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AN INVESTIGATION INTO PARTICIPATION PATTERNS OF DEPENDENT AFRICAN FEMALES IN CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS WITHIN SELECTED UNIVERSITY CENTERS IN MICHIGAN

By

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO PARTICIPATION PATTERNS OF DEPENDENT AFRICAN FEMALE S IN CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS WITHIN SELECTED UNIVERSITY CENTERS IN MICHIGAN

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This study investigated patterns of participation in continuing education programs by dependent Sub-Saharan African females at selected university centers in Michigan. Specifically, its purpose was to

1) obtain information about certain demographic and social characteristics of respondents in selected university centers in Michigan.

2) obtain information about actual and intended participation of respondents in continuing education programs.

3) analyze such participation in terms of a participation typology.

4) identify influences generating respondents' interest in educational programs in the United States.

5) examine relationships between certain demographic and social characteristics and participation/non-participation.

The population consisted of all married Sub-Saharan African women living with their African student husbands during Winter Term, 1976 in five university centers within Michigan--East Lansing, Ann

Arbor, Detroit, Kalamazoo and Berrien Springs. There were 111 females representing twelve African countries. Of these, ninety were interviewed.

For the purpose of the study, participation in continuing education was defined to encompass engagement in any and a combination of learning activities which were academic, vocational, religious, recreational or social.

Data were systematically and statistically analyzed. The chi square was used to test for statistical significance of relationships.

Findings and Conclusions

Respondents represented twelve African countries of which the vast majority was English-speaking. Half of the respondents came from Nigeria. Chiefly urbanites and Christians, eighty-two percent were between twenty-two and thirty years of age and about three-quarters had at least one child. The more children women had and the younger their ages, the less they participated in continuing education.

The range of stay in the United States was between two weeks and eight years. That variable showed the strongest relationship to participation in continuing education. However, the kinds and levels of participation were not necessarily related to length of stay.

Respondents were principally elementary school teachers or high school and training college graduates. English had been their major language of instruction. Their husbands belonged to higher

professional cadres. Most of them were university teachers and were predominantly doctoral students in the science fields.

Participation in continuing education was found to be closely related to parents' educational and occupational background. Most active participants had mothers in occupations demanding higher levels of education. Respondents relied heavily on their spouses for financial support. A few of them had grants.

They reported that factors which influenced them to participate in continuing education were 1) superior educational facilities in the United States, 2) greater flexibility in class scheduling and range and choice of study areas, and 3) more encouragement for married women in the United States. Factors they reported as discouraging participation were 1) high cost of tuition, 2) academic pressure, 3) little help with home responsibilities. Economic interest was the most frequently identified factor motivating these women to continue their education while in the United States. About eighty-six percent anticipated seeking employment upon returning home.

The most popular areas of educational activity were the professional, vocational/technical and personal. The desire to pursue degree programs and acquire diplomas was strong. Main subjects pursued were business administration, education and social science. Four-year colleges, community and junior colleges and wives' and women's clubs were the institutions in which continuing education was most often pursued.

The study revealed several areas of special concern. These included financial limitations, cultural adjustment problems, and

immigration issues. Recommendations and suggestions by respondents to foreign student advisors, funding agencies and home governments emphasized the improvement of educational opportunities, more scholarships, a change in immigration policies for foreign student wives and more and better child-care facilities.

It is hoped that the research will stimulate similar studies among other foreign student groups. This may consequently contribute to better planning in continuing education programs for wives of foreign students.

To my parents, Bedford and Patricia Williams, for their unflagging encouragement that made the accomplishment of this exercise so much more genuine and priceless.

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I also mourn the death of an erstwhile committee member, Dr. Sweetland, a tutor and a friend. It was unfortunate that he passed away before the completion of the degree. He was replaced on my committee by Dr. Walter Johnson.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Throughout the world the education of women is closely linked to the roles relegated to them by society. In many countries, the societal and educational milieu has not encouraged girls and women to take advantage of their educational potentialities but has assigned them specific and restricted roles and functions. The pushing of females into an acceptance of the single role of homemaking often inhibits their learning ambitions and their aspirations to participate in continuing education. This is the case in most African societies today.

Past trends in most African countries indicate relatively lower rates of female participation at all levels of education, particularly after the primary school level. The trends further indicate that the few women entering school are oriented toward the acquisition of knowledge and skills associated with their traditional roles as wives and mothers. But this situation is beginning to change. There is an increased enrollment of women in formal educational institutions. On the other hand, the level of attainment of most women who enter schools remains relatively low, swelling the ranks of the masses of women with lesser education compared to their male counterparts. For

most of such women, the prospects of furthering their education are limited either by lack of educational opportunities or because of their societal roles and responsibilities, in particular those relating to the traditional institution of marriage within which most of these women are found.

It is with such societal responsibilities and limited backgrounds that most African women confront a complex and changing world. In this environment one would expect an increase in their desire or need to improve their skills through further participation in the educational process. The nature of formal schooling tends, however, to preclude their participation. It would also seem that arrangements outside the formal system would provide opportunities for this class of women. Especially effective would be continuing education programs that are structured with sufficient flexibility in their curriculum and scheduling, and other factors that consider the peculiar needs and aspirations of women.

The above postulations can be reinforced through the study of some of the women who are to be found in situations where educational opportunities are different and exist both outside and inside the formal system of education. A case in point is that of African women who accompany their student husbands to the United States. A selected group of these women in the Michigan area have been studied to discover the extent and manner of their participation in activities and programs in continuing their education and the major factors that affect such participation.

Purpose of the Study

This study investigated patterns of participation in continuing education programs by dependent Sub-Saharan African females at selected university centers in Michigan.

More specifically, it sought to

1) gain information about certain demographic and social characteristics of dependent African females in selected university centers in Michigan.

2) gain information on actual and intended participation in continuing education programs.

3) analyze such participation in terms of a participation typology.

4) identify influences generating dependent African females' interest in educational programs in the United States.

5) examine relationships between certain demographic and social characteristics and participation/non-participation.

Assumptions

Underlying this study were certain assumptions. These assumptions were:

1) Dependent African females' reasons for engaging in educational pursuits are influenced by a variety of factors such as educational opportunities that exist in the community.

2) Most African wives will take advantage of the opportunities to continue their education.

3) Even though American educational programs are designed primarily to serve the needs of Americans, the dependent African females will perceive in these programs useful elements that can be readily adapted to their own needs.

Research Questions

The following set of research questions directed the investigation. These questions considered independent variables that showed demographic relationships and provided information on class structure, motivational techniques employed in the United States, media channels, employment and institutional patterns.

The research questions were subjected to a detailed description after which some of the questions were tested to generate statistical data and to determine levels of significance.

The questions were:

1. To what extent is place of residence in the home country associated with participation in continuing education?

2. Are differences in religious affiliation associated with the participation of dependent African females in educational classes?

3. Is there a relationship between English language background (years of study of English) and participation in educational classes?

4. Is there a relationship between age of the women and their participation in educational classes?

5. Is previous educational background associated with their participation or non-participation in continuing education programs?

6. Is there a relationship between the number and ages of children a woman has and her participation in continuing education classes?

7. To what extent does length of stay in the United States influence the dependent African female's participation in continuing education classes?

8. To what extent are scheduling of classes, perceived relevance of courses and the variety of classes offered associated with the participation in continuing education activities?

9. Is there a significant difference between the perceived support and cooperation of husbands, families and friends of the wives enrolled in educational programs in the United States and those of the wives who are not?

10. Through what information channels do these women become interested in engaging in educational pursuits in the United States?

11. Is there a relationship between participation levels and stated expectations of reward?

Significance of the Study

Increasing efforts are today directed at studies regarding married women in educational activities especially in the developing countries, but also in the United States. From the review of the literature, this field appears to be a relatively new one for research exploration. There is also a noticeable lack of studies on motivational factors that influence African women to participate in programs to continue their education. The present study was designed to bring

out some significant findings for both continuing education administrators and other college administrators who are concerned with the adjustment and educational progress of wives of students in international exchange programs. The information gained has increased the knowledge that already existed and, at the same time, has presented general implications for similar populations.

The study specifically has

1) been of significance to the participants themselves; it has been a chance for African wives to feel themselves a part of a studied group. It has given status to their roles as wives.

2) gathered data necessary to generate information about educational opportunities, especially for married women, for use by both foreign students and continuing education and college administrators.

Also, the study will

1) provide data for continuing education administrators, college administrators (foreign student advisors, for example), and interested agencies who are concerned with policy making for the educational progress and adjustment of foreign students in the United States. It will assist with the assessment of the various academic and non-academic programs and services available to African wives and other foreign student wives as well as aid in planning future programs as reflected by the concerns and needs identified.

2) provide an opportunity for local community groups, such as the Community Volunteers for International Programs at Michigan State University, church groups and service groups, to assess the

existing resources and to point out the strengths and weaknesses of opportunities available in the local community.

3) generate interest among educational planners in Africa who are concerned with developing or expanding programs in the area of continuing education for women. It will give some insights into the conditions and factors that may be helpful in establishing special programs for women, especially married women.

4) serve as a guide to African counselors in Africa offering advice to prospective African students about educational resources and services available in American educational institutions. Knowledge can be provided through orientation programs for married men and their wives to inform them of possible educational avenues to be explored once in the United States and to help them make wiser decisions about bringing or not bringing their wives.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study was restricted to wives of African married students rather than to all African women, and this had certain limitations for subsequent generalizations.

2. The exclusion from this study of single women students and married women students who were on campus without their spouses had certain disadvantages.

3. Since the sample was made up of wives who are potentially part of the elite of their societies and who were in an environment dominated by students, the expressed academic aspirations and desires may have been influenced by a particular setting.

4. The variation in respondents' cultural backgrounds may have affected their responses and may have reflected ethnic or regional differences.

5. It may be expected that because 1975 was International Women's Year, responses may have reflected heightened perceptions rather than "normal" responses; in other words, the responses of these women may have been less representative than they would have been at other time periods.

6. Because of the economic recession in the United States during the period in which the study was done, foreign students were being subjected to rigorous examination and scrutiny with respect to visa, academic, financial and employment status. Some of the students had been threatened with, and even experienced, deportation to their home countries. As a result, respondents may have shown reluctance to commit themselves on matters relating to employment and length of desired stay in the United States.

Definitions of Terms

The major terms used in this study are defined to ensure that the writer and the reader share similar interpretations. The following have been defined:

An African--a person from Africa south of the Sahara.

A dependent female--a woman who is traditionally or statutorily married to an African male student.

University centers--those institutions with exclusively or predominantly educational purposes geared to providing post-secondary

education. Such institutions in this study are accessible to foreign students to pursue higher education and have no less than eighty-five foreign students enrolled.

Participation patterns--the extent to which dependent females get involved in an educational activity, academic or non-academic, that is designed to continue their education.

Participation--the act of enrolling and engaging in an educational activity or program.

Continuing education--educational activities resumed after termination or interruption of formal schooling, and usually after undertaking pursuit of vocational and other specific goals and interests such as marriage.

Overview and Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter I presents a statement of the problem that was investigated. The background information is presented and is followed by a discussion of the purpose and assumptions; the research questions are specified, and the significance and limitations of the study are indicated. A definition of key terms is added.

Chapter II is a review of the relevant related literature and research studies.

Chapter III focuses on the research design and methodology used in the study. The population and sample, instrumentation, method of collecting and tabulating data and procedures for analysis of the data are reported.

Chapter IV presents the general findings analyzed both descriptively and with the aid of tables and graphs; statistical test results; and responses to the open-ended question are classified and accompanied by a set of recommendations.

Chapter V is a summary and overview of the research. A discussion and interpretation of research results is included. Conclusions, implications, recommendations and suggestions for future research follow.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter II is divided into two sections. Section I, which serves as a background for the study, provides a brief history of the education of women in Africa and examines factors that have influenced women's educational development. Section II reviews literature on the foreign student in the United States, research in the field of participation of the married and mature woman in continuing education programs and empirical evidence in the area of adult participation in continuing education.

Section I

Education of females in Africa

Two primary sets of factors have been in operation to determine the direction of female participation in education within Africa. The first is a set of historical antecedents that have led to the creation of a dichotomous society: an elitist minority and an educationally underprivileged majority. The second is a set of social and cultural factors such as "the conservative attitude of parents," "the vicissitudes of puberty," "incompatibility between education and feminity"

and "early marriages."[1] The interaction of these forces and the discriminatory tendencies towards women's education inherent in Western colonial and missionary education in Africa are now examined.

Western colonial education

Western education in Africa dates back to the seventeenth century and evolved with missionary and colonial activities on the continent.[2] Though missionary and colonial education had different orientations, they were similar in that their contents were western oriented. In content, the training provided by colonial education was not designed to prepare the individuals for the services of their country but rather to inculcate the values of the metropolitan power in a few selected individuals. These were mostly men needed by the colonial governments to form a supportive structure for their administrations.[3] Van Allen notes:

> Where the colonialists needed literate Africans to form a supportive structure for colonial governments, they sought out young boys for training. . . . Again, mission education soon came to be the requisite for prestige and for political and economic power but girls were sent to school much less often than boys--as they still are. Girls, it

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[1]United Nations Economic and Social Council: Study on the Equality of Access of Girls and Women to Education in the Context of Rural Development. E/CN.6/566/Rev. 1 (February, 1973), pp. 35-37.

[2]Colin G. Wise, A History of Education in British West Africa (London: Longmans Green and Co., 1956), pp. 1-46.

[3]F. H. Hilliard, A Short History of Education in British West Africa (London: Thomas Nelson and Sons, Ltd., 1957), pp. 167-177.

> was said, were needed by their mothers for help with house and farm work. . . .[4]

In effect, the small pool of elites created by the colonial governments was dominated by men who worked as a social class to preserve their privileged position with detrimental consequences to their societies in general and to women in particular.

Another dimension of colonial education that limited female participation was the great variation in educational opportunities within regions of the same colony. Usually, only Africans living in or near the administrative centers had access to educational opportunities. For instance, in the Gambia, literacy rates were considerably higher for Bathurst town than for the other regions; in Uganda, urban Buganda monopolized education while in Ghana, the entire northern portion of the country lacked schools.[5] Boys from the hinterland areas without schools had to be sent to be educated in and around the administrative centers. This privilege could not, however, be extended to girls for many reasons. Early marriages precluded such participation and the fear of pregnancy forced parents to keep girls at home under their own supervision.

The efforts of the colonial governments to encourage the participation of people from the hinterlands were directed at the

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[4]Judith Van Allen, "Modernization means more dependency," The Center Magazine (May/June, 1974), p. 61.

[5]Walter Rodney, How Europe Underdeveloped Africa (Dar es salaam: Tanzania Publishing House, 1972), p. 266.

children of the royalty. Boys were the exclusive beneficiaries of this gesture since they could later be used as instruments of the colonial government.

Colonial educational policy was not static, however. Educators and administrators made serious efforts to broaden the scope of, and access to, education. As Rodney indicates:

> From the 1920s, both Britain and France produced colonial educators and education commissions which urged greater relevance of teaching programmes in Africa. They also put forward suggestions such as the use of local languages in primary schools, more education for girls and an end to white-collar orientation of schooling.[6]

The recommendation that girls should go to school is particularly interesting here since it entertains the notion that the skills acquired can be utilized in a male dominated Civil Service infrastructure. However, the social implications of such a thought are being overlooked, for the status of women in the metropolitan centers themselves is equally doubtful.

Mission education

In spite of numerous criticisms often levied at missionaries, missions carried the bigger "burden" for the education of Africans during the colonial era; and they, more than the colonial governments, emphasized the importance of the education of females. Their focus, however, was upon the training of girls as good Christian housewives

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[6]Rodney, op. cit., p. 275.

and mothers.[7] The activities of the missions were localized and the levels of female participation varied between areas, within and between colonies. In Nigeria, for instance, it was the policy of the colonial government to exclude mission activities from the north. In Ghana, the interior and upper portions of the country could not be reached by the missionaries until after the conquest of the Ashantis by the British.[8] Klingshirn reports that as early as 1918 in Ghana the ratio of boys to girls in mission schools was roughly three to one, while the corresponding figure for government (colonial) schools was six to one.[9] This contrasts with what Wise reports from Nigeria--the first mission school established there catered to about forty pupils, only one of whom was female.[10]

Traditional education of women

Traditional African societies emphasized the preparation of girls for their roles within a subsistence agricultural economy and their future status as wives and mothers. Sister Marie-André du Sacre-Coeur, remarking on the mental formation of young African girls, stated:

> African mothers teach their daughters how to grow the staple foods and the indispensable ingredients that go with

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[7]Agnes Klingshirn, "The social position of women in Ghana," Verfassung und Recht in Urersee, 6. Jahrgang, 3. (Quartal, 1973), p. 293.

[8]Philip Foster, Education and Social Change in Ghana (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965), p. 121.

[9]Klingshirn, op. cit., p. 293.

[10]Wise, op. cit., p. 10.

> them. . . . The woman who makes millet beer, vegetable butter, soap or pottery teaches her daughter the technique of these crafts, takes her along to the different markets and entrusts to her care her little brothers and sisters. These responsibilities assumed at a tender age plus the example of courage, endurance, and devotion she sees and admires in her mother, all go to fashion the mentality of the young African girl and form the basis of her moral training.[11]

A further dimension of the training and preparation of girls was their initiation into secret societies. These institutions, designed to provide a general education in social and vocational training, in the regulation of sexual conduct and in the supervision of political and economic affairs, left a lasting imprint on participants as to their status, roles and responsibilities in society--most of these center on the woman as a wife and a mother in a subsistence society.

The training of African women in traditional society had important implications for what happened when the missionaries arrived. For, with the built-in bias of Western education regarding appropriate patterns of education for women, and given the constraints of traditional society, African women were put at a double disadvantage in deriving the full benefits of Western education when it arrived.

Consequences of the interaction of colonial, mission and traditional education

The lower participation rates of females in colonial education may be attributed to a variety of factors, most of which may have

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[11]Sister Marie-André du Sacre-Coeur, La Femme Noire en Afrique Occidentale (Paris: Payot, 1939), p. 208.

stemmed from the desires and the attitudes of the indigenous population. However, the desire of the colonial governments was a powerful determining factor. The colonial governments emphasized in some of their reports that preparation for marriage and the home should be the central objective of women's education. The Nyasaland (now Malawi) report states: "The majority of girls will become wives and mothers, and it is important that their education should be directed toward equipping them for their future sphere of homemaking."[12] The Report on Higher Education in East Africa declared: "The function of women's education is to train homemakers."[13]

Adult education was accepted in principle by the various colonial governments. For example, the memorandum on the education of African communities states: "The education of adults had to go hand in hand with the education of the young and the education of the women with the education of the men."[14] But adult education for women had its focus on the daily life of the local community. Though the missions taught reading and writing to these women as necessary tools of communication, most of the activities were oriented to motherhood and nutrition.

The aim of education for women was thus perceived by both the missionaries and the colonial masters as different from that of

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[12]Code and Syllabus of Instruction for use in schools for African girls and schools for training African women teachers, Nyasaland, 1933, p. 3.

[13]Colonial No. 142, 1935.

[14]Colonial No. 103, 1935, paragraph 6.

education for men. Though mission schools made special attempts to recruit women students and to provide teachers, there were many differences between the education of men and women. Baker notes that

> . . . standards in the sense of education achieved by males and females differed, in that though a few boys were qualifying in 1954 for secondary school education this standard has not been reached by girls. Again, technical education attracted a number of male pupils but was not open to females. One additional consideration which must be taken into account is the factor of age. In many Birom areas, children first begin school late, the tendency being to consider a child ready for school when he shows some desire for schooling; the complaint is that those who qualify for entrance to senior schools of one sort or another are too old. In the case of girls, this tends often to mean that they reach marriageable age, and it was not considered desirable by many Birom parents to delay a girl's marriage unduly. Again, in only a few areas are there establishments providing post-primary school education for girls, so that further education requires leaving home. Many Birom parents are loath to allow their girls to live away from home at such a crucial time in their lives.[15]

The situation that emerges from both colonial and missionary education outlined with respect to girls is one in which female participation in education was considerably less than that of males. The educational system has built into it an "adolescent" bias; that is, most African girls are forced to drop out of school because of early marriage. After child-rearing, when women are relatively free of family responsibilities to participate in education, the system, moreover, makes no provision for adults. In fact, marriage pulls women away from school at the time they can take advantage of whatever limited facilities are available to them. If their desire to get an education

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[15]Tanya Baker, "Nigeria," in Women's Role in the Development of Tropical and Sub-tropical Countries. Report of the XXXI meeting (Brussels, 1959), pp. 76-77.

persists through later years, no opportunity exists to realize it. Thus, marriage at an early age is an obstacle to higher educational goals of African women.

Other related aspects of marriage that discourage the participation of the African woman are child-bearing and child-rearing. The stigma attached to barrenness dictates that the woman concentrate on the raising of the family during her productive years.[16] At the same time, there are sanctions discouraging the participation of pregnant women in many educational institutions. Facing the dictates of tradition and the rigidity of those who frame educational policies, most women try to fulfill the demands of traditional society.

Location of institutions, particularly post-primary institutions, has also contributed to the low participation of women. Educational facilities are limited, and the situation necessitates the individual's traveling and living away from parents in order to go to school. Boys are sent over great distances to these schools, but parents are hesitant to send girls to distant schools were, without supervision, they run the risk of pregnancy before initiation into womanhood.[17]

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[16]Denise Paulme, Women of Tropical Africa (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1963), pp. 4-15.

[17]Wise, op. cit., pp. 1-13.

Contemporary attitudes toward education of women

Attitudes toward education for women in contemporary Africa are changing radically. Education of women today carries a high value, in some cases even equal to education of men. Changes in attitudes are explained principally by the extent of urbanization and modernization which have been infiltrating traditional life, disrupting traditional relationships between the sexes and the roles defined by those relationships. Poole verifies this in a study of sex role and learning in the changing society of northern Nigeria. He found that one of the most dramatic effects of urbanization was a shift in attitudes towards girls' education.[18] From his findings, he concludes:

> There is apparent in the results an overall tendency for urbanization to be accompanied by greater acceptance of female education. . . .
>
> Certainly, one has the impression that the urban African takes a more worldly view of the problem of female education than the villager. He is less impressed by religious arguments, less frightened by the spectre of female disobedience and immorality which are supposed to result from education.[19]

Poole's findings are not unique. In another recent study of the achievement, selection, and recruitment of boys and girls in secondary schools in Ghana, Foster examined the backgrounds of the students to discover changing patterns of participation in education.[20]

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[18]Howard E. Poole, "A study of sex role and learning in a changing society," West African Journal of Education (October, 1971), pp. 171-175.

[19]Ibid., p. 255.

[20]Foster, op. cit., pp. 220-310.

He discovered that the socio-economic backgrounds of the parents were very significant in enrollment patterns, particularly for females. He pointed out that girls coming from essentially rural backgrounds with illiterate parents showed a 12.2 percent participation rate at secondary-school level as compared to 65.5 percent for girls from homes of literate professionals. These differentials may appear to be related to degrees of modernization or may reflect the traditional norms of the role and status of women. Foster notes:

> It is apparent that girls are drawn from relatively restricted segments of the Ghanaian population. This is precisely because girls are far less likely to be sent to secondary schools than boys and when they do enter these institutions, they are more likely to come from educational and occupational backgrounds that are well above average.[21]

Ethnic interaction must be mentioned also. In Ghana, as in many other parts of Africa, educational opportunities differ between the different regions depending on the degree of exposure to the West. The farther inland one goes, the less the opportunities for interaction. It is important to note, however, that several interacting factors are involved. Foster observes that "ethnic differentials seem to be consistently related to other distinctive variations such as paternal, occupational and educational characteristics."[22]

Formal educational facilities at the lower level are now increasingly available to both girls and boys in equal measure. Girls now constitute from thirty to fifty percent of students enrolled in

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[21] Ibid., p. 255.

[22] Ibid., p. 258.

primary schools. In secondary schools, the percentages are smaller but increasing.[23] But at the university level, the percentage is still quite small. In Ghana, for example, while the proportion of girls to boys was about equal at the primary level, it amounted to only about twenty-five percent at the secondary level and was as low as ten percent at the university level.[24]

The whole question of women's entry into universities revolves around certain institutional factors, such as the number and types of institutions offering education for females; the nature of the curriculum directed at women and the structure of the primary and secondary school system; orientation towards preparation for higher education and relative absence of education and training for specific skills and vocations for women. There exists a serious disparity between the number and the type of secondary schools for girls in comparison with those for boys.

At the more fundamental level, the majority of participants in literacy classes tend to be women since they form the majority of illiterates in most African countries.

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[23]"Women: The neglected human resource," Canadian Journal of African Studies, Vol. 6, No. 2 (1972), pp. 359-370.

[24]Sunday Mirror (Accra, Ghana), March 27, 1966.

National differences with respect to education for women

With data secured from UNESCO,[25] an examination is made of nine African countries with regard to participation of women at different levels of education. Such an examination reveals and reinforces the qualitative and quantitative disparity in levels of education between men and women. The countries examined and compared are Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Uganda, Zaire and Zambia.

1. From Appendix C_1 illiteracy is higher for women than men in all countries except Lesotho. Between the age group 1-24 years, illiteracy among women ranges from 67.9 percent in Zambia to 92.0 percent in Liberia. The national rates range between 52.0 percent and 81.0 percent for both sexes. For the age group twenty-five years and above, the figures are even higher. Excluding Lesotho, the range is between 78.7 percent and 98.6 percent. It is important to note that the female population in all countries is fifty percent of the total or more.

2. A comparison of female participation at the various levels is equally revealing. Figures are computed for the first, second, and post-secondary levels. The percentages are computed on the basis of the female population within certain age groups. In general, participation drops from the lower to the higher age levels. Significantly, above the age of twenty-five years, participation at the

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[25]UNESCO: Country reports, 1965, 1970, 1971, 1972.

post-secondary levels ranges from zero in Malawi to 0.4 percent in Ghana and Zambia.

3. At the first level, female participation between 1960 and 1972 (see Appendix C_2) in Africa has been slightly less than that shown by corresponding figures for all developing countries. The same is true for the second level. At level three, however, the rates are nearly the same.

4. The following information was distilled for twenty-four African countries. Female participation rates in types of education are tabulated for the period between 1965 and 1972.

The table below indicates that in all areas of study female participation has been on the increase. However, such participation is concentrated in those subject areas traditionally associated with female roles. Relative to other areas, female participation remains higher in general education, vocational education and teacher training. It must also be pointed out that the equally higher rate of participation in the medical science field is generally due to the female dominance in nursing rather than in any training towards a higher rank within the profession.

The evidence from the four broad areas outlined reflect low female participation rates in education in general and those females who are twenty-five years and above are affected the most.

These observations arise from factors within the various societies that combine to determine the participation patterns of females. In this context, one may suggest that participation patterns among women are not reflective of their capacities but rather of the

Female participation in different areas of education in Africa between 1965 and 1972.

(Number of females as percentage of total) (All levels of education)

Year	General Education	Vocational Education	Teacher Training	Law	Social Science	Natural Science	Engineering	(Nursing Included) Medical Sciences	Agri-culture
1965	29.8	28.6	27.6	8.7	9.8	10.8	-	24.0	1.3
1970	25.5	25.3	27.9	9.6	9.7	10.8	3.0	23.0	6.0
1971	26.5	25.5	29.0	9.5	11.7	10.9	3.3	15.9	7.3
1972	29.5	27.5	30.4	11.2	14.6	10.5	1.0	14.6	8.8

(Source: UNESCO Reports 1965, 1970, 1971, 1972)*

*These are reported statistics and caution must be exercised on the validity of such data.

constraints imposed by their environment. The female who finds herself in school at an early age receives considerable pressure to drop out and get married.

At a later stage, if such a female decides to continue her education, the educational system makes no provision for her. Literacy classes may exist, but she may find them inadequate for her needs. Other adult education classes, such as extra-mural courses rigidly structured toward particular examinations, may still not be the answer. Community development programs may provide some knowledge but still may not be the avenue for pursuing the certificate she needs. The few technical training colleges that exist may require a level of schooling she has not attained and going back to school may not be possible. Thus, the factors that negate the resumption of study of a female who has dropped out of school are clearly tremendous; but it is still unclear whether a lack of opportunity or a lack of desire is the overriding factor.

It may be safe to speculate at this point that considerations which keep the female out of education are inherent in the environment as well as in the women's acquired attitude towards education. Thus, within a different environment and with new opportunities for participation in education, African women who are now either indifferent or have a negative attitude towards education may react differently.

Section II

Numerous United States studies have examined participation in continuing education. Socio-cultural differences, however, limit the applicability of such studies to the African. Studies that focus on foreign students in general suffer for similar reasons; in addition, there are hardly any that deal with foreign female students or for that matter with the married or mature African woman. Since the task of a complete survey of the literature was a difficult one, efforts have been directed at utilizing those studies and reports which bore most significance and meaning to the present study.

The African as a foreign student in the United States

Most of the studies dealing with the processes of cross-cultural education in the United States have focused mainly upon European and Asiatic students; few exist on the African as a student in the United States. (In 1969, over twenty percent of the 54,000 foreign graduate students at American institutions were either Chinese or Indian.)[26] Studies have principally been concerned with the role of personal characteristics such as nationality, age, marital status,

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[26] Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1969), pp. 6-9.

and religion in determining behavior and attitudes.[27] Walton's[28] categorization of research on foreign students in the United States include these areas and others such as orientation and academic performance, development of youth leadership, migration of foreign students and the utilization of knowledge acquired in the United States.

In a study on Asian students involved in cross-cultural education with Mexican Americans and Anglos, Quitanar[29] explored culturally-based values in explaining the relationship between students' attitudes and their societies. The findings pointed out that socio-economic status, as measured by occupation, education and income, did not appear to influence the reasons students have for going to college and was not related to other attitudes. Neither sex nor rural/urban residence was related to attitudes towards education, but the social milieu definitely affected the students' attitudes towards education. However, it is important to note that Asian students tended to be more

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[27]See Richard T. Morris, The Two-way Mirror: National Status in Foreign Students' Adjustment (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960); Claire Selltiz et alia, Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1963); George V. Coelho, Changing Images of America: A Study of Indian Students' Perception (Illinois: Free Press, 1958); J. W. Bennett et alia, In Search of Identity: The Japanese Overseas Scholar in America and Japan (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958); Emilia Wilder, "America as seen by Polish exchange scholars," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXVIII, Summer, 1964, pp. 243-256; D. C. Johnson, "Problems of foreign students," Exchange, Fall, 1971, pp. 6-68.

[28]Barbara J. Walton, Foreign Student Exchange in Perspective: Research on Foreign Students in the United States (Washington, D.C.: Office of External Research, Department of State, 1967).

[29]Rosalinda Quitanar, "A comparative study of students' attitudes toward education" (M.A. thesis, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, N. M.)

collectively oriented in their reasons for going to college while United States students were more likely to be concerned with individual interests. The Asians in the study acted as they would have in a collective-oriented society, which makes its members conscious of the interests of the nation and the family. It also motivates them to strive for or ignore a college education depending on the prevalent collective needs. These findings are useful in that they have some bearing on the attitude of the group under study.

A few studies have been conducted on African students. Okediji[30] analyzed patterns of social interaction of African students on the Indiana and Purdue campuses, the processes involved in their social adjustment, and their reactions towards American people. This study was basically attitudinal. Davis[31] et alia, completed a very informative work on the achievements and problems of the African student. This was survey research involving many African students in the United States. Other scattered pieces of literature can be found in journals, but there is a paucity of research on wives of African male students. The present study has been stimulated as a result of the gross absence of literature on this group of "sojourners" and in recognition of the fact that their educational needs and motives may differ from those of other groups. The limited number of studies on African

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[30]Francis Okediji, Strangers and Their Social Adjustment on College ampuses: A Study of African Students in Two Midwestern Universities (University microfilm, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1964).

[31]James M. Davis, et al., A Survey of the African: His Achievements and His Problems (Institute of International Education, 1961).

students in general and women in particular may be attributed to a variety of factors, some of which are changing.

Less than fifteen years ago, African students were a rarity on American college and university campuses. In 1959/60, the total number of African students in the United States was 1,959.[32] In the late 1960's, after the acquisition of independence by several African nations, African student enrollment increased phenomenally. There is today a substantial and rising enrollment of African students at several academic institutions in the United States. In 1972/73, there were at least 11,465 African students in the United States. Of this number, 1,650 were females and at least half of the total number were pursuing graduate studies, principally in engineering, physical and life sciences, social sciences, business administration and the humanities.[33] Thirty-five percent of these students were concentrated in Midwest universities.[34]

Many African students come to the United States following very poor and haphazard selection procedures with the result that their academic achievement is not maximized and financial matters become very troublesome in a country so culturally different and relatively expensive. However, there has been a recent proliferation of organized

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[32] Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1960), p. 23.

[33] Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1973), p. 15.

[34] Ibid., p. 4.

exchange programs supported by governments, foundations and other private organizations. In 1972/73, about twenty percent of the African students were sponsored by the United States government or some private organization.[35] They are usually graduate students, the majority of whom are married. As Johnson[36] reports: ". . . foreign students tend to be somewhat more mature than their American classmates and seem to enroll most often in vocationally-oriented fields of study.

On many campuses, a majority of the international students are graduate students and are in fields such as engineering and the physical and life sciences which, until recently, have provided ready employment for graduation." According to Walton,[37] the tendency among administrators to favor graduate foreign students over undergraduate ones is due to the fact that the graduates have fewer problems in adjustment; they have more precise educational and professional goals than undergraduates, and they perform at a more acceptable academic level. At Michigan State University, for example, ninety percent of foreign students are in graduate school.[38]

Facing an economic crisis in the United States, the African student today experiences many financial obstacles that were absent before the 1970's when he or she could have worked his/her way through

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[35] Ibid., p. 9.

[36] Dixon C. Johnson, "Problems of foreign students," Exchange, Vol. 7, No. 2 (Fall, 1971), p. 61.

[37] Barbara Walton, op. cit., p. 50.

[38] "Foreign students find new home at MSU," Michigan State News (East Lansing, Michigan, Welcome Week A36, 1975).

school. Financial constraint is often isolated as a strong determinant of the success of foreign students in the United States. Fewry,[39] writing on "the Sierra Leone student abroad," discussed the complex situation often created by financial problems. She remarked:

> Financial problems can lead to a host of other unsatisfactory developments . . . the feelings of inadequacy which are sometimes engendered when money is not forthcoming may cause mental strain and make a student withdraw even from people who could be of help. Occasionally, problems with the police or immigration authorities complicate matters and inevitably student programmes suffer.

Other problems also emerge. In this regard, Fewry adds:

> Social and psychological problems are not to be ruled out. In some cases, they are the result of financial and academic difficulties.

Besides the financial difficulty, the African is confronted with other problems--cultural, linguistic and educational. Like other foreign students, he/she is a "sojourner" faced with problems of marginality, dual membership and culture conflict which do not affect native members of a society. The education he/she acquires is described as cross-cultural. Smith[40] defines cross-cultural education as:

> . . . the reciprocal process of learning and adjustment that occurs when individuals sojourn for educational purposes in a society that is culturally foreign to them, normally returning to their own society after a limited period. At the societal level, it is a process of cultural diffusion and change involving temporary "exchange of persons" for training and experience.

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[39]Oredola Fewry, "The Sierra Leone student abroad," Journal of Education (Ministry of Education, Sierra Leone, April, 1970), p. 6.

[40]Brewster Smith, "Cross-cultural education as a research area," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 12, No. 1 (1956), p. 3.

Another dimension of cross-cultural adjustment of the foreign student that has been studied is what has been termed "role shock."[41] This is a complex set of problems experienced especially by the mature student who comes to the United States after working in a respectable capacity in his or her home country. Higbee examined three foreign students at Michigan State University ranging in age between thirty-five and forty-five. Two of these individuals were Civil Servants and the third was a lawyer. The difficulties they experienced in the United States were those of reconciling their established status at home and the associated role and expectations to the demands of college life in the United States. The emerging conflicts which Higbee recounts were such that one of the three individuals had to give up his work and return home prematurely. The individuals demonstrated that

> they could not adjust readily and comfortably from a status and associated role-sets accorded them in their home culture to the different and, to them, less prestigious status of graduate student in the American educational sub-culture.[42]

Such difficulties experienced by individuals and shared by many mature foreign students are due to what Merton has explained thus:

> . . . primary socialization in certain statuses, with their characteristic value orientations, may so affect the formation of personality as to make it sometimes more, sometimes less, difficult to act out the requirements of other statuses. . .[43]

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[41]Homer Higbee, "Role shock--A new concept," Exchange, Vol. 4, No. 4 (Spring, 1969), p. 78.

[42]Ibid., p. 78.

[43]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Free Press, 1957), p. 381.

This notion is pertinent to the process of adjustment of the married African wife who may have to redefine her orientation in order to participate effectively in educational activities in the United States.

The problems of foreign students can be peculiar to their situations in the host country. Some scholars, however, maintain that as students, they are "more student than foreign in the problems they face." To enable the University of Tennessee to serve the needs of international students more effectively, a comprehensive questionnaire survey of 214 international students at the University of Tennessee, designed to provide both empirical and attitudinal information about international students at the university, was conducted.[44] This study was intended to provide information on participation of these students in campus activities, their use of university facilities, residential patterns and means of support. The principal aim was to identify those obstacles thought to present problems to non-native students attending the University of Tennessee. Findings of the study revealed that areas thought to be of great concern to foreign students in this case turned out to be insignificant. For example, "English language proficiency" received a high rating--"very important problem" by only twenty percent of the respondents. The problem considered to be next in importance "my ability to get along financially here" indicated forty-five percent of the respondents did not feel finances were a problem.

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[44]Dixon C. Johnson, op. cit., pp. 61-68.

In an effort to determine the correspondence, if any, between problems of foreign and domestic students, thirty-four domestic students were questioned on identical problem areas already presented to the foreign students. These areas were modified to suit more appropriately the situation of the domestic students. The responses of these students showed a marked similarity to those of the international students. Statistically significant differences in responses between the two groups were indicated only in the cases of food, homesickness and separation from family. These results to a great extent substantiate an earlier study by Walton who reports that "the foreign student is more student than foreign in the problem he faces."[45]

What then is the real situation of the foreign student in the host country? What are the significant problems he faces? How pertinent are the findings of the studies mentioned to the situation of the African woman in the United States? These questions need further exploration for accurate responses; however, the perspectives presented are enlightening for the investigation at hand.

Any study concerning African women in educational participation is closely associated with studies of the status of women in education generally. Therefore, relevant literature in the appropriate area must be reviewed also.

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[45]Barbara J. Walton, op. cit., p. 30.

Findings on research studies of married and mature women

Increasing efforts are presently being directed toward improving educational opportunities open to women. More recently, mature women (defined in Sensor's study[46] as twenty-five years old or older or married) have gained some attention. Most of them at an earlier age interrupted their education to raise families or to fulfill other interests and have resumed their studies mainly for economic and status-value motives. This is a world-wide trend, and many governments with the aid of international agencies or other private agencies are working towards the expansion of educational services and facilities for women.

In the United States, for example, there is a "tidal wave" of interest among women to resume study and, correspondingly, educational institutions are providing several avenues for women's study. Remarking on the progress made in the United States institutions towards women's continuing education, Clarenbach writes:

> . . . the proliferation of programs directed toward continuing education for women has exceeded almost all expectations. From coast to coast, scarcely an institution of higher learning has not responded in one way or another to the tidal wave of women seeking to resume or begin advanced studies. Just as the women themselves come in all ages, levels of education

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[46]Phyllis Sensor, "A study of the mature women students attending day classes at Riverside City College during the Spring semester, 1964," Research in Education (Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Information Center, Vol. 7, July, 1967), p. 41.

> and motivations, so the programs represent a vast range of content, structure, philosophy and approach.[47]

Clarenbach observes that even non-U.S. citizens have been showing similar interest. She remarks that, "a steady trickle of foreign visitors from every continent to observe and exchange ideas is a reminder of the world-wide dimensions of continuing education for women."[48]

Continuing education recognizes that adults have different kinds of experiences motivating them in different ways in response to their needs and to the learning situation.[49] In this vein, Mulligan[50] succinctly argues and justifies continuing education of women:

> In some sense, then, the argument for continuing education programs for women is dependent on a view that such programs are a form of compensation for other inequities. . . .
>
> After all, the primary justification for continuing education programs for women is the same justification which undergirds all of Continuing Education. People are different --their needs, interests and talents vary--and they must be given many different options at many different times to learn.

The literature provides several studies exploring the reasons why adult women return to enroll in educational programs. However, the studies on continuing education of married women are less abundant. Even less so are those that deal directly with the educational needs

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[47]Kathryn F. Clarenbach, "Can continuing education adapt?" American Association of University Women Journal, Vol. 63, No. 2 (January, 1970), p. 170.

[48]Ibid., p. 170.

[49]J. R. Kidd, How Adults Learn (New York: Association Press, 1959), pp. 49-53.

[50]Kathryn L. Mulligan, A Question of Women and Continuing Education (Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education, 1973), p. 9.

and problems of foreign students' wives *per se*.

One of the most significant investigations into student wives' participation in educational activities was that of Hembrough.[51] In a questionnaire survey conducted among wives of all married new students at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign campus, Hembrough found that the respondents saw acquiring an education as a requirement for the development of their children, as a way to communicate more adequately with their highly educated husbands, and as a means of preparing themselves for paid employment. Hembrough's study, focusing on women between sixteen and fifty-five years of age, found that seventy percent of the respondents were not attending any educational institutions, whereas twenty-seven percent were attending the University of Illinois as undergraduate or graduate students. Three percent were attending other educational institutions--finishing high school, taking adult education courses at local high schools, and taking courses or finishing theses at other colleges or universities. The popular subjects of study were the humanities and education. In order to continue her education, the wife depended on the schedules of her employer, her babysitter, her children's school, and her husband's classes. The cost of continuing school and the difficulties of transportation and parking were dimensions that complicated educational participation. Of importance, too, was the question of mobility.

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[51]Betty L. Hembrough, "A two-fold educational challenge: The student wife and the mature woman student," *Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counsellors*, Vol. 29, No. 4 (Summer, 1966), pp. 163-167.

Married women often encounter difficulties in trying to continue their education because of their husbands' mobility in changing universities or in changing jobs.

For increased participation of this category of women in educational programs, the findings from Hembrough's study recommended that the following were required: (1) more evening classes, (2) a wider variety of televised and correspondence courses, (3) more courses meeting once or twice a week for several hours instead of three or four times a week one hour at a time, (4) lower tuition and fees for part-time students, (5) more scholarships for married women, (6) more jobs which would use their already-acquired education and their future education, (7) inexpensive nursery school and day-care facilities, (8) greater flexibility in the library reserve book system, (9) facilities for counseling over a whole range of problems and plans, and (10) recognition of non-attending student wives as a part of the university community.

The findings from this research were seconded by Lee[52] whose study was designed to determine enrollment trends of married undergraduate women students at Indiana State Teachers' College. Increased enrollment was discovered to be positively correlated with desire for economic security, status, self-fulfillment, or sheer relief from boredom. Marriage was found to be a major contributing factor in the failure of women to continue their education beyond high school.

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[52]Anne Lee, "A study of married women college students," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counsellors, Vol. 24, No. 3 (April, 1961), pp. 132-139.

The study further indicated that the greatest number of married women in the college were in the age bracket of twenty-one to twenty-three years; that three out of five married women students attended classes on a part-time basis and that they were limited to classes scheduled in the evenings and on Saturdays. Only one out of eight of the married men students had wives enrolled in college, and it was the wife who quit school when financial limitations threatened.

The findings of a study by Purrington designed to examine the educational achievements and aspirations of married women students at Michigan State University, East Lansing suggested that women expect and do get less education than their male counterparts primarily because of the socialization process of their youth and from their knowledge of the reality of the university. With marriage, male's educational aspirations become greater, whereas women's educational goals become less. In her summary, she states: ". . . that it is the exception rather than the rule for married women to get the education that they need, want and/or are capable of. . . . Women should want family-related 'expressive' goods. Men should want work-related 'instrumental' ones."[53]

In another study, Osborn[54] mentioned the following as the major motivational factors for the participation of mature married

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[53]Beverly Turner Purrington, "Married women students at Michigan State University" (M.A. thesis, Michigan State University, 1972), p. 45.

[54]R. H. Osborn, "Characteristics, motivation and problems of mature married women college students: A status study of selected students at the George Washington University" (Ph.D. dissertation, The George Washington University, 1963).

women in college: personal growth and self-improvement, enjoyment of learning and desire for professional growth. Other reasons included preparation for teaching, more financial power in the home, preparation for or advancement in work, and enrichment of everyday living. The study also brought out a salient fact: three-fourths of the 221 women had the encouragement of their husbands to go to school. This supports Christie's contention that "the greatest contributing factor to a student's success is the encouragement and enthusiasm of his or her spouse."[55] This is a very positive and necessary factor for the resumption of studies by a married woman.

The family is important in a supportive role too. Osborn's study pointed out that two-thirds of the women had the encouragement of their parents, children and professors. This study like the others identified problems concerned with scheduling difficulty, examination tensions, inadequate study techniques and value conflicts. Moreover, most of the respondents had participated in three to four extra-curricular activities, and about forty-one percent of them had fathers who were in professional or managerial occupations and mothers who were primarily homemakers.

Hunt[56] reported the results of a questionnaire and interview survey of married women students at Lansing Community College, Lansing,

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[55]Richard Christie, Articulated Instructional Media Newsletter (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Extension Service, 1967), p. 1.

[56]Beverly Hunt, "Characteristics, perceptions, and experiences of married women students at Lansing Community College" (Ed.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965).

Michigan to determine their characteristics and also to investigate their participation patterns in education and the motivational factors explaining such participation. Several of her findings are a reinforcement of the results from other studies. As usual, marriage and lack of financial means explained the discontinuation of studies after high school. Family pressures were continuous obstacles to effective and full participation in education.

Of the women interviewed, a significant majority expressed definite vocational or further educational goals. Curriculum preferences were predominantly in teaching, liberal arts, business and nursing. The husbands, like the fathers of these women, more often belonged to the professional and managerial class. About half of the husbands had attended college and a fourth of them were also students.

The study also pointed out that clerical occupations were the chief areas of employment for mothers, mothers-in-law and married women students. Encouragement for the pursuit of further studies came mostly from husbands and mothers; husbands with college training showed more support and understanding of their wives' continued education. In most cases, financial resources for further studies were provided by the husband's earnings or family earnings.

As a result of the lack of attention given adult undergraduates (aged twenty-six or over) by educational planners in the United States, Erickson[57] studied a total of 494 adult undergraduates at

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[57]Mildred B. Erickson, "An analysis of selected characteristics and needs of adult undergraduate students attending Michigan State University, Fall term, 1966" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1968).

Michigan State University during the fall term, 1966 to assess their educational needs as the students perceived them. Among her findings were some significant facts about adult women undergraduates: they were older, more of them were married, widowed or divorced; they were mostly part-time students and had done less graduate work. These women had educational and vocational goals and aspirations but these measured considerably less than those of their male counterparts. Education was the dominant field for these women, and employment, teaching or nursing and office, clerical and sales work were the popular areas. Erickson, moreover, stressed that "intellectual stimulation and becoming socially useful" was important to both the men and the women in the study.

Family responsibilities appear as full-time occupations for many women. As shown in a 1961 study of wives of students on the Purdue campus, in a sample of 2,400 wives, only twelve percent were taking any courses at Purdue and only 2.6 percent were enrolled for a full academic load--twelve credit hours or more. The majority of the wives were involved in full-time work outside the home in an effort to support the household or were taking care of youngsters, their own and others.[58]

In 1968, in a repeat study of a sample of 119 wives in the same venue,[59] a four percent increase had occurred among those who

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[58]Helen B. Schleman, "Span plan," Purdue Alumnus (February, 1969), pp. 7-11.

[59]_____, "Educational planning for wives of men students," Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counsellors, Vol. 33, No. 1 (Fall, 1969), pp. 23-26.

enrolled for classes. The lack of enrollment was explained by the demands of their work or occupation with husband and children.

Again, in another study of a group of mature women at Riverside College, Sensor[60] uncovered the difficulties women encountered in combating the demands of school and home responsibilities. The findings were no different from those of most of the other studies. The respondents' problems lay principally with scheduling and lack of time for home duties and study. They recommended the need for longer classes which met less often.

Ruslink[61] investigated certain factors that motivate or inhibit married women in their decision to enroll in college after an interruption in their education. The study also concerned itself with whether or not there is a difference in degree of importance given to these factors by women in certain social class groups, various age groups, and various curriculum groups. The findings revealed that social class was most motivational in women's decisions to return to school. Economic interests were of minimal importance. Conflicts arose when college demands interfered with family and home needs. Again, scheduling of classes was considered a major difficulty to most of these women. The women in lower social classes sought a college education to improve their financial position, and middle-class women

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[60]Phyllis Sensor, op. cit.

[61]Doris H. Ruslink, "Married women's resumption of education in preparation for teaching: An investigation of selected factors that encourage and deter married women's entry or re-entry into two New Jersey colleges" (Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1969).

saw acquiring a college degree as a way of gaining more social status among friends and family.

In a descriptive study of a population of 442 randomly selected adult women enrolled in an urban community college in Michigan, Tate[62] sought data concerned with the women's reasons for returning to school, their major fields of study, their career goals, and their present evaluation of their college experience. Of greatest importance were those factors relating to academic achievement (earning a degree), gaining general information and entering a profession. Next was personal and social usefulness and improving income potential. Of least importance were those factors relating to supplementing income and providing for leisure-time activity. In addition, Tate concluded that employment status, age, and annual family income were most significant in influencing the women to enroll in college. Spouse's occupation and marital status showed the least influence on their reasons for enrolling in college, whereas educational background was more influential. Some of the problems of women identified in this study, as in the other studies, included financial difficulties, child care and home responsibilities. In view of their problems, the women recommended improvement in the following areas: child care, transportation to campus, better lounge and study areas, job placement and information and credit for work experience.

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[62]Mildred C. Tate, "An analysis of the relationship between selected personal socio-economic characteristics of a random sample of adult women and their reasons for enrolling in an urban community college" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971).

In a study of a sample matched on the basis of age (between twenty-five and fifty years) and family income, Doty[63] found the majority of women indicate a desire for knowledge as a reason for returning to college. The desire for college work obviously had remained with most of these women in spite of the interruption for marriage. Career goals were very significant factors influencing these women to enroll in college. Doty's study also refutes some of the popular assumptions about mature female students, in particular the notions that: 1) adult women students are inferior to younger students in academic performance, 2) adult women return to college for "frivolous" time-filling reasons, and 3) the investment in the education of mature women, particularly at the college level, is a waste because they cannot be expected to use their education in subsequent careers.

Findings from these studies indicate that married or mature women have widely varied reasons for resuming their education. Equally, many obstacles and responsibilities deter them from participating in educational programs. The prevalent motives for educational participation include a desire to prepare for a career, the desire for growth and self-improvement, the need to fulfill educational goals, the need to develop intellect and skills, and an insurance against loneliness. The deterring factors are often scheduling of classes, transportation facilities, costs of tuition, and babysitting facilities.

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[63]B. A. Doty, "Why do mature women return to college?" Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counsellors, Vol. 29, No. 4 (1966), pp. 171-174.

A final consideration needs to be noted in terms of obstacles to women's development. Several factors impede women in their attempts to acquire an education, but it is important to state that at this time in history many conditions exist that have aided or fostered changes among women students. Tinker points out some sociological facts, such as technology, which provide quicker and easier facilities for women.[64] Today, women have automated kitchens, laundry and cleaning equipment, in addition to an increased amount of ready-to-eat foods and low priced and good quality ready-made clothing. These have reduced women's work loads tremendously. Moreover, scientific discoveries have tended to raise questions about traditional beliefs which formerly provided security. As Sara Sagoff puts it, "Technology has brought an end of work as the focus of life,--a need for worthwhile use of leisure time, an increase in urbanization--an increasing variety of ways people will seek to make sense out of or opt out of organized society."[65]

There is a growing interest in continuing and lifelong education generally throughout the world. It is therefore fitting to examine some of the literature relating to adult, continuing education as it pertains to this study.

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[64]Anne Hall Tinker, "Programs for mature co-eds," Adult Leadership, March, 1965, pp. 283-304.

[65]Sara E. Sagoff, Adults in Transition (Summary of a conference at Chatham, Massachusetts, May, 1965. The New England Board of Higher Education and Brookline, Mass.: Center for the study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1965), pp. 4-5.

Continuing education and adult participation

Continuing education is now a widely used term and has most often been used synonymously with adult education. To define continuing education, some scholars identify purpose, planned study, organization and clients as the essential elements to be considered.[66] Other scholars, like Blakely, emphasize purpose but also include the variety of programs that can fall under the umbrella of continuing education. Blakely defines adult or continuing education as "purposeful, systematic learning--assumed to include all those government-sponsored organized learning activities of all types and levels, including elementary, secondary, vocational-technical, collegiate, graduate and professional which are designed to assist adults to improve themselves and their occupational competencies, after their formal education has either been completed or interrupted."[67] This definition is very useful for the orientation of the present study. It is, however, restrictive in that only government-sponsored activities are mentioned, but of importance is the fact that Blakely identifies a broad array of programs open to adults.

For the present study, the continuing education population will be limited to adult women. Continuing education will imply the

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[66]Paul H. Sheats, "What is adult education? Nine working definitions," Adult Education (Spring, 1955), pp. 134-135.

[67]Robert J. Blakely in Malcolm Knowles (ed.), Handbook of Adult Education in the United States (Chicago: Adult Education Association of the United States, 1966), p. 4.

resumption of educational activities after a termination or interruption of formal education to pursue other specific goals and interests such as marriage.

There is a growing body of empirical studies on the general area of participation in continuing education activities. The subject of participation of adults in continuing education programs has been one of the chief areas of concern for many studies on adult education in the United States. Principally, the research studies have tended to be descriptive, with a focus on adults who participate in institutional programs. Such studies have the "clientele analysis" orientation consisting of "a description of the characteristics of the participants in adult education programs of one or more agencies in comparison with the characteristics of the general population who could potentially be served."[68] In this regard, one finds that women have been studied just like men and across educational levels men and women participate at about the same rate.[69] However, continuing education researchers show relatively little knowledge about participation in adult learning activities of the foreign student in the United States in general, far less of the wife of the foreign student. Nothing has been found in the literature about the how, why, where and what of continuing education efforts of the foreign student's wife who accompanies or joins her

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[68]Alan B. Knox, "Clientele analysis," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (June, 1965), pp. 231-239.

[69]Alan B. Knox and Richard Videbeck, "Adult education and adult life cycle," Adult Education, Vol. 13 (1963), pp. 102-121; John W. C. Johnstone and Ramon J. Rivera, Volunteers for Learning (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965), p. 7.

student husband. It will be useful to investigate the participation patterns of this group and determine the factors that motivate or inhibit their participation.

Recently, more participation studies have included women and mature women returning to college or engaging in other educational activities. Some of these studies have revealed significant findings and implications which will be useful in the present study. Participation of adult women in continuing education programs varies, and the literature seems to suggest that of all the variables economic orientation and self-actualization may be the most important.

An individual's participation in continuing education activities can be considered in two categories: 1) positional or background factors which describe the individual's position in the social structure, and 2) psychological factors, which may influence the manner in which the roles associated with the various positions are performed.[70] Positional factors generally include such variables as sex, age, employment status, level of occupation, level of income, marital status, family status, and length and place of residence. The psychological category, on the other hand, considers such factors as self-reliance, social skills, and occupational relations.

Several studies have investigated the relationships between educational participation and the positional variables. Less attention has been given to the psychological variables. Out of these studies

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[70]David C. Krech, et al., Individual in Society (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1962), pp. 383-420.

have emerged certain consistent findings identifying factors that can be described as the most important predictors of participation.

Educational level has shown the strongest correlation with participation rate increasing as level of education rises.[71] Johnstone and Rivera, for example, note: "By far the most persistent finding in our investigation was that formal educational attainment plays a highly crucial role in determining whether or not one enters the ranks of adult students."[72] Other studies have shown similar results. London, Wenkert, and Hagstrom, in their research study conducted in the city of Oakland, California, considered the possible influence upon participation in continuing education classes of social status, age, sex, race and place of residence. They pointed out that among the participants "the most striking finding is that attained education is the most important factor determining whether or not a person is likely to participate in adult education."[73] Increases in participation were noted in comparing groups classified by amount of education--those with high-school education and those with one to three years of college. The rate of participation for high-school graduates was ten percent. This increased to twenty-one percent for those with one to three years of college and to twenty-three percent for those with four or more

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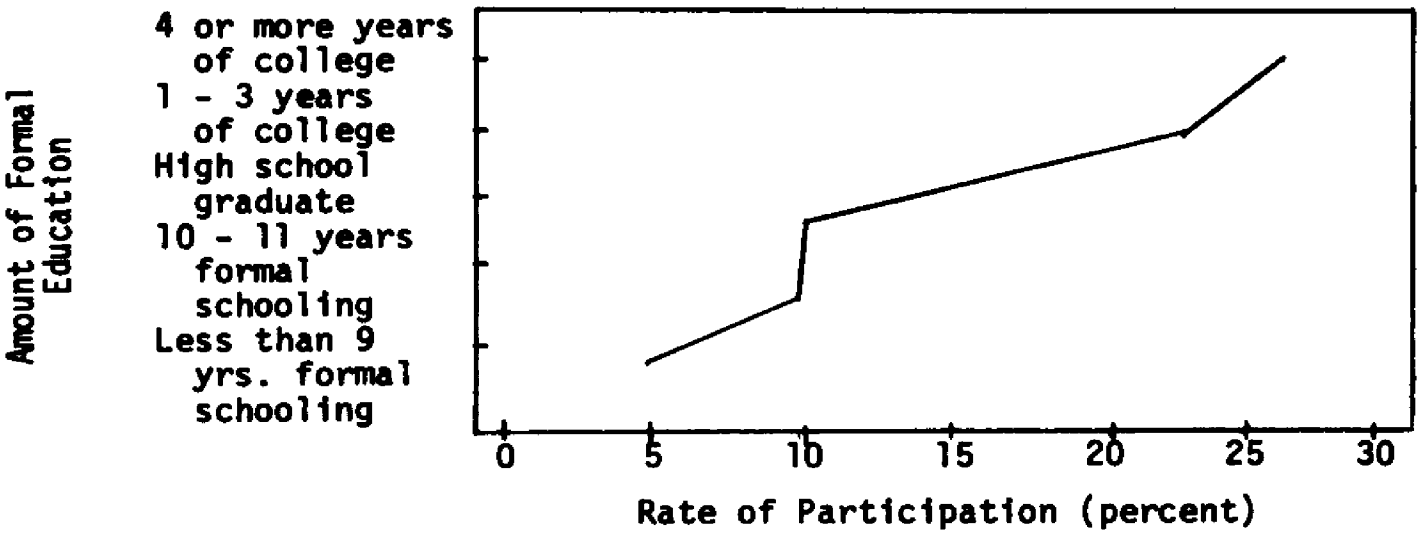
[71]M. Douglah and Gwenna Moss, "Differential participation patterns of adults of low and high educational attainment," Adult Education, Vol. 28, No. 4 (1968), p. 251.

[72]Johnstone and Rivera, op. cit., p. 21.

[73]Jack London, et al., Adult Education and Social Class (Berkeley, California: Survey Research Center, University of California, 1963), p. 189.

years of college. Graphically, the amount of formal education correlated with the percentage rate of participation appears as follows:



Furthermore, the study reveals that the more educated were more likely to participate for vocational reasons than were the less educated. The participation rate for vocational reasons for those with some college education was eleven percent, for those with only a high school education five percent, and for those with less than a high school education three percent.

Knox reinforced the fact that previous educational level influenced participation rates more than any of the factors studied.[74] Factors also influencing participation in continuing education activities were age, occupation, and socio-economic status. The Oakland study revealed that age was second in importance followed by occupation and

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[74]Alan B. Knox, "Motivation to participate and learn in adult education," Adult Education, Vol. 12 (Summer, 1962), pp. 238-242.

socio-economic status.[75] However, it should be mentioned that from the Johnstone[76] and London[77] studies, the original positive relationships of level of income and level of occupation were considerably reduced when level of education was controlled. As to socio-economic status, it was observed that, though parental socio-economic position can relate strongly to the career lines leading to college, the same cannot be said to affect one's participation in continuing education.[78]

In an attempt to broadly characterize continuing education, to outline different patterns of continuing education activities and to relate certain characteristics of adults with differing patterns of participation in these modes of continuing education activities, Poulton[79] devised a three-part classification of continuing education activities as a basis of comparing participation patterns of adults.

He examined, through the use of a mailed questionnaire, the continuing education activities engaged in by 512 adults of Jackson County, Michigan and tried to determine the extent to which the participation patterns were related to certain demographic-positional and social-psychological variables. He studied the demographic-positional

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[75]London, et al., op. cit., p. 189.

[76]Johnstone and Rivera, op. cit., pp. 95-104.

[77]London, op. cit., pp. 129-147.

[78]Ibid., p. 189.

[79]Brent Poulton, "The relationship of adults' participation in continuing education activities to certain demographic and positional characteristics, orientation toward learning and orientation toward continuing education institutions" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1975).

characteristics of age, sex, marital status, occupation, income, level of formal schooling and parental responsibility and the social-psychological characteristics of orientation toward learning and orientation toward continuing education institutions as they related to differences in adults' participation in continuing education activities.

His findings indicated that 1) the characteristics of sex, occupation and income are more strongly related to the orientations toward learning of the group studied than age or parental responsibility and marital status. No indication of a relationship exists between level of formal schooling and learning orientation. Like the professional-oriented in the study, men participate for personal goal attainment whereas the semi-skilled, non-skilled men and women become involved to escape daily routine. The wealthy show a strong inclination toward "the desire to know," "the desire to reach a social goal," and "the desire to meet formal requirements." 2) With reference to the orientations adults have toward continuing education institutions, parental responsibility was the most significant. 3) The characteristics of age, occupation and level of formal schooling show strong relationship to adults' patterns of participation in continuing education activities, substantiating other studies that have indicated such relationships. 4) Patterns of participation of the adults in continuing education activities show a relationship to their orientation toward continuing education institutions, though the precise nature of this relationship could not be brought out by the study. 5) Finally, the study demonstrated that there is an important relationship between

patterns of participation in continuing education and adults' orientation toward learning.

It is interesting to note that one of Poulton's recommendations concerned women who participate in continuing education activities largely for "activity/escapist benefits"; he strongly states that as a way of attracting more women continuing education "should afford women both the opportunity and assistance necessary for positive self-growth experiences."[80]

Houle examined the wealth of studies dealing with participation in continuing education and presents general conclusions regarding certain characteristics common to all the groups served. He observes that:

> In general, high income groups are more likely to take part in educational activities than low income groups. Participation is also positively related to the size of the community, the length of residence in it, and the number of different kinds of educational activity available. People with certain nationality or religious backgrounds are more active than those with other backgrounds. Age is important: the very young adult seldom takes part, but there is a sharp upturn in the late twenties, a fairly constant level of activity until the age of fifty, and a decline afterward. Married people participate more than single people, and families with school-age children more than families without them. Many more professional, managerial, and technical people take part relative to their number in the population than do people from other occupational groups; next in significance are white-collar and clerical workers; then skilled laborers; and lastly unskilled laborers. But the most universally important factor is schooling (emphasis is mine). The higher the formal education of the adult, the more likely it is that he will take part in continuing education. The amount of schooling is, in fact, so significant that it

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[80] Ibid., p. 147.

> underlies or reinforces many of the other determinants such as occupation, size of community, length of stay in it, and nationality and religious backgrounds.[81]

The generalizations here are very useful although they have shortcomings including "the tendency to lose sight of the differences within groups while focusing major attention on the differences between groups."[82]

In pursuit of the reasons or objectives for participating in continuing education activities, Houle[83] designed and conducted interviews with twenty-two highly involved continuing education learners. His main hypothesis was that gradations existed within the group of learners in the amount, the kind, and purposes of their study. From his findings, he constructed a theoretical typology consisting of three major ideal types of participants in continuing education according to their learning orientations. These types have been popularized in the field of continuing education today. Houle mentioned that the learners "had the same basic ways of thinking about the process in which they were engaged. They all had goals which they wished to achieve." Nevertheless, he cautions that the categories he identified were not applicable to every case. He grouped the learners thus:

(1) Goal-oriented--those who use education as a means of accomplishing clear-cut objectives.

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[81]Cyril Houle, The Inquiring Mind (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1961), pp. 6-7.

[82]M. Douglah and Gwenna Moss, op. cit., p. 248.

[83]Houle, op. cit., pp. 15-30.

(2) Activity-oriented--those who utilize education as a means of satisfying social needs.

(3) Learning-oriented--those who seek knowledge for its own sake.

These concepts provided the basis for future studies such as Sheffield's, which sampled 453 adult conference participants in twenty conferences held at eight universities in the United States in an attempt to examine the orientation patterns of adult learners as participants in continuing learning activities.[84] By the use of factor analysis to identify the groupings of orientations among the 453 respondents, he noted five meaningful orientations:[85]

(1) Learning orientation--participation in education as an end in itself.

(2) Sociability orientation--participation based on an interpersonal or social meaning in the circumstances of the learning activity; no necessary connection with the content or announced purposes of the activity.

(3) Personal-goal orientation--participation in learning as the means of accomplishing fairly clear-cut personal objectives.

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[84]Sherman B. Sheffield, "The orientations of adult continuing learners" in The Continuing Learner (ed.) Daniel Solomon (Chicago: Center for the study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1964), pp. 2-18.

[85]_____, "The orientations of adult continuing learners," (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1962), pp. 5-30.

(4) Societal-goal orientation--participation in education to accomplish fairly clear-cut or community-centered objectives.

(5) Need-fulfillment orientation--participation based on personal meaning which may have no necessary connection, and often no connection at all, with the content or the announced purposes of the activity.

Ingham[86] and Litchfield,[87] pursuing further the learning orientations of participants in continuing education, created a meaningful scale on which the total educative activity of given individuals was measured. A total score for educational participation for each person was derived and studied. These scores were the result of the participant's self-reporting of his actual performance in activities judged to be undertaken for purposes of education.

A major approach to continuing education assumes that adults will participate in programs and activities in which they have expressed a definite interest. In this regard, Cross and Valley investigating non-traditional study state:

> Adults do not value learning for its own sake or for its liberating influence. The majority of respondents express an interest in the utility of knowledge. Knowledge that leads to better jobs, that helps in practical daily living,

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[86]Roy J. Ingham, "The measurement of educative behavior and the relationship to the leisure satisfactions of college alumni" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1963).

[87]Ann Litchfield, "The nature and pattern of participation in adult education activities" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1965).

> and that teaches the skills and pleasures associated with leisure-time activities holds greater interest for the adult. . . .[88]

These goals and purposes of learning will be examined more thoroughly in the subsequent section which will deal more specifically with empirical findings on the reasons for participation or non-participation of married or mature women in continuing education activities.

It must be noted that the majority of adult participation research studies reviewed here have been conducted within the context of particular institutions or types of institutional programs. This information is pertinent in that the present study will consider a wide variety of programs offered by organizations and institutions.

Summary

The literature review focused on three areas from which the following general observations can be made.

(1) Studies directed at foreign students have, in general, been geared towards the relationship between factors such as nationality, age, marital status, religion, financial status and, to some extent, the vocation of the individual prior to coming to the United States on the one hand, and attitudes and behavior of the individual as a student on the other. The findings may be summarized as follows:

a) The length of time taken for the adjustment of the foreign student is related to the similarities that his or her culture shares with the United States. It is relatively easier for a

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[88] K. Patricia Cross and John R. Valley, Planning Non-traditional Programs (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Series, 1974), p. 2.

European student to adjust than, for example, an Asian. In this regard, the individual's knowledge of the English language is important.

b) Age, marital status and the social status of the individual are important in cross-cultural adjustment. Older people find it relatively harder to adjust; in addition, if the individual is married, the presence or absence of his family greatly affects the process of adjustment. The greatest problems are encountered by those whose spouses are absent. Difficulties may also arise due to what has been termed as "role shock." Mature individuals with established status or position in their own culture may experience difficulties within a college community where their concept regarding "role behavior and role expectation" are not met.

c) Financial matters are critical to the effective functioning of the foreigner as a student.

d) Relating specifically to African students is a general trend in the increase of their numbers within United States institutions. The success of the African as a foreign student is predicated on the individual's ability to have clear-cut educational goals. Consequently, university administrators have been shown to have preference for graduate students. The preference for graduate students who are mostly men and relatively mature and with spouses has also led to an increase in the number of such spouses in the United States.

(2) The participation of women in continuing education activities has been on the rise and the review of the literature reveals the following:

a) Self-actualization and economic motives are the two most powerful forces driving the mature woman to participate in educational activities.

b) Popular areas of study for the majority of these women are education and nursing.

c) Mature women going back to school usually have lower levels of education relative to men.

d) Responsibility associated with marriage and child raising are the most often cited reasons for breaks in the education of women. These duties cause women more often to be part-time students.

e) The mature woman returning to school cites her husband's supportive role as an important contribution to her motivation for the resumption of educational activities.

(3) Participation in continuing education has received the greatest attention in all the empirical works in the general area of continuing education. These studies are often descriptive--focusing on positional or background factors such as age, sex, income of the clientele or psychological factors such as self reliance, social skill, occupational relations. The former category has received more emphasis. The findings relating to participation include the following:

a) The level of previous education has the highest correlation with participation.

b) Other factors influencing participation in continuing education activities are age, occupation, socio-economic status and a few other variables.

c) High income groups are more likely to take part in educational activities than low income groups.

d) Participants in continuing education activities are increasingly being neatly grouped on the basis of their orientations in the amount, kinds and purposes for studying.

The information reviewed has hopefully brought into focus some of the problems and issues that may be anticipated to affect the African student wife who is, at the same time, a foreigner, a mature woman and a possible participant in a range of educational activities.

The present study has attempted to illuminate the complex factors reviewed and their interrelationship with, and consequent impact on, participation patterns of married African women in Michigan.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the participation patterns of dependent African females (African spouses of male African students) in continuing education activities within selected university centers in Michigan. The African, for the purpose of this study, was defined as one from Africa south of the Sahara.

The methodological framework was formulated to investigate variables relating to the participation/non-participation of the group in educational activities from three broad perspectives: as wives, as foreigners and as students. The objective was to collect as much information as possible, classify the more general information on the basis of participation and non-participation in educational activities and specify likely and determinant relationships among variables.

Information was collected on the demographic variables of the women: Country and place of origin, age, religion, family background, level of education prior to coming to the United States, number of children per woman and financial background. The second set of variables was related to motivation, class structure, objectives and other reasons for actual or intended participation and non-participation in specific educational activities (see pp. 67-69).

This chapter presents the research design. It reports the procedures adopted for the investigation, the population and sample, instrumentation and the methods of analysis and interpretation of the data.

Population and Sample

The population consisted of all married Sub-Saharan African women living with their African student husbands during Fall term, 1975 and Winter term, 1976 in five university centers within Michigan: East Lansing, Ann Arbor, Detroit, Kalamazoo and Berrien Springs.

Initial efforts to locate the population were made through foreign student advisors, African student associations and African studies centers within universities in the area. Following a letter of introduction on the researcher's behalf from the Foreign Student Advisor at Michigan State University (see Appendix A_{111}), a formal written request (see Appendix A_1) was made to various institutions of higher learning in Michigan for a list of names and addresses of married African male students and their African wives. The researcher contacted those institutions shown by the latest directory of the Institute of International Education[1] to have a foreign student enrollment of at least eighty-five persons. These included the following: Andrews University, Central Michigan University, University of Detroit, Detroit Institute of Technology, Eastern Michigan University, General

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[1] Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1973), p. 52.

Motors Institute, Michigan Technical University, Michigan State University, Oakland University, University of Michigan, Wayne State University and Western Michigan University.

Of the eleven institutions contacted, only two, in addition to Michigan State University, were able to comply with the request. Five of the institutions had no married African students whose wives were African and were in the United States. Respondents for the remaining three institutions indicated the presence of married African males and their wives, but could not release the information requested since university regulations prohibited their doing so. They recommended that inquiries be made to African student associations or, in the absence of such groups, knowledgeable Africans or Africanists. Such inquiries were subsequently made, qualifying wives were contacted and the necessary information was furnished. The initial list of wives included eighty-two individuals. Subsequently, individuals within the various universities were contacted by telephone to solicit other names and as a cross check for the initial list. Out of this effort, the list grew to 111 distributed as follows:

University	Interview	No Interview	Total
1. Andrews University	5	5	10
2. Detroit Institute of Technology	5	4	9
3. Michigan State University	35	2	37
4. University of Michigan	20	2	22
5. Wayne State University	10	5	15
6. Western Michigan University	15	3	18
Total	90	21	111

The 111 females represented twelve African countries (see Chapter IV, p. 81). Given the small size of the population, it was decided to include the entire population. This objective could not be fully achieved. Some husbands would not allow their wives to be interviewed and a few women were unable or unwilling to be interviewed. Several expressed fear that information about themselves might become available to immigration officials. Of the 111 women, ninety were eventually interviewed and included in the study.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in the study was an interview questionnaire (see Appendix B). The researcher anticipated differences in the educational backgrounds of respondents and varying degrees of competence in English. It thus seemed fitting to choose the interview questionnaire as the best vehicle to obtain the necessary information. In addition, the researcher shares the opinion of other researchers that, in the interview situation, responses are more spontaneous and rich and such benefits may outweigh possible biases. In this regard, Oppenheim notes that though the interview situation is

> fraught with possibilities of bias . . . there remains the undisputed advantage that the richness and the spontaneity of information collected by interviews is higher than that which a mailed questionnaire can hope to obtain. . . . Many researchers will take a chance on the possibilities of bias for the sake of the richness of the information that only the interview can give. . . .[2]

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[2]A. N. Oppenheim, Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement (New York: Basic Books Inc., 1966), pp. 30-33.

The questionnaire was devised on the basis of the literature review outlined in Chapter II and a study of questionnaires developed for related studies. The instrument was divided into four sections:

1) Socio-economic and demographic backgrounds of the respondent prior to coming to the United States.

2) Participation in educational activities within the United States.

3) Non-participation in educational activities within the United States.

4) General information regarding the respondent's sojourn in the United States, her plans on returning to Africa, and her United States experiences.

In the first category, the following information was solicited: nationality, religion, age, proficiency in English, education and occupation of parents, husband and the respondent herself, number of children, and reasons for the break in education in Africa. The second category of information was related to the kinds, duration, institutions and reasons associated with each respondent's participation in one or more educational activities. Questions on motivation and class structure were also included. In this context, participation was defined as encompassing any, or a combination of, learning activities whether academic, vocational, religious, recreational or social. Specifically, participation was defined as falling in one or a combination of the areas outlined below:

1) Professional Education--Institutionalized programs of at least four years' duration designed to prepare persons who have at

least a high or secondary school diploma for specific careers. These include areas such as law, engineering, teaching, medical-dental, theology, business management and others.

2) Vocational-Technical Education--Structured study in a curriculum intended to lead to a specific occupation requiring more than a high or secondary school diploma and no more than two years of college. Programs under this area include trade school programs, business skill programs offering courses on secretarial and other clerical skills, other basic skill training programs for service occupations, health occupations, food service and others.

3) Secondary/High School Education--Institutionalized programs of instruction designed primarily to prepare those persons with less than a secondary/high school education for the high school diploma and for entry into occupations and higher educational programs.

4) English as a second language--Programs designed to teach and improve the level of English of those persons who have little or no ability to read, write and converse in the English language. In this study, such a preparation is crucial if the dependent African female is not proficient in English and intends to increase her educational involvement in the more formal educational programs such as professional and technical-vocational programs.

5) Home and Family Life Education--Programs concerned with the improvement of family living and family relationships. The skills acquired in these programs are not necessarily oriented toward employment outside the home. Home and family life education includes many

educational fields (such as homemaking, health, foods and nutrition, home management). These topics can be studied in informal as well as formal settings.

6) Personal Enrichment Education--Instruction planned to provide meaning and richness to the life of the individual. The study can enhance one's understanding of self and society. Though not primarily intended for use in employment, the knowledge acquired can apply to a job. Study in this area can cover a wide spectrum of activities that can possibly improve the quality of life--these include areas such as literature, languages, appreciation of and participation in the creative and performing arts, natural sciences.

7) Recreational Education--Instruction designed to impart the development of knowledge, appreciation, skills, attitudes or values which equip one to participate with satisfaction in recreative activities. Recreation takes any number of forms--athletics, gardening, repairing of home, sewing or hiking. They can be structured or unstructured programs.

8) Social Interaction Education--Programs in this category are created with no intended academic objectives but may provide incidental learning. Opportunities are created for meeting and socializing, and learning takes place through this social interaction.

Non-participation was defined to mean a lack of involvement in any of the aforementioned areas. The non-participant was asked questions to provide her reasons for non-participation as well as the likelihood for participation in the future.

The fourth category dealt with general information: sources of financial support for both husband and wife while in the United States, sources of information regarding educational opportunities in the area, kinds and sources of encouragement for participation and future plans regarding employment. An open-ended question was finally posed to solicit reactions to education in Michigan and the United States in general, to community life and to the process of cross-cultural adjustment to the United States and university communities in particular.

Broadly, the questions posed were aimed at the following areas and their likely interactions as they might affect actual or intended participation or non-participation of the population in educational activities:

(1) Relationships between demographic variables and participation/non-participation.

a) Between place of residence in home country and participation/non-participation.

b) Between family size (number of children present in the United States) and participation/non-participation.

c) Between age and participation/non-participation.

d) Between religion and participation/non-participation.

e) Between respondent's source of income in the United States and participation/non-participation.

f) Between respondent's husband's source of income in the United States and participation/non-participation.

(2) Relationships between family background variables and participation/non-participation.

a) Between the education of respondent's parents and her participation/non-participation.

b) Between the occupation of respondent's parents and her participation/non-participation.

c) Between respondent's husband's education and her participation/non-participation.

(3) Relationships between educational and occupational background of the respondent prior to her coming to the United States and participation/non-participation.

a) Between level of education reached in home country and participation/non-participation.

b) Between level of proficiency in English and participation/non-participation.

(4) Relationship between time in the United States and participation/non-participation.

a) Between period since time of arrival in the United States and participation/non-participation.

b) Between length of stay as it relates to cross-cultural adjustment on the one hand, and participation/non-participation on the other.

c) Between perceived changes in attitude towards education during residency in the United States and participation/non-participation.

(5) Relationship between sources of information and participation/non-participation.

a) Between different forms of media as sources of information and participation/non-participation.

(6) Relationship between sources of encouragement and participation/non-participation.

a) Between influences generating interest and participation/non-participation.

(7) Relationship between housekeeping and wifery responsibility and participation/non-participation.

a) Between housekeeping and participation/non-participation.

b) Between childrearing and participation/non-participation.

(8) Relationship between future career goals and participation/non-participation.

a) Between likely sources of influences for change and participation/non-participation.

b) Between the perception of the female role in society as perceived by these women and participation/non-participation.

Pilot Study of Instrument

A random sample of twenty Asian student wives from six countries (Bangladesh, Taiwan, India, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand) at Michigan State University was used to pretest the instrument. Pretesting is in conformity with other works employing the interview technique. This method is described as a

> very useful way of catching confusing and unclear questions prior to the actual data-collection process. . . . It should help in determining the most effective wording of the questions . . . and in providing a sample of data that can be used to test analysis and interpretation parts of the proposed responses. . . . It is also a way of ensuring the reliability and validity of the data.[3]

The sample of Asians was used as a comparable group to the African sample in the study to evaluate the original set of questions regarding their appropriateness in wording and the analysis and interpretation of the responses. Oppenheim explains that

> when our total population is very small and highly specific so that we cannot afford to 'use up' any part of it for pilot samples, we must seek some alternative sample that should be, above all, comparable in their knowledge and ways of thinking.[4]

The interviews for the pilot study were all conducted between November 2 and 8, 1975. The location of all respondents in the married housing complex on Michigan State University facilitated access for the researcher.

Certain modifications resulting from the pretest were made in the instrument. Moreover, the experiences gained from the interviewing situation also proved invaluable in conducting the actual interview. The most significant changes in the instrument were in Sections II and III of the interview questionnaire. It was noticed that in the original questionnaire, the majority of the respondents found the specific set of likely responses given for each question to be either distracting

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[3]George R. Allen, The Graduate Student's Guide to Theses and Dissertations (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1973), pp. 53-54.

[4]A. N. Oppenheim, op. cit., p. 30.

or disconcerting for the selection of the appropriate response. For example, question 25 in Section III, which sought to find out the educational pursuits of non-participants, elicited either negative reactions or a refusal to provide any answer. The original question read: "If you are not taking classes towards a degree or certificate, what are you studying?" This was followed by a set of responses: Foreign languages, Dancing, Home and Family Life, Music, etc. This question was subsequently posed in an open-ended fashion: "What other areas have you studied?" This format evoked the needed responses without negative reactions from the women. In general, most of the questions in Sections II and III were modified to elicit open-ended responses.

It was also observed that wives were less open to provide frank and "uninhibited" responses to questions if their husbands were present. Therefore, in the latter part of the pilot study, effort was made to conduct interviews in the absence of the husbands. Maximum effort was made to secure similar environments for the main study. Children were also found to be a source of "distraction" and this was taken into consideration in planning visits to homes with children.

Interview Procedure and Situation

The main interviews were organized so that individuals in particular areas and neighborhoods could be interviewed within a certain period. Meetings were arranged by telephone to be held at each individual's home and at her convenience. When this was not possible, an alternative location on the university or college campus was used. If the individual could not be reached by telephone, a letter explaining

the nature and cause of the project was sent to her.[5] (See Appendix A_{11}.) When the interview took place at the home of the individuals, as was often the case, there were instances where children interfered with the interview. The problem was not as serious as the attempts of some husbands to monitor the interview. There were four such instances where the investigator had to allow husbands to be part of the interview; it seemed to make some of the wives who had language problems or who felt insufficiently adjusted to the American culture more comfortable. All the interviews were conducted in English except for two instances, where French was used. Respondents were assured of confidentiality of the information they provided. No names were used on the questionnaires, but location and date were indicated. Each questionnaire was numerically coded.

On the whole, the responses were very frank and the women indicated personal interest in the study. Many saw the opportunity as a chance to voice their frustrations and joys about their sojourn in the United States. Guarded responses were encountered only in two areas. On the question, "What is your (your husband's) source of financial support?" those families who were self-supporting one way or the other became very reluctant to say much beyond "self-supporting" or "on our own." On the question of age, older women (generally the few past thirty-five years) preferred to check the age range themselves on the interview questionnaire rather than to specify it to the interviewer.

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[5]This was done particularly in the case of the women at Andrews University, Berrien Springs, and some of those in Detroit.

Each interview lasted between 30-45 minutes. However, the investigator's time spent was sometimes longer than this because of the general hospitality, cordiality and the other discussions falling outside the immediate study area. All interviews were conducted between December 10, 1975 and March 12, 1976.

Analysis of the Data

Responses to interview questionnaires were hand-coded, keypunched and transferred to computer cards. Each observation had two coding sheets and two computer cards. All computation was done at the Computer Center, Michigan State University, under the supervision of the Office of Research Consultation, College of Education, Michigan State University. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program was used for interpretation of the data and for the running of tests. Output from the computer programs included frequency counts, percentages and tests for significance of relationships.

The data were subject to a statistical procedure: the chi square test.

The Chi Square

The chi square test was employed in testing relationships between selected socio-economic and demographic variables (age, religion, educational and occupational backgrounds of parents, husband and respondent, number of children per woman, length of stay in the United States and financial status) and participation and non-participation.

As a test of association, the chi square was designed to bring out those relationships of statistical significance in the study.

However, it must be borne in mind that "the establishment of a statistical association by means of the chi square test does not necessarily imply any causal relationship between the attributes being compared, but it does indicate that the reason for the association is worth investigating."[6]

Because of the small size of the sample in this study, it became necessary on certain occasions to regroup data or combine categories to enable a X^2 test to be done. This procedure can detract from the interest and usefulness of a study but, as it is widely believed that all expected frequencies should be greater than five for a chi square test to be reliable,[7] it became necessary to adopt the procedure for the study.

All X^2 tests were done by the SPSS program, as reported in Chapter IV (Section II).

Summary

In general, this chapter has reported the procedures adopted for the investigation, the population and sample, instrumentation, research design and the statistical methods of analysis and interpretation of the data.

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[6]A. E. Maxwell, Analyzing Qualitative Data (London: Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1967), p. 19.

[7]Ibid., p. 38.

Participation in continuing education has been classified into a typology of learning activities which may be academic, vocational, religious, recreational or social. A systematic presentation of questions pertinent to the research has also been included. The chi square has been used to test the statistical significance of relationships.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed examination of the empirical data obtained from interviews conducted for the study. It presents the principal characteristics of the respondents and highlights certain processes and relationships in the participation patterns of the dependent African female in continuing education programs.

The more general descriptive results are presented first, followed by findings emerging from the analysis of relationships among the factors of the investigation. The data are analyzed on the basis of two groups of subjects--participants and non-participants--in continuing education activities. This is done to determine variables that characterize the two different groups and how they relate to participation and non-participation in continuing education. The more qualitative data generated from the open-ended questions accompanied by a set of recommendations are presented separately.

More specifically, the chapter is divided into three sections. Section I has two parts. The first describes the general findings relating to the variables examined in the study; the second reports on participation/non-participation of respondents in continuing education. Section II is concerned with the

results of the analysis of relationships among the factors studied. Responses to the open-ended questions are outlined in Section III.

Of the ninety interviewees, seventy-six were participants in some form of continuing education activities while the remaining fourteen were non-participants. The number of participants in proportion to non-participants created problems in the statistical analysis of the data collected.

Section I
Characteristics of Respondents

Part I--General Findings

In this section, the more traditional demographic indices--country of origin, place of residence in the home country, religion, age, family size, and length of stay--are presented, followed by reports on the occupational and educational backgrounds of parents, husbands and respondents. The financial status of respondents and their husbands is reported. Information is reported on motivational influences on educational pursuits, reasons for breaks in respondents' education in Africa, informational sources on educational opportunities and expectations of reward following academic achievements in the United States.

Country of Origin

Twelve African countries were represented in the sample; a general profile of the countries of origin is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Country of origin of respondents.

Country of Origin	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Cameroon**	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3
Ethiopia	6	7.9	1	7.1	7	7.8
Ghana*	9	11.8	1	7.1	10	11.1
Kenya	4	5.3	0	0	0	4.4
Liberia*	2	2.6	1	7.1	3	3.3
Nigeria*	39	51.3	7	50.0	46	51.1
Rhodesia	2	2.6	1	7.1	3	3.3
Sierra Leone*	4	5.3	2	14.3	6	6.7
Sudan	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3
Tanzania	1	1.3	0	0	3	3.3
Uganda	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2
Zaire**	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2

*West African country
**French-speaking country

The highest number of individuals came from Nigeria, 51.0 percent of the total sample. Representation of the remaining eleven countries ranged from 1.0 percent to 11.0 percent. A major portion of the group was from English-speaking countries and of West African origins. All of the respondents from Cameroon, Kenya, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda were participants in continuing education activities; however, the number of respondents from these five countries was small, ranging from one to four. The level of non-participation was relatively higher among individuals from Liberia, Rhodesia and Sierra Leone. Of the remaining two countries, Ghana and Nigeria, the level of participation was higher in the former (about 90 percent) than in the latter (82 percent).

Place of Residence in the Home Country

If the two broad categories "urban" and "rural" are considered as cities and towns, respectively, the majority of the sample belonged to the first category. This was the case with both participants and non-participants.

Eight-two percent of the total sample resided in urban areas. Of all participants, approximately 80 percent were urban dwellers; the corresponding figure for all non-participants was 92.9 percent. For the rural areas, the figures were 20 percent and 10 percent, respectively (see Table 2).

The responses providing the figures must be interpreted cautiously as the designation of residence between urban and rural,

town and city was not clear-cut. Each unit was characterized by considerable variation in the different countries under study. For example, in Nigeria, given the size of its population, what is designated as a village based on its numerical dimensions may be a town in a smaller country like Sierra Leone.

Residence in the urban area is closely associated with levels of education and occupation of respondents. However, in most instances, ties are maintained with the home village through frequent visits and various interactions.

Religion

The individuals in the total sample were predominantly Christian. They constituted 93.3 percent of the total group. Five point six percent were Moslem, while 1.1 percent professed no religion.

All non-participants were Christians and it must be pointed out that besides Christianity and Islam, no other religion was mentioned. Table 3 gives the distribution of the sample with regard to the two religions.

Age

Approximately 51 percent of all individuals in the sample were under 26 years of age and nearly 94 percent between the ages of 21 and 35 years. The age distribution of both participants and non-participants follows the same pattern, as indicated by Figure 1. There were small percentage differences between the two groups;

Table 2. Place of residence in the home country of respondents.

Place of Residence	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
National Capital	17	22.4	3	21.4	20	22.2
Provincial Capital	7	9.2	1	7.1	8	8.9
Regional City	7	9.2	3	21.4	10	11.1
Town	30	39.5	6	42.9	36	40.0
Village	15	19.7	1	7.1	16	17.8

Table 3. Religion of respondents.

Religion	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Christian	70	92.1	14	100	84	93.3
Moslem	5	6.6	0	0	5	5.6
None	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1

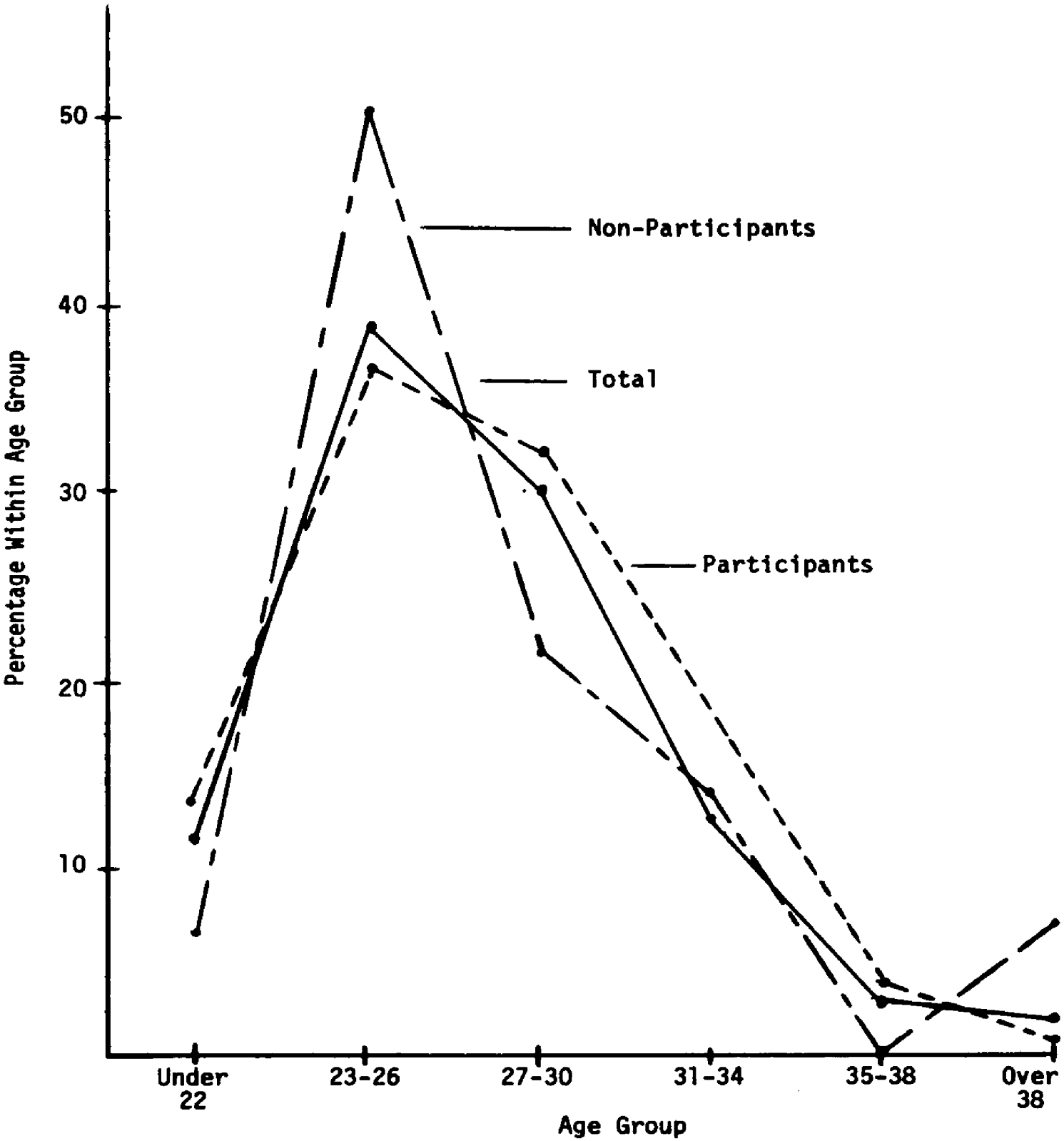


Figure 1. Age Distribution of Sample

however, a higher percentage of non-participants were below 26 years of age. The age distribution is given in Table 4.

It appears, therefore, that the majority of respondents were in the 22-26 age range. The population is quite young. Non-participants, in particular, clustered in the 22-26 year age range and showed a 13 percent significant difference over participants. Based on these figures, it would appear that the majority of wives accompanying husbands to the United States for studies are 30 years old or less.

Children in the United States

Number of Children Per Respondent. The majority of the respondents had one or more children. Of the total, approximately 75 percent had at least one child. The number of children per person as indicated in Table 5 below was distributed as follows: no children, 26 percent; one child, 41 percent; two children, 21 percent; three, 8 percent; and four or more, 4.5 percent. Of all non-participants, 86 percent had at least one child in the United States in contrast to 73 percent for participants.

In Figure 2, the trend indicates a relatively higher percentage of participants without children. The percentage of participants/non-participants with one and two children was not significantly different. With three and four children, the percentage of non-participants was higher, in fact, twice as high.

Table 4. Age of respondents.

Age Range	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Under 22 years	10	13.2	1	7.1	11	12.2
22-26 years	28	36.8	7	50.0	35	38.9
27-30 years	24	31.6	3	21.4	27	30.0
31-34 years	10	13.2	2	14.3	12	13.3
35-38 years	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3
Over 38 years	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2

Table 5. Number of children per respondent in the United States.

Number of Children	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
None	21	27.6	2	14.3	23	25.6
1	31	40.8	6	42.9	37	41.1
2	16	21.1	3	21.4	19	21.1
3	5	6.6	2	14.3	7	7.8
4	2	2.6	1	7.1	3	3.3
5	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1

Only one respondent, a participant, had five children.

To a certain extent, therefore, the number of children a woman has appears to interfere with the chance of her going to school. The fewer children, the more likelihood there is for participation. As shown in Table 5, the percentage of non-participants with no children was about half the percentage of participants, whereas the reverse is true for respondents with three or four children.

Ages of Children. Table 6 outlines the distribution of children by age and the numbers within each age group per dependent African female. A representation of this distribution is given by Figure 3, which compares the relative number of children per woman within the age groups under three years, from four to six years, and from seven to twelve years. Within each age grouping, the number of children ranged between zero and two. This means zero represents all women without children in the three year old bracket followed by all women with one or two children under three years of age. This pattern is repeated for the remaining two age brackets: four to six years and seven to twelve years.

From Figure 3, it is evident that many more non-participants had one child under three years of age or children between four to six years of age. The younger the ages of the children, the more difficulty existed for mothers to participate in continuing education classes. For mothers having children between the ages of

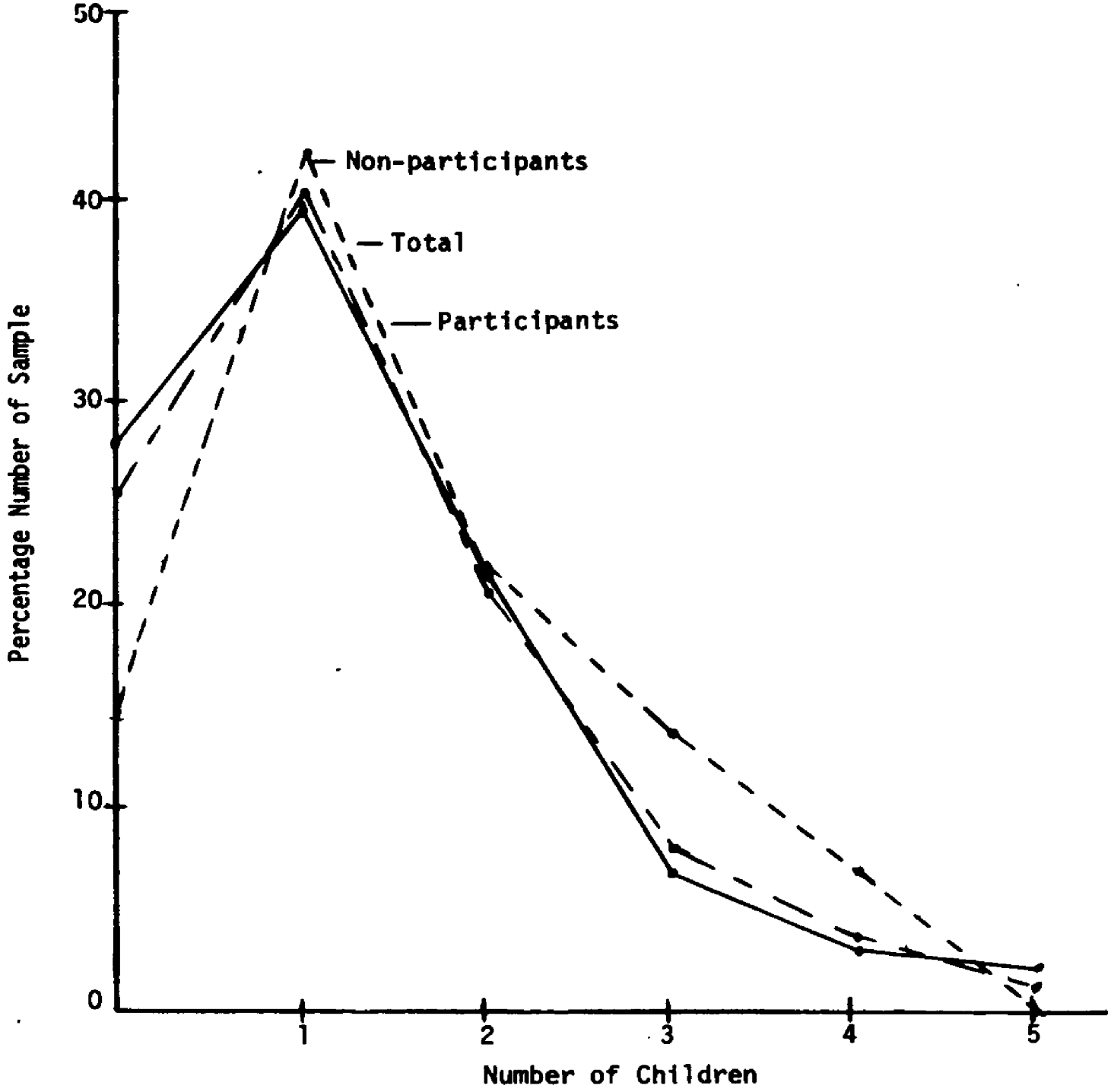


Figure 2. Number of Children Per Respondent in the United States.

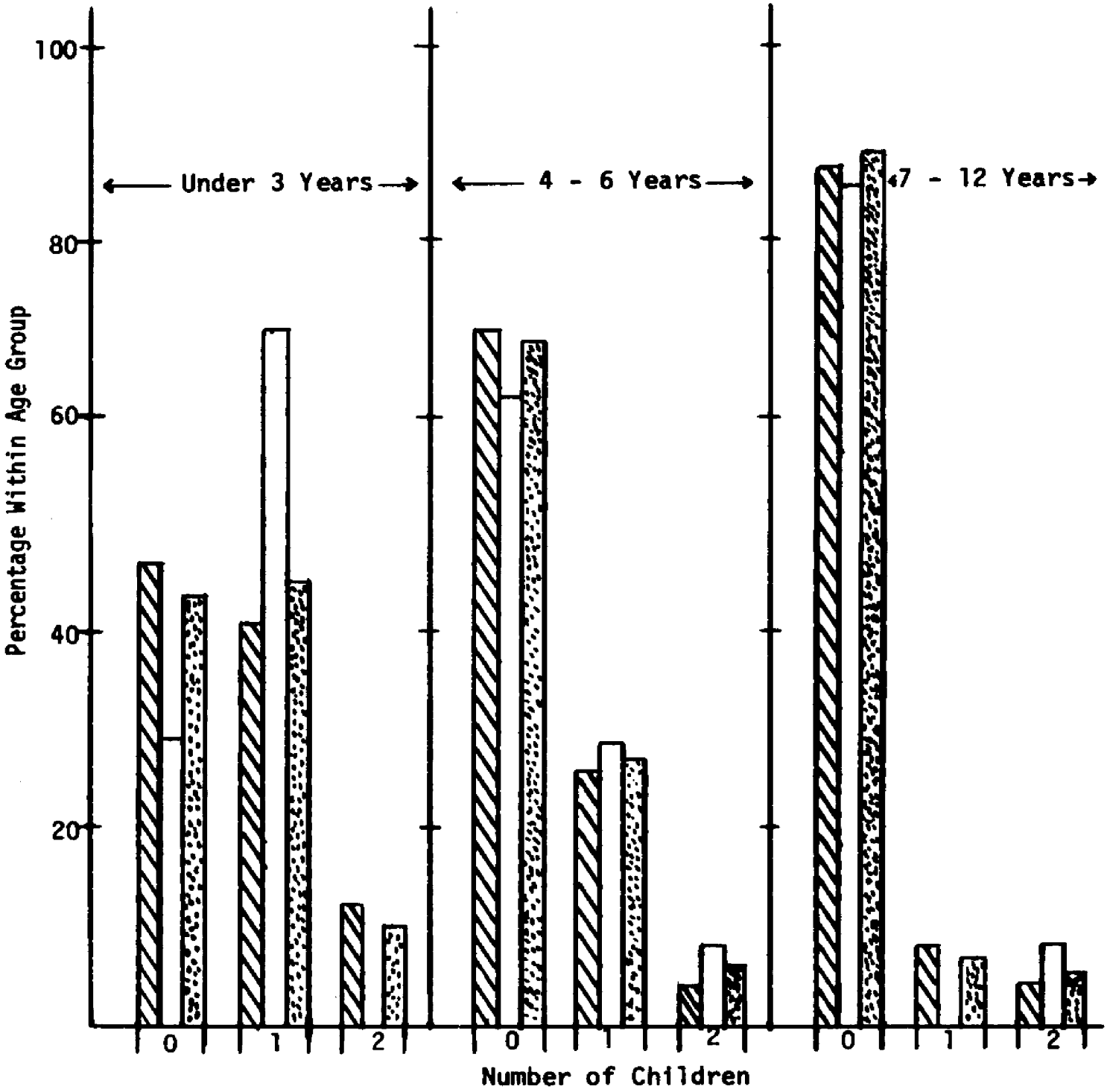


Figure 3. Distribution of Respondents' Children Within Age Groups.

seven and twelve years, Figure 3 indicates that the trend is reversed. However, it is important to note that non-participants who had two children in the seven to twelve age group were in the majority.

Length of Time Respondents Had Spent in the United States

The length of time respondents had spent in the United States ranged from two weeks to eight years. Table 7 indicates the percentage distribution of participants and non-participants. The data is graphed in Figure 4 and indicates that:

1. The major portion of non-participants, 43 percent, had been in the United States for less than half a year; the corresponding percentage for participants was 13 percent.

2. In terms of percentage, there were many more participants who had been in the United States for more than one year.

3. No non-participants had been in the United States for more than three years.

4. For all participants, 32 percent had been in the country for at least three years; 20 percent for at least four years; 11 percent for more than five years and 6 percent between six and eight years.

There is a definite bias in favor of participation for women who have been in the United States for a year or under. Most respondents fell into the three year and under category; but these fell mainly in the one year and two year ranges. The longer her stay, the more likely the student wife is to be a participant

Table 6. Children of respondents grouped by age.

Number of Children	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
			Children under 3 Years			
None	36	47.4	4	28.6	40	44.4
1	31	40.8	10	71.4	41	45.6
2	9	11.8	0	0	9	10.0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0
			Children between 4-6 Years			
None	54	71.1	9	64.3	63	70.0
1	20	26.3	4	28.6	24	26.7
2	2	2.6	1	7.1	3	3.3
3	0	0	0	0	0	0
			Children between 7-12 Years			
None	66	86.8	12	85.7	78	86.7
1	6	7.9	0	0	6	6.7
2	3	3.9	1	7.1	4	4.4
3	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2

Table 7. Number of years respondents have been in the United States.

		PARTICIPANTS			NON-PARTICIPANTS		
			Percentage			Percentage	
Weeks	Years	Number	(N=76)	Total (N=90)	Number	(N=14)	Total (N=90)
2	1/2	2	2.6	2.2	0	0	0
12		2	2.6	2.2	1	7.1	1.1
16		4	5.3	4.4	3	21.4	3.3
20		1	1.3	1.1	1	7.1	1.1
24		1	1.3	1.1	1	7.1	1.1
28	1	0	0	0	1	7.1	1.1
36		2	2.6	2.2	0	0	0
44		2	2.6	2.2	1	7.1	1.1
> 52		6	7.9	6.7	1	7.1	1.1
56	1-1/2	1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
64		2	2.6	2.2	1	7.1	1.1
68		1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
72		1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
78	2	2	2.6	2.2	1	7.1	1.1
96		1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
>104		10	13.2	11.1	1	7.1	1.1
130	3	2	2.6	2.2	1	7.1	1.1
144		1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
>156		11	14.5	12.2	1	7.1	1.1
164	4	1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
172		1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0
>208		7	9.2	7.8	0	0	0
260	5	7	9.2	7.8	0	0	0
312	6	5	6.6	5.6	0	0	0
364	7	2	2.6	2.2	0	0	0
416	8	1	1.3	1.1	0	0	0

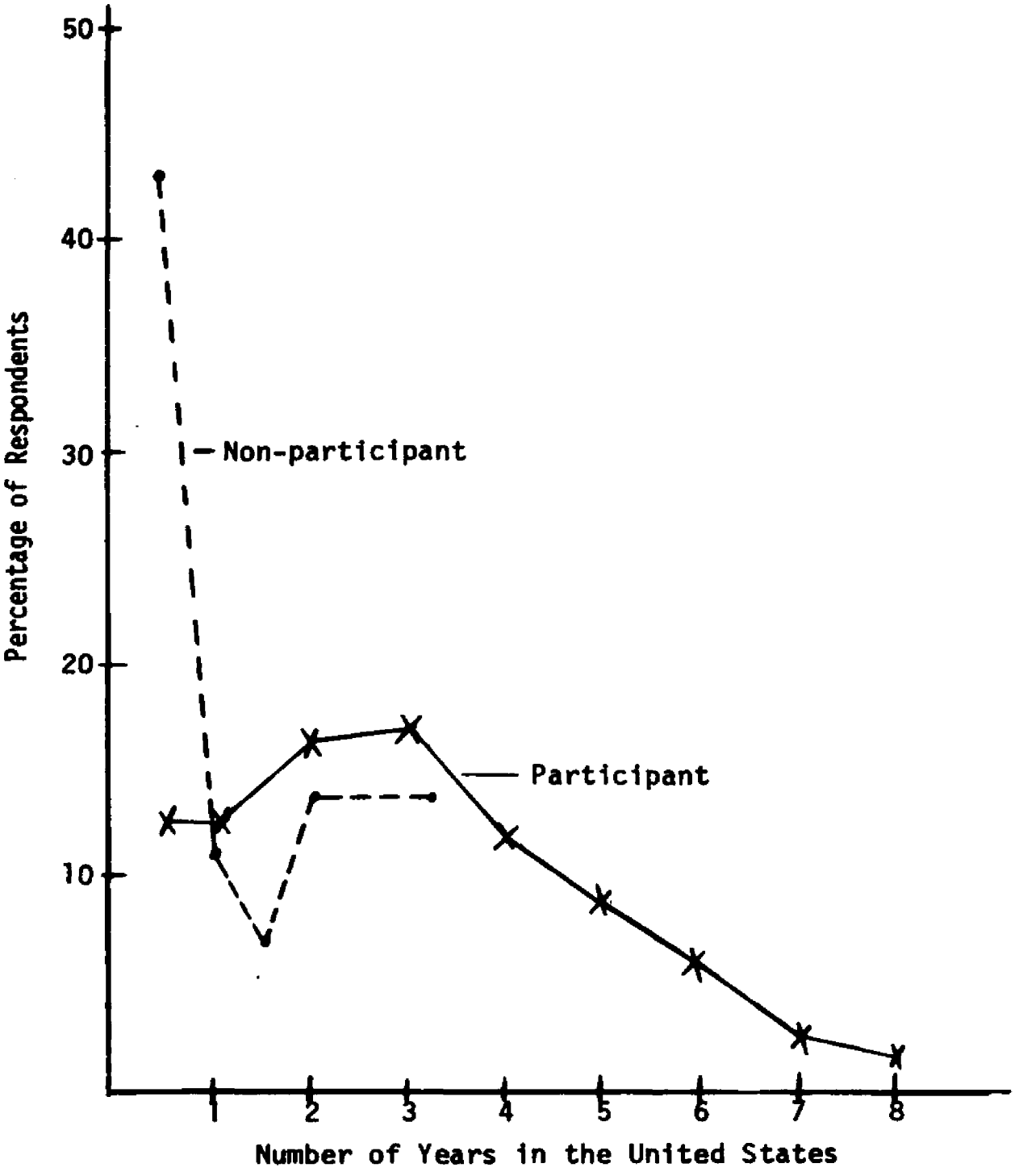


Figure 4. Number of Years Respondents Have Been in the United States.

than a non-participant. Participation seems to be a function of time.

Occupations of Respondents and of Their Parents and Husbands

The listing of occupations indicated in Table 8 identifies distinct occupations except for two unit groups: "professional," which includes librarian, lawyer, medical doctor, engineer; and "skilled laborer," which includes the driver and the artisan.

The more than twenty occupations listed were compiled from the responses of the interviewees. In Table 8, occupations are listed for respondents, their parents and their husbands under the categories of participant/non-participant. To present clearly the occupational areas from which some groups have been excluded, sections with zero entry have been delineated as blocks. A ranking system is also provided on the basis of frequency of the various occupations.

From Table 8, one observes that females (respondents and their mothers) were excluded from the following occupations: priest, researcher, army/law enforcement employe and skilled laborer. In addition, none of the respondents engaged in farming or in private business and the respondents' mothers did not participate in secretarial or clerical jobs or as professionals and University teachers.

Respondents' fathers and husbands were absent in two areas--as housewives, or as caterers, seamstresses and housekeepers. Both fathers and mothers of respondents were non-participants in

Table 8. Occupations of respondents and of their mothers, fathers and husbands

		Secretary/ Clerk	Cashier/Book-keeper/Bank Teller	Midwife/Nurse	Petty Trader	Housewife	Professional	Student/Sec. Sch. Teacher	Student University	Civil Servant	Farmer/Hunter Fisherman	Teacher Elem. School	Lecturer/ University
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
RESPONDENT	Participant	10	3	12	0	2	4	21	6	2	0	13	2
		13.2	3.9	15.8	0	2.6	5.3	27.6	7.9	2.6	0	17.1	2
	Non-Participant	3	3	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
		21.4	21.4	7.1	7.1	14.3	0	7.1	0	0	0	21.4	0
	Total	13	6	13	1	4	4	22	6	2	0	16	2
		14.4	6.7	14.4	1.1	4.4	4.4	24.4	6.7	2.2	0	17.8	2
MOTHER	Participant	0	1	2	24	27	0	0	0	1	4	6	0
		0	1.3	2.6	31.6	35.5	0	0	0	1.3	5.3	7.9	0
	Non-Participant	0	0	0	2	5	0	0	0	0	1	2	0
		0	0	0	14.3	35.7	0	0	0	0	7.1	14.3	0
	Total	0	1	2	26	32	0	0	0	1	5	8	0
		0	1.1	2.2	28.9	35.6	0	0	0	1.1	5.6	8.9	0
FATHER	Participant	1	1	1	2	0	6	0	0	12	14	4	1
		1.3	1.3	1.3	2.6	0	7.9	0	0	15.8	18.4	5.3	1
	Non-Participant	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	4	1	0
		0	0	0	14.3	0	0	0	0	14.3	28.6	7.1	0
	Total	1	1	1	4	0	6	0	0	14	18	5	1
		1.1	1.1	1.1	4.4	0	6.7	0	0	15.6	20.0	5.6	1
HUSBAND	Participant	2	1	0	0	0	7	4	8	16	0	14	16
		2.6	1.3	0	0	0	9.2	5.3	10.5	21.1	0	18.4	21
	Non-Participant	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	3	4
		0	7.1	0	0	0	7.1	0	7.1	14.3	0	21.4	28
	Total	2	2	0	0	0	8	4	9	18	0	17	20
		2.2	2.2	0	0	0	8.9	4.4	10.0	20.0	0	18.9	22

Note: Blocks show areas with zero entry where groups are excluded.

Priest	Researcher	Army/Law Enforcement Officer	Skilled Laborer	Private Business Firm	Caterer/ Seamstress/ Housekeeper	Ranking of Occupations (Numbers Correspond to Occupation) 1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th
13	14	15	16	17	18									
0	0	0	0	0	1	7	11	3	1	8	6	2	5,9	18
0	0	0	0	0	1.3									
0	0	0	0	0	0	1,2	5	3,4						
0	0	0	0	0	0	11		7						
0	0	0	0	0	1	7	11	1,3	2	8	5	6	12,9	4,18
0	0	0	0	0	1.3									
0	0	0	0	3	8	5	4	18	11	10	17	3	2,9	
0	0	0	0	3.9	10.5									
0	0	0	0	2	2	5	4,11	10						
0	0	0	0	14.3	14.3		17,18							
0	0	0	0	5	10	5	4	18	11	10,17	3	2,9		
0	0	0	0	5.6	11.1									
3	0	8	7	16	0	17	10	9	15	16	6	11	13	4
3.9	0	10.5	9.2	21.1	0									
1	0	0	3	1	0	10	16	4	9	11,13				
7.1	0	0	21.4	7.1	0					17				
4	0	8	10	17	0	10	17	9	16	15	6	11	4	13
4.4	0	8.9	11.1	18.9	0									
3	4	0	0	1	0	12	9	11	8	6	7,	13	1	2,17
3.9	5.3	0	0	1.3	0						14			
0	2	0	0	0	0	12	11	9	14,	2,6				
0	14.3	0	0	0	0				8					
3	6	0	0	1	0	2	9	11	8	6	14	13	7	1,2
3.3	6.7	0	0	1.1	0									

continuing education programs; similarly, respondents and their husbands were non-participants in farming, fishing or hunting. All groups participated to a certain degree in all other occupations according to the ranking system.

Respondents. Table 8 shows that the respondents as a group had been largely students--high school and teacher training college graduates. As participants/non-participants, a greater number of the latter were secretaries or clerks. In the case of participants, this category ranked fourth. The participant was the professional, the civil servant, the university graduate, the university teacher and, more frequently, the midwife or nurse and the high school and teacher training college graduate. The non-participant was more likely to be, if not a secretary or clerk, the bookkeeper or bank teller, the petty trader or the housewife. The elementary or secondary school teacher fell in both the participating and non-participating categories.

Respondents' Mothers. The majority of the respondents' mothers, as indicated in Table 8, were mainly housewives, with petty traders ranking second. This was the case with both participants and non-participants. The other significant areas of their involvement were catering, sewing, housekeeping and farming and elementary and high school teaching.

Respondents' Fathers. As seen in Table 8, fathers of most respondents were farmers. Fathers of participants were in

private business, whereas fathers of most non-participants were farmers. Other paternal occupations of significance were civil service, skilled labor and army/law enforcement. Only in the participant group was there a percentage of fathers in the professional category.

Respondents' Husbands. For both participants and non-participants, the husbands were chiefly university teachers or lecturers, as seen in Table 8. Less frequently they were civil servants or elementary and secondary school teachers. Ten percent of all husbands were university students, 8.9 percent professionals and 6.7 percent researchers. Occupations such as secretary and trader did not involve many husbands.

Educational Backgrounds of Respondents and Their Parents

In the first part of this section, a description of the educational levels of respondents and their parents is presented in Table 9. The second section is devoted to the respondents' backgrounds and proficiency in English and formal education (see Table 10).

Part 1. Educational Levels of Respondents and Their Parents

Table 9 summarizes the educational levels of the three categories (respondents, their mothers and fathers) as a group and on the basis of participation/non-participation. A ranking system

Table 9. Educational backgrounds of respondents, and their mothers and fathers.

		No Education	Adult Education	Local/Religious Education	Began Primary School	Finished Primary School	Began Secondary School	Finished Secondary School	2 Years Teacher Training	2-4 Years Teacher Training	1-2 Years Nursing	3+ Years Nursing	1-2 Yrs. Tech. Training	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Professional Degree	Ranking of Educational Level (Numbers Correspond to Educational Level)									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
RESPONDENT	Participants	0	0	0	0	1	0	32	10	4	2	7	8	9	1	2	7	8	13	12	11	9	10, 15	14		
		0	0	0	0	1.3	0	42.1	13.2	5.3	2.6	9.2	10.5	11.8	1.3	2.6										
	Non-Participants	0	0	0	0	1	1	10	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	7	5,6 11,12								
		0	0	0	0	7.1	7.1	71.4	0	0	0	7.1	7.1	0	0	0										
	Total	0	0	0	0	2	1	42	10	4	2	8	9	9	1	2	7	8	12, 13	11	9	5, 15	6, 14			
		0	0	0	0	2.2	1.1	46.7	11.1	4.4	2.2	8.9	10.0	10.0	1.1	2.2										
MOTHER	Participants	30	1	0	4	23	7	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	7	6	4	2				
		39.5	1.3	0	5.3	30.3	9.2	14.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
	Non-Participants	5	0	0	3	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	4	7						
		35.7	0	0	21.4	28.6	0	14.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
	Total	35	1	0	7	27	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	7	4,6	2					
		38.9	1.1	0	7.8	30.0	7.8	14.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
FATHER	Participants	12	0	4	5	31	3	14	0	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	5	7	1	4	3	6				
		15.8	0	5.3	6.5	40.8	3.9	18.4	0	0	0	0	0	7.9	1.3											
	Non-Participants	4	0	0	1	5	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1,7	4							
		26.0	0	0	7.1	35.7	0	28.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
	Total	16	0	4	6	36	3	18	0	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	5	7	1	4	3	6				
		17.8	0	4.4	6.7	40.0	3.3	20.0	0	0	0	0	0	6.7	1.1	0										

Note: Areas with zero entry are delineated as blocks to show where groups are excluded.

of the educational levels is provided in the Table. The zero entry areas have been blocked to show the levels and areas of education from which each of the three groups was excluded.

Respondents. All respondents completed elementary school and a total of about 47 percent completed secondary school. Within the group of participants, 42 percent completed secondary school; the corresponding figure for non-participants was about 70 percent. Teacher-training college graduates accounted for 15.5 percent, nursing school graduates 11.1 percent, and technical training institute graduates, 10 percent. Only a limited number of the respondents had a college education or beyond, prior to coming to the United States, and the figure, 13.3 percent, was for participants exclusively.

Respondents' Mothers. Of the mothers of all respondents, 40 percent had no formal schooling, 30 percent finished primary school and 14.4 percent went as far as secondary school. In the context of participant/non-participant groups, the figures were as follows: 40 percent and 36 percent had no formal schooling; 30.3 percent and 28.6 percent finished primary school; 14.5 percent and 14.3 percent went as far as secondary school. Respondents' mothers were completely excluded from teacher training, nursing or university education backgrounds.

Respondents' Fathers. Except in the case of seven respondents, educational levels of their fathers did not exceed

secondary school. The seven fathers with college and post-college degrees were all fathers of participants in continuing education. Roughly 18 percent of all fathers had no education; the figures for participants/non-participants were 16 percent and 26 percent, respectively. Forty percent of all fathers had finished primary school, while 20 percent had completed secondary school. There were many more fathers of non-participants with secondary school education--28.6 percent of the group as against 18.4 percent for participants.

General. The respondents and their mothers were not involved in local or religious education, while the fathers were not participants in adult education classes. The fathers like the mothers had no backgrounds as teachers, nurses, technicians or professionals.

The ranking system of the type and level of education summarizes the educational levels of the three groups:

1. The majority of all respondents had at least a secondary school education. Among participants, two year teacher training was found to be second in frequency of response while primary school, nursing and technical education were of equal importance with regard to non-participants.

2. Most mothers were illiterate and among those with any education, the elementary school graduates dominated.

3. Fathers had relatively higher education than mothers. Elementary education ranked first, followed by secondary school education. The illiteracy rate was third in order, with the rate

for men (17.4 percent) being half that for women (38.9 percent).

Part 2. Respondents' Background in English

Three aspects of the respondents' background in English were studied:

1. The number of years English was studied, Table 10.
2. The language of instruction at primary, secondary and college levels, Table 11.
3. Self-evaluation of proficiency in English, Table 12.

Number of Years Respondent Studied English. About 84 percent of all respondents had studied English for at least twelve years. Only 2.2 percent of the participants had no English at all. Table 10 provides a profile of the respondents with respect to the number of years of study of English prior to coming to the United States. The picture is graphed in Figure 5 and the following conclusions are drawn:

1. A greater percentage of non-participants were found in the 1-15 year range of instruction in English and their numbers were proportionately above the average of the entire sample.

2. More participants (about 74 percent) had beyond fifteen years instruction in English than non-participants (50 percent).

3. Women with no English language background were participants who came from the French-speaking areas of Africa. There were only two such individuals in the sample.

Table 10. Respondents' background in English--years of study of English.

Years of Study of English	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
None	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2
1-3	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2
4-7	4	5.3	1	7.1	5	5.6
8-11	4	5.3	1	7.1	5	5.6
12-15	9	11.8	4	28.6	13	14.4
Over 15	56	73.7	7	50.0	63	70.0

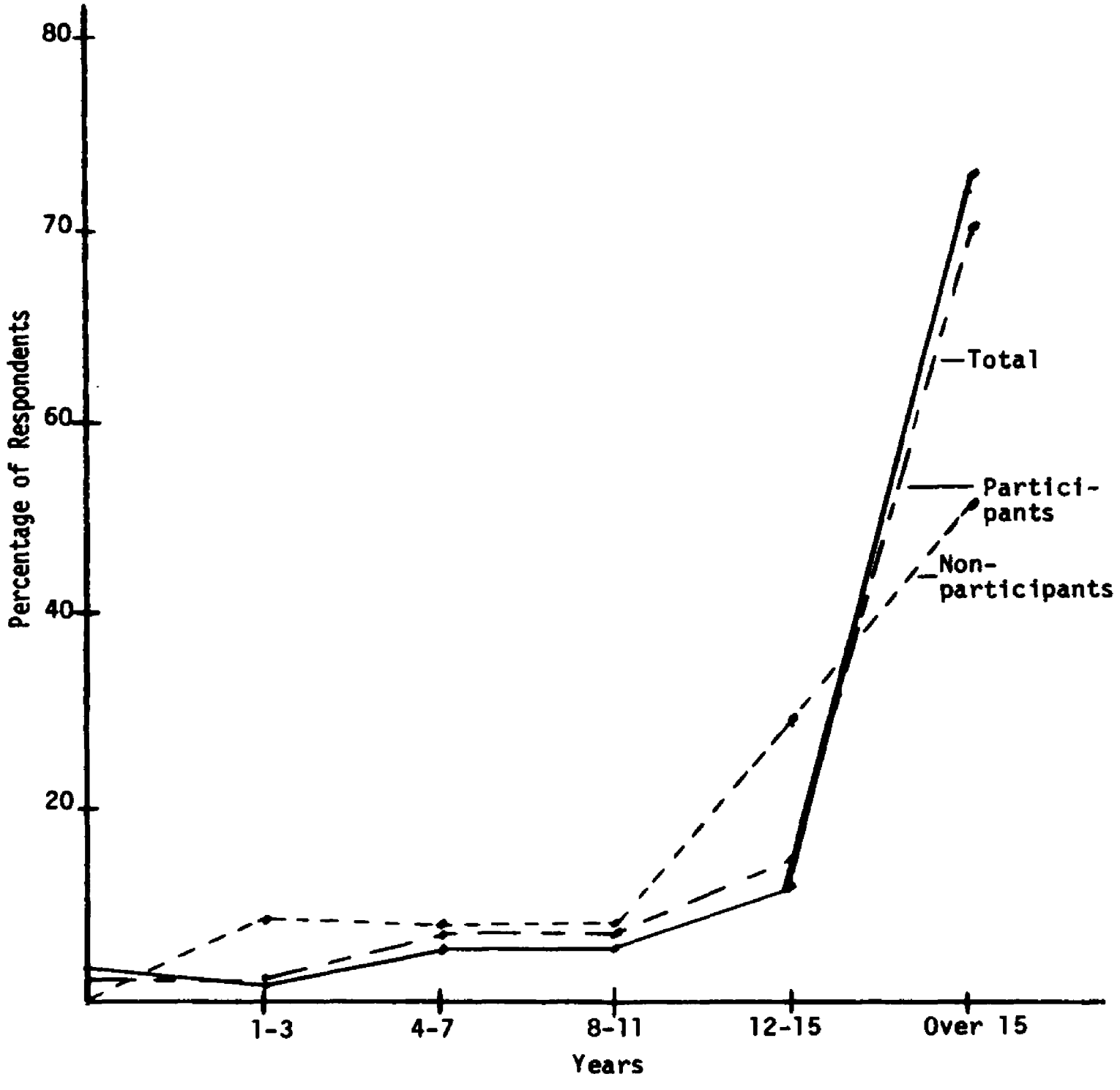


Figure 5. English Language Background of Respondents (Number of Years Respondents Studied English).

It appears that the more English studied, especially beyond the 15 year level, the more inclined the respondent was to participate in continuing education activities.

Languages of Instruction. The languages of instruction at primary, secondary and college levels in the home country were also studied for all respondents. The results are presented in Table 11 and indicate the following:

1. At all levels, and for both participants and non-participants, English was the major language of instruction. It was used more extensively at the secondary school level.

2. Second in order of frequency of usage was the combination of English and vernacular for instructional purposes. The combination was, however, limited to the primary school level, and for the respondents who experienced this pattern of instruction, 46 percent were participants and 43 percent were non-participants.

3. Four languages (vernacular languages grouped as one language) were used for the purpose of instruction. They included in order of the frequency of usage: English, French, vernacular and Arabic.

A general conclusion emerging from the comparisons in Table 11 is that the student of English at the college level, and to a lesser extent at the primary school level, participated more often in continuing education classes. On the contrary, the women who learned the vernacular at the primary level (however few they

Table 11. Respondents' languages of instruction at primary school, secondary school and college.

Language	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
English						
Primary	32	42.1	5	35.7	37	41.1
Secondary	65	85.5	12	85.7	77	85.6
College	15	19.7	0	0	15	16.7
French						
Primary	3	3.9	1	7.1	4	4.4
Secondary	4	5.3	1	7.1	5	5.6
College	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vernacular						
Primary	2	2.6	2	14.3	4	4.4
Secondary	0	0	0	0	0	0
College	0	0	0	0	0	0
English and French						
Primary	0	0	0	0	0	0
Secondary	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
College	0	0	0	0	0	0
English and Vernacular						
Primary	35	46.1	6	42.9	41	45.6
Secondary	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2
College	0	0	0	0	0	0
French and Vernacular						
Primary	1	1.1	0	0	1	1.1
Secondary	0	0	0	0	0	0
College	0	0	0	0	0	0
Arabic						
Primary	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3
Secondary	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3
College	0	0	0	0	0	0

were) generally turned out to be non-participants.

Respondents' Evaluation of Their Proficiency in English. Table 12 represents respondents' evaluation of their proficiency in reading, writing and conversation in English. The table suggests that:

1. The greater part of the respondents ranked themselves as very good or good in reading, writing and conversation in English. In all three areas, however, more participants than non-participants fell into the "very good" category. The figures for the three sub-sections were 51.3 percent, 43.4 percent, 50 percent, and 28.6 percent, 35.7 percent and 35.7 percent for participants and non-participants, respectively.

2. More non-participants assessed their competence and performance in English as either fair or poor. The percentage of non-participants assessing themselves as "fair" was 42.0 percent in contrast to 19 percent for participants; and as "poor," about 21.4 percent as against 8 percent for participants.

Thus on the whole, participants were principally the women who rated their proficiency in reading, writing and conversation as "very good." In reading, for example, almost twice the number of participants fell into the "very good" category.

Academic Pursuits of Respondents' Husbands

From Table 13, the majority of respondents' husbands were pursuing graduate studies. More specifically, 57.8 percent

Table 12. Respondents' evaluation of their proficiency in English.

Proficiency	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Very Good						
Reading	39	51.3	4	28.6	43	47.8
Writing	33	43.4	5	35.7	38	42.2
Conversation	38	50.0	5	35.7	43	47.8
Good						
Reading	31	40.8	7	50.0	38	42.2
Writing	37	48.7	6	42.9	43	47.8
Conversation	31	40.8	6	42.9	37	41.1
Fair						
Reading	5	6.6	2	14.3	7	7.8
Writing	5	6.6	2	14.3	7	7.8
Conversation	6	7.9	2	14.3	8	8.9
Poor						
Reading	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2
Writing	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2
Conversation	1	1.3	1	7.1	2	2.2

were in doctoral programs, 32.2 percent were in pursuit of the Master's degree and 4.4 percent were enrolled for the Bachelor's and post-doctoral degrees. More wives of husbands in Bachelor's were non-participants in continuing education, unlike wives of husbands in doctoral programs. The level of education of the husband showed some influence on the wife's attitude toward participation in education. The more educated the husband, the more education the wife was striving to acquire.

It was also found that over 60 percent of respondents' husbands were pursuing their studies in the sciences, while the rest studied the social sciences and humanities. The principal areas of study included:

Natural and Life Sciences	Percentage of Total
Mathematics, statistics, economics	22.1
Agricultural economics, agricultural engineering	15.6
Human medicine, public health, pharmacology	11.7
Engineering, computer science	9.1
Resource development, forestry	5.2
Sub-total	63.7
Social Science	
Business Administration	13.0
Sociology, psychology	5.1
Architecture, Urban planning	3.9
Criminal law	1.3
Sub-total	23.3

Table 13. Academic pursuits of respondents' husbands.

Degree	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Bachelor's	2	2.6	2	14.3	4	4.4
Master's	24	31.6	5	35.7	29	32.2
Doctoral	46	60.5	6	42.9	52	57.8
Medical	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Post-doctoral	3	3.9	1	7.1	4	4.4

Humanities	Percentage of Total
Communication arts	7.8
History	3.9
English	1.3
Sub-total	13.0
Total	100.0

Sources of Financial Support of Respondents and Their Husbands

Areas with zero entry have been blocked to show the types of sources of financial support from which respondents have been excluded. In Table 14, the general picture presented is that current earnings and scholarships constituted the bulk of the sources of financial support for both respondents and their husbands.

Respondents. For all respondents, the financial resources of the husbands formed the major source of income. This was true for both participants (61.8 percent) and non-participants (78.6 percent). A relatively greater portion of non-participants received money from home, 21.4 percent as against 5.3 percent for participants. Non-participants had no current earnings, savings, or grants. Participants, however, had grants (scholarships and fellowships), 9.2 percent; personal savings, 2.6 percent; and 10.5 percent had current income.

Table 14. Sources of financial support of respondents and their husbands.

		Money from Home	Govt (U.S. or Home Govt) Scholarship	Fellowship/University Assistantship	Own Savings	Own Current Earnings	Foundation Grant	Husband/Wife and Own Earnings	Husband/Wife Support	Other	Ranking of Sources of Financial Support (Numbers Correspond to the Sources)
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th 9th
RESPONDENT	Participants	4	5	2	2	8	0	8	47	0	
		5.3	6.6	2.6	2.6	10.5	0	10.5	61.8	0	8 5,7 2 1 3,4
	Non-Participants	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	
		21.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	78.6	0	8 1
	Total	7	5	2	2	8	0	8	58	0	
		7.8	5.6	2.2	2.2	8.9	0	8.9	64.4	0	8 5,7 1 2 3,4
HUSBAND	Participants	1	19	10	1	26	16	0	0	3	
		1.3	25.0	13.2	1.3	34.2	21.1	0	0	3.9	5 2 6 3 1,4
	Non-Participants	3	9	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		21.4	64.3	7.1	0	0	7.1	0	0	0	2 1 3 6
	Total	4	28	11	1	26	17	0	0	3	
		4.4	31.1	12.2	1.1	28.9	18.9	0	0	3.3	2 5 6 3 1 9 4

Note: Blocks show areas with zero entry where groups are excluded.

Respondents' Husbands. The majority of husbands (62 percent) were supported by either government scholarships, fellowships/assistantships or grants. About 29 percent had current earnings, while only 4.4 percent received money from home.

Of the husbands of participants, 34 percent supported themselves from their current income, whereas husbands of non-participants were financed mostly through government scholarships, grants and fellowships (78.5 percent). None of the husbands of non-participants had any current income except money from home (21.4 percent).

A very limited percentage of the respondents had financial support in the form of grants or scholarships. Following their major source of support--husband's income--the second most important source of financing was their current income (10.5 percent for participants exclusively).

Motivation/No Motivation for Study in the United States

Table 15 presents a summary of the responses to the question: "Do you feel motivated to study in the United States?" This question is pertinent only to participants who are engaged in current educational activities. From Table 15, about 66 percent of all participants indicated that they were much more motivated in the United States than in their respective home countries to pursue educational goals. Twenty-nine percent were less motivated

Table 15. Motivational factors influencing respondents' participation in continuing education.

Motivated?	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Yes	50	65.8	0	0	50	55.6
No	22	28.9	0	0	22	24.4
Indifferent	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
No response	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.3

and the remaining 5 percent showed indifference.

The respondents who expressed high motivation to study in the United States gave the following reasons:

1. Thirty-four point two percent said there were more opportunities and encouragement for the participation of married women in educational activities in the United States than in their home countries.

2. Some participants (8 percent) attributed their motivation to better educational facilities in the United States.

3. Approximately 3-4 percent of the women cited other reasons: flexibility between work and study, a wider range of subjects and disciplines, absence of age restrictions, and fewer demands on family life in the United States.

4. One woman referred to attending school as the best use of her time and a second cited bad weather conditions which made other pursuits less desirable.

5. Forty-six percent were not concerned with the questions, possibly because they were not participating in educational activities.

Participants who expressed less motivation to continue their education in the United States cited high demands of family life (5.3 percent), lack of funding for education (4.0 percent), high cost of tuition (3.9 percent), dislike of being in the United States in general (3 percent), bad weather (2.6 percent), or language problems (1.3 percent). A greater percentage (12 percent) pointed out that their participation in educational activities in

the United States was incidental; they would have been in school at home as they were here.

Support for Respondents' Participation in Educational Activities

Responses to the question summarized in Table 16 were obtained principally from participants. Sixty-eight point four percent of them rated their husbands as giving them the greatest support, 22.4 percent indicated moderate support, 4 percent little support and 2 percent indicated no support from husbands.

Parents were rated by 5.3 percent as providing greatest support, by 13.2 percent for moderate support, by 4 percent for little support and by 75 percent for no support.

Friends were the least significant contributors of moral support for participants' pursuits of education in the United States. Only 4 percent of respondents received great support, 6.6 percent moderate, 4 percent little and 68 percent no support. Three percent of respondents cited that friends were sometimes in opposition to their participation in education.

Respondents' Reasons for Leaving School in Africa

When asked reasons for the break in educational pursuits in their respective home countries, non-participants, in contrast to participants, ranked financial obstacles and home and family responsibilities as the main reasons (21.4 percent in each case).

Table 16. Support for participants' decision to continue education.

	Participants	Percentage	Total	
	Number	(N=76)	Number	(N=90) Percentage
Great Support				
Husband	52	68.4	52	57.8
Parents	4	5.3	4	4.4
Friends	3	3.9	3	3.3
Moderate Support				
Husband	17	22.4	17	18.9
Parents	10	13.2	10	11.1
Friends	5	6.6	5	5.6
Little Support				
Husband	3	3.9	3	3.3
Parents	3	3.9	3	3.3
Friends	3	3.9	3	3.3
No Support				
Husband	2	2.6	2	2.2
Parents	57	75.0	57	63.3
Friends	61	67.8	61	67.8
Opposition				
Husband	0	0	0	0
Parents	0	0	0	0
Friends	2	2.6	2	2.2
No Response				
Husband	2	2.6	16	17.8
Parents	2	2.6	16	17.8
Friends	2	2.6	16	17.8

Participants (33 percent) cited the need to accompany or join their husbands in the United States as the principal reason for discontinuing school in Africa.

A limited number of participants (5.3 percent) stopped school in Africa to seek employment, for lack of funds or because of the war (Nigeria). A greater percentage attributed curtailing their education to home and family responsibilities. Six point six percent left home specifically to go to school in the United States. This group included no non-participants.

Other reasons cited for dropping out of school included a lack of educational facilities beyond level completed or in the area of interest, dissatisfaction with schools at home and limited qualifications to gain admission to institutions of higher learning in Africa (see Table 17).

Sources of Information on Respondents' Plans to Continue Education Prior to Leaving Home Country for the United States

Table 18 indicates that among all the respondents about 78 percent had plans to continue their education upon arrival in the United States. Both participants and non-participants (but more significantly participants) had plans to continue their education before leaving their home countries. In other words, not all individuals with the intention of going to school in the United States became participants nor were all those without such intentions necessarily non-participants.

Table 17. Respondents' reasons for stopping school in Africa.

Reasons	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Lack educational opportunity beyond level completed	3	3.9	1	7.1	4	4.4
Lack of funds	4	5.3	3	21.4	7	7.8
Too many home and family responsibilities	11	14.5	3	21.4	14	15.6
To seek employment	4	5.3	2	14.3	6	6.7
Schooling disrupted by war	4	5.3	0	0	4	4.4
To continue education in the US or elsewhere	5	6.6	0	0	5	5.6
To accompany/join husband in the US	25	32.9	2	14.3	27	30.0
End of professional training	5	6.6	1	7.1	6	6.7
Lack of facilities in area of interest	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Did not meet entry requirements	5	6.6	1	7.1	6	6.7
To join husband and attend school	4	5.3	1	7.1	5	5.6
Dissatisfied with school at home	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2
Got a scholarship and decided to leave home	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Other	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2

Table 18. Respondents' plans to continue education prior to leaving home country for the United States.

Did you have plans to continue education prior to coming to the U.S.?	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Yes	61	80.3	9	64.3	70	77.8
No	14	18.4	5	35.7	19	21.1
Don't Know	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1

Sources of Information on Respondents' Educational Plans for the United States (Table 19)

Husbands accounted for approximately 42 percent of all sources of information regarding respondents' plans to continue education in the United States. Participants (43.4 percent) and non-participants (35.7 percent) alike had this assistance from their husbands. Roughly 27 percent of the participants sought the information themselves--9.2 percent did so upon their arrival in the United States while 18.4 percent obtained the information from magazines and newspapers in their home countries. Less influence came from sources such as the United States consulate in the home countries, parents, correspondence with United States educational institutions and from friends who had visited the United States. Between 1.3 and 2.6 percent of the participants obtained their information from these sources. For the non-participants, the majority gave no reply. Those who did had obtained the information from their husbands or by themselves on arrival in the United States.

Anticipated Employment of Respondents on Return to Home Countries

A high proportion of both participants and non-participants planned to find paid employment on their return to their home countries; 92 percent and 86 percent, respectively. There were 63 percent of the participants who anticipated seeking new employment,

Table 19. Sources of information on respondents' plans to continue education.

Channels of Information	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Husband gave you all the information	33	43.4	5	35.7	38	42.2
Obtained information yourself on arrival	7	9.2	3	21.4	10	11.1
Obtained information from magazines or news paper in home country	14	18.4	0	0	14	15.6
Through the church at home	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Had visited the U.S. before	0	0	1	7.1	1	1.1
Parents encouraged you to use the opportunity to go to school in the U.S.	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Obtained information from home and American friends	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.2
Corresponded with institutions in the U.S.	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
American Embassy in home country provided information	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Have never been interested	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
No response	14	18.4	5	35.7	19	21.1

Table 20. Anticipated employment of respondents on return to home country.

Will you seek employment?	Participants Number	Percentage (N=76)	Non-Participants Number	Percentage (N=14)	Total Number	Total (N=90) Percentage
Will seek employment	31	40.8	4	28.6	35	38.9
Will return to earlier employment	22	28.9	5	35.7	27	30.0
Will seek new employment	17	22.4	3	21.4	20	22.2
Will seek no employment	2	2.6	1	7.1	3	3.3
Do not know	3	3.9	1	7.1	4	4.4
Will go back to school	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1

and 29 percent will return to earlier jobs. The figures for non-participants were 29 percent, 37 percent and 21 percent. Seven point one percent will seek no employment contrasted to 4 percent for participants. Four persons expressed uncertainty about employment and one individual, a participant, had plans to continue her education. The plans are outlined in Table 20.

Part II--Participation/Non-Participation in Continuing Education

Participation in Educational Programs in the United States

Participation, in this context, has been defined broadly as involvement in a range of structured activities both formal and informal with a view to the acquisition of credentials or skills for academic, recreational and social purposes. Seventy-six (84.4 percent) of all respondents engaged in some form of educational activity. Participants were found to engage in a combination of areas, classified into a set of eight subgroups. They included: (1) professional education, (2) vocational/technical education, (3) secondary/high school education, (4) English as a second language, (5) home and family life education, (6) personal enrichment education, (7) recreational education, (8) social interaction education. These areas are described more fully in the section on instrumentation in Chapter III.

The type, extent, objectives and overall patterns of participation of dependent African females in continuing education in

the United States are studied in detail. The general approach is to examine (1) the major area(s) of study, (2) the length of time of involvement, (3) the nature of the program--degree/non-degree, diploma or certificate, (4) the institution(s) attended, (5) the objective(s) for selection and pursuit of the area(s) in question, and (6) the time lapse between arrival in the United States and enrollment in classes.

Areas of Study: Ordering and Sequence of Participation in Educational Activities

Responses to the questions on the areas of study and their sequence have been tabulated in Table 21 and the histogram of general profile demonstrated with Figure 6. Figure 6 portrays the sequence to the third level. The general picture indicates that:

1. The area of professional education ranked as the initial and most important educational activity that participants engaged in. This was followed by vocational/technical education. Professional education accounted for 40 percent of respondents' educational involvement and vocational/technical 17 percent.

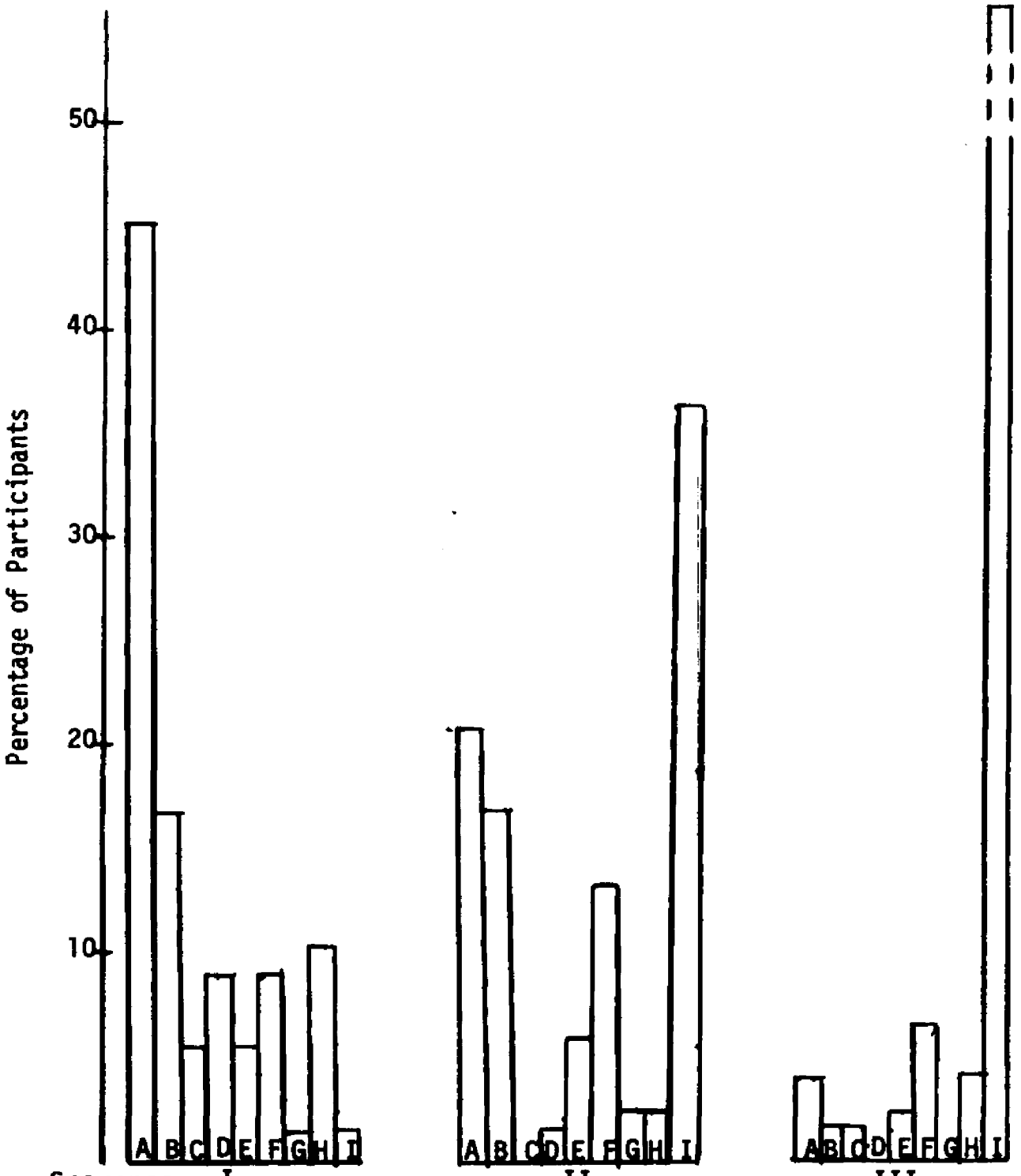
2. Social interaction education, English language classes and personal enrichment education formed a group with almost as high a ranking in terms of the level of participation.

3. Secondary/high school classes and home and family life education ranked fourth, followed by recreational education.

Table 21. Participation in continuing education programs--areas of study.

Sequence of Areas		AREAS OF STUDY: Prof. Educ.	Voc./ Tech Educ.	Sec./ High School Educ.	Eng. Lang. Classes	Home/ Family Life Educ.	Personal Enrichment Educ.	Recreational Educ.	Social Interaction Educ.	Not Applicable
1	No.	31	13	4	7	4	7	1	8	1
	%*	40.8	17.1	5.3	9.2	5.3	9.2	1.3	10.5	1.3
2	No.	16	13	0	1	4	10	2	2	28
	%*	21.1	17.1	0	1.3	5.3	13.2	2.6	2.6	36.8
3	No.	6	1	1	0	2	5	3	2	56
	%*	7.9	1.3	1.3	0	2.6	6.6	3.9	2.6	73.7
4	No.	3	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	68
	%*	3.9	1.3	0	0	1.3	2.6	1.3	0	89.5
5	No.	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	73
	%*	0	0	0	0	0	2.6	0	1.3	96.1
TOTAL		56	28	5	8	11	26	7	13	226

*N=76



A. Professional Education
B. Vocational/Technical Education
C. High School Education
D. English Language Classes
E. Home and Family Life Education
F. Personal Enrichment Education
G. Recreational Education
H. Social Interaction Education
I. Not Applicable

Figure 6. Areas of Study of Participants: Ordering and Sequence of Participation.

4. The total picture reflected a concentration on academic subjects or preparation towards such goals. The "not applicable" category excludes the participation of respondents at the various levels.

At the second level, it was found that about 62 percent of all participants were engaged in different types of educational activities. This second activity was found to be pursued either simultaneously with the first or in sequence. The findings point out that

1. About 40 percent of the participants were not or had not been involved in a second educational activity.

2. Of those participating in a second activity, the sequence was as follows: (a) professional education; (b) vocational-technical education; (c) personal enrichment education; (d) home and family life education; and (e) recreational and social interaction, followed by English language classes.

3. The level of participation in all areas of study was proportionately lower than the first level except for personal enrichment education, which was higher, and vocational/technical education, which remained at about the same level.

Participation at the third level declined to 26 percent, with less emphasis on vocational/technical education. The following observations were made:

1. Professional education still retained first place, followed by personal enrichment classes, recreational education, social interaction education and home and family life education.

2. There were no individuals engaged in two categories, English classes and recreational education.

At the fourth and fifth levels, participation was approximately 10 percent and 4 percent respectively. It was centered around personal enrichment and home and family life and recreational education, with only about 4 percent in professional education.

Participation at the fifth level was very minimal. The only two areas in which there was involvement were personal enrichment and social interaction education, 2.6 and 1.3 percent respectively.

The degree of participation varied at the five different levels. Sixty-two point two percent participated in at least two activities, 25.3 percent in at least three, 11.5 percent in four, and 3.9 percent in five.

A distribution of the major subjects studied is provided in order of frequency of mention. The subjects are listed under the eight continuing education subgroups used in the study:

1. Professional education:

   Business Administration (Marketing, Hotel Management, Accounting, Secretarial Science, Public Administration)

   Education (Curriculum Instruction, Counselling, Child Development, Health Education)

   Social Studies (Social Work and Community Practice, Library Science)

   Medical Science (Biology, Pre-Pharmacy, Public Health, Veterinary Pathology)

   Human Ecology (Diatetics, Nutrition, Home Economics)

   Liberal Arts (English, Linguistics)

   Agricultural Science (Agriculture, Animal Husbandry)

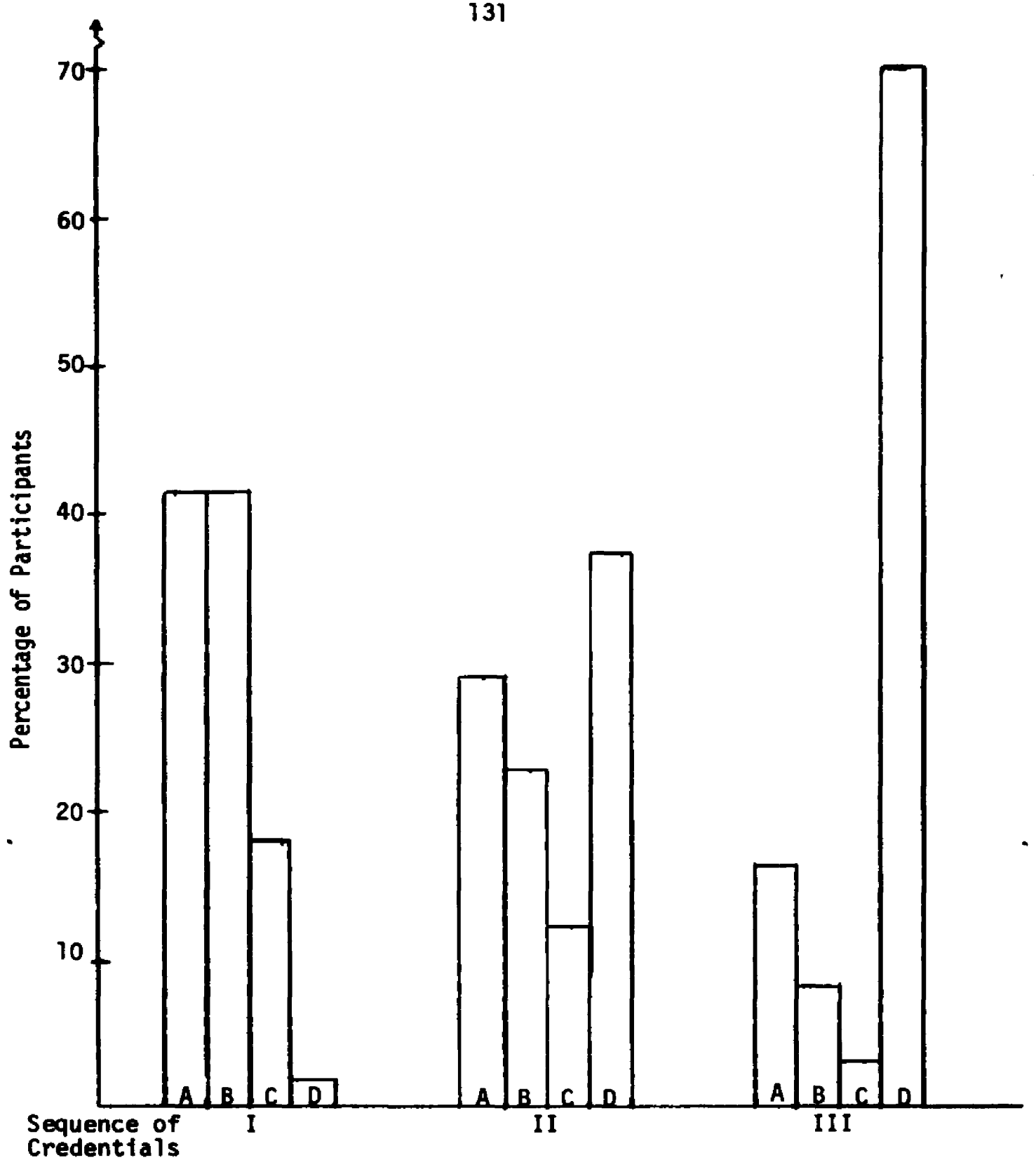


Figure 7. Order and Sequence of Credentials Sought by Participants.

2. Vocational/Technical Education:

   Medical Science (Nursing)
   Secretarial Science
   Sewing
   Beauty Care

3. Secondary/High School:
   High School Completion Classes

4. English as a Second Language:
   English Language Classes

5. Home and Family Living:
   Cooking
   Nutrition and Family Program
   Homecrafts

6. Personal Enrichment Classes:
   Sewing, Driving, Typing, Bible Study Classes, Social Work

7. Recreational Education:
   Physical Exercise Classes, Guitar Lessons, Dancing

8. Social Interaction Education:
   Group Sessions on Home Management and Nutrition
   Language Sessions
   Lectures

Credentials Sought by Participants

Three measures were applied to participation: (1) non-degree; (2) degree; and (3) diploma/certificate. Non-degree was involvement in an activity--recreational, social or otherwise--but not for credit toward a degree. A degree course was equated with a Bachelor's, Master's, doctorate or equivalent, while

Table 22. Participation in continuing education--credentials sought.

Sequence of Areas		NATURE OF PROGRAM			
		Non-Degree	Degree	Diploma/ Certificate	Not Applicable
1	Number	31	31	13	1
	% (N=76)	40.8	40.8	17.1	1.3
2	Number	22	17	9	28
	% (N=76)	28.9	22.4	11.8	36.8
3	Number	12	6	2	56
	% (N=76)	15.8	7.9	2.6	73.7
4	Number	4	3	1	68
	% (N=76)	5.3	3.9	1.3	89.5
5	Number	3	0	0	73
	% (N=76)	3.9	0	0	96.1

diploma and certificate were reserved for areas such as nursing, catering and principally vocational/technical education.

Table 22 and Figure 7 indicate the results obtained.

1. For all those participating in at least one educational activity, roughly 40 percent were in each of the two categories of non-degree and degree, with 17 percent in diploma/certificate programs.

2. Percentages for individuals engaged in at least two educational activities showed differences in ordering: 29 percent in non-degree; 23 percent in degree and 12 percent in diploma/certificate programs. About 37 percent had not participated in two activities.

3. For participation at the third level, the distribution was as follows: 15.8 percent in non-degree programs; 8 percent in degree and 3 percent in diploma/certificate programs. Seventy-four percent had not been involved at this level.

4. The distribution at the fourth level was 50, 40, and 1 percent for non-degree, degree and certificate programs, respectively. Approximately 90 percent were excluded at this stage.

5. The 4 percent of participants who were engaged in a total of five educational activities were in non-degree programs.

Institutions Attended by Participants

Participants in continuing education attended nine types of institutions: (1) church schools; (2) adult education classes;

(3) community college; (4) four-year college/university; (5) Y.W.C.A. and health clubs; (6) language institute; (7) wives/ women's clubs (affiliated with the university); (8) sewing and driving schools; and (9) cooperative extension.

Table 23 outlines the types of institutions attended by participants as well as the sequence in those cases where participants attended more than one institution. About 61 percent of all participants attended two institutions, 26 percent attended at least three institutions, 13 percent had been participants in at least four institutions, while 7 percent had involvement within at least five institutions. Figure 8 depicts the various levels of participation within the various institutions and the changes reflected at each level in the sequence.

A greater portion of participants entered four-year colleges during the first level (34.2 percent) followed by community college (23.7 percent), wives and women's clubs (18.4 percent), and adult education classes (10.5 percent). The lowest levels of participation were church schools, Y.W.C.A. and health clubs, and sewing and driving schools. At the first level, there were no participants enrolled in cooperative extension education.

For the second level, about 38 percent of participants did not enroll in more than one institution and among those who did so, the four-year college was again the dominant choice, followed by the community college. However, church schools, wives and women's clubs assumed relatively greater significance. No participants indicated involvement in Y.M.C.A and health clubs,

Table 23. Participation in continuing education--institutions attended.

Sequence of Areas		Church	Public School/ Adult Educ. Classes	Comm. Coll.	4-yr. Coll./ Univ.	YMCA/YWCA Health Spa Exercise Clubs	Lang. Inst.	Wives/ Women's Clubs	Sewing/ Driving School	Coopera-tive Extension	Not Appli-cable
1	No.	1	8	18	26	2	2	14	3	0	1
	%*	1.3	10.5	23.7	34.2	2.6	2.6	18.4	3.9	0	1.3
2	No.	3	3	11	18	0	0	5	6	1	28
	%*	3.9	3.9	14.5	23.7	0	0	6.6	7.9	1.3	36.8
3	No.	2	1	4	5	2	3	3	3	0	56
	%*	2.6	1.3	5.3	6.6	2.6	3.9	3.9	3.9	0	73.7
4	No.	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	2	0	68
	%*	0	0	6.6	0	1.3	0	0	2.6	0	89.5
5	No.	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	73
	%*	0	1.3	0	0	0	0	1.3	1.3	0	96.1

*N=76

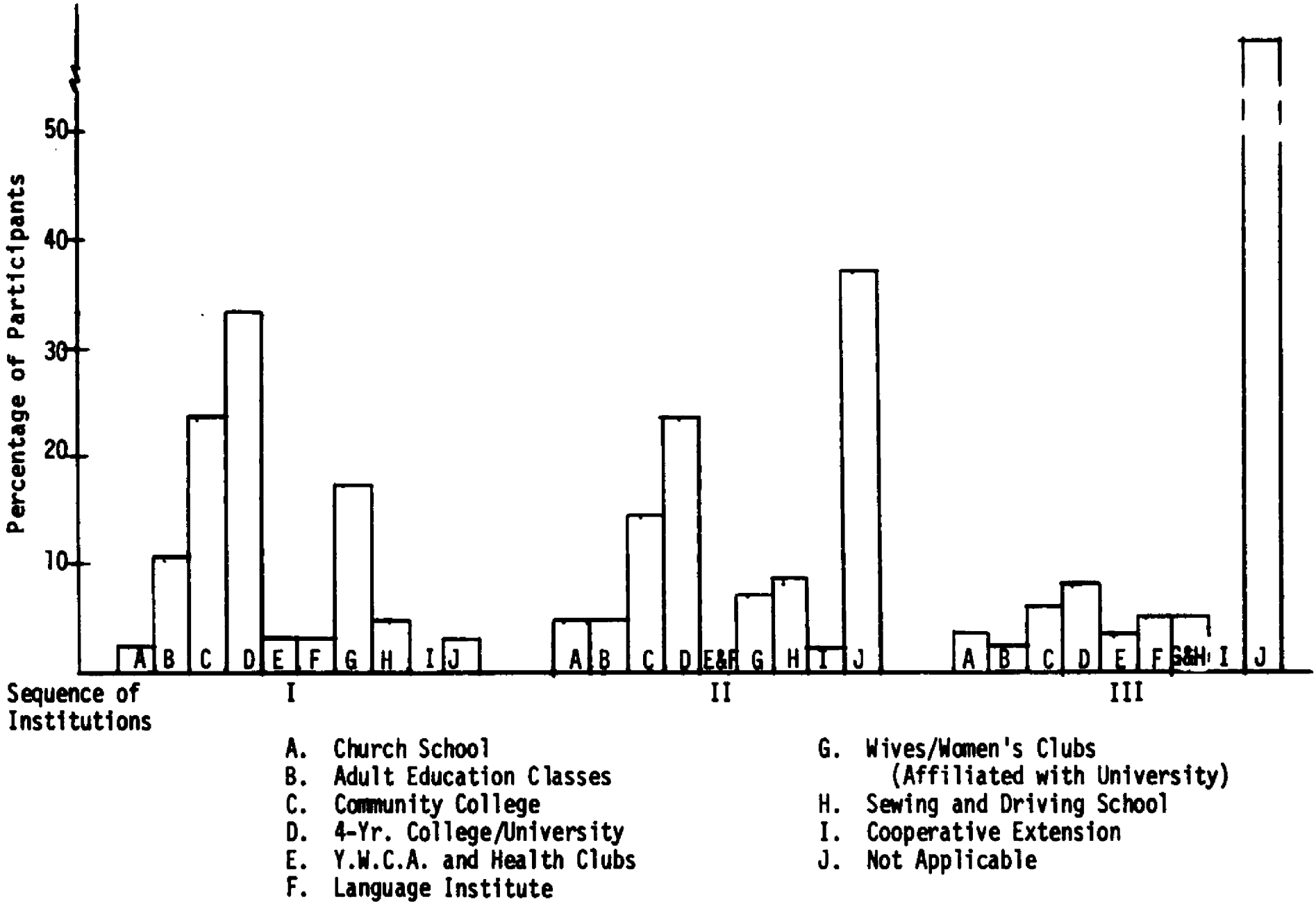


Figure 8. Order and Sequence of Institutions Attended by Participants.

nor language institutes.

There was a marked decline in the overall level of participants at the third level; about 74 percent of all participants were excluded. The four-year and the community colleges remained the most significant. There was no participation in extension programs.

Objectives for Participation in Education

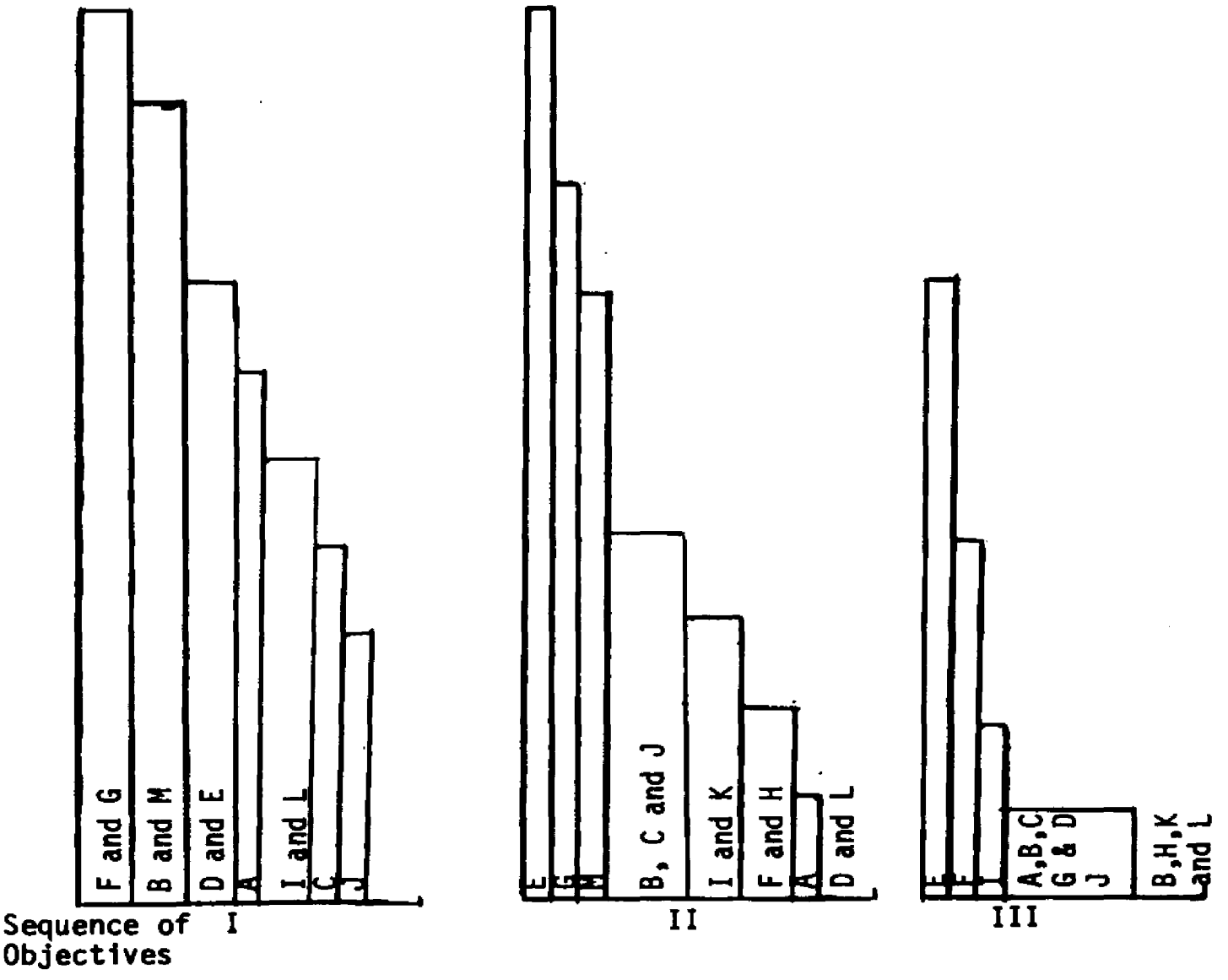
As shown in Table 24 and Figure 9, the reasons for pursuing continuing education activities were many and varied. These reasons were sought for the five levels of participation as indicated by the results presented in Table 24 and the first three levels represented in Figure 9. The reasons stated ranked in this order:

1. To keep busy and gain knowledge and to increase professional competence.
2. To seek a profession and be of service to home country upon return.
3. To prepare for college and acquire skills and to qualify for admission to various programs.
4. To earn a degree or a certificate and to improve English language skills.
5. To engage in social interaction education and prepare for better jobs in respondents' home countries.
6. To supplement family income and strengthen family's religious background.

Table 24. Participation in continuing education programs--objectives of participants.

Objectives Number and Percentage		To Fulfil Prerequisite for Program A	To Seek a Profession B	To Meet Different People C	To Prepare for College or Profession D	To Acquire or Improve Skill E	To Keep Busy and Gain Knowledge F	To Increase Professional competence G	To Supplement Family Income H	To Earn a Degree or Certificate I	To Obtain a Good Job on Return to Home Country J	To Strengthen Family Religious Background K	To Learn English and Improve Communication Skill L	To Be Able to Offer Services to Home Country M	Not Applicable N
1	No.	6	9	4	7	7	10	10	0	5	3	0	5	9	1
	%*	7.9	11.8	5.3	9.2	9.2	13.2	13.2	0	6.6	3.9	0	6.6	11.8	1.3
2	No.	1	4	4	0	10	2	8	2	3	4	3	0	7	28
	%*	1.3	5.3	5.3	0	13.2	2.6	10.5	2.6	3.9	5.3	3.9	0	9.2	36.8
3	No.	1	0	1	1	7	4	1	0	2	1	0	0	2	56
	%*	1.3	0	1.3	1.3	9.2	5.3	1.3	0	2.6	1.3	0	0	2.6	73.7
4	No.	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	68
	%*	0	1.3	0	0	5.3	0	1.3	0	0	1.3	0	1.3	0	89.5
5	No.	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73
	%*	0	0	0	0	1.3	2.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96.1

*N=76



Objectives

A. To fulfill prerequisites for program
B. To seek a profession
C. To meet different people
D. To prepare for college
E. To acquire or improve skills
F. To keep busy and gain knowledge
G. To increase professional competence
H. To obtain a job to supplement family income
I. To earn a degree or certificate
J. To obtain a good job on return home
K. To strengthen religious background
L. To improve communication skills in English
M. To be of service to my country on my return

Figure 9. Participation in Education: Objectives of Participation.

Among the participants who engaged in a second educational activity, the most often cited objective was the improvement of skills (this ranked third at the first level). The percentage of respondents falling in this category (13.2 percent) was the same as the corresponding ranking for the first level. None of the participants cited preparation for college or profession or improvement of English language skills. The ranking of objectives was in this order:

1. To acquire or improve skill (13.2 percent).
2. To increase professional competence (10.5 percent).
3. To be of service to home country upon return (9.2 percent).
4. To seek a profession, meet different people and to obtain a good job on return home (5.3 percent for each).
5. To earn a degree or certificate as well as to strengthen religious background ranked fifth (3.9 percent).
6. To keep busy and gain knowledge or to supplement family income (2.6 percent).

The acquisition and improvement of skill (9.2 percent), to keep busy and gain knowledge (5.3 percent) and to earn a degree or certificate (2.6 percent) were perhaps the most significant reasons given by those who participated in a third educational activity. At the fourth and fifth levels, the acquisition and improvement of skills as well as keeping busy and gaining knowledge remained the dominant objectives.

Length of Time Before Enrolling in Classes After Arrival in the United States

About 72 percent of all participants started classes within six months of their arrival in the United States.

Professional education classes ranked first in enrollment (23.9 percent), followed by vocational/technical (10.5 percent). English language and social interaction education accounted for 9.2 percent each; high school and personal enrichment education 5.3 percent; home and family life education, recreational education 3.9 percent and 1.3 percent respectively.

The results outlined in Table 25 also indicate that about 16 percent of participants enrolled in classes between six months and one year after their arrival in the United States. The trend in participation patterns is similar to those enrolling within six months of their arrival. Nine point two percent were in professional education, 3.9 percent in vocational education, and 1.3 percent in each of home and family life education and personal enrichment education.

A small percentage of participants started classes after periods above two years, 2.6 percent started after two and three years and all went into professional education classes, 1.3 percent between three and four years and all participated in professional education classes, 1.3 percent started classes (vocational/technical) after a period of over four years. The pattern which emerged from Table 25 in general is that most participants started classes within six months of their arrival in the United States and that a greater portion participated in professional education classes.

Table 25. Length of time spent in the United States before participants enrolled in classes.

Time in Years N=76		AREAS OF STUDY: Professional Education	Vocational/ Technical Education	Secondary/ High School Education	English As a Second Language	Home and Family Life Education	Personal Enrichment Education	Recreational Education	Social Interaction Education	Not Applicable	Total
0-1/2	No.	20	8	4	7	3	4	1	7	1	55
	%	26.3	10.5	5.3	9.2	3.9	5.3	1.3	9.2	1.3	72.4
1/2-1	No.	7	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	12
	%	9.2	3.9	0	0	1.3	1.3	0	0	0	15.8
1-2	No.	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	5
	%	1.3	1.3	0	0	0	2.6	0	1.3	0	6.6
2-3	No.	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	%	2.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.6
3-4	No.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	%	1.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.3
Over 4	No.	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	%	0	1.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.3

Non-Participation in Continuing Education Activities

Fourteen respondents (15.6 percent) were found to be non-participants in any educational activity. Twelve of the women in this category, however, indicated they planned to undertake some form of education in the future. The two individuals who expressed no intention of continuing their education gave as their reason the initial objective of coming to or joining husbands to give them the necessary support for their own educational pursuits. Both individuals had completed secondary level education.

Among the twelve non-participants who anticipated going to school in the future, three were not sure of the fields they would enter, three planned secretarial courses, two planned to attend sewing classes, two driver education, and one each secondary education and college education.

Uncertainty was also expressed about the institutions to be attended and the duration of the programs. It seemed that these plans depended largely on the husbands' programs.

Four major reasons were given for non-participation in education. Thirty-six point two percent of the group cited the high cost of out-of-state tuition as a major deterring factor; 21.4 percent attributed non-participation to the burden of their home responsibilities or to their recent arrival in the United States and the need for a period of adjustment to their new environment. Two individuals (14.28 percent) of the group said their priority was the care of their families. One had two

children--an infant under one and a half years old and a girl under five years old. The other had four children ranging in age between two and nine years. One respondent indicated she could not go to school since her F-2 visa status precluded both working and school attendance during the first year of her stay in the country.

Section II
Factors Related to Participation/Non-Participation

The Statistical Test

The chi square test was used in this study as a measure of association between categories of variables. The limitations, results and their interpretations are presented in this section.

The variables fall under four main categories:

1. General demographic variables-- country of origin, place of residence in the home country, religion, age, number of children, length of time spent in the United States.

2. Occupational backgrounds of parents, husbands and respondents.

3. General educational backgrounds of respondents, their parents and husbands as well as the English language background of the respondents.

4. Financial status of respondents and their husbands.

Limitations in the Use of the Chi Square Test in This Study

The analysis of the data by use of the chi square test had certain limitations. These limitations included the following:

1. The nature and size of the sample in the study presented problems in the use of the chi square test which is primarily designed for bigger samples for which observed frequencies are expected to be five or more within a cell. The small size of the sample in the study (90 respondents) and the difference in the number of observations between participants (76 respondents) and non-participants (14 respondents) made an analysis of the dependent variables difficult. This difficulty was in part overcome by collapsing or regrouping variables within some categories. Moreover, it was believed that collapsing variables in this way increased the precision of the test. However, some information of the detailed categories is missed.

Besides religion, which had only three sets of responses, all the other variables reported were regrouped from their original form in the interview questionnaire into three or four categories. The new groupings and the criteria used are presented below.

a. Country of origin -- the original twelve groups were collapsed into three categories:

i. West Africa--Ghana, Liberia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone

ii. East Africa--Ethiopia, Kenya, Rhodesia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda

iii. French-speaking Africa--Cameroon, Zaire

Ideally, the regrouping in this section should have been on the basis of the official language of the countries represented. The predominance of English-speaking countries, however, made this a less useful approach. Thus, English-speaking countries were subdivided into West and East Africa.

b. Place of residence in the home country -- the major consideration in this case was urban/rural differentials and the original five groups were reduced to three:

i. National capital, provincial capital
ii. City, town
iii. Village

c. Age -- besides the under 22 years and over 38 years categories, an eight-year period was used to define age bracket. Six categories were collapsed into four:

i. Under 22 years
ii. (22-24 years)-(27-30 years)
iii. (31-34 years)-(35-38 years)
iv. Over 38 years

d. Number of children -- three categories were developed:

i. No children
ii. 1 or 2 children
iii. 3, 4 or 5 children

e. Length of stay in the United States -- the length of stay varied between two weeks and 416 weeks (8 years). To allow the time periods to be progressively longer, twenty-six original groups were collapsed into:

i. 2, 12, 16, 20, 24
ii. 28, 36, 44, 52

iii. 56, 64, 68, 72, 78, 96, 104

iv. 130, 144, 156, 164, 172, 208, 312, 364, 416.

f. Occupational backgrounds -- the regrouping was the same for respondents, their parents and husbands. A distinction was made between students and workers and between the level of education needed for particular jobs and those which need no such skills. The breakdown follows:

i. Student--high school, university

ii. Midwife or nurse; professional; civil servant; teacher--elementary, high school; teacher--university; priest; researcher; army and law enforcement

iii. Petty trader; housewife; farmer; skilled laborer; caterer

iv. Secretary or clerk; cashier; bookkeeper; bank teller

g. Educational backgrounds of respondents' parents--the categories were collapsed into three groups:

i. No education

ii. Began/finished primary or elementary school; began/finished secondary school; adult education class; has church/seminary degree

iii. Education beyond secondary school

h. Respondents' level of education -- thirteen original groups were collapsed into four:

i. No education; began/finished primary school

ii. Began/finished secondary school

iii. 2-year teacher training college; 4-5 year teacher training college; 1-2 year nursing school education; 1-2 year technical training; over 3 years nursing education

iv. Bachelor's degree; Master's or other graduate degree; professional degree

i. Degree of husband -- this category was regrouped from five into three groups:

i. Bachelor's degree
ii. Master's degree
iii. Ph.D., M.D. or post-doctoral degree

j. English language background -- the distinction was between those with and without English language background and the number of years the respondent had studied English. Six groups were reclassified into:

i. 0 year; 1-3 years
ii. 4-7 years; 8-11 years
iii. 12-15 years; over 15 years

k. Sources of financial support -- the basis for classification was the source of financial support. The original eight groups were broken down into first three, then four groups:

For the respondent's husband:

i. Current earnings
ii. United States or home scholarship; university assistantship or fellowship; foundation grant; employer back home
iii. Own savings; current earnings

For the respondent:

i. Money from husband; husband's help and own earnings
ii. Money from home
iii. Own savings; own earnings
iv. United States or home scholarships; foundation grant

2. Out of a total population of 111, 90 were interviewed and the individuals were not selected through a random selection

procedure. The group of 90 was therefore considered a "non-probability" sample from which it is difficult to make perfect inferences or generalizations about the twenty-one individuals who could not be included in the sample.

3. The small size of the sample coupled with a large number of variables examined also reduces the effectiveness of overall probability of the study.

4. Representativeness of the sample is equally limited in time and in space. One observes that:

a. Representativeness of the sample is limited to Michigan; therefore, inferences or generalizations are restricted to the State of Michigan rather than the entire United States of America.

b. The time period the study covered was short and thus any changes in the economic situation in the United States, the political atmosphere in Africa or any rapid progress of female participation in education make inferences and generalizations less relevant for the future.

In view of such constraints, the significant levels of the chi square test reported in this section are considered in-exact probabilities which reinforce the more descriptive findings of the study. Significance at the levels tested does not imply causality.

Every chi square test reported in the study was done at the .05 level of significance to indicate possibility of association.

Test Results

The four sets of variables listed on page 145 are discussed in this section. Relationships were tested by the chi square test and the results are studied in greater detail. Table references point to tables found in Section I of Chapter IV. The variables studied are discussed as follows:

General Demographic Variables

According to the chi square test, home country, place of residence within the home country, religion and age had little significant relationship to participation in education. The length of stay in the United States had the strongest association with participation in education. The relationship as indicated by the X^2 test was at the .0199 level. The interpretation of the results presented in Table 26 has to take into consideration the large share of respondents from Nigeria (51 percent), the predominance of the African married women from urban areas (82 percent), the dominance of Christianity as the religion of respondents (93 percent) and the clustering of respondents around the 22 to 30 year age bracket (69 percent).

Occupational Background Variables

The occupational backgrounds of respondents and their mothers had the most significant association with participation in education. The significance levels as indicated in Table 27

Table 26. Chi square test of association between participation/ non-participation of respondents and general demographic variables.

Tables	Dependent Variables	Raw Chi Square	Degree of Freedom	Level of Significance*
1, p. 81	Country	1.01829	2	.7968
2, p. 84	Place of residence in home country	1.68385	2	.6405
3, p. 84	Religion	1.18421	2	.5532
4, p. 87	Age	2.22827	3	.5264
5, p. 87	Number of children	1.98500	2	.3706
7, p. 93	Length of time in the United States	9.84410	3	.0199**

*Each test was put at the .05 level of significance to test for association.

**Significant at the .05 level of significance.

Table 27. Chi square test of association between participation/ non-participation of respondents and occupational background variables.

Tables	Dependent Variables	Raw Chi Square	Degree of Freedom	Level of Significance*
8, p. 96	Respondent's occupation	12.82834	3	.0050**
8, p. 96	Husband's occupation	.75477	2	.6857
8, p. 96	Father's occupation	2.63014	3	.4522
8, p. 96	Mother's occupation	6.21477	3	.0447**

*Each test was put at the .05 level of significance to to test for association.

**Significant at the .05 level of significance.

are .0050 and .0447 for respondents and mothers respectively. Occupational backgrounds of respondents' husbands and fathers showed no significant association to participation in education.

Educational Background Variables

Respondents' educational background prior to coming to the United States had the greatest association with participation in education. The relationship as indicated by the X^2 test was at the .0129 level. The education of parents was less significant. Respondents' English language background indicated no significant association with participation. However, this may be due to the fact that most of the respondents were from English-speaking African countries with adequate knowledge of the English language. The degree pursued by the husband indicated no significant association with participation (see Table 28).

Financial Status Variables

Husband's financial status had a very significant association with participation; the relationship indicated by the X^2 test was at the .0009 level. Though the respondent's own financial standing was an important variable, it was not found to be statistically significant. The relationship resulting from the X^2 test was at the .0668 level. It was found to have a larger error probability than the critical level (.05). Therefore, the evidence from the test is not enough to support the fact that

Table 28. Chi square test of association between participation/ non-participation of respondents and educational background variables.

Tables	Dependent Variables	Raw Chi Square	Degree of Freedom	Level of Significance*
9, p. 92	Respondent's level of education	8.70472	3	.0129**
9, p. 92	Father's level of education	3.63686	2	.4574
9, p. 92	Mother's level of education	.18277	2	.6690
13, p. 111	Degree sought by husband	4.14090	2	.1261
10, p. 95	Respondent's English language background	3.60561	2	.1648

*Each test was put at the .05 level of significance to test for association.

**Significant at the .05 level of significance.

there is an association between respondent's own financial status and participation. Table 29 reports these findings.

Table 29. Chi square test of association between participation/ non-participation or respondents and financial status variables.

Tables	Dependent Variables	Raw Chi Square	Degree of Freedom	Level of Significance*
14, p. 102	Respondent's Financial Status	7.16568	3	.0668
14, p. 102	Husband's Financial Status	16.43165	3	.0009*

*Each test is put at the .05 level of significance to test for association.

**Significant at the .05 level of significance.

Section III
Special Concerns of Respondents

The Open-Ended Question

Introduction

An open-ended question was posed to solicit information that the structured questions might have overlooked and to allow the interviewees to supply answers in terms of their own perceptions. The open-ended question was directed principally at the general experiences and reactions of the dependent African female as participant/non-participant in continuing education activities. Some of the responses repeated information already provided; however, they were recorded to indicate the respondent's subjective evaluation of the relative importance of issues that confronted her as a sojourner, wife and/or mother, or student in Michigan.

On the whole, the responses were open, spontaneous and covered several broad areas. The areas of concern and interest indicated by respondents are summarized and discussed in their order of frequency of mention. They are classified under broad subject headings with subdivisions. Following are recommendations which respondents felt should be taken into consideration by foreign student officials and others working to ease the problems African married women and other individuals face during their stay in the United States.

Outline of Areas of Concern and Interest in Order of Frequency of Mention

Finance

1. High cost of living
2. Inadequate stipends and limited access to scholarships

Employment

1. Limited job opportunities
2. Discrimination at work--as Blacks, Africans and females

The American Educational System

1. Broader and better educational opportunities in the United States
    a. Instructional resources
    b. Informality of classes
    c. Examinations
2. Fees
3. Professors' biased attitudes and lack of understanding towards foreign students
4. Few Arican-oriented courses
5. Admission difficulties into professional programs
6. Transferability of credentials

Immigration Policies and the Associated Problems

1. The F-2 visa
    a. Little time flexibility
    b. No employment
    c. Waste of human resources
2. The J-2 visa

Family Life

1. Child care problems
2. Inadequate family allowance
3. Wives as "appendages"

Foreign Student Office

1. Women's volunteer groups
2. Independent students
3. Ignorance about Africa

The American Society

1. Impersonal outlook of society
2. Racial discrimination

Cooperation among African Women

1. Helping the newly-arrived
2. Other action areas

Language Problems

Discussion of Areas of Concern and Interest in Order of Frequency of Mention

Finance

The high cost of tuition and high cost of living in the United States coupled with limited financial resources and restricted employment opportunities open to the respondents were major concerns to women.

High Cost of Living. Unaccustomed to the relatively expensive way of life of Western society, African wives found the American way of life too expensive to cope with. With inadequate stipends and limited access to scholarships or employment, efforts to acquire an education which meant paying out-of-state tuition were considered too great a sacrifice. A few women who relied on their savings from home or on parents' financial assistance indicated that the transfering of their resources to the United States was unwise because the value of such money tends to be greatly deflated. Another difficulty arising in the transfering of funds related to government restrictions which either prohibit or limit the transfer of money from various African countries.

Inadequate Stipends and Limited Access to Scholarships. Interviewees pointed out that the stipends provided by foundations, home governments and universities were inadequate to meet the expenses of the family. Moreover, few scholarships were made available to them as married women, particularly in four-year and junior colleges. Many respondents stressed that if there were an increase in scholarship opportunities, they would obtain higher levels of education which would make them very valuable on returning to their respective countries.

Employment

Limited Job Opportunities. The interviewees whose immigration status permitted them to work expressed concern about the few jobs available as well as the very low wages paid. In general, these women were aware of the economic situation existing in the United States which made a bad situation worse.

Discrimination at Work. As Blacks, Africans and females, respondents felt that the relatively inferior jobs available to them were based on one or a combination of factors--race, sex, marital status and their accent. The employed respondents also remarked that these factors were reflected in the attitudes of employees and co-workers. The problems reported were a constant source of irritation and frustration to many women.

The American Educational System

Broader and Better Educational Opportunities in the

United States. The general consensus of the respondents was that educational opportunities in the United States were broader for the adult and especially for the adult woman than those in Africa. Unlike Africa, where age and marriage often prevent women from participating in educational activities, they were able to acquire knowledge and training in the United States. One of the respondents said, "In Africa, if a married woman is not equipped academically at the start of marriage, the chances of achieving higher academic goals later are very slim indeed." It was noted that the range of choices in educational pursuits was greater and served as an incentive for the participation of many individuals depending on their interests and ability.

Compared with American universities, universities in Sub-Saharan Africa are small and have limited intake as well as rigid admission procedures. The availability of community and junior colleges in the United States is of great advantage to African married women. These institutions offer access and preparation for degree work not possible in Africa. The structure of the university system in the United States provides greater flexibility for women who want to raise families, since time can be taken off from school without the fear of jeopardizing one's college career. In many African countries a college or university career is considered and pursued as a continuous process without interruption.

Instructional Resources. Instructors, professors, books and equipment were reported good and in relative abundance. The size of classes in American universities often made it difficult

for the instructor to know all class participants; however, the existence of smaller class discussion groups where the teacher-student ratio was lower minimized the lack of contact.

Informality of Classes. Unlike classes in African universities, classes in American universities tend to be less formal, and student participation is greatly encouraged. Such participation may count towards one's grade. This approach to learning was described as liberating and beneficial.

Examinations. Examinations within the American system were noted by respondents to be less strict. Generally, examinations were spread through the student's career, unlike those of African universities (patterned after the European system) which were very decisive and came at the end of training and instruction. This arrangement made no allowance for examination options and grade deferment, even in the case of an emergency.

Despite the favorable comments about examination flexibility by many respondents, several others voiced their frustrations about the nature and the way in which they were sometimes conducted and assessed. Some respondents complained that academic pressure was intensified because of the numerous exams and papers to be prepared in a single term. Grades became important from the beginning of the term. Multiple choice and true or false questions were unfamiliar and created difficulties. Grading on the curve was sometimes questionable. Examinations on the whole, they pointed out, were designed for Americans and tended to work against the foreign student.

Fees. As foreign students, the African married women noted that they have had to pay out-of-state tuition which is very high and has steadily increased. Fees served as a major obstacle to the participation in educational activities of respondents.

Professors' Biased Attitudes Toward and Lack of Understanding of Foreign Students. Respondents felt some professors had preconceived notions regarding the capacity of the African woman to participate in college level education. A student's accent may be taken for lack of proficiency in English and general incompetence. There are subtle but persistent pressures on the part of professors and advisors to induce some respondents to engage in less academically demanding areas. Some women felt that in addition to coping with the demands of normal academic work, they had the added task of proving their competence to professors.

Few African-oriented Courses. Most of the courses are designed specifically for Americans. There are only a limited number pertinent to or with African content. This is particularly true with regard to undergraduate courses and general university requirements such as American Thought and Language which some institutions require of foreign students.

Admission Difficulties into Professional Programs. Admission into some professional schools was found to be virtually impossible for some of the African married women, especially in medicine and nursing.

Transferability of Credentials. Some interviewees and

their husbands encountered difficulties having credentials acquired in Africa fairly assessed and equated. Students from French-speaking countries and women in the nursing profession were affected most.

At least five percent of the women experienced difficulty with fair academic placement of their children in the United States school system. They complained about the use of psychological and culture-bound tests to which their children were subjected.

Immigration Policies and the Associated Problems

The F-2 Visa. Most foreign student wives were assigned F-2 student visa status, the implications of which were not fully explained by United States embassy officials or scholarship agencies in the home country. As a result, African married women arrived in the United States to find:

1. Little flexibility. They learned that their stay was dependent on the length of stay of the husband, and the structuring of the respondent's academic pursuits revolved around the length of time required by the husband to complete his studies.

2. No employment. They could not procure employment (part-time or full-time) because of restrictions of the F-2 visa.

3. Waste of resources. Most respondents found themselves in a situation where they had the skill, the time and the need to work in order to go to school and acquire knowledge, but

could not do so without facing deportation orders.

The J-2 Visa. Women with a J-2 visa status enjoyed a more privileged status. They could apply for permission to secure employment.

Family Life

Child Care Problems. The need for and the expense of child care were mentioned as a major impediment in the participation in continuing education activities of dependent African females. A number of respondents had been forced by the demands of child care, both financial and otherwise, to drop out of school.

Inadequate Family Allowance. Many sponsored respondents complained that their allowances were insufficient to cover their needs for housing, food and clothing. In particular, it was noted that allowance for child care, if granted, was barely adequate.

Wives as "Appendages." The women voiced dissatisfaction about their treatment by many authorities including those within the universities as "appendages" of their husbands rather than as individuals. In fact, some academic advisors felt they had to consult with husbands to seek "clearances" for wives' admission into educational programs. In effect, the authorities lacked respect for the privacy and independence of respondents.

Foreign Student Office

Services provided by and through the Foreign Student Office were considered very essential. Respondents made both

positive and negative comments about them.

Women's Volunteer Groups. The African married women pointed out that the women's volunteer groups and organizations working through the Foreign Student Office (for example, the Community Volunteers for International Programs, CVIP, Michigan State University; the International Neighbors, University of Michigan) and other campus groups were very useful and generally sympathetic to foreign students. The programs and activities organized by the volunteers provided foreign wives with a better orientation to American society, expedited the process of adjustment, reduced boredom and afforded an opportunity for a rich exchange of ideas and views about different cultural lifestyles. In addition, the women commended the host family or family friend program. Some wives mentioned the long-lasting and valuable relationships that developed out of these contacts.

Independent Students. The non-sponsored or private students' wives complained about lesser supportive services offered them. In this connection, they referred to lack of assistance in seeking accommodation and in the general process of adjustment during the first few days upon arrival.

Ignorance about Africa. Some of the responses indicated that the officials in foreign student offices were on the whole ignorant about Africa and Africans and such ignorance was a hindrance to effective communication on vital issues. They added that the interaction between these offices and foreign students' wives was not adequate; the concerns of foreign students should be

equally focused on issues that affect them as wives as well as on those immediately related to their academic pursuits.

The American Society

Impersonal Outlook of Society. The less communal and more individualistic and impersonal outlook of American society even in university communities was a source of anxiety to many respondents. The high degree of suspicion, of crime and inhospitality were hard realities with which they had to cope.

Racial Discrimination. This was another pervasive aspect of American society noted by some respondents. It was experienced in almost every mode of life--in public places, on the job, in school and in community life. Attitudes respondents encountered were often a result of ignorance and myths (Tarzan stories).

Cooperation Among African Women

The African married women recognized the issues and obstacles that confronted them during their stay in the United States. They felt they could not change some of their problems on their own initiative; nevertheless, they felt there were areas where African married women acting as a group could be very effective.

The Newly-Arrived African Family. Respondents urged that women who had arrived in the country earlier should volunteer

to aid new arrivals in their process of adjustment. They stressed in particular the need to encourage the newly-arrived wife to participate in educational activities.

Other Action Areas. Baby-sitting arrangements, discussion groups, and events both socially and academically oriented were a few of the areas mentioned where the African married women could be helpful to one another. At this level, institutional demands and restrictions were significantly reduced.

Language Problems

The women who were not very fluent in English experienced little patience from Americans. Even those who spoke fluent English but with an accent had difficulty in communicating. French-speaking African women and the less educated had greater problems.

Respondents' Recommendations

Respondents made several recommendations which they felt could be helpful in solving some of the problems they face as foreigners, wives and participants or non-participants in continuing education activities. The recommendations are outlined below under broad headings; they do not necessarily follow the order or fall into the same categories as the earlier section.

Education

Under this heading, tuition, professor's attitudes and the curriculum received most emphasis.

--Respondents felt they were at a disadvantage competing for the same scholarships as their male counterparts. They therefore advocated increased consideration of their special needs through the availability of more scholarships.

--There was an outcry for a reduction in out-of-state tuition. A reduction in tuition could be made automatic following a year's residency in the State. The practice already exists for American students attending universities and colleges in states other than their own. Respondents believed that reduced tuition would serve as an incentive for greater participation by foreign wives.

They further asked that

--Professors show tolerance and understanding of the situation of the foreign students and encourage foreign students to achieve their maximum potential.

--Professors take into account foreign students' unfamiliarity with American-style examinations and allow examination options.

--Short term loans and Basic Opportunity Grants be increased to help with school expenses.

--The English language examination requested of all new foreign students be abolished for university graduates from English-speaking African countries.

--Courses be made relevant and geared to the needs and concerns of the foreign student's home country.

--Care be taken in the assignment of professors as advisors to foreign students. Poorly selected advisors (those not knowledgeable about student's region or field of interest) can mislead students in selection of courses and in the general orientation of their programs.

--Married women be credited with the right to apply for admission into advanced educational programs (doctoral). Admission should be based on their own academic standing and not on their husbands' programs or intended length of stay in the country.

--Greater consideration be given to foreign married women seeking admission into professional programs such as nursing, medicine and law. Present admission policies are considered too rigid and unfavorable.

Immigration

Recommendations relating to immigration revolved around a relaxation of existing regulations regarding part-time employment and providing correct information about visas before departure from the home country. The interviewees requested that:

--Funding agencies and organizations accurately inform Africans of visa requirements of the United States government. Some American officials working in Africa do not show a full understanding of the implications of immigration policies with the result that families had more immigration problems than they

anticipated. Respondents emphasized the need for greater care on the visa issue when dealing with students with families.

--The requirement for a security deposit of $2,000 before some African wives are allowed to join their husbands in the United States be discontinued. The amount is high and the requirement can be discriminatory in terms of who gets asked to pay the amount.

--The F-2 visa regulation that married women should not work until after a year's stay in the United States be changed and the time reduced to three to six months.

--The immigration office relax rigid policies against African students who struggle to live through meagre earnings on menial jobs.

--Special help be given to women whose husbands are without grants or scholarships. Relaxing regulations regarding employment would enable wives to contribute to family upkeep and to better themselves through additional education.

--Scholarship agencies be encouraged to support wives' education so as to make their stay in the United States beneficial.

Child Care

Suggestions to improve child care services concerned the cost, availability, proximity to university centers and dissemination of information about day care centers.

--Respondents requested more schools and day care centers in university married housing complexes. They felt there was

greater security leaving children in centers run by university communities than with private babysitters.

--The provision of such facilities at reasonable costs would be welcomed by most parents if information regarding the facilities and their associated costs were adequately distributed.

The Foreign Student Office

Recommendations made about the Foreign Student Office dealt with many areas. They focused on assistance from foreign student officials in the provision of more part-time employment for foreign students, better arrangements for the newly-arrived independent student, continued support for women's volunteer groups and organizations and a more organized network of information among foreign students' wives. Respondents urged that:

--Employment opportunities be generated through the foreign student office.

--The foreign student office have foreign students on its staff to reduce the identity crisis of newly-arrived foreign students.

--General assistance in the form of phone calls or letters of recommendation from the foreign student office on behalf of students in search of jobs be offered.

--As a way of minimizing culture shock, newly-arrived independent foreign students be helped through the foreign student office with board and lodging arrangements. Newly-arrived students were sometimes stranded because they arrived during weekends or

for a variety of other reasons.

Respondents also highly commended women's volunteer groups like the International Neighbors (University of Michigan) and the Community Volunteers for International Program who work for the happy and rapid adjustment of foreign students. They, however, identified additional areas in which attention could be directed.

--Day or evening classes. Some of the meetings organized by women's volunteer groups should include courses on homecraft and home management. These meetings should be arranged at times suitable for the majority of wives who are interested.

--Information flow. Information to newly-arrived foreign students was said to be one basic need that could help to eliminate or alleviate many problems that confront the group. The women's groups can enlighten wives with useful information on:

1. Shopping centers--location, prices and the range of goods provided by local stores.

2. Clothing--African married women unfamiliar with the seasonal variations in the United States would be helped by instruction on choice of clothing for seasonal changes.

3. Transportation--bus routes not only to campus but into the city.

4. Health services--medical units for children, access to private doctors and dentists.

5. Area housing--information for students who do not wish to be campus residents.

6. Typing services--names and addresses of typists available in the campus vicinity.

7. Credit union facilities--membership requirements and loan possibilities.

It was pointed out that the United States is a form-oriented society, whereas Africans, particularly the wives, are more accustomed to an oral tradition; therefore, disseminating information through maps, flyers, and so forth, is a procedure that requires time to learn. Very important information should be announced orally whenever possible.

Community Living

Respondents' recommendations suggested an improvement of the social conditions in the university communities.

--Recreational activities for adults were lacking in many of the university married housing complexes. The women therefore recommended improved recreational activities for adult residents.

--They also indicated there was a need to organize classes in married housing complexes for women with low levels of education.

Home Governments

Wives of home government scholarship holders felt they deserved more from their home governments. They expressed an appeal to home governments to:

--Increase study opportunities for wives.

--Raise outfit allowance for the family in view of the seasonal variations.

--Prevent delay in delivery of monthly stipends to their students in foreign countries such as the United States where the cost of living is very high.

Summary

Chapter IV has presented data compiled on respondents from the interview questionnaires. General findings were reported first, accompanied by frequency distribution tables and graphic illustrations. They were followed by a descriptive report of the dependent variable--participation/non-participation of respondents in continuing education activities in the United States. This description was kept strictly within the context of the participation typology discussed more fully under "Instrumentation" in Chapter III.

In Section II, the statistical procedure applied to the data was examined. The chi square test for significance was used and the results reported. Responses to the open-ended questions were classified under broad subject headings and strengthened by respondents' recommendations, in Section III.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

Chapter V is an overview and summary of the study. A discussion of findings and conclusions is included with recommendations for foreign student advisors, home governments and dependent African females themselves. Implications for future research and a concluding statement are also presented.

Purpose of Study

The study attempted to investigate participation patterns of Sub-Saharan dependent African females in continuing education programs within selected university centers in Michigan. More specifically, the study set out to (1) gain information about demographic and social characteristics of the target population, (2) gain information on actual and intended participation and non-participation in continuing education programs, (3) analyze such participation in terms of a participation typology, (4) identify influences generating dependent African females' interest in educational programs in the United States, and (5) examine the relationships between certain variables and participation/non-participation in continuing education programs.

Research Design and Methodology

The general orientation of the methodological framework of the study was formulated with the intention of developing broad postulates which would indicate the types of variables relating to participation/non-participation rather than the specification of determinate relationships between particular variables. Thus, an interview questionnaire was used to solicit information from ninety respondents out of a population of 111 dependent African females who were identified within Michigan. The concept of participation, for the purpose of the study, was defined to encompass any and a combination of learning activities which may be purely academic, vocational, religious, recreational or social. Participation fell into eight sub-groups: (1) professional education, (2) vocational/technical education, (3) secondary/high school education, (4) English as a second language, (5) home and family life education, (6) personal enrichment education, (7) recreational education, and (8) social interaction education.

The data collected were subjected to frequency counts and percentages. The chi square test of significance was also applied to the data and the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program was used for the computation, all of which was carried out at the Computer Center, Michigan State University, under the supervision of the Office of Research Consultation, College of Education, Michigan State University. The results obtained have been tabulated and graphed.

Summary

Summary of review of literature

A review of the literature indicated a complete absence of studies which connect the three concepts--the adult woman, the foreign student and the adult participant in continuing education programs. The researcher therefore attempted to delineate literature in the three categories and tie together the general conclusions as pointers to some of the problem areas which are unique to the target population--African married women.

The literature reviewed pointed out that age, marital and social status are important in the cross-cultural adjustment of the individual. Foreign students are mostly male and are often involved in graduate work. Financial matters are also critical to the effective functioning of the foreigner as student.

With reference to the studies on women, it was revealed that the participation of women in continuing education programs has been on the increase. Self-actualization and economic rewards are prime motives for participation. Non-participation, on the other hand, is explained in terms of the demands and responsibilities associated with marriage and child rearing. The supportive role of the husband was mentioned as being critical for participation and resumption of the woman's education. The popular areas of study for the majority of women are education and nursing.

Research on participation in continuing education indicates that the level of previous education is positively correlated with

participation, and occupational background can also influence participation in continuing education.

These findings from previous research were found to be true in the case of the present study.

Discussion and summary of findings

In the summary, an attempt is made to provide responses to the research questions posed earlier in the study.

A. Social and Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Country of origin

The responses indicate that there were respondents from twelve African countries. Over 50 percent were from Nigeria and, on the whole, a major share of respondents were from the English-speaking African countries. The predominance of women from Nigeria may be explained in terms of the size and population of the country. The population of Nigeria is estimated to be between seventy and eighty million compared with Sierra Leone's which is estimated at two and a half million. The large share of respondents from the English-speaking countries may also be explained in terms of the benefits which competence in English confers on students who come to the United States to study and in terms of the tradition of English-speaking countries to have preference for educational systems similar to those introduced by British colonial governments. In the study, the country of origin

bore no relation to participation/non-participation in continuing education.

Place of residence in the homecountry

Both participants and non-participants (about eighty percent) said that they were from urban areas. This finding supports the view that urbanization is one of the strongest factors influencing female participation in educational activities.[1] However, it must be pointed out that residence in the urban area does not imply severance of relations with the village. Furthermore, it does not tell whether respondents were brought up and educated in these areas. Generally, ties were maintained with the home village through frequent visits or the exchange of gifts. The population had an urban bias, thus limiting any urban-rural comparisons. From the findings, there was no association between place of residence in home country and participation in continuing education programs.

Religion

Nearly all respondents (93.3 percent) cited Christianity as their religion; consequently, it was difficult to draw any conclusions as to the relationship between religious background and participation. The preponderance of Christians in the sample may simply show the close

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[1]See Howard E. Poole, "A study of sex role and learning in a changing society," West African Journal of Education (October, 1971), p. 255. Also, Philip Foster, Education and Social Change in Ghana, pp. 220-310.

association between educational institutions in Africa and Christian missionary activities. From the chi square test, there was no association between religion and participation in continuing education classes.

Age of respondents

About 82 percent of participants ranged between twenty-two and thirty years of age. From the findings of Hine[2] and Erickson,[3] these participants are relatively young compared to their American counterparts. From Hine's study, the percentage of the sample falling in this age bracket was roughly 60 percent. The statistical analysis indicated no significant relationship between age and participation/non-participation.

Children in the United States

The majority of respondents (75 percent) had at least one child; for non-participants, 86 percent had at least one child in the United States.

From responses to the open-ended question, both participants and non-participants referred to limited child care facilities as a major problem for either participation or non-participation in education. An analysis of the responses also showed that there were relatively more non-participants with children under three years of age. This finding supports the expressed need for more and better child care

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[2]Hine, op. cit., p. 105.

[3]Erickson, op. cit., p. 161.

facilities to make possible greater involvement of these women in educational activities. Besides the general lack of facilities, it should also be noted that the expenses entailed in the use of existing facilities tend to be prohibitive. In general, respondents stated that it was cheaper to maintain a child of school age than an infant, primarily because of the expenses involved in the use of day care facilities.

Length of stay in the United States

The length of stay in the United States ranged between two weeks and eight years. In contrast to participants, a major portion of non-participants had been in the United States for less than a year whereas the majority of participants had been in the United States for more than two years. Length of stay in the United States had a very strong relationship to participation in continuing education. The level of significance of the chi square test was .0199.

It must be noted also that the often cited reason for non-participation in education was the relatively short stay of some women in the United States. It can be inferred that familiarity and adjustment to the American environment is a necessary pre-condition to participation in continuing education programs. However, the kinds and levels of participation are not necessarily related to length of stay.

Occupational backgrounds

The findings in this case reinforced to a great extent the tradition of division of labor on the basis of sex. Whereas the majority of respondents' husbands were university teachers or lecturers, respondents were principally high school and teacher training college graduates or elementary school teachers and clerks. With regard to the backgrounds of parents, the majority of respondents said that their mothers were housewives, petty traders or they were involved in housekeeping jobs such as catering, sewing and farming. Their fathers, on the other hand, were predominantly farmers, then private businessmen, civil servants, skilled laborers and army and law officers. The more significant finding was, however, the relationship of respondents and their mothers' occupational background to participation in continuing education programs. The chi square tests of association for the two groups were .0050 and .0447 for respondents and mothers respectively with three degrees of freedom each. The corresponding figures for fathers and husbands were .4522 and .6857.

Findings regarding the association of maternal occupation with participation in continuing education is interesting in that they reinforce the findings of similar studies conducted in Africa. Foster[4] concluded from a study of a cross-section of secondary school students in Ghana that while there were as many boys whose fathers were farmers as those with fathers holding civil service jobs, the same was not

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[4]Foster, op. cit., pp. 220-310.

true for girls. The majority of the girls tended to be from families where the fathers held jobs that demanded a certain level of education. In the study, it is interesting to note that women with mothers who hold occupations that demand a certain level of education were more inclined to participate in continuing education programs.

Educational backgrounds

The findings on this question confirm what has been reviewed in the literature: that the majority of foreign students are in graduate school,[5] and that the educational backgrounds of males are generally higher than those of females.[6] A study of the responses revealed that only 13.3 percent of respondents were college graduates and 47 percent had completed secondary school prior to coming to the United States. The husbands, on the other hand, were predominantly doctoral students pursuing studies more often in the science fields (agriculture, economics, medical sciences), and business administration.

Respondents' parents had relatively inferior standards of education. In the case of mothers, the majority were illiterate, whereas the majority of fathers were secondary school graduates. Seven of the fathers had college and post-college education, and the children of all seven fathers were found to be participants in continuing education. This can be interpreted as an indication of the possible

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[5]Dixon C. Johnson, op. cit., p. 61.

[6]Beverly Purrington, op. cit., p. 45.

influence of parents' education on their children's level of education, as is also revealed in the literature.

The respondents' educational background prior to coming to the United States showed a strong association with participation--.0129 with three degrees of freedom.

English language background

English language background was an important determinant for further participation in continuing education programs. Almost three quarters of the sample had studied English for over fifteen years. English was found to be the major language of instruction at the primary, secondary and college levels. Due to the predominance of respondents from English-speaking countries, language was not perceived as a problem. However, for those from French-speaking countries, the lack of proficiency in English was determined as a reason for non-participation. The chi square test indicated minimal association between respondents' English language background and participation in continuing education. The level of significance was .1261.

Financial status

Husbands' financial status showed some association with respondents' participation in education. The chi square test results were given at .0009. This finding was reinforced in the responses to the open-ended question in which limited scholarship funds, job opportunities and the general high cost of living were cited. These were

given not only as reasons for non-participation but also as the major difficulties confronting participants.

Respondents received most of their financial resources from their husbands though a few mentioned access to grants, personal savings and current income. The husbands were more often recipients of government scholarships and grants and about 29 percent supported themselves from their current income.

Motivational factors influencing respondents' participation in education

An overwhelming percentage of the respondents felt more motivated to study in the United States than in their home country. Their reasons for such motivation were many: (1) superior educational facilities in the United States, (2) greater flexibility in class scheduling and range and choice of study areas, and (3) more encouragement for the participation of married women in educational activities. For those who were less motivated, the academic pressures inherent in the quarter or semester system, the high cost of tuition and the absence of help and other forms of assistance, which would lessen their family and household responsibilities, were prime reasons.

As revealed from the review of the literature, husbands provided the greatest source of motivation and moral support for participation. This finding holds true for the present study. Next in line to husbands were parents rather than friends.

The general desire to participate in continuing education programs in the United States must be examined in the context of the

reasons for most of the respondents choosing to curtail their education in Africa. The salient reasons for the discontinuation of education in Africa were: the need to join husbands in the United States; financial constraints and home responsibilities and the need to seek employment. In view of these constraints affecting participation in education within Africa, about 80 percent of the respondents had plans to continue school upon arrival in the United States. Other reasons mentioned by respondents for the break in their educational pursuits in Africa included lack of facilities in the area of interest, absence of remedial programs as preparation for entry into regular college activities or a general lack of interest.

Sources of information on respondents' educational plans

Husbands of respondents accounted for providing the major source of information on American educational institutions and opportunities to their wives. When husbands failed to give such information, the respondents themselves sought the information either on arrival in the United States, through magazine and newspaper in the home country, or by personal correspondence with educational institutions in the United States.

Respondents' anticipated employment upon return home

The responses show that a greater number of respondents (86 percent) had plans to seek employment upon returning home and that this expectation was an important motivational factor for

participation in continuing education programs. Only one individual mentioned plans for further studies on her return home.

The economic motives or rewards as motivational factors for adult participation in continuing education programs are in consonance with the other studies reviewed in the literature.

B. Participation/Non-Participation in Continuing Education Activities in the United States

Participation for the purpose of this study is defined as involvement in a range of structured activities both formal and informal with a view to the acquisition of credentials or skills for academic, recreational and social purposes. Educational activity was studied under eight sub-groups: (1) Professional education, (2) Vocational/technical education, (3) Secondary/high school education, (4) English as a second language, (5) Home and family life education, (6) Personal enrichment education, (7) Recreational education, and (8) Social interaction education. (These areas are described more fully in the section on instrumentation in Chapter III.)

The type, extent, objectives and overall patterns of participation of dependent African females in continuing education were examined. They included: (1) The major area(s) of study, (2) the nature of the program--degree/non-degree, diploma or certificate, (3) the institution(s) attended, and (4) the objectives for the selection and pursuit of the area(s) in question.

Characteristics of participants in continuing education

Area(s) of study: Seventy-six (84.4 percent) of the respondents were participants in one or a combination of continuing education activities. The maximum number of areas pursued by any one individual was five and there were two such participants. About 40 percent of the participants were involved in only one educational activity.

The initial involvement of the majority of participants was in professional education. It was followed in descending order by vocational/technical education, social interaction education, English language classes and personal enrichment and, lastly, secondary/high school classes and home and family life education.

Professional education dominated the sequence indicating the strong interest and desire of the respondents to pursue degree programs. Vocational/technical and personal enrichment education were the next two popular areas.

The principal subjects studied under professional education were business administration, education and social studies, and under vocational/technical education, nursing, secretarial science and sewing.

Institutions attended and credentials sought

Nine types of institutions on the whole were attended by participants. Four-year colleges were most frequently attended followed by community colleges; wives' and women's clubs were third.

Other types of institutions frequented by smaller percentages included adult education classes, Y.W.C.A.,Health Clubs and driving and sewing schools.

The majority of the women were pursuing degree programs. Following were women who were working towards earning diplomas/certificates. The large percentage of women in the designated "non-degree" programs were in the less structured activities such as social interaction education and personal enrichment education.

Objectives for participation in education

The objectives for pursuing education were numerous. In general, the more salient ones were to increase professional competence; to acquire or improve skill; to seek a profession; to be of service to home country upon return; and to obtain a good job on returning home.

Characteristics of non-participants

Fourteen respondents (15.6 percent) were non-participants in continuing education programs. Of this number, however, twelve individuals indicated the desire for participation in the future. The two persons who expressed no intention of participating explained that their presence in the United States was to assist husbands to complete their studies.

The areas of interest of women who intend to participate later include sewing, driving and secretarial courses. The pressures of home responsibilities, financial constraints and relatively recent arrival in the United States were the frequently cited reasons for non-participation.

Conclusions

Of all the variables studied, length of stay in the United States had the strongest relationship to participation in continuing education. The level of significance was .0199. Participation became a function of time in the country, though the degree or quality of participation was not necessarily related to the length of stay. The relationship of respondents' level of education to participation in continuing education was statistically significant. The level of significance was .0129. In addition, respondents and respondents' mothers' occupations showed association to participation in education. Levels of significance were .0050 and .0447 respectively. This attests to research findings which conclude that the level of previous education is positively correlated with participation, and that occupational background can also influence participation. A .0009 level of statistical significance was calculated for husband's financial status. This indicates the influence and importance of the husbands' financial status on their spouses' educational pursuits.

Other findings and relationships were interesting and revealing though not as statistically significant.

Apparently, educational pursuits were a major preoccupation of the sample during their residence in the United States. Of ninety respondents interviewed, 84.4 percent had pursued one or a variety of continuing education programs irrespective of their previous educational backgrounds or their "lack of motivation" while in Africa. In fact, the great majority had pursued more than one area. The quest for

degrees and certification was remarkably emphasized throughout the study. The reasons given by the 15.6 percent who had not participated in any continuing education were not related to lack of interest but to difficulties resulting from home responsibilities or financial constraints.

Recommendations

Recommendations for foreign student advisors

The following recommendations generated from the answers of the respondents to the open-ended question are addressed to foreign student advisors and policy makers in the area of continuing education in the Michigan area. Foreign student advisors may have some awareness of some of the shortcomings of the American educational system and other problems identified. The concerns expressed and even some of their causes are presented for the serious consideration of advisors and other foreign student officials. The areas of concern are:

(1) Finance--Limited financial resources were a major problem for participants and non-participants. Increased financial assistance for married women in the form of scholarships, job opportunities, possible fee reduction (in-state tuition) and increased family allowance from funding agencies are recommended.

(2) Cultural adjustment problems--Cross-cultural adjustment is a difficult and sometimes painful but unavoidable process which foreign students undergo. The various programs within and outside the various university centers which are directed at assisting foreign

students focus more on the "sponsored foreign student" and less on the wives whose relationship with the universities, especially during their initial stay, is either minimal or non-existent.

There exists a need for a more systematic inclusion of these women into existing programs as well as into new ones designed to attend to their peculiar needs as women and wives. There has been some initiative by foreign student offices at several university centers, with the collaboration of women's volunteer groups, to pay more attention to these needs.

Another area of concern which must be considered in the orientation of these women is what to expect, even remotely, as Africans in a multi-racial society. Racism, either in its pervasive or subtle form, is a reality with which the women have to cope in American society. Therefore, a frank discussion of the subject may be helpful. The orientation, however distasteful, may ease unpleasant experiences and at the same time heighten the pleasant ones.

(3) Immigration--A limited number of wives come to the United States with the intention of going to school, but it is a credit to the society as a whole and in particular the educational system that many more women become motivated to do so. On the other hand, rigid immigration policies and regulations become obstacles to the participation of these women in continuing education programs. The F-2 visa, for instance, which is granted to most foreign wives, often limits continuing education. They are not allowed to go to school during the first year of their stay in the United States and, thus, it is likely the policies of the immigration authority could kill their enthusiasm.

At the same time, the women lose valuable time since, in most cases, they have to pursue and complete their programs within the time of stay of their husbands, which is equally constrained by the time stipulations of funding agencies such as the Agency for International Development, United Nations agencies and home governments

The current immigration policies also restrict aliens from employment and, consequently, their participation in education is limited for financial reasons. The implications of the immigration status of these women relating to school attendance should be explained by the various embassies and consulates which grant visas.

(4) University environment--The interpretation of credentials, rigidities in admission, professors' biased attitudes and the lack of African-oriented courses were found to be the major areas of concern by the women in the study. Responses in the study pointed to a lack of fair assessment of credentials earned in Africa. It was especially true for women from French-speaking Africa and those with credentials in professional fields such as nursing. Difficulties are sometimes experienced in the admission of some women into universities and other educational institutions. The women stressed that there was definite bias against their admission to professional schools, espe cially medicine and business, irrespective of background and competence.

The dependent African females complained about the negative attitudes of professors. They were concerned that the professors at times discouraged them from embarking on the more academically challenging pursuits even before they are able to prove themselves. The

call is, therefore, for increased channels of communication between professors and administrators and foreign student officers who appear to have a better understanding and appreciation of the problems of the foreign student.

(5) Child care--The high cost and scarcity of child care facilities were important considerations that prevented or made it difficult for African dependent females to participate in continuing education programs. It appears that dissemination of information on child care facilities is of major importance. Respondents also expressed the wish that facilities be located close to the university and at relatively low cost.

Recommendations for home governments

Home governments offering student scholarships were mentioned as having an important function to play in ameliorating the quality of life of male students' spouses during the period of residence in the United States. Though personal satisfaction was derived and credit gained for their certification acquired in the United States, respondents indicated that home governments would enjoy the long-term benefits of their academic efforts; therefore, attempts should be made to increase financial assistance. Acquisition of skills and higher qualification would suggest better performance which should contribute positively to national development. Many recommendations were made.

(1) The respondents asked that home governments recognize the potential of male students' spouses (particularly women with high school diploma or more) to pursue further education in a country where

educational facilities are readily available and women are encouraged to participate in education. This recognition should be backed by an accessibility to more scholarships for wives or an increase in husbands' stipends with specific instructions for wives' education.

(2) The wives of many sponsored students complained that home governments provided inadequate family allowance. Their resources were insufficient to fully cover their needs for housing, food and clothing. Provision for differences in climatic conditions was neglected in the financial considerations of home governments. Home governments should do their best to provide more help. The same appeal must be extended to other funding agencies.

(3) Some wives of students charged that they had no previous briefing about the type of society they were coming to. It was, therefore, recommended that home governments provide counselling and information in the form of "easy-to-read" brochures and pamphlets or lectures to male students and their wives. Information should deal with:

a) Nature of the American educational system highlighting in particular:
    i. Tuition--out-of-state tuition for women with student status;
    ii. Pressures from terminal exams and papers;
    iii. The availability of junior and community colleges, with details on the variety of programs;
    iv. Life in a multi-racial society;

v. Possibly some explanation about the implications of economic conditions in the United States.

(4) Respondents urged home governments to negotiate more carefully with the United States government on their official policies for students. They wanted a possible relaxation of rigid policies against students who struggle to live on small earnings. Some African students, non-scholarship holders, need to obtain employment to support their families. The wives, often assigned an F-2 visa status, indicated its limiting effects on work possibilities and educational pursuits.

Respondents urged African governments to try to become more knowledgeable about students' (both scholarship and non-scholarship holders) conditions in the United States. With better information about the American educational system, the cost of living, and of society in general, financial planning may be improved.

Recommendations for dependent African females

The roles of foreign student advisors and home governments in improving the quality of life for dependent African females are obviously very important; nonetheless, respondents remarked that the onus rests with them to learn, adjust and cooperate readily with friends or authorities. Though they perceived areas where change could be effected only with the help or support of American or home governments, a great majority did isolate areas where they can, as a group or groups, help and protect one another. Organizing clubs or discussion groups

where women who had been in the country longer can aid new arrivals in the process of adjustment was recommended. Cooperation of this nature was expedient for both the old and the new.

Other effective action areas identified included baby sitting arrangements, English language sessions for those deficient in English and other social and academic events. At this level, they are not faced with institutional demands and constraints.

The respondents reported that they were aware that some of the services offered them by the university through women's, wives' clubs and other organizations were not obligations but favors. Efforts of cooperation and encouragement among themselves were their business too.

Implications for future research

The present work has attempted to gather systematic information with a view to broad postulates about the participation/non-participation of dependent African females in continuing education. It remains a pioneer work whose merits lie in the potential for further research in related areas. Such research may be either replications for other groups who fall into a foreigner-student-wife typology. There can be an extension to include other groups from Africa or the same group, but with participants from other states outside Michigan; a similar study to be conducted over time to eliminate temporal bias; or a more rigorous study and analysis of aspects of the study to establish more determinant relationships with regard to participation/non-participation. Implications resulting from the present study were:

(1) The present study was restricted to Sub-Saharan Africa excluding countries of North Africa and the Republic of South Africa. Also excluded were married African women in the area without their spouses, as well as single African women. An extension of the study to include these groups would provide the opportunity to discern the variables relating to participation unique to those in the present study. Replication for non-African foreign student wives could also serve to reveal similarities or to emphasize unique problems and orientations.

(2) The population could be extended to include people outside Michigan. In eliminating any biases that may be attributed to the "Michigan environment," an increase in the size of the sample will allow for rigorous statistical analysis.

(3) The study could be replicated either for another point in time or over time. The present study was conducted during a period of economic recession with stringent prohibitions on job opportunities for aliens. This was reflected in the responses of both participants and non-participants with regard to financial resources to pay for education. Also, the designation of 1975 as International Women's Year might have led to heightened expectations which might have been reflected in the responses of the women.

A follow-up study or a replication over time may show biases in the present study and perhaps provide other valuable information.

(4) In the present study, urban-rural differentials regarding participation could not be established due to the predominance of urbanites. Cultural differences within and between countries were not

evaluated as to their impact on participation. These and other aspects of the study could be examined in detail for more useful insights.

Concluding Statement

This study has brought to focus a research-neglected segment of American college and university population--the foreign student wife who strives to meet the educational challenge. While the small size of the research population studied may limit the applicability of the findings, some knowledge has been generated that can contribute to better communication between different foreign countries of the world, particularly the Third World countries, and foreign student offices and organizations of the United States.

The overriding ambition of most of the women--the desire to learn and acquire certificates and diplomas--will hopefully be a welcome and satisfying sign to those women's organizations and groups committed to enlighten women of the world and to improve their ways of life. The realization of educational goals and career aspirations by respondents, in spite of the financial and family-related frustrations, leads to a suggestion for a follow-up study on the utilization of knowledge acquired in the United States on returning home. Availability of such information will double the chance of better services to foreign student wives.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTERS

A1

To: Foreign Student Advisors in selected Michigan colleges and universitie

8th September, 1975

Dear Sir/Madam:

I am a doctoral student in Continuing Education at Michigan State Universit East Lansing. I am currently undertaking research for my dissertation on the participation patterns of dependent African females (wives of African male students) in various educational activities in Michigan. My objective is to determine the factors that motivate or inhibit this category of women in their participation in educational activities in the United States.

To obtain such information, I intend to use questionnaires to interview these women who may currently be affiliated with your institution. Therefore, I am writing to ask to be provided with a list of African male students and their dependents (wives) from which I may choose a representative sample. In addition, I will also ask that their country of citizenship be included.

Your assistance and cooperation in this regard is solicited and will be greatly appreciated. The Foreign Student Advisor at Michigan State University, Dr. August G. Benson, will be forwarding a letter of introduction to you on my behalf.

Sincerely yours,

Daphne B. E. Williams

Daphne B. E. Williams (ms)

A_{11}

To: Dependent African females (wives of African male students in selected colleges and universities in Michigan)

November 25th, 1975

Dear Madam:

I am an African student from Sierra Leone, West Africa. I am currently enrolled at Michigan State University working towards a doctoral degree in Continuing Education with emphasis on women in general and African women in particular.

One witnesses today an increasing number of African women coming to the United States for various reasons. Some come as married women to join their husbands and go to school and others come strictly to pursue their educational careers. Very little is known about African women in the United States generally but, more specifically, about married women and their educational activities.

This is what the study seeks to know. I am interested in the African married woman who is here with her husband in Michigan and who came expressly or inexpressly to go to school. It is hoped that the information gained from this study will be of great assistance to foreign student administrators in Michigan educational institutions in their efforts to plan more effectively to meet the needs of foreign married women on campus.

As an African woman and as a foreign student acquainted with the problems of African wives, I feel the attention and the resources made available to African wives can be increased if the problem areas are identified. I will be visiting your campus from December 15th to 20th, 1975 to interview you and the other African married women who may be around. Can you give me approximately twenty-five minutes of your time? You are assured that all information solicited will be treated most confidentially.

Thanks for your cooperation,

Sincerely yours,

Daphne B. E. Williams

Daphne B. E. Williams

September 4, 1975 A111

To: Foreign Student Advisor

Dear Sir/Madam:

This letter is written on behalf of the study being undertaken by Ms. Daphne Williams, a foreign student from Sierra Leone, working on a doctoral program in Continuing Education here at Michigan State University, East Lansing. In addition to completion of an MA in Linguistics, Ms. Williams has had some special experiences since her arrival on campus, Fall term, 1970. She was selected to represent this university at the White House Conference on Youth held at Estes Park, Colorado, in the Spring of 1971. She worked at the International Institute for Labor Studies in Geneva from October, 1974 to May, 1975, and she was recently an active participant in the International Women's Year Conference in Mexico City. Therefore, she is especially well qualified to accomplish this study.

Ms. Williams intends to investigate the participation patterns of dependent African females (wives of African male students) in various educational institutions in Michigan. This study, it is hoped, will be of great relevance and significance not only to her country or to that part of the world from which she comes but also to Michigan College administrators such as foreign student advisors and other university officials who are concerned with the adjustment and progress of foreign students and their families. With the increasing trend toward admission of foreign students at the graduate level, more foreign students are married and bring families with them. Educational institutions are under increasing pressures to assume some degree of responsibilities for the family as well as the student (foreign and American). These pressures may be alleviated by the institution offering special opportunities for wives or dependents or the wives seeking out at their own initiative such opportunities which this study is designed to identify.

The study also has the potential to offer useful and important lessons to educational planners, both in the U. S. and elsewhere, who are now increasing their efforts to design and develop programs for (married) women to continue their education. Any help you can, therefore, offer Ms. Williams in the conduct of this study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

August G. Benson

August G. Benson
Foreign Student Advisor

AGB:ngs

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions served as a guideline for the interview.

SECTION 1

Background and Family Information

1. What is your home country?

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2. Are you from?
   1) the national capital
   2) a provincial or regional capital
   3) a city
   4) a town
   5) a village
   6) other

3. What is your religion?
   1) christian
   2) moslem
   3) none
   4) other

4. What is your age?
   1) under 22 years
   2) 22 - 26 years
   3) 27 - 30 years
   4) 31 - 34 years
   5) 35 - 38 years
   6) over 38 years

5. Your English language background
   A. How many years did you study English before you came to the United States?
      1) not at all
      2) 1 - 3 years
      3) 4 - 7 years
      4) 8 - 11 years
      5) 12 - 15 years
      6) over 15 years

   B. How would you rate your level of English proficiency?

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor
Reading					
Writing					
Conversation					

   C. If you attended the following institutions, what were the main languages of instruction that were used? (Specify whether foreign or vernacular)

      Primary school _____

      Secondary school _____

      College _____

6. What was your main occupation prior to coming to the United States?
   1) Housewife
   2) Secretary or clerk
   3) Cashier, bookkeeper, bank teller
   4) Midwife or nurse
   5) Petty trader
   6) Caterer, seamstress, florist, housekeeper
   7) Student (high school, teacher training)
   8) Student (university)
   9) Teacher (elementary, high school)
   10) Teacher (university, training college)
   11) Professional (librarian, veterinarian, lawyer, doctor . . .)
   12) Civil servant
   13) Priestess
   14) Private business person
   15) Other _____

7. What was your husband's main occupation prior to coming to the United States?

1) Professional (engineer, doctor, librarian, veterinarian . . .)
2) Civil servant
3) Teacher (elementary, high school)
4) Teacher (university, training college)
5) Researcher
6) Student (high school, teacher training)
7) Student (university)
8) Priest
9) Army and law enforcement
10) Private business person
11) Cashier, bookkeeper, bank teller
12) Secretary or clerk
13) Other _____

8. What is (was) your father's main occupation?

1) Professional (engineer, doctor, librarian, veterinarian . . .)
2) Civil servant
3) Teacher (elementary, high school)
4) Teacher (university, training college)
5) Priest
6) Secretary or clerk
7) Cashier, bookkeeper, bank teller
8) Nurse
9) Army and law enforcement
10) Skilled laborer (artisan, driver . . .)
11) Private business person
12) Petty trader
13) Farmer, fisherman, hunter
14) Other _____

9. What is (was) your mother's main occupation?

1) Housewife
2) Secretary or clerk
3) Cashier, bookkeeper, bank teller
4) Midwife or nurse
5) Petty trader
6) Caterer, seamstress, florist, housekeeper
7) Teacher (elementary, high school)
8) Teacher (university, training college)
9) Professional (librarian, veterinarian, lawyer, doctor . . .)
10) Civil servant
11) Private business person
12) Other _____

10. What is (was) your father's level of education (indicate highest level attained)?

1) No education
2) Adult education class (church school, etc.)
3) Began primary/elementary school
4) Finished primary/elementary school
5) Began secondary school
6) Finished secondary school
7) Began college
8) Has college degree
9) Has post-graduate degree
10) Has local religious or teaching degree

11. What is (was) your mother's level of education (indicate highest level attained)?

1) No education
2) Adult education (church school, etc.)
3) Began primary/elementary school
4) Finished primary/elementary school
5) Began secondary school
6) Finished secondary school
7) Began college
8) Has college degree
9) Has post-graduate degree
10) Has local religious or teaching degree

12. What was your level of education prior to coming to the United States (indicate highest level attained)?

1) No education
2) Began primary school
3) Finished primary school
4) Began secondary school
5) Finished secondary school
6) Two-year teacher training college certificate
7) 4 - 5 year teacher training college certificate
8) 1 - 2 year nursing school certificate
9) 1 - 2 year technical training
10) Bachelor's degree
11) Master's or other graduate degree
12) Professional degree--librarian, lawyer
13) 3 - 4 year nursing school certificate
14) Other _____
_____

13. Why did you stop there and not continue your studies at home in Africa?

1) Lack of educational opportunity beyond level/area completed
2) Lack of funds
3) Too many family and home responsibilities
4) To seek employment and help family
5) Schooling disrupted by war
6) To continue education in the U. S. or elsewhere
7) To accompany/join husband in the United States
8) End of professional training
9) Lack of facilities in area of interest
10) Did not meet entry requirements
11) To join husband and attend school
12) Dissatisfied with school at home
13) Got a scholarship and decided to leave home

14. Which degree(s) does your husband hope to earn in the United States?

1) Bachelor's degree
2) Master's degree
3) Doctoral degree
4) M. D.
5) Post-doctoral, post M. D.

15a. How many children do you presently have?

_____

15b. What are their ages?

1) Under 3 years
2) Between 4 and 6 years
3) Between 7 and 12 years
4) Between 13 and 17 years
5) Over 17 years

16. How long have you been in the United States?

_____ weeks

SECTION 11 - PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

17. Since you have been in this country, what kinds of activities have you been involved in to continue your learning?

A. How long after you came to the United States did you start taking part in an educational activity?

_____ weeks

B. What is (was) your first area of study?

_____

C. Towards what degree, diploma or certificate are (were) you working?

_____

D. For how long have you been involved or were you involved in this area?

_____

E. What institution are you attending or did you attend?

_____

F. What is (was) the main reason for pursuing this area?

1) To fulfill prerequisite for program
2) To seek a profession
3) To meet different people
4) To prepare for college or profession
5) To acquire or improve skill
6) To keep busy and gain knowledge
7) To increase professional competence
8) To supplement family income
9) To earn a degree or certificate
10) To obtain a good job on return to home country
11) To strengthen family's religious background
12) To learn English and improve communication in American English
13) To be able to offer services to home country

18 A. What other areas have you studied?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

B. Towards what degree, diploma or certificate are (were) you working?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

C. For how long have you been involved or were you involved in this (these) area(s)?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

D. What institution(s) are you attending or did you attend?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

E. What is (was) the main reason for pursuing this (these) area(s)?

1) To fulfill prerequisite for program
2) To seek a profession
3) To meet different people
4) To prepare for college or profession
5) To acquire or improve skill
6) To keep busy and gain knowledge
7) To increase professional competence
8) To supplement family income
9) To earn a degree or certificate
10) To obtain a good job on return to home country
11) To strengthen family's religious background
12) To learn English and improve communication in American English
13) To be able to offer services to home country
14) Other _____

_____

19. How much support did you have from each of the following in your decision to continue your education in the United States?

	Great Support	Moderate Support	Little Support	No Support
Husband				
Parents				
Neighbor				
Friends				
Church				
Self				
Other				

20. Are (were) you more motivated to study in the United States than you were in Africa?

_____Yes _____No

21. If yes, what is (are) the main reason(s) for this motivation?

1) More opportunities and encouragement for study here for married women
2) Better facilities for pursuit of studies in the United States
3) Combination of work and studies in the United States
4) Wider range of subjects
5) Nothing "better" to do with time
6) Age is no restriction; more comfortable in school here due to the presence of other older people
7) System of education is more flexible and accommodating
8) Less demands on family life so more time and money to study
9) Bad weather forces one to stay indoors and study
10) Other_____

22. If no, what is (are) your main reason(s) for lack of motivation?

1) No fees for higher education at home
2) Would attend school either in United States or at home
3) Pace of studies is too fast in the United States
4) Lack of good child care facilities
5) Value of education in United States is less
6) High demands of family upkeep in United States
7) Language problem
8) Do not like being in the United States in general
9) Weather is a problem
10) Cost of living is too high
11) Other_____

_____

23. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements about educational classes in the United States?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. More suitable times for classes than in your country				
2. More variety of classes than in your country				
3. Better teaching methods than in your country				
4. Easier courses here than in your country				
5. Better courses relating to your country				
6. Other				

SECTION III - NON-PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

24. If you have not taken part in any educational activity in the United States, do you plan to take part later?

_____Yes _____No _____Unsure

25. If yes, what area(s) do you plan to study?

_____

_____

_____

26. Toward what degree(s), diploma(s) or certificate(s) will you work?

_____

_____

_____

27. What will be the length of time in which you will be involved?

_____ weeks

28. What institution(s) will you attend?

_____

29. What will be your main reason for pursuing this (these) area(s)?

1) To fulfill prerequisite for program
2) To seek a profession
3) To meet different people
4) To prepare for college or profession
5) To acquire or improve skill
6) To keep busy and gain knowledge
7) To increase professional competence
8) To supplement family income
9) To earn a degree or certificate
10) To obtain a good job on return to home country
11) To strengthen family's religious background
12) To learn English and improve communication in American English
13) To be able to offer services to home country
14) Other _____

30. What is (are) the reason(s) which may explain why you have <u>not</u> been able to take part in an educational activity?

1) Do not have credentials here
2) High costs (tuition, books)
3) Too many home responsibilities
4) Have just arrived and not well-adjusted
5) Visa problems
6) Language problems
7) Financial problems
8) Other _____

SECTION IV - GENERAL INFORMATION

31. What is your husband's source of financial support while in school?

1) Money from home
2) U. S. or home scholarship
3) University assistantship or fellowship
4) Own savings
5) Current earnings
6) Foundation grant
7) Employer back home
8) Other_____

32. What is your source of financial support while in the United States?

1) Money from husband
2) Money from home
3) U. S. or home scholarship
4) University assistantship or fellowship
5) Own savings
6) Own earnings
7) Husband's financial assistance and your own earnings
8) Foundation grant
9) Other_____

33. Before leaving home, did you have plans to continue your education when you arrived in the United States?

_____Yes _____No _____Unsure

34. If yes, how did you first become interested in these programs?

1) Husband gave you all the information
2) Obtained information yourself on arrival
3) Obtained information from magazine or newspaper in home country
4) Obtained information from home and American friends
5) Had visited the United States before so got the information
6) Parents encouraged you to use the opportunity to go to school in the United States
7) Corresponded with institutions in the United States
8) American embassy in home country provided briefing on United States educational system

9) Obtained information through the church at home
10) Have never been interested
11) Other_____
_____

35. If you decided to continue your education after arriving, what factors contributed to such a decision?

1) Encouragement from husband
2) Encouragement from friends
3) Encouragement from family
4) New educational opportunities
5) T.V. and radio information
6) No job opportunities, bored, so decided to go to school
7) Other_____
_____
_____

36. Will you seek employment when you return to your country?

1) Will seek employment
2) Will return to earlier employment
3) Will seek new employment
4) Will seek no employment
5) Will go back to school
6) Do not know
7) Other_____
_____
_____

37. Would you like to make additional comments and suggestions about your stay in the United States as an African, a wife and/or mother, and/or student? These comments may be helpful to those concerned with foreign students and their adjustment process in the United States.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

GOOD LUCK AND THANKS FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

APPENDIX C

TABLES

Females' Highest Level of Education Attained in Selected African Countries (C_1).

Country (Year)	Population by Age Group			
	Age Group	Total No.	Female Population	Female Population % of Tot
Ghana (1960)	15-24	1,128,100	582,570	51.6
	25-54	2,164,000	1,054,880	48.7
	55+	438,580	203,790	46.4
	25+	2,602,580	1,258,670	48.3
Kenya (1962)	15-24	1,419,629	765,098	53.8
	25-34	1,134,672	637,005	56.1
	35+	1,753,830	833,179	47.5
	25+	2,888,502	1,470,184	50.8
Lesotho (1966)	15-24	141,431	85,420	60.3
	25-34	91,669	62,350	68.0
	35-64	187,984	112,022	59.5
	65+	54,277	35,340	65.1
	25+	333,930	209,712	62.8
Liberia (1962)	15-24	167,655	93,650	55.8
	25+	471,049	235,420	49.9
Malawi (1966)	25-34	531,627	304.485	57.2
	35-64	847,256	454,652	53.6
	65+	161,161	79,357	49.2
	25+	1,540,044	838,494	54.4
Uganda (African Pop.) (1959)	16-45	2,853,000	1,494,000	49.7
	45+	780,000	36,500	46.7
Zaire (African Pop.) (1955)	15-24	1,853,839	1,013,708	54.6
	25-34	2,322,653	1,296,323	55.8
	35-54	2,833,236	1,424,982	50.2
	55+	711,766	338,391	47.5
	25+	5,867,655	3,059,696	52.1
Zambia (1969)	25-34	545,314	303,921	55.7
	35-64	842,597	401,313	47.6
	65+	88,673	39,699	44.7
	25+	1,476,584	744,933	50.4

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le ion as otal	% With No Schooling		1st Level				2nd Level		Post Secondary	
			Incompleted		Completed					
	% tal	% Female	% Total	% Female	% Total	% Female	% Total	% Female	% Total	% Fema
6	4.2	79.0	32.3	19.5			2.9	1.1	0.6	0.
7	4.9	93.6	13.0	5.7			1.3	0.4	0.8	0.
4	2.7	96.9	7.5	2.9			0.0	0.1	0.0	0.
3	6.2	94.1	12.1	5.3			1.1	0.3	0.7	0.
8	6.6	70.0	40.2	28.1			3.0	1.8	0.2	0.
1	8.9	82.4	28.1	16.2			2.6	1.1	0.4	0.
5	2.7	91.8	15.4	7.0			1.6	1.0	0.3	0.
8	7.3	87.8	20.4	11.0			2.0	1.1	0.3	0.
3	8.3	7.1	80.4	91.8			1.3	1.1	0.0	0
0	3.2	14.1	74.0	84.2			2.8	1.7	0.1	0
5	0.3	32.8	58.2	66.6			1.4	0.6	0.1	0
1	4.2	75.5	25.4	24.4			0.4	0.1	0.0	0
8	1.1	34.4	57.2	64.7			1.6	0.9	0.1	0
8	1.4	91.9	8.5	3.1	7.1	3.4	2.5	1.3	0.4	0
9	2.3	96.5	2.1	0.8	2.9	1.4	1.7	0.8	1.0	0
2	2.4	74.2	36.8	25.7			0.9	0.1	0.0	0
6	0.0	80.4	30.8	19.5			0.2	0.0	0.0	0
2	6.4	85.5	23.6	14.5			0.0	0.0	0.0	0
4	7.5	78.7	32.1	21.3			0.4	0.1	0.0	0
7	1.0	83.5	17.6	11.6	6.9	3.3	3.2	1.1	0.0	0
7	0.2	96.4	7.8	2.7	1.9	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.0	0
6	0.0	90.2	26.3	0.5	2.4	0.7	2.4	0.7	2.4	0
8	2.8	97.5	14.1	0.2	1.2	0.1	1.2	0.1	1.2	0
2	1.8	99.3	7.2	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.5	0
5	3.4	99.9	1.5	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0
1	0.0	98.6	9.2	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.7	0
7	2.6	67.9	31.2	25.6	10.4	3.9	3.7	0.8	0.7	0
6	0.3	85.8	23.2	11.5	4.6	1.0	1.1	0.3	0.5	0
7	7.8	94.8	10.0	3.8	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.1	0
4	0.9	79.0	25.4	16.8	6.5	2.2	2.0	0.5	0.6	0

(Ref. 1

Estimated Female Enrollment by Level of Education (C_2).
(Thousands)

		1st Level			2nd Level		3rd Level		
	Year	(M) Total	(M) Total Female	Female as % of Total	(M) Total Female	Female as % of Total	(M) Total Female	Female as % of Total	% of Total
Africa (Excluding Arab States)	1960	5655	5286	38	357	34	12	21	37
	1965	7848	7309	39	518	32	21	21	38
	1970	10916	9983	41	900	33	33	20	40
	1971	11717	10681	41	997	34	39	21	40
	1972	12512	11370	41	1098	35	44	22	41
Developing Countries	1960	53880	45951	39	7369	31	560	28	38
	1965	78896	64683	40	13152	34	1060	29	39
	1970	103026	82761	42	18436	35	1829	30	40
	1971	107539	85858	42	19617	35	2064	30	40
	1972	112515	88810	42	21399	36	2306	31	40
Developed Countries	1960	87753	60956	49	23434	48	3363	35	48
	1965	103731	66821	49	31301	48	5609	38	48
	1970	113257	69582	49	35128	49	8547	41	48
	1971	113863	68928	49	35939	49	8996	41	48
	1972	115019	67970	49	37467	49	9582	42	48

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(Ref. p. 21)