between ages 25

and 64 earn a postsecondary degree, the Lumina Foundation (2014) stressed the importance of

closing attainment gaps for underrepresented students, such as those from low-income, first-

generation, and diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds. "While 82.4% of potential students in the

top third of the income scale enroll in college, only 53.5% of those in the bottom third do so"

(Lumina Foundation, 2014, p. 3), illustrating a concerning discrepancy in college attendance

rates based on income. In 2011, fewer than 40% of Black students and 51% of Hispanic students

graduated from the same postsecondary institution within six years, rates that are both well

below White students (approximately 62%) and Asians (approximately 69%), signaling the need

to specifically increase these students' completion rates (Lumina Foundation, 2014). Higher

grade point average (GPA) is one of the key factors past researchers have highlighted as

connected to a higher likelihood of student persistence (Gigliotti & Huff, 1995; Markle, 2015;

Metzner & Bean, 1987). Furthermore, Deil-Amen (2011) highlighted the need for a greater

focus on persistence of community college students. Therefore, the focus on boosting

enrollment and completion rates for postsecondary students, especially for underrepresented

students at the community college level, can not only enrich students' lives holistically but can

also benefit the nation while boosting the educational standing of the US globally. The various

needs of community college students should be addressed in order to make greater strides

towards increasing postsecondary credential attainment rates in the US.

Public two-year institutions are known for providing an economical education due to

their lower tuition, which attracts students from low-income backgrounds and first-generation

students (Ma & Baum, 2016). The cost of attending community college is lower than at four-

year institutions ($2,500 on average annually at community colleges versus $7,000 at public

four-year institutions and $22,500 at private four-year institutions; White House, 2011).

Unfortunately, despite these relatively low tuition and fees, other living expenses, such as food

and housing, are problematic for these students, who may borrow money and/or struggle to work

full time to meet these obligations for themselves and their families, while attending college

simultaneously (Ma & Baum, 2016). In addition, full-time working learners earning minimum

wage are not able to cover the cost of attending most colleges, as they would only make about

$15,000 per year before taxes (Carnevale, Smith, Melton, & Price, 2015). Lastly, student loan

debt continues to balloon, from $240 billion in 2003 to $1.2 trillion presently, as state and federal

funding for postsecondary education decreases (Carnevale et al., 2015).

Community college students are less inclined to apply for financial aid than students who

attend four-year colleges (White House, 2011). Fifty-eight percent of community students in

2011-12 received some kind of financial aid (American Association of Community Colleges

[AACC], 2016), illustrating that a significant number of community college students are striving to find ways to support themselves. Furthermore, the community college students who apply for financial aid are more likely than students enrolled in four-year institutions to have unmet need even after financial aid has been disbursed (White House, 2011). This financial gap may reflect the outdated design of financial aid systems, which were originally developed to cater to the traditional, full-time, first-time-in-college student straight from high school, who are also dependent on parents (White House, 2011). In addition, community college students tend to default on their federal student loans more than other college students (Ma & Baum, 2016). Therefore, community college students who do not fit the traditional student profile are faced with urgent financial needs, prompting them to seek paid employment to fund their education and living costs. In the 2011-2012 academic year, 62% of full-time enrolled community college students were also employed a minimum of part-time, while 73% of part-time enrolled community college students were also working a minimum of part-time (AACC, 2016). Considering the significant number of students who work, a closer examination of the role of work in community college students' lives is warranted.

Research on working students has mostly centered on the negative relationship between hours worked and educational outcomes (King & Bannon, 2002; McNall & Michel, 2011; Miller, Danner, & Staten, 2008), including time to degree completion (Dundes & Marx, 2007); the cause of this correlation is as yet unknown (Carnevale et al., 2015). However, research into the relationship between postsecondary education and employment has produced mixed findings (McNall & Michel, 2011) due to the presence of confounding factors and perhaps other reasons not yet understood. A possible reason for these mixed findings is a lack of theoretical grounding

to adequately account for the connection between working and student outcomes (Riggert, Boyle, Petrosko, Ash, & Rude-Parkins, 2006). For instance, working longer hours per week has been associated with decreased academic performance (Miller, Danner, & Staten, 2008) and completion rates (Dundes & Marx, 2007). On the other hand, some studies have not found a negative association between hours worked and GPA (Furr & Elling, 2000; Volkwein, Schmonsky, & Im, 1989). Working not only provides the financial resources needed to continue enrollment, but working while enrolled in college is also related to increased engagement and increased future earnings (Perna, 2010). However, for many community college students, the costs of being a working learner, are evidenced in the stress of balancing worker and student identities (Perna, 2010). Most community college students have difficulty juggling work, school, and other responsibilities; more than half of all community college students, who have the goal of completing a degree or certificate, do not complete within 6 years of starting community college (Center for Community College Student Engagement, 2014).

Multiple role research, including studies of working individuals, has traditionally focused on the work-family dynamic and how multiple roles impact well-being or psychological health (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Black, Murry, Cutrona, & Chen, 2009; Bond, Galinksy, & Swanberg, 1998; Coverman, 1989; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Marshall & Barnett, 1993; Moen, Dempster-McClain, & Williams, 1992; Tiedje et al., 1990; Verbrugge, 1983), but further research is needed to expand this focus to include the role of school (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007), as juggling multiple roles are a necessary everyday reality for college students, many of whom are working parents and spouses (Attewell & Lavin, 2007; Nelson, Froehner, & Gault, 2013). While many scholars focused on how working excessive hours while

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enrolled in college leads to negative educational outcomes (Carnevale et al., 2015; DeSimone 2008; Dundes & Marx, 2007; King & Bannon 2002; Perna, 2010; Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003), some research supported the overlooked notion that taking on multiple roles while working a reasonable number of hours can actually benefit the individual (Dadgar 2012; Kulm & Cramer, 2006; Murphy 2010; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002).

Considering the possibility of employment being connected to increased engagement in college and other beneficial educational outcomes, Perna (2010) argued for the "fundamental revaluing and reconsidering of the role of employment for today's undergraduates" (p. 249). Interestingly, simultaneous employment and enrollment in college can possibly decrease social and economic stratification and inequality (Perna, 2010).

<u>Significance of the Study</u>

McNall and Michel (2011) highlighted the dearth of research investigating the positive and negative aspects of the work and school relationship. In addition, ambiguity persists about the relationship between working and going to school simultaneously. For instance, Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) studied full-time business students (all under age 24) who worked full-time or part-time and found that juggling work and school had both positive and negative impacts on their sense of well-being. According to Huie, Winsler, and Kitsantas (2014), work has beneficial and harmful effects on academic performance, prompting the need for more research to analyze possible intervening variables that connect work and academic achievement. Creed, French, and Hood (2015) highlighted the need for analysis of outcomes, such as performance, progress, and achievements, rather than just well-being and engagement.

Due to the pervasiveness of students working while in enrolled in college and an increasing number of hours worked, Darolia (2014) stressed the importance of examining the costs and benefits of working while studying among diverse groups of students. Students devoting time to work are taking away time for studying or for other academically beneficial activities, which may eventually lead to prolonging time to degree completion, which in turn means lost earnings and decreased persistence (Darolia, 2014). Kirchmeyer (1992) pointed out how much of past research tends to focus on the negative impacts of engaging in multiple roles, without giving enough consideration to the positive results and the possibility that these might outweigh the negative impacts.

Considering the abundance of research focusing on well-being and the work-family dynamic, including the roles of worker, parent, and spouse, a re-examination of the impact of multiple roles through an educational lens may help fill a gap in literature regarding the relationship between balancing these different roles and academic outcomes for community college students. For instance, Huie et al. (2014) emphasized the importance of understanding how students deal with various responsibilities related to work and school, because so many students tackle both work and school simultaneously.

This study aimed to address unanswered questions in the literature regarding how multiple roles impact the community college student population. Extant research on working, multiple roles and college students tend to focus mainly on traditional students attending four-year institutions (Dundes & Marx, 2007; King & Bannon, 2002; Kulm & Cramer, 2006; Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). The community college student population is quite different and

considered nontraditional, as they tend to be "working class, minority, female" (Dougherty, 1994, p. 83) and less academically ready.

Karp and Bork (2014) pointed out that one of the key components of the community college student role is balancing multiple demands, acknowledging that the community college student role is fluid and ambiguous, posing a challenge for students who may not be accustomed to the flexibility of choosing their own schedule and deciding on studying techniques. Student characteristics, such as gender and age, may also impact how students experience the community college role (Karp & Bork, 2014).

Furthermore, the ability to balance multiple roles has been found to be particularly critical to the well-being of these students (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). Finally, Marks and MacDermid (1996) argued that individuals who can balance their roles effectively benefit from reduced role strain and depression. This study aimed to analyze a diverse community college student population from a role theory perspective, in order to facilitate a greater understanding of the academic outcomes of individuals who are working while enrolled in college, delving further into an area of research in need of exploration and clarity.

<u>Theoretical Framework</u>

Much of the literature focuses on the detrimental effects of taking on multiple roles, especially work-family conflict and its impact on well-being (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Researchers recognize the need for more focus on the benefits of the work-family dynamic, such as self-esteem and higher income (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). For instance, engaging in multiple roles was associated with

greater "life satisfaction, self-esteem, and self-acceptance" (Ruderman et al., 2002, p. 369) for managerial women.

Goode (1960) defined *role strain* as "difficulty in meeting given role demands" (p. 485) and asserted how role strain occurs when an individual's overall role system is too demanding. However, Sieber (1974) contested the assumption that having multiple roles inevitably results in role strain due to role conflict or role overload. *Role conflict* refers to incongruent expectations, without time constraints as a factor; *role overload* refers to a problem in which an individual must sacrifice some roles for others due to limited time (Sieber, 1974). While there were negative consequences associated with taking on multiple roles, the benefits were greater in magnitude, resulting in net gratification (Gerson, 1985; Sieber, 1974).

Sieber (1974) noted that females were increasingly advocating for their right to hold multiple roles, such as being a working mother, illustrating how their desire for increased rights, resources, and self-worth, outweighed role conflict. Sieber urged for an increased focus on the "mechanisms that facilitate role accumulation," which may lead to increased psychological and social well-being, as opposed to an assumption that role overload and role conflict prevail, disregarding the overall benefits of accepting multiple roles (Sieber, 1974, p. 577).

Multiple role literature reflects the common assumption that all individuals manage multiple roles by organizing them hierarchically, prioritizing some roles over others, thus reducing role strain (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). However, Marks and MacDermid (1996) offered an alternative view, arguing that individuals do not necessarily stack roles in order of importance; individuals who can balance all their roles evenly reap benefits in terms of

reduced role strain and depression. Thus balancing multiple roles does not always translate to hierarchical organization and resultant distress (Marks & MacDermid, 1996).

In his earlier works, Marks (1977), in line with Mead's (1964) notion of roles functioning within a flexible and non-hierarchical system of expanding identities, also viewed multiple roles from a resource expansion perspective in that he posited that individuals have a flexible capacity for energy and time, challenging the dominant resource scarcity perspective of individuals possessing a finite amount of energy that will inevitably be exhausted due to taking on multiple commitments. Marks et al. (2001) aimed to expand upon a positive perspective of role balance that offers an alternative to the assumption, stemming from work-family research, that interference or conflict is inevitable. Marks et al. (2001) stressed that balance is not simply defined by the absence of negative experience, but rather the presence of positive experiences as the defining component of role balance.

<div align="center">Role Balance Theory</div>

Role balance theory supported the idea that people can have a nonhierarchical way of managing their different roles, highlighting role organization as "an empirical issue, not an established fact" (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 417). In addition, this theory suggested that greater role balance, or the ability to attend to different roles and activities evenly across a role system, is associated with different measures of well-being (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Marks and MacDermid (1996) acknowledged the difficulty in operationalizing the complex concept of role balance, which they viewed as more of a cognitive-affective way of "organizing one's inner life of multiple selves" (p. 421). Therefore, in order to develop a measure of role balance that

respondents can understand more easily, the researchers translated the concept of a role system into relatable phrases, such as "every part of my life" and "everything I do" (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 422).

Marks (1977) discussed the concepts of energy expansion and commitment as an alternative to the scarcity approach regarding human energy and multiple roles. While the scarcity approach was a common fixture in empirical research, illustrating that the stressful nature of multiple roles depletes finite human resources, this approach was not completely supported by research, making way for the inclusion of an expanded approach, which proposes that human activity both expends and creates energy. Addressing the concepts of energy and commitment may provide some insight into the origins of Marks and MacDermid's (1996) role balance theory.

Marks (1977) suggested that commitment, the desire to perform a group of tasks over time, is related to why an individual believes it is important to carry out these tasks. The critical components of commitment, or reasons why individuals want to perform tasks include: (a) enjoyment of one or more performances within a group of performances; (b) desire to please a role partner; (c) expecting a reward, such as wealth, approval, or positive self-image; and (d) preventing perceived punishment, such as disapproval or reward loss (Marks, 1977). Out of the four components, Marks believed that experiencing enjoyment across roles was the fastest way to encourage commitment; he also proposed that commitments are not static and that the expansion of commitment levels is always a possibility if there is an increase in value or importance regarding one or more of the components within commitment (Marks, 1977). As a result, role satisfaction, energy, and flexibility can increase with time (either by abbreviating

time spent on certain activities or by multitasking; Marks, 1977). Aside from satisfaction and enjoyment, balance of effort and attention are two additional aspects of role balance that are pertinent to the current study. Balance of attention and effort frame the cognitive elements of role balance (thoughts about role balance), while enjoyment and satisfaction across roles encompass the more affective facet to role balance (feelings about role balance; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Marks (1977) conceded that in some cases, there may be limitations on an individual's exertion of time and effort, which may be determined by understanding how valuable each role or activity is to an individual in relation to other roles and groups of activities. These commitment systems can be composed of equally positive commitments, a system of equally negative commitments, or a system of over- and under-commitments, in which one or more roles are perceived to be more or less worthy of an individual's efforts than other roles in the system (Marks, 1977). Regarding over-commitments, individuals would need to balance time and energy spent across roles by reducing the number of activities within each role or by condensing them so they do not need as much attention (Marks, 1977).

Marks and MacDermid (1996), defined positive role balance as "the tendency to become fully engaged in the performance of every role in one's total role system, to approach every typical role and role partner with an attitude of attentiveness and care" (p. 421) or, simply put, evenhanded alertness or mindfulness. The researchers make the important distinction that their theory focuses on positive role balance, rather than negative role balance, which refers to an indifferent and cynical lack of engagement across roles. However, negative role balance was not explored in their report (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Marks and MacDermid (1996) took first steps towards examining role balance, instead of role hierarchy, as a "preferred pattern of role-

system organization" (p. 429), and they have challenged the idea that balance is "the absence of something negative rather than something positive that might be experienced in its own right" (Marks et al., 2001, p. 1084).

Marks and MacDermid (1996) supported Goode's (1960) holistic approach to understanding how individuals deal with multiple roles or identities, looking at how roles work together to form an overall pattern or make up a system and summarizing some procedural and methodological problems with past research on role strain and well-being. For example, Serpe (1991) had participants select the most significant identity from a pair of identities, whereas Thoits (1991) had participants divide the role identities they had produced into groups, ranging from highest important to lowest importance. The problem with these approaches is that they compel respondents to conform to a hierarchical system of organizing their roles (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Marks and MacDermid (1996) found that individuals who receive higher scores on role balance (those who are better able to sustain stability across all of their roles) perform higher on measures of well-being and other positive role experiences, including academic grade point average. Figure 1 is the researcher's own interpretation of some of the concepts put forth by Marks and MacDermid's theory of role balance that are relevant to this study; Figure 2 is the researcher's own depiction of a full representation of all of the concepts of role balance theory, including those that are beyond the scope of this study. The additional concepts in Figure 2 illustrate energy, time, and commitment, in relation to role balance, and how well-balanced individuals score higher on role ease and additional measures of well-being, such as self-esteem, while scoring lower on role strain and depression. Only the concepts

depicted in Figure 1, showing that role balance is tied to positive role functioning (such as

increased academic GPA), will be treated in this dissertation.
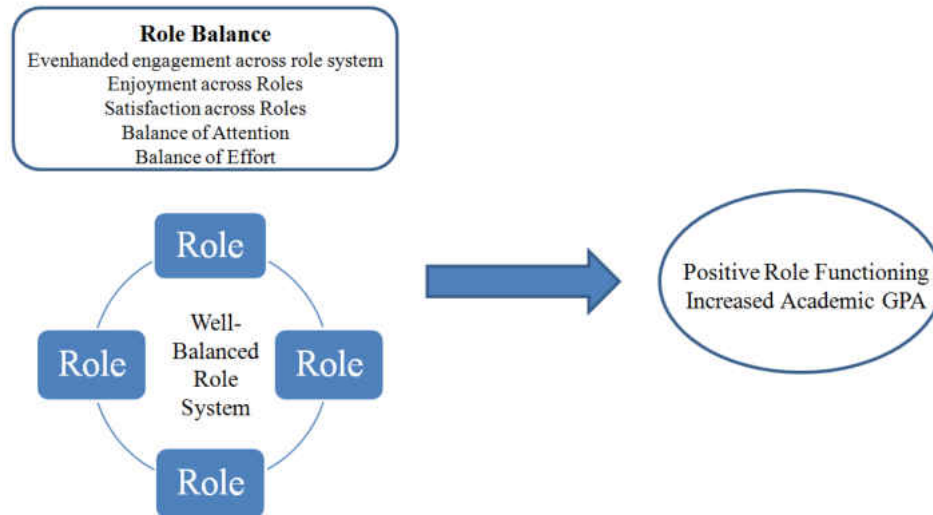
Figure 1. Depiction of the association between positive role functioning and a well-balanced role
system. Copyright 2017 by Celena Ziems.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: How does work impact role balance among community college

students, while controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle

variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status)?

Research Question 2: What relationship, if any, exists between role balance and academic

performance?
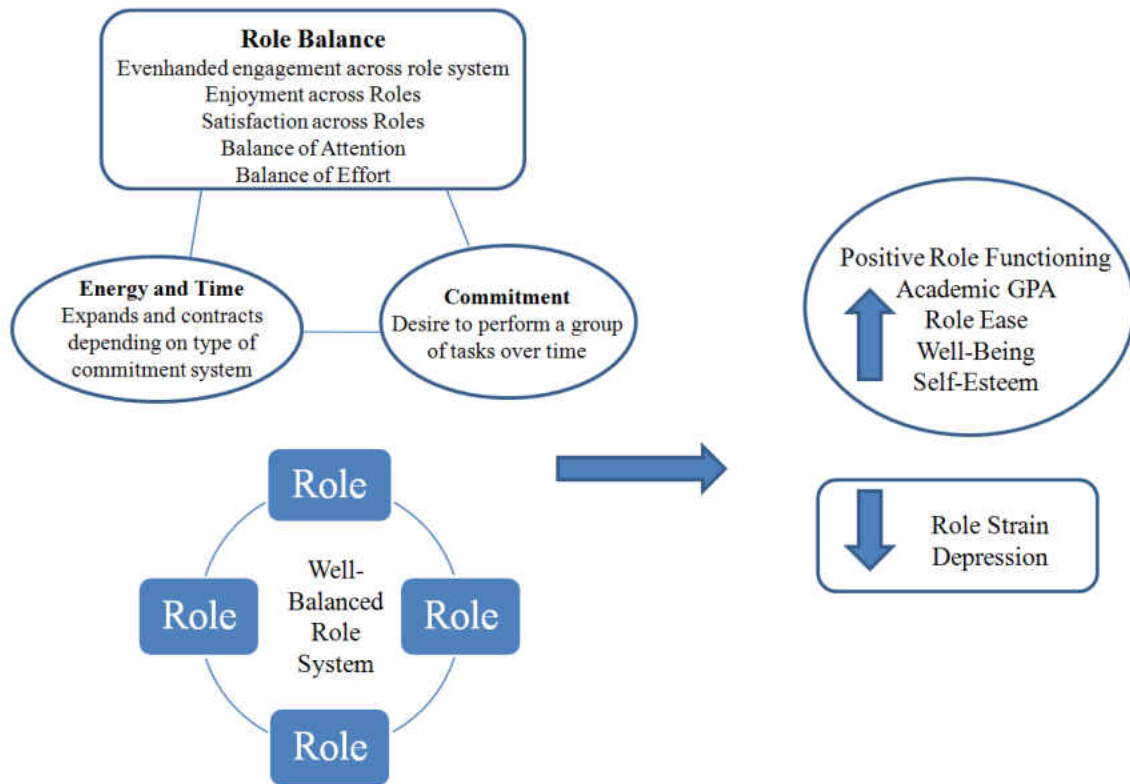
Figure 2. Depiction of role balance, energy, time, commitment, and an expanded range of positive outcomes associated with a well-balanced role system. Copyright 2017 by Celena Ziems.

Definitions of Terms

Completion/Graduation: A degree, certificate, or other formal award that is conferred.

First-Generation Student: A student whose parent(s) or legal guardian(s) have not obtained a bachelor's degree.

Full-Time Student: Student enrolled in at least 12 semester credit hours, or at least 12 quarter credits, or at least 24 contact hours a week each term (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2016-2017, Glossary Section F).

Nontraditional Student/Adult Learner: Student 24 years of age or older attending a postsecondary institution (Levin, 2007).

Part-Time Student: Student enrolled in fewer than 12 semester credit hours or quarter credits, or fewer than 24 contact hours per week each term (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2016-2017, Glossary Section P).

Postsecondary Credential: Any certificate, degree, or diploma earned after high school.

Traditional Student: Student 16 to under 24 years of age attending a postsecondary institution.

Summary

Community college students play a critical role in helping a significant part of the US population attain their postsecondary educational goals, especially students from underrepresented groups. Despite the community college reputation for open access, low completion rates continue to be a concern, prompting a shift in focus from access to completion. Academic performance is closely tied to completion rates and may be a good indicator of degree completion (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

As the availability of financial aid fails to keep pace with the costs of college, many students must work while attending school, forcing them to juggle multiple roles. Extant research on the relationship between managing multiple roles and certain educational outcomes, such as academic performance, is mixed. This chapter has provided an introduction into important issues surrounding community college students, including employment, managing multiple roles, and the significance of these factors related to academic outcomes. Role balance

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theory was the framework supporting the research questions. A gap persists in the literature

regarding the re-examination of multiple role balance from an educational, holistic, and positive

perspective. The next chapter will present the scholarly literature grounding the topic at hand.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Community college students are diverse along many dimensions, including age, gender, race, and educational goals. Community colleges have the most diverse student population in higher education, mainly because of the accessibility that community colleges offer (Boggs, 2011). The average age of a community college student is 28 and over half of the population is over 21 years of age (AACC, 2016). Older adults encounter several barriers when trying to return to college, such as technological skill deficits, financial shortfalls, and concerns about changing careers or the fear of the unknown (Florida College Access Network, 2015). In 2014, the community college population was 57% female and 62% of community college students attended part-time (AACC, 2016). In 2011-2012, first-generation students made up 36% of the community college student body (AACC, 2016). In addition, these students often have many family responsibilities (Boggs, 2011), with 17% identifying themselves as single parents (AACC, 2016). Clearly, community college students are a diverse group with distinctive characteristics and challenges.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the pertinent literature on the multi-faceted community college student. First, an overview of community colleges will be presented followed by critical issues surrounding working students, and lastly, literature regarding the student role and the implications of students taking on multiple roles, will be explored.

<center>Community Colleges</center>

"Community colleges have long remained elusive institutions, much discussed, but still poorly understood" (Shaw, Valadez, & Rhoads, 1999, p. 15). In the academic community, questions remain about the purpose of community colleges and how they influence students' lives (Dougherty, 1994; Shaw et al., 1999). Dougherty (1994) outlined this evolving debate, focusing on key issues. These issues included determining if community colleges were catalysts for advancement or reproducers of inequality for underrepresented groups, such as women, minorities, and individuals from the working class. Next, the focus of the debate shifted to advocates claiming that community colleges originated from a grassroots alliance of students and parents, while critics argued that community colleges were intentionally created due to the "self-interested actions of the capitalist class and the elite state universities" (Dougherty, 1994, p. 15). Finally, the true reasons behind the proliferation of vocational education emerged, such as the demand for occupational training for students, the demand of businesses that wanted publicly subsidized training for their employees, and community college leaders who wanted to establish financially favorable conditions in order to contribute to the success of their institutions (Dougherty, 1994). Therefore, tracing the brief history of community colleges since their inception at the beginning of the 20th century, including their remarkable growth and change, provides clues as to why community colleges have been both lauded ("democracy's college") and criticized ("the contradictory college;" Dougherty, 1994; Shaw et al., 1999). Most importantly, understanding the background of community colleges can shed light on how to address the challenges plaguing their students today.

The Many Faces and Names of Community Colleges

Over time, community colleges have been referred to as junior colleges, two-year colleges, city colleges, or "the people's colleges" (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2013). Cohen et al. (2013) defined community colleges as "any not-for-profit institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as its highest degree" (p. 2). This definition includes public and private technical institutes. Two-year colleges were initially referred to as junior colleges, which were defined as institutions "offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade" (Bogue, 1950, p. xvii). Cohen et al. (2013) explained that in the 1950s and 1960s, junior colleges referred to the lower-divisions of private universities as well as church or independently supported two-year colleges, while community colleges slowly started to refer to public institutions. By the 1970s, community colleges became the all-encompassing term. In the 1990s, some community colleges began offering bachelor's degrees, which made the definition of a community college more unclear (Cohen et al., 2013).

Origin of Community Colleges

Joliet Junior College in Joliet, Illinois, opened in 1901 and is considered to be the first public junior college in the US. The creation of the first junior college may be attributed to the radical ideas of William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, who became referred to as the father of the junior college (Scherer & Anson, 2014; Vaughan, 1985). Harper wanted to transform the way universities were structured by removing all lower-division general courses, which was traditionally completed during the first two years of study at universities, and transferring them to junior colleges, which resembled most closely a two-year extension of high

school study (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Harper thought that limiting course offerings to upper-term courses would be a more prudent use of the university's resources, including prized faculty members (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Harper also believed that a junior college would attract students who previously might not have considered attending college and would encourage certain students to limit their college education to two years, hopefully allowing only more advanced students to continue into the upper division (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Although Harper did not succeed in eliminating the first two years of study from the university, his ideas contributed to the birth of the junior college, signaling the beginning of greater access to a college education for high school graduates (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Although, generally women, minorities, and students from lower-income backgrounds did not yet attend college at the same levels as they do now. From their inception, junior colleges enjoyed a diminished level of prestige compared to their four-year college and university counterparts; however, junior colleges created a pathway for students who may not have previously been able to attend college. Junior colleges developed as high school extensions (e.g., Joliet College), out of weak four-year institutions, or straight from the plans of their founders (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Community colleges, or junior colleges, contributed to the legacy of higher education as a driver of democratization, the shift from liberal to practical education, and greater affordability and access to higher education that was enabled by the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 (Vaughan, 1985).

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, educational leaders, such as Henry Philip Tappan at Michigan, tried to separate or remove the first two years of college; they were inspired by the German model of secondary education that included the instruction typically included in the first two years of college in the US, thus allowing their universities to focus on research and

advanced training (Brint & Karabel, 1989). In 1907, California passed the first state legislation

to allow high schools to offer postsecondary programs, or localized junior colleges (Vaughan,

1985). Early junior colleges primarily offered preparatory liberal arts courses that were

transferrable to four-year institutions but eventually shifted to terminal vocational education.

Many junior colleges were secular and their courses were aimed at preparing students for transfer

to a senior college (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

  Disorganization and poor reputation were among the many problems these early two-year

colleges faced. George F. Zook of the US Bureau of Education and James M. Wood, Missouri

junior college president, organized a conference in St. Louis in 1920 to discuss common

problems. The participants from the conference started the American Association of Junior

Colleges (AAJC), an important organizing force in the two-year college movement (Brint &

Karabel, 1989). Frye (1992) framed the evolution of the junior college from 1900 to 1940 as a

reflection of a shift from upward mobility towards terminal education. Junior college leaders

were most concerned about social stability or securing a place in the hierarchy of the American

higher education system (Frye, 1992). Junior college leaders feared that the goal of upward

mobility associated with junior colleges would translate to weaker enrollment due to competition

with four-year universities. So they pushed for junior colleges to solidify their status in the US

higher education structure as a place to develop "semi-professionals" who earned mid-level

wages that could be perceived by the public as an elevation from a high school education but

stayed securely beneath four-year universities (Frye, 1992). However, junior college leaders

eventually abandoned the "terminal education" vocabulary due to incongruent goals expressed

by the public, though the legacy of terminal vocational programs and ambiguity over the mission and definition of the junior college seemed to linger until well after the 1940s (Frye, 1992).

After World War II, The GI Bill of Rights (Servicemen's Readjustment Act) of 1944 provided scholarship money to veterans (Vaughan, 1985). The Servicemen's Readjustment Act also signified a breakthrough in giving federal financial aid to students, allowing greater access to those individuals who previously could not afford to attend college (Scherer & Anson, 2014; Vaughan, 1985). The number of veterans entering or returning to college was overwhelming. Olson (1973) reported that, in 1946, veterans represented 39% of junior college students and 49% of overall enrollment in higher education. By the end of the GI Bill's education title, 2,232,000 veterans had used their GI Bill, with more than 1,000,000 veterans attending college between 1947 and 1948. This major influx of veterans resulted in a 75% increase in total college enrollment compared to pre-war numbers, meaning larger classes and larger colleges, straining college instructional resources and facilities (Olson, 1973). Therefore, the GI Bill provided more access to higher education with the addition of federal financial support for a massive number of returning solders (Scherer & Anson, 2014).

The 1947 report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (Truman Commission) aimed to improve college access and increase the role of community colleges (Gilbert & Heller, 2013). Community colleges were not always as open as they are today in the US (Scherer & Anson, 2014).

Truman's Commission on Higher Education called for the creation of a national network of community-responsive colleges, with entirely open enrollment policies, to more easily

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accommodate the vast number of soldiers without recent formal education records and/or high school diplomas. (Scherer & Anson, 2014, p. 8)

The Truman report was responsible for the change in name from junior college to community college (Hutcheson, 2002). According to Gilbert and Heller (2013), the goals of the report were mostly achieved, including increasing the number of community colleges, raising student enrollment, and increasing access to terminal vocational education. Most importantly, the Commission's report greatly enhanced the community college's place within higher education (Brint & Karabel, 1989). After WWII, enrollment in junior colleges also increased to account for 10% of all higher education enrollments in the US, surpassing 200,000 (US Bureau of the Census, 1975). In the 1940s and 1950s, efforts to expand the vocational track at community colleges were unsuccessful. The beginning of the Cold War in the late 1940s contributed to this lack of success (Brint & Karabel, 1989). A liberal arts-general curriculum, and not technical training, was recommended as the best way to promote national unity. However, with the Soviet launch of *Sputnik* in 1957, the public recognized a need for technical education in the US, which helped two-year colleges (Brint & Karabel).

During the 1960s, stimulated by the demographic wave of the Baby Boomer generation, community colleges grew faster than ever before, surpassing the growth rate of four-year institutions: 361 % compared with 201% (Brint & Karabel, 1989), which explains why a new community college opened at a rate of about one per week in the US (Mellow & Heelan, 2015; Scherer & Anson, 2014). The incredible growth of community colleges was in response to large numbers of applicants who were college-age baby boomers as well as underrepresented students, spurred on by the Civil Rights Movement (Scherer & Anson, 2014). This unprecedented growth

also caused states to rethink their public education systems (Brint & Karabel, 1989). Most states set up governing boards and some set up state master plans for their community colleges. Brint and Karabel (1989) also emphasized the impact of the 1960 California Master Plan for Higher Education, which recommended a tiered system based on students' high school grade point averages, thereby increasing the number of students enrolled in junior colleges and decreasing the number of lower-division students in state colleges and universities. Expanding the junior colleges allowed four-year institutions to be more selective. Other states followed this model that had the unintended consequence of creating a social class structure of tracking (Brint & Karabel, 1989). For example, in California, Black and Hispanic students, as well as lower-income students, were less likely to enroll in a university. The growth of junior colleges contributed to the democratization of higher education in America by allowing greater access to more students, yet it also directed students away from, or provided a substitute for, attending a four-year institution (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

Proximity was a key factor to increasing access to higher education, more so than the practice of admitting lower-performing high school students (Brint & Karabel, 1989). In the 1950s and 1960s, when community colleges opened in locations with no other publicly supported colleges, the proportion of high school graduates who enrolled immediately in college increased by as much as 50% (Brint & Karabel, 1989). A survey by the College Entrance Examination Board (1986) supported this trend, as 94% of two-year college students were residents of the same state the college was located in (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

The 1960s and 1970s saw a significant increase in vocational educational enrollment, surpassing enrollment in the liberal arts. Several contributing factors supported the passing of the Vocational Act of 1963 and its accompanying investing in vocational education:

- Increased size of two-year public institutions;

- Increased enrollment of non-traditional, minority, and disadvantaged students;

- Inclusion of adult education and postsecondary occupational programs previously offered by secondary schools; and

- Changing job market (Cohen et al., 2013).

The declining job opportunities for graduates of four-year institutions and increased support for vocational education from the federal government, private foundations and businesses, all contributed to the significant increase in community college vocational enrollment during the 1970s (Cohen et al., 2013). From 1965 to 1975, enrollment in terminal-occupational programs rose from 331,608 to 1,318,516, representing a dramatic growth in college enrollment market (28% to 35%) before leveling off in the 1980s (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1963-1975).

In the 1960s, four-year institutions increased the use of standardized entrance exams in response to the rapidly growing number of academically weaker students trying to enter their doors, resulting in these students enrolling in community colleges (Scherer & Anson, 2014). In the 1970s, criticisms from scholars regarding the benefits of open access admission policies emerged. Some scholars expressed concern about the large numbers of underprepared students entering and then dropping out of college at alarming rates. This phenomenon of entering and

dropping out led to the creation of required assessment and placement in developmental

education courses in the 1980s and 1990s (Scherer & Anson, 2014).

Vaughan (1985) described how part-time student enrollment increased dramatically in the

1970s. These students were often older than traditional students, were often women, worked full-

time or part-time, and changed the composition of the student body. By the late 1970s, there

were more women attending community colleges than men (Vaughn, 1985). Part-time students,

new students, older students, and working students, together, represent a departure from the

traditional 18 to 24 year-old (white male) students (Vaughn, 1985).

Community college growth continues, although perhaps not as rapidly as it did in the 20th

century (Cohen et al., 2013). In 2014, there were 1,132 community colleges, including 986

public community colleges (AACC, 2014). Rather than just physical growth, community

colleges will most likely continue to develop in other ways, such as diversity programming and

changes in teaching methods, due to "issues in urban public education, in internationalization, in

immigration, and in technology" (Mellow & Heelan, 2015, p. 5).

By the late 1970s, community colleges had become mainly vocational institutions (Brint

& Karabel, 1989). Wilms (1974) conducted one of the earliest studies of community college

vocational education; he found that contrary to popular belief, few students (graduate or dropout)

obtained professional, managerial, technical, or sales jobs. However, a small number of students

from higher-status programs such as accounting or computer programming, found jobs.

Nevertheless, the popularity of vocational education continued to expand until the early 1980s

(Wilms, 1974).

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, state economic development plans supported training for high-technology industries and partnering with local businesses (Brint & Karabel, 1989). As a result, community college programs and goals shifted toward vocationalization and away from the original liberal arts transfer focus (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

Brubacher and Rudy (1997) explained how American higher education has thrived partly due to its willingness to meet the needs of the people. Community colleges aimed to educate students based on individual and community needs and support positive student learning outcomes (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Trying to accommodate the many demands did not mean a sacrifice in quality, but reflected the democratic reality towards the end of 20th century, where nearly everyone worked. Continuing to separate liberal and non-liberal studies did not seem reasonable considering the social egalitarian landscape (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Thus, liberal studies were concerned with the economic, political, scientific and other problems of that time period. Thinking was significant in experimentation and intelligence was an instrument for conquering environmental challenges. These notions support the community college's pragmatic sensibility by offering liberal and vocational studies integrated within one institution (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

In the early 20th century, John Dewey, who was known for his educational philosophy of pragmatism, maintained that liberal education should be adaptable to the changing needs of the time and place, highlighting the importance of keeping higher education closely connected to current affairs (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Therefore, current problems and solutions led to a focus on vocational studies as part of the pragmatic curriculum. However, the assumption that liberal education should be transformed completely into vocational education was wrong

(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). By the 20th century, industrialization had modified many occupations and the introduction of scientific theories enhanced the intellectual and cultural aspects of vocational studies. Technical studies connected further with liberal studies due to the social implications of technological advances (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Pragmatism supported democratization of higher education, in congruence with the mission of community colleges, to provide equal access and opportunities for higher learning to all students, regardless of individual differences such as financial background and social class. Democratization also meant welcoming higher numbers of American students to higher education, including community college (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

Considering the rapidly changing American 20th century educational, political, and social landscape, the history of how community colleges have developed, provides the context for the current successes and challenges facing community colleges and their students. In addition, Cohen et al. (2003) argued that aside from general population growth, the incredible growth of enrollment in community colleges may be due to "older students' participation; financial aid; part-time attendance; reclassification of institutions; redefinition of students and courses; and high attendance by low-ability students, minorities, and women" (pp. 38-39). These institutions enroll about half of all college students, "more than half of African American, Latino, and lower income students" and over 60% needing remediation and over 40% working full-time (Mellow & Heelan, 2015). Unfortunately, community colleges have been underfunded; they receive less than 30% of aid for postsecondary education, but still serve roughly half of all college students. Throughout history, community colleges have struggled to find their identity, caught between four-year institutions and secondary education, while contending with multiple challenges.

Mellow and Heelan (2015) stressed the importance of understanding the history, different missions, and increasing and diverse student population, in order to fulfill the promise of community colleges as an agent for upward mobility and global change.

The Strain of Multiple Community College Missions

The traditional mission of community colleges was to provide students with a transfer pathway into four-year bachelor degree-granting institutions, especially for those who were not academically or economically prepared for entry into traditional four-year institutions (Desai, 2012). This mission has expanded to meet the growing needs of a diverse student population, four-year institutions, corporations, and state and local governments. This shift in needs is reflected in the two-year college's expansion into four general missions: academic and transfer; vocational and technical; remediation or developmental; and, community service (Desai, 2012).

Huelsman (2015) highlighted the problem with community colleges trying to juggle multiple missions, while receiving less state and federal support than other institutions with less diverse missions and student populations. In order to uphold their mission, community colleges must keep tuition low; however, due to limited resources, they cannot increase spending in order to bolster academic, social, and financial support systems (Huelsman, 2015).

While focus on access has been an enduring characteristic of community colleges, a shift in focus to student learning and success is part of the learning college movement, reflecting yet another shift in the community college mission. Boggs (1993) contended that student learning is the main mission and learners are the most significant people in the institution. As a result, some

community colleges have adopted a new mission, one centered on student learning as the college's purpose.

Miller and Miles (2008) explained how community colleges were meant to be teaching institutions serving the needs of surrounding communities. However, changes in function include an increased dependency on state instead of local revenue, need for philanthropic support, greater involvement in transfer education, assistance to international students, and more variety of services, facilities, and technology. Community colleges face the formidable task of trying to fulfill a wide range of needs with limited funding. In other words, the community college function has expanded to serve the needs of not only the local, but global community. Students are left to figure out which of the myriad pathways to take, with little clarity and support, which is especially confusing for students who are trying to complete a degree and continue on to a four-year institution (Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015). Community colleges have firmly established themselves as open access institutions with expansive program options and welcoming a significant number of diverse students, but they must still contend with the bigger challenge of supporting the needs of these students and increasing their completion rates.

Despite increased access, students from minority or low-income backgrounds still do not have the same opportunities or success in college as those from more privileged families (Boggs, 2011). However, Boggs (2011) noted that many students, including those considered disadvantaged, go to community college for other reasons besides attaining an associate degree or transferring to a university. The three other groups include: (a) high school students who take college classes, receive remedial education, or prepare for GEDs, (b) students who go to four-year institutions, but simultaneously take community college courses, and (c) students who are

working adults, take one course or complete a program to gain practical skills for employment (Mullin, 2010). Therefore, these types of students need help developing a clear definition of success and completion and assistance in reaching these goals.

Access to higher education has improved for Hispanic and African American students; however, the concentration of these students in "crowded, underfunded, open-access, two- and four-year colleges" (Carnevale & Strohl, 2013, p. 24) can put them at several disadvantages. In open-access institutions, graduation rates are markedly lower than the most selective four-year institutions, fewer attain a bachelor's degree and make it to graduate school, and do not reap the same economic gains. Between 1995 and 2009, approximately 70% of student enrollment for African American and Hispanic students have been in open-access institutions (Carnevale & Strohl, 2013). In 2009, 75% of White students, versus 7% and 8% for African American and Hispanic students, respectively, attended top-tier institutions, illustrating the racial and ethnic divide at different tiers of institutions (Carnevale & Strohl, 2013). In 2014, 49% of enrolled community college students were White, 22% were Hispanic, 14% were Black, 6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, 1% were Native American, 3% were two or more races, and 4% were unknown or other (AACC, 2016; Table 1). Considering that since 1995, African American students (increase of 73%) and Hispanic students' (increase of 107%) enrollment in postsecondary institutions is rising much more quickly than White students (increase of 15%), the detrimental effects of racial polarization is increasing (Carnevale & Strohl, 2013). However, the well-documented trend of higher rates of Hispanic and African American students enrolling in public two-year institutions, rather than in more selective four –year institutions, also reflects

economic issues, with a higher percentage of first-generation college students attending public two-year institutions (Ma & Baum, 2016).

Table 1

Community College Student Ethnicity

Ethnicity	% of Population
White	49 %
Hispanic	22 %
Black	14 %
Asian/Pacific Islander	6 %
Native American	1 %
Two or more races	3 %
Other/Unknown	4 %

Note: Adapted from "Fast Facts," by American Association of Community Colleges, 2016. Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/Pages/fastfactsfactsheet.aspx. Copyright 2016 by American Association of Community Colleges.

Nontraditional Students

Levin (2007) acknowledged that the general consensus in higher education literature identifying the nontraditional student from a traits perspective, where individual characteristics, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, identify nontraditional students. These traits can either help or harm student success in college and in turn, impact how institutions support their students, based on knowledge of these traits (Levin, 2007). Some areas equate nontraditional students to adult learners, defining them as individuals who are 24 years or older and are "engaged in some form of postsecondary learning activities" (Levin, 2007, p. 23). In 2011-2012, 37% of community college students were under 21 years of age, 49% were between 22 and 39 years old and, lastly, 14% were over 40 years of age (Figure 3). Therefore, nontraditional students or adult

learners appear to make up over half of the community college population, prompting the need to learn more about this multifaceted and large group of students.

Figure 3. Community college student age groups. From "Fast Facts," by American Association of Community Colleges, 2016. Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/Pages/fastfactsfactsheet.aspx. Copyright 2016 by American Association of Community Colleges.

A distinct quality of adult learners is that they commonly balancing multiple roles while attending school, such as "worker, spouse or partner, parent, caregiver, and community member" (Ross-Gordon, 2011). Ross-Gordon (2011) pointed out the benefits of these roles, as they can be sources of social support and provide life experiences that adult learners can use to connect to and better understand abstract concepts in school, which may be more challenging for younger students (Ross-Gordon, 2011). However, Ross-Gordon (2011) acknowledged that many times, managing various roles produce obstacles in terms of time commitment for in-class and extra-curricular activities.

From 1970 to the 2000s, the percentage of postsecondary students who are nontraditional students has grown from 25% to 75%, illustrating how nontraditional students now represent the majority (Levin, 2007). Despite nontraditional students becoming the majority, most literature uses the traditional student as the norm to which nontraditional students are compared (Levin,

2007; Mellow & Heelan, 2015). Additionally, nontraditional students are seen to be at a

disadvantage, when compared to traditional students, in terms of outcomes ranging from degree

completion to earnings. According to the US Department of Educational Research, 90% of all

community college students possess a minimum of one trait associated with non-traditionality

(Levin, 2007). Some community college practitioners reject the nontraditional label or try to

avoid the use of the term, while others accept the term, but define it differently according to

specific sets of characteristics (Levin, 2007).

According to Kim, Sax, Lee, and Hagedorn (2010), nontraditional students have been

generally categorized based on age; however, nontraditional students are much more multi-

faceted. Some characteristics of nontraditional students also include entering college over one

year after high school, having dependents, full-time employment, financial independence, being

a part-time student, and not attaining a high school diploma (National Center for Education

Statistics [NCES], 2009). Kim et al. (2010) pointed out the benefit for community college

researchers and administrators to examine different ways of understanding their students,

including exploring how community college students perceive themselves in their different roles,

such as students and workers. The researchers also urged to break away from the "research-

imposed definition to a student-centered definition of identity" (Kim et al., 2010, p. 404).

Current Challenges for Community Colleges

Forty-two percent of all undergraduate students (and 25% of full-time undergraduate

students) were enrolled in public two-year colleges in fall 2014 (Ma & Baum, 2016). At the

peak of the recession (2008), enrollment in community colleges jumped by 22% (Juszkiewicz,

2015, p. 3). In the last few years, overall postsecondary institution enrollment has decreased, along with community college enrollment, perhaps due to the rebounding economy (Juszkiewicz, 2015). However, higher education continues to change; therefore, another shift may potentially occur, if students move away from four-year institutions and gravitate towards more economical and versatile options, like community colleges (Juszkiewicz, 2015). Notably, even within this decline of enrollment at two-year institutions, the decrease in part-time student enrollment was not as severe as full-time student enrollment (2.7% decrease versus 4.8% decrease in fall 2014, respectively; Juszkiewicz, 2015).

Community colleges, known for their reasonable tuition, open door admissions, flexible class times, and local presence, are especially significant to older students, working students, and those needing remedial coursework (White House, 2015). During a time of economic globalization, community colleges are a vital part of filling the skills and education gap to meet the growing industry needs in the new knowledge economy.

<u>Graduation Rates</u>

Community colleges are expected to play a major role in meeting the Obama administration's target of increasing postsecondary graduation rates to be first in the world by 2020, so that 60% of 25-34 year-old students have a postsecondary credential (Century Foundation, 2013). The Lumina Foundation has a similar goal that by 2025, 60% of all Americans will have earned a college credential (Lumina Foundation, 2014). Furthermore, of 8 million degrees needed to reach the goal, 5 million are expected to come from community colleges. Unfortunately, public community colleges are not meeting this challenge, as 81% of

students starting community college for the first time state they want to transfer on to a four-year institution to earn at least a bachelor's degree, but only 12% earn a bachelor's degree within 6 years (Century Foundation, 2013). Furthermore, the overall college dropout rate in the US may be as high as 50%, with community college dropout rates even higher (Century Foundation, 2013). In 1995, only 36% of all first-time community college students completed a certificate or degree in six years (Bailey & Leinbach, 2005). Graduation rates vary depending on what parameters the reporting entity chooses to use and are difficult to capture accurately at the community college level. Therefore, Juszkiewicz (2015) recommended caution when analyzing graduation figures, as the Department of Education's (DOE) graduation rate is commonly known to be imprecise in gauging student completion for community colleges in particular. Many community college students are left out in the calculation of DOE's graduation rate, as "the graduation rate applies only to students who enroll in the fall, are first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduates, attend full time and complete within 150 % of normal program completion time at the institution in which they first enrolled" (Juszkiewicz, 2015, p. 5). Most community college students do not meet these criteria since they only attend part-time, enroll in other terms other than the fall, and are not usually first time in college students (Juszkiewicz, 2015). They also may not plan on seeking a degree or certificate at the community college, but instead, plan to transfer elsewhere to do so (Juszkiewicz, 2015). For instance, the National Student Clearinghouse (NSC) Research Center measured degree completion using a longer tracking duration and across different institutions (Juszkiewicz, 2015). When these factors are considered, fewer than 40% of students who initially attended a community college, including those who completed their degrees at another institution, earned their degrees within six years in

fall 2008 (Juszkiewicz, 2015). This 39.1 % graduation rate is almost twice as much the DOE's graduation rate of 21.1% (within 4 years and within 200% of normal completion time); however, the NSC's graduation rate data still revealed the concerning statistic that less than half of community colleges are completing a degree within six years.

According to Juszkiewicz (2015), adult learners (age 24 years and older) had lower graduation rates (37%) compared to students under 20 years of age (about 41%), yet had a higher graduation rate than students between 20 and 24 years of age (almost 28%; Juszkiewicz, 2015). Juszkiewicz's (2015) findings on age differences in completion rates for students starting at a 2-year institution suggested that successful timely completion of a degree is a concerning issue not just for adult learners, but also for younger or emerging adult learners as well.

According to Figure 4, completion rates were different based on age and gender for students starting in a 2-year public institution. When combining completion at the starting institution, at a different 4-year institution, and at a different 2-year institution, the completion rates for women and men were almost 43% and 37%, respectively (Juszkiewicz, 2015). More recently, completion rates for women and men decreased slightly to almost 42% and 36%, respectively (Juszkiewicz, 2016). For adult learners attending part-time, their completion rate was almost 27%, compared to approximately 49% for adult learners attending full-time (when combining completion from the different institutions shown; Juszkiewicz, 2015). More recently, for adult learners attending part-time, their completion rate was almost 26%, compared to almost 50% for adult learners attending full-time (Juszkiewicz, 2016). Therefore, women appeared to have fared slightly better than men in terms of completion at a 2-year institution and adult

learners have higher graduation rates when attending 2-year institutions full-time, instead of part-time (Juszkiewicz, 2015).
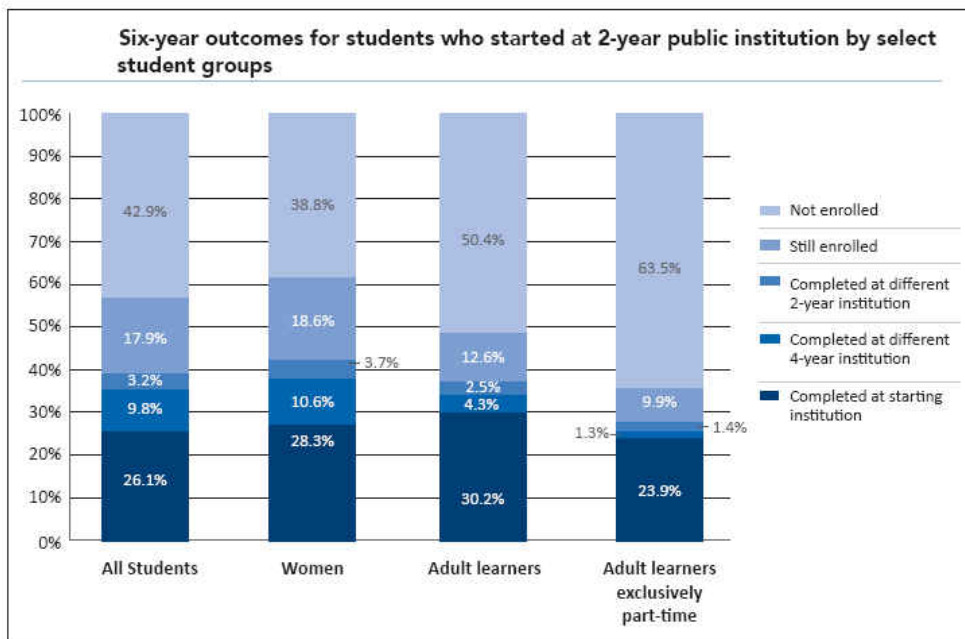
Figure 4. Overall six-year completing rate for students who started at a 2-year public institution by specific student groups in fall 2008. From "Trends in Community College Enrollment and Completion Data," by J. Juszkiewicz, 2015, American Association of Community Colleges. Copyright 2015 by American Association of Community Colleges. Reprinted with permission (Appendix A).

In response to low graduation rates at community colleges, state and federal governments, and organizations aimed at increasing postsecondary graduation rates began to take notice (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Complete College America (CCA) released a report in 2012 arguing for the elimination of remedial education since it was ineffective and preventing students from completing their education in community college. In order to preserve the mission of open

access, completion advocacy groups leaned towards allowing all students entry into college-level work. Therefore, Scherer and Anson (2014) explained how many community colleges had to return to laissez-faire open access admission policies, in an effort to allow students as much access as possible to a college-level education in community colleges, in the hopes of increasing student success. Scherer and Anson (2014) argued that a better approach to the completion problem was one that focused on learning first, with completion as a natural side effect, instead of college completion as the primary agenda. For example, setting high expectations early on and encouraging excitement for learning and reading are some strategies that should be emphasized at the secondary school level, long before students finish high school (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Low-income and ethnic minority students, for instance, may view attending community college as a guaranteed and inevitable pathway due to the low tuition, geographic proximity, and the absence of any academic admission requirements (Scherer & Anson, 2014). Scherer and Anson (2014) argued that unrestrained access to underprepared students would not resolve the nation's community college completion problem, but would perpetuate social inequality (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

Although community colleges are the least funded and serve the most at-risk students, they are also the biggest, most open-access, and fastest-growing higher education sector (Boggs, 2011). In 2008, the rate of enrollment in college among 18 to 24-year-olds in the US of almost 40% was the highest since 1974, which was largely fueled by a rapid increase in enrollment (almost 12%) in two-year institutions among those in the same age group (Pew Research Center, 2009). This enrollment boost reflected not only challenging economic times due to the recession, but also an unprecedented percentage of young adults graduating from high school

(almost 85% of 18 to 24-year-olds; Pew Research Center, 2009). Women have also continued to make up the majority of college enrollment among the 18 to 24-year-old group (53%), although men in the same age group reached a record 37% (Pew Research Center, 2009). White 18 to 24-year-old student enrollment in college reached almost 41%, a record high. Hispanic enrollment in college was 26%. Lastly, Black 18 to 24-year-old student enrollment was 32%. This enrollment boost that coincided with the recession may indicate a broader trend of higher community college enrollment coinciding with challenging economic conditions (Pew Research Center, 2009). Therefore, community colleges play a critical role in preparing a large and diverse population of young adults for work, by providing them with the skills and knowledge they need to obtain employment (at a lower cost than four-year institutions), especially during difficult economic times.

The dilemma for community colleges involves choosing between the need to uphold the original transfer mission or trying to address the needs of diverse students by attempting multiple missions. Community college advocates argue that they provide open access and meet the needs of diverse students, but competing missions mean fewer resources to go around and diluted benefits for students. Therefore, the challenges facing community colleges are numerous, but evaluating their core missions and how they can improve student access, learning, and success, can help address and overcome these challenges.

The community college in the US is a unique two-year institution that has rapidly grown in its brief history (Boggs, 2011). Community colleges provide a diverse and large student population access to higher education and most importantly, giving these students access to the American dream. Challenges involving student access, learning and success persist across

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higher education, but community colleges have the uniquely challenging task of clarifying its mission in a rapidly changing educational landscape. For instance, Cohen et al. (2013) highlighted the issue of mission creep in relation to the expanded offering of bachelor's degrees at community colleges. Supporters claim that offering these programs provide students with more opportunities to continue their education at a lower cost in a program that may not be offered at a four-year university, while others contend that the original mission of serving the needs of the community is still being upheld (Cohen et al., 2013). However, opponents argue that expanding programs in this way will harm students by diverting resources, detracting from the central mission (of facilitating transfer to four-year institutions), and conflicting with the open access hallmark of community colleges (Cohen et al., 2013). Therefore, community colleges should closely examine these shifts and identify effective strategies to improve student access, learning, and success within the rapidly expanding community they serve.

Academic Performance and Persistence

Many students who start community college do not persist and do not transfer on to four-year institutions. According to Figure 5, Black (17%) and Hispanic students (17%) could not keep pace with White (36%) and Asian students (46%) in terms of obtaining a bachelor's degree within six years (Baum et al., 2013). According to Baum et al. (2013), older students (25 and older), who usually have more family obligations than younger students, seem to struggle to persist in college. For students who began their postsecondary education in 2003-2004, six-year outcomes showed that 54% of older adults left without completing a degree and did not return, compared to 27% of students age 18 or younger and 37% of students between age 19 and 24 as

shown in Figure 5. More recently, for students who began at a two-year public institution in

2012, three-year retention data revealed that approximately 42% of students left without

completing a degree or certificate and did not return. Only 14% had earned an Associate's

degree or certificate. Furthermore, almost 39% of students who had intentions to complete a

Bachelor program within 5 years left without completing a degree or certificate and did not

return (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES] 2012/2014).

Outcomes by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Age Group: Students Who First Enrolled in 2003-04

	Bachelor's Degree	Associate Degree	Certificate	No Degree, Still Enrolled	No Degree, Left Without Return	Total
Total	31%	9%	9%	15%	36%	100%
Gender						
Male (43%)	30%	9%	8%	16%	37%	100%
Female (57%)	31%	10%	11%	14%	35%	100%
Race/Ethnicity						
White (62%)	36%	10%	8%	13%	33%	100%
Black (14%)	17%	8%	13%	20%	43%	100%
Hispanic (15%)	17%	8%	16%	17%	42%	100%
Asian (5%)	46%	8%	5%	19%	22%	100%
Other (4%)	27%	8%	8%	21%	36%	100%
Age						
18 or Under (43%)	45%	9%	5%	15%	27%	100%
19 to 24 (38%)	28%	10%	9%	16%	37%	100%
25 or Over (19%)	5%	10%	19%	14%	54%	100%

NOTE: Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

Figure 5. Degree completion outcomes by gender, race/ethnicity, and age group: Students who first enrolled in 2003-2004. From "How College Shapes Lives: Understanding the Issues," by A. Baum, C. Kurose, and J. Ma, 2013. Retrieved from https://trends.collegeboard.org/sites/default/files/education-pays-2013-how-college-shapes-lives-report.pdf. Copyright 2013 by the College Board. Reprinted with permission (Appendix B).

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) pointed out that grades in college, or academic performance, may be the best predictor of "student persistence, degree completion, and graduate school enrollment" (p. 396). The focus on the relationship between grade performance and persistence seems justified, as grade point average is the common thread in the educational realm, weaving through "students' standing and continued enrollment, to admission to majors with enrollment caps, to program and degree completion, to admission to graduate and professional schools, and to employment opportunities" (Pascarella & Terenzini, p. 396). Furthermore, several studies, including national student samples, found first-year grades to be positive and significant predictors of degree completion (Adelman, 1999; Heller, 2001; Ishitani & DesJardins, 2002-2003).

Examining the sequence of events starting from when students enter community college through graduation, can reveal opportunities for institutional improvements, if students' goals are unmet along the way. Past studies have included the impact of external factors, such as socioeconomic status and demographics, on community college students, but the impact of institutions, not just individually, but in American higher education overall, needs further exploration (Desai, 2012).

Community college missions are broad and complex, adding to the difficulty of measuring student success or completion. Trying to maintain access and inclusion, which are key components of the community college mission, while developing effective strategies to improve student success, continue to be major challenges. However, college faculty, leaders, researchers, policy makers, organizations and foundations, can continue to collaborate and assess best practices, structures, and ways to help students succeed (Boggs, 2011).

In order for community colleges to continue the upward trajectory of their short history, they must continually find balance between their traditional values and changing needs of the students and environment around them. Similar to the institutions they attend, community college students also juggle multiple competing priorities or roles. A student self-perception approach allows for a more complete portrait of students in multiple roles (Kim et al., 2010).

<div style="text-align: center;">Multiple Roles</div>

Many college students must shoulder the burden of rising tuition costs through working full-time or part-time while enrolled in classes, as support from financial aid may not be sufficient and families find themselves unable to fully financially support their students (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). As a result, college administrators, faculty, and staff, are increasingly concerned about the toll work takes on students' motivation to stay enrolled and engaged in their studies. This conflict between work and school roles "can be a source of stress, absenteeism, and even turnover" (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007, p. 88). Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) highlighted the scant literature on inter-role conflict and the student's relationship between school and employment. Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) conducted a study using a sample of 320 full-time business students (18-23 years old) who worked part-time or full-time. The aim of the study was to develop and test "a conceptual model of work-school conflict and well-being" (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007, p. 102). Lenaghan and Sengupta's (2007) study also serves an example of the different approaches to multiple role research, most notably the divide between the enrichment and depletion perspectives.

The researchers found that their study gave some support for the depletion argument, or the proposition that conflicting and imbalanced school and work pressures were harmful to the individual's well-being and that role participation generated emotional strain. Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) found that students experienced role overload or role strain due to role conflict between employment and school, contributing to more negative affect and a decreased sense of well-being. Furthermore, this study implied that role strain or role-overload, rather than role-ease, was more indirectly related to a lower sense of well-being.

However, Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) also found support for the enrichment argument, which supported the idea that conflicting school and work pressures may have positive implications for individuals.

> The findings suggest that when college students experienced role-ease and the type of conflict they experienced was school interfering with work, positive affect was likely to increase and negative affect was likely to decrease which, in turn, lead to greater feelings of well-being. (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007, p. 103)

If school conflicted with work, college students thought of this as a good conflict, since the top priority for students is usually to complete a degree (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). The researchers also discovered that role balance was critical the well-being of college students.

Overall, Lenaghan and Sengupta's (2007) study yielded mixed results. Neither the depletion or enrichment viewpoints prevailed, as the impact of multiple roles varies depending on the student. Some students may view juggling work and school roles and positive, especially if the nature of their work is related to school (e.g. internships; Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). However, some students may view multiple role conflict as negatively impacting their academic

aspirations (Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) expressed concern about the possibility of a continuing downward trend of feelings of well-being, as tuition continues to rise, prompting students to work more hours. However, Lenaghan and Sengupta's (2007) findings also lend support for work as a multi-faceted beneficial experience for students, providing much more than just financial resources; benefits to students include strengthening their social and communication skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills, confidence and self-esteem, and lastly, facilitating career advancement.

Huie et al. (2014) recognized the need to look at how students cope with possibly competing priorities of their work and school roles, since so many students work while going to school. Huie et al. analyzed the results of questionnaires from first-year college students from a mid-Atlantic public university twice (at the start and end of the term). The average age of student participants was about 19 years of age and the majority of them were White (62%), followed Asian (17%), and lastly, a minority of students were Black (7%), Hispanic (5%), and Other/Mixed (9%), illustrating a fairly homogenous population. At the beginning of the study, just over half of the students had jobs, worked about 16.5 hours per week, and 70% worked on-campus (Huie et al., 2014). At the end of the term, just over one-third of the students had jobs and worked about 15.25 hours per week. While past research implies that work has both beneficial and detrimental influences on academic achievement, further research is needed to examine possible key factors connecting employment status and academic achievement among college students (Huie et al., 2014). Huie et al. found that while there were no significant differences in GPA between working and non-working students during the first semester in college, these differences grew over the first year. As the number of hours worked increased,

GPA decreased, suggesting that achievement differences between working and non-working students may widen over time as students get adjusted to college. The researchers suggested that future research explore the connection between employment status and academic performance with students further along in their degree progression (second year). In addition, decreasing the number of hours worked over time was related to higher academic performance (Huie et al., 2014). Interestingly, students who were better at managing their time were not more likely to decrease their number of hours worked, which left a lingering question for future studies to explore why students may choose to decrease their number of hours worked (Huie et al., 2014).

While research on college students and multiple roles, especially pertaining to community college students, is sparse, extant multiple role research rooted in psychology and sociology disciplines may help illuminate this topic and future directions for research applicable to multifaceted college students. Due to the wide scope of topics encompassed under multiple role research, including innumerable roles individuals may take on, the following review of multiple role research will be limited to specific areas most pertinent to the current study. First, the student role will be discussed, followed by an examination of the working student role and the impact on educational outcomes, including academic performance, which is the main focus of this study. Next, the marital and parental roles will briefly be addressed, as these are roles nontraditional college students typically have, which may also have implications for working students and educational outcomes, due to the additional juggling of potentially demanding roles. Lastly, research regarding the work-family dynamic, gender, and well-being will be highlighted due to the prominent nature of these topics in past multiple role research. Balancing multiple roles is a complex concept that bridges and overlaps with several subtopics. Therefore, the

following discussion of each role will inevitably cross-over into other roles and related topics, in a fluid manner, which mirrors the nature of multiple role research.

Student Role

Knop (1969) outlined career preparation, intellectual development, and extracurricular activities, as the key areas of college student life or the student role. If a student were to be missing one of these areas, this individual would fall outside the notion of the typical American college student. Knop pointed out how each student can differ significantly regarding which areas they give more attention to. Furthermore, role conflict occurs when students try to satisfy all of these areas fully, but end up making sacrifices due to time constraints. The value a student places on each area and the nature of the situation both play a part in what a student decides to do (Knop, 1969).

Knop (1969) explained how an individual's role, or set of expectations, represents "a person's position in the social structure" and the person's "performance in this position will influence how others view him, thus influencing how he views himself" (Knop, 1969, p. 171). This position in society affords an individual both privileges and responsibilities. Knop (1969) highlighted the importance of how roles are actually defined through an individual's interactions with others, or significant others. Significant others become role-definers, or individuals with a "vested interest in the given status or the individual who occupies the status, or both" (Knop, 1969, p. 171). Expectations from these role-definers can become pressures, as the role-holder tries to fulfill what are often times, different and conflicting expectations from various role-

definers (Knop, 1969). As a result, the role-holder may feel incompetence, confusion, anxiety, and frustration.

Knop (1969) cautioned that the student role involved more beyond just completing assignments and going to class. The student's main role-definers and expectations of faculty, parents, and peers, need to be considered (and for today's student, spouses and children should be considered as well). When role conflict occurs, Knop explained two different facets of students' reactions: ranking their expectations in priority order and through mechanisms within the campus social system that can reduce strain (Knop, 1969). Regarding the campus social system, Trow explained how students form subcultures (vocational, nonconformist, collegiate, and academic) on campus, which may indicate which area students will tend to focus on regarding meeting expectations. The *vocational* refers to students who focus on technical training. The *nonconformist* students focus on intellectual exploration. The *collegiate* refers to students who emphasize developing social skills. Lastly, the *academic* represents a balance across all of these expectations. Knop (1969) conceded that there also may be some students who rank most of their expectations evenly, but reduce the importance of one or two areas. Students also may not strictly follow the priority ranking of their expectations in response to role conflict. Therefore, colleges must rely on formal rules, such as required class attendance or general education requirements, to ensure students are aware of the college's expectations (and requirements) of all its students (Knop, 1969).

Knop (1969) pointed out the significance of *intermediary status* individuals, another component of the campus social system, such as deans of students or student counselors, who also serve to reduce strain and maintain stability within the college system.

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While students may differ individually in how they react to role conflict in order to reduce anxiety, key reactions include physically separating themselves from what is causing the conflicting demands or socially distancing themselves from the individuals who are demanding too much (Knop, 1969). For example, students may stop attending school for some time or withdraw from organizations that are too demanding of their time (Knop, 1969). Students must take into consideration the goals that are important to them (priority ranking), consequences of different options (including severity), and situational cues (such as customs or expectations of those present). The challenge lies in the difficulty of students determining the best course of action that minimizes role conflict, strain, and anxiety, while maximizing personal benefit, due to the interconnectedness and potential for conflict among these factors (Knop, 1969).

For the purposes of this study, Knop's definition of the student role needs to be expanded upon to include other roles that current students face. The role of the "student" is just of one of several for many college students; many often take on the roles of caregiver and worker (Perna, 2010). This notion is backed by "quantitative and qualitative data from both single- and multi-institutional samples" (Perna, 2010, p. 247). Trying to juggle these various responsibilities can be problematic and stressful for these students (Perna, 2010).

<div align="center">Community College Student Role</div>

Karp and Bork (2014) examined interview data from a study of student success classes with students, faculty, and staff from three community colleges in Virginia, in order to come up with a clearer definition of the community college student role. Karp and Bork (2014) pointed out that while students entering community college may have a general idea that college is not

the same as high school, they are not aware of what exactly the differences are and what the expectations are. While it is plausible that high school students could gain this information from their guidance counselors and teachers in high school or that community colleges can reach out to students to prepare them, Karp and Bork (2014) argued that this does not seem to be occurring based on past research. The researchers also revealed that students feel they are not provided much information before enrolling in community college, although community colleges insist that they connect with high school students in the area. Karp and Bork also explained how counselors do not share key information about community colleges, such as specific requirements for students to enter certain courses, even though community college is open-access. Lastly, community colleges do not always arrive straight from high school, so they do not benefit from the same information that high school students may receive (Karp & Bork, 2014). Karp and Bork (2014) argued that community college students are usually expected to follow implicit behavioral norms set by faculty, family members and peers. However, postsecondary institutions and institutional agents may not clearly communicate these expectations to their students, leading to student confusion and incongruence between "faculty expectations and student knowledge about those expectations" (Karp & Bork, 2014, p. 3). The consequences of this incongruence may be harmful to student success, especially for first-generation students who do not have family members who can help them with behavioral norms in college (Karp & Bork, 2014).

Karp and Bork (2014) found that the community college student role was composed of four areas, (or the expectations from others regarding what these students need to be successful): "academic habits, cultural know-how, balancing multiple demands, and help seeking" (p. 28).

Academic habits refer to the new behaviors and attitudes community college students must adopt, which may differ from high school, such as creating an adhering to an individualized study schedule. Cultural know-how refers to adapting to the institutional culture, such as using academic language in oral and written communication (Karp & Bork, 2014). Community college students must juggle multiple roles, such as worker and parent, while professors expect students to make their classes a high priority, despite knowing about the other important responsibilities community college students possess (Karp & Bork, 2014). Lastly, in order for community college students to be successful in their roles, they must recognize when they need help, know how to get help, and actually reach out to ask for help, instead of passively waiting for help (Karp & Bork, 2014).

The community college student role is more ambiguous and requires a higher level of self-awareness and reflection, which is in contrast with other roles (Karp & Bork, 2014). More specifically, compared to high school or employment, the community college role is more unstructured (student selects schedule and strategies to manage time), feedback is less frequent, and more flexible (student chooses studying strategy). Students must be able to use self-awareness and reflection to analyze their own behaviors and determine how to solve problems they encounter in trying to fulfill this new role successfully (Karp & Bork, 2014). Karp and Bork (2014) highlighted the need for future research to expand the sample size of students and colleges, as well as examine how community college student characteristics, such a race, ethnicity, gender, or age, may influence how various groups of students experience the community college role differently.

Working Student Role

Students work for a variety of reasons, such as obtaining work study through financial aid, whereas others must work to pay for tuition, other college-related expenses, and life-related expenses. Some students work for career exploration reasons as well. The myriad reasons why students work should be considered and may muddle understanding how employment impacts college students (Perna, 2010). Despite different motivation to work while in school, students often have difficulty juggling the roles of student, worker, parent, and others, increasing stress and anxiety, thus contributing to a lower likelihood of successfully completing degrees.

Age and Working Students

Young and mature working students (or learners) differ in many ways, including earnings, ethnicity, programs of study, and number of children. Mature working learners, or students ages 30-54, generally already have some kind of postsecondary credential and are trying to meet job requirements, advance in their jobs, or change careers (Carnevale et al., 2015). Interestingly, 42% of mature working learners earn above $42,000 per year compared to only 9% of young working learners after earning their bachelor's degrees (see Figure 6). The dramatic rise in mature working learners earning higher wages after attaining a bachelor's degree could be attributed to more job or educational experience, or even the healthcare and business programs they choose to pursue.

"One-third of working learners are 30 or older" (Carnevale, et al., 2015, p. 11; Figure 6). Carnevale et al. (2015) highlighted that roughly "40 % of undergraduates . . . work at least 30 hours a week" (p. 11) and 25% of working students are working full-time, as well as attending

college full-time. In addition, "19% of all working learners have children" (Carnevale et al., 2015, p. 11). However, the percentage of working learners who have children may differ based on age. According to Figure 6, 20% of young working learners have children, but 61% of mature working learners have children. In addition, mature working learners seem to be disproportionately African-American, work full-time, gravitate towards pursuing a healthcare, business, or other applied field in an associate's degree or certificate at community colleges (and for-profit colleges), are low income, female, and have children. Working students are multi-faceted; therefore, attempting to better understand their characteristics can also facilitate a better understanding of their potential needs.

Employees Who Study Versus Students Who Work

There are two types of working adults based on if they weighed work or enrollment in college more heavily (Berker, Horn, & Carroll, 2003). "Employees who study" refer to those who identify as employees who decided to enroll in college, while "students who work" refer to those who think of themselves as students who work to meet expenses (Berker et al., 2003, p. iii). The 1999-2000 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSA) included currently enrolled undergraduate students who were at least 24 years old (considered adult undergraduates), because "students are recognized as financially independent of their parents for financial aid purposes" at this age (Berker et al., 2003, p. iii).

In 1999-2000, about two-thirds of the working adult students perceived themselves to be employees who study, while the remaining one-third viewed themselves as students who work. Employees who study tended to be older, as the average age of employees who study was 36,

while the average age of students who work was 30 (Berker et al., 2003). Employees who study

also seemed to have more family obligations (married with children) than students who work.

Summary Table

		Young working learner, 16-29 years old	Mature working learners, 30-54 years old*
	Share	67%	33%
	Sex	56% women	59% women
	Race/ethnicity	Disproportionately white	Disproportionately African-American
	Common occupations	26% food and personal services occupations 6% in managerial occupations	12% food and personal services occupations 17% in managerial occupations
	Common majors	Social sciences, humanities, business, and other applied fields	Healthcare, business, and other applied fields
	Share working full time	40%	76%
	Common degree program	Bachelor's degree	Certificate/Associate's degree
	Institutional sector	Four-year colleges	Community colleges and for-profit colleges
	Share with children	20%	61%
Wages after completing Bachelor's degree	Wages above $42,000 per year	9%	42%
	Between $7,500 and $42,000 per year	58%	46%
	Less than $7,500 per year	33%	12%
Wages while enrolled	Wages above $42,000 per year	10%	8%
	Between $7,500 and $42,000 per year	67%	53%
	Less than $7,500 per year	23%	39%

Source: Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce analysis of data from the National Postsecondary Student Aid Review, 2012 and National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health waves 3 and 4, 2001-2009.

* A small share of working learners (3%) is over 55 years old and is generally excluded in the analysis of this report.

** The federal poverty line varies by household size. In 2015, an income of $23,540 represents 200 percent of the federal poverty line for a single individual.

Figure 6. Comparison of working students by age group. From "Learning While Earning: The New Normal," by A. P. Carnevale, N. Smith, and E. W. Price, 2015. Copyright 2015 by Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce. Retrieved from https://cew.georgetown.edu/workinglearners. Reprinted with permission (Appendix C).

Employees who study also seemed more inclined to attend community college and choose vocational and technical areas of study, rather than social and behavioral sciences (Berker et al., 2003). Employees who study tended to have full-time employment and part-time enrollment in college, rather than students who work, meaning that their perceptions seemed to be in line with their actual time spent working or in school (Berker et al., 2003). Although the majority of employees who study believed in the importance of earning a degree or certificate, only about 37% completed a credential within six years, compared to 45% of students who work (Berker et al., 2003). In addition, employees who study were more likely to drop out during their first year of study (32% of employees who study compared to 7% of students who work) and did not come back after six years, although after the first year, attrition rates were similar between the two groups. Berker et al.'s (2003) findings implied that students who work experience greater gains in educational outcomes, including credential attainment, due to reduced family obligations and devoting more time to school instead of work. Berker et al.'s findings seemed to align with other studies comparing employees who study and students who work. For instance, Kim et al.'s (2010) study analyzed Transfer and Retention of Urban Community College Students (TRUCCS) survey results from 5,000 first-year students from nine community colleges in Los Angeles. The researchers found that individuals who identified as students first and employees second, had the highest degree goals, had completed the most credits, were most prone to skip class, most inclined to procrastinate on an assignment, and most likely to spend a significant amount of time on campus (behind students who did not work; Kim et al., 2010).

Employees, who identified as students second, worked the most hours per week, had the most job-related duties, spent the least amount of time on campus, and were least likely to

participate in class discussions or believe that their institution had desirable social activities (Kim et al., 2010). Although these profiles illustrate how various roles students have impact their educational experiences, goals, and beliefs, there are limitations to the interpretation of this data. For instance, individuals who perceive themselves to be students who work, may actually work more hours than employees who attend school, illustrating inconsistencies between the prioritization of the employee role and number of hours worked (Kim et al., 2010). However, exploring the characteristics and outcomes generally associated with employees who study and students who work, contributes to a deeper and multifaceted understanding of working students, especially employees who study, who tend to be nontraditional students.

The characteristics, needs, and roles of the community college student population have expanded and diversified, prompting changes and growth in the community college mission. These changes can mean competing priorities and present new challenges and opportunities for both the students and the institution.

According to the 2012-2013 US Census Bureau, almost 14 million people, or 8% of the workforce, are working and enrolled in degree and non-degree programs, as well as vocational programs; in addition, 70% to 80% of all college students work as well. From 1970 to 2005, the percentage of full-time enrolled 16 to 24-year old students employed increased from over 30% to almost 50%, while the percentage of part-time enrolled 16 to 24-year old students employed had a smaller increase from about 82% to 85% (NCES, 2009), as illustrated in Figures 7 and 8. However, from 2000 to 2013, as depicted in Figure 9:

The percentage of full-time 16- to 24-year-old college students who were employed declined from 52 percent to 40 percent between 2000 and 2013. During the same time

period, the percentage of part-time students who were employed declined from 85

percent to 76 percent. (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2015, "College

Student Employment," para. 1)

However, despite the overall decrease in the percentage of students working while attending

college in recent years, "the percentages of part-time students who worked less than 20 hours per

week or 20 to 34 hours per week in 2000 were not measurably different from the corresponding

percentages in 2013" (NCES, 2015, "College Student Employment," para. 2). Therefore, it

appears that the number of hours that part-time students have been working (up to 34 hours per

week) has not really changed. The recent overall downward trend of working while in college

may be due to fluctuations in economic conditions, like the recession; therefore, continuing to

monitor this trend will be important to determine if it will continue downward or start to increase

again, which would align with the over quarter century (1970 to 2000) upward trend of working

while attending college. Although this data is specific to a young adult age group, it provides an

important indicator regarding employment trends among college students, which can fluctuate.

These trends imply that college students continue to juggle multiple roles. Therefore,

understanding these trends and the impact of working on college students is critical.

Percentage of 16- to 24-Year-Old College Students Who Were Enrolled Full Time and Employed, 1970 to 2005
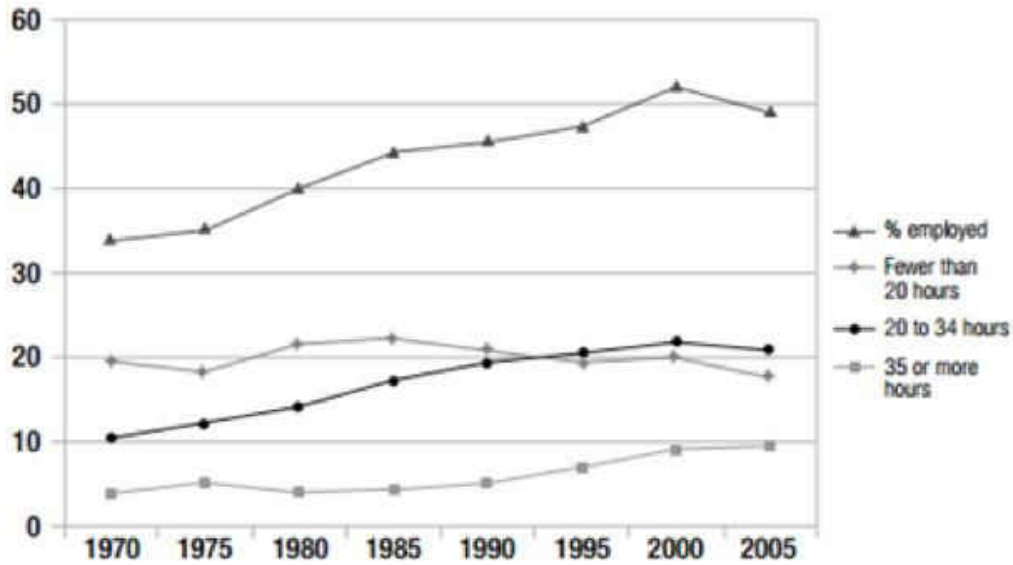
Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Condition of Education 2009.*

Figure 7. Percentage of 16–24 year old college students who were enrolled full-time and employed, 1970 to 2005. From "National Postsecondary Student Aid Study: 2007-2008," by National Center for Education Statistics, 2009. Copyright 2009 National Center for Education Statistics.

Percentage of 16- to 24-Year-Old College Students Who Were Enrolled Part Time and Employed, 1970 to 2005
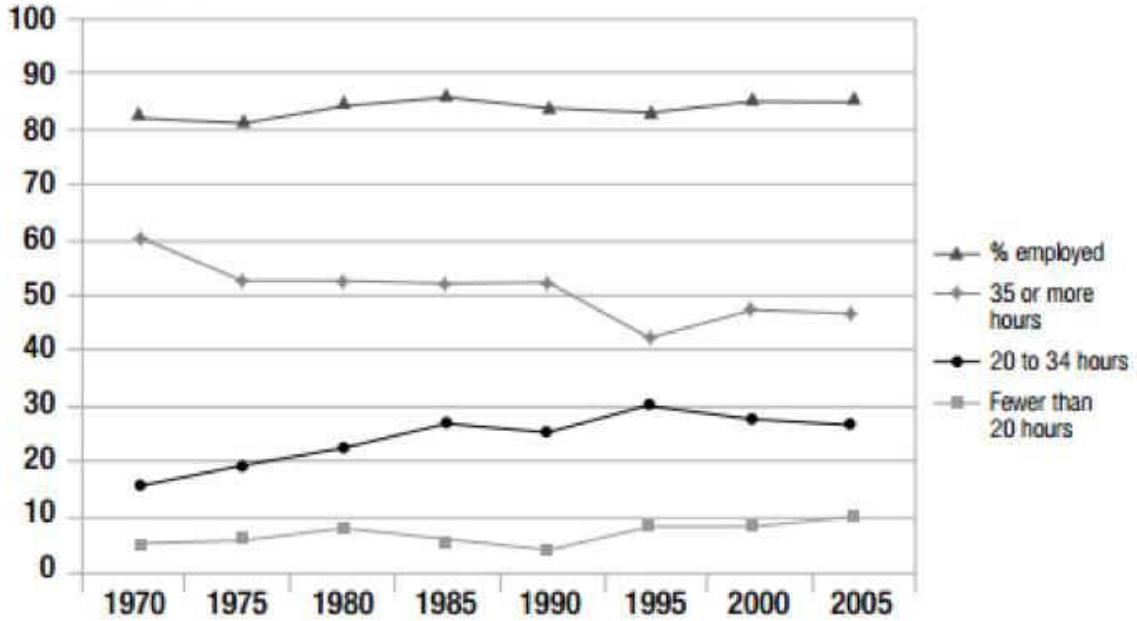
Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Condition of Education 2009.

Figure 8. Percentage of 16–24 year old college students who were enrolled part-time and employed, 1970 to 2005. From "National Postsecondary Student Aid Study: 2007-2008," by National Center for Education Statistics, 2009. Copyright 2009 National Center for Education Statistics.

Percentage of 16- to 24-year-old college students who were employed, by attendance status and hours worked per week: October 2000 through October 2013

NOTE: Students were classified as full time if they were taking at least 12 hours of undergraduate classes (or at least 9 hours of graduate classes) during an average school week and as part time if they were taking fewer hours.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through October 2013. See Digest of Education Statistics 2014, table 503.20.
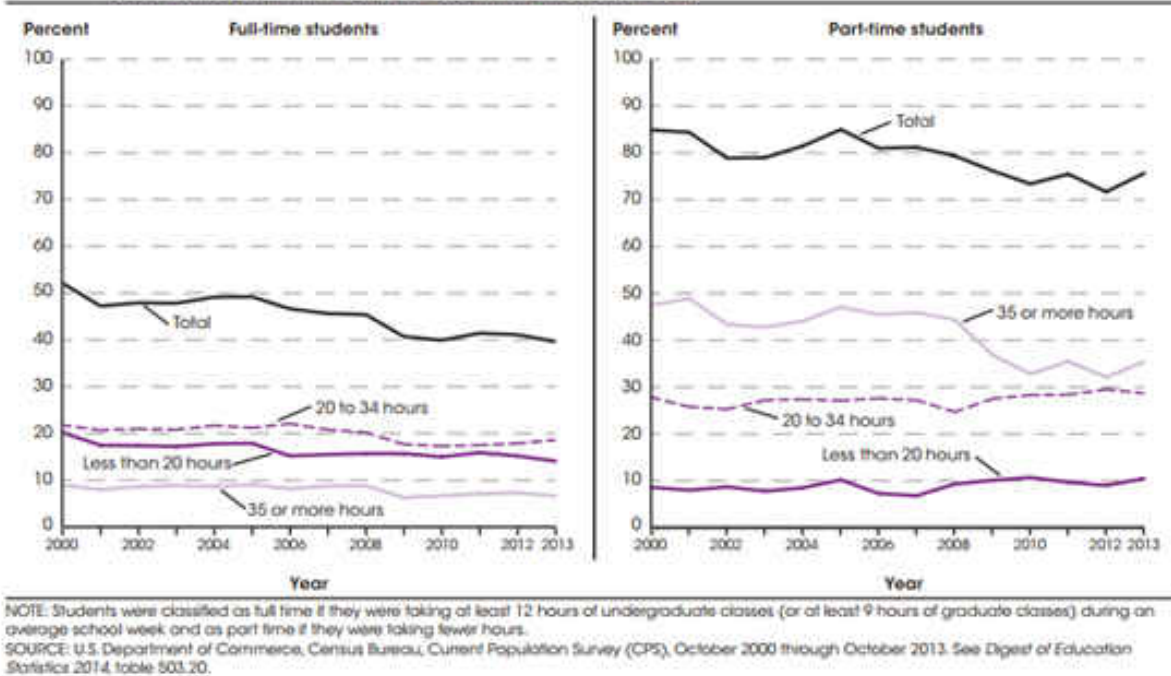
Figure 9. Percentage of 16–24 year old college students who were employed, by attendance status and hours worked per week: October 2000 through October 2013. From "National Postsecondary Student Aid Study: 2007-2008," by National Center for Education Statistics, 2009. Copyright 2009 National Center for Education Statistics.

Work Hours and Educational Outcomes

Community college students trend towards working more hours compared to four-year college students (Dadgar, 2012; Ma & Baum, 2016). In 2011-2012, of all the students attending public two-year institutions, 33% worked full-time, while only 20% of students attending public four-year institutions worked full-time (Ma & Baum, 2016). Furthermore, for those students who were specifically enrolled full-time in public two-year institutions, the percentage of those students also working full-time (23%) was almost twice as much as students in public four-year institutions (12%). In other words, students from two-year institutions seem more likely to face

work and school challenges than those attending four-year institutions, warranting a closer examination of the positive and negative impact of working on community college students' educational outcomes.

Perna (2010) pointed out how qualitative data on student experiences were different "based on the number of hours worked and the nature of competing roles and responsibilities" (p. 263). For instance, Perna (2010) found differences in "the relationship between work and African American students' engagement in effective educational practices" (p. 263) depending on if they lived on or off campus; therefore, more research is needed to comprehend this relationship between working and student educational outcomes, taking into account other student characteristics, such as "race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and enrollment status" (Perna, 2010, p. 263).

Carnevale et al. (2015) found that working while in college is preferable to just working after high school, since college students who work while completing their degrees are more apt to earn more money and attain managerial positions, versus those who take full-time jobs after high school. Although research generally shows that working excessive hours while in college negatively impacts degree completion, the reason behind this common occurrence is unclear (Carnevale et al., 2015). Possible reasons for low degree completion rates among full-time working college students include "working more, having access to fewer educational and support services, the relevance of the program to their career, or other barriers associated with socioeconomic status" (Carnevale et al., 2015, pp. 11-12). Students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to work full-time and enroll in community colleges. For instance, 33% of young working learners, who tend to enroll more in four-year institutions, are low

income, while 65% of mature working learners, who tend to enroll more in community colleges and for-profit college, are low income (Carnevale et al., 2015).

Torres, Gross, and Dadashova (2010) studied traditional-aged (under age 21) commuter students attending urban colleges, while working, in Indiana. The researchers discovered through survey data that the full-time traditional-aged students worked about 30 hours per week, while the full-time older students worked fewer hours (under 30 hours a week). Torres et al. (2010) found that students who worked over 30 hours per week were likely to complete fewer credit hours and have lower GPAs (Torres et al., 2010). Therefore, if average high school students are exposed to a college curriculum, learn about the importance of time spent studying and the risk of working too many hours while in college, they may make better decisions while in college (Torres et al., 2010). Students who are academically weak, based on SAT scores and other data, seem to work more hours (Torres et al., 2010). More research is needed, but "many traditional-age students may be making self-defeating choices in working so much while attending college full time" (Torres et al. 2010, p. 65). Torres et al. (2010) found that compared to residential institutions, students with low SAT scores and regular high school diplomas at urban commuter institutions are the least aware of their capability to handle full-time college attendance with a demanding work schedule. Torres et al. discovered that traditional-age (under 21) students with average academic college preparation are more likely to work excessive hours.

However, Murphy's (2010) findings show that there may be some benefits for students working more hours. Murphy found that there were no significant differences in engagement between students who worked more intense hours (at least 30 hours per week) and those who worked less intense hours (less than 30 hours per week). In addition, students who worked in

higher stress and more inherently rewarding jobs were actually more engaged in school, lending support to the idea that community college students may be able to handle work and school at higher intensity levels (Murphy, 2010). Murphy (2010) also recommends further examination into how students experience their academic and work worlds and how the two relate to each other, which may provide further insight into what factors assist students in successfully balancing these two worlds.

Kulm and Cramer (2006) surveyed 500 undergraduate students from a mid-western university regarding the relationship between the extent of employment and student life and other outcomes, such as the student role and persistence. Kulm and Cramer argued that working while enrolled in college does not need to be a barrier to students and how work can be beneficial, if balanced appropriately with school. For instance, working about ten hours per week on-campus may have a positive influence on student performance, while working 35 hours or more can have negative repercussions, including restrictions on the number of classes students can take and fewer course schedule options (Kulm & Cramer, 2006). Furthermore, Kulm and Cramer found that as the number of hours worked per week increased, so did the interference with study and student time. Grade point average decreased as the number of hours worked increased. Finally, there was no significant relationship between class attendance and extent of employment, which may be due to students finding classes that worked well with their work schedule (Kulm & Cramer, 2006). Kulm and Cramer's (2006) study did not reveal a significant association between family relationships and employment; however, they note the plausibility of students having less time to spend with family if they work more hours (Kulm & Cramer, 2006).

Exploring Work and Positive Outcomes

Perna (2010) noted positive connections between employment and certain student outcomes. For instance, in two quantitative studies, adult students working full-time had better grades than those who were not working (Perna, 2010). In addition, working over 20 hours a week on campus was related to increased levels of engagement than working fewer hours per week (Perna, 2010). Specific reasons for why these outcomes occurred are unclear; therefore, future research should involve different methodologies, including quantitative and qualitative, to determine if there are other characteristics students possess which may explain how they were able to handle working more hours, yet still obtain positive educational outcomes (Perna, 2010). The positive relationship between employment while enrolled in college and future earnings may be due to students gaining valuable skills, attractive to employers, during this time (Perna, 2010). However, more research is needed to support this proposition.

Persistence in Kulm and Cramer's (2006) study referred to the "continuation of enrollment until graduation" (p. 930). Surprisingly, students working an increasing number of hours correlated positively with persistence. The researchers suggested that the students working a higher number of hours weekly were more focused on graduation and putting forth all of their effort towards graduating or perhaps the students working more hours may have dropped out already and were not part of the study (Kulm & Cramer, 2006).

Kulm and Cramer (2006) recommended that future research look at other institutions in the US in different geographic regions in order to gain insight on diverse groups of students. Working while in college has its benefits when the job is aligned with field of study (Carnevale et al., 2015). In addition, the experience on the job translates to increased career opportunities.

Working and Academic Performance

Dadgar (2012) noted how research is lacking on the relationship between academic

outcomes and employment for community college students. Dadgar studied academic (student

quarterly transcripts) and employment data (from the state Unemployment Insurance system)

from a sample of students enrolled in their first term at one of Washington State's community

and technical colleges in 2001-2002, in order to determine how working influences college

students' term GPA and credit hours. About 73% of students in the study were employed while

enrolled in college, with the majority of students working part-time. Almost half of the

employed students worked a minimum of 20 hours a week, while 16% worked full-time (or at

least 35 hours per week; Dadgar, 2012). The students in Dadgar's (2012) study differed from

NCES data in that the sample included 11% of Black or Hispanic students, versus 30-36%,

suggesting that future research may be needed to examine a more representative student

population. The most common types of employment for these students were retail, food service,

and health care and social services. "Students who worked moderate hours were much younger

and less likely to be from a low-SES family compared with students who worked full time"

(Dadgar, 2012. p. 14). However, Dadgar (2012) stressed the importance of differentiating

between the impact of pre-existing student characteristics and the actual impact of work

intensity. Furthermore, Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner (2003) recommended that rather than

assuming that young students should limit their hours worked, both the academic consequences

and benefits should be considered. For instance, employment early in life can positively

influence future earnings (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003). In other words, the impact of

work on academic performance may vary based on the different factors related to an individual's

circumstance (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003). Because an individual may choose to work a specific number of hours for different reasons, even after controlling for individual characteristics, potential biases may still be present (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003). An individual's characteristics and motivation for choosing to work a specific number of hours may present biases which should be addressed before making any assumptions about the effect of hours worked on academic performance (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003). Dadgar suggested that if students moderately increase the number of hours they work (between 1-10 hours per week), the negative impact on GPA was quite small while there may be a positive impact on credits earned. Dadgar's (2012) findings seemed to refute Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner's (2003) findings that suggested considerable negative impact on college students' GPA due to employment. Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner found that students who worked during their first term at Berea College experienced a negative impact on grade point average, using 1989-1997 data. Students at Berea College receive financial assistance that covers their tuition in full; however, they are required to work a minimum of 10 hours a week in the college's labor program. However, students may choose to work additional hours for added income (Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner). The researchers cautioned about drawing conclusions based on the results of their study due to the unique institutional and student characteristics at Berea College (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2003).

Similar to Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner's (2003) study, DeSimone (2008) sought to assess the relationship between employment and grades for college students. More specifically, DeSimone studied the impact of employment on grades for students enrolled full-time at four-year institutions. DeSimone argued that they provided a stronger study compared to

Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner's study, by using a more updated and larger nationally representative sample (1993-2001, Harvard College Alcohol Study data) that included students from all class standings. DeSimone found that for each added hour of work per week, GPA for the current year decreased by roughly 0.011 points, which could mean the difference between an A- or B+ for a student working 30 hours per week, compared to students who do not work. DeSimone also found that working had a more pronounced negative impact on GPA for non-White or Hispanic students and for those students who reported being healthiest. However, similar to Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner, DeSimone also warned about drawing conclusions about employment having a deleterious effect on academic performance for college students. DeSimone argued that working may have an indirect influence on academic performance due to undetected different student characteristics that impact employment and grades. For instance, students who are apathetic about school may choose to work long hours instead or unmotivated students may not work or attempt to do well in school due to lack of effort (DeSimone, 2008).

Alfano and Eduljee (2013) conducted a study to compare differences in work, involvement, and academic performance between 108 residential and commuter undergraduate students in a private Northeastern college. Interestingly, the researchers found no significant relationship between grade point average and hours worked. They also found that residential (living on-campus) students, compared to commuter (living off-campus) students, were more involved in college-sponsored activities, such as intramural sports and clubs, and reported that they felt more connected to the institution; however, both groups of students shared that they still desired to engage in more college-sponsored activities. Almost 47% of residential students reported that the main reason they worked was to obtain spending money, while almost 52% of

commuter students reported that paying bills/rent was the main reason for why they worked (Alfano & Eduljee, 2013). Lastly, commuter students reported experiencing greater levels of stress at work than residential students experienced at work (Alfano & Eduljee, 2013). The researchers recommended further research regarding the connection between employment, involvement, and academic performance and commuter and residential students, especially with a larger sample of students (Alfano & Eduljee, 2013).

<div align="center">Achievement Differences between Working and Non-Working Students</div>

The researchers found that among working and non-working first-year college students, academic achievement (GPA) did not differ significantly in the first term (Huie et al., 2014). However, the GPA gap expanded when looking at the overall first year from beginning to end, and "number of hours worked was negatively related with GPA," implying that measuring achievement differences between the two groups in the first semester of college may be too early, as new students need time to adjust to college life (Huie et al., 2014, p. 128). Since many studies vary in when employment status and academic performance is measured, yielding mixed results, additional research should analyze this relationship for an extended length of time beyond the first year in college (Huie et al., 2014).

Huie et al. (2014) found that working and non-working students were no different in their ability to manage time and motivation. However, time spent working was connected to academic performance, implying that working students do not have as much time to study due to work (Huie et al., 2014). Working students with a high GPA had better time management skills and were more proficient at effort regulation, or persisting at work that was challenging or

uninteresting, versus working students who had below a 3.0 GPA. This finding suggested that working students who can manage their time and effort well may be more likely to achieve high academic performance, compared to working students who are not as adept at managing time and effort (Huie et al., 2014).

<div align="center">Working and Negative Academic Performance</div>

Full-time college students who work may find themselves in difficult situations where they feel compelled to work in order to cover the cost of college, since federal grant-aid has not kept up with increasing college costs (King & Bannon, 2002). Unfortunately, students' academic performance and general college experience suffers as a result. King and Bannon (2002) examined student employment data gathered from 1,031 surveys from students all over the US. King and Bannon (2002) found that 46% of all working students work at least 25 hours per week and 42% stated that working was detrimental to their grades. In addition, 53% of students enrolled full-time, who also worked at least 25 hours per week, revealed that working restricted their course schedule, while 38% said working constrained their class choice (King & Bannon, 2002). About 80% of traditional college students worked part-time while enrolled full-time (Perna, 2010). In the past decade, the percentage of full-time, traditional-age college students working fewer than twenty hours per week has declined (to about 15% in 2007), while the number of students working between 20 and 34 hours per week has increased (to about 21% in 2007). The spread of students based on the number of hours worked seems to be comparable across institution types (e.g., community college, public, and private four-year institutions).

Dundes and Marx (2007) pointed out the lack of knowledge regarding the impact of off-campus employment on undergraduate students and how the number of hours worked may be a contributing factor. Past research revealed that when students work more than 15-20 hours a week, there is a negative impact on academic performance and persistence to graduation, consequently (Dundes & Marx, 2007). However, Dundes and Marx (2007) argued that students who work less than 15 to 20 hours per week usually experience higher GPAs and graduation rates than students who do not work. For instance, in King's (2002) study of 12,000 undergraduate college students, she discovered that students who worked under 15 hours per week had a higher likelihood of graduating than students who did not work. Dundes and Marx (2007) found that there was an association between students who worked off-campus for about 23 hours a week and reduced on-time graduation rates; however, GPA was not affected significantly. Interestingly, Hood, Craig, and Ferguson (1992) found that the GPA of students working 5 or less hours a week was similar to the average GPA (2.9); however, students who worked 5 to 10 hours per week had the highest average GPA (3.2; Dundes & Marx, 2007). Lastly, students working 10 to 20 hours per week had average grades and students working more than 20 hours per week had somewhat lower GPAs (2.8; Hood et al., 1992). Dundes and Marx (2007) uncovered that students working 20 hours or less per week, and those working 1 to 10 hours, in particular, had higher GPAs than students who did not work at all.

Furr and Elling (2000) pointed out the lack of separation between being a college student and "a member of the workforce" (p. 454). The researchers conducted a survey by telephone on randomly selected students in a southeastern university to explore the impact of work on student development. The researchers found that as students' participation in off-campus jobs increased,

students are less prone to engaging in critical learning experiences and are more likely to state that work is getting in the way of their academic studies (Furr & Elling, 2000). Furr and Elling (2000) also found that "students who worked 30 or more hours per week were less involved with campus activities than students who were not employed or were employed fewer than 30 hours" (p. 454). Students who worked a greater number of hours per week thought that their work schedule was harmful to their education (Furr & Elling, 2000). However, actual measures of academic performance (overall GPA, credit hours earned, or credit hours dropped) revealed no significant differences across increasing ranges of hours worked off campus. Therefore, additional studies are needed to learn about the true effects of work on academic performance or progress (Furr & Elling, 2000). Lastly, non-employed students stated that they interacted more often with faculty members and were more prone to developing significant relationships with them, which proved to have a positive impact on keeping students enrolled in classes (Furr & Elling, 2000).

Spousal Role

"The lives of women and men, the relationships that they establish, and their work have changed dramatically in the past 50 years," yet the fact that most women and men get married and have children, has remained the same (Barnett & Hyde, 2001, p. 781). Marriage is generally positively associated with health, while divorce is negatively associated with health (Moen, et al., 1992). However, timing of divorce may play a role, as not being married later in life has fewer negative ramifications (Moen et al., 1992). However, aside from the connection between

marriage and well-being, marriage may have important implications for how couples manage multiple roles.

Marks et al. (2001) interviewed 80 White working-class couples in order to compare their feelings of role balance, especially considering gender. The researchers found that the wives' feelings of greater role balance were associated with increased paid hours of work (but fewer of these hours were on the weekends), reduction in financial stress, less leisure time alone with their children, increased leisure time with their husbands, and more social networking. In contrast, the husbands' feelings of role balance rose with higher income and more leisure time with family, but feelings of role balance decreased with increased hours of work (Marks et al., 2001). Marks et al. (2001) concluded that the differences in feelings of role balance between husband and wives may be due to the fact that their daily lives were different, thus prompting them to balance their roles differently, suggesting that traditional gender roles may have contributed to this result. However, Marks et al. (2001) noted that future studies need to examine role balance among couples who do not follow established gender roles, such as lesbian couples with children or couples who have shared values of equality (i.e. similar income, child care responsibilities, importance of marriage over work; Schwartz, 1994).

Howard (2005) pointed out the dearth in research on college students who live together. Howard surveyed a large urban Southern community college to explore the academic and financial problems that cohabiting students encounter, and sought to contrast these students with others, including married and single students found that married students (40%), compared to single (roughly 28%) and cohabiting students (about 15%), were more likely to report that they had a 3.5 GPA or higher. Falling in the 2.0 to 2.49 GPA range, cohabiting students (23%) were

most likely to report this GPA over single and married students (both about 7%; Howard, 2005).

Howard also found that marital status had a stronger relationship with academic disruption,

rather than number of hours worked. More specifically, married and cohabiting students

presented with more disruption than single students (Howard, 2005). Lastly, cohabiting students

are less likely to have a family member with a postsecondary degree and are more likely to work

more than 20 hours per week while enrolled in college, compared to single students (Howard,

2005). Expanding the traditional marital status dichotomy to include cohabiting is important to

capture more accurate data about educational outcomes for these different groups. As Howard's

(2005) study showcased, while married students seemed more likely to have higher GPAs, they

were also more likely to have academic disruption. However, outcomes for cohabiting students

do not align completely, prompting the need for further research into these differences and other

potential contributing factors that may be impacting academic outcomes.

<div align="center">Parental Role</div>

Almost a quarter of all college students in the US have children, who are also dependents

(Nelson et al., 2013). Furthermore, "among low-income and first-generation college students,

more than a third are parents, and students of color are especially likely to be balancing

parenthood and college," (Nelson et al., 2013, p. 1) including 37% of African American and 25%

of Hispanic students rearing children. The negative educational consequences of raising children

while attending college include a lower likelihood of completing a college degree, considering

that 53% of parents, compared to 31% of nonparents, did not attain a degree after six years

(Nelson et al., 2013). Furthermore, students with children must contend with juggling multiple

roles and various time commitments, as over 40% of student parents also work full-time and over 50% devote about 30 hours per week on caregiving responsibilities. However, Nelson et al. (2013) point out that student parents may experience some positive educational outcomes as well, as a NPSAS (2008) study found that student parents have higher GPAs than students without children. Attewell and Lavin (2007) also highlighted how children can benefit in the short-term and long-term through their parents furthering their education. Benefits include higher pay, better access to resources, increased participation in the child's education, and an increased likelihood that the child will go to college (Attewell & Lavin, 2007). Nelson et al. (2013) argued that higher education institutions are not doing enough to analyze the needs and experiences of students with children. The researchers also underlined the importance of postsecondary institutions understanding the relationship between parental status and college educational outcomes, especially related to low-income students, if they are to help student parents succeed academically.

Considering the Work-Family Dynamic, Gender, and Well-Being

Barnett and Hyde (2001) supported the expansionist perspective or positive view of multiple roles, in terms of gender, work, and family. Relationships between women and men have transformed significantly over the last fifty years, prompting the need to address the gap in research regarding an expansionist theoretical approach to gender, work, and family within the context of the current landscape of the new dynamic between women and men (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). More specifically, between the 20th and 21st century in the US, family and employment responsibilities of women and men rapidly changed. For instance, women have matched or

exceeded men regarding enrollment in college; even where inequality remains, such as leadership roles and pay, women are working steadily to close that gap (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Furthermore, Bond et al. (1998) pointed out how working women are reducing time spent on child care and household duties, while working men are increasing their time spent on these tasks. Additionally, Marshall and Barnett (1993) studied full-time employed, White, dual-earner couples, and found that work-family strain is not always a predictable outcome. Over two thirds of the participants, including women and men, stated that combining employment and parenthood provided them with benefits and helped them improve as parents (Marshall & Barnett, 1993). The researchers implied that if women and men have less traditional attitudes towards their gendered roles, they can boost their perception of enhancement from putting work and family roles together, while decreasing work-family strain. A lighter workload at work and at home may also reduce work-family strain (Marshall & Barnett, 1993).

Barnett and Hyde (2001) proposed that that multiple roles are salutary for both women and men, including in the areas of mental health (Thoits, 1983), physical health, and healthy relationships. "Adding the worker role is beneficial to women, and adding or participating in family roles is beneficial to men" (Barnett & Hyde, 2001, p. 784). However, Barnett and Hyde recommend that additional research examine the factors that may repress the positive effects of multiple roles. Some of the researchers' propositions included the notion that role quality is more salient than role quantity (time spent in a role or number of roles). For instance, individuals may gain benefits from working long hours if they are enjoying their work and find it satisfying (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). However, the researchers conceded that they were basing their theory on "White, middle –class, American, and heterosexual couples in the 1980s and 1990s" (Barnett

& Hyde, 2001, p. 794), suggesting the need for caution and future research that may address these potential shortcomings. Nonetheless, they presented a convincing argument for a reframing of multiple roles in a positive light for men and women in contemporary society.

However, Coverman (1989) explained that the shift towards gender equality meant a heavier workload and expansion of roles for women due to factors such as more women entering the workforce, working longer hours, and becoming head of household, which may play a role in possible negative outcomes for women. Coverman (1989) questioned if stress-related outcomes were due to the demands of these multiple roles for women. Coverman (1989) also pointed out how research was mixed regarding the connection between several different role demands and psychological health, which may have come from a lack of distinction between role conflict and role overload. "Role conflict and role overload tend to be used interchangeably in the literature when, in fact they are related but distinct concepts" (Coverman, 1989, p. 967). More specifically, in the past, role conflict has often commonly been thought to occur when individuals take on several roles at the same time, however, Coverman (1989) argued that an individual taking on excessive role demands without sufficient time to meet these demands, refers to role overload, not role conflict. Coverman (1989) explained that role conflict actually occurs when an individual is faced with incompatible demands from two different roles. Role overload commonly leads to role conflict when there are no other ways or resources available for an individual to satisfy his/her different roles (Coverman, 1989). Coverman (1989) cited the example of a working mother experiencing role conflict due to a lack of child-care options. Role conflict may occur independently of role overload when time sensitivity is not a factor (Coverman, 1989). Coverman (1989) examined data from the 1977 Quality of Employment

Survey, which included a sample of married men and women working at least 20 hours per week. Coverman (1989) found that perceived role conflict was harmful to the psychological wellbeing of women, while role overload, which was measured as time spent on different roles, was not. Coverman (1989) suggested that the successful use of coping strategies may have helped them minimize harm to their mental health.

Moen et al. (1992) noted the overall health (physical, psychological, and social) benefit of women having multiple roles, especially as they age, since aging is increasingly associated with role reduction, instead of role accumulation. Moen et al.'s study involved interviewing a sample of women from upstate New York, ages 55-81 twice in 30 years, once in 1956 and the second time in 1986. Successful aging translates to good health and social integration later in life. Older women tend to be more socially isolated than younger women (Moen et al., 1992).

Moen et al. (1992) employed a life-course perspective regarding successful aging. The researchers were less interested in the causal relationship between multiple roles and the impact on health, but were most interested in identifying the different ways to achieve social integration and health later in life. Roles can emerge and dissipate throughout a lifespan, such as retirement indicating a departure from work, but the acquiring of a new retiree role. *Timing* refers to the "incident, duration, and sequence of roles throughout the life course" (Moen et al., 1992, p. 1614). *Process* examines "aging as a series of role transitions rather than as a single event" (Moen et al., 1992, p. 1614). *Context* relates to women's personal situations, including factors such as age, education level, marital status, and number of family members (Moen, et al., 1992). The number, timing, and duration of roles seem to be minor influencers, as women's satisfaction with their roles may be the most influential factor regarding the impact on women's health

(Moen et al., 1992). Women experienced role strain when combining working or community activities with homemaking and parenting, while women with higher self-esteem and life satisfaction were more likely to have healthy lifestyles (Moen et al., 1992).

Verbrugge (1983) highlighted the benefits of working in relation to women's health. More specifically, working married parents had better physical health than individuals without any of these roles, with employment having the strongest influence and parental status having the weakest effect (Verbrugge, 1983). Verbrugge's (1983) study did not find that employment, marriage, and parental status, combined, were detrimental to women's health. Volunteering also appeared to have a positive impact on men and women's health, considering that women's participation in clubs or organizations was positively associated with longevity, though it is unclear how the length of time, number of occurrences and timing of volunteering influence women's health (Moen et al., 1992). Moen et al. (1992) determined the following:

Occupying multiple roles in 1956, participating in volunteer work on an intermittent basis, and belonging to a club or organization were positively related to various measures of health and that occupying multiple roles in 1956, as well as doing volunteer work, was positively related to occupying multiple roles in 1986. (p. 1612)

In other words, having multiple roles in early adulthood to mid-adulthood had some positive connections to outcomes later in life, as well as the likelihood of having multiple roles later in life as well.

Black et al. (2009) studied secondary data from the Family and Community Health Study (FACHS), which included a subsample of almost 700 (close to 300 were raising children alone) African American mothers living in rural areas in Iowa and Georgia to determine the "direct and

indirect effects of stressors, coping behaviors, and roles responsibilities on health functioning"
(p. 144) using role accumulation theory. The average age of participants was about 35 years of
age and participants had an average of three children; 72% of participants were working, over
60% had a high school education, and the average annual gross household income was $39,362
(Black et al., 2009). Black et al. (2009) argued for the need for additional research regarding
how every day experiences, such as financial challenges, responding to stressful situations, and
parental and community demands, impact the physical and psychological health of African
American women. While Sieber's (1974) role accumulation theory proposed that women
ultimately gain more than they lose by engaging in multiple roles, evidence of these benefits
have not been explored for African American women or for individuals dealing with financial
strain (Black et al., 2009). Black et al. (2009) found that financial strain was related to a lower
ability to cope, less engagement in multiple role obligations, and had a negative impact on
mental health, which also influenced physical health. In contrast, the researchers found that
African American women in their study experienced greater mental health, which was related to
physical health, when they engaged in role duties related to their children, communities, and
religious organizations (Black et al., 2009). Black et al.'s (2009) study implied that having good
methods of coping and a sense of control regarding an individual's situation in life was also
connected to augmented mental health, coupled with physical health.

Tiedje et al. (1990) studied 158 married women, each with a preschool child and
employed as college faculty members or mid-level managers. The researchers were interested in
understanding how women who balance their roles of mother, spouse, and professional,
perceived their roles along the lines of comparing different models of role conflict and role

enhancement. The role perception continuum model offered that women view enhancement and

conflict on a scale, with role enhancement and role conflict at opposite ends (Tiedje et al, 1990).

Tiedje et al. (1990) found that balancing various roles did not necessarily result in perceptions of

enhancement, while role conflict did not always occur due to fulfilling multiple challenging

roles. Tiedje et al. (1990) also discovered that for some women, they thought that their roles

caused both conflict and enhancement, for others, their roles caused conflict or enhancement, and

lastly, some did not have much conflict or enhancement at all from their roles. In other words,

"perceptions of conflict and enhancement are not mutually exclusive" (Tiedje et al., 1990, p. 70)

and differ among individuals. Instead, the researchers found that perceptions of role conflict and

enhancement were somewhat related, which may suggest that they can both occur at the same

time. Furthermore, their results aligned more with a role typology model with four categories; in

this case, women who had experienced "high enhancement and low conflict scored highest on

measures of mental health and role satisfaction," while women who experienced "low

enhancement and high conflict scored lowest" (Tiedje et al., 1990, p. 63). Tiedje et al. (1990)

study provided support towards understanding role perceptions in terms of a co-existence or

balance of conflict and enhancement; what supported women's health and well-being was how

much more enhancement, rather than conflict, a woman gained from various roles.

While research may tend to focus on women in terms of the work-family dynamic,

perhaps stemming from traditional gender roles attached to women, like childrearing, these

studies illustrate the connection between multiple roles and well-being. These studies also

contribute to the debate between role enhancement and conflict, or put more simply, the positive

and negative aspects regarding multiple role management. The idea that juggling roles operates

on a continuum in terms of role conflict and role enhancement consequences, as mentioned by Tiedje et al. (1990) seems plausible and appears to align with the holistic concept of role balance. Based on extant multiple role research, the notion that multiple roles can benefit individuals in meaningful ways appears to be gaining support in the literature. Therefore, applying this momentum towards community college students, considering the myriad roles they balance and challenges they face, will be the next step.

Summary

This chapter began with a historical overview, followed by challenges currently facing community colleges. This chapter also highlighted the literature describing the working community college student and multiple roles, including the work of Lenaghan and Sengupta (2007) and Perna (2010). The multiple roles included the community college student role, working student role, parental role, and marital role. Issues regarding academic performance and working students were also discussed. Lastly, studies on the work-family dynamic, gender, and well-being demonstrated important areas of focus in past multiple role research, and supported further exploration of both the positive and negative aspects of balancing multiple roles. The next chapter will present the methodology to be used in the current study.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the researcher describes the methodology used to study how work impacts role balance among community college students and what the potential relationship is between role balance and academic performance, in order to explain how the research questions will be answered and how the results will be analyzed. The methodology, including research design, participants, measure, and procedures used in this study are also explained.

Research Design

This quantitative study used a cross-sectional design and survey-based data collection in order to assess (a) how work impacts role balance among community college students and (b) what, if any, relationship exists between role balance and GPA. A quantitative design was appropriate given that role balance data are numerical. The advantage of using a survey design, rather than interviews or another qualitative design, is that surveys allow for an efficient and economical way to produce the possibility of generalizable results, as this design allows for a large number of people to be included, rather than just a few individuals with an interview design. Surveying a large number of individuals can allow for the inclusion of diverse participants with various characteristics, hopefully leading to the inferring of information that can be applied to groups of individuals with certain characteristics. Surveys also may encourage greater participation, due to the brief time commitment, confidentiality of responses, and less invasive inquiries. According to Singleton, Straits, and Straits (1988), the most frequently used survey design is cross-sectional design, which involves surveying a sample of individuals from a

specific population at one point in time. Although cross-sectional surveys do not document change over time, the design provides a practical way of rapidly gathering data (Singleton et al., 1988).

<p style="text-align:center">Research Questions</p>

1. How does work impact role balance among community college students, while controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status)?

2. What relationship, if any, exists between role balance and academic performance?

Table 2 shows correspondence among research questions, theoretical framework elements of the study, and items on the Role Balance scale (RBS) questionnaire.

Table 2

Relationship among Research Questions, Theoretical Framework, and Instrument

Research Question	Theoretical Framework Elements	Instrument Items
1. How does work impact role balance among community college students, while controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status)?	Enjoyment across roles Balance of Attention Satisfaction Across Roles Balance of Effort	RBS, 2 RBS, 1 RBS, 3 RBS, 4
2. What relationship, if any, exists between role balance and academic performance?	Positive Role Functioning Academic Grade Point Average	RBS, 1, 2, 3, 4

Following Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (Appendix D), 2,463 participants were recruited from English Composition II courses from Southward Community College (SCC; pseudonym), located in the southeastern region of the United States. Student demographics for the institution in the 2012-2013 academic year reflected a diverse range of ethnic backgrounds, including African-American (17%), Hispanic (32%), and Caucasian (33%). Females comprised more than half of the student population and the majority of students worked part-time or full-time. The researcher selected the course English Composition II because all associate of arts degree-seeking students are required to take this course, which may contribute to a diverse sample of students. English Composition II requires students to have completed English Composition I as a prerequisite, thus ensuring that the majority of participants will have a college GPA (although some students may not have a college GPA due to credit by exam) and have completed college-level coursework, both of which are critical to this study.

With the approval of the academic deans, participants were recruited, via an emailed questionnaire, from two of the largest campuses in the institution. Of the 2,463 students recruited to participate in this study, 427 responded to the questionnaire. Of the 427 respondents, 410 met the criteria (possession of a college GPA, currently enrolled in English Composition II, and at least 18 years of age) and were ultimately included in the study, yielding a response rate of about 17%. This response rate met the minimum required response rate recommended by the dissertation committee (15% – 25%). According to Nulty (2008), conservative response rates would be appropriate in situations where only certain subgroups receive surveys, rather than all enrolled students.

<u>Demographic and Lifestyle Information</u>

Participants were asked to complete questions regarding:

- Age,

- Gender,

- Ethnicity,

- Marital status,

- Parental status,

- Number of hours worked per week,

- Number of credit hours completed, and

- Number of credit hours taken in the current term (Appendix E).

Student identification numbers and student names were also requested as unique identifiers. Student identification numbers were needed to retrieve participants' GPAs from student records. To minimize the potential for missing data, participant names were also requested on a voluntary basis to serve as a check against potentially erroneous or missing student identification numbers. However, participants were assured of complete confidentiality (Appendix F) and that the purpose of requesting identifying information was to ensure accurate reporting of survey results.

<u>Measure</u>

The main instrument used in this study was Marks and MacDermid's (1996) Role Balance scale. A brief explanation about the concept of role balance, the development of the scale, and its key characteristics will follow.

Role Balance Scale

Marks and MacDermid (1996) pointed out how past research on multiple roles tends to overlook "strategies of role-system organization" (p. 417), accepting the idea that all individuals organize roles hierarchically, placing more importance on certain roles over others. However, Marks and MacDermid argued that individuals do not necessarily stack roles in order of importance; individuals who can balance all of their roles reap benefits in terms of reduced role strain and depression. "People who maintain more balance across their entire systems of roles and activities will score lower on measures of role strain and depression and higher on measures of self-esteem, role ease, and other indicators of well-being" (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 417). The concepts of role balance and increased positive role functioning will serve as the key focal points of this study. Marks and MacDermid (1996) took the first steps towards examining role balance, instead of role hierarchy, as a "preferred pattern of role-system organization" (p. 429). They argued that aside from organizing roles hierarchically, an alternative cognitive-affective approach to balancing multiple roles is warranted. The researchers stressed that role balance referred to an equal engagement or mindfulness that individuals have towards their entire role systems. They highlighted previous common research methods of choosing predetermined roles from which respondents could choose; however, the danger in this practice was that certain roles may not be identified, which may actually lead to missing the most critical factors (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). In addition, Marks and MacDermid (1996) noted that directly asking about roles and their importance to respondents might elicit an idealized, rather than realistic, report of self-organization of roles. The researchers posited that individuals may experience enrichment from multiple and demanding roles if they develop a habit of complete

attentiveness in everything that they do. They produced a Role Balance scale calculated from survey responses ranging from *strongly disagree to strongly agree* measured on a 5-point Likert scale.

Cronbach's alpha for the RBS was 0.68 (Marks & MacDermid, 1996), indicating that it is a sufficiently consistent metric; Marks and MacDermid (1996) considered this to be a strong result, given that role balance is not easily quantified. However, the researchers concluded that not all eight items were "tapping identical facets of role balance as a theoretical construct," (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 427). Therefore, following Marks et al. (2001), this study used only the four items of the RBS with the highest factor loadings in their analysis. These four items were:

- "I am pretty good at keeping the different parts of my life in balance; I generally don't let things slide";

- "Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well";

- "Work time, classes and study time, partner time, friend time, family time, leisure time— I find satisfaction in everything I do"; and

- "I try to put a lot of myself into everything I do" (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 426).

Appendix G contains the revised the RBS used in the current study and permission to use the RBS appears in Appendix H. Restriction to these four items of the RBS was recommended due to their greater reliability (S. R. Marks, personal communication, June 28, 2016). Furthermore, the researcher's recommendation may suggest greater construct validity, due to the exclusion of items that may not necessarily measure what they were intended to measure.

<u>Procedures</u>

All students enrolled in English Composition II during the semester of study received a request via e-mail to complete a questionnaire online via Qualtrics, a web-based software tool that is commonly used to deliver online surveys. Students were informed that participation was voluntary. The researcher used Dillman's (2007) model for attaining high survey response rates (Appendix I).

<u>Data Analysis</u>

Following collection, data were analyzed using the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. In order to assess how work impacts role balance among community college students, hierarchical multiple linear regression was used. Paid work was measured in hours worked per week. Role balance, which was a single variable formed by four questions, was measured by totaling all responses obtained from the 5-point Likert scale, yielding a range of 4 to 20. Role balance was the continuous dependent variable. Paid work served as the continuous independent variable. The demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (number of credit hours enrolled in for the current term, total credit hours attempted, marital status, and parental status) served as the control variables. Gender, ethnicity, marital status, and parental status were categorical variables, while age, credit hours enrolled, and total credit hours attempted, were continuous variables.

Multiple regression analysis was useful for analyzing the "simultaneous effects of several independent variables on a dependent variable" (Singleton et al., 1988, p. 458). Multiple regression also allowed for the simultaneous "controlling of the effects of other independent

variables" (Singleton et al., p. 458). For instance, using multiple regression could control for the effect of hours worked and isolate the effect of role balance.

In order to determine if there was a relationship between role balance and academic performance for community college students, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used. Role balance and academic performance were the continuous independent variables.

Authorization

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from the University of Central Florida and from Southward Community College prior to the start of the study (Appendix D).

Originality Report

This dissertation was submitted to iThenticate by my chair and the results were discussed during the final defense on February 23, 2017.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

In this chapter, the researcher describes the results of this study framed by the two research questions.

Research Question 1

How does work impact role balance among community college students, while controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status)?

Initial Data Preparation

Most data were self-reported, except for GPA. Many questions included a text box intended for numbers to be entered. Some respondents chose to enter text, which needed to be cleaned up prior to analysis; cleanup included current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours attempted, and hours worked per week. Regarding current credit hour enrollment, at least one respondent entered a value greater than 40. Registering for such an inflated number of credit hours in a single term is highly unrealistic. In addition, institutions generally limit the number of credit hours taken per term. For instance, this particular institution allows a maximum of 19 credit hours per term. For total credit hours attempted, one respondent entered a value of 87,000. For instance, 60 credit hours are generally required to complete an associate degree and 120 credit hours are generally required to complete a bachelor's degree. Therefore, the value of 87,000 seemed erroneous and was removed. Lastly, for hours worked per week, a number of

respondents entered a range rather than a single number. The number of hours at the midpoint of the entered range was used in order to provide a single numerical value for analysis.

With regard to some of the categorical values to be used in the regression model, some categories were removed or combined with other categories if they had very small group sizes ($n < 10$). The impacted categories included the following: (a) gender, (b) ethnicity, (c) marital status, and (d) parental status. For the gender category, Both/Neither/Fluid was removed, as only two respondents chose this option; this group size was too small to have an inference made from it and cannot be combined with one of the other existing gender groups. Regarding the category of ethnicity, American Indian was combined with Other, as American Indian had only three respondents. For marital status, Separated (three respondents) and Divorced (six respondents) were combined with Single; combining these subcategories was logical as these individuals are no longer living with someone in a committed relationship. Lastly, parental status was collapsed into a binary variable of Not a Parent/Parent, since the Parent Not Living with Children subcategory only had six respondents.

Ultimately, a total of seven respondents were removed from the model:

- Two removed due to fluid gender;

- Three removed due to unrealistically high credit hours;

- One removed due to unrealistically high total number of credit hours taken; and

- One removed due to a value for hours worked for pay that could not be converted to a number.

After removing these seven respondents from the 410 eligible respondents, 403 respondents remained and were included in the regression analysis. While the collapsing of categories and

the cleaning of data carried the risk of data loss, a minimal amount of data was lost; these procedures were necessary to preserve statistical precision and facilitate interpretation of the data. For instance, the incorporation of text boxes, rather than a selection of predetermined choices, as a part of some of the survey questions provided opportunities to collect the most precise numerical data possible. Initially providing broader response categories, such as ranges for the number of hours worked per week, would have created arbitrary categories of hours worked while also removing the ability to determine the precise number of hours each respondent worked per week, which was critical to the study. Furthermore, the categories of gender, ethnicity, marital status, and parental status were initially developed with more detailed subcategories to allow for more precise answers by giving respondents as many choices as possible. Initially providing more detailed subcategories, then collapsing data based on the distribution of responses into broader categories, was appropriate, as starting with broader response categories would eliminate the ability to breakdown the data into more specific subcategories. Therefore, cleaning up the data resulted in a minimal loss of respondent data, including faulty data due to human error, resulting in a greater ability to make inferences based on accurate data.

Assumptions for Regression

To verify the appropriateness of the regression model, six key assumptions were checked, including initial outliers, linearity, normality, independence, homogeneity of variance, and noncollinearity. The researcher found no abnormalities, suggesting that the use of the regression model was appropriate. A brief synopsis of each assumption will be explained.

In linear regression, checking for initial outliers is important, as having data point(s) that are extremely distant from other data points could skew the location of the line that best fits the data points. The results for Cook's distance was acceptable (maximum = 0.03), since the maximum value for this metric should be less than one. The centered leverage value was acceptable (maximum = 0.13) since the maximum value for this metric should be less than 0.5. The scatterplot of independent variables compared to the dependent variable revealed that all points fell within range of one another.

The use of linear regression also required testing the assumption of linearity; this test ensures that the data is appropriate for fitting with a straight-line model. All of the following yielded acceptable results:

- General linearity (when plotting the dependent variable compared to each independent variable, trends should be reasonably linear);

- Studentized residuals compared to predicted values (values should fall between -2 and 2 with no major patterns); and

- Studentized residuals compared to each independent variable (values should fall between -2 and 2 with no major patterns).

Testing for the assumption of normality refers to comparing a standardized value of a test statistic to a standard normal distribution to determine if the model is significant. Skewness (the degree to which potential outliers cause a distribution to be asymmetrical), kurtosis (how shallow or steep the peak is compared to standard bell curve), boxplot (should have no extreme outliers), and Q-Q plots (should appear to be in as straight line if data is normally distributed) all yielded acceptable results.

The assumption of independence means that the data should not appear to be collected in a sequence, which would imply that one observation is dependent upon the results of the previous observation. Studentized residuals compared to each independent variable (residual should not increase nor decrease with values of independent variables) revealed no major trends, taking into consideration the uneven group sizes of the categorical independent variables. On the scatterplot of studentized residuals compared to unstandardized predicted dependent variable (residual should not increase nor decrease with values of the dependent variable), the spread of data points appeared generally homogeneous.

The model's assumption of homogeneity of variance was checked to ensure that the residual between the actual and predicted values for the dependent variable did not increase as the independent variable increased. The magnitude of the residual should not consistently increase or decrease with the independent variable. On the scatterplot of studentized residual to predicted values, the spread of data appeared generally homogeneous.

Lastly, the assumption of noncollinearity was verified in order to ensure that multiple independent variables were not explaining too much of the same reason for differences in the dependent variable. This assumption was tested with tolerance, variance inflation factor (VIF), and condition indices, which all yielded acceptable results.

Data Analysis

Although the main focus of the hierarchical regression model was on using hours worked for pay to predict any difference in role balance, the previous iterations of the model were also examined to determine their usefulness. Results were interpreted at the $\alpha = .05$ level of

significance. All model results are contained in Table 3. Tables displaying descriptive statistics

for the categorical variables (gender, ethnicity, marital, and parental status; Table 4) and

continuous variables (age, current credit hours, total credit hours, and hours worked for pay;

Table 5) appear in Appendices J and K, respectively.

Table 3

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Demographic and Lifestyle Variables with Paid Work Predicting Role Balance (N=403)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Constant	14.37	0.58		13.43	0.98		13.85		
Age	0.01	0.02	.03	0.02	0.03	.04	0.03	0.03	.06
Gender	-0.04	0.32	-.01	-0.04	0.33	-.01	0.02	0.33	.01
Ethnicity									
Asian	0.12	0.61	.01	0.09	0.61	.01	-0.01	0.61	-.01
Black	0.24	0.43	.03	0.28	0.43	.04	0.34	0.43	.05
Hispanic	0.66	0.38	.11	0.66	0.38	.11	0.66	0.38	.11
Other	1.25	0.64	.11	1.22	0.64	.10	1.02	0.65	.09

| | Model 1 | | | Model 2 | | | Model 3 | | |
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Current Cred Hrs				0.08	0.05	.09	0.06	0.05	.06
Total Cred Hrs				0.00	0.01	.01	0.00	0.01	.01
Marital Status									
Live w/Sig Other				-0.06	0.48	-.01	0.18	0.49	.02
Married				-0.59	0.69	-.06	-0.66	0.69	-.06
Parental Status				0.60	0.63	.07	0.58	0.63	.07
Hours Worked for Pay							-0.02	0.01	-.12*
R^2		.02			.03			.04	
F for Δ in R^2		1.01			0.77			4.77	
p for Δ in R^2		.42			.57			.03*	

Model 1: Demographic Variables

This model contained the dependent variable (role balance) and demographic control variables: (a) age (continuous in years), (b) gender (binary: female = 0, male = 1), and (c) ethnicity (binary dummy variables were created for Asian, Black, Hispanic, and Other; White was the reference). The model was not statistically significant in predicting role balance [$F_{(6, 396)}$ = 1.01, p = .42]. As indicated by the R^2 value, there was a small amount of variability in role balance explained by the model: R^2 = .02.

Model 2: Demographic and Lifestyle Variables

This model contained all of the same variables as in Model 1, with the addition of lifestyle control variables: (a) current credit hour enrollment (continuous), (b) total credit hours attempted (continuous), (c) marital status (binary dummy variables were created for living with

significant other and married; single/not living with partner was the reference), and (d) parental status (binary: not a parent = 0, is a parent = 1). This block of lifestyle variables did not yield a statistically significant addition in predicting role balance when controlling for demographic variables [$\Delta F(5, 391) = 0.77$, $p = .57$]. As indicated by the change in the R^2 value, there was an additional small amount of variability in role balance explained by the new block of variables in the model: $\Delta R^2 = .01$.

Model 3: Demographic Variables, Lifestyle Variables, and Hours Worked for Pay

This model contained all of the same variables as in Model 2, with the addition of hours worked for pay (continuous). Hours worked for pay was a statistically significant factor in predicting role balance when controlling for demographic and lifestyle variables [$\Delta F(1, 390) = 4.77$, $p = .03$]. As indicated by the change in the R^2 value, there was an additional small amount of variability in role balance explained by hours worked for pay: $\Delta R^2 = .01$.

The final model reads as follows: Role Balance = 13.85 + 0.03*(Age) + 0.02*(Gender) – 0.01*(Asian) + 0.34*(Black) + 0.66*(Hispanic) + 1.02*(Other) + 0.06*(Current Credit Hours) + 0.00*(Total Credit Hours) + 0.18*(Live w/Significant Other) – 0.66*(Married) + 0.58*(Parental Status) – 0.02*(Hours Worked for Pay). The negative coefficient associated with hours worked for pay implies that, on average, for every additional hour worked per week above 0 hours, the role balance score would decrease by 0.02, assuming all other items are constant. While statistically significant, it is difficult to determine how meaningful it may be in regards to policy or practice. Other than hours worked for pay, all of the other coefficients in the model (age, gender, ethnicity, current credit hours, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status) were not significant.

What relationship, if any, exists between role balance and academic performance?

This question was addressed with a Pearson product-moment correlation. Role balance and academic performance (as measured by GPA) were both continuous variables. All 410 respondents were included in this analysis, as they all had RBS Total scores and GPA values. The results of the correlation, $r = .08$, $p = .10$, was not statistically significant, indicating a very weak positive correlation between the two variables. Figure 10 shows the distinct lack of trend between the two variables.
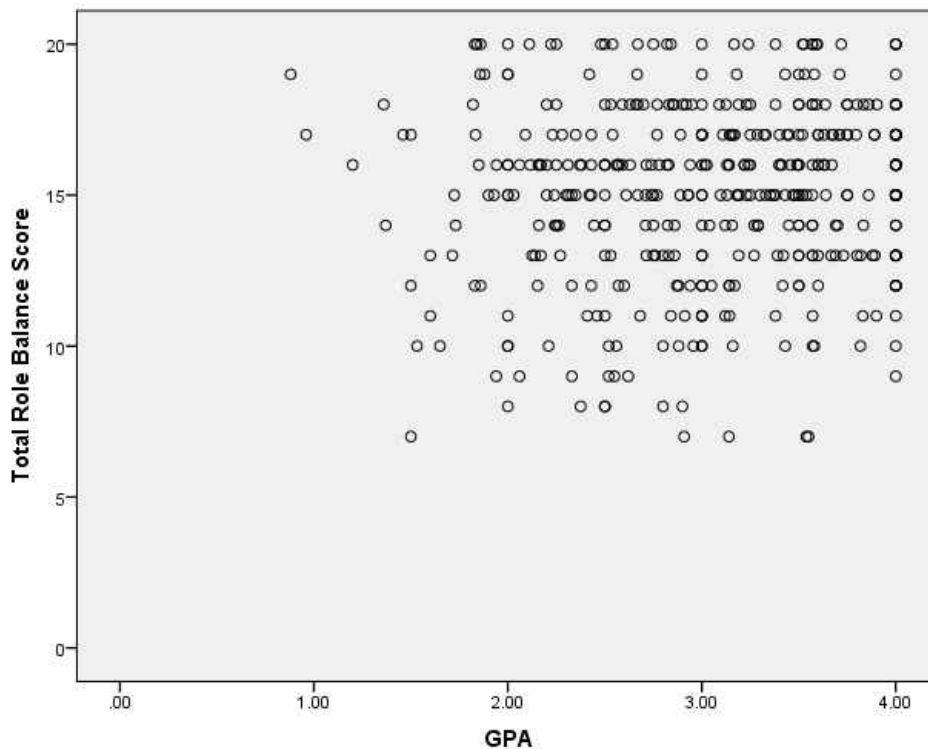
Figure 10. Correlation between role balance and GPA.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

<u>Discussion</u>

This study focused on a diverse community college student population in the southeastern United States and aimed to explore how these students balanced work, school, and other life roles. More specifically, this study examined how employment may predict these students' ability to balance multiple roles, as well as the possible relationship between role balance and academic performance. The results of the study will be analyzed in this section, which is organized around the two research questions. Limitations, recommendations for future study, and conclusion of the study will follow.

Research Question 1

How does work impact role balance among community college students, while controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours, marital status, and parental status)?

Among the community college student respondents, hours worked for pay (work) was a significant factor in predicting role balance when controlling for demographic and lifestyle variables. More specifically, for every extra hour worked per week, the role balance score decreased by 0.02. Demographic and lifestyle variables were not significant in predicting role balance. The lack of significance of lifestyle variables in predicting role balance was interesting because this may lend support to the argument that an increased number of roles does not necessarily predict a weakened ability to maintain different roles and responsibilities effectively;

Marks (1977) explained this relationship between numbers of roles and the ability to maintain these roles as an expansion of energy, rather than an assumed depletion of energy. For instance, Marks explained that by multitasking or shortening time spent on certain activities, then flexibility, energy, and role satisfaction can increase. Although the findings were mostly insignificant regarding this research question, the lack of significance regarding certain lifestyle variables predicting role balance, such as enrolled credit hours, marital status, and parental status, may suggest some support for Marks' argument since these additional roles and activities did not impact role balance significantly.

Hours worked for pay was significant in predicting role balance (as time working increased, role balance decreased), which may support the literature on the potential detrimental effects of working while attending school, especially when the hours worked are disproportionate to time dedicated to school. For instance, Marks (1977) discussed how individuals with over-committed role systems (where one or more roles is thought be more or less worthy of an individual's efforts than other roles in the system) would need to balance time and energy spent across roles by reducing the number of activities within each role or compressing them so they do not require as much attention. Therefore, if students perceived employment to be more important than other roles, which is often the case, they over-commit to work without adjusting other role responsibilities. As a result of this emphasis on one role (worker), students' role systems become unbalanced, which may help explain the finding that hours worked for pay was critical to predicting role balance.

On the other hand, while hours worked for pay was statistically significant in predicting role balance, it is difficult to determine how practically important this result was due to the very

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small decrease in role balance score for every additional hour worked per week. In other words, as students increase the number of hours they work per week, the negative impact on their perceived ability to balance different roles may not be discernible, making it challenging to connect this meaningfully to policy or practice.

Research Question 2

What relationship, if any, exists between role balance and academic performance?

There was no significant relationship found between role balance and academic performance (GPA). There was a very weak positive association between role balance and GPA. This finding may suggest that, while role balance has been associated with different indicators of well-being (e.g., self-esteem), GPA may not be one of those indicators. Conversely, this lack of significance may be attributed partly to other factors, such as the difficult task of measuring role balance. The results of Marks and MacDermid's (1996) study indicated that participants who scored higher on role balance also scored higher on GPA, which seemed to contradict the findings of this study. However, Marks and MacDermid (1996) acknowledged the challenge of measuring the complex concept of role balance, which may explain the lack of a significant relationship between role balance and GPA.

Limitations

This study had limitations that must be addressed. An initial limitation involved the number of institutions that was included in this study; only one institution in the southeastern US was studied, so the results may not be generalized. Another limitation was that while most

students are required to take English Composition II as part of the associate of arts degree, certain subpopulations may not have been included, such as students who are pursuing an associate of science degree (English Composition II not a required course). Students pursuing an associate of science degree may have characteristics that are different from those students who are pursuing an associate of arts degree, as the associate of science degree tends to be geared towards career preparation rather than preparation to transfer to a university.

Another limitation was the bias that may occur due to survey or response bias. In this case, regarding the role balance questions, respondents may have answered in such a way that reflected positively upon them or in a way that they thought they should answer. For example, they may have thought they should answer positively regarding their ability to balance different roles because they thought that was the appropriate and expected response. In addition, those who chose not to participate may have a pattern of characteristics that are different than those who chose to participate.

<div align="center">Unanticipated Results</div>

The lack of a significant relationship found between role balance and GPA was unanticipated because these results seemed to be incongruent with the role balance theoretical framework proposed by Marks and MacDermid (1996). Marks and MacDermid posited that more well-balanced individuals (or at least those who scored higher in role balance) would score higher on measures of well-being, including self-esteem and positive role functioning (i.e., GPA). However, Lenaghan and Sengupta's (2007) findings may offer a better understanding of these unexpected results; they agreed with Marks and MacDermid (1996) in that role balance

was critical to college students' well-being, but the nature of this relationship was not necessarily always positive or negative. For example, when considering balancing work and school roles, the individual's perspective regarding which role was causing interference with another role (whether a student viewed work as interfering with school or school interfering with work), highlighted the complex and variable nature of balancing different roles. For instance, Lenaghan and Sengupta found that if college students perceived school interfering with work, these same students tended to feel more positive about this conflict, leading to a greater sense of well-being. Lenaghan and Sengupta's findings implied that, for students, the connection between role balance and positive outcomes depended on a myriad of factors tied to the unique circumstances and perspectives of each student. Considering the complexity of measuring role balance alone, connecting role balance to tangible outcomes (e.g., GPA) may be equally as complex.

Critique of Study

This study aimed to explore the complex construct of role balance and its connections to work and academic performance among community college students. The strength of this study was in pursuing the topic of multiple roles and outcomes from an educational, positive, and holistic perspective, as many past studies have focused more on a mental health, negative, and hierarchical perspective, which presents a narrow understanding of a complex topic. This study intended to build on research supporting the positive merits of juggling multiple roles, especially for working individuals. In addition, this study sought to fill a gap in the literature regarding a lack of a theoretical framework to explain the relationship between work and academic performance (Riggert et al., 2006); past studies have found both positive and negative

associations between work and academic performance, without a clear understanding as to why. Another strength of this study was in targeting a diverse population of community college students, as previous studies have tended to focus on homogeneous populations of students in a university setting. However, while this study explored the important topics of employment, academic performance, and managing multiple roles from a somewhat alternative and exploratory perspective, there were some weaknesses and obstacles that should be addressed as well.

A weakness of this study was that, although the response rate of 17% was adequate, it was still generally low, which may imply that that the majority of students who chose not to respond may have changed the results. Another obstacle in this study was in the recruitment of participants. Despite gaining faculty and dean support, encouraging student participation was difficult, perhaps due to a lack of tangible incentives for completing the survey.

CHAPTER 6
RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Recommendations

In order for the US to thrive globally and domestically, in terms of increasing higher postsecondary education attainment levels, thoughtful and effective policies should be implemented to support this goal. In order to increase the percentage of adults who enroll in and complete college, keep pace on a global scale, and meet the holistic needs of students, much attention has been placed on community colleges, since these institutions tend to enroll large numbers of underrepresented students and students from low-income backgrounds.

Recommendations at the Institutional Level

Perna (2010) stressed the importance of re-examining the current role of work for college students and pointed out how working while attending college at the same time could potentially reduce social and economic inequality. Community college students are more likely to need financial aid compared to four-year university students, but are less likely to apply for it. In addition, examining well-being and the juggling of multiple roles (primarily work and family) have also been popular research topics. These topics expose an opportunity to examine this dynamic through an educational lens, especially regarding community college students who are not as commonly studied as traditional students from four-year institutions (Dundes & Marx, 2007; King & Bannon, 2002; Kulm & Cramer, 2006; Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007). Achieving higher college attendance rates cannot be achieved with a single approach. Understanding and addressing the needs of community college students is key to informing and developing the

appropriate strategies and policies to accomplish this goal. Perna aggregated much information on the mixed findings regarding work and educational outcomes and stressed the need for more research that takes into account student characteristics (i.e., enrollment status) and continues to demystify the complex relationship between employment and educational outcomes. In addition, Perna proposed that the reason for the beneficial relationship between working and attending college simultaneously could be attributed to students attaining skills that employers are looking for, although she cautioned that more research is needed. While Perna is correct—more research is needed—this study aimed to explore the potential connection between a holistic approach to balancing multiple roles with academic performance and employment.

This study represents another step towards exploring a potential paradigm shift of viewing work as a positive force and a source of unexplored potential benefits for students and their educational and career success. Furthermore, it remains to be seen what true connection exists, if any, between role balance and work and educational outcomes. Additional research on this positive perspective could contribute to the development of innovative and collaborative strategies to support wide-reaching student success.

Recommendations for Teaching Faculty and Student Services

Community college faculty members are often aware of the multiple roles that their students must manage (Karp & Bork, 2014). However, despite this knowledge, community college students are often expected to prioritize academics above all else without much guidance on how to accomplish this feat, causing a mismatch of student and faculty expectations. All faculty members should find out what their students' expectations are and communicate what

their own expectations are. Faculty members should identify where the discrepancies are occurring, discuss with students how they can work together to align these expectations, and lastly, help students make time for academics, while still placing value on other important roles a student may have, such as an employee or parent. This discussion should also explore how students think and feel about their different roles and responsibilities and focus on identifying ways to strengthen multitasking skills and flexibility, especially when confronted with competing priorities. For example, the more students find enjoyment and satisfaction across their different roles, especially with work and school, perhaps the more this could help them expand their energy and become more flexible with adjusting to the demands of each role. Most importantly, faculty members and student services staff should commend students on juggling work and school, along with other responsibilities. Many students were employees first before coming to college; therefore, taking on a new college student role can be a daunting task if they are not given the appropriate support and tools they need to succeed at managing this new role along with their many other roles.

Faculty members and student services staff could also approach time management differently with students. For instance, through time management exercises, students often discover that the time needed to complete all of their tasks exceeds the actual clock time they have every week. This issue can occur for several reasons, such as work taking up much of a student's time. Rather than approaching this situation from the standpoint of employment interfering with school, faculty members and student services staff should help students explore how employment can actually support student success, such as through the attainment of valuable skills and how these skills can help students be successful in college. Career advisors

should also help develop stronger partnerships between the institution and employers in order to determine what skills different employers are looking for and what skills students can develop in various career fields. In addition, the manifestation of the negative perspective of work interfering with student success is apparent when student affairs practitioners discover students are working while in school, and often advise them to reduce their number of enrolled credit hours or adjust their work commitment, if possible. While this advice seems practical, it is an example of the widespread view that employment has a negative impact on educational outcomes (King & Bannon, 2002; McNall & Michel, 2011; Miller, Danner, & Staten, 2008). While there is certainly evidence to support this view, the literature is mixed in terms of determining precisely what is accounting for the correlation between hours worked and educational outcomes (Carnevale et al., 2015) and between postsecondary education and employment (McNall & Michel, 2011).

Riggert et al. (2006) highlighted the lack of a theoretical grounding to account for the association between employment and student outcomes. This study aimed to explore the complex, yet not well understood, interplay of work, academic performance in college, and the of juggling multiple roles using a holistic theoretical approach, as opposed to the near paradigmatic, hierarchical organization of multiple roles. Therefore, both academic and student affairs practitioners in community colleges should embrace a new perspective on students taking on multiple roles, including working while in school. Such a perspective supports a positive and holistic approach to understanding how community college students balance different priorities in their lives, with a focus on how energy and resources can expand and contract as necessary. Continuing to refine this understanding of role balance and community college students may

inform changes to curriculum, the development of new advising strategies, the fostering of stronger partnerships between employers and institutions, and ultimately contribute to greater student success.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research may include adding a qualitative approach to assessing role balance in order to determine if a significant relationship exists between role balance and GPA. Future research may also include multiple institutions and/or random sampling rather than convenience sampling, as well as sampling a different course to include a greater variety of students. Additional study could also include taking into account different student characteristics, such as reason for working and work characteristics or work environment. Although this study did include demographic and lifestyle variables, these variables were not necessarily comprehensive; therefore, the potential for influence from unaccounted variables still lingers.

Conclusions and Implications

This study explored role balance through an educational lens, specifically targeting community college students, as this population often manages multiple roles, including work, school, parental, and marital responsibilities. Past studies on multiple roles tended to focus mostly on the work-family dynamic and well-being. Therefore, the first research question focused on whether employment (hours worked for pay) could predict role balance, while controlling for demographic and lifestyle variables. This study revealed that employment was a significant factor in predicting role balance, but none of the demographic or lifestyle variables

were significant in predicting role balance. The lack of significance regarding the connection between role balance and demographic (age, gender, ethnicity) and lifestyle variables (current credit hour enrollment, total credit hours attempted, marital status, and parental status) may imply that more emphasis should be placed on other variables which may be greater predictors of role balance. The second research question did not yield a significant relationship between academic performance (GPA) and role balance for the community college sample that was studied.

These findings imply that, although community college students juggle many roles, employment has a significant influence on how community college students holistically organize their role systems or balance their different roles. In this case, the influence of increased hours worked predicted a negative impact on role balance. While it may seem plausible to conclude that this study provided some support for the popular argument that work generally has a negative effect on students' well-being and educational outcomes, this conclusion would seem premature. For instance, there may be other underlying characteristics that students who work possess that may be contributing to the negative impact of work on role balance, rather than the number of hours worked. This study was exploratory and represented a start in the direction of rethinking how juggling multiple roles does not necessarily lead to poor educational outcomes. Although no significant findings were produced regarding the relationship between academic performance and role balance, future research with a different methodological approach or with a different educational outcome aside from GPA may reveal more significant findings.

Role balance theory served as a suitable framework for this study. Role balance theory highlighted the problem with only viewing role balance from a negative and narrow point of

view. A positive and holistic approach is a strength of this theory and warrants further

exploration. Unfortunately, the complexity of measuring role balance is a challenge, but this

challenge should not necessarily be a barrier to future research using this theory.

Attempting to untangle the myriad factors related to why community college students,

who juggle multiple roles, are able to achieve academic success or not, is a daunting task due to

the innumerable ways their lives are impacted by their individual and environmental

characteristics. Therefore, approaching this problem from a holistic viewpoint seemed

appropriate, rather than attempting to have participants rank their roles or compartmentalize

different aspects of their lives in an artificial way, as some past research on multiple roles has

attempted to do. The results of this study implied that while the concept of role balance may not

have a clear relationship with academic performance, the value of continued research into how

students balance roles should not be overlooked. For example, past research has shown that

students who juggle multiple roles, such as work and school, may reap great benefits, while

simultaneously managing the inevitable stress and conflict that can occur. Some of these

benefits include increased engagement in school, enhanced feelings of well-being, and even

higher GPA in some cases. In other words, managing multiple roles like work and school

produces both positive and negative outcomes. The net benefit or loss to the individual is

determined by a host of factors that are difficult to isolate, as they interact with one another in

unique ways. For instance, a single mother working and attending school full-time manages to

maintain a high GPA, while another individual in the same situation has a low GPA. A possible

explanation for this phenomenon may be due to different factors, such as job flexibility (allowing

her to reduce her hours worked per week as needed), support from her professors, or, as this

study proposed, in her ability to maintain balance across all of her roles. Perhaps the explanation lies in the intersection of all of these factors and more or an abundance of a few key factors.

Even though the results of this study revealed that role balance was not necessarily associated with academic performance and that demographic and lifestyle factors were not significant predictors of role balance, this study supported the continued importance of studying the role of employment in community college students' lives and community college students' perceptions on how well they juggle multiple roles. As Perna (2010) recommended, a re-examination of work in the context of students' lives continues to be warranted, due to mixed findings on the benefits and detriments of working while enrolled in school. Kim et al. (2010) also highlighted the importance of re-examining work through understanding the differences between employees who study or students who work, meaning that the way individuals perceive themselves may also influence their educational outcomes. At first, this dichotomy clearly seems to give weight to students who study as the preferred perspective due to many associated educational benefits; however, a closer examination reveals that there are actually benefits to both perspectives. For example, a clear, yet overlooked, benefit may be in the definition of employees who study. "Employees who study" are defined as individuals who identify themselves as workers first and then decide to attend college (Berker et al., 2003). Employees who make the decision to go to college, compared to employees who never make the decision to go to college, are already making strides towards potential advancement in their careers, improvement of their financial circumstances, increased personal enrichment, and investment in a brighter future for their families. Therefore, while it is true that these individuals may experience educational setbacks due to work obligations and other responsibilities compared to

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students who make the decision to work simultaneously, the overarching benefits of the decision to take on additional responsibilities should not be overlooked. Similarly, the results of this study implied that, while multiple role research is complicated and mixed, the role of work in community college students' multifaceted lives should continue to be re-evaluated, including from a positive and holistic perspective.

Summary

Considering the unpredictable economic climate of the US, the need for individuals to work while attending school, along with managing other responsibilities, is a growing reality for many community college students. As Perna (2010) pointed out, employment and college attendance can potentially reduce social and economic stratification and inequality. Therefore, rather than continuing to focus solely on the detriments of this challenging circumstance, this study supported the continued focus on juggling work and school from a positive standpoint; students, as well as community college administrators, faculty, and staff can learn from and leverage this commonplace situation. Interestingly, this study revealed that hours worked per week was a significant factor in predicting role balance. This finding, at first glance, seemed to support past research on the negative impact of working while attending college; however, since there was no significant relationship found between role balance and GPA, that conclusion seems premature in regard to this study. In addition, the results of this study appeared to contradict Marks and MacDermid's (1996) finding of a significant relationship between role balance and GPA, prompting further research concerning the use of role balance as a holistic and positive

way of understanding the role of work in the lives of community college students and their

academic success.

APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO USE FIGURE 4

From: JOLANTA JUSZKIEWICZ <jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu>
Sent: Friday, January 6, 2017 8:32 AM
To: celenalu
Subject: RE: Permission to use figure in dissertation

Hi Celena,

Interesting topic, one that everyone assumes but inadequately studied.

There is an updated version of the 2015 figure you cite in the 2016 publication, Figure 3 on page 7:
http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Publications/Reports/Documents/Trends_CC_Enrollment_Final2016.pdf

Trends in Community College Enrollment and Completion Data

www.aacc.nche.edu

4 Trends in Community College Enrollment and Completion Data — March 2016 American Association of Community Colleges of mining and logging, all the major industries

_____

If you would like me to read any of your work, in an official (as an outside member of your dissertation review team) or unofficial basis, please let me know.

Good luck.

JJ

celenalu

Thu 1/5/2017 11:48 PM

To JOLANTA JUSZKIEWICZ <jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu>;

Hello JJ!
Thank you for your prompt response. My topic deals with employment, academic performance, and balancing multiple roles among the community college student population. I apologize. The correct citation is below. Please let me know. Thank you very much!

Juszkiewicz, J. (2015). *Trends in community college enrollment and completion data*. Retrieved

   http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Publications/Reports/Documents/CCEnrollment_2015.pdf   (page 6, Figure 2)

Thank you,
Celena Ziems

From: JOLANTA JUSZKIEWICZ <jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu>
Sent: Thursday, January 5, 2017 7:08:52 AM
To: celenalu
Subject: RE: Permission to use figure in dissertation

Hello Ms. Ziems,

First of all, congratulations on being a doctoral candidate. I am curious about your dissertation topic given your request.

Second, I am a little confused by the citation and the link as they don't match up. The link is to a March 2016 document yet the citation has 2015.

Third, I believe that if you have the proper citation, it is appropriate to include such a figure in one's own paper.

I look forward to hearing from you.

JJ (everyone calls me JJ)

Jolanta Juszkiewicz, Ph.D.
Director of Policy Analysis
American Association of Community Colleges
(202) 416-4502
jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu

celenalu

Thu 1/5/2017 12:34 AM

To:jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu <jjuszkiewicz@aacc.nche.edu>;

Dr. Juszkiewicz,
My name is Celena Ziems and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Central Florida. I would like to request permission to use the below figure as part of my literature review in my dissertation. Please see below and let me know if you need any further information from me.

Juszkiewicz, J. (2015). *Trends in community college enrollment and completion data.* Retrieved

    from www.aacc.nche.edu/publications/reports (page 6, Figure 2)

Thank you,
Celena Ziems

APPENDIX B
PERMISSION TO USE FIGURE 5

RE: Permission to use figure in dissertation

Trends In Higher Education <trends@collegeboard.org>

Thu 1/5/2017 8:51 AM

To:celenalu <celenalu@knights.ucf.edu>;

Yes, that is fine. Thanks.

Jennifer Ma

From: celenalu [mailto:celenalu@knights.ucf.edu]
Sent: Thursday, January 05, 2017 12:50 AM
To: Trends In Higher Education
Subject: Permission to use figure in dissertation

Hello,
My name is Celena Ziems and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Central Florida. I would like to request permission to use the below figure as part of my literature review in my dissertation. Please see below and let me know if you need any further information from me.

TABLE 11.1
Outcomes by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Age Group: Students Who First Enrolled in 2003-04
Baum, A., Kurose, C., & Ma, J. (2013). How college shapes lives: Understanding the issues. Retrieved from
https://trends.collegeboard.org/sites/default/files/education-pays-2013-how-college-shapes-lives-report.pdf

Thank you,
Celena Ziems

APPENDIX C
PERMISSION TO USE FIGURE 6

Georgetown CEW <cewgeorgetown@georgetown.edu>

Thu 1/19/2017 3:06 PM

To: celenalu <celenalu@knights.ucf.edu>;

Hello Celena,
Yes, I did. My apologies for the mix up.
Please let me know if you gave any other questions.
Best,
Vikki

On Thu, Jan 19, 2017 at 1:32 PM, celenalu <celenalu@knights.ucf.edu> wrote:

Hi Vikki,

Did you mean to address this to Celena Ziems? I wanted to clarify to be sure I had the correct permission since you addressed your response to "Claire".

Thank you,

Celena Ziems

From: Georgetown CEW <cewgeorgetown@georgetown.edu>
Sent: Monday, January 9, 2017 10:31:18 AM
To: celenalu
Subject: CEW request approved

Hi Claire,
Thank you for your interest in the Center's work.
Your request to use our material has been approved. Please find the attached figures you requested below.
Our preference is the cite the tables as following: Georgetown Center On Education and the Workforce, (name of publication).

Please let know if you have any questions.

Best,
Vikki

APPENDIX D
IRB APPROVAL

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
            FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Celena Trudy Lue**

Date: **October 09, 2016**

Dear Researcher:

On 10/09/2016, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	Balancing Multiple Roles: A Re-examination of how Work Impacts Academic Performance for Community College Students
Investigator:	Celena Trudy Lue
IRB Number:	SBE-16-12520
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Kamille Chap

Signature applied by Kamille Chaparro on 10/09/2016 09:48:15 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

Human Research Protection (HRP) Institutional Review Board (IRB)

IRB Determination Form

Title of Research Protocol: Balancing Multiple Roles: A Re-Examination of how Work Impacts Academic
Performance for Community College Students
Principal Investigator (PI):   Celena (Lue) Ziems

Date Received by IRB Chair: _8/30/2016_

IRB Number: __17-0003E___
Based on the IRB Protocol Initial Submission Form (or, as appropriate, the IRB Continuing Review/Termination Form
or the IRB Addendum/Modification Form) submitted by the Principal Investigator and for the project identified above,
the following determination has been made by the ████ IRB:

☒ The research is exempt from IRB review. Exemption category: ____2____

☐ The research is eligible for expedited review and has been approved

☐ The research is eligible for expedited review but requires modifications and re-submission before approval
can be given.

☐ The research is subject to full review and will be discussed at the next IRB meeting, currently scheduled
for _____.
        (date)

☐ The research has been subjected to full review and has been approved.

☐ The research has been subjected to full review and has been disapproved.

Period of Approval: ___9/20/16___ to ___9/20/17___
        (cannot be retroactive)

Exemption from ████ IRB review does not exempt the PI or Co-PI from compliance with all applicable
institutional, Federal, State, and local rules, regulations, policies, and procedures.

Although the IRB has determined that this application is exempt from IRB review, the Principal Investigator is
encouraged to read, understand, and apply the attached Investigator Responsibilities document, which is required of
Principal Investigators whose research protocols are approved under the ████ IRB full or expedited review
process.

If you have any remaining questions about ████ IRB process, contact the IRB Chair at ████████

████████████████   _9/20/2017_
Signature of IRB Chair or Designated Representative   Date

C: IRB File, IRB Members, PI Supervisor/Administrator

APPENDIX E
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is your student identification number? _____

2. What is your name (Last Name, First Name)? _____

3. What is your age?_____

4. What is your gender?

      a. Female

      b. Male

      c. Both/Neither/Fluid

5. How many credit hours are you currently enrolled in this term? _____

6. How many total college-level credit hours have you attempted (not including classes you are currently enrolled in)? _____

7. Please select the group you most identify with.

      a. American Indian or other Native American

      b. Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander

      c. Native Hawaiian

      d. Black or African American, Non-Hispanic

      e. White, Non-Hispanic

      f. Hispanic, Latino, Spanish

      g. Other

8. What is your marital status?

      a. Married

      b. Living with significant other (unmarried)

      c. Single

      d. Divorced

      e. Separated

      f. Widowed

9. What is your overall college grade average? _____

10. How many hours do you work (for pay) per week? _____

11. Is your job on or off-campus?

    a. On-campus

    b. Off-campus

12. What is your parental status?

    a. Not a parent

    b. Parent, not living with my child or children

    c. Parent, living with my child or children

       If yes to b or c, please list age of each child:

       Child 1_____

       Child 2_____

       Child 3_____

       Child 4_____

       Child 5_____

       Child 6_____

       Child 7_____

       Child 8_____

       Child 9_____

APPENDIX F
PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

You must be 18 years of age or older to participate in this research.

We are conducting this study to determine if there is a relationship between how well community college students balance multiple roles and academic performance, as well as how employment impacts role balance. You will be asked demographic questions and role balance scale questions through an online Qualtrics questionnaire.

- The questionnaire should take about 5 minutes to complete.
- There are no known risks to you.

Participation in this survey is voluntary. You may decline to participate in this research or withdraw from it at any point without negative consequences. To withdraw at any time during the study or if you have any questions about the study, simply contact Celena Ziems, Doctoral Candidate, at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮. Or, for other questions, contact the chair of ▮▮▮▮▮ Institutional Review Board at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮.

CONFIDENTIALITY: All information will be handled in a strictly confidential manner, subject to the disclosure requirements of ▮▮▮▮▮▮ Laws, so that no one will be able to identify you when the results are reported. Your email address will only be stored to track survey completion. Final survey results will be in aggregate form and de-identified; therefore, participants can be assured of complete confidentiality and no personal information will be ultimately connected to the results. Identifying information (name and ID number) will be erased once GPAs are collected.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. Clicking on the "Agree" button indicates that:

- You have read the above information.
- You understand that you are participating in this research voluntarily.
- You are 18 years of age or older and completing this survey constitutes my informed consent.
- You grant permission for the researcher to access your overall college GPA from school records. This information will be kept confidential.

If you do not wish to participate in this research study, you may click on the "Disagree" button.

___Agree

___Disagree

APPENDIX G
ROLE BALANCE SCALE

Role Balance Scale

Please select one answer for each statement below.

Strongly Agree   Agree   Neither Agree nor Disagree   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

     5   4   3   2   1

1.____ I am pretty good at keeping different parts of my life in balance; I generally don't let things slide.

2.____ Nowadays I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well.

3. ____ Work time, couple time, friend time, family time, leisure time—I find satisfaction in everything I do.

4. ____ I try to put a lot of myself into everything I do.

APPENDIX H
PERMISSION TO USE ROLE BALANCE SCALE

RE: Requesting permission to use Role Balance Scale from Marks and MacDermid (1996) article

Masheter, Aimee - Chichester <amasheter@wiley.com> on behalf of
Wiley Global Permissions <permissions@wiley.com>

Thu 7/14/2016 11:16 AM

To: celenalu <celenalu@knights.ucf.edu>;

Dear Celena Lue

Thank you for your request.

Permission is granted for you to use the material requested for your thesis/dissertation subject to the usual acknowledgements (author, title of material, title of book/journal, ourselves as publisher) and on the understanding that you will reapply for permission if you wish to distribute or publish your thesis/dissertation commercially. You must also duplicate the copyright notice that appears in the Wiley publication in your use of the Material; this can be found on the copyright page if the material is a book or within the article if it is a journal.

Permission is granted solely for use in conjunction with the thesis, and the material may not be posted online separately.

Any third party material is expressly excluded from this permission. If any of the material you wish to use appears within our work with credit to another source, authorisation from that source must be obtained.

Best wishes,

Aimee Masheter
Permissions Assistant
John Wiley & Sons Ltd
The Atrium
Southern Gate, Chichester
West Sussex, PO19 8SQ
UK

Requesting permission to use Role Balance Scale from Marks and MacDermid (1996) article

celenalu

Fri 7/1/2016 6:08 PM

To: permissionsUK@wiley.com <permissionsUK@wiley.com>;

Hello,

I would like to request permission to use the Marks and MacDermid (1996) Role Balance Scale for the purposes of my dissertation on exploring if there is a relationship between role balance and GPA for working community college students. I came across this scale in the below article. Please let me know if you have any questions and I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Marks, S. R., & MacDermid, S. M. (1996). Multiple roles and the self: A theory of role balance. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 58(2). 417-432.

Thank you for your time and consideration!

Sincerely,

Celena Lue
Doctoral Candidate
Higher Education and Policy Studies
College of Education and Human Performance
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX I
DILLMAN'S MODEL FOR ATTAINING HIGH SURVEY RESPONSE RATES

1. Approximately four weeks after this proposal was approved by the dissertation committee and the offices of IRB, a pre-notice email was sent to each contact name to describe the research project.

2. Approximately one week after the pre-notice email was sent, a link to the online instrument with a cover letter was emailed to the contact list. The main purpose of the cover letter was to remind the participants about the purpose of the study and importance of completing the survey. The cover letter also assured participants about the confidentiality of their answers. Unique identifiers requested (student identification numbers and names) were kept confidential and were deleted at the conclusion of the study. Lastly, the cover letter served as a thank you in advance and provided contact information if the participant had any questions.

3. Approximately one week after the cover letter was sent and the link mailed, a brief follow-up email was sent.

4. Approximately one week after #3 above, another email was sent to those participants who had not yet returned the survey.

5. A final reminder was given, one week after #4 above.

APPENDIX J
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CATEGORICALVARIABLES

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Categorical Variables (N=403)

Variable	n	%
Gender		
Female	281	69.7
Male	122	30.3
Ethnicity		
Hispanic	151	37.5
White	104	25.8
Black	90	22.3
Asian	31	7.7
Other	27	6.7
Marital Status		
Single/Not Living w/Significant Other	322	79.9
Living w/Significant Other, Not Married	47	11.7
Married	34	8.4
Parental Status		
Not a Parent	351	87.1
Parent	52	12.9

APPENDIX K
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables (N=403)

| | | | 95% Confidence Interval | |
| | | | Lower | Upper |
Variable	*M*	*SD*	Limit	Limit
Age	22.94	7.07	22.25	23.64
Credit Hours Enrolled In This Term	10.80	3.20	10.49	11.11
Total Attempted Credit Hours	28.08	21.58	25.97	30.20
Weekly Hours Worked for Pay	20.77	16.88	19.12	22.42

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Barnett, R. C., & Hyde, J. S. (2001). Women, men, work, and family*: An expansionist theory. *The American Psychologist, 56*(10), 781-796. doi:10.1037/003-66X.56.10.781

Baum, A., Kurose, C., & Ma, J. (2013). *How college shapes lives: Understanding the issues*.

    Retrieved from https://trends.collegeboard.org/sites/default/files/education-pays-2013-

    how-college-shapes-lives-report.pdf

Berker, A., Horn, L., Carroll, C. D. (2003). *Work first, study second: Adult undergraduates who*

    combine employment and postsecondary enrollment. Retrieved from National Center for

    Education Statistics website: http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2003/2003167.pdf

Black, A., Murry, V., Cutrona, C., & Chen, Y. (2009). Multiple roles, multiple lives: The

    protective effects of role responsibilities on the health functioning of African American

    mothers. *Women & Health*, *49*(2/3), 144-163. doi:10.1080/03630240902915051

Boggs, G. R. (1993). Community colleges and the new paradigm. *Celebrations* (An occasional

    publication of the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development [NISOD]),

    Austin, TX: NISOD. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, NISOD. Retrieved

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